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Social Life**

**Corporate Governance in
Nigerian Financial
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Web Site: www.stclements.edu

Email: admin@stclements.edu

EDITORIAL TEAM: Editor: Dr John Potter
Deputy Editor: Dr Bruce Duncan

CONTRIBUTIONS: Contributions should be forwarded to Dr John Potter at
paracamp@senet.com.au

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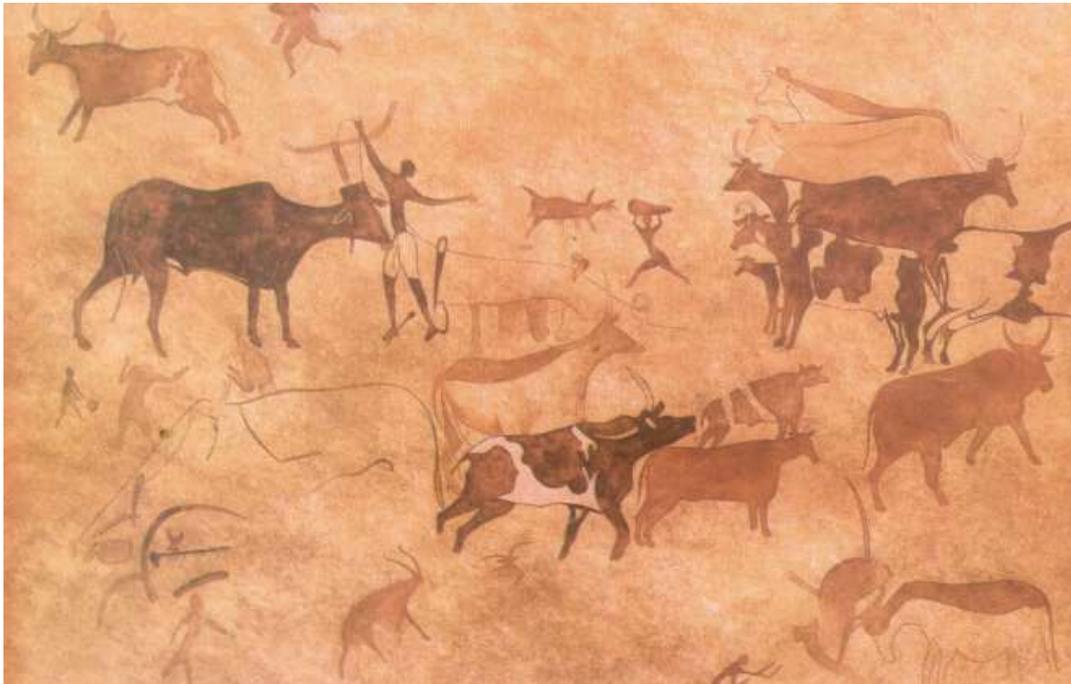
**Veritas* is Latin for truth, reality.

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Cattlemen herding cows, Bulls Phase (Acacos Tassili)

Photo: Henry Loht Group

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OLD LIBYAN CULTURAL AND SOCIAL LIFE

Dr Abdullaziz Saeed Swei*

This paper is an attempt to uncover the attributes of the ancient Libyan civilization between the period when it was housed in mountain caves during the rainy Pleistocene era and the period when Libyans lived under the Roman colonizers. The Libyan mountain caves explored by modern excavations have recorded for prosperity the inherent features of the early Libyan civilization. We consider it to be a unique local culture, unaffected by others. Rather, on the evidence provided by many foreign investigators who have surveyed the archaeological sites, we take it that Libyan culture has been an influence on other cultures. Our knowledge of early Libya is limited by the fact that many of the archeological sites remain submerged under the ground due to the sand dunes accumulated by the desertification and climate change that has plagued the south of Libya since the beginning of the dry and hot Holocene era until now.

Clearly, later Libyan culture has been influenced by foreign occupation but in many respects it has retained its old identity. The Punic civilization established by the Phoenician Canaanites in the North African, with its centre at Carthage, might be considered as an alien civilization that has taken root but become Libyan through the full integration of the ancient Libyans and the Phoenicians between the twelfth century BC and the fall of Carthage in 146 BC. Later occupations, the Greeks invasion in the region of Cyrenaica and the legions of the Roman army after the fall of Carthage have left their marks. After that the Vandals entered the country and the history of the region has taken another path, different from all previous periods.

Obviously, we have not given the ancient Libyan civilizations history its full right through this brief narrative but, hopefully we have provided points of interest for future research. Libya has been not only a crossing of civilizations between the East and West, as some Arabic researchers have argued, but also a focal point of civilization between North and South. When we talk about the history of ancient civilizations in Libya, we do not mean in any way to compromise neighboring countries that nowadays take the names and titles of what were different places in the past. Rather our intention has been, in good faith, to fill the spaces left and to complete the deficiencies which have been overlooked, so others can write an integrated history without any voids or shortcomings. We have, hopefully, highlighted the contribution of the ancient Libyans to the enrichment of human civilization in general and Arab culture in particular.

DRAWINGS, ORNAMENTS AND MUSIC

Old people on mountains like Acacus and Tadrart in southern Libya were not satisfied with making stone tools and weapons; they also turned their attention to the Fine Arts. These days we build universities, institutes and schools for them, and provide for our students a range paint colors, dyes, brushes, knives and surfaces of paper, wood, cloth and others. Contrasted with this, the Acacus inhabitation found all of their tools in their own environment near their caves. Their paintings were not affected by surrealism, classic, abstractionism, cubism or any other fine arts schools; they used their own primitive thoughts, instinct and intuition.

Recent chemical analyses have shown that the dyes, inks and paints used by the early Libyans were produced from a mixture of iron-hydroxide merged with a viscous liquid which maintained the brightness of the colors. Some people have suggested that the viscous liquid could have been extracted from the fat of animals, stalks of plants, or the white of eggs. Other research suggests that some dyes contained a protein like milk-casein¹. In addition to chemical mixtures some experts have claimed that there have been other natural materials caused by water flowage which gave the paintings a layer of white crystal plaster. But others have argued that that white crystal plaster may have been included by the drawers.

The painting tools were natural products like animals' hyraxes and bird feathers. They appear to have been as accurate as those used by modern artists. With them the Old Libyans produced thousands of colored pictures, currently dated by carbon dating* between the 3000 and 7000 years BC.

The age of agriculture and pottery in Southern Libya began in 7000 BC. Pottery sculptured with lines and dots has been found in Acacus area and dated at 7130 BC². The high percentage of cattle bones that contain characteristics of domestication together with the rock art of the times suggests that this era is also characterized by economic specialization. Owners of cattle herds accomplished rock paintings which show their dependence on a pastoral way of life.

The emergence of ceramic is a natural expression typical of an expansion at the level of physical and spiritual life and social relations, with the assurance that that expansion was local³. It seems that the population of Acacus developed pottery pots from round typical formation to complex shapes. In one of the layers of excavations, in the valley Athaal in the Acacus mountains, were found the head of a gazelle in grilled pottery with lots of broken pieces and stone tools, which was dated at 3680 years BC.

*The dates given in this article are all by Carbon Dating methods

Also in Acacus valley they found pottery in the shape of a dog (Fig.1)⁴.



Fig.1: A grilled pottery of a gazelle head and a dog: drawings by Firaf Gaguirn

The sculptures better known in Libya were generally related to a later era. Perhaps the most important Libyan sculptures are those found in Guerza to the south-east of the city of Tripoli. Specialists see these sculptures as local work representing an intermediate stage between the old desert patterns and the Romanian inscriptions⁵. The German Duveyrier discovered, near Ghadames, South-West Tripoli, panels inscribed with a scene showing a girl sitting on a chair and holding a palm or ostrich feather; behind her is a young female servant perhaps leading a religious ritual in front of a god⁶.

HAIRDRESSING

The ancient Egyptian documents show the interests of the Old Libyans in hairdressing. Women would grow their hair to cover their shoulders and down to their chests. Men's hair was shorter just covering the brow, with a cue dangling beside the temple, sometimes decorated with snails and ostrich feathers. Northern tribes like the Macae, Machlyes and Auseans shaved the head completely except for a long cue beside the temple. There is evidence also that the phenomenon of wigs also prevailed.

Since ancient times the old tribal chiefs were distinguished by having long and pointed beards, but it would be medium and surrounding the face with a small mustache to the public. So the method of coordinating the beard and mustache of the ancient Libyans were different from other peoples who launched their beards like Syrians and Negroes⁷.

These things are what the Egyptian documents have shown for the Old Libyans living in the Delta, but the stony drawings found in Tassili Panel in Southern Libya by the Frenchman Henry Lhote show the Libyan women's interest in makeup and hairdressing. These show people busy decorating each other, perhaps in preparation for a party in the painting of the bull's phase⁸.

CLOTHING

Concerning clothing and accessories, the ancient Libyans, men and women adorned themselves with long collars around the neck coming down to reach the chest. Women decorated themselves with wide bracelets around the wrist and around the ankles. Some Egyptian stelae showed the Meshwash Libyan tribe wearing a headscarf, which resembles the Arab *Kuffiyeh*, fastened at the back with a node instead of the Arabic head-cord *Akal*¹⁰. The Meshwashian woman wore a dress quilt from the skin of goat stripped of hair and crimson-colored in a stark dye. This kind of dress was borrowed by the Greeks and used to adorn the goddess Athena's statue, which was named by Herodotus as Pallas. He said that it had come from Libya and that the Greeks called the armor *ægis*¹¹, i.e. the Libyan woman's dress made from goat skin.

The men sometimes wore two bands crossed on the chest united on the back, and had a belt around the waist to install a small semi-circular quiver on the side, to tighten the apron and to install the long tail backwards. The women wore the same clothes as the men, the pants having a belt installed at the knees, but without tails¹². It is distinctive of clothing in Libya that there was a long robe with a shoulder strap, while the rest remains naked. This seems to be similar to the Libyan dress called *Al-Jard* made in wool, and to the Roman dress which had been previously borrowed from the Greeks.

Strabo said that some Libyans in Western Carthage 'decorated their appearance with hairstyles, beards and gold jewelry, cleaning their teeth and clipping their nails. They were rarely seen touching each other in the streets in order to stay as they were, keeping their hair decorated without being touched'¹³. Make-up used by the Old Libyans included tattooing. The best evidence of the tattoo is the pictures of the Libyan tribal chiefs in Tal-al-Amarna on the tomb of Siti 1st (19th dynasty) and the palace of Habou City related to Ramses III. Here the Libyans appear with many forms of tattoo on their shoulders, hands, feet and paunches¹⁴. It is worth mentioning that the tattoo is usually close to the current customs of Libyans, men and women, with differences in shapes and positions.

Old Libyans used to wear sandals in their feet. A text in the Karnack written during the period of Merneptah (19th dynasty) records his victory in the Libyans saying: "The Libyan Leader (Meray) escaped leaving his sandals"¹⁵. However, some Libyans appear in other documents barefoot.

MUSIC AND DANCE

It is useful to know that man since early times used music in the same sense of fun we have today. The oldest musical instrument known in the world was discovered in the cave of Haa-fteah near Derna city east Libya, it was a flute made of a bird's bone dated at 70000 or 80000 years ago¹⁶. The following image is a

flute from the Neanderthal period, it could be the same instrument found in Libya, or the Libyan flute itself (fig.2)¹⁷, this discovery indicates that mankind of that time used the same scale of the seven musical notes we use today.



Fig.2: A Libyan flute dated between 7000 and 8000 years old

Herodotus said: ‘It seems to me also that the cries of joy in religious ceremonies may have been heard here for the first time, with the Libyan women performing well as usual’¹⁸. Perhaps he refers to the women of the Garamants tribes who used to launch those happiness sounds, which can be noticed in Twareg weddings today.

It is well known that the drum is the oldest musical instrument. The Southern Libyan population has many kinds of drums; they use them to express themselves in their wedding ceremonies.

Concerning reed-pipe instruments, the Old Libyans began with one pipe with a number of holes, and later developed a two pipe instrument called a “Magrouna” (= doubled or dual)¹⁹. These reed-pipes were used in both Siwa and Augila. Perhaps they were made from wood (cane plants most likely) or from the bones of large birds²⁰. Egyptian texts reference a musical instrument with strings, the “rababa” (= rebeck). Libyans used these in public concerts and festivals²¹. Also found in Libya were a rababa made from the horns of a type of antelope. Some types of reed-pipes made from animal’s horns are still in use in all Libya today.

The dance seems to have arisen amongst Old Libyans while hunting. Perhaps they used these movements to push animals towards tricky places to be hunted easily, and over time the physical movements became dances performed as a form of entertainment; dances representing hunting scenes, etc. Undoubtedly, nimble animals have inspired such movements, along with wars that required motor and muscle training before the fight. Many plates in the previously mentioned Southern caves show dance performances. A picture of two sitting women exchanging sticks (weapons) was found in Acacus; this related to the bulls era. In Libya today, there are many dances which are performed using sticks and guns as a kind of show of force to intimidate the enemy.

Oric Bates transferred from an Egyptian stela an inscription showed a war dance which was practiced by

Temehu, an Old Libyan tribe related to the New Kingdom: ‘In the scene cited the performers are divided into those standing beating time with their sticks and those who are posturing and leaping about’²². This dance is similar to the modern Twargui dance called Alcaska. Clearly, the ancient Libyans carried their artistic monuments, customs and traditions into the Nile Valley during their migration in the time of drought.

DOMESTIC TOOLS

As well as decorative pots made of ceramic, and vases and cups and mugs made from ostrich eggs, the ancient Libyans were active in making baskets and mats from palm fronds. They produced these on a large scale since the beginning of the agriculture era. They also mastered the art of making ropes from palm fiber²³ and leather goods, leather jewelry and water canteens of animal skins which they hung on their horses²⁴. The Merneptah stela, previously mentioned, described Libyan soldiers escaping from the battlefield: ‘They fled, throwing their water canteens that were with them on the ground. Unfortunately for their senior Mery, ‘his fall resulted in his head feathers and vacuum canteen of the water that preserves his life being lost’²⁵.



Fig.3: Libyan fighters from Bates (p.138)

The water canteens, clothes, tents, ropes and shoes, were made of animal skins. They used the skin of lion, black panther and deer, each of which required a lot of processing²⁶.

Ancient Libyans carved rocks and made hand mills for grinding grain; remnants of mills have been found in most places of settlement, especially around the Siwa oasis and the surrounding area of Fayoum²⁷. Mills remained inherent to Libyan nomads until recently. The People of Mount Nefoussa (West-Mountain) are specialists in carving mills.

WEAPON MAKING

By the end of the Palaeolithic ages, weapons began changing from weapons to kill animals to weapons directed against persons in wars. This happened as populations grew and there was competition amongst rival groups for sources of food and water. According to Bates (op cit) the ancient Libyans did not use metal weapons. The Old Libyan tribe Auseans was dependent on sticks and stones as weapons of primitive assault; they knew how to use and throw these manually or by slingshot. But the Temehu used bows, arrows and spears in their war with Merenptah, Bates believed that bronze swords and daggers were possessed by the Sea Peoples whom were allied with the Libyans in that battle²⁸.

Old Libyan fighters were distinguished in the use of the bow, in Egyptian documents they are sometimes referred to as the "nine bows people". In the battles fought by the Libyans against Merenptah and Rameses III, bronze swords were the most important weapons used. The Egyptians captured a large number of them. Libyans appear in more than one view engraved on the wall of Habu City's temple carrying swords. It appears that the length of a sword was up to three-quarters of the length of its bearer²⁹ (see Fig.3). The Libyans who joined the Carthaginian army were known to have used axes of a double-edged kind³⁰.

Libyan weapons were not only types for attacking, but also those used for defensive purposes, e.g. thick leather coats, which they used in some of the battles recorded historically. These were of a circular kind and somewhat convex³¹. Herodotus mentioned that members of the tribe Makæ (near Sirt) used battle gear they produced from the skin of ostrich³².

Besides fighting equipment, the ancient Libyans made primitive chariots. In one recorded battle, Rameses III had over a hundred chariots. Herodotus said that the Greeks borrowed the habit of riding four horse chariots from the Old Garamantes. Cyrenaica (Shahat in Eastern Libya) was famous for using this kind of chariot in races at the Olympiad competition. A model of those vehicles still exists at the Museum of Tripoli³².

AGRICULTURE AND ANIMAL INDUSTRIES

As well as grazing animals, the Old Libyans knew about agriculture. But the population along the Libyan coast lived a semi-stable life due to variable rainfall. The Nasamonies commonly left their herds in the Gulf of Sirt when they went to the oasis of Augila in the summer to harvest dates. Their lives were a mix of stability and agriculture on the one hand, and nomadic herding in order to stay alive, on the other.

Some Libyans ceased migrating to Egypt and began to settle in the oases, others settled in cities and coastal villages. The Kinyps river area was fertile in the production of grain, as well as Benghazi. Libyans used wheat and barley as a staple diet. They pulverized it

and baked it by burying it in the fire. The resultant meal is still known to the Bedouins as a bread of 'Milla'.

The tribes of Garamantes (Southern Libya) lived on marshy ground which they cultivated. The Lotophagi, located near and east of Tripoli, can be considered farmers because they lived on the fruits of the lotus trees. Archaeology has shown that olive trees were found in Cyrenaica, as well as in Tripoli, especially in the era of the Phoenicians and the Romans³⁴.

Using these products Libyans built industries and founded commercial activities. The Lotophagi were able to squeeze the honey lotus fruit to produce wine. In the area of Tripoli there were many olive presses, especially in the Roman and Vandal eras. The Western Mountain's region is still famous for stone oil mills turned by camels. In the region of Cyrenaica the Greeks of Cyrene population took advantage of wild plant Silphium, exploiting it industrially and commercially after local residents had been forced to eliminate it completely as a kind of economic war against the Greeks occupiers of their land (Fig.4). Palm trees benefited the ancient Libyans; they ate its dates as food, extracted a kind of wine from its boles, and made ropes and baskets from its fibers and fronds³⁵.



Fig.4: Silphium plant on a Cyrenaic coin

In the region of Cyrenaica (Green Mountain, Eastern Libya) there were many forests of pine and cypress dating back to ancient times. The area was also famous for breeding the finest type of cows. From those two sources: trees and cows, Libya exported to Egypt the finest types of animal fats and vegetable oils which were used in manufacturing the excellent perfumes needed in temples and tombs of Egyptians. The best known of those raw materials in the Egyptian documents are *aj-Tehenu-anu* for animal fats and *Tehenu-ash* for vegetable oils³⁶.

On the business side, the Garamantes were notorious for guarding convoys across the desert, between the North and the South. They were also active commercial brokers, transporting materials like salt from the Sahara, ivory, ostrich feathers, leather and other precious items from Africa to the coastal cities. They also carried the goods brought by the Phoenicians from their cities in the Levant (firs) and Carthage (later), selling them to people of the Sahara

and Negros, Ethiopians and others. So they became rich.

On the other hand, the Libyans were obliged to import weapons and metal tools, textiles, ceramics and glass, widgets and other things they were unable to manufacture. They obtained metal pots and swords through trade with the Sea Peoples, especially the Sardinians. It seems that active trade relations remained between Libya and the Levant. This is evidenced by the similarity of the metal pots seized by the Pharaoh (Siti I) from the Libyans and vessels seized by the Pharaoh (Ramses II) from the Asians, both scenes engraved on the walls of the Temple of Karnack³⁷. The prevalence of the use of pots, swords and metal blades in large numbers, as well as the wealth of the governors themselves of gold, silver, copper and cattle, indicates that the Libyan people enjoyed a prosperous economy despite periods of drought, which were sometimes prolonged, ever pushing them to migrate towards Egypt in search of planting and water at various times.

WOMEN AND MARRIAGE

Herodotus is the best reference for the customs and traditions of the ancient Libyans. We can let him describe the actions of some members of the Libyan tribes whom were living in his time³⁸, taking advantage of the margins of the translator, and citing some comments when necessary.

Herodotus says that the women of the Libyan tribe *Adyrmachidæ*, which extended from Egypt to Sidi Barrani, grew their hair long. If one of them found a louse, they crunched it and threw it on the ground, being careful that the other Libyan women did not see them do it!

Members of this tribe offered virgins whom were going to be married to the king to break their virginity if he had a mind to do so. The tribe of *Giligamæ*, which extended from *Adyrmachidæ* to the island of *Kirsa* northwest of *Derna* city in *Cyrenaica* region, the *Asbystæ* tribe that lived behind *Cyrene*, and the *Auschisæ* tribe that occupied the coast at *Benghazi*, are believed to have all adopted the same habit.

Herodotus gives much detail on the marriage habits of the *Nasamones* that lived around the Gulf of *Sirt*. He says that every man had several wives, but all the men had their wives in common. When a man married for the first time they set up a stick in front of the place and commenced cohabiting. The bride would lie down with all the invitees and be awarded gifts. We do not know why *Nasamones* practiced cohabitation. Herodotus was inclined to deliberately insult peoples who were not Greeks. He also mentions that *Nasamones* people used to swear putting their hands on the tombs of men who had been fairer and better than others, and to stress their swearing by irrigating themselves hand by hand. If no water or any liquid was available, they took sand from the ground and licked it.

Apparently this demonstrated credibility and goodwill in the case of the disgraceful marriage custom described above in a time before marriage had been legalized.

Herodotus quotes the same thing for the *Macæ* tribe. He says that the women put a ring on their ankle for every man who cohabited with her. The woman with the most rings was seen as the best because she was beloved by many men.

The members of the *Machilyes* and *Auseans* tribes around *Lake Tritonis* (= *Shatt al-Jarid*, Southern Tunisia) performed an annual ceremony in honor of their goddess *Athene*. Virgin girls were divided into two teams to fight each other with stones and sticks. They performed that ceremony in accordance with local custom; any girl who died as a result of the beating was declared to be 'not a virgin'. It would appear from this that this tribe was interested in a young woman maintaining their honor, and families in keeping their daughters virgins. But Herodotus contradicts himself and says that members of both the *Machilyes* and *Auseans* were sharing their wives, did not marry officially and lived like animals. When a child was born it was allowed to grow up with the mother until the third month when in a particular place it would be examined. If the child looked like one of the men, it was his son!

The issue of polygamy as a habit of the ancient Libyans is confirmed by the Byzantines and the Latin writers such the Roman *Sallust*. The latter said that one man 'can acquire any number of wives as long as this is commensurate with his ability to support them'³⁹. The Byzantine historian *Procopius* records what the Libyan Presidents said to the Byzantine leader *Solomon* when he had threatened to kill their hostages: 'It is incumbent on you, that you cannot marry more than one wife to worry about your offspring, but one of us can marry more than fifty wives if he wishes, so we do not fear that our line will be interrupted'⁴⁰. It is notable that such statements convey reality and are devoid of insults. It is in opposition to classical writers who accused ancient Libyans of sexual promiscuity (above).

Bates speaks about the putting to death of girls who lost their virginity, as a sign of the importance of chastity and sexual purity in the female. *Bates* says that the descriptions of Herodotus do not apply to such people. He saw rather that there was a pattern of maintaining blood common in North Africa, as agreed by families within the system of tribe⁴¹. In such groups we find woman in the old Libyan social system who enjoyed great prestige and honour because '...the system of inheritance based on the mother's side was common among the population of North African ancestors'⁴².

BUILDING CONSTRUCTION

The houses of the Nasamones tribes were made of ears of wheat and others grasses thrown on to branches of rushes. They were movable houses. On the other hand, the tribes of the Auseans built their homes in forested and mountainous land which were full of monsters. Strabo says in his geography that Pharusii tribes were tying their canteens of water under the bellies of horses, that many of them were living like cave dwellers, were digging homes in the ground¹. It should be noted that Pharusii (cavalry) as well as Gaetuli (fighters) had teams of horsemen and fighters grouped under the banner of aristocracy Garamantes tribes who were dominant on the south Libyan up until the first millennium BC. After that they moved slowly to the north-west. Some of them entered in the army of Hannibal, when he led his famous campaign in Italy. Drilling of housing in the highlands is still followed in Libya soon; perhaps Gharian housing and other cities of the western mountain be the best proof of that. When the Gaetuli tribe was in the Southern Libya they were very ascetic in their lives, clothes and homes. They fed on sheep meat and milk, Strabo likens them to Bedouin Arab herders.

SOCIAL HABITS

Classic Writers agree that the Ethiopian cave dwellers were so notorious for fast movement and running that their neighbors, the Garamants tribes, did not inflict them with chariots driven by four horses. Herodotus says about them that they fed on snakes, lizards and similar reptiles, and did not have any language, rather shouted like bats. Eating snakes and some reptiles was practiced by nomadic Libyans until recently, perhaps even now as therapeutic intervention within traditional medicine. According to the Greeks who naturally did not understand the dialects of all Libyans, the languages sounded like shrieks, perhaps similar to the wheezing which was present in the languages of the ancestors of present Tabu.

Members of the Atlas tribe which inhabited the Ghat city area between Chad and the Niger River or Hagar mountains, are reported as cursing the sun when it reaches the height of the temperature, and insulting it verbally in the belief that burns them and burns their land. It is said that they did not eat any living organism, that they were vegetarians, although the warm climate may not allow them sufficient quantities of plants, but we do know that their ancestors were dependent on the hunting of animals for food. It is said that they did not dream in their sleep, although we do not know how this is known, as the sleeper in a dream state as in the case of fainting completely disrupts the inner mind? The nomadic Libyans whom were hikers in areas between Egypt and the Lake of Tritouns (=Shatt Al-Jarid, Southern actual Tunisia), were meat eaters and milk drinkers, but they did not eat meat from female cows or pigs.

Many Libyans, especially the Bedouins, practiced cautery of the veins or temples of the heads of their children, using fat of sheep's wool when they reach four years to stop the persistent descending of phlegm from their heads. If the child suffered from a spasm as a result of cautery they poured urine of small goat on the affected place. The habit of cautery and pouring animal's urine on the wounds remains in use in Libyan nomadic society, as a kind of folk remedy.

There was a habit of slaughtering animals amongst Libyan nomads and herders, when they offer Eucharist, they cut the sacrifice ears before turning up its neck and slaughtering it. The idea behind this was to get rid of the blood so that they did not eat it. Apparently they realized the gravity of the blood being denied by divine religions.

GOVERNMENT SYSTEMS

Because of the lack of permanent water sources like those in Egypt and Mesopotamia, it was not possible for the ancient Libyans in ancient times to establish stable fixed states. At the end of the rainy Pleistocene era and the beginning of the dry Holocene era, the ancient Libyans began searching for places to settle down and establish economic systems. This led to them settling in Nile Valley, to develop their instinct to rule and practice domination, even develop religious and military power that eventually led to them becoming well-known Pharaohs by the beginning of the first millennium BC. Apart from that, the system of government prevailing among the ancient Libyan tribal system was no different to that common amongst the nomadic Arab tribes of pre-Islamic times. Headship of the tribe was a genetic position in the ruling family but the incumbent was chosen for his commitment to justice in his life and his actions; he could be isolated from the tribe if he proved the opposite. The Chief was assisted by a council of ten persons; the Council of tribe Auseans included all adults and was held every three months². The Egyptian documents indicate that the heads of the Libyan tribes of the upper class wore two feathers, while the lower class chiefs wore just one feather. The heads of the tribes were characterized by tattooed, wearing animal tails, long lacy dress and sitting on chairs. They had both temporal and religious responsibilities.

When Libyans came under the power of foreign civilizations like the Greeks and Romans they were coerced to submit to foreign government systems, in the same way that Carthage (Tunisia) submitted in the time of Phoenicians, Cyrene (Eastern Libya) submitted in the time of Greeks and Liptus, Oya Sabrata especially after the unit under the name (= Tri-polis = Tripoli) submitted in the time of Romans.

Among the most famous early Libyan chiefs registered in ancient Egyptian documents, who amounted to the rank of the king and military commander, was Mery bin Dad⁴³. He tried to occupy Egypt allied with the rest of the Libyan tribes, but his attempt was thwarted by

the Pharaoh Merenptahin in 1227 BC before he reached the Nile Valley. The latest Roman Emperor to rule in North Africa was Gregory. He was overthrown by the Arab conquerors in the seventh century AD. In Germa (in the south) the Garamantes had an aristocratic system of distinct military government which remained in existence from the first millennium BC until the beginning of Islam.

PRIMITIVE SCIENCE

In the Neolithic, at the time of living in the caves in the era of the late Pleistocene, old Libyan man was able to use his mind. He used his intellectual potential to the fullest extent to develop microlithic-geometric tools. Proof of this is the quality of inscriptions and rock drawings made by residents of the south of Libya who excelled in that industry.

Perhaps those experiences benefited them a lot when they entered in large numbers in the Nile Valley. Religious beliefs and food security were the main motivations behind some of the metaphysical ideas developed at the time: their perception of natural phenomena like the sun, moon, stars, wind, lightning, rain and others, by which they reached through to understand the number of months and days of the seasons, and record them in a complicated way on their rocky pages. The 'Four girls' panel discovered in Wadi Jabbarin, Southern Libya by the Frenchman Henry Lhot⁴⁵ and analyzed by the Libyan Mohammed Bazama is a good example (Fig.5).

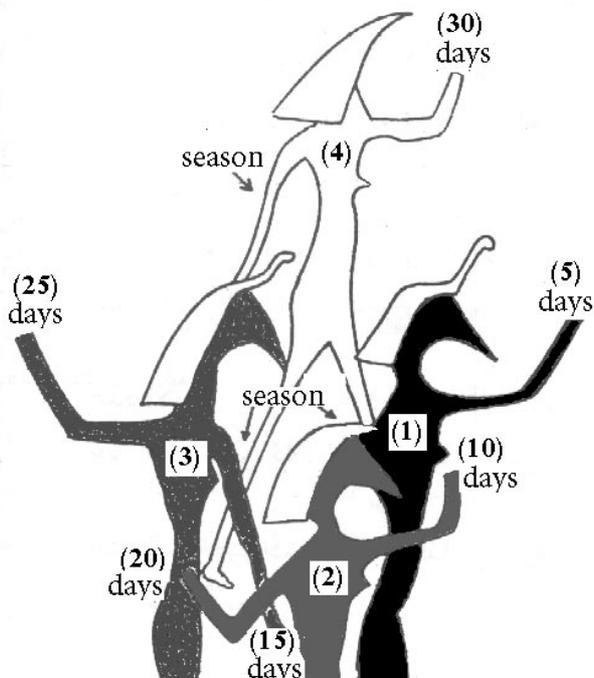


Fig.5: The old Libyan Year (3 seasons, 4 months each, 30 days each)

Faith in another day caused them thinking of ways of burial, then they developed multiplied and diversified beliefs relating to gods, and finally started to develop a

philosophy of life and death. Life needs to satisfy the permanent needs of the necessary, and death needs to ensure that the spirit is protected from unknown horrors. That was the march of human beings in the search phase for the God who had fed them and had provided them with safety.

In Phoenician times the Libyans of the coastal population mixed with the Canaanites, the children of cousins coming from the mountains of Lebanon. Like other peoples of the region, ancient Libyans have benefited from the great Phoenician civilization, borrowing a lot of sciences and knowledge in industry, agriculture, trade and sailing for which they were famous in the Ponic time. Also the Southern population (Garamantes) and their followers benefited from desert trading with Carthaginians, and achieved a great richness of that trade. The Garamantes had invented the wheels and fabricated special chariots driven by four horses that them build their own Saharan civilization.

THE PHILOSOPHERS OF CYRENE

In the classical age philosophy, i.e. "the love of wisdom", was a testimony to the culture and the development of a people. The Greeks pioneered such knowledge, and they passed it to the other peoples of the region. When Cyrene (Shahat now) reached the height of its civilization, a number of philosophers, poets and writers were found in it. We can claim them to be Libyans because they were citizens of the five cities (Pantapolies) in the Green Mountains, and different from the Greeks, having occupied the area since 631 BC. Strabo says in his Geography⁴⁶ that among those who have become famous are the Socratic philosopher Aristibus, founder of the philosophy of Cyrene and his daughter and successor Arietti, who left her son at the head of the philosophical school Mitrodisdaktos, and Anakerees who reformed the doctrine of Cyrene. There were as well in Cyrene, two famous Cyrenaic scientists and writers: Callimachus and Aaratosthinis. Both of these were honored by the kings of Egypt, as well as Karniades. Apollonius Cronus was the professor to the dialectical Diodorus; he was a famous logical expert known as Kronos. There were many others but these are a few of the more important Libyan teachers in these times.

THE TRIAL OF SABRATHA

The trial of Sabratha (West Tripoli), the Applogia, occurred in the years 156 and 158 AD⁴⁷. The hero of this story was Apuleius who had come to the city of Oea (=actual Tripoli) from his hometown Madaura (=a town between Tunisia and Algeria). In Oea he married a wealthy widow named Lady Pudentilla. Butgher family members, the Sicinius family, filed a lawsuit against him at the court of Sabratha, accusing him of witchcraft and sorcery to gain their daughter's affections in the hope of wealth left by her previous husband. Apuleius was a philosopher, he had literary writings in which he

discussed the philosophy of magic. These writings were used as evidence against him.

This story has been taken up by European historians as an important event in Roman history, especially during the reign of the emperor Hadrian. It has been dealt also by local historians as a matter which related to a person who was born and lived in their region. Both the European and the local histories omitted the places which were the most exciting and important in the story. For example, the Europeans mentioned "The Provincial Governor" instead of "The Governor of Oea"; it was Claudius Maximus who presided over the Court. Both named the city as Sabratha without specifying its situation that it was under Tripolitania Provincial Government. However they both argued that the defense of Apuleius (The Apologia) had the biggest legal impact between the era of Hadrian and the years 529 and 533 AD, as noted in the codicils of the laws of Justinian and Theodosius in relation to inheritance rights and the marital estate (Codex and Digest of Justinian and Theodosius)⁴⁸.

The story of the Sabratha Apologia tells us some facts. Firstly, that the population of the city of Oea in the reign of Emperor Hadrian was still authentic, i.e. not much affected by Roman culture. Here we see the Lady Pudentilla speaking of herself: 'I was no small catch. I'm well educated and can speak and write Greek, in fact, better than many of the men in my family, who stubbornly cling to Punic'⁴⁹. Note that the family of Pudentilla was one of the oldest and richest families in Oea; it was not like other families that had recently settled in that city which had been ruled by the Romans since the time of Julius Caesar. The long proceedings in front of Court of Sabratha also record what Apuleius said about his origin: "As for my country and my home town is located on the edge of Numidia and Gatulia"⁵⁰, Numidia was a province situated between Tunisia and Algeria, but the Gatuli tribe had lived previously near the Garamentes tribes in the province of Fezzan in Southern Libya. They only moved towards the north-west, when Hannibal took advantage of their strength and recruited men and cavalry from them in his famous campaign to Rome.

In response to his opponent who accused him of cleaning his teeth (!), Apuleius answered that the material of cleaning teeth (dentifricio) had come from the land of the Arabs in the form of "powder made of Arabic drugs"⁵¹, which had nothing to do with witchcraft.

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**Dr Abdullaziz Saeed Swei is a Libyan author and Professor in Ancient History. He has written ten books, some of which are recommended as text books in Arabic universities. He can be reached at abdullaziz2011swei@yahoo.com*

THE USE OF CORPORATE GOVERNANCE IN NIGERIAN BANKS TO DRIVE THE COUNTRY'S QUEST FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Dr Gabriel Udendeh*

Corporate governance has become a success strategy dinner topic around the world. Available literature suggests that corporate governance (CG) is a fairly new concept in many jurisdictions.

DEFINITIONS/CONCEPTS OF CG

Different commentators define CG in various ways, ranging from processes or structures put in place to control an entity in order to maximize stakeholders' value with acceptable financial strength. Cadbury (1999) defines CG as a 'system by which companies are directed and controlled to align their economic and social goals with those of individuals and the community'. The Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2004) views corporate governance in the context of 'internal means by which corporations are directed and controlled' to achieve the tripod ethos of openness, integrity and accountability. All the definitions sum up to a conclusion that corporate governance promotes accountability, credibility, transparency, integrity and enduring trust in an entity.

The various definitions above seem to have two terms in harmony: "direct" and "control", suggesting that CG is a possessive concept with a descriptive content but an aspirational usage. The global context of CG reveals a phenomenon that stretches beyond distinct economic spheres. Narrowing the concept to financial systems, Greuning and Bratanovic (2003) unpack CG in the context of building partnership among key players in an industry to manage varying degrees of inherent risks. The duo allude to the financial system as one of the common industries yearning for observance of CG, while identifying the key players within as regulators, shareholders, executive management, board, external auditors and the public/consumers. According to them, the sum of roles played by the above players in safeguarding the system constitutes CG. Several other management experts and institutions view corporate governance consensually as a public good. In similar thoughts, the writer intends to conceptualize CG along the lines of OECD by aiming to place an institution's corporate responsibilities on the various stakeholders who make it up, including external control entities like the independent auditors or regulators who report on directors' stewardship.

DEVELOPMENT IN CG

A review of the Malaysian Financial Authority's memoirs reveals that CG, at its embryotic stage in that

jurisdiction, was perceived as an area of regulation that did not fit properly into competition regulation or economic regulation. According to Lee (2002) CG became a topical issue in Malaysia only after the financial crisis of 1997/8 and a comprehensive CG framework was first published in 2000. Its introduction was part of efforts to actualize the country's ten year development plan for the financial system (2000-2010). Malaysia's capital market pivoted the visionary financial plan to its logical conclusion in 2010 using the country's strict listing rules, tight regulation of board composition designed to lay emphasis on independent directors, and enforcement. The Malaysian model has since been elevated to a case study for a number of developing countries, including Nigeria.

Developments in the pre and immediate post millennium era, including the Baring Bank failure (1997), Worldcom (2002), Peregrine Systems Limited (2002), Adelphia Communication Company Limited (2002), Tyco International Limited (2002), Enron (2001) and a cocktail of bank failures in 2007-2009 highlight grave consequences of poor CG policies in companies.

In Nigeria, the collapse of over 56 banks in the last 20 years stemmed from incidences of poor CG, most of which manifested in different ways before crystallizing to the straitened circumstances that ultimately led to their collapse. Most of the demised banks manifested exit symptoms akin to those identified by Cadbury (op cit) such as the absence of, or insufficient number of independent directors, questionable Boards, overlapping duties and responsibilities, weak internal controls and lack of independence of auditors. Incidentally, Cadbury Nigeria Plc has had to grapple with similar challenges of weak management culminating in an overstatement of its accounts by about N15 billion (USD 100m) in the period 2004-2006. One single audit firm handled its account until a change in 2007 which brought to the fore the financial malfeasance that caused the sacking of its CEO and financial controller. These high profile corporate frauds attracted media attention with public criticism leading to increased interest by shareholders and government CG policies of institutions. In the US, a similar agitation led to the passage of the Public Companies Accounting Reforms and Investors Protection Act (Sarbanes-Oxley Act) of 2002. The Act, named after two prominent US lawmakers; Senator Paul S. Sarbanes and Congressman Michael G. Oxley, significantly influenced sound corporate policies and attendant stability in the US financial market until the 2007 mortgage loan crisis.

Globally, various authorities in the financial system (as in Malaysia), standard setting international institutions (as in Basel Committee), economic groups (e.g. OECD) or individual committees (King's Committee in South Africa) have had to play one role or the other in entrenching CG, sometimes prescribing appropriate guidelines on issues of disclosure, internal controls,

independence of external auditors, review of executive management compensation as well as that of senior executives, procedure for nomination to the Board, adequate resources for directors to carry out their jobs, tenor of directors, among others. Outstanding among these institutions is the Organization of Economic and Cooperative Development countries (OECD) which issued the first comprehensive guidelines on CG in 2000, revised in 2004. As in Malaysia, a common framework for CG by OECD was first developed in April 1998 by a Council of Ministerial Committee of the organization in conjunction with national governments and relevant international bodies and the private sector. In 2002, the OECD Council Meeting at Ministerial level, agreed to follow up the general guidelines with a survey of developments in member countries to improve the process.

Pursuant to this, an OECD Steering Group on CG was set up comprising representation from all the member countries, including observers from the World Bank (WB), the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the Bank for International Settlements (BIS). Financial Stability Forum, Basel Committee and the International Organization of Securities Commission (IOSCO) were also invited as ad hoc observers. The OECD general guidelines on CG considerably improved understanding of the roles that key elements within an organization should play, especially those considered complementary between the Board and the executive management, seen as central to effectiveness of CG implementation. King (2008) identifies those roles as act of good faith, fairness, carefulness and diligence, generically known as corporate culture. Commenting further, Anya (2003:32) observes that the relationship between Board and shareholders needs to be one of candor, while the relationship between the Board and the employees should bear the character of fairness, while those with community or Government have to symbolize good citizenship and public compliance policy, respectively.

THE NEED FOR CG

The need for good CG practices in the banking industry cannot be gain-said. The soundness, or otherwise, of any financial institution depends on the application of enduring CG principles at all levels of the organization. The US Comptroller of the Currency once attributed over 90 per cent of the failed banks in the country (US), after banking deregulation, to poor CG practices. The situation seems indifferent for Nigeria, indeed, Alashi (2002:134) observes a strong correlation between bank failures and mismanagement by some managers arising from poor CG; a menace, according to him, that external interference alone cannot eradicate. He submits that four major variants of mismanagement prevail in the Nigerian banking system:

- Technical Mismanagement
- Cosmetic Mismanagement
- Desperate Mismanagement and

- Fraud

His assertion agrees with the World Bank Report (1989) on bank failure; this also referred to the above variants as common in banks. Experience has shown that countries with good CG have potentials to attract greater investments examples of which are South Africa, Malaysia, United Kingdom, Singapore, etc. The BRIC countries emphasize CG to the extent that when South Africa sought to join them in 2010. The latter was required to, among other things, devolve the white-dominated investments in blue chip companies to black Africans by 30 per cent probably to demonstrate fairness.

ENTRENCING CG IN NIGERIA

Although efforts at entrenching governance principles in banks in Nigeria had been operating for some time, the country began to apply vigour to this only fairly recently. It would appear that the responsibility of entrenching CG properly rests with the Nigerian Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) given that most banks in Nigeria are public companies and drawing from global best practice exemplified by the Malaysian or the US experiences.

Indeed, the International Organization of Securities and Exchange Commissions (IOSCO), of which Nigeria's SEC is a member, was an observer at the OECD Steering Group that drafted the maiden guidelines on CG in 1999. Apparently, in realization of its role, the Nigerian SEC inaugurated a 17-man committee in June 2000, headed by Mr. Atedo Peterside, then Managing Director of Investment Bank and Trust Company Plc (now a subsidiary of Stanbic of South Africa), with the mandate to draw up CG principles and standards in line with best practices. The resulting document was released in November 2003, marking a significant step in the attempt to institutionalize an appropriate governance culture in Nigeria. Al-Faki, (2005) reports that earlier efforts included the provisions of the Companies and Allied Matters Act (CAMA), 1990, the Investment and Securities Act (ISA), 1999 and the Nigeria Stock Exchange Act (NSE) in addition to the prescribed listing requirements by SEC, each containing a variant of CG standard. He reiterates that lack of proper coordination, disparity in standards among the Acts and lack of will to enforce the extant laws contributed to the persistent governance challenges for banks in Nigeria. Similar views were held by Imala (2004) who also notes that failure to play by the rules, lack of transparency reckless accumulation of wealth by bank managers accounted for the apparent precarious governance in Nigeria.

Contributing to the debate on earlier efforts at governance, (Omokhuale, 2002: 68-71) observes that earlier efforts at entrenching CG were made by the Bankers Committee when it appointed a 15-man committee on December 19, 2000 to develop codes of conduct for bankers which was issued in 2001.

According to him, the codes sought to achieve, among other things:

- Identification of practices considered unethical in the industry;
- Development of an acceptable code of ethics and professionalism; and
- Putting in place effective machinery for enforcing compliance with the code.

At its inception, Banks were granted an opportunity to make input to the codes, including the CBN whose input was delivered through a discussion paper by the then Governor of the Central Bank of Nigeria, Chief Joseph Sanusi. The resulting codes contained a list of acts, conducts and omissions considered unethical as well as a framework for addressing such oddities in the business of banking and finance in Nigeria. In order to give effect to the codes, the Bankers Committee inaugurated a Sub-Committee on Ethics and Professionalism to handle complaints arising from relationships between banks and their customers, with a secretariat at the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria, Lagos. The Central Bank of Nigeria and leading banks have representations on the committee. Their effort resulted in the resolution of over 80% of complaints reported to it in favour of customers (Sub-Committee Report, 2010). The CBN in 2012 upgraded its consumer protection division earlier created in 2010 to a full-fledged department to handle bank customers' complaints.

Presently, appointment to the Board of any bank in Nigeria is subject to approval by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) in line with the requirements of Section 44 of Banks and Other Financial Institutions Act (BOFIA), 1991, as amended. In considering such an application, the CBN cross-checks existing records to ensure that the prospective director is a fit and proper person who has not been disqualified under any subsisting Act. In processing the application, status reports are sought from other regulatory agencies on the prospective director who is finally subjected to the State Security Services (SSS) screening to establish suitability. While the process may be considered necessary to curtail incidences of having wrong hands at the helm of financial institutions, experience has shown that once cleared these appointees often become too powerful to come under an effective Board control.

In efforts to inculcate CG culture, bank directors are given code of conduct forms to execute. The code has 22 items in a form of negative pledges that such appointees would not engage in conducts considered unethical during his tenure as a director. Bank directors have largely complied and the Code has assisted immeasurably in indicting some of the errant directors found culpable in the clean-up exercise conducted by the regulatory authorities in 2009. In 2006, a comprehensive Code of CG for Banks in Nigeria Post Consolidation was issued by CBN effective from April 2006, specifying a number of thresholds to mainstream CG.

Among them are:

- Establishment of strategic objectives and a set of corporate values with clear lines of responsibility and accountability;
- Installation of a committed and focused Board of Directors, which will exercise oversight functions with high sense of independence;
- A committed management;
- Board should meet at least four times per annum;
- An organogram in use must be well delineated;
- Power and authority should be devolved to enhance decision making process;
- The number of non-executive directors should exceed those of the executive directors;
- All the directors should be of sound knowledge and with adequate experience;
- There should be a management succession plan in place;
- The code canvassed for informed shareholders and also for a culture of compliance;
- It solicited for an effective audit committee, external auditors of integrity and independence and competence;
- Sound internal controls; and
- A sound management information system.

The code further reduces equity ownership of State Governments to a maximum of 10% as at December 2007. Any other investor may hold 10% subject to prior approval of the CBN. The code frowns at executive duality, especially the fusion of positions of Chairmanship and Chief Executive Officer. It further precludes membership of any one family from occupying positions of Chairmanship, Executive Director or Chief Executive Officer of a bank. The code pegs the tenor of directors to twelve (12) years comprising three terms of four (4) years and a subsequent circular limiting those of Chief Executives to two tenancies of five years. The code is comprehensive and its emergence could not have come at a better time than it did, though some commentators, including the National Assembly (2012) are strongly of the view that the CBN should also adopt some measures of CG.

Members of this school argue that 'the proverbial charity should have begun at home' implying that the Governor of CBN should not serve as both the Chief Executive of the Bank and Chairman of the Board at the same time. They also frown at the level of influence he has over the four Deputy Governors who are also members of a twelve member Board. In this criticism they drew on experiences in the Central Bank of Egypt (CBE) which had a 15 Member Board with the Governor as Board Chairman. Other members

included two Deputy Governors, the Chairman of the Capital Market Authority (DG, SEC), two Chairmen of banks, representatives from the ministries of economy, finance and planning, four specialists in banking, monetary, financial and legal matters and two private sector representatives as members. While the Governor of the CBE and his deputies are appointed under a Presidential Decree, Board members are appointed by the Prime Minister. According to these critics, the duty of the Board is to implement the State's monetary, banking and credit policies, while the Governor is bound to implement the Board's decision made by an absolute majority vote.

On family ownership of banks, the critics postulate that the central thrust of any capitalist economy is the tendency to promote entrepreneurship and private investments, as epitomized by the concept of core-investor under privatization. They argue that family ownership can propel the spirit of entrepreneurship to consistently focus the business. They cite the telecommunication, aviation, insurance and even the manufacturing industry (where the Mike Adenugas, the Jimoh Ibrahims and the Aliko Dangotes have held sway) to buttress their point and wonder why banking should be an exception. They draw attention to other jurisdictions where family banks had developed to become global institutions.

CONCLUSION

In spite of banking consolidation in 2005, lack of legal imperative and issues of effective ownership structure, banks remain major challenges in entrenching good corporate governance in the Nigerian banking system. Indeed, banking consolidation tends to have firmed up the grip of family ownership of most banks beyond what the public envisaged. The firm entrenchment by the former owners or new gladiators rendered the CG guidelines of March 1, 2006 arguably difficult to make significant impact. Although being regularly reviewed, the experiences of other countries tend to suggest that effective governance principles need evolution and not coercion. Peoples' attitudes change when conscious efforts are made to prick their conscience with doses of enticing incentives. The regulators driving the process must demonstrate understanding of country realities, intellectual harmony and moral courage to make this task achievable.

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**Dr Gabriel Udendeh holds a B.Sc. Degree in Finance & Management from the Commonwealth Open University, an MBA (Finance & Accounts) from Olabisi Onabanjo University, Ogun State, Nigeria, and a Doctorate in Management from St. Clements University. He is a Fellow of the Chartered Institute of Bankers of Nigeria, a Fellow of the Institute of Management (IMC), a Fellow of the Institute of Professional Financial Managers (IPFM, UK) and a Chartered Accountant. He is a part-time lecturer and author of several books. He can be reached on udendeh@yahoo.com.*

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BURKINA FASO AND TURKEY: BUILDING DIPLOMATIC AND TRADE RELATIONS

Dr Kemal Yildirim*

This article is a report of a study on how the African country of Burkina Faso (see map below) and Turkey have used diplomatic strategies to build diplomatic and economic ties to mutual advantage. A brief historical background is provided and some conclusions drawn as to the way forward.

BURKINA FASO



Burkina Faso consists of a number of well organized kingdoms in the Center and the East of the country: Ouagadougou, Tenkodogo, Yatenga, Gourma – see map below. These kingdoms were colonized by France at the end of the Nineteenth Century and called Upper Volta.



On the 5th of August 1960 the country gained its independence and on the 4th August 1984 the name was changed to Burkina Faso meaning 'Homeland of Honest People, Courageous and Worthy of Respect'. The country's motto is 'Unity, Progress and Justice'. In 1987, with French help, Blaise Compaoré seized power in a coup d'état, betraying his long-time friend and ally Thomas Sankara, who was killed in the coup. In 1990, Compaoré's Popular Front held its first National Congress and, in particular, formed a committee to draft a national constitution. The constitution was

approved by referendum in 1991. It established a semi-Presidential type Government in which there is a Parliament that can be dissolved by the President who is elected for a term of seven years.

In 1992, Compaoré was elected President, running unopposed after the opposition boycotted the election because of Compaoré's refusal to accede to their demands for the formation of a sovereign National Conference to set modalities. The opposition did participate in the following year's legislative elections, in which the ODP/MT (Organization for Popular Democracy and Labour Movement) won the majority of seats.

In 1995, Burkina held its first multiparty municipal elections. With minor exceptions, balloting was considered free and fair by the local human rights organizations which monitored the contest. The ODP/MT won over 1 100 of the 1 700 Councilor seats contested.

In February 1996, the ODP/MT merged with several small opposition parties to form the Congress for Democracy and Progress (CDP). This effectively co-opted much of what little viable opposition to President Compaoré existed. The remaining opposition parties regrouped in preparation for 1997 legislative elections and the 1998 Presidential election. The 1997 legislative elections, which international observers pronounced to be substantially free/fair and transparent, resulted in a large CDP majority--101 of 111 seats.

In 2000, the constitution was amended to reduce the Presidential term to five years. The amendment, which took effect during the 2005 elections, would have prevented Compaoré being reelected, but in October 2005, notwithstanding a challenge by other presidential candidates, the Constitutional Council ruled that because Compaoré was the sitting President in 2000, the amendment would not apply to him until the end of his second term in office.

This cleared the way for his candidacy in the 2005 election. On 13 November, Compaoré was re-elected in a landslide, because of a divided political opposition. In the 2010 November Presidential elections, President Compaoré was again re-elected. Only 1.6 million Burkinabès voted, out of a total population ten times that size.

The Government of the Fourth Republic includes a strong form of Presidency, a Prime Minister, a Council of Ministers presided over by the President, a two-chamber National Assembly, and a Judiciary. The legislature and judiciary are independent but remain susceptible to outside influence.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC OVERVIEW

In the twenty first century, Burkina Faso sees its future in developing regional and world markets for its products. Based on an objective assessment of its strengths and weaknesses, it has set itself to become a pole of development in West Africa.

In the beginning of the 1990s, important reforms were taken in several domains. At the political level, Burkina Faso reviewed its constitution, putting in place democratic institutions which have led the country into a period of freedom and stability that it had never known before. In the economic domain, a structural adjustment program has allowed the re-establishment of a significant macro-economic balance which has stabilized the main sectors of the economy. At the social level, it has undertaken to fairly distribute the fruits of growth, while devoting an important part of the state resources to basic education, health, water and sanitation sectors.

The Government is now pursuing policies that will modernizing the economy. The aim is to create more wealth, increase competitiveness and open up new foreign markets. In this strategy, the private sector is playing an increasing key role.

The institutional and legal environment put in place includes the establishment of an investments code, a customs code, a mining code and work legislation. It also offers national and foreign investors an ideal context to quickly materialize their projects and guarantee a return on investment. Burkina Faso has agro-pastoral and mining resources which are still only slightly exploited. This together with an abundant and hard-working manpower resource constitutes considerable economic advantage.

FOREIGN POLICY

Burkina Faso has a great geographical asset. It is ideally located in the heart of the sub-region, an inescapable crossroads within the West African Economic and Monetary Union (UEMOA), a common market with 70 million producers and consumers which came into being in January 2000. The Burkina Faso Government asserts to friends and partners its preparedness to welcome and protect financial investments, with strict respect of reciprocal interests and the rules of international cooperation.

DIPLOMACY

Internationalization and globalization have obliged Burkina Faso to review the practices of Classic Diplomacy, to adopt a more pragmatic approach that consists in orienting its diplomatic activities and initiatives towards objectives of economic and social development. This diplomacy is active, dynamic and oriented towards partnerships in the global environment that are seen to be advantageous to Burkina Faso's economic and social development. It

constitutes what Burkina Faso calls "Development Diplomacy" and is constituted by three main functions:

- **Extended Policy:** Adapting to the development of the world political and legal environment, analyzing its consequences and repercussions for Burkina Faso from the viewpoint of its fundamental interests.
- **International Cooperation:** Making it obligatory on the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to monitor the emergence of world economic problems, to analyze the consequences and repercussions of same for Burkina Faso, to negotiate with foreign partners via the signing of general agreements of cooperation, and to manage economic cooperation relationship in collaboration with the Diplomatic Missions of other countries.
- **Protection:** To ensure the defence of the interests of Burkina Faso abroad, and to ensure that the world knows of the advantages of developing relations with Burkina Faso.

Since the implementation of this new dynamic, a qualitative leap has been made in Burkinabè diplomacy. Indeed, hardly considered at the international level some years ago, Burkina Faso now enjoys a good reputation and attracts greater interest in the sub-region, Africa and the world.

In order to preserve its sovereignty and independence, Burkina Faso has undertaken, in its new approach, to go beyond its traditional relations, in search of new axes of cooperation for partnership. This diversification of its partners is an essential component of Development Diplomacy and exemplifies the new orientation towards international relations, centered on the multiplicity of relations and the permanent quest for new development partners.

In this spirit, Burkina Faso is decidedly committed to the search for an environment of peace as a precondition to any sustainable development, and is devoted to striking up mutually advantageous multiform relations throughout the world, thus participating in the building of a global village.

Burkina Faso's relations with its West African neighbors have improved in recent years. Relations with Ghana, in particular, have warmed with a change in government in that country. President Compaoré has mediated a political crisis in Togo and helped to resolve the Tuareg conflict in Niger. Burkina maintains cordial relations with Libya. A territorial dispute with the Maliwas was mediated by Ghana and Nigeria and has led to lessening of tensions between the two nations.

Relations with the United States of America are good but subject to strains in the past because of the Compaoré government's past involvement in arms trading and other sanctions-breaking activity. In

addition to regional peace and stability, U.S. interests in Burkina are to promote continued democratization and greater respect for human rights and to encourage sustainable economic development. Although the Agency for International Development (USAID) closed its office in Ouagadougou in 1995, about \$18 million of USAID funding goes to Burkina's development annually through non-governmental and regional organizations.

Diplomatic relations between Burkina Faso and the Soviet Union were established for the first time on February 18, 1967. After the breakup of the Soviet Union, Burkina Faso recognized Russia as the USSR's successor. However financial reasons have shut the embassies between the two nations. In 1992, the embassy of the Russian Federation in Ouagadougou was closed, and in 1996, the embassy of Burkina Faso in Moscow was closed.

TURKEY

The Turkish Republic was established in 1923, following the demise of the Ottoman Empire. The Empire had been in a state of decline for several centuries and its inability to keep up with industrial and scientific developments, social and political unrest and wars had sapped its strength. The First World War, in which the Ottoman Empire took part on the losing side, signalled its end. As the Empire crumbled, its Turkish nucleus rose up in a War of Liberation against the invading powers and the Sultan's government. Its success resulted in the Lausanne Peace Treaty of 24 July 1923, which established the international status and boundaries of the new state. The Republic was declared on the 29th of October 1923. The Treaty provided the basis for the creation of the climate of peace and stability needed by the country.

The success of Turkey set an example for many nations struggling for independence in Asia and Africa. Turkey immediately embarked on a course of modernization and reform in all walks of life. Despite the fact that the liberation struggle had been waged against major European powers, Turkey proceeded to establish good relations and cooperation with the West, and based her political and legal systems on modern, secular models. The goal, as expressed by Mustafa Kemal Atatürk, the leader of the nationalist movement and first President of the Republic, was 'to reach the level of contemporary civilization'. And to achieve this aim, a doctrine for foreign relations was formulated that has held true to this day; in the words of Atatürk, 'Peace at home, Peace in the world'.

This has not been an easy task given the history and geographical location of Turkey. She lies at a strategic "crossroads" where two continents (Europe and Asia) meet, and also where very different cultures and civilizations come together. This unique position gives her European, Balkan, Mediterranean, Middle Eastern, Caucasian and Asian identities all at the same time. This has exerted a strong influence on her foreign

policy choices and has necessitated a multi-dimensional approach. In this context, the primary objectives of Turkish foreign policy are to:

- Establish and to develop friendly relations with all countries, in particular with neighboring ones;
- Promote and to take part in regional and international cooperation;
- Resolve disputes through peaceful means and to contribute to regional peace, stability, security and prosperity.

In the aftermath of the Cold War, changing circumstances have bestowed upon Turkey a special responsibility to make active contributions to the preservation of regional and global peace and stability. Turkey is doing her best to live up to this historic task, with a clear vision for the future. Turkey has contributed troops, material and observers to international missions within the framework of the United Nations, NATO and OSCE, from Somalia through Bosnia-Herzegovina, Kosovo and Macedonia to Hebron, Georgia, East Timor and most recently Afghanistan.

There are two major specific objectives that drive the Turkish foreign policy vision for the future. The first goal is to make Turkey an integral part of the European integration process. Historically, geographically and economically, Turkey is a European country; it is therefore quite natural that she should become a full member of the European Union, sooner rather than later.

The second, but equally important goal is to transform Turkey into a pivotal and prosperous country at the centre of the vast geography region called Eurasia. A much stronger Turkey capable of creating a constantly growing zone of stability and welfare around her is certainly in everyone's best interest. Turkey enjoys a diversified industrial base, has a well-trained and equipped army and is one of the few deep-rooted democracies between the Balkans and Central Asia. The political, economic and security initiatives Turkey has launched, which encompass diverse regions, are seen as being instrumental in attaining this target.

TURKEY/AFRICA RELATIONS

Turkey's relation with Africa goes back to the Sixteenth Century and may be divided into three periods.

• Relations Prior to 1923

The first period covers the Ottoman State's relations with Africa until the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923. During that time, the Ottomans had considerable relations with Africa. In particular, the religious bond linked all-African Muslims, especially those of Bilad al-Sudan and North-East Africa, with the Ottoman Caliphate – the Servitor of the Two Holy Places – Mecca and Medina.

Some African countries (Egypt, Libya, Algeria, Tunisia, the Sudan, Eritrea, Ethiopia, Djibouti, Somalia, Niger and Chad) were totally or partially subject to Ottoman rule (see Ahmet Kavaz, 2006)⁴. In the northern Sub-Sahara region, the Ottomans were part of a balance of power system, enjoying friendship and alliance with the Kanem Burnu Empire that still prevails in today's Northern Nigeria, Niger and Chad. With regard to Southern Africa, the Ottoman State sent an Imam, Abu Bakr Effendi, to the Muslims of the Cape of Good Hope in 1863 upon the request of the Muslim Community there. The Muslims of South Africa actively participated in the Hejaz railway construction campaigns by raising £366.55 between 1900 and 1903 to assist the project (see Orhan Kologlu, 1995)⁵. Following the donation, the Ottoman States distributed more than 200 medals in gold, silver and nickel to those who had contributed (Selim Argun, 2005)⁶!

- **Relations 1923-1998**

After the establishment of the Turkish Republic in 1923, Turkey-Africa relations downgraded, if they could be said to exist at all. Although Turkey did open its first official mission in Lagos in 1956 and recognized all newly independent countries thereafter (see Salih Zeki Karaca, 2000).

- **Relations from 1998 to the Present**

In 1998, Turkey adopted a new policy document called the "Opening up to Africa Policy." This initiative aimed to greatly enhance Turkey's relations and interaction with Sub-Saharan countries in particular.

The Policy has several areas of interest of which developing diplomatic relations and fostering political, economic and cultural cooperation are high on the list. The policy is based on economic and trade objectives and includes technical and project assistance in such fields as the fight against disease, agricultural development, energy and education and humanitarian aid.

Turkey's relations with Africa were fairly passive prior to 2005 when Turkey announced "The Year of Africa." In that year, Turkish Prime Minister Recep Tayyip Erdogan visited Ethiopia and South Africa, becoming the first Turkish Prime Minister to officially visit a country below the equator.

During this same year, Turkey enhanced its relations with Africa at an institutional level. It obtained "observer status" at the African Union meeting on 12 April 2005, and accredited its embassy in Addis Ababa to the African Union in May 2005. Further action on Turkey's part led to the 10th African Union Summit in January 2008 declaring Turkey to be a strategic partner. In return Turkey set up a Turkey-Africa Cooperation Summit in August 2008 in Istanbul, with 49 African countries in attendance. This summit was

seen as the beginning of a steady and sustainable cooperation process, a turning point towards concrete projects in political and economic fields. The key challenges were seen to be a mutual lack of knowledge and familiarity between the two regions coupled with general uncertainty regarding how to further relations.

DIPLOMATIC TIES BETWEEN BURKINA FASO AND TURKEY

The first time that the first foreign minister of Burkina Faso, Djibril Bassole, visited Turkey was on Friday, May 23, 2008 (Turkish Daily news – Ankara Turkey). The party consisted of six members of the Burkina Faso Ministry of Foreign Affairs and Regional Cooperation. The aim of the visit to Istanbul was to explore the possibilities of developing bilateral relations between Turkey and Burkina Faso and to exchange views on regional and international issues. Clearly, the burgeoning state of Burkina Faso wished to open its doors for outside relations. [One of the most recent examples of this is the announcement by Burkina Faso in regard to the independence of Kosovo: 'Burkina Faso recognizes the existence of a new sovereign state, in keeping with international law', (B92 document, Ouagadougou)]. As a follow up to bilateral negotiations Burkina Faso and Turkey established consular relations at the end of 2009.

Outside of its relation with Turkey, President Compaoré held discussions with Alain Joyandet, France's Secretary of State for Cooperation, and the United Nations special representative for Cote d'Ivoire Choi Young-Jin. Speaking at the end of that meeting, which took place at the Presidential Palace, the junior French Minister was quoted as saying that he had sought to encourage President Compaore to continue mediating in the Cote d'Ivoire crisis. Joyandet, who specifically handled France's policies towards French-speaking countries, also welcomed the appointment of Burkina Faso's Foreign Minister Djibril Bassole as the AU mediator in the Darfur conflict. 'We undertook a broad overview of the various international issues that are affecting the sub-region', said the Secretary of State, who singled out Compaoré for praise in his role as a regional peacemaker. In his address, the Secretary said that his country remained the single largest contributor to development in the country with 60 million euros (about 90 million U.S. dollars) per annum (Xinhuanet.com Ougadougou – Burkina Faso).

ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL MOTIVES

Turkey's trade volume with African countries was \$USD 5.4 billion in 2003. Since then it has increased more than two-fold, exceeding \$12 billion dollars in 2007. Yet, considering that Turkey's total global trade volume amounts to almost \$300 billion dollars, its current trade volume with African countries is still low. Turkey's target is to reach a trade volume of \$30 billion dollars with Africa by the end of 2010. Currently, there are hundreds of Turkish firms operating in various African countries. The contracting

services provided by Turkish firms in those countries has reached a total of \$18 billion. In addition, the amount of Turkish direct investments in African countries now exceeds \$500 million and is expected to increase in the future (ibid).

In May 2008, Turkey became the 25th non-regional member of the African Development Bank. This membership is expected to open new areas of cooperation. For example, Turkey's membership in the African Development Bank could assist contracting firms from Turkey in undertaking large infrastructure projects on the continent.

Along with developing economic relations, Turkey also has political expectations from the Turkey-Africa Summit in both the short and long term. In the short term, Turkey needs the support of African countries as it is one of three candidates for the non-permanent seat on the UN Security Council. Apparently, Turkey reached this goal, as Turkish President Gul confidently stated that African countries fully supported Turkey's candidacy (ibid). In the long term, Turkey hopes to cooperate with African countries in international forums such as the UN and exchange views on regional and global issues. To lay the ground for ongoing cooperation, the Turkey-Africa Summit is scheduled to be held every five years. An African country will host the second summit in 2013. It has also been decided that the Turkish Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges (TOBB) and the Union of African Chambers of Commerce, Industry, Agriculture and Professions (UACCIAP) will cooperate to establish the Turkish-African Chamber for furthering commercial relations².

Turkey is also working in cooperation with international organizations for the development of Africa. So far, Turkey has donated \$7.5 million dollars to various African countries via international organizations such as the World Health Organization, the World Food Program (WFP) and Red Crescent to assist them in coping with the negative effects of drought and other natural disasters. The latest donation amounts to \$3.5 million in humanitarian aid through the WFP³.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

For Burkina Faso

1. Burkina Faso is a low income country. A key challenge for the country remains the need for a more diversified economy to strengthen resilience to external shocks on such things as cotton prices and the vagaries of the Sahelian climate. However, Burkina has distinguished itself as a front-runner in the design and implementation of Poverty Reduction Strategies. The World Bank portfolio shows that Burkina Faso's performance is one of the strongest in Sub-Saharan Africa.
2. Despite these challenges, Burkina Faso has undeniable assets. At the diplomatic level, Burkina

Faso has become a *hub for the resolution of subregional crises* because of the respectability of its leaders, the emblematic nature of the country, its political stability and its progress on the democratic front. Moreover, Burkina Faso has demonstrated its capacity for *cultural ingenuity*. In this regard, the country is known for its cultural performances. These have become African and international events. They include: (i) the Ouagadougou Pan-African Film Festival (FESPACO), which has turned the country into the first world capital of African cinema; (ii) the *Salon de l'Invention et de l'Innovation Africaine de Ouagadougou* (SIAO), which has become the international fair for African invention; (iii) the national culture, which has also become an African culture; and (iv) the Laongo site for stone sculpture, which has also become a world site for stone sculpture.

3. Burkina Faso's financial situation is fragile. Burkina Faso reached the completion point under The Enhanced Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative in April 2002. At that date, Burkina also received a topping-up of debt relief to bring the Net Present Value (NPV) of debt-to-export ratio to 150%. The most recent Debt Sustainability Analysis indicates that the combined effect of discount rates, exchange rates, disbursement profile and export performance, will improve the outlook for debt sustainability⁴. Overall, the NPV of debt-to-exports ratio would decrease to less than 150% by late 2012, i.e. earlier than anticipated.
4. Burkina Faso will remain dependent for the medium term with regard to financing costs. The future recurrent expenditures impact of foreign-financed capital investment is substantial and beyond the capacity of Government to finance them out of its own resources. Assuming an R Coefficient (coefficient of variation) of 0.03511, the annual incremental impact is about CFAF 6 billion, (the CFA franc is the name of two currencies used in Africa which are guaranteed by the French treasury). This is equivalent of 0.23% of GDP. Given the greater emphasis on social sectors in the Poverty Reduction Strategy Papers (PRSP) and The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) context, an even higher impact is expected as these sectors require relatively significant recurrent inputs than infrastructure projects. Availability of grants or highly concessional loans – including recurrent costs – will be critical for the Burkinabé authorities to reach their development objectives.

To sum up: There are no taxes and import duties that are unreasonable or discriminatory. Therefore, the Bank may finance all taxes and duties associated with project expenditures. At the project-level, the Bank would consider whether financing taxes and duties constitute an excessively high share of project costs.

This will be of great interest to Turkish traders intending to do business in Burkina Faso.

The World Bank discussed new financing parameters with the Burkina Faso Government in December 2004 and comments have been incorporated. It was recommended that Burkina Faso should make full use of the greater flexibility in expenditure eligibility when and where appropriate. The Bank may finance project costs up to 100 %. The Bank may also finance recurrent and local costs in any proportion needed for individual projects. As of now, there are no excessive taxes and duties, and the Bank may finance taxes and duties in project costs. The changes are expected to remove obstacles to project implementation (including inadequate counterpart funds) allowing the Bank to assist the authorities in achieving PRSP and MDG objectives.

For Turkey

Turkey has no colonial background in Africa, but does have cultural and religious ties dating back to the Ottoman period. This is an advantage for Turkey. However, a coherent and serious Turkish opening-up-to-Africa strategy might also consider the following points:

1. Turkey should have different ways of considering and dealing with Africa and African issues. Africa is not one or uniform across the board. A divisive and regional approach is necessary for success. In addition to North Africa, one can see four regions: South, Central, West and East Africa. Each has different characteristics, mostly due to varying ethnic-religious compositions and different colonial backgrounds.
2. A gateway country-based approach is also needed. In each region, there are some key countries; if possible, Turkey should pay special attention in developing bilateral relations with them without sidelining others. Tentatively, South Africa, Ethiopia, Nigeria, the Democratic Republic of Congo, and Senegal can be named. The more Turkey strengthens its relations with these key countries, the more it can feel secure in Africa.
3. The different colonial backgrounds of the countries in Africa play quite decisive roles in African politics. British, Francophone, Portuguese and Spanish Africa are all different in their ways of thinking and their approach to issues. This fact should be taken seriously while developing relations with each country.
4. There exist two types of leadership in Africa. One is represented by the older generation, those who led the processes of decolonization and independence for their countries. The other is the second generation: leaders. While the former are more or less inward-looking and suspicious of foreign help, the latter are for the most part

forward-looking and willing to work with outside powers. Intensifying relations with the latter group could make Turkey's relations with Africa more meaningful and long-lasting.

5. Turkey has recently developed its relations with Africa at the institutional level, involving itself in such bodies as the African Union and Africa Development Bank. Ankara might well look to strengthen its ties with the existing institutions in Africa (NEPAD The New Partnership for Africa's Development, IGAD- The Intergovernmental Authority on Development (French: Autorité intergouvernementale pour le développement), The Southern African Development Community (SADC) is an inter-governmental organization headquartered in Gaborone, Botswana. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS) is a regional group of sixteen countries, founded in 1975, etc.) as part of its long-term policy. Turkey should envision and implement the Turkey-Africa Cooperation Summit as a venue for forging a common, institutionalized form of Turkish-African relations.
6. Turkey's Africa policy should have global dynamics. Following on and if possible participating in such inter-continental groupings as the India-Brazil-South Africa Dialogue Forum (IBSA Dialogue Forum) is the best way to link relations with Africa and the world.

CONCLUSIONS

In the international system of diplomacy conducted by states and international institutions like the United Nations, respect is paid to international law. International Civil Society, which has become a stakeholder in the global system, is obliged to follow the rules of international diplomacy and is increasingly becoming adept at it. The boundaries between state and non-state actors are merging whereby the actors in the international system switch roles. The criss-crossing of roles and responsibilities is more frequent in the developed world. According to the follow-up mechanism established by The Istanbul Declaration on Turkey-Africa Partnership: Cooperation and Solidarity for a Common Future and Cooperation Framework for Turkey-Africa Partnership adopted in the First Turkey-Africa Cooperation Summit in 2008, the meetings envisaged:

- A High-Level Officials Meeting to be organised by the end of 2010,
- A Ministerial Level Reviewing Conference in 2011,
- A second High-Level Officials Meeting in 2012 and
- The Second Turkey-Africa Cooperation Summit in 2013.

As a result of this Turkey has recently decided to open 15 new Embassies (Ghana, Cameroon, Cote d'Ivoire,

Angola, Mali, Madagascar, Uganda, Niger, Chad, Tanzania, Mozambique, Guinea, Burkina Faso, Mauritania and Zambia) in African countries. In this context, Turkish Embassies in Dar-es-Salaam (May 2009), Abidjan (November 2009), Yaoundé (January 2010), Accra (February 2010), Bamako (February 2010), Kampala (March 2010), Luanda (April 2010) and Antananarivo (April 2010) have started to function.

In addition to its observer status in the African Union, Turkey has been accepted as a non-regional member of the African Development Bank. Turkey is also a member of the Inter-governmental Authority on Development Partners Forum (IGAD) and the Turkish Embassy in Abuja is accredited to the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). Furthermore, the Turkish Embassy in Dar-es-Salaam is accredited to the East African Community (EAC).

The Turkish International Cooperation and Development Agency (TİKA) Program Coordinator opened its first Office in Africa in Addis Ababa in 2005 and later in Khartoum and Dakar in the years of 2006 and 2007 respectively. TİKA offices support development projects in their respective regions.

Turkey's relation with North Africa is more organized when we look at the other geographic coordinates in Africa. One of the major countries that Turkey keeps relations in North Africa is Mauritania. Mauritania and Turkey enjoy friendly and brotherly relations. These relations need to be further enhanced through reciprocal visits and cooperation programs.

Turkey's initiative to enhance its relations with Africa in the political, economic and cultural fields includes Mauritania as well. TİKA, which provides economic, commercial, technical, social, cultural and educational cooperation through projects to African countries, regards Mauritania as another destination for TİKA projects.

The visit of the Turkish Under Secretary for Foreign Trade to Mauritania in 2005 and signing of the "Economic and Trade and Technical Cooperation Agreement" is an important development in bilateral economic relations, which is expected to increase Turkish trade volume which was under \$10 million in 2006.

Turkey seems to be open to all those who are willing to establish new relations aimed at setting up mutual relations with the Government of Turkey. The Turkish foreign policy towards Africa is not only based on economic and trade objectives but also incorporates a comprehensive approach which includes development of Africa through technical and project assistance in the fields such as fight against diseases, agricultural development, irrigation, energy and education and regular flow of humanitarian aid. Technical cooperation activities with Burkina Faso are maintained through the Turkish Cooperation and

Development Agency (TİKA).

PROGRESS TO DATE

The official visit of Undersecretary for Foreign Trade Mr. Tuncer Kayalar, on 29 July-1 August 2006 contributed towards the economic relations when he signed the "Agreement on Commercial, Economic and Technical Cooperation" and the "General Agreement of Cooperation" between Turkey and Burkina Faso. These Agreements entered into force in 2010 and 2011 respectively. Mixed Economic Commission meetings with Burkina Faso have been held since 2010.

Exports from Turkey to Burkina Faso in 2010 were \$US 10.3 million and imports from Burkina Faso were \$US 44.8 million. Major goods exported to Burkina Faso are food products, textile and electronics, whereas gold, cotton, oil seeds and raw leather are imported by Turkey.

Each year, the Turkish Government allocates higher education scholarships to students from Burkina Faso. A private Turkish school in Burkina Faso has started to graduate its students in 2009.

NOTES & REFERENCES

¹ See the address by H.E. Ali Babacan, Turkey's Minister of Foreign Affairs, to the group of African countries, New York, 24 July 2008, http://africa.mfa.gov.tr/speech-by-h_e_-babaca-to-the-group-ofafrican-countries-at-the-un_-24-july-2008.en.mfa (8 August 2012).

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³ IMF (2004). Burkina Faso – First Review Under the Three-Year Arrangement Under the Poverty Reduction and Growth Facility and Request for Waiver of Performance Criterion. EBS/04/34. http://africa.mfa.gov.tr/speech-by-h_e_-babaca-to-the-group-ofafrican-countries-at-the-un_-24-july-2008.en.mfa (8 August 2012).

⁴ Blaise Campaoré: "La crise ivoirienne inquiète le Burkina", Le Figaro, December 11, 2005

⁵ Ahmet Kavas (2006): Fransa Eski Sömürgelerinden Elini Çekmiyor http://www.ordaf.org.tr/yazar_-ahmet-kavas.aspx

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**His Excellency Dr Kemal Yildirim is a Goodwill Ambassador at Large for Eastern Europe & Turkey for the International Human Rights Commission. He holds a Doctoral Degree in Political Science and conducts research in international relations and diplomacy. He has served as a counsellor for several educational institutions and is the author of a number of books and scientific articles on gender studies and modern and classical diplomacy and diplomatic practices. He also serves as the Goodwill Ambassador for ISAF. He may be reached at conflictresearch@yahoo.com*

DELEGATION: WHEN IS IT JUSTIFIED?

Dr Oyat Christopher*

Experience has shown that it is important for organizations to explore ways and means of creating the best possible balance between control from the centre and delegation throughout the rest of the system in management. It is known that delegation and empowerment are centred on issues of authority, responsibility and power. According to Cole (1996), delegation is essentially a power-sharing process in which individual managers transfer their legitimate authority to subordinates or team members, but without passing on their own ultimate responsibility for the completion of the overall task which has been entrusted to them by their superiors. It is argued that the fulfilment of practically every task in an organization requires a certain amount of authority or the right to act in a certain way (Drucker, 1985).

Delegation may also be looked at as the practice of assigning jobs to people and giving them the authority to see the job done. It is the act of assigning formal authority and responsibility to subordinates. Responsibility comes along with accountability. The delegated remains accountable to the one who delegates (College of Professional Manual, 1996).

Urwick (1952) argues that insecure managers will tend to delegate at the lower end. This may be basically because of fear that the most immediate staff member may perhaps take over the mantle of power over time because of better performance always exhibited. However, there are ways in which delegation can be made safer for managers. Even confident and experienced managers will not want to take unnecessary risks of delegation. Good practice of delegating is likely to include the following principles:

- Ensure that the objective is made clear;
- Indicate the standard of performance that is required;
- Decide what level of authority to grant;
- Allocate adequate resources in terms of staff, funds, equipment/facilities and expense;
- Ensure that clear reporting arrangements and lines are made;
- Encourage subordinates to request further help if needed;
- Inform subordinates that early mistakes will be used as learning opportunities;
- Ensure that the task is completed according to agreed standards;
- Provide any advice or further resourcing that may be required if the task has proved to be difficult than anyone had first anticipated; and
- Thank the individual for the efforts made (Peters, 1988).

CASE STUDIES

Moses

Delegation is considered to be as old as what is cited in the Bible, as far back as 3.500 years ago! The case of Moses in the Old Testament reading is a case in point. The scripture asserts that Moses sat to judge the people, and the people stood about Moses from morning till evening (Good News Bible, 1976). When his father-in-law came and found him executing his duties and responsibilities, he said:

‘What is it that you are doing for the people? Why do you sit alone, and all people stand about you from morning till evening?’ And Moses said to his father-in-law, “because the people come to me to enquire between a man and his neighbour, and I make them know the statutes of God and His decisions’ (Exodus 18:13-16).

After a moment of reflection, Moses’s father-in-law said him to as follows:

‘What you are doing is not good. You and the people will wear yourself out, for the thing is too heavy for you; you are not able to perform it alone. Listen now to my voice; I will give you counsel, and God be with you! You shall represent the people before God, and bring their cases to God; and you shall teach them the statutes and the decisions, and make them know the way in which they must walk and what they must do. Moreover, choose able men from all the people, such as those who fear God; men who are trustworthy and who hate a bribe; and place such men over the people as rulers of thousands, of hundreds, of fifties, and of tens. And let them judge people at all times; and every great matter they shall bring to you, but any small matter they shall decide themselves; so it will be easier for you, and they will bear the burden with you. If you do this, and God so commands you, then you will be able to endure and all these people also will go to their places in peace’ (Exodus, 18:17-23).

Eventually Moses paid heed to the voice of his father-in-law and did as suggested. Moses chose competent men out of Israel, and made them heads over people; rulers of thousands, of hundreds, of fifties and of tens. And these leaders were able to judge people at all times; hard cases could be referred to Moses for appropriate action, and small matters could be decided by appointed leaders. With this delegation of power and authority, Moses became a relieved man!

Duncan

In his article “*To Delegate*” – *the bête noire of Entrepreneurs*” (In *Veritas, Journal*, Vol.2, No.3, August 2011), Duncan argued that entrepreneurs must not fall prey to business astigmatism, navel gazing and self-adulation that ignore the delegation of power and authority to others. He argues that a ‘short sighted and

ego-centric approach to business entrepreneurship is counterproductive and creates the tombstone heralding an early organizational death in the wake of immeasurable collateral damage'. He concludes by emphasizing that delegation of power and authority tend to revolutionize lives, and above all lift the frustration of many who have to wait in the wings whilst one person does everything and, more often than not, does a second rate job! He emphasized that delegation is bound to bring changes in organizations for the better.

Business Expansion and Delegation

Let us assume that a given business is successful and that the owner decides to expand it, or that the circumstances force the owner to do so. Such an expansion may necessitate moving to larger premises or opening a branch or making some internal changes. It is unlikely that the owner or manager of a given business enterprise will himself or herself be able to cope with the increased workload; rather it will be necessary for him or her to engage others to assist in the management process.

Let us further imagine that the business owner works as a full time person to check every tiny item of work performed by every member of staff employed by him. This means that he might have no time left to concentrate on more important activities which only he/she may have the necessary experience or expertise to perform. So how does he cope with this new situation of business expansion and development? (see College of Professional Management Manual, 1996). What he may do is to entrust the performance of certain activities to one or more others whom he or she can trust to perform the activities without having to be constantly supervised and checked by him or her. In this regard, what he or she has done is to **delegate** to others the responsibility for the effective and efficient performance of business activities. He/she can still maintain control by issuing instructions and guidelines, by checking the performance from time to time, and by encouraging those concerned to approach him for any advice or guidance they may need (Ibid).

LESSONS FOR MANAGERS

The three case scenarios portrayed have vital messages to organizations and managers in the following major ways:

- As a business enterprise expands, a point is reached where one person may find it difficult to manage single-handed. The business owner will simply not be in a position to attend to the needs of the expanding organization. In this regard, the need for engaging more manpower becomes necessary so as to enable a manager to be in a position to attend to other functional needs of the organization.

- As business enterprise expands, the complexity of the work to be executed escalates. Many business owners or managers are generalists who lack the ability and inclination to attend to all the technical details involved in operating a growing business. To this extent, it makes good sense to engage men and women of relevant skills, experience and the requisite knowledge to execute attendant duties and obligations of an expanding business entity.
- If a manager is interested in developing his or her subordinates, then it is beneficial to delegate duties and responsibilities as frequently as possible. In fact it is an acknowledged matter that all management development and seminars will be of little value if authority is only partially delegated!
- Preparation for replacements is another valid reason for delegating authority. Managers who delegate wisely will have competent managers ready to move on as flag bearers overtime especially when the current manager retires from active duties and responsibilities.

BENEFITS OF DELEGATION

- By delegating duties and responsibilities, a manager is able to save his or her precious time for other important tasks to be executed; he or she is relieved to concentrate on other obligations.
- Delegation has the potential of increasing outputs as more hands and talents are available to execute assignments.
- Delegation is known to increase the degree of human and technological efficiency in terms of inputs utilized. Costs of production may go down, especially administration costs and use of resources.
- Delegation enables staff members to learn through on-the-job training. How can a manager expect his or her subordinate to learn and gain experience if no opportunity is given to learn by doing?
- Delegation has the power and potential of increasing a staff member's level of motivation due to the impetus of additional assignments bestowed on him/her. In this regard, a subordinate is able to learn more in respect to challenging tasks and obligations that come along with this additional assignment.

CONCLUSION

It is important that organizations and managers should assess and recognize the ability of different staff members before delegating duties and responsibilities. This involves a good manager taking time to study and evaluate the degree of competence of staff members, assessing their respective strengths and weaknesses. When a manager finally delegates an assignment or duty to a staff member, it is important that the delegation should be exhibit complete trust so as to inspire confidence to achieve desirable and expected results. (Managers, learn to trust the delegated person!). It is equally important that a manager should develop and nurture a continuous desire to develop his or her staff members if sustained motivation at work place is to be guaranteed. Finally, a manager should know and appreciate that there are some staff members who may do better work than the manager himself or herself in some areas of the business. Recognize such individuals; encourage as well as promote them to work even better.

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**Dr Oyat Christopher is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of Development Studies in Gulu University. From 1992-2001, he worked as Chief Executive Officer (Town Clerk) of different towns in Uganda; and from 2002- 2005, he became the Human Resources and Organizational Development Advisor of an international British-based NGO called ACORD. Dr Christopher is lecturing at Gulu University. He holds a Doctor of Letters degree from St Clements University, a postdoctoral degree from Isles Internationale Universite – School of Doctoral Studies (EU), and a host of other qualifications. He may be reached at ppmesd2008@yahoo.com*

MARY SEACOLE: FORGOTTEN, SNUBBED OR IGNORED?

Dr Bruce R Duncan*



Who was this mixed race¹ entrepreneurial Jamaican woman, who defined herself as a Creole?² (The Wonderful Adventures of Mrs Seacole in Many Lands, page 1)? This paper will suggest a series of questions to lay the setting for introducing the life of a visionary and doer who added a unique chapter to the annals of entrepreneurial success stories, human compassion, nursing care and the personal right to self-development despite the ruling prejudices and practices of the controversial Victorian era.

Mary Seacole was unique. She was not, as some writers designate her to have been, a “second Florence Nightingale”. Mrs Seacole carried her own lamp and did not need to walk alongside her contemporary, Florence Nightingale to gain her deserved accolades. Seacole and Nightingale served at different tables and under immensely variant conditions and circumstances.

LET US PONDER

What influence did her White Scottish soldier father (stationed in Kingston) and her Mulatto mother bring to bear on her world view?

How did her nursing skills and commitment during the 1850 cholera epidemic in Jamaica (and elsewhere) add contours to her life outside her homeland?

How did her mother’s use of traditional medicine and her observation of the non-traditional Westernised

¹ “She considered herself not black but Creole, and considered herself British. Creoles in Jamaica enjoyed more freedom than black Jamaicans did - black Jamaicans at the time were often still in slavery. But Creoles still had far fewer rights and opportunities than those of pure European descent” (see About.com).

² People of African or European descent who had been born in the American and Indian Ocean colonies (Encyclopaedia Britannica).

medical model, self-generated business practices, altruism and compassion impact upon Mary’s own life?

What effect did the example of matriarchal care for the suffering invalid British soldiers³ and their families have on her psyche and short-spanned marriage of eight-years?

How did her November 10 marriage to the White Englishman, Edwin Horatio Seacole in 1836, paint her image, “I am a Creole, and have good Scotch blood coursing in my veins and married an Englishman” (ibid, The Wonderful Adventures of Mrs Seacole in Many lands, page 1). Her husband “is said to be a godson of Admiral Horatio Hamilton Nelson and rumoured to be Nelson’s illegitimate son” (About.com).

How did her cross-cultural DNA bring homeostasis to bear on her view of *self* and did her early life experiences engender her strong spirit of independence and self-determination?

Did the whiff of alleged scandals cause the temporary “erasure” of her exploits from Victorian and later British memory, recognition and acceptance – an “amnesia” that was to last at least until the latter half of the 20th Century?

Did overt and subliminal racism and professional jealousy bring negativity to bear on this remarkable woman who is today?

“... a symbol or rallying point for minority nurses, feminists, and nurses who... complain of the racism in the National Health Service... [using] Mary Seacole’s words to express their feelings of anger and rejection: ‘id they shrink from accepting my aid because it flowed from a somewhat duskier skin than theirs?’ (The Web of History citing Alibhai, 1988).”

What calibre of person could rise triumphant after a disastrous series of personal tragedies during 1843 and 1844 to then courageously face the devastation of the fire that destroyed her mother’s boarding house and then, after being replaced by the New Blundell Hall, to have to bury both her beloved mother and husband?

This essay will address these and other questions to “Freethinkers... who are willing to use their minds without prejudice and without fearing to understand things that clash with their own customs, privileges, or beliefs. This state of mind is not common, but it is

³ “By 1800, it was 21,000 English to 300,000 slaves, which increased to some 500,000 slaves by the 18th century. In 1820 there were 5,349 properties in Jamaica of which 1,189 contained over 100 slaves” (Pieces of the Past, citing Dr Rebecca Tortello)

essential for right thinking ...” (Leo Nikolaevich Tolstoy, page 101).

A CHILD’S JOURNEY

Mary Jane Seacole née Grant (born 1805, in Kingston, Jamaica), was the daughter of a free Black⁴ Jamaican who provided care for invalids (operated on by British surgeons) at her boarding house, Blundell Hall, in Kingston, Jamaica (African American Autobiographers, page 328).

Seacole was fostered from a very early age by “an old lady, who brought me up in her household among her own grandchildren” (ibid, The Wonderful World of Mary Seacole, page 1). Surrounded by love and discipline that made her eschew being “idle and useless”, Mary had regular contact with her mother and observed her work with those in her care. It was during these formative childhood years that her ambition to “become a doctress⁵ took firm root in my mind”. (ibid, The Wonderful World of Mary Seacole, page 1).

Ever the “hands on” person, the little girl began to practice her learned medical skills on her doll and then extended her early forays into the world of healing by extending her practice to other patients, “the dogs and cats” that were unlucky enough to become the possessors of simulated “diseases which were raging among their owners, [forcing] down their reluctant throats the remedies which I deemed most likely to suit their supposed complaints” (ibid, The Wonderful World of Mary Seacole, page 2).

Seacole’s forays into experimentation on animals went well before the late 20th Century paradigm embracing Animal Rights. Now, for example, the Constitutions of both Germany and Switzerland address “animal protection” (Constitutional Inclusion of Animal Rights in Germany and Switzerland: How Did Animal Protection Become an Issue of National Importance?). However, the use of animals in medical research and the cosmetic industry remains a source of debate and activist attention over and against the commercial interests of the cosmetics empires – encouraged and fuelled also by greed, vanity and superficiality. Nevertheless, a compromise keeps some customer-supported enterprises under review (Companies that Do Tests on Animals).

Thus, those of us who care about animal rights will have our feelings somewhat ameliorated in the knowledge that the young Mary Grant, “despairing of finding another human patient... proceeded to try my

⁴ Slaves were not freed in the British West Indies until 1834 so Mary occupied a middle ground; not a slave but still subject to the prejudices against Blacks. (Encyclopaedia Britannica).

⁵ A female doctor (Webster).

samples and essences upon – myself” (ibid, The Wonderful World of Mary Seacole, page 2). May the day soon dawn when the moguls who feed on the torture and consequential suffering of animals follow Mary’s example and test their products on themselves!

A GROWING AND DEVELOPING CHILD’S CULTURAL MISH MASH

Discrimination was alive and well in Mary’s domicile, Jamaica. The ghosts of slavery, anomalies of racist discrimination, class distinction and skin pigmentation defined the interwoven fibres that helped create “a pioneering nurse and heroine of the Crimean War” (BBC, Mary Seacole).

In an attempt to wear the moccasins of this amazing woman it is important to try to enter the environment that had evolved to encompass her formative years. The writer is thus indebted to Donna Essix’s synopsis of Jamaican History [up to the 19th Century] as included in many of the paraphrased bullet points following hereunder.

- In 1494, the Genoese explorer, Christopher Columbus (in the name of the King and Queen of Spain) began the colonising process that was to introduce the destructive and rapacious Spanish colonisation of Jamaica from 1509 – 1655.
- Under the subsequent exploits of Juan de Esquivel, the native Arawack people “disappeared” some 80-years later. The Spanish genocide had used slavery and disease as tools to decimate a civilisation. Thus, the need for new labour resulted in them introducing Black slaves from Africa.
- Across the sea, the English Protector, Oliver Cromwell sent Admiral Penn and General Venables to capture the island of Hispaniola in 1655.
- Their invasion was unsuccessful and they then sailed on to Jamaica where, on 11 May, the Spanish lost their Jamaican conquest to the colonising English.
- Thus, began the occupation of Jamaica by the English and despite attempts by the Spanish and the Maroons⁶ to send the English back to their own island, English power won the battles and skirmishes.

⁶ The name ‘maroon’, is derived from the Spanish word *cimarron* used to describe runaway slaves. The British would eventually be forced into signing an agreement, in the form of two treaties, which would (in theory) bring peace to both sides.

- It was at this point (according to Essix) that “The Slave Economy” became the vogue from 1655-1838 (Jamaican History).
- Previous indentured English labour had proved to be unsuccessful. The income from plantation harvests needed to be deposited into the bottomless English coffers. Consequently, “the British turned to large scale importation of Africans to be used as slaves on the sugar plantations” (Jamaican History).
- English plantation owners enjoyed the fruits of Jamaica’s endowment of natural resources. Men such as ‘the Bristol merchant Colonel George Standfast... Sir John Yeamans, who once lived at Redland Court in Bristol... [and his brother], Sheriff, Mayor and Chief Magistrate of Bristol, [and] John Dukinfield’ (Portcities, Bristol) enabled English tea and coffee to be sweetened as a result of slave labour drudgery in the fields of Jamaican plantations.
- The Jamaican “Jewel in the English Crown” helped to build up and sustain the First World status of the United Kingdom – especially the cities of Liverpool and Bristol.

“Plantation slavery was based on the Triangular trade among England (manufactured goods), Africa (slaves), and the Caribbean (sugar), which itself was the basis for what later emerged as the international economy. International trade was so important to the Jamaican economy that when the American war of independence disrupted trade between what was then the North American colonies and the Caribbean, 15,000 thousands of slaves died of starvation in Jamaica alone” (Jamaican History).

- Uprisings by slaves were not infrequent and in 1830, when the Jamaicans of mixed race (Mulattoes) were enfranchised many of them ‘used their new rights to fight for the still-oppressed blacks’ (The Economy of Jamaica).
- ‘One such defender, a Baptist deacon named Sam Sharpe, led a slave revolt in 1831. The revolt was put down harshly by the government; hundreds were killed, and Sharpe and other key players were captured and hanged. Others caught in the fray were beaten or flogged’ (ibid, The Economy of Jamaica).
- The outcry over the collateral fallout in Britain resulted in England abolishing slavery in Jamaica through their controversial ‘six-year program of apprenticeship to smooth the transition’ (ibid, The Economy of Jamaica).
- In 1838, slaves were set free.

POST SLAVERY

Although being initially technically “free” as mulattoes, Mary and her family still had few civil rights - they could not vote, hold public office or enter the professions. Did Mary project much of her own emotional pain along with the desire to “make it better” also because of the advantages and disadvantages of the then accepted power-entrenched political and social structures, the multi-ethnic composition of her family plus her personal exposure to the challenges and disciplines of entrepreneurship?

As an aside, let us allow our minds to turn to other famous “women of colour” who would certainly, within *their* settings, parallel the sentiments expressed some 2000 years ago, “Nazareth! Can anything good come from there?” Nathanael asked. “Come and see”, said Philip’ (The Bible, John 1:46).

NO LONGER A CHILD – THE CRIMEAN WAR

Subsequent to travels in many countries and another return to Jamaica, Seacole travelled to the United Kingdom from Panama where she sought to enlist to serve the sick and wounded soldiers engaged in the Crimean War. Her request to be recruited by Mrs Elizabeth Herbert, who was interviewing nurses on behalf of the Secretary of War, was unsuccessful – she was not short-listed for an interview.

We can only speculate as to the reasons for this unexpected response, especially as there were no “registered qualifications” required to be accepted as a trained nurse (a-la-western-style).

This rejection hurt Mrs Seacole but resulted in her using her own “borrowed money” (UNISON) to finance her travel to the Crimea arriving in Constantinople in 1855.

However another rebuff awaited her. The renowned Florence Nightingale refused her request to be enlisted to assist in nursing (About.com) and was content with the 38 nurses she had taken to be with her (The National Archives). Nevertheless, undaunted and determined, Mary Seacole (aged 50) assisted by her husband’s relative, Thomas Day, established the “British Hotel” near Balaclava⁷.

This haven was a “home for recuperating and injured officers”, a self-built establishment that “served only those who could pay for their room and board... [and buy] medicines... and [wanted] medical advice’ (ibid About.com). Seacole had financed herself and did not have any backing from the Queen and Country she served to meet budget needs.

Ever the activist the Creole British nurse, often went out to the troops on the battlefield and ‘was known to

⁷ Seacole also assisted wounded enemy soldiers.

some of the British officers from her time in Jamaica' (ibid About.com).

'In 1856, journalist William Howard Russell wrote in the *London Times* of her devotion and courage' (ibid, About.com)."

PAR FOR THE COURSE – GOSSIP AND INNUENDO

Nobody ever kicks a dead dog!

Anyone who stands out for what they believe – whether justified or not – will become a target for character assassination from critics.

Interestingly, having read one book on the troubled life of Florence Nightingale and visited the museum dedicated to her memory at the St Thomas Hospital in London, the writer failed to discover the phials of literary poison directed by The Lady with the Lamp at Mary Seacole. A general statement about Mrs Mary Seacole was, however, on view and a talk examining the extraordinary life of Victorian heroine Mary Seacole' is available (Florence Nightingale Museum). Perhaps, Nightingale and her supporters deserve posthumous pardon because of their Victorian prudishness (hypocritical though it was).

Nightingale the administrator and Seacole the activist were aeons apart culturally, socially and educationally. Importantly, they were women of their time – their service was within the light of that era. Each served their country and the cause of nursing in admirable (though time-limited) ways and it is important to note that:

- Nightingale and her supporters chose to comment about Seacole's 'disorganised and not well run hotel... that liquor was sold to the soldiers... and that her [alleged] out-of-wedlock daughter was living with her at the hotel' (ibid About.com).
- Nightingale had the gall to call Mary Seacole 'a woman of bad character... [and described her hotel] in terms usually used for brothels' (ibid, About.com).

Newly published criticisms about Nightingale's character as being that of 'a manipulative, neurotic and sexually repressed woman' and her rumoured death from syphilis have been [running themes that challenge] her [long established] chaste and proper image' (Longwoods.com). However, who she was and what she did were two different matters and, within the vortex of enlightened thinking, the one issue does not relate to the other.

Furthermore, it had been alleged 'she was in love with her cousin Marianne Nicholson and had more than a passing interest in other women as well' (ibid.Longwoods.com). Whilst there is no record of her being a practising lesbian, being a closet lesbian would

have been a frightening secret for her to keep, especially during the Victorian era. Thankfully, attitudes, under girded by knowledge, are changing and the sexual preferences of individuals are not relevant (although still the subject of gossip, innuendo and calumny).

However, the above and other criticisms of Miss Nightingale's character, *if true*, could probably explain her unconscious need to displace her projections onto Mrs Seacole.

Relevant to the often invidious comparisons between the Seacole and Nightingale is the issue that the latter's nursing services and food was free but Seacole charged a fee. To counter this bias we need only refer to The Guardian newspaper's obituary on the death of Florence Nightingale⁸. The following telling extract illustrates not only the support that Miss Nightingale received but also, by default, reveals how the efforts of Mrs Seacole were ignored thus necessitating the need for her to charge a fee:

Miss Nightingale 'was enabled by the liberality of the public at home to provide large quantities of stores and necessaries, the cost of which was in part repaid by Government, and the distribution of these and of the immense accumulation of gifts in kind from Great Britain was a heavy part of her work' (The Guardian).

SUNSET

Mary Seacole returned to Britain after the Crimean War. She was destitute and in ill health. However, the press 'highlighted her plight and in July 1857 a benefit festival was organised to raise money for her, attracting thousands of people' (BBC History).

Unable to raise the necessary finance, Mary Seacole was unable to then extend her services in India. She died in 1881⁹, having converted to Roman Catholicism. She is buried within the confines of the St. Mary's Roman Catholic Cemetery, Harrow Road, Kensal Green, London. Her spirit lives on to beckon others to stand up and be counted. The cause of death was 'listed as apoplexy or a stroke'. (Encyclopaedia of World Biography).

'She left an estate valued at over £2,500. After some specific legacies, many of exactly 19 guineas, the main beneficiary of her will was her sister, Louisa. Lord Rokeby, Colonel Hussey Fane Keane, and Count Gleichen (three trustees of her Fund) were each left £50; Count Gleichen also received a diamond ring, said to have been given to Seacole's late husband by Lord Nelson' (Wikipedia).

⁸ 13 August 1910, 10 South Street, Park Lane, London and is buried in the graveyard at St. Margaret Church in East Wellow, Hampshire.

⁹ At 3 Cambridge Square, Paddington.

AU REVOIR

Numerous awards came her way and posthumous recognition began to flow during the latter half of the 20th Century.

Readers are invited to review the efforts to bring to life the contribution of a unique woman and the Bibliography will provide a good starting place.

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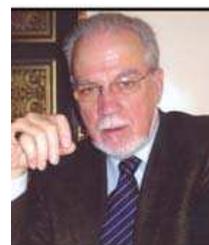
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**Dr Bruce Duncan holds a Certificate in Life Coaching (Newcastle College), Diploma in Counselling (CSCT), Diploma TESOL (Distinction) LTTC, Diploma in Teaching Business English (Distinction) LTTC, CELTA (Cambridge), MA in TESOL 2004, MA in TESOL 2010, (St Clements University), a D.Litt. (St Clements) and an honorary D.Ed. (Commonwealth University), Professor (Commonwealth University). He is the founder and chief executive of Sanctuary Services. Email address 110940@msn.com*

ADMINISTRATIVE STRESS AND TASK PERFORMANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE GAMBIA

Dr Kenneth O. Igharo*

A correlation study is a quantitative method of research in which two quantitative variables from the same group of subjects are compared to see if there is a relationship (or co-variation) between them. Theoretically, any two quantitative variables can be correlated (for example, mid-term scores and the number of body piercings!) but this does not necessarily mean that there is a genuine causative relationship.

A number of conceptions of stress have emerged since the 1970s. The theory underlying the work reported in this paper is Person-Environment Fit (P-E Fit) theory (French & Caplan, 1972; French, Caplan and Harrison, 1982; Harrison, 1978). The basic tenet of P-E Fit theory is that stress arises from the fit, or, more precisely, misfit, between an individual and his or her environment.

This misfit can occur at different levels (Edwards, Caplan and Harrison, 1998). For example, stress can occur if there is a mismatch between the demands placed on an individual and his or her abilities to meet those demands. Furthermore, misfit between demands and abilities induces coping and defense mechanisms, which in turn influence objective and subjective representations of the environment (Edwards et al., 1998). Misfit between the objective reality of the work environment and an individual's subjective perceptions of the work environment also can result in stress.

In the study reported here, stress demands on school administrators in The Gambia were tested for correlation with task performance. The subjects included Principals, Vice-Principals and Heads of Departments of post-primary schools looking to provide a holistic education of the child. There are many rationales why the correlation between administrative stress and task performance should be given attention. School administrators have the task of improving educational development in general, creating a sound learning environment and facilitating the instructional system for the benefit of the learners. They should, therefore, be freed from potentially negatively stressful triggers, situations, conditions and environments.

PLANNING THE STUDY

Stress on school administrators may derive from excessive workload, responsibility for people and resources as well as the administrator's personal problems. Generally, administrative stress has been

found to be dis-enhancing, rather than enhancing on task performance (Nweze A, 1984)

This study reported was designed to investigate the relationship between administrative stress on post-primary school administrators' task performance. The aim was to examine how different administrators coped with daily stressful situations. It also aimed to make recommendations on ways of reducing distress among schools administrators for better performance of their duties as school managers.

The questions asked were:

- Is there any relationship between post-primary schools administrator's workload and level of administrative stress?
- Is there any relationship between post-primary schools administrators' responsibility for people and material and level of administrative stress?
- Does the financial remuneration status of school administrators have any correlation with stress levels?

It was decided to use a quantitative survey method to test the following null hypotheses:

1. There is no significant relationship between post-primary schools administrators' workload and level of administrative stress.
2. There is no significant relationship between post-primary schools administrators' responsibility for people and materials and administrative stress.
3. There is no significant correlation between financial remunerations of post-primary schools administrators and administrative stress level.

Population

The population used in this study consisted of Principals, Vice-Principals, and Heads of Departments in post-primary schools in The Gambia.

Sampling and Sampling Procedure

Three hundred (300) 300 schools were selected by random sampling of the total 323 post-primary schools in The Gambia. From the selected schools, 900 Principals, Vice-Principals, and Heads of a Department were surveyed.

Instrumentation

The research instrument was designed by the researcher, who is a specialist in Measurement and Evaluation. The instrument was a 42-item Questionnaire entitled: Administrative Stress Questionnaire (ASQ), made up of two parts:

Part I contained 5 items on demographic data, viz: age, income status and years of experience.

Part 2 contained 37 questions.

- Fifteen questions were concerned with reasons frequently given by administrators when they perceive stress in performing their administrative tasks. A 5-point Likert scale structure was used: Very often, Often, Sometimes, Rarely and Never.
- Seven questions requiring the respondents to give YES or NO answers.
- Fifteen questions solicited each subject's responses to how they perceived their workload; their responsibility for people and resources; their interpersonal relations at school; and possible problems at home or with financial remuneration. These questions also used a 5-point Likert scale: Not stressful, Slightly stressful, Moderately stressful, Stressful and Highly stressful.

DATA

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to test the three hypotheses at an alpha level of 0.01 level of significance to reject or retain a hypothesis.

Both descriptive and inferential quantitative statistical analyses, presented in this section were carried out to arrive at the following results using the *Statistical package for social sciences* (SPSS) Version 13.0 software.

Salaries

The data indicate that 37% of secondary school administrators in The Gambia earn a monthly income of between D2500 and D3500, which is equivalent to an average of US \$100. Only just over 1% earn a monthly salary above D10501, which is equivalent to about US\$ 350. See Tables 1 and 2 and Bar Graph.

N	Valid	797
	Missing	42
Mean		2.242
Median		2.000
Mode		1.00
Std. Deviation		1.528
Range		8.00
Minimum		1.00
Maximum		9.00

Table 1: Monthly Salaries of Secondary School Administrators in The Gambia

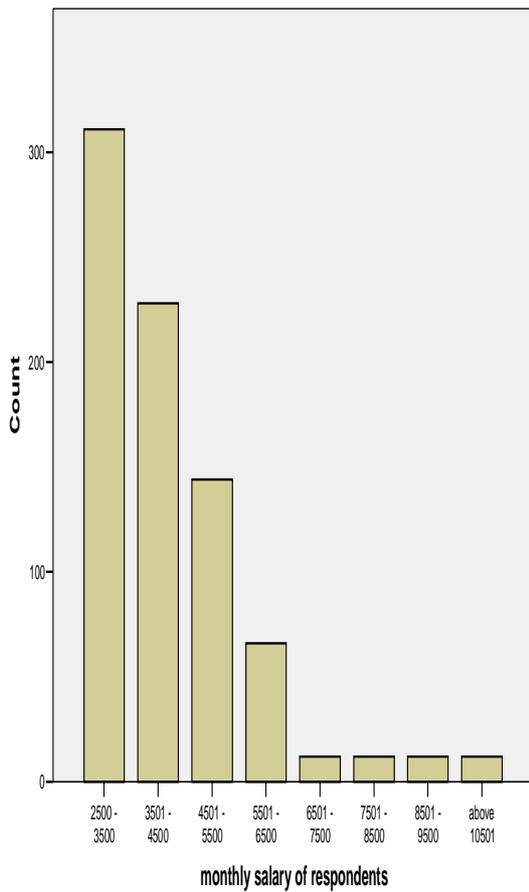
		Frequency	%	
Valid	1 =2500-3500	311	37.1	
	2 = 3501-4500	228	27.2	
	3 = 4501-5500	144	17.2	
	4 = 5501-6500	66	7.9	
	5 = 6501-7500	12	1.4	
	6 = 7501-8500	12	1.4	
	7 = 8501-9500	12	1.4	
	8 = above 10501	12	1.4	
	Total	797	95.0	
	Missing		42	5.0
	Total		839	100.0

Table 2: Monthly salary of respondents

Work-load

Almost one half (48%) of the respondents stated that their work-load is heavy; another 39% agreed that their work-load was 'okay'; only 2% stated they have a light work-load while 8% felt their work-load was too heavy (see tables 4 and 5 and Bar Graph).

Hypothesis 2 ($H_0 : P = 0$, $\alpha = 0.01$): relationship between responsibility for people/materials and degree of administrative stress of secondary school administrator in the Gambia.



Monthly salaries of Secondary School Administrators in The Gambia

N	Valid	827
	Missing	12
Mean		3.642
Median		4.000
Mode		4.00
Std. Deviation		0.669
Skewness		0.127
Std. Error of Skewness		0.085
Range		3.00
Minimum		2.00
Maximum		5.00

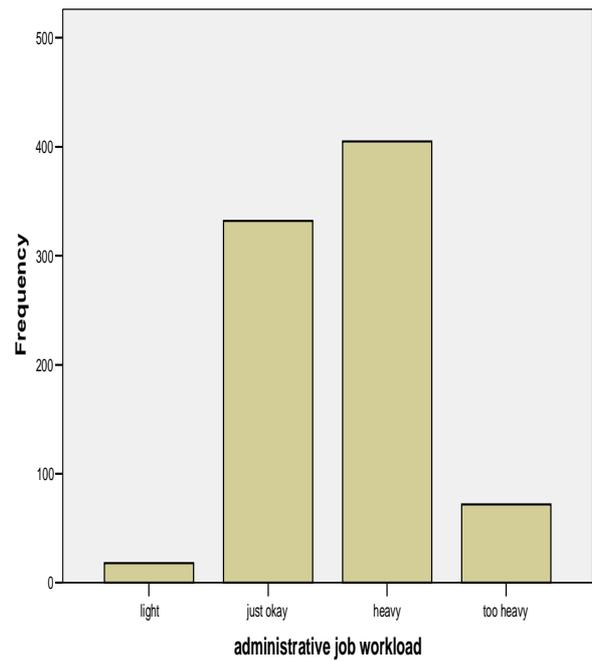
Table 4: Administrative Workload

		Frequency	%
Valid	1 = too light	0	0
	2 = light	18	2
	3 = just okay.	332	40
	4 = heavy.	405	48
	5 = too heavy.	72	9
Total		827	99
Missing		12	1
Total		839	100.

Table 5: Administrative Workload

Workload of Secondary School Administrators in The Gambia

administrative job workload



	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Administrative stress index (degree of stress experienced) Due to Administrative responsibility for people(staff, students, parents)	99.81	13.52	839

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics

	Administrative stress index(degree of stress experienced)	Administrative responsibility for people (staff, students, parents)
Administrative stress index	1	.581**
N	839	839
Pearson Correlation Sig. (1-tailed)	.581** .000 839	1 839

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (1-tailed).

Table 7: Correlations

We can see there is a significant, positive relationship or correlation (.580) between responsibility for people/materials and degree of administrative stress experienced by secondary school administrators in the Gambia at 99% probability. The mean responses and the relatively narrow standard deviation shown on table 6, supports this result indicated by the correlation coefficient.

CONCLUSIONS

These data suggest the following conclusions:

Hypothesis 1: The data indicate that there is a significant correlation at the 99% level. This leads to the conclusion that there is a correlation between job workload and the degree or level of administrative stress experienced by secondary school administrators in The Gambia.

Hypothesis 2: The data suggest that there is a significant positive relationship between responsibility for people/materials and degree of administrative stress experienced by secondary school administrators in the Gambia. The researcher therefore concludes that as responsibility for people and material increases there is

a slight or marginal tendency in the increase of stress. Since the enrolment of student now, though increasing, but not yet explosive. This conclusion agrees with the observation of French and Caplan (1975) that the more responsibility that a manager has for people as well as things, the more likely he is to encounter tension.

Hypothesis 3: The data suggest that secondary schools administrators' salaries are low and that that this is cause for stress on the job. The study revealed clearly that majority (37.1%) of secondary school administrators in The Gambia earn a monthly income of between D2500 and D3500, This is evidently a relatively meager salary. (Note: \$1= **D30 or Thirty Dalasi**).

RECOMMENDATIONS

To substantially reduce administrative stress persistent in The Gambia schooling system requires action by the Schools Governing Body.

Improving financial remuneration and fringe benefits would be an important first step. It is a basic principle that a person will perform better if their basic needs are gratified.

Secondly, an investigation into how workload and responsibility for people and materials can be reduced would be worthwhile. Reducing the current heavy enrolment ratio of students to teachers by building more schools might need the attention of the Government Administrators.

Hersey-Blanchard's (1988) situational leadership model for secondary schools administrators asserts that successful leaders adjust their styles depending on the maturity of followers. This suggests that there may be merit in training school administrators to better manage stress by applying a combination of Delegation, Participation (sharing ideas), Selling (explaining decision) and Telling (giving instructions).

The initial success of this study suggests that there may be merit in conducting further studies looking at correlations between stress and such matters as family challenges, personal health, behavior type and religion.

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**Dr Kenneth O. Igharo is a native born Nigerian currently lecturing in Education at the Brikama Campus of the University of The Gambia, West Africa. He has a B.Ed.(Hons.) in Chemistry and an M.Ed in Measurement and Evaluation from the University of Benin, Nigeria, a PhD from St Clements University and is a Fellow of the International Guild of Academicians (FIGA). He teaches undergraduate and certificate school management courses. Prior to taking up his appointment in The Gambia, Dr Igharo taught at Obafemi Awolowo University and the College of Education, Ekiadolor-Benin, Nigeria. He may be reached by email at kennetok@yahoo.com.*

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SALE STRATEGIES OF SMEs IN CAMBODIA

Dr Kao Kvang Hong*

Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs) contribute to economic growth, develop social infrastructure, create employment opportunities and help in regional and local development of an economy (Scupola, 2001). But most SMEs lack technical expertise (Barry and Milner, 2002) and adequate capital for making technological improvements (Barry and Milner, 2002; Raymond, 2001). And many SMEs suffer from inadequate organizational planning and sales strategies (Tetteh and Burn, 2001; Miller and Beser, 2000).

SMEs are different from large enterprises in terms of the scope of the products or services available to the customer (Reynolds et al., 1994; Afzal, 2007). The essential characteristics and sales strategies of SMEs are also different from large enterprises. In this regard, Westhead and Storey (1996), and Hill and Stewart (2000) mention the key issue as “uncertainly” originating from the lack of control over the Market and Sales Environment. This is an external factor that characterizes small business operations. Due to lack of control over the market place, SMEs mostly set and run short term policies and strategies, including sales strategies, which enable them to change the strategy whenever necessary by looking to the market situation.

The study reported in this paper aimed to compare the sales strategies of SMEs in the capital city of Cambodia.

BACKGROUND

Cambodia has made considerable progress with the dismantling of the political and military organization of the Khmer Rouge. In January 1997, the country emerged from four years of its darkest period in history to bounce back from below zero growth to normalcy and rebuilt the destroyed institutions and capacities in various fields. Faster development could take place with the resumption of long denied external assistance (CDC, 2002).

The Government commenced introducing various reforms in the economy in the 1980s. In 1989 the state economy was transformed to a free market economy; i.e. enterprises owned by the state were privatized and the government increased motivation to local and foreign private investment. Price control was blocked and private property rights were restored. Large numbers of foreign ventures, mainly from Asian countries followed by Europe and USA, grew in the country after the free election in 1993 (Economics Watch, 2007). A Government forum on the privates sector was held on August 20, 2004, the aim being to reduce the bureaucracy and corruption. In October 2004, Cambodia became a member of World Trade Organization (WTO) after 10 years of negotiations and

preparation of legal frameworks to comply with the standard level (WTO, 2006).

Based on key economic indicators produced by the National Institute of Statistics (NIS) and projected by Economic Institute of Cambodia (EIC) in April 2007, the contribution of the industrial sector in the Cambodia economy increased from 12.5% in 2003 to 17.1% in 2006, while the in service sector also increased slightly from 8.6% to 10.4%. In 2006, Cambodia enjoyed double digit economic growth of 10.4%. Micro, small and medium enterprises accounted for 99% of firms and employed 45% of the labor force (ADB, 2006). Growth was mainly boosted by the continuous expansion of garment exports, which were strongly supported by the USA and EU. In spite of the sharp increases in the prices of oil and other imported inputs, there has been considerable improvement in construction activities, and visits by tourists to the country have markedly increased.

In August 2004, an SME subcommittee was established. This consisted of representatives from nine Ministries and the Chamber of Commerce. The committee was to play an essential role in proposing measures necessary to develop policy and programs to act in accordance with the Rectangular Strategy of the Government, notably in the area of private sector development; in particular, by developing competitive advantage for SMEs and proposing incentive policies, and developing an activity plan to promote and develop SMEs (SMEs Secretariat, 2005 & 2006). The government has been trying to take diverse actions to ensure the smooth growth of the sector. The Rectangular Strategy, which was proposed by the government at the beginning of its third term in July 2004, stated enhancing SMEs as one of the actions towards improvement and motivation of the private sector development and employment generation. The importance of SMEs is not just their contribution towards solving economic issues but also eradicating social problems in the whole country (Sen, 2004).

The Asian Development Bank (ADB) in 2006 pointed out four main barriers to SME development:

- The lack of an SME development framework
- Business registration
- The Business license system and
- Assessment of finance to limit the growth.

The ADB aimed to solve this problem by working in cooperation with the Government to (ADB, 2006):

- Strengthen banking supervision
- Supporting money and interbank market development
- Creating a legal framework in supporting money and interbank market development,
- Creating a legal framework in support of cooperate borrowing

- Including a body of civil commercial law and system
- Developing a secure transaction and account standard
- Supporting investment in the long term development of human capacity

Beside the above issue, SMEs have confronted many other problems. The Cambodia Development Resource Institute (CDRI) reported in 2002 that SMEs in the country faced aggressive competition with imported products, in particular, products smuggled from Thailand and Vietnam were being dumped on the market at very low prices. Another problem was that though the production costs of the domestic products were very low. Further, wholesalers, because of their dominance, were on-selling products at high prices. The SMEs were the losers all round. Furthermore, because of the fluctuation of exchange rates of Thai Bath and Vietnamese Dong in terms of Cambodian Riel, very often there were increases in the prices of consumer products in the country (CDRI, 2012). In addition, due to lack of skill and no updated technology, the local SMEs were facing problems to produce the outputs needed to meet the quality standard of the market. The SMEs located far from the city could not compete in the market because of their high cost of production and the long distance to bring products to market. And another problem was that the cost of marketing of the SMEs, i.e., advertising cost, was very expensive (ibid).

Despite these many problems, the SMEs of Cambodia have used different sales strategies successfully to compete with each other and increase their sales volume. It was these strategies that were the target of the research reported here.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Sales strategy is the planning of sales activities, such as: methods of reaching clients, getting the competitive differences and utilization of available resources. A strategic selling strategy is a carefully conceived plan that is needed to accomplish a sales objective. Tactics involve the day-to-day selling: prospecting, sales process, and follow-up. The tactics of selling are very important but equally vital is the strategy of sales (Zahorsky, 2007).

Zahorsky developed his triple-tiered sales strategy of SMEs as: Tier 1: Association, Tier 2: Suppliers and Tier 3: Customer. These three approaches are important to understand the customers by looking at client and outside influences on the business. The insight gained for a competitive advantage comes from the marketplace not from the mind.

Rana had studied the sales strategies of small enterprises in two countries, namely the USA and Pakistan. According to her, sales strategy may be divided into four components: the internal traits of sales people, the interaction of the sales person and the

customer in the market place, the sales techniques used and the impact of structure, policies and culture (Rana, 2004).

Neil Rackman and other experts in sales and marketing feel that the success in personal selling rests on the seller's ability to create value for customers. Manning and Reece (2004) advocate that the strategic or consultative selling model features in five steps: developing the personal selling philosophy, developing a relationship strategy, developing a product strategy, developing a customer strategy and developing a presentation strategy.

According to Zahorsky (op cit), the competitive advantages of strategic sales of SMEs are: increasing the closing ratio by knowing clients' hot buttons, improving client loyalty by understanding the need, shortening the sales cycle with outside recommendations and outselling competition by offering the best solution.

There are two basic types of sales strategies that can be employed to promote sales:

- Direct sales strategy: going head to head, and feature for feature against the competitor. A direct sales strategy is a hard way to sell, unless one has clear superiority over the competition.
- Indirect sales strategy: by introducing new capabilities and criteria that the competitor may not have and by making the sales strategies essential to the buyer's evaluation criteria (Brown, 2008).

Jobber (1997) feels that companies need to provide their sales representatives with an understanding of buying behavior, personal selling skills and commercial negotiations as fundamental to successful sales strategies. The other necessary success strategy is managing customer relationship; this includes trade marketing, telemarketing, relationship management and selling to and managing key accounts.

SMEs' sales strategies begin with the process of effective selling skills in contacting all intermediaries (retailer and wholesalers, etc.). To solve sales problems and convince the intermediaries to accept the products, SMEs must develop the advertising materials, public relations and marketing activities to support and build their brand image (Kawasaki, 2007).

A study in Singapore showed that bigger firms were able to use the mass media along with strong sales tactics to good effect. Due to the shortage of financial resource, SMEs have to be contented with promotions through newspapers, magazines, flyers, radio, and word of mouth (Limet al., 2000).

Studies show that SMEs bypass sales agents by setting up one-stop retail outlets for their comprehensive range of products and services in order to compete with large

firms. To avoid price wars with large firms, SMEs maintain the same prices as those of large firms and aim to improve their range and quality of products. In addition, to enhance sales, they provide brochures, friendly soft toys for children and some additional services in their sales tactics, and pursuing the strategy of providing a quality product and ensuring superior value delivery (ibid).

The Internet offers an opportunity for companies to market and sell their products and services around the world without physical contact with customers. But SMEs' generally lack skills in the use of Internet for selling and advertising their products. Effective use of Internet for selling and marketing would provide SMEs with low cost gateway to sales (Sam, 2007).

A research study by Kordestani (2008) showed that export was the mode of international selling. In Iran, SMEs' products are exported and the amount of exports increases annually. This success was brought about by good promotion campaigns. The SMEs with high export performance did not adapt their pricing strategies; they relied on their standardized distribution strategies. The success (sales volume, sales revenue, sales profitability, etc.) of the sales strategy was because of standardized product (i.e., the same labeling, brand, quality, etc.) and simple promotion strategy (advertising, channels, etc.).

The study of Nordstrand and Ohman in 2005 showed that successful SMEs were those that took the initiatives to adapt to consumer demands, had the understanding and skill to get the price right, developed trade shows and developed sales tactics that improved sales volume. The study also showed that a short distribution channel and thereby short distribution time led to increase sales for SMEs.

SMEs in different countries have different sales and marketing strategies. Most sell through four channels: direct sales, own shop, wholesale and retail, and export. For example, Nanjing Planck (China) and Organic Health (Malaysia) have their own shops. Organic (Nepal) and Hanoi Organics (Vietnam) also operate their own shops and provide a home delivery service on a membership basis. SMEs in Hanoi export food and drinks and small amounts of organic tea to other countries. Some SMEs in India sell their products directly or through dealers as well as having their own shops. Thai Organic Food sells products into supermarkets and produces vegetables for its own restaurant. SMEs producing food and drinks in Singapore supply their products not only to wholesalers, their own shops and distributors, but also sold through home delivery (IFOAM, 2003).

Personal connections create a degree of influence in business. Many SMEs build an information network on personal connections, and the most successful entrepreneurs have expanded social contacts. The building of personal contacts not only maintains the existing basis for business deals but also brings

information on business opportunities. The information received from this channel tends to be accurate and better timed than getting it from published materials. Taiwanese SMEs put emphasis on establishing personal connections. They find that credit and guarantee of new deals is established through friendship of mutual friends. This approach also bypasses the need to deal with financial institutions and credit agencies. This kind of selling and marketing strategy tends to link an SMEs' economic and social activities. Social activities, like weddings and funerals, were the occasions for keeping personal contacts and developing relationship, which will help future business. SME entrepreneurs like to take part in social activities to expand their personal connections (Zhu, 2006).

In Cambodia, the selling at dumping prices of smuggled imported products creates many problems for domestic products and demands a sales strategy response. The Government tries to control smuggling activities but is only partially effective. The dominance of wholesalers also remains a problem for manufacturers. Producers have tried to unite by forming an association to maintain the stability of prices but the effort failed because of a lack of knowledge and experience. Moreover, the fluctuation of Thai Bath and Vietnamese Dong currencies in terms of Cambodian Riel has greatly influenced the price of consumer products and lowered the level of sales revenue (Archarya, 2002).

Many entrepreneurs in Cambodia have no professional sales strategies, sales supporting activities and business plan. Due to the high cost of advertisement, sales promotion is mainly exercised through flyers, word of mouth and internet, which were supported by Cambodia Craft Cooperation (CCC, 2005).

A study of consumer insights and consumer product enterprises in 2007 showed that medium enterprises (MEs) were finding difficulty in competing in the market because of smuggling activities and unlawful business operation. But they had more clear-cut sales strategy, marketing tactics and business plan than the SEs. Further, MEs had better technologies and skills to produce standard quality products than the SEs. The outputs of MEs were readily accepted by consumers. Further, MEs in the country had larger budgets to advertise, attract impression, build brand image and stimulate sales compared to the SEs (FCB, 2007).

STUDY OBJECTIVES

The objectives of the study were:

- To examine the sales strategies used by the SMEs during special periods to achieve sales objectives.
- To identify the 'push and pull' sales tactics SMEs use to promote their sales.
- To study the sales strategies used by the SMEs through creation of activities and participation in events.

- To find out the sales strategies used by the SMEs by providing different kinds of incentives to the sales staff.

METHODOLOGY

Both descriptive and quantitative approaches have been used in the study. The data have been gathered mainly from primary sources which have been collected from a sample of SEs and MEs through structured questionnaires. The study also depended on data from secondary sources: the National Institute of Statistics (NIS); the Ministry of Planning (MP), Government of Cambodia; the Ministry of Industry, Mines and Energy (MIME), Government of Cambodia; the International Labor Organization (ILO); the Mekong Project Development Facility (MPDF); and the SMEs Association.

The study looked at small and medium enterprises which were producing consumer products, especially foods and beverages. The Cambodia Media Monitoring (CMM, 2007) gives a number of reasons why it is important to study the SMEs producing consumer products. One reason is that companies are trying to turn their budgets to invest on consumer products, especially foods and beverages, as a second option after the option of investing in the field of construction failed. Secondly, the percentage of aggressive brand marketing activities of consumer products (mainly foods and drinks) is high at 40%. Thirdly, 60% of consumer product brands are in the top of investments made on advertising. Fourthly, local small and medium food and beverage enterprises as well as the new enterprises fail to compete in the market because they do not have the funds to advertise or conduct marketing activities to compete with imported products. Further, the Cambodian people do not like local food and beverage products!

The study was confined to the small and medium enterprises of consumer products in Phnom Penh city which has 60% of the companies located in Cambodia. Of the total consumer products produced in the country, 60% are sold in Phnom Penh (FCB, 2006).

To determine the sample size for small and medium enterprises, the study follows the model used by Rana (2004). There were 363 SEs operating in Phnom Penh city at the time of the survey (Yellow Pages, 2007 and Industry Directory, 2007). Thirty two (32) enterprises were taken as the sample. The population of MEs was 336 (ibid), and the same sized sample (32 enterprises) was taken by systematic random sampling.

The primary data have been collected from the general managers, sales and marketing managers, supervisors and sales representatives of the selected enterprises. The data have been gathered through face to face interviews with structured questionnaires that included both quantitative and qualitative data.

The significance of differences between the sales strategies of small and medium enterprises was tested with the “t” test.

SALE STRATEGIES OF SMEs

The different sales strategies used by the surveyed SMEs in the study area are broadly classified into four categories, i.e., sales strategies during special periods, ‘push and pull’ sales tactics, sales strategies using creative activities, and incentives to sales staff.

Sales Strategies During Special Periods

During special periods like the Seven January Days (Prampi Markara), the Chinese New Year, Valentine Day, Khmer New Year, Pchum Ben Day and Universal New Year, small and medium enterprises in Cambodia give special discounts, participate in trade or product shows and carry out several other marketing activities. The comparative analysis on the achievements in sales of the surveyed SMEs due to specific sales strategies adopted during the special periods are:

• 10% Discount

The 10% discount sales strategy was used by 56% of the SMEs. Of these, 13% SMEs were up to their expectations, while 36% enterprises had sales above their expectations. Only 2% of SMEs failed to meet their sales expectations. The ‘t’ test showed a significant difference between the sales expectation of small and medium enterprises due to the 10% discount rate sales strategy at 0.2% level (Table 1).

Table 1:
Sales Expectations of SMEs at 20% Discount

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Greatly Exceeded	4	2	6
Slightly Exceeded	2	15	17
Met Expectations	3	5	8
Fell Slightly Short	2	2	4
Failed to Meet	1	0	1
Not Applicable	20	8	28
TOTAL	32	32	64

t test value: 3.21; df 62; significance level 0.002

• 20% Discount

The 20% strategy was used by 39% of the SMEs; 17% met their sales expectation, and 14% exceeded their expectation. Less than 2% failed to meet their expected sales. More MEs than SEs used the 20% strategy. There was a big difference between the sales of small and medium enterprises that used the 20% strategy. This can be seen from the ‘t’ results which showed significance at 1% level (Table 2).

**Table 2:
Sales Expectations of SMEs at 20% Discount**

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Greatly Exceeded	0	2	2
Slightly Exceeded	2	5	7
Met Expectations	2	9	11
Fell Slightly Short	1	3	4
Failed to Meet	0	1	1
Not Applicable	27	12	39
TOTAL	32	32	64

't' test value: -3.97; df 62; significance level 0.01

- **30% Discount**

Only 23% of SMEs use the 30% discount sales strategy. By far the majority of business that used this strategy achieved their expectations. More MEs (41%) than SEs (6%) used the strategy, thus, a significant difference was found between the achievements in the sales expectations of small and medium enterprises; 't' test results gave a significant difference at 0.1% (Table 3).

**Table 3:
Sales Expectations of SMEs at 30% Discount**

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Greatly Exceeded	0	1	1
Met Expectations	1	6	7
Fell Slightly Short	0	5	5
Failed to Meet	1	1	2
Not Applicable	30	19	49
TOTAL	32	32	64

't' test value: 0.45; df 62; significance level 0.001

- **40% Discount**

Only 19% of SMEs interviewed used the 40% strategy. Of these only 13% achieved their expectations. The 't' test revealed a difference in the sales expectation of SMEs was significant at 1% level (Table 4).

**Table 4:
Sales Expectations of SMEs at 40% Discount**

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Greatly Exceeded	1	3	4
Met Expectations	0	3	3
Fell Slightly Short	0	2	2
Failed to Meet	0	3	3
Not Applicable	31	21	52
TOTAL	32	32	64

't' test value: 2.69; df 62; significance level 0.01

- **50% Discount**

Only 17% of SMEs used the 50% strategy. The 't' test suggested a significant difference between the sales expectations of small and medium enterprises for 50% discount sales. The level of significance was 0.3% (Table 5).

**Table 5:
Sales Expectations of SMEs at 50% Discount**

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Greatly Exceeded	0	2	2
Slightly Exceeded	2	5	7
Met Expectations	2	9	11
Fell Slightly Short	1	3	4
Failed to Meet	0	1	1
Not Applicable	27	12	39
TOTAL	32	32	64

't' test value: -3.97; df 62; significance level 0.00

- **Buy One and Get One Free**

The study revealed that, during the special sales periods, 50% of the surveyed SMEs used this sales strategy. Of the 32 businesses that used the strategy, 29 achieved a good result. The 't' test showed a significant difference at 0.7% (Table 6).

**Table 6:
Using the Buy One/Get One Free Strategy**

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Greatly Exceeded	1	8	10
Slightly Exceeded	6	6	12
Met Expectations	2	5	7
Fell Slightly Short	0	2	2
Failed to Meet	0	1	1
Not Applicable	22	10	32
TOTAL	32	32	64

t test value: 0.78; df 62; significance level 0.007

- **Buy One and Get the Second One in Half Price**

Only 33% of SMEs used this strategy but the majority of them benefited from using it. The 't' test showed a significant difference at the 5% level (Table 7).

**Table 7:
The Buy More/Special Discount Strategy**

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Greatly Exceeded	1	2	3
Slightly Exceeded	2	4	6
Met Expectations	2	2	4
Fell Slightly Short	0	4	4
Not Applicable	27	16	43
TOTAL	32	32	64

t test value: 1.98; df 62; significance level 0.05

- **Buy More and Get More Special Discount**

During the special period, 14 businesses (22%) used this sales strategy. There was no significant difference between the SEs and MEs that used it (Table 8).

**Table 8:
The Buy One/Second One Half Price Strategy**

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Slightly Exceeded	2	3	5
Met Expectations	3	6	9
Not Applicable	27	23	50
TOTAL	32	32	64

t test value: -1.15; df 62; significance level 0.25

- **Special Discount for Wholesaler**

Four businesses (6%) used this strategy, all of which felt that it was worthwhile (Table 9).

**Table 9:
The Special Discount for Wholesalers Strategy**

Expectation	SEs	MEs	Total
Slightly Exceeded	2	0	2
Met Expectations	0	2	2
Not Applicable	30	30	60
TOTAL	32	32	64

t test value: 0.29; df 62; significance level 0.8

‘Push and Pull’ Tactics

Push and Pull sales tactics are key sales strategies used by companies that wish to move consumer products quickly. In the study, the surveyed enterprises were found to be using different push and pull sales tactics to promote their sales:

- **Sponsoring the Equipment for Product Display**

The SMEs sponsor hangers, shelves, baskets, etc. for traders to display their products in their sales outlets. This attracts the customers, helps them to see the products clearly and motivates them to buy. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 20% - SEs 28%; MEs 13%.

- **Trading Off Old Products before Launching New Products**

The idea of trading off the old products before the launching of new products is followed by many small and medium enterprises. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 25% - SEs 13%; MEs 38%.

- **Providing Advertising Support**

To motivate traders to sell products, producers pay for the advertising. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 55% - SEs 50%; MEs 59%.

- **Providing Added Value to Intermediaries**

In order to achieve the sales target, enterprises provide prizes to sales intermediaries, so that they are motivated to increase the sales of the products through different ways. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 52% - SEs 34%; MEs 69%.

- **Providing Sample Sales Materials or Tools**

Many times, customers want to know certain information (such as the integrity and reliability of the company; the quality and benefit of the product, etc.) before they take the decision to buy the product. Intermediaries need tools like catalogues, product samples, user’s guides, video films, presentation materials and so on. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 30% - SEs 19%; MEs 41%.

- **Making Intermediary Meeting**

The enterprise sets up meetings for intermediaries to introduce them to new products. At such meetings they discuss strategies for advertising and sales promotion. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 31% - SEs 22%; MEs 41%.

- **Distributing Discount Coupon**

Distributing discount coupons through the press, magazines, packaging, shopping malls and newsletters is a proven selling technique. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 28% - SEs 31%; MEs 25%.

- **Giving Special Discount**

Many SMEs give special discounts to consumers when they buy large amount of a product. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 38% - SEs 25%; MEs 50%.

- **Providing Incentive Prize**

Incentive prizes are another way that enterprises encourage consumers to buy. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 47% - SEs 28%; MEs 66%.

- **Providing Sample Products**

In order to promote the sales of new products, many enterprises provide sample products free of cost. This allows customers the opportunity to test the quality of a product. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 45% - SEs 41%; MEs 50%.

- **Providing Compound Products**

Providing compound products is a common sales promotion technique used by the enterprises in the study area. When the customer buys a product, they get another related product free. Both products are sometimes kept in one packet. Some enterprises write the name of free products on the packet of the sale product; when the customers buys the product, the sellers give the related free products to the customer. For this type of sales promotion, the enterprises pays for advertising on radio, television and newspapers. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 22% - SEs 11%; MEs 31%.

- **Lucky Draw**

Lucky draws provide entertainment and invite the consumers to win prizes. The objective of the draw is to stimulate the users to increase their consumption. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 20% - SEs 6%; MEs 34%. The survey showed that both SEs and MEs were using different kinds of 'push and pull' sales tactics, although MEs were more inclined to use these tactics than SEs.

Creation of Activities and Participation in Events

The surveyed SMEs were found to be using other sales strategies like participating in trade fairs, joining in Government weekend markets, organizing consumer meetings, inviting customers to join in activities and special events, distributing leaflets, using mass media for advertising, conducting advertising campaigns, direct marketing, selling through agents and distributors, providing product warranty, creating websites for advertising, using word of mouth methods, organizing field visits for customers, displaying information or photographs about production and providing consumer newsletters to members or regular customers. Some of the important sales strategies relating to the above in the survey area are:

- **Trade Fairs**

In order to make the product popular and increase the sales, small and medium enterprises participate in trade

fairs. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 69% - SEs 66%; MEs 72%.

- **Distributing Leaflets**

Distributing leaflets by the SMEs was only moderately popular in the survey area. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 33% - SEs 22%; MEs 44%.

- **Advertising and Press Releases through Mass Media**

Radio, television and newspaper play an important role in the advertising of products of the companies, MEs in particular. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 33% - SEs 19%; MEs 47%.

- **Conducting Advertising Campaigns**

Advertising campaigns proved popular for building brand images and stimulating and increasing sales volume. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 52% - SEs 44%; MEs 59%.

- **Direct Marketing**

Direct marketing of the products was found to be very popular among the enterprises under survey. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 72% - SEs 66%; MEs 78%.

- **Selling through an Agent or Distributor**

Enterprises follow different ways to sell their products. Some sell directly sell to the market, some sell through agents or distributors and some follow both practices at the same time. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 56% - SEs 53%; MEs 59%.

- **Providing a Product Warranty**

In order to build confidence among the customers, many enterprises provide warranties on product quality. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 66% - SEs 63%; MEs 69%.

- **Word of Mouth Advertising**

Most enterprises want to satisfy customers by producing better quality, better design, and nice color products at competitive prices. Once a customer is satisfied with the products of the enterprises they motivate their relatives and friends to buy the same product. This word of mouth often proves very effective. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 66% - SEs 59%; MEs 72%.

- **Providing Field Visits for Customers**

Facilitating occasional or regular field visits for customers is popular with some enterprises. They find

that such activities build confidence among users as to the value of their products. Survey Results: Total SMEs using this strategy 28% - SEs 31%; MEs 25%.

The survey showed that activities and participation events are popular amongst SMEs, although MEs used them more on average than SEs.

Incentives for Sales Staff

Providing incentives to the sales staff is important strategy for increasing sales. Staff become motivated to do their best when they are encouraged by such incentives as: bonuses, promotion, commission, tour packages, staff training, certificate of excellence, increased salary, gift/prize and health care/health insurance services. The bulk of the SMEs surveyed (81%) said that giving bonuses was the best incentive. This was followed in popularity by promotion (53%), commission (47%) and providing tour packages (36%). The figures for SEs were: bonuses 72%, commission 44%, tour packages 31%, and promotion 28%. This compared with MEs: bonuses (91%), promotion (78%), commission (50%) and tour packages (41) – see Table 10.

**Table 10:
Staff Incentives**

Type of Incentive	SEs	MEs	Total
Bonuses	23	29	52
Promotion	9	25	43
Commission	14	16	30
Tour Packages	10	10	20
Training	2	10	12
Certificate of Excellence	2	4	6
Salary Increase	0	1	1
Health Insurance	0	1	1
Gift/Prize	3	0	3
TOTAL	32	32	64

SURVEY SUMMARY

Both small and medium enterprises were flexible in their sales strategies in order to compete with each other in the market.

During Special Periods, significant differences were found between SEs and MEs in regard to sales strategies like 10% discount, 20% discount, 30% discount, 40% discount, 50% discount, buy one and get one free and buy one and get the second one in half price.

Similarly differences were found between the two entities with regard to 'Push and Pull' sales strategies, and activities and participation strategies. The most important 'push and pull' sales tactics used were: sponsoring the equipment for product display, trading off the old products before launching new products, providing advertising support, providing sample sales

materials and tools, distributing discounted coupon, giving special discount, providing incentive prize and making lucky draw.

The most popular sales strategies used by the SMEs with regard to creation of Activities and Participation in Events were: participation in trade fairs, distribution of leaflets, advertising and press releases to the mass media, advertising campaigns, direct marketing, sale through agent or distributor, provision of product warranty, word of mouth advertising through satisfied customers and facilitation of field visits for the customers. On the whole, MEs were more likely to use a variety of sales strategies than SEs in the study area.

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**Dr Kao Kvang Hong is Professor of Business & Economics at Angkor Khemara University, Phnom Penh, Cambodia. He holds a Bachelors Degree in Economic Science, a MBA and a PhD in Business Administration. Prior to entering academic life Dr Kao was active in business; he remains the CEO of Asia Marketing Solution Company, a company he founded in 2006. Dr Kao is also a qualified teacher. He began his career as an English and Japanese teacher in private schools in Siem Reap. These days he teaches management and sales subjects to undergraduates and MBA students. He may be reached at kvenghong@ams-groups.com*

THE UTILITY OF PORTER'S GENERIC STRATEGIC RESPONSES: THE CASE OF WEST END HOSPITAL

Thomas Yeboah*

Every organization aims to make sure that it is competitive with its competitors. It is against this background that Porter (1980) suggested some generic strategies that can provide organizations with competitive advantage. The generic strategic responses proposed by Porter were:

- Cost Leadership: producing products and/or services at the lower cost in industry.
- Differentiation Strategy: being unique in the industry, such as providing high-quality products at a competitive price.
- Focus Strategy: selecting a narrow-scope segment (niche market) to achieve either a cost leadership or a differentiation strategy.

In Porter's view it is appropriate to select only one strategy at a time; he argued that if an organization select two strategies (e.g. cost leadership and differentiation) simultaneously it can result in the organization being stuck at the middle of the process of managing the organization, putting the organization at a disadvantage. Besides, by his view, cost leadership and differentiation strategies were trying to accomplish entirely different aims.

But Mathur (1986) has argued that both strategies may be applied simultaneously because differentiation is concerned with output while cost leadership is concerned with input. He saw differentiation as external (concerned with marketing) and cost leadership as internal. Murray (1988) has also argued that the two strategies may be pursued simultaneously as industry characteristics form the baseline for cost leadership strategy, while customer tastes and preferences form the differentiation strategy. Besides, cost leadership is sometimes seen as another way of product/service differentiation.

It is true that combining the two strategies is difficult for manufacturing industries producing high quality goods but Miller (1992) sees too much attention directed to one strategy resulting in failure due to inability to objectively appraise both the external and internal environments.

Another drawback of pursuing just one strategy is the threat of being imitated. Companies pursuing more than one strategy are more secure from being copied by their rivals. In addition, companies adopting just one strategy find it more difficult to respond to the market changes. Speed (1989) has concluded that every cost

leader has to be a differentiator in order to be able to compete on the market. Porter himself brought the same argument when he said that every cost leader (differentiator) must keep in mind the basics of the differentiation strategy (low cost leadership strategy). Hill (1988) also found arguments in favour of the simultaneous pursuit of the two strategies at the same time, stipulating that it is common for a mature market to lack the low cost positioned players; companies tend to have similar cost structures so, in order to outperform the rivals, they need to resort to the pursuit of both strategies.

With these encouragements in mind it was decided to test and evaluate the utility of using Porter's Generic Responses in a business in Ghana. The site of the investigation was West End Hospital, a private hospital in Ghana. It was decided to investigate whether West End Hospital could apply a differentiation strategy and a cost leadership strategy at the same time and whether this would help them out perform their competitors.

SURVEY

Before proceeding at West End, the writer sought opinions from the managers of ten (10) different hospitals in the Ashanti Region, the second largest city in Ghana. These managers were asked their views as to whether hospitals could benefit from applying one or more of Porters Generic Responses. The results of this survey were as follows:

Differentiation alone:	2
Cost Leadership alone:	1
Both at the same time:	7

APPLICATION

The writer suggested to West End Hospital management that they install a computer based Strategic Information System which permitted them to enter into a joint venture arrangement with Ghana Telecommunication Ltd (Vodafone Ghana) and to streamline its internal patient management systems(differentiation strategy). The objective was to make considerable internal cost savings (cost leadership).

Together with management a comprehensive user-friendly system for patients was designed and implemented, one that was widely applauded. It works this way:

- Subscribers to the Vodafone cellular network are able to book an appointment with a doctor by sending a text message to the receptionist using their mobile phones. (The telephone company would not collect commission from West End Hospital, but would charge for phone calls and text messages). The receptionist references the Consultant's Schedule File to make an appointment and the patient's details are recorded

in a patient file and given to the clerk in the Outpatient Department.

- When the patient arrives at the hospital, the patient produces his/her identity card and the receptionist checks the appointment details against the information in the Consultant's Schedule File. The receptionist then produces an appointment card which is given to the patient, and sends a message to the clerk in the Outpatient Department informing her that the patient has arrived.
- The patient takes the appointment card to the Outpatient Section and gives it to the clerk together with their local GP doctor's patient reference file which they have brought with them. The clerk then provides the patient with a patient number. When the number is called, the patient produces the number to the nurse in the consultant's room. The nurse checks the number with the patient's file and local doctors' patient's reference file.
- The consultant studies the patient's file and the local doctor's reference file before conducting any tests on the patient. If there is a need for an X-ray, the doctor fills in an X-Ray form which he gives to the patient. The patient takes the X-Ray request form to the X-Ray department and the receptionist at the X-Ray department checks the request form before sending it to the X-Ray personnel. The personnel conduct the X-Ray and the patient is told to wait for the X-Ray results. The receptionist obtains the X-Ray results from the X-Ray personnel and gives them to the patient.
- Next the patient brings the results and the X-Ray to the nurse in the consultant's room who passes them to the consultant. The consultant physician studies them thoroughly together with the patient's file and local doctor's patient's reference file. The consultant conducts further checks on the patient and prescribes treatment and medication as necessary. If there are any further tests to perform, the consultant will either perform the tests himself or set a new date for such tests to be performed.
- The consultant updates the patient's file and gives all the patient's files back to the nurse. The nurse notes the prescribed medication from the patient's file and records it on a Patient Medication Form which she sends in a text message to the Pharmacy Section. The nurse also sends the consultant's memo to the billing section. The clerk in the billing section collects the charge for medication from the pharmacy section before preparing the final bill for the patient.

This system proved very satisfactory in practice and West End Hospital's reputation amongst the general population rose considerably.

DISCUSSION

In the hospital industry patronage depends mostly on the following:

- Good human relationship of the workers
- Competent Doctors
- Good customer services, especially reduction of queue time

The Information System installed by West End Hospital went a long way to meeting the third need. Patients felt comfortable in dealing with the hospital because of the ease of booking an appointment and the smooth delivery of services once they arrived at the hospital.

CONCLUSION

The findings suggest that Porter's Generic Strategies may be applied is too statically. The West End case demonstrates that it is possible to practice both cost leadership strategy and differentiation strategy at the same time.

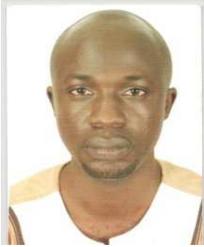
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**Mr Thomas Yeboah is a Lecturer in Computer programming at Christian Service University, Ghana. He holds a Bachelor of Education in Information Technology (University of Education, Winneba), and a Master of Science in Information Technology degree (Open University Malaysia). He is currently pursuing a Doctoral degree in Information Technology at Atlantic International University, USA. He can be reached at thomyebs24@yahoo.com*

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THEORIES OF MOTIVATION: THEIR APPLICATION IN TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN GHANA

Dr Gabriel Dwomoh*

All organizations are concerned with what should be done to achieve sustained high levels of performance through people. This means giving close attention to how individuals can best be motivated through such means as incentives, rewards, leadership and more importantly the work they do and the organizational context within which they carry out that work. The aim of motivation is to develop a work environment that will help to ensure that individuals deliver results in accordance with the expectation of management.

Motivation theories, the main focus for this paper, attempt to explain why people at work behave in the way they do in terms of their efforts and the directions they take. They suggest strategies with regard to what organizations can do to encourage people to apply their efforts and abilities in ways that will further the achievement of the organization's goals as well as satisfying their own needs. They are concerned with job satisfaction and the factors that create it.

In understanding and applying motivation theories, the aim is to obtain added value through people in the sense that the value of their output exceeds the cost of generating it. One of the aims of this paper will be to examine the cost of motivating employees in the tertiary institutions in Ghana as against the output generated from such motivation. The approaches to motivation are most of the time underpinned by simplistic assumptions as to how it works. But it must be noted that the process of motivation is much more complex than many people believe. People have different needs, establish different goals to satisfy those needs and take different actions to achieve those goals. It is wrong to assume that one approach to motivation fits all. It is therefore necessary as part of this paper to examine whether there is one approach to motivation adopted by tertiary institutions in Ghana to enhance performance of employees or different approaches of motivation are used to satisfy different people in different tertiary institutions in Ghana because of the individual differences.

This paper will look at some of the theories of motivation and the extent to which Ghanaian tertiary institutions apply them to enhance employees' performance. The theories which the study will look at are the instrumentality theory, content (needs) theory, process theory and the two factor theory by Herzberg. Three tertiary institutions in Ghana, namely Christian Service University College, Kumasi Polytechnic and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology were used as the centres in which this study was done. These institutions were chosen on the

ground of accessibility - where the researcher was located and the easy collection of data from employees. Data for the study was mainly qualitative and these were achieved through observation as the researcher is a lecturer in one of the institutions in Ghana and had numerous contacts in the other institutions.

INSTRUMENTALITY THEORY

According to Noe et al (2004), 'instrumentality is the belief that if we do one thing it will lead to another'. According to this theory, people only work for money. It assumes that a person will be motivated to work if rewards and penalties are tied directly to them. Thus the rewards are contingent upon effective performance. This theory has its root in Taylorism, a scientific management belief based on the notion that it is impossible to get people to work hard unless they are assured a large and permanent increases in pay for extra effort.

This theory is useful in explaining why the performance of many lecturers in some of the Ghana's public tertiary institutions such as polytechnics do not live up to expectation compared to those working in private tertiary institutions. It is commonly found that lecturers who works in the public tertiary institution sector such as a polytechnic in Ghana think that the pay they receive does not commensurate with the work they are doing. Low pay found in these institutions tends to result in lecturers not giving their maximum performance. It is on the basis of this assumption that the Government of Ghana, in an attempt to motivate workers in public sector institutions, has decided to implement a Single Spine Salary Structure which will boost the salary of workers in that sector. It is the belief of the government of Ghana, in line with instrumentality theory that boosting salaries in the public institutions through the Single Spine System will have a positive influence on employees' performance.

The management team in private tertiary institutions (such as Christian Service University College which was one of the institutions under study) also accept the instrumentality theory of motivation and pay their workers well. They believe that this will serve as a fuel to motivate workers to improve their performance. This is evident in the salary increment which is paid by the institution every year.

But, though this theory maybe useful and is applied in some tertiary institutions in Ghana, like all theories it has limitations. One limitation identified by De Cenzo and Robbins (1996) is that it fails to recognize a number of other human needs. And certainly it is true that there are workers who will not be moved by pay increase since they value the recognition of their emotions and feelings by management to be more important than a simple pay increment.

CONTENT (NEEDS) THEORY

According to Sherman et al (2001), the basis of the content theory is the belief that the content of motivation consists of needs. That idea is that an unsatisfied need creates tension and a state of disequilibrium. To restore the balance, a goal that will satisfy the need is identified, and a behaviour pathway that will lead to the achievement of the goal is selected. According to needs theory, not all needs are equally important for a person at any one time; some may provide a much more powerful drive towards a goal than others, depending on the individual's background and present situation. The needs theory postulated by Abraham Maslow groups 'needs' in a form of a hierarchy starting from physiological, safety, social, esteem and self-fulfilment. The theory suggests that when a lower need is satisfied, the next highest becomes dominant and the individual's attention is turned to satisfying this higher need.

In Ghana and especially in most tertiary institutions, some of the concept of Abraham Maslow hierarchy of 'needs' as a means of motivation is left to the individual employee rather than the institution to providing for those motivational packages. For example, physiological needs which includes food, water, sex and oxygen is not provided by any of the tertiary institutions used in this study. It is left up to the individual employee to provide his own food and water in order to satisfy this level of need. The individual employee must also motivate himself by ensuring that his sex desire has been satisfied. For the second need, safety, tertiary institutions such as Kumasi Polytechnic, Christian Service University College and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology provide this level of needs as a means of motivating workers. Since workers are motivated when they are convinced that they are protected against danger, there are various measures that these tertiary institutions have put in place so as to ensure that their workers are protected. For example, workers and students of Christian Service University College feel secured at work since they know that there are security personnel employed by the university to ensure that their cars and other properties are protected against theft and damage. The provision of fire extinguishers and smoke alarm systems all testify to the fact that the university wants their workers and students to be convinced that they working in a safe environment. Since employees always want to work in an environment that is danger free, so customers also want to transact business with organizations that are considered secured and safe.

The third level of needs focused by Maslow is social needs. These involve the need for love, affection and acceptance, such as belonging to a group. These needs are considered vital for motivating customers of Christian Service University College. Students are assigned to groups with a lecturer or senior member of the institution as leader. The group interacts, shares problems both academic and non-academic, holds

parties and enjoys holidays together. Each student of the institution feels motivated by the caring and love each member of the group gives to the other. A different approach is adopted by Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology as well as Kumasi Polytechnic. There students are assigned to a counsellor and problems of students are addressed through the counselling system.

Maslow's fourth level of needs content theory is 'esteem'. In the views of Grobler et.al (2006), once employees have formed relationships within an organization and feel part of a peer group, the need for self-esteem takes precedence. Organizational factors such as job title, status items within the organization such as parking spaces or office size and level of responsibility become important to the employee.

The last needs level in Maslow's hierarchy is 'self-actualization'. At this highest level of need, employees seek a fulfilling, useful life in the organization and in society. Employees also seek challenging and creative jobs which allows them to believe they have achieved something. The reliance on internal sources of recruitment as against external sources serves as a means by which employees in Christian Service University College are motivated to achieve the highest level of needs which is the self-actualization. Some tertiary institutions in Ghana, such as Kumasi Polytechnic, also sponsor employees to further their education so that they can acquire the necessary skills, knowledge and abilities which will enable them to obtain their dream job. For example, in Kumasi Polytechnic, a worker who was security guard and was aspiring to become an accounts officer was sponsored to further his education and his dream became a reality after completing his education.

PROCESS THEORY

Process theory (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 2002) sees motivation deriving from psychological processes or forces. For this reason it is also known as cognitive theory because it is concerned with people's perceptions of their working environment and the ways in which they interpret and understand it. Guest (1992) argues that process theory provides a much more relevant approach to motivation than the theories of Maslow and Herzberg (see below); that it is rendered more useful to managers by focusing on three main processes namely: expectations, goal achievement and feelings about equity. In the current research, goal theory and equity theory were found to be the most popular process theories adopted by tertiary institutions in Ghana.

Goal Theory

This theory developed by Latham and Locke (2002) states that motivation and performance are higher when individuals set specific goals, when goals are difficult but accepted and when there is a feedback on

performance. According to them participation in goal setting is important as a means of getting agreement to the setting of higher goals. Difficult goals must be agreed and their achievement reinforced by guidance and advice. And feedback is vital in maintaining motivation, particularly towards the achievement of higher goals. Goal theory is in line with the 1960s concept of Management by Objectives.

In all the tertiary institutions investigated in this study, the concept of goal theory is adopted as a means of motivating employees. For example, in Christian Service University College, goals are set in relation to marking of examination scripts, preparation of course outlines and the setting of examination questions. This is done by not imposing the work on the employees but in a consultative meeting in which all the employees assist in establishing a time frame within which the work can be completed is established and a format devised for executing the work. At the meeting, a consensus is reached between the employees and the Head of Department who represents management of the institution. The result is that workers feel motivated and eager to meet the deadline since they were part in setting the goal. Another advantage of the goal theory is that it helps to prevent employees giving excuses for not meeting a deadline or achieving a goal since they were part when the goals were set.

Kumasi Polytechnic attaches monetary incentive to setting of goals. This might be an allowance of (say) GHS20 (US\$12) given to employees who were able to achieve the target of marking examination scripts within two weeks after completion of examination by students. The observation made by the researcher was that, attaching monetary incentives to goal setting tends to be more effective than just setting the goal. In one department of Kumasi Polytechnic, out of sixteen lecturers who were supposed to achieve the target of marking examination scripts within two weeks after students' examination, fourteen lecturers (87.5%) were able to meet the deadline and received the award of GHS20. This was far better than the 63% of lecturers who met the deadline before the monetary incentive was introduced.

Equity theory

Equity theory is concerned with the perceptions people have about how they are being treated compared with others (Mathis and Jackson, 2003). In an institution, to be dealt with equitably is to be treated fairly in comparison with a reference group or a relevant other person. Equity involves feelings and perceptions and is always a comparative process. Grobler (2002) sees two forms of equity: (1) distributive equity, which is concerned with the fairness with which people feel they are rewarded in accordance with their contribution and in comparison with others; and (2) procedural equity, which focuses on the perceptions employees have about fairness with which procedures in such areas as performance appraisal, promotion and

discipline are determined. A lack of procedural equity can cause an employee to be upset, and can subsequently lead to employee turnover. Interviews with a section of employees at Christian Service University College revealed that this type of equity theory is not properly administered in the institution and this is de-motivational. The employees interviewed cited a case whereby employees were appraised by students; at the end of the day some employees rated 'good' by the students were punished based on the appraisal results whilst those who were rated poor by the students did not receive any punishment. The punished employees felt they were not treated fairly by management as compared to their colleagues. This eventually resulted in one of the dis-satisfied employee leaving the organization without even giving any notice to the employer as required by the Ghana Labour Act 2003.

According to Tyler and Bies (1990) there are five factors that contribute to perceptions of procedural fairness: (1) adequate consideration of an employee's viewpoint; (2) suppression of personal biases towards the employee; (3) applying criteria consistently across employees; (4, providing early feedback to employees concerning the outcome of decisions and (5) providing employees with an adequate explanation of the decision made.

HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

Herzberg's two factor theory offers a framework for understanding the motivational implications of work environments. Herzberg identified two sets of factors that impact on motivation at the work place. These he describes as hygiene factors and "satisfiers". According to Mondy and Noe (2001), hygiene factors include salary, job security, working conditions, organizational policies and technical quality of supervision. Although these factors do not necessarily motivate employees to better performance, they can cause dissatisfaction if they are missing in the workplace. Something as simple as implementing a no-smoking policy can make people dissatisfied with their work.

Sherman et al (2001) see "satisfiers" or "motivators" including such things as responsibility, achievement, growth opportunities and feelings of recognition. These are important to job satisfaction and motivation. Managers need to find out what people really do in their jobs and make improvements, thus increasing job satisfaction and performance. According to Mullins (1996), whilst the hygiene factors can be related to Maslow's lower-level needs, "motivators" can be related to the higher level needs of Maslow. This is demonstrated in Table 1 (below); hygiene factors provided by companies serve to prevent dissatisfaction but do not necessarily motivate the employee. But this confirms rather than denies that institutions need to be sure that Maslow's lower needs are met. In Christian Service University College, it was obvious that despite

the provision of safe working environment, mentoring and counselling services, some employees who believe that it is the duty of the institution to provide those needs feel not motivated. On the other hand, though not providing those ‘needs’ can create dissatisfaction, it does not necessarily mean that workers at the institution will feel motivated if the institution makes provision for those needs to be met.

With regard to the connection between Maslow’s higher level ‘needs’ and Herzberg’s “motivators” it is clear that if people are helped to achieve what they want to achieve or become what they want to become, they really feel motivated. For example, if personal growth and advancement is seen as one of the things that constitutes ‘Motivators’ by Herzberg, then it is clear that if an institution like Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, in helping an employee to obtain his dream job (moving from a messenger to become an accountant) through offering study leave and sponsorship to further his education, will have helped that person achieve self-actualization.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs	Herzberg two-factor theory
Physiological	Hygiene factors
Safety	
Love, Affiliation	
Esteem	Motivators
Self-actualization	

Table 1: Relating Herzberg two factor theory to Maslow theory – Source: Mullins (1996)

CONCLUSION

There are various theories of motivation that can be applied to provide strategies for institutions to motivate their employees to contribute at their best. Perhaps it is not a case of which theory is correct but to recognise that each of them has something to say about motivation, and that institutions may take note of all or any of them if it fits the case.

Maslow’s Hierarchy of Need theory suggests that motivation comes from meeting first physiological needs and then other needs in order with self-actualization at the top. Whilst some tertiary institutions in Ghana indirectly applied this approach to motivate their workers, they do not follow it rigidly. In fact, some of the needs such as physiological needs are not provided by the institutions directly. On the other hand, social, safety and self-actualization needs can be

partially met by institutions to ensure that workers feel happy and committed to their work.

Process theory emphasises equity, and the study has revealed that fairness is not a catch word for most tertiary institutions in Ghana. This was evident from the interviews conducted with a section of employees at Christian Service University College.

The value of Instrumentality theory and Herzberg’s two factor theory though is adopted by some of these tertiary institutions in Ghana; the extent to which they are applied in these institutions needs further investigation.

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**Dr. Gabriel Dwomoh has a B.A (Hons) Secretaryship from University of Cape Coast and an M.A. from Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, Ghana. He also holds an MBA in Finance from the University of Lincoln, UK, a PhD in Human Resource Management from the Atlantic International University, USA, and a Postgraduate Diploma in International Marketing Strategy from the University of Lincoln. He is a Licensed International Financial Analyst and a member of the Chartered Institute of Marketing (UK). Currently, he is a Lecturer in the Department of Entrepreneurship and Finance, Institute of Entrepreneurship and Enterprise Development, Kumasi Polytechnic, Kumasi – Ghana. He may be contacted at gabdwumo@yahoo.com.*

STARTING AND GROWING YOUR OWN BUSINESS

Godwin Agyare-Abisah*

Editor's Note:

Many authors have written articles and text books on small business in the developed world. Despite this, it is an empirical reality that 80% of small businesses fail. In the developing world many new entrepreneurs are starting out on their business journey so it is appropriate that the author of this article remind them that such a step is not to be taken lightly.

Investment is a concept of restoring money via purchasing of assets, lending to others for interest and temporarily parting with money for others in an expectation of future returns. There are a variety of investment options that can support the investor through the money handling process that secures the future in making profit.

There are only four things/factors which really count when making an investment decision:

- A business whose language and operations you understand.
- A favourable long term economic environment.
- A trustworthy and able management/workforce.
- A reasonable/competitive pricing strategy

A small business employs 30 or less workers and has a capital of about GH¢500.00 or less.

Starting a small business requires determination, motivation, focus and know-how. Listed below are some critical steps to provide the know-how to have a successful small business startup:

IDENTIFY THE BUSINESS OPPORTUNITY

Choosing what kind of business to start can be an immobilizing task when confronted with the multitude of opportunities. It's important to determine where your passions lie and to understand your personality type, e.g. your attitude towards risk - averse, neutral or taker. Equally important is what skills you bring to the table and whether you are entering a dying industry or a fast growing emerging industry.

A business plan allows you to gain a better understanding of your industry structure, competitive landscape and the capital requirements of starting a small business. A study mentioned in "Business Plans for Dummies" by Paul Tiffany states that companies with business plans have 50% more profits and revenue than non-planned businesses. Writing a business plan just makes good business sense.

FINDING START-UP CAPITAL

To start a business, you must invest in the business. The journey of finding startup funds will be different for each individual. Some start up with bank loans, family legacy, borrowing from friends or personal savings. Finding the money you need may come from a source you never thought of or may just end up being the frugal bootstrap method.

GIVE YOUR BUSINESS A NAME

What's in a business name? Everything and nothing! The right business name will help distinguish you from a sea of brand competitors, provide your customers with a reason to hire you and aid in the branding of your company. Learn what you need to know to find a name for your business.

CHOOSE A BUSINESS STRUCTURE

Deciding on the structure of your business is not a decision to be taken lightly. Whether you choose a sole proprietorship, a partnership or a corporation, your choice will have an impact on your business liability, funding as well as taxes due. But do not fret over your ultimate business structure, because as your business evolves, so too, may your structure.

OBTAIN REGISTRATION AND OPERATING PERMITS

Starting a small business requires the mundane, yet necessary, paperwork and regulations. Depending on your chosen business structure, you may need to register your business with the Registrar General's Department. Setting up your small business may require a Taxpayer's Identification Number (TIN) which is also used by the Domestic Revenue Agency and Value Added Tax Service to identify your business.

SELECT A SUITABLE LOCATION

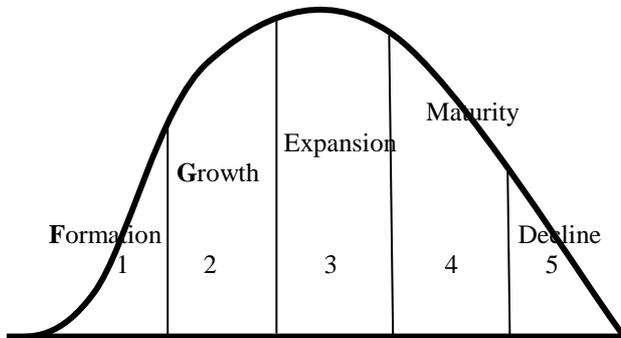
One of the multitudes of tasks in starting a business is the setting up of the administrative office. There are many steps in office set up including where to locate your office (home or rented space), buying the necessary office equipment, designing your work space and getting supplies.

INSURE THE RISKS OF YOUR BUSINESS

As a new small business owner, you have the responsibility to manage the risks associated with your business. Do not put your new business at risk without getting the proper small business insurance protection in the event of disaster or litigation.

THE SMALL BUSINESS LIFE

The five stages of small business development are shown in the diagram below. Not every business will go through every stage of the small business life cycle. And not all small businesses will succeed as a result of these stages. However, they are proven stages of development that are an important part of running a small business whether from home or formal office.



Stage One

The first stage of any small business is obviously establishment. At this stage, the business is being created, planned and the early days of its operations take place. For some, this is the only stage that a small business may see, as it is by far one of the most difficult to survive. Many things can go wrong at this stage; good business planning is crucial. Without a good business plan, it is difficult to get a small business up and running.

Stage Two

The second stage is the growth period. During this stage, a business has an initial time of negative profit until it breaks even and begins to show increased revenues that allow it to grow. This is also the stage that the real test of a business comes into play. How the business is managed and how it is able to compete within its designed market will determine whether it will survive, heading to the next stage – or whether it will decline and reach the last stage of its life.

Stage Three

The third stage of small business is expansion. This is the stage at which a business gets to the point where there is sufficient revenue being brought, there is no doubt as to its survival and the owner can begin to think about expanding the business's horizons. This may include taking on staff, expanding the office space of the business or even investing in equipment to deal with a larger base of clientele. This stage also entails producing more products if necessary.

Stage Four

The fourth stage of a small business is about maturity. The business is now stable enough to survive most

unforeseen circumstances. It has enough backing, capital and support to ensure that even if the market becomes unstable, it can pull through. This may be accomplished by rearranging the management plan, getting rid of one product to replace another, or adding an additional product. If the market declines, the business may survive, even though profits take a temporary slide backwards.

Stage Five

In the small business life cycle, the fifth stage is about decline. This is the easiest stage to reach for any business. It is the point where a starting business will fail. And even a mature existing business can see a decline in profits, take heavy losses and eventually either fail or cease operations to avoid further losses. As any small business owner can attest to, the stage of business are necessary and a normal part of the small business life cycle.

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**Mr Godwin Abyare-Abisah is the Head of Finance and Accounts Department of the Union of Industry, Commerce and Finance Workers for Ghana Trade Unions Congress (UNICOF of GTUC) and the Executive Chairman of GAA Consult, both in Accra, Ghana. He is a qualified Ghana Accounting Technician (Ghana), a Fellow of the Institute of Professional Financial Managers (UK) and a Chartered Energy Economist – ACCE (USA) and may be reached at uni1968god@yahoo.com*

WHAT'S IN A NAME?

Dr John Potter*

One of the more challenging and important tasks facing the cross cultural missionary/aid-worker is to establish a name for God in the language of the target group. Otherwise it is impossible to translate the scriptures or hold a conversation in the local vernacular.

A CASE IN POINT

In Malawi in Central Africa pioneer Presbyterian missionaries settled on *Mulungu* as the name for God. But whether this name is synonymous with the Biblical Hebrew *Elohim* or the Biblical Greek *Theos* is highly questionable. For *Mulungu* is the traditional name given by the Achewa people to 'the creator god', just one god, in their minds, in a pantheon of gods. That is to say, for Malawians located in traditional animism, *Mulungu* represents only one attribute of a Supreme Being, other attributes being given to other entities. What the term *Mulungu* conveys to the average modern Malawian, who is somewhat emancipated from animistic understandings, remains uncertain. It is probably that the name means as little to him as the term God means to people in the West who use the name in conversation but can provide no ontological account of what the name actually represents.

What we do know is that, to the Achewa mind, *Mulungu* is a personage who is far away, unreachable and unknowable. That is why it is the animists believe it is necessary to hold fast to a relationship with their ancestors. Each month at the New Moon, tribal leaders including the headman of each village is obliged to visit a traditional sacred site, most often a small hill, bearing gifts. There he or she presents the current needs of his/her community to the ancestors. They do not worship ancestors as some observers have argued; they simply use the ancestors as intermediaries so that their needs are presented to *Mulungu* – he being too far away for human agents to communicate with him directly. Of course there are right and wrong ways of doing things; if *Mulungu* is to be expected to respond to requests for assistance, it is required of mere mortals that their agency be pleasing to Him! In addition to helping with communication, the ancestors also provide an infallible guide to right behaviour. Praying to the ancestors is little different than praying to the saints – the latter practice presumably being adapted from primal tradition, in the same way that confession is derived from standard practices at the Oracles of Delphi and the Oasis of Siwa.

I had a colleague in Malawi who was away at a funeral for several days. When he returned I asked him what Malawians did at funerals. He informed me that they 'sang Christian Hymns all night', but he was silent when I asked him why they did this. Further investigation revealed that the Achewa and most other Bantu peoples (and the vast majority of primal folk)

believe that it was important to 'sing the spirit of the ancestor' into the cosmos, especially if he or she had been a good person. For singing the spirit is important in ensuring that the *moya* (Bantu lit. life/soul) of the person finishes, as far as is possible, close to *Mulungu*. For, from this position the ancestor may better communicate the needs of their descendants to Him. (Besides, who wants the spirit of Grandma hanging around the village!).

These few understandings reveal that *Mulungu* is far different in character from the God of Abraham, Isaac and Jacob as revealed by Jesus Christ (the Liberator and Anointed One). For the God of the Bible is revealed as a Relationship Personage, not a remote unknowable being who runs an international aid agency. Perhaps the term *Mulungu* was not the best choice that the Bible translators could have made in old Nyasaland!

FURTHER SOUTH

In KwaZulu/Natal in South Africa translators settled on *uNkulunkulu* as the name of God. This is a Zulu word meaning 'the ancestral spirit of all mankind'. This is at least is a 'spirit' term (God is a Spirit, John 4:24) but what exactly do the Zulus think about when they use this name? For they have other relationships with spirit beings which are strange to the Caucasian and even the Semitic mind. For instance, Rider Haggard discovered that in former times the Zulu would not go into battle until the 'White Lady' (She-who-must-be-obeyed) appeared in the sky (Haggard 1887)! And the term 'ancestor' is problematic for it implies that humanity is equivalent to God's own substance. St Augustine would have none of that (Augustine 1961) for this would make humans ontologically equal with God. There are certainly some problems with the 'name of God'!

WHO IS ALLAH?

In these times when many Muslims are converting to Christianity, especially in Indonesia, it is pertinent to ask whether the Judeo-Christian God is equivalent to the Muslim *Allah*, for the Prophet was quick to claim a place in the line from the Prophets of Israel and Jesus the Messiah. Should converts be encouraged to go on using the name Allah? Or should they find an ancient name for God in their tribal language or use the Western terminology?

The Hebrew terms translated 'God' in the Masoretic text are *El*, *Elah* and *Elohim*. *El* came to the language of the sons of Eber (Genesis 10:23-24) from the Chaldeans in antiquity; it seems to refer to God's sovereignty and majesty and is most often translated in the English text as The Mighty One or The Most High God. For example, it is used in Genesis 14 with reference to Melchi-zedek (lit. the King of Righteousness), King of Salem and Priest of *the Most High God*. And in Genesis 17 the deity reveals Himself

to Abraham by this name when he called on him to make Covenant,

The term *Elah* (or *Eloah*) usually refers to God as an object of worship. It is found in the Masoretic text mainly in the books of Daniel and Ezra at the time of the fall and restoration of Jerusalem; the seventy years 586 to-516 BC (see Potter, 1993). *Eloah* is also the term used in the book of Job.

But by far the most often used word for God in the Hebrew text is *Elohim*. This is problematic for those who follow *Allah* as it has plural connotations: e.g. ‘Let us make man in our own image, after our own likeness...’ (Genesis 1:26). If Islam is certain about anything it is that God is One! And if that is their key presupposition as to the nature of God, then there is a serious discrepancy between traditional Judaism and the dictates of the Prophet. And this, and other things, makes the Islamic claim that *Allah* in pre-Islamic times was the God of the Israeli Patriarchs and prophets, and the apostles and followers of Jesus, more than dubious because it is clear that while both Jews and Christians see God as One they also see him revealed as different personages – as difficult as this concept maybe to explain and comprehend. For God revealed Himself to Abraham, Samuel and the Apostles, as ‘The Word of the Lord’ (Heb. *Dabar*; Gk. *Logos* – see Genesis 15:1; I Sam. 3:21 and John 1:1-14) and to Moshe as *Yahweh* (The One Who Is - ‘I am’). To Christians He is Father (Jesus’s special term), The Word made Flesh and the Indwelling Spirit (the free gift of the Father to humanity). No traditional vernacular names here!

THE MOON GOD

Some commentators have argued from archeological diggings that the name *Allah* was the name given to the Moon God who was worshipped throughout the Middle East prior to the establishment of Islam¹. Moon God artifacts are commonly found in the region from the mountains of Turkey (Ararat) to the banks of the Nile. In fact, it has been established that Moon God worship was the most popular religion throughout ancient Mesopotamia amongst the Assyrians, Babylonians and Acadians. Artifacts from the Temple of the Moon God at Ur excavated by Sir Leonard Woolley are displayed in the British Museum to this day. The Moon God was universally represented as a man sitting on a throne with a *crescent moon* carved on his chest.

Coming to Southern Arabia, excavations have revealed thousands of inscriptions on walls that suggest that ‘South Arabia’s stellar religion has always been dominated by the Moon God in various forms’². While the people of Mecca worshiped 360 gods at the Kabah (the white stone shrine in Mecca), the Moon God was the chief deity there right up until Muhammad’s time. The widespread name of the Moon God was Sin but his title was *al-ilah* (lit. the deity, the chief or high god –

see *Elah* above). This name was shortened to *Allah* in pre-Islamic times in Arabia.

So it seems that Muhammad was pragmatic amongst his home town polytheistic community by taking the local name of the chief deity as the name of God and proclaiming the Moon God (*Allah*) to be ‘the greatest’ god. This conclusion is supported by the fact that the name *Allah* is never defined in the Qur’an, presumably because the name *Allah* was already well known to the Arabian populace. But, like the Bible translators in Malawi, by taking the name of God from just one of the local pantheon, Muhammad may have created a problem for himself and posterity – what do Muslims think about when they cry ‘*Allah akbar!*’ (God is the greater, or the greatest)?

It is clear why Muhammad’s claim to Jews and Christians that *Allah* was their God fell on “deaf ears” for *Allah* is clearly connected to the crescent moon, and the Bible is full of admonitions to refrain from worshipping deities related to heavenly bodies (see Deuteronomy 4:19; Jeremiah 8:2 and Zephaniah 1:5, etc.). *Allah* was not a good name to use if you wanted to bring Judeo-Christianity under your covering. And it remains so to this time.

As an aside, the embracing of the Kabah by Muslims is an interesting conundrum. The ancient mythology concerning the Kabah is that the stone which it houses is none other than the stone which came down from heaven in Pre-Flood times ‘through the kingdoms of the world’. According to Arabian tradition, it was rediscovered by Abraham and Ishmael around 1900BC. Gilmore (1885) claims that Muhammad preached *against* the worship of the stone and in doing so earned the wrath of the local priests. In fact, they planned to kill him and this was the cause of him having to flee by night from Mecca to Medina. If this is so, it is a strange contradiction that Muslims visit Mecca to kiss the stone in their hajj! Perhaps this highlights another case of problems arising when we use an old name for a new proposition.

THE MINISTRY OF JESUS

The distinctive characteristic of Judaism and Christianity over other religions is that they prescribe the possibility of intimacy with Deity. In the case of Judaism this intimacy was the preserve of special people. Maybe Shem was the first, for Noah refers to ‘Shem’s God’ in Genesis 9:26. With regard to the Hebrews, Abraham’s encounters with God are foundational for both Israel and Christians. Moses was next (Exodus 3:1-6), then Joshua and Samuel and later the Israeli Prophets.

The unique aspect of the New Covenant that God has made with both Jews and Gentiles is that all believers may experience intimacy with the Lord (Jeremiah 31:33-34, Hebrews 8:10-12). That is to say, the special favour God granted to one nation and to certain

personages in that nation under the Mosaic Covenant given at Sinai (which is now decaying and fading away – Hebrews 8:13) has been replaced by a better Covenant which is open to all who open themselves to the Lordship of the risen Jesus.

Jesus choice of a name for God was innovative even for the Jews. He called Him 'Father'. This did away with remoter, abstract traditional terms like 'Almighty God' and re-emphasized the possibility of relationship. This is critical to both our ontological and epistemological understandings of whom and what God is. What we 'know' from an intimate experience with another personage is vastly superior for an ongoing practical relationship than knowing about a person who is only knowable in an intellectual sense. We may all say that we 'know' the current Prime Minister of Australia but the reality is that have no intimacy with her and cannot claim that we have a working relationship with her. How can we relate and cooperate to a God that is remote and unavailable to our senses?

RECENT TIMES

The modern day Samoan Prophet, Miloalii Siilata, reports that a number of Pacific nations have made Covenant with the *God of Israel* in recent times (private communication). Papua New Guinea was the first (26th August 2007)³. Vanuatu was the second (14th may 2010) and the Solomon Islands the most recent (8th July 2012). While this may be something we would applaud, the name *God of Israel* is confrontational in maintaining some old debates. The term has obvious problems for Muslims, placing covenant keeping countries in the Israeli camp. This highlights the fact that there is a growing dichotomy in Christianity circles with regard to whether Christians need to be grafted into Israel (Romans 11:24) or whether God in Jesus has made 'one new man' (Ephesians 2:14-18).

It is becoming clear that the worldwide Christian Intercessory Movement favours the first position, for the waving of Israeli flags is commonly practiced amongst them. And in some cases this appears to be just an initiation point for a wholesale return to Jewish practices under the Law of Moses; celebration of the Feasts by the Jewish calendar and celebration of Shabbat on the Sabbath (Saturday) in particular. How do we relate to this behavior when the injunction of the writer to the Hebrews is that the Old (Mosaic) Covenant is 'decaying, growing old and is ready to vanish away'? (Hebrews 8:13)? Or the writings of the Apostle Paul who says that the wall of partition is broken down, that Jew and Gentile are reconciled (at peace), and both have access to the Holy Spirit. By using the name 'God of Israel' are we not overlooking reconciliation, reaffirming the old divisions, bringing unnecessary affront (to Islam in particular) in an age when nations are sharply divided as to their opinions of the modern nation of Israel?

In his letter to the Galatians, Paul makes the point that 'as many as are under the works of the Law are under a curse... that no man is justified by the Law in the sight of God... (rather) the just shall live by faith'⁴? And further, that 'Christ has redeemed us from the curse of the Law... that the blessing of Abraham might come upon (us)', i.e. that we might receive the promised Spirit (Galatians 3:10-14). For by Paul's analysis, the promises were made to Abraham and his seed (singular), i.e. Jesus the Christ (Messiah). This view is confirmed in the first verse in the New Testament which affirms that Jesus Christ is '...the son of David and the son of Abraham' (Matthew 1:1). By this account, Jesus of Nazareth is the recipient of the Eternal Covenants made between the Lord and Abraham (Genesis 15:18, 17:6-8) and the Lord and David (II Samuel 7: 8-17). In the great ecclesiastical meeting in Jerusalem called to discuss the necessity that Gentile Christian converts should be circumcised, the apostle Peter was quite sure that it was unnecessary to 'put a yoke (the Law) on the neck of the disciples which neither our fathers nor we were able to bear' (Acts 15:10). In the light of these reports, why would some argue that Christians are called to a neo-Judaism under the Old Covenant?

My view is that the Pacific nations would be better to have made covenant with 'the God of Abraham'. This is a name that is satisfactory to both Jews and Christians; and even Muslims might accept it if it was presented to them the right way. For the sons of Ishmael are also Abraham's descendants, reconciled to God by the blood of Jesus.

The nation of Israel continues to play out its part in history on the world stage. But to join with Israel is to take on her history of conflict past, present and future. To take on *reconciliation* is to take us forward to possibilities of peace and harmony amongst all men. Let's be careful to choose and use names which reflect that purpose.

NOTES

¹See www.biblebelievers.org.au/mmongod.htm

²ibid

³A brief report with pictures is available on request by email to the author

⁴We understand that 'faith' is not 'trust', rather an active verb describing action by human agents initiated by the resident Holy Spirit within a man.

⁵Despite this, it is of interest that the Lord told Jeroboam that 'David always kept my commandments and followed me with all his heart'!

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**Dr John Potter is the Executive Chairman and Director of International Programs for the Paraclete Institute. A South Australian by birth, Dr Potter has worked extensively in Southern and Central Africa for the past 36 years, He may be reached on paracamp@senet.com.au*

St Clements University – E-Journal *Veritas*

NOTES TO CONTRIBUTORS

Editors: Dr John Potter & Dr Bruce Duncan

Address: PO Box 253, Brighton, South Australia 5048 Email Address: paracamp@senet.com.au

Contributors may contact the editors for advice on publication if they wish – email above. Otherwise the following guidelines are offered:

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