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Singapore: Vision, Mission and Challenges

**Exclusive and Inclusive Professionalism:
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Coffee plantation on Gibb's farm, in Karatu, Arusha, Tanzania

Source: [Wikipedia](#)

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THE POTENTIAL FOR A REGIONAL CURRENCY IN ECOWAS SUB-REGION

Dr Udeh Sabastine Onyemaechi*

The complete version of this summarised article is available at:
<http://www.stclements.edu/grad/gradudeh.pdf>

ABSTRACT

The word ECOWAS means the Economic Community of West African States, which is a regional body comprising of fifteen nations. The desire to integrate the region into one economic block that will lead to the circulation of a single currency has been in the agenda of various regional heads of states conferences, but it was discovered that colonial loyalty and the long existing monetary cooperation of Francophone nations with France was a strong impediment towards the realization of the objective. To solve this problem, it was agreed in a meeting held in Accra, Ghana in year 2000 that a two-pronged approach will be adapted to fast track the realization of the objective. It was in this meeting that West African Monetary Zone (WAMZ) was created, which comprises mainly of Anglophone nations, in the hope that if a single currency can be achieved in this region, collapsing the two regions into a single currency zone will become easy and realizable. Initially, a target date of 2003 was chosen for the WAMZ region to actualize the goal of single currency. But the inability of the nations to fulfill the necessary conditions for such a union as spelt out in the primary and secondary convergence criteria necessitated a shift of date to 2005, 2009 and now 2020. This work sets out to examine the reasons behind the constant shifting of dates, the possibility of such a union and whether such possibility is achievable within a decade or beyond. To be able to arrive at a reasonable conclusion, the author assumed that, the belief of modern commentators and writers on the economics of monetary unions which was based on the theory of (OCA) optimum currency areas was correct. Accordingly, the progress of the nations based on the primary convergence criteria was examined using students' t- tests of mean difference, Z tests of proportion and correlation/co variability analysis. Also, the strength of the economies of the participating nations was examined and compared with economies of European Union, Franco Phone West Africa and recently that of China. The result shows that the economic performance and strength of these nations is still poor, unstable and below average to sustain a free and sustainable single currency.

Key words: Currency, Integration, Vector Auto Regression, Monetary Cooperation.

1. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The history of quest for full monetary integration in West Africa is long and chequered. Starting with the establishment of West Africa Monetary Zone in the year 2000 by six heads of nations at Accra Ghana as a second monetary zone to complement the French speaking CFA zone. The hope is that in 2003 the two monetary zones will collapse into one to produce a single currency to be known, as the ECO.

Several institutions were set up to facilitate this objective like, the West Africa Monetary institute WAMI, the west Africa monetary Agency WAMA, the ECOWAS Monetary Cooperation programme EMCP, the West African Agency for Monetary Management WAAMM, the West African Institute for monetary Management WIFMM, etc. In spite of these efforts, questions still arise as to:

1. Why several dead lines were not met.
2. Why the entire institutions involved still sound positive in spite of several failures.
3. What does the actual fact on the ground support?
4. Shall the quest be encouraged or discouraged considering the cost implication to contributing Nations?
5. Can an independent currency be sustained or will it collapse over time.
6. Does the performance of European Union economies encourage future monetary unions?
7. Is the economic performance of CFA zone better than non CFA or Anglophone zone?

1.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research will proceed with gathering of data which will come from established local and international institutions. Questionnaires were also administered to students of Economics in selected Universities to test the popularity of this move using a representative country.

This information gathered was analyzed and helped to answer the questions that were posed by the various research questions.

The researcher approached the problem from three fronts:

a) Ten years regional average data of performance according to the requirements of primary convergence criterion was tested on regional strength basis and individual country performance basis. The outcome will reveal;

(i) Whether the requirements for convergence has been fulfilled.

(ii) If not, whether there is any progress towards fulfilling the convergence criterion.

(iii) And or whether such progress, if any, is steady or unpredictable.

b) The next approach is to compare the performance of key economic sectors with that of;

(i) European Union, who has so far maintained a single currency.

(ii) Chinese economy, being a nation that recently floated her currency, the Yuan.

c) Finally, the researcher examined the viability of monetary unions by examining;

(i) The successes achieved by the European Union after more than ten years of EMU.

(ii) Comparing the economic status of francophone West Africa Economy who has enjoyed monetary union with France for more than forty five years with that of West African Monetary Zone, who is proposing the monetary union.

1.3 TESTING HYPOTHESIS

The hypothesis tested is called Null hypothesis denoted by **H₀** and put as follows:

The regional ten years average performance is not different to the fixed benchmark figures.

The decision rule will be:

- a) If the computed t value is greater than the critical table value (at 0.05) the Null hypothesis will be rejected.
- b) But if the computed value is less than the critical table value (at 0.05) the alternative hypothesis is accepted.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In an article published by This Day newspaper, Juliana Taiwo and Dele Ogbodo (23 June, 2009) reported that of the fifteen nations that make up ECOWAS, five belongs to WAMZ or West African Monetary Zone, while the rest belongs to the WAEMU or West African Economic and Monetary Union- mostly francophone nations using a common currency (CFA) that dates back to 1960s.

According to the article dated Abuja, the authority of heads of states of WAMZ nations in their 24th meeting of the convergence council of ministers in Abuja said that December, 2009 was no longer feasible

for the take-off of its single currency and monetary union within the region.

A few other studies using Vector Auto regression VAR models to analyse incidence of asymmetric shocks in West Africa according to the standard pattern and techniques applied in advanced economies as pioneered by Blanchard and Quah (1989) and Boyoumi and Eichengreen (1992). Among them also are Fielding, and Shields (2001, 2003), Houssa and Luven (2004), Ogunkola (2005), and Masson and Patillo (2004), who based their studies on the optimum currency areas literature which was focused on the asymmetries of shocks and a synchronization of fiscal policies in the region, concluded that countries with different fiscal distortions are unattractive partners for monetary union, especially when Nigeria's disproportionate fiscal distortion is considered. These studies suggested instead, a selective gradual accession to existing union - the WAEMU, while totally cancelling the idea of independent free currency.

It must be noted that the same conclusion of non viability was applicable to the European case, yet they went on to form the EMU in defiance. However, new studies based on trade ties rather than policy convergence and pioneered by Frankel and Rose (1989), Corsetti and Pissenti (2005, 2008), Debrun, Masson and Patillo (2003), Anyanwu (2003), shows that membership of a currency union irrespective of macroeconomic policy disparity, can boost intra-regional trade and central banks credibility, which could act as an instrument of macroeconomic convergence ex-post, thus fulfilling the ultimate requirements of OCA via the back door.

3. SUMMARY AND DISCUSSIONS

For the understanding of an average reader, the following summarizes the high points of the study.

The mean regional average performance of the 5 nations according to the requirements of the primary convergence criteria for 10 years (2000-2009) was compared with the regional bench marks. The result of the hypothesis showed that the recorded performance according to figures released by WAMI, (West African Monetary Institute) differs significantly with the benchmark.

Individual nation's performance on primary criteria for the same 10 year period was also compared with the regional requirements using figures from same source.

The result of the hypothesis showed that the convergence bench mark was not achieved by all the 5 nations even after 10 years period.

Figures collected on primary convergence criteria performance for two 4 year periods 2001 to 2004 and 2005 to 2008 was used to test if there is evidence of progress towards convergence.

The result of posited hypothesis showed a tendency of progress towards convergence, such that if the average rate of progress is maintained, it will take 8 more years to fulfill all the primary convergence criteria.

However, the relative analysis of the same figures showed that this progress is not steady on a year on year basis.

Over the years, nations differ in their performances, without a guarantee that nations that performed better this year will maintain same next year.

However, the result of another hypothesis showed that not all EU member nations fulfilled all the Maastricht convergence criteria before the commencement of EMU in 1999.

Therefore WAMZ can embark on a single independent currency without fulfilling all the convergence criteria.

But the comparison of the performance of basic economic indices with that of EU and china, which recently floated her currency, indicated that WAMZ as a region performed poorly in all the indices that sustains and gives free currency long term stability.

- a. On GDP per capita the ratio gap for WAMZ:EU was 80:1 in 2001 and 76:1 in 2009.
- b. On GDP share of world total (PPP), the 5 year ratio gap (2000-2004) was 37:1 and 33:1 for 2005-2009.
- c. On inflation (CPI) 2000 base year, the gap is 4:1 in 2001 and 7:1 in 2009.
- d. For foreign reserves, the gap was 7:1 for 2007-2010 performance.
- e. On human development index 2007 figure, the gap was 5:1.
- f. Others like unemployment, corruption index and investment, the gap is also too wide.

4. CONCLUSION

The author believed that the current establishment of monetary union auxiliary institutions is a welcome development. As these institutions are tested for stability, the strengthening of cooperation among the nations must also be pursued to help prune down the level of economic discrimination among the nations.

However, in recognition of the numerous gaps yet to be filled, the idea of monetary union should be one of the regions long term goals, especially when one considers the fact that comparative figures posted by francophone region (as shown in the study), who have enjoyed the benefits of monetary union for over forty five years are not superior to their non francophone neighbors.

Again, the economic instability in the Euro-region is a signal for intending nations to critically review Mendel's OCA theory as a basis for monetary

integration, before considering the workability of rich nations joining monetary forces with poor nations.

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IQ AND CREATIVITY

Dr K. R. Bolton*

Abstract

In this paper it is contended that the definition of “human capital” of a nation is based on economic utilitarianism that is inadequate to both explain the phenomena of creativity and to more widely assess the qualitative rather than the quantitative aspects of “genius”. This is so because the world is increasingly under the pall of the attitudes emanating from the 19th century Late Western *Zeitgeist* of materialism, which determines the value of all things by counting, measuring, and commodifying. The disadvantage of this outlook is the inability of modern society to consider its own impoverishment at levels other than the material, and to measure other societies against its own value judgements of positivism, utilitarianism and dialectical materialism (in the case of the latter Karl Marx still being regarded as a significant founder of sociology by the West). This materialistic and rationalistic outlook bases the capacity of creativity and defines genius by statically measuring IQ, which is itself a reflection of the de-sacralisation of man that has been proceeding in the West since the Renaissance. The alternative is to reconnect to a spiritual outlook that had in prior centuries impelled creative ascent that can best be inspired by reaching out towards the divinity in its multiplicity of forms rather than being enchained to the modern definition of man as “matter-in-motion”. Despite the increase in measurable IQ in the economically advanced states, our modern era is marked by a stagnation or retrogression of great literature, music, art, and architecture that had been inspired by the sacred in nature as a process of unfolding.

Introduction

IQ or Intelligence Quotient is the statistical measurement of an individual’s intelligence, measured by IQ tests that have, ideally, been developed for over a century with the aim of determining someone’s IQ while taking out environmental and cultural biases that might disadvantage the person being tested. In other words an IQ test should be free of cultural bias, such as language. (Herrnstein and Murray, 1994). The measurement of IQ was of particular interest to Victorian Britain, where the mercantile spirit became the dominant factor in political, social and economic life, with the gradual displacement of the traditional order in the name of “progress”, measured by trade and industry. Related to an interest in IQ was the application of Darwinian evolution to social and economic questions, in what is called “Social Darwinism”. Darwin’s “struggle for survival” of the biological organism was translated into an economic struggle for the survival of the fittest between traders

and between classes. There arose from this the question of whether IQ reflects one’s position in society and whether it reflected class. The question also arose as to whether the intellectual, moral and physical defects of society could be bred out by selective mating, and by sterilisation for the elimination of hereditary defects.

“Eugenics”, formulated in its modern form by Francis Galton, became a popular movement especially in Britain and the USA, the latter including sterilisation laws in many states of the USA to discourage the breeding of the physically and mentally “feeble”. (Popenoe and Johnson, 1918, 2015). Such questions arose when Britain became dominated by a materialistic conception of humanity, where the former assumptions about the divine and the sacred were increasingly coming under question. Britain’s pre-eminence in industry (the Industrial Revolution) impelled other states to emulate the British example in the pursuit of power. Life became measurable and quantifiable. The “measure of a man” became one of wealth rather than duty in a divinely ordained social order. The German Idealists coined the term for what became the pervasive preoccupation of a cultural and historical epoch, *Zeitgeist*, the “Spirit of the Age” or the times. The *Zeitgeist* from ca. 1850 was that of materialism, of life and the universe being explained in terms of matter. This is the *Zeitgeist* that remains for the “developed world”, and the one in which the rest of the world is supposed to aspire in the name of “progress”. That is, it has become a universal outlook, and no longer confined to a particular time or place.

Questions of IQ from that era remain a preoccupation. The difference is that where once educationists, psychologists and sociologists sought to understand IQ as a means of increasing the IQ norm through encouraging or discouraging births, today the focus is trying to equalise IQ’s by changing the environment, by special programmes in schools and homes. In short, whereas originally the question was one of biology, this is often, especially since World War II, quite vigorously opposed by those posing it as a question of environment.

Recently a book was published analysing the mean IQs of many nations relating these with economic development, the conclusion being that those nations with the highest mean IQ are also the wealthiest or most successful. (Lynn and T. Vanhanen, 2002, 2006). However, IQ and economic advances are not total measures of creativity. Because of the preoccupation of economics over culture, assumptions are made about human worth and human values that might otherwise remain at the lowest rung of the scale of self-actualisation. Economics, that is, the satisfaction of the

primary material drives necessary for biological survival, once satisfied, would in societies prior to the current *Zeitgeist*, enable self-actualisation towards higher goals to proceed. Instead, this epoch is stuck on the first rung of material acquisition and animal survival, which has become a perpetual aim rather than a means towards higher – creative – ends that supposedly distinguish man from animal.

The human existence was once defined as the unfolding of man's connection with the divine, no matter what his situation in life. Hence, the Medieval era of Western Civilisation for example, defined one's occupation in sacral terms, where one's craft was a reflection of a divine calling and excellence in that craft was man's manifestation of divinity.

Now one's worth is measured by capital accumulation and one's role in the production-and-consumption society. IQ is a measure of how one can adjust within such a society.

IQ Clusters

The highest IQ cluster is among north east Asian nations, the lowest among sub-Saharan nations. Can one therefore suppose that the most creative exist among those nations with the highest mean IQs? Again, in affirming such theories one has recourse to statistics, but these do not show the *élan* of a people, or the creativity of what in any people is always a small culture-bearing stratum, no matter how wealthy the nation. Those states that presently have the highest IQ's, those of north east Asia, have long since stagnated culturally, as have the Western states.

The average IQ for Greece is 92, which places the Greeks at 15th on a world IQ ranking of 43, along with Ireland. Italy ranks 5th with an average IQ of 102, higher than most other Western nations. Likewise Spain 9th at 98, and Portugal, 12th at 95. (IQ Research). The IQ's of the Nordic states are mediocre (Norway 100, Sweden 99, Denmark 98). (Ibid.). Switzerland, Iceland and Mongolia have the same average IQ of 101, placing them near the top of the world IQ scale at 6th (Ibid.). Brazil has an average IQ of 87; Argentina at 93 is above Ireland and Bulgaria.

A study of Brazil in regard to the low mean IQ listed by Lynn and Vanhanen found that Brazil, despite the comparatively low mean IQ has the same cluster of talented individuals at public universities as those nations with higher mean IQs. The authors state that the cognitive performance of those in Brazil's universities is not lesser to those in the developed nations. The conclusion is that national mean IQ is not a good indicator of potential. The estimate is that there are 20 million Brazilians with the top human potentials (10% of the population) and this rivals the quality and magnitude of "human capital in developed countries". (Flores-Mendoza, et al, 133).

The focus of the studies of Carmen Flores-Mendoza et al is the hard sciences of mathematics, physics etc., and the question they primarily ask is of the potential of Brazil as a leading technological nation. However, in the arts too Brazil has been remarkable as a nation despite the mean IQ of 87 (or 89 according to Carmen Flores-Mendoza, et al). Brazil has produced artists of world eminence, such as the painters Cândido Portinari and Beatriz Milhazes; Pritzker Architectural Prize winner Oscar Niemeyer, a major world influence on architecture; poet and playwright Ferreira Gullar, a Noble Prize nominee; internationally acclaimed composer, conductor and violinist, Cláudio Franco de Sá Santoro, 1948 winner of the Lili Boulanger Memorial Fund Prize. et al.

High IQ does not correlate with cultural creativity. The top IQ scorers in the world at an average of 108 are Hong Kong and Singapore. (IQ Research). Neither have ever produced a Nobel Laureate.

Inspire

Traditional societies recognised that creativity is a reflection of the divine in man. The etymology of "inspiration" comes from the 14th century. Middle English *enspire*, from Old French *inspirer*, from Latin *inspirare*: "breathe or blow into," from *in-* "into" + *spirare*: "breathe." The implication is one of *spirit*. The word originally described a divine or supernatural being that would "impart a truth or idea to someone." To the Christians inspiration comes from the Holy Spirit, to the Greeks it was imparted by the muses and the Gods Apollo and Dionysus, and to the Norse by Odin. The Greeks referred to the *daemon* and the Romans to *genius*, as spirits who guided the artist.

Despite the de-sacralisation and rationalism of the modern world, there are those, both in the hard sciences and the arts who still recognise such *inspire*. The American poet Ruth Stone described her inspiration this way:

"As [Stone] was growing up in rural Virginia, she would be out, working in the fields and she would feel and hear a poem coming at her from over the landscape. It was like a thunderous train of air and it would come barrelling down at her over the landscape. And when she felt it coming... because it would shake the earth under her feet, she knew she had only one thing to do at that point. That was to, in her words, 'run like hell' to the house as she would be chased by this poem. The whole deal was that she had to get to a piece of paper fast enough so that when it thundered through her, she could collect it and grab it on the page. Other times she wouldn't be fast enough, so she would be running and running, and she wouldn't get to the house, and the poem would barrel through her and she would miss it, and it would 'continue on across the landscape looking for another poet'". (Gilbert, 2009).

The Renaissance epoch of Western Civilisation, setting the stage of the materialistic *Zeitgeist* centuries later, destroyed the idea of the divine spark by substituting humanism for religion, the individual who is a “genius” rather than *having* a “genius.” Art became a reflection of the individual ego rather than a reflection of the divine, and degraded into narcissism (ibid). and in our modern world into psychosis and the degenerate; the projection of the twisted mind of the artist onto canvas, into clay and stone, as architecture and in literature, and scripts, marketed as commodities rather than expressing human aspirations towards the divine.

Those such as Ruth Stone who retain that divine spark of creativity recognise that they are mediums for the divine. Flashes of inspiration come over them, and their creativity comes easily and without complex calculations as if flowing through them from an outside source. Nobel Laureates have recognised this inspiration. Max Planck, father of quantum theory, wrote that the pioneer scientist must have “a vivid intuitive imagination, for new ideas are not generated by deduction, but by artistically creative imagination.”

In a 1994 study of interviews conducted with Nobel Laureates in the hard sciences, it was found that 18 of 72 interviewees stated that intuition feels different from reasoning and cannot be rationally explained. In an anecdote about the nuclear physicist Fermi, when questioned on why he disagreed with two colleagues who were arguing about a calculation, he shrugged his shoulders and said “my intuition tells me so”. (Shavinina, 2003, 451).

August Kekulé had been contemplating how the atoms in benzene are arranged, the ratio of carbon and hydrogen atoms being different to of other hydrocarbon compounds. One night in 1865, having contemplated the problem without success, he fell asleep in his chair. He began dreaming of atoms dancing, and gradually forming into the shape of a snake, which around and bit its own tail. This image of the widespread motif of the self-devouring serpent danced before Kekulé’s eyes. On waking he realised he was being shown by this image that benzene molecules are composed of rings of carbon atoms. This enabled a new understanding of chemical bonding and opened up a new field of organic chemistry. Kekulé said of the experience:

“I sat at the table to write my textbook, but ... my thoughts were elsewhere. I turned my chair to the fireplace and began to doze. Again the atoms began to somersault in front of my eyes. This time the smaller groups kept modestly in the distance. My mind’s eye, sharpened by repeated visions of this kind, could now distinguish larger structures with different conformations; long lines, sometimes aligned and close together; all twisting and turning in serpentine movements. But look! What is that? One of the snakes had bitten its tail and the way it was whirled mockingly before my eyes. As if it had produced

a flash, I woke up... I spent the rest of the night to check the consequences of the hypothesis. Let us learn to dream, gentlemen, because then maybe the truth is noticed”. (Boyd and Morrison, 1995, 14. 3).

The remarkable mathematician [Srinivasa Ramanujan](#), despite having no formal education in mathematics, produced 3900 equations and other formulae which he said were shown to him in dreams by the Hindu goddess Namagiri. He described one of these dreams:

“While asleep, I had an unusual experience. There was a red screen formed by flowing blood, as it were. I was observing it. Suddenly a hand began to write on the screen. I became all attention. That hand wrote a number of elliptic integrals. They stuck to my mind. As soon as I woke up, I committed them to writing.” (Baaquie and Willeboordse, 2010, 38).

Conclusion

The modern era is in an analogous epoch to that prior civilisations whose material obsessions resulted in hubris and decay. There is an existential crisis, but with the dominate paradigm being economic reductionism and an historical outlook that sees change as synonymous with progress, no matter how retrogressive, human well-being is measured and counted in terms of a nation’s GDP. It is a question that in comparatively recent times has been considered by the psychologist Carl Jung, the philosopher Martin Heidegger, the historian Oswald Spengler, the physiologist Alexis Carrel, the ethologist Konrad Lorenz, and sundry poets such as T. S. Elliot, Ezra Pound and W. B. Yeats; the “Jeremiahs” of our time.

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POLICY FRAMEWORK ON FOOD SECURITY IN KENYA

An exploratory paper on campaign against hunger

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The complete version of this summarised article is available at:

<http://www.stclements.edu/articles/Policy-Framework-on-Food-Security-in-Kenya-Full-Article.pdf>

1. INTRODUCTION

The United Nations General Assembly declared 2014 as the International Year of Family Farming, recognizing contributions of family farming to food security, poverty reduction and sustainable development. In 2015, the international community agreed on a set of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs)¹, which national governments and the international community are obligated to implement by the year 2030. The needs of the poor and vulnerable who are most predisposed to hunger - such as people living in marginal agro ecological zones, those affected by HIV/AIDS and female-headed households, demand elaborate policy attention which ensures their right to Food is guaranteed and conform to the provision of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and many other United Nations Covenants on Freedom from hunger.

The right to food exerts clear obligations on the part of national government, the County governments², the International community, multilateral agencies and civil society to seek and champion appropriate policy mechanisms for its implementation and realization. While the right has received citation under various international legal protocols, it is worrying that limited progress has been realized in articulating it under the legislation of most countries. Kenya's constitution, for instance, is silent on the right³ to food.

This paper explores various policy measures the Kenya government has attempted to formulate over the years, and the impacted to poverty, nutrition, hunger and environmental sustainability.

The case is made for an enabling food policy framework that recognizes the intimate role played by women in contributing towards household food security by affirming their access to and control over productive resources in supporting household food security.

Poverty and Food Security

An estimated 47%⁴ of the rural population and 32% of the urban population live below the poverty line.⁵ In 1960s, per capita income grew at 2.6% per annum, which declined to 0.4% in the 1980s. Between 1990 and 1995, it hit an all-low of negative 0.2% with the urban poor and rural population being the most adversely affected.⁶ The result was, income levels began to decline thereby exacerbating food insecurity for the poor and vulnerable sections of the population. This can only mean that the war against hunger and poverty was lost and the right to food denied.

Income and Food Security

In Kenya, agricultural income is mainly generated from cash crops such as tea, coffee, horticulture and cotton⁷. For families unable to grow enough food crops, such income is important in determining their food security. However, the decline in key exports like coffee and tourism has increased the financial burden of food imports where declining productivity has necessitated food imports. Generally, rising poverty levels particularly amongst vulnerable sections in rural and urban population has resulted in a decline of entitlements which has further compounded the crisis of food insecurity for these groups.⁸

⁴ Statistical abstract 2007; KNBS.

⁵ *The poverty line defines the monetary value of consumption of food and non-food items below which individuals cannot afford the recommended food energy intake plus a minimum allowance for non- food consumption.*

⁶ K. W. Gitu, et al, *Agriculture, Food and Environment: Kenya's situation, 1998 p.4.*

⁷ Although cotton farming collapsed in 1990s, it was a source of income for many small hold farmers in most parts of the Country.

⁸ Household baseline survey 1994.

¹ The Global SDGs 2030 look at eradication of poverty and hunger in this generation, sustainable development through inclusive growth, protection of the environment and promoting peaceful inclusive societies. The 17 Global Goals are intended to finish the job that the MDGs 2015 started in 2000.

² Under the 2010 constitution, Kenya is divided into 47 county governments individually responsible for policy formulation.

³ Chapter 4 of the Constitution on the Bills of Rights is rather general conferring rights to Citizens. However. Food production is a key agenda under the Kenya Vision 2030.

Nutrition, Agricultural Production and Food Security

According to WHO minimum per capita daily nutritional requirement stands at 2,100 calories and 63 grams of protein. To meet these requirements, high levels of production are required while income levels must rise sufficiently to facilitate access for those who need to purchase food.⁹ It is against this context that poverty levels and falling incomes are important signposts in relation to hunger.

Agriculture accounts for an estimated 30% of total GDP, 60% of total employment and 75% of merchandise export. Livestock accounts for an estimated 40% of agricultural GDP, food crops 30% and export crops 30%.¹⁰ It is estimated that in the rural areas, 80% of the labor force is involved in agricultural production while over 70% of the population derives its livelihood either directly or indirectly from the sector.¹¹

The agricultural sector is a major foreign exchange earner and the main supplier of raw materials for agro-processing which is important in fostering rural development and promoting off-farm employment through which additional incomes can be sourced for food purchases. As stated above, the overall the economic outlook has been experiencing decline in the GDP annual growth rate. This scenario has implication to income, production and the resultant food insecurity.

2. FOOD POLICY FRAMEWORK

Historical Perspective

During the first decade of independence, Kenya was self-sufficient in most foodstuffs with the notable exception of wheat and rice. During this first decade, agricultural production expanded phenomenally mainly due to the involvement of small holder farmers in food production. Clear policies enunciated by the government at independence targeted improving extension services, provision of credit to farmers, assured supply of inputs and well prioritized research especially on high-yielding maize varieties. Affordable access to farm inputs and high yielding varieties in both high and medium potential areas resulted in dramatic increase in food production. The country was thus spared the vagaries of food insecurity.¹²

⁹ World Human Development report 2006.

¹⁰ Statistical abstract 2008, KNBS.

¹¹ W B, Kenya: A policy Agenda to Restore Growth, 2003 sector while substantial resources were committed to research, marketing, animal health and the provision of credit to smallholder farmers.

¹² The establishment of the national Cereals Board to support marketing, provision of farm inputs subsidies and financial resources from Agricultural Finance Corporation constituted major policy measures.

However, this phenomenal growth began slowing down in the second decade of independence as food security began coming under threat. Land distribution, which had involved the subdivision of large former white settler farms, slowed down significantly because there were now fewer farms for subdivision. At the same time, there was limited expansion in high and medium potential areas whose snowball effect was to force farmers to move into marginal low potential areas where food production was not sufficiently assured. This resulted in diminishing returns on productivity as population growth exerted undue pressure on the limited arable land available. In 1980, Kenya experienced its first major food insecurity shock and was forced to import substantial quantities of maize, wheat and milk.

Policy Shift

A national food policy paper was published in 1981 making wide-ranging policy recommendations on pricing, marketing, access to credit and inputs, food distribution, agricultural research among other areas. Significantly, this food policy blueprint emphasized the need to shift towards a market-driven sector with limited government intervention.¹³ It recommended that the government's role be largely confined to the maintenance of strategic national reserves. This policy view was subsequently reinforced in Sessional Paper No. 1 of 1986 on Economic Management for Renewed Growth¹⁴ and Sessional Paper No. 2 of 1994 on national food policy. Both policy blueprints were concerned with the need to secure food security and analyzed policy prescriptions that were fundamental in fighting hunger.

Food Production Policy Framework

Sessional paper No. 10 of 1965 on African Socialism and its application to planning in Kenya set out a government-driven policy framework which was to drive post- independence economy. As a result, many parastatals were established in all sectors of the economy not only to spearhead development process but also to monitor and caution the citizen from unforeseen economic, social and political shocks.

Smallholder farmers faced enormous challenges as a result of economic liberalization which focused in the privatization of agricultural services¹⁵ and a decline in the prices of key exports on the international market. Indeed, since the 1980s, Kenya's agricultural sector has been on the decline due to the absence of a comprehensive policy and legal framework, ill-defined

¹³ This focused mainly on liberalization of main food crops and their by products including allowing importation which affected food production and distribution.

¹⁴ It focused on privatization and the gradual limitation of the role of government intervention in the agricultural sector.

¹⁵ Economic Liberation meant privatizing extension services and elimination of subsidies to smallholder farmers.

roles of various stakeholders and institutional weaknesses in responding to policy shifts in the sector, which impacted on food production.

In 1990s the government formulated the Integrated Food Production and Research Initiative (IFPRI) 2020 policy to articulate access to food, agricultural production and the environmental sustainability with a view to building a long term vision and actions needed to tackle hunger and malnutrition. The 2020 vision envisaged a world where every person has access to sufficient food to sustain a healthy and productive life, where malnutrition is absent and where food originates from efficient, effective and low-cost food systems that are compatible with the sustainable use of natural resources.¹⁶

2.4 The Gender dimension on the right to food

It is estimated that 90% of rural women work on family farms; provide 80% of labor in smallholdings and are directly responsible for managing two-fifths of smallholder farms.¹⁷ Their domination of agricultural production necessitates the need for a broader recognition of their rights over productive resources in the quest for enhanced food security.

To enable women realize their potential in food production and family income, it is important to safeguard their rights to the means of production, rights to land, water and other resources.¹⁸ Rights over land are important not only in determining agricultural output but also access to other resources such as credit and participation in local decision-making processes. In this regard, fighting hunger and ensuring food security must address both supply and demand issues.

2.5 HIV/AIDS and Food Security

Since the mid-1990s, the rural economy has been increasingly affected by HIV/AIDS. The impact of HIV/AIDS on crop production has been especially manifested in a reduction in land use, decline in crop yields and the range of crops grown and the overall agricultural productivity. The HIV/AIDS epidemic has translated into a loss of labor affecting the capacity for cultivation.

The financial burden created by the need to care for those infected has increasingly led to a reduction in disposable cash income as more resources are diverted away from purchase of agricultural inputs and raising food productivity into the care of those affected or

infected by HIV/AIDS. The disruption of agricultural production and the family as an economic unit due to HIV/AIDS has undermined household food security since such households have faced reduced levels of productive capacity, purchasing power and food availability.

4. FOOD SECURITY INTERVENTION STRATEGY

Under the Covenants on International Human Rights, the right to food - frequently referred to as the right of Freedom from Hunger - is recognized as a fundamental right. In its broadest sense, the right to food anticipates that national governments pursue and adopt policies supporting access to the minimum daily nutritional intake. The right implies a need for policies capable of improving food production, food storage and distribution as prerequisites in ensuring access to food.

Whereas both the FAO and SDG have set elaborate and ambitious targets to lower the numbers of those affected by hunger, mechanisms for ensuring compliance by national governments on existing obligations pertaining to the right to food remain weak. Furthermore, party to the International Convention on Food Security and Cultural Rights (ICFSCR) are obligated to enact enabling domestic law and policies to safeguard the right to food. However, the vast majority, Kenya included, lack specific legislation to guarantee this right.

MDGs and SDGs and the Fight against Hunger

The MDGs 2000 - 2015 goals placed emphasis on halving extreme poverty and hunger thus creating a clear link between hunger and poverty. But progress towards realizing this goal has been slow and the number of the food insecure has continued to increase raising questions on the adequacy of existing policies and approaches to fighting hunger.

The SDG 2015 - 2030 campaign, in seeking to safeguard the right to food, must actively consider proactive measures that will hold the government accountable in fulfilling its commitments. To do so effectively, the campaign must develop tools for monitoring the extent to which the government is actively pursuing measures to fight hunger and seek amends in areas of inadequate intervention.

It is therefore important to develop mechanisms for ensuring the right to food is not undermined by the failure of government to respect, protect or fulfill its global obligations under SDG 2030.

¹⁶ This view has since been incorporated into Kenya Vision 2030.

¹⁷ *W B, Kenya: A policy Agenda to Restore Growth, 2003* sector while substantial resources were committed to research, marketing, animal health and the provision of credit to smallholder farmers.

¹⁸ The Kenya Constitution provide for equitable distribution of resources to at least of one third of either Gender.

5. POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

a) Develop enabling policies to support access of sufficient food by the poor, marginalized and vulnerable groups

At every level - household, national and international - hunger can exist in the midst of bounty. This means that fighting hunger requires a multi-pronged approach whose core must be enabling policies which support access particularly by the poor, marginalized and vulnerable groups. There are clear linkages between hunger, poverty and food insecurity at both macro and micro levels.

b) Strengthening institutional capacities and policy to address such constraints critical to fighting hunger

The existence of hunger manifests absolute poverty whose dimensions may be long-term (chronic), short-term (acute) and seasonal (transitory). Hunger not only manifests constrained access to food but institutional and policy failures that fail to hedge those in need. In this regard, strengthening institutional capacities and policy to address such constraints is critical in fighting hunger.

c) Addressing issues of entitlements critical in fighting hunger

A fall in entitlements exposes the poor and other vulnerable groups to a high risk of hunger as their capacity to access food is progressively undermined. A person is more vulnerable to hunger where his or her means of livelihood such as wage employment have diminished. Such a person is exposed to hunger even though there may exist an abundance of food in the market. Addressing entitlements is therefore critical in fighting hunger because people are vulnerable to hunger even in times of peak food availability.¹⁹

d) Production based entitlements and better management of the country's strategic reserves policy

Improving production based entitlements demands that appropriate land tenure systems should be developed to empower poor and marginalized people enhance their access and control over land as a factor of production.

e) Expand and diversify the existing range of crops that constitute the national food reserve

To improve food security and thus seek a more long-term goal in fighting hunger, there is need to expand and diversify the existing range of crops that constitute

the national food reserve to include other food products such as oils and pulses.

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¹⁹ Martin Ravallion, *Markets and Famine*, Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1987.



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GAPS IN MODELS/METHODS USED IN THE ASSESSMENT OF INFORMATION SYSTEMS: THE CASE OF COFFEE MARKETING COOPERATIVES IN TANZANIA

Dr Benedict L. K. Mwaibasa*

Abstract

The study identifies gaps in Information Systems (ISs) assessment models used in coffee marketing cooperatives in Tanzania and proposes improvements.

The study used questionnaires, interview schedules, documentary reviews and observations to collect data from a simple random sample of selected cooperatives. Data was processed with the help of a statistical computer package.

Findings from the study revealed that by not having documented plans for ISs, no cooperative had pre-prepared and documented the IS investment appraisal. Also, a significant proportion of cooperators did not perceive the existing information systems as efficiently supporting their organizations in business.

The study concluded that lack of planning for ISs and not having appropriate ISs to help with the marketing business was due to the lack of entrepreneurship/business education among co-operators. This situation caused cooperatives to fail to compete.

Lack of entrepreneurship knowledge and inappropriate ISs in cooperatives were *educational challenges*; the solution lies in *running tailor-made programmes (TMPs)* on how to manage coffee marketing. These recommendations were meant to equip co-operators with business education and also to make them appreciate the need to plan and come up with appropriate ISs.

Further researches are required in the identification of efficient and effective ISs for cooperatives.

1.0 Introduction

The importance of cooperatives in developing countries cannot be overemphasized.

Many world authorities have been emphasizing the importance of cooperatives as a means of eradicating poverty; as noted by Banturaki.

“The weavers of Rochdale, who formed the modern cooperative enterprise balanced independence with interdependence, self-

interest with good-will and action with foresight. The cooperative belongs to no one nation but has its roots in the traditions of all democratic peoples. I look forward with confidence to the contribution that cooperative organizations will make to the years of peace that lie ahead-USA’s former President, Franklin D. Roosevelt (Cooperative League of the USA)”.

(Banturaki 2000:154-157)

“Cooperatives are the instruments for change to alleviate poverty. Cooperatives are to take part in the major means of production.”

(Tanzania’s first President, J.K. Nyerere, 1967 speech)

In Tanzania, cooperatives have contributed to the country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and job creation. During this study (2001 to 2005) the country’s economy depended predominantly on agriculture that employed about 80% of the country’s population of 34,569,232 people.

(Year 2003; Tanzania

National Website: <http://www.tanzania.go.tz/census/>)

Major cash crops that contributed to the national economy included: coffee, cotton, tobacco and cashew nuts. Of the four cash crops, coffee was the major foreign currency earner. It contributed between 23-30% of the GDP and employed about 2.5 million people, most of whom were small-holder farmers - 80% of all coffee growers (Kaaya’s committee: 2000); these small-holder farmers marketed their coffee through primary cooperatives.

(Komba: 2000)

There were 48 cooperative unions of which 45 were agricultural cooperatives. There were 2,590 agricultural cooperative societies among these, 500 were affiliated with 16 coffee marketing cooperative unions (ibid).

2.0 Background to the Research Problem

For a long time, Coffee Marketing Cooperatives in Tanzania have been having sustainability challenges due to some weaknesses and constraints. One major challenge was a lack of access to business information.

Studies on cooperative challenges by Cooksey et al. (1999) and Chambo and Komba (2000) indicated that lack of access to business information was among the major challenges that made coffee marketing cooperatives' fail to compete in coffee markets.

(Chambo, S., and Cooksey, B.:2000)

Ngailo et al. (1999) point out that the effects of lack of business information in cooperatives were magnified after the introduction of liberalised trade in Tanzania in 1984/85. Ngailo et al. (ibid) give an example of a union that felt the effect of lack of information by saying that "the Kilimanjaro Native Cooperative Union (KNCU)'s coffee market share declined from 50% in 1994/95 to 11% in 1997/98 giving way to private and multinational companies that were more competent".

(Ngailo et al. 1999)

In his study, Kimario (1992) pointed out that, following independence (1961), the new government embarked on a crash programme to promote cooperatives. He points out that the programme came up with the following challenges; that cooperatives faced:

- i. Financial and management problems
- ii. Exploitative agricultural development in rural areas
- iii. High overhead costs as a result of significant losses of money
- iv. The inability of staff and committee members to apply modern management principles.

Kimario (ibid) points out that, following the above challenges a board of inquiry found that there was:

- i. "An uninformed membership
- ii. A shortage of appropriate manpower
- iii. A lack of democracy
- iv. A lack of skilled personnel
- v. Susceptibility of cooperatives to political interference."

(Kimario 1992:28)

In the preceding paragraph:

- i. Item (i) was related to the supply of inadequate information and a pointer to ineffective ISs
- ii. Item (ii) showed a need for human capital training
- iii. Item (iii) points to the absence of strategic business plans and policies
- iv. Item (iv) points to a lack of training.

The above findings indicate that cooperatives lacked appropriate strategic plans that should have included plans for appropriate ISs.

3.0 Statement of the Research Problem.

From the discussion in the above sections, Coffee Marketing Co-operatives in Tanzania were not exposed to business competition as they were given a monopoly in the coffee business as an implementation strategy of

the crash programme. The introduction of liberalized trade in 1984/85 magnified their inability to compete. Among the many reasons for the failure to compete was lack of appropriate business information. Hence this research wanted to establish if there existed models used in the appraisal of ISs in the co-operatives and if they had any weaknesses/gaps.

4.0 Research Objectives

The overall aim of this study was to come up with ISs Investment appraisal models for use in cooperatives so as to come up with efficient and viable ISs.

The specific objectives wanted the study to come up with:

- i. The types of ISs used in cooperatives
- ii. The frequency of reviewing the performance of existing ISs
- iii. The factors that were considered relevant in approving proposed ISs
- iv. The factors deemed necessary in appraising the performance of ISs
- v. The existence of models used in the appraising of proposed ISs
- vi. The gaps/shortfalls in ISs appraising models
- vii. To propose models, appropriate for appraising IS investments
- viii. To propose models appropriate for appraising IS investments.

5.0 Research Questions

A written research question was put down for each research objective.

6.0 Research Hypotheses

Five hypotheses were formulated for the study (see section 9.0).

7.0 Research Methodology

Research Approaches

A quantitative approach was used for computing proportions and other statistical summaries while a qualitative approach was used when analysing narratives from respondents.

Research Designs

A cross-sectional design was used to study the business of cooperatives. Within this design, a combination of both survey and case study designs was used.

Study Population

The study population included all coffee marketing cooperatives in Tanzania.

Primary Data

- The types of information systems
- The frequencies of IS performance reviews
- The models used in the appraisal of ISs
- The presence of strategic and ISs plans
- The levels of satisfaction derived from the effectiveness of ISs in cooperatives.

Secondary Data

- qualifications of respondents;
- respondents' responsibilities;
- staff work experiences and
- information communication facilities.

Sampling

Multistage sampling was applied to extract a simple random sample of regions where coffee was grown, and then a simple random sample of cooperatives from the sampled regions was made.

Data Collection

Primary and secondary data were collected from cooperatives included in the sample - using questionnaires, interview schedules, observations and a documentary review.

Reliability and Validity

Questionnaires and interview schedules were piloted to enhance their reliability (i.e. to make sure that similar question items could produce similar responses from respondents in similar working environments).

Validity was enhanced by the use of questionnaire summary sheets. The summary sheets assisted in knowing that a questionnaire measured what it was supposed to measure.

Data Processing

Data processing was for coming up with summary statistics including values for the Z-values.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Summary statistics were used in the testing of hypotheses. Sample proportions (p_i) were computed, and their significance tested. Z - values at a 5% level of significance were used. Results of the tested hypothesis were interpreted (section 9.0).

8.0 Challenges Encountered in the Study

Among other problems faced, were the handling of the Likert scale that required particular attention. It was important that respondents understood and made a good judgement of the purpose of the study and understood individual statements in questionnaires.

Cooper and Schindler point to errors to avoid when dealing with rating scales, like the Likert scale, to be:

- "Errors due to respondents consistently assigning high or low rates to questions or statements on the scale (lenience);

- Errors due to respondents assigning only average rates and reluctant to give extreme judgements (central tendency);
 - Errors due to respondents carrying over a generalized impression of the subject from one rating to another (halo effect)".
- (Cooper and Schindler: 2003:256-257)

9.0 Testing the Hypotheses

Data for testing perceptions of co-operators on the effectiveness of ISs was collected through questionnaires based on the five points Likert scale.

In each test the sample proportion (p_i) was assumed to be a random variable whose frequency distribution approximated a normal distribution for the reason that the sample size ($n=35$) was large ($n>30$) (Hair, J.F. et al.2000:533). For the same reason, it was considered adequate to use the Z-test (a normal random variable with a standard normal distribution).

The alternative hypotheses were:

H1: More than 50% of co-operators perceived ISs as providing effective communication between cooperatives and their members, i.e. $H_{a1}: p > 0.5$.

H2: More than 50% of co-operators perceived ISs as not providing effective communication between cooperatives and suppliers, i.e. $H_{a2}: p > 0.5$.

H3: More than 50% of co-operators perceived ISs as providing effective communication between cooperatives and their customers, i.e. $H_{a3}: p > 0.5$.

H4: Less than 50% of co-operators perceived ISs as providing effective communication between cooperatives and their competitors, i.e. $H_{a4}: p < 0.5$.

H5: More than 50% of co-operators perceived ISs as providing effective communication between cooperatives and their support institutions, i.e. $H_{a5}: p > 0.5$.

Table 1: Summary of hypotheses tests

Hypothesis	r	n	p_i	σ_{p_i}	Z_{comp}	$Z_{\alpha=0.05}$
H ₁	31	35	0.89	1.88	0.20	1.64
H ₂	18	35	0.51	2.96	0.00	1.64
H ₃	20	35	0.57	2.93	0.02	1.64
H ₄	16	35	0.46	2.95	-0.01	-1.64
H ₅	28	35	0.80	2.37	0.13	1.64

Key:

r = number of respondents with a Yes

n = sample size ($n = 35$)

p_0 = hypothesized population proportion

p_i = sample proportion

Z_{α} = Value of Z at α level of significance

Z_{com} = Computed $Z = (p_i - p_0)/\sigma$

The cooperative organizations should have had: p_i

$$\sigma_{p_i} = \sqrt{(r)(n-r)/n}$$

Results of the tests of the hypotheses indicated that there was not enough evidence to reject the null hypotheses that there were not significant differences between the proportions of co-operators who perceived ISs as useful and those who did not see them as useful.

This result is a reflection of the lack of clear understanding, among co-operators, of the requirements of ISs in business; this also indicated limitations of business knowledge.

10.0 Discussion of Findings

- i. Only one of the ten (10) cooperatives (a union) owned and used computer systems including the Internet. Other cooperatives hired computer usage from nearby cafes. Most ISs in cooperatives were manual.
- ii. Data processing was facilitated by calculators and computer illiteracy in cooperatives was high.
- iii. None of the studied cooperatives reported having ever reviewed the performance of their ISs.
- iv. No cooperative had an IS plan.
- v. None of the studied cooperatives reported having ever reviewed any new IS.
- vi. None of the studied cooperatives reported having any factors that could be used in reviewing ISs.
- vii. None of the studied cooperatives had documented models for the assessment/appraisal of new ISs.
- viii. An eight stage proposed structure for coming up with an IS appraisal model is found in the original dissertation (section 5.2.2).
- ix. No co-operator (or personnel) indicated to have been satisfied with ISs. Personnel and co-operators had little business knowledge.

11.0 Summary and Conclusions

The following observations were gathered from the study:

- i. There was limited coffee marketing knowledge among co-operators.
- ii. There was a limited appreciation of the usefulness of ISs in business.
- iii. Most cooperatives used manual ISs in their day-to-day business.
- iv. Mobile phones were found useful by members of brief information exchanges.

12.0 Recommendations

The cooperative organizations should have had:

- i. Appropriate strategic and operational plans that included objectives for ISs.
- ii. Practice of appraising ISs for their efficiency and effectiveness.
- iii. A programme to train co-operators and introduce staff to entrepreneurship.

- iv. Prior research on the use of ISs in cooperatives.

13.0 Further Research

More studies are required for ISs in cooperatives.

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EXCLUSIVE AND INCLUSIVE PROFESSIONALISM: AN ENDLESS DEBATE

Abderrazak Dammak*

Introduction

Teachers' professionalism has always been confusing and controversial to theorists and teachers. Since its emergence, this field of professionalism has been problematic as it witnessed definitional difficulties and faced challenges that impeded its implementation in educational institutions. Teachers strive to become professionals by developing their knowledge, skills, and abilities. Most of the time, teachers discover that developing their knowledge and skills is possible but not enough to become professionals. Teachers' working environment and managerial support play a vital role to help teachers develop and implement the skills that they have learned. From that background, this paper will tackle the issue of professionalism and will illustrate the various meanings given to professionalism, the multiple challenges to professionalism, and the potential solutions that may help teachers in their endeavour to become professionals.

1- The meaning of professionalism

While scrutinizing the literature discussing the issue of professionalism, I noticed that defining this concept has been a controversial issue. Accordingly, I agree with Fox (1992: 2) when he states "professionalism means different things to different people." Similarly, Helsby (1999: 93) highlights confusion in defining teachers' professionalism as a phenomenon "constantly changing and constantly being redefined in different ways and at different times to serve different interests." Parallel to this, Evans (2012) contributes to the discussion by stating that defining professionalism is not to be considered easy. Hoyle in Evans (2012) reinforces her position and states that the new professionalism is "a somewhat amorphous concept which varies in its provenance and its content" (ibid: 1). Evans (2012) also explains that this concept of new professionalism incorporates new features such as accountability, decentralization, deregulation, privatization, and client focused work.

The overlapping definitions to professionalism urged Hargreaves (2000) and Evetts (2012) to differentiate between professionalism and other concepts such as profession and professionalization. According to Hargreaves (2000), professionalism includes the quality and standards of practice whereas professionalization means the improvement of the status of teachers. He argues, "teacher professionalism in particular has taken on very different meanings over the past century" (ibid: 152) and states that the

evolution of the idea of professionalism has witnessed different stages in many parts of the world. Hargreaves thus notes that these stages are relatively common across Anglophone cultures and can be divided into four ages: the pre-professional age, the age of autonomous professional, the age of the collegial professional, and the post professional or postmodern age. He further argues that the fourth age is characterized by a struggle between "forces and groups intent on deprofessionalising the work of teaching" (ibid: 153). Hargreaves then advocates a form of postmodern professionalism that is "more democratically inclusive of groups outside teaching" (ibid: 167). He justifies such an approach by the emergence of globalization and the electronic and digital revolution in communication. Similarly, Evetts (2012) discusses the concepts of profession, professionalization, and professionalism and explains that the latter was "interpreted as an occupational or normative value, as something worth preserving and promoting in work and by and for workers" (ibid: 3). Evetts contends that the discourse of professionalism is used in different workplaces as a marketing slogan and in advertising to attract customers and new workers. Contrary to Evetts, Day (1999) was able to tackle the issue of professionalism in relation to the field of teaching. He highlights the importance of professional development from the perspective of "maintaining and enhancing the quality of teachers and the leadership of principals" (ibid: 2). He suggests that professionalism can be achieved by career long professional development, which is the collective responsibility of teachers, schools, and governments. Day also proposes a definition to professional development that transcends the traditional one and incorporates the acquisition of content, knowledge, and teaching skills. He sees the wider definition of professional development as consisting of:

all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school and which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purposes of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues through each phase of their teaching lives (Day, 1999: 4).

In an attempt to contribute to the discussion, Sachs in Day (1999) identifies five essential values that constitute the fundamentals of professionalism. Learning, the first value, should be practiced by teachers, individually, with students, and colleagues. The second value consists of participation in which teachers act as active agents in their professional worlds. Moreover, teachers should understand collaboration, the third value, as a strategy exercised between internal and external communities. The fourth value consists of co-operation, which will help teachers to develop a common language to document and discuss practice and outcome. Finally, activism entails teachers' engagement with issues related to schooling and education, as part of their moral objectives. This idealistic definition seems to be perplexing, as its implementation would be faced with various challenges as will be illuminated in subsequent sections.

Evans (2012: 2) discusses the concept of new professionalism, compares it to the professionalism that predates, and describes it as "more client focused, more accountable to external agencies, more accepting of public scrutiny, more conscious of the impact of market forces, and more adaptable to the demands imposed by the pursuit of excellence." She holds that new professionalism requires a redefinition of the roles of teachers in decision-making and teaching practices. She adds that the "key issue involved in this version of new professionalism seems to be that of enhancing professional status by asserting professional knowledge and rights and bringing about a shift in the balance of power in relation to decision making" (ibid: 2).

The contribution by Evans extends beyond defining new professionalism as she proposes to include professional culture as a major component of professionalism. Such inclusion will help to avoid confusion and enable novice researchers to incorporate other controversial concepts such as learning communities and professional development in the broader meaning and practice of professionalism.

Parallel to Evans' inclusion of professional culture in professionalism, professional learning communities, defined by Stoll and Louis (2007: 5-6) as "an inclusive group of people motivated by a shared learning vision, who support and work with each other, finding ways, inside and outside their immediate community, to enquire on their practice and together learn new and better approaches that will enhance all pupils' learning", can be encompassed in the wide meaning of professionalism.

From a different perspective, Lorimer and Schulte (2012: 34) perceive "professionalism as a practice rather than an end goal". They define TESOL professionals as people who attempt to enhance their careers through material development, active membership in professional organizations, conduct of language research, professional publications, and pursuit of a postgraduate degree. Ingersoll and Merrill

(2011) highlight the importance of autonomy and expertise as major indicators of professionalism. Similarly, Shon (2006) proposes professional autonomy, dedication to the well being of clients, and expertise as essential features that professionals should possess. The disparity of definitions somehow increased the challenges facing professionalism, an issue that will be discussed in the following part.

2- Challenges and de-professionalism

In addition to the difficulties surrounding the definition of the term professionalism, the field in general faces challenges that impede the implementation of professional acts. Despite the efforts to reach professionalism, teachers encounter challenges that hamper their efforts to become professionals. That is to say, although theorists argue that professionalism is the result of joint effort of teachers, schools and the government (Day: 1999), daily practices and teachers' experiences illustrate that schools and other competing forces are among the challenges and obstacles that impede teachers' endeavor.

Evetts (2012) highlights the dangers of imposing professionalism from above and depicts employees' alienation. She maintains how the accommodation of this concept is the trend in most contemporary service occupations, in that the "effects are not the occupational control of the work by the workers but rather control by the organizational managers and supervisors" (2012: 6). Evetts emphasises that professionalism can be wielded as a potential ideological tool or power to control workers and employees. She asserts that, in such practice, the discourse of professionalism is "taken over, reconstructed and used as an instrument of managerial control in organizations, where professionals are employed" (ibid: 11).

In a similar way, Hargreaves (2000) was interested in the same challenges and precisely those faced by teachers. He warns of the imposed and forced collegiality that may be resisted and resented by teachers. He also cautions against the flattened management structures that restrict teachers' involvement to "technical acts of coordination rather than working together for fundamental change" (ibid: 166). Hargreaves asserts that teacher professionalism in the postmodern era is encountering challenges. He perceives that the new postmodern professionalism should be "broader, more flexible and more democratically inclusive of groups outside teaching and their concerns than its predecessors" (ibid: 167). Hargreaves confesses that this objective could not be easily reached because of the considerable forces ranging against this possibility. New patterns of international economic organization and electronic and digital revolution in communication are threats to professionalism and sources of de-professionalizing teachers. Being considered as obstacles to the marketization of education, teachers have been hammered to marginalise their role and weaken their

position. According to Hargreaves, teachers have been weakened by “restricting the scope of their decision making; prescribing centralised curricula; shifting them towards more temporary contracts; and generally lowering their status”(ibid: 168). As a result, teachers become de-professionalised, amateurs, and deprived from their autonomy. Accordingly, they have to deal with a new situation in which they find themselves torn between their desire to be active professionals and their fate as receivers and passive implementers of the wishes of policy makers. For Hargreaves, even the financial incentives and initiatives of collegiality and collaborative planning are just tranquilizers and “time consuming ruse to have them steer through the details of policies which have been pre-decided centrally” (ibid: 169).

In the same line of argument, Day (1999) states that managerial structures lead to the de-professionalism of teachers. Deciding the content and context of curricula, modifying assessment tools, changing teacher appraisal criteria, and differentiating salary structures are instances of managerial interference that serve to de-professionalise teachers. The intensified bureaucratic interference and control have, to a great extent, reduced the imagination and creativity of teachers and therefore produced deskilled teachers who are “on the way to become technicians whose job is to meet prespecified achievement targets and whose room to manoeuvre, to exercise discretion-a hallmark of an autonomous professional- is thus increasingly restricted”(ibid: 10). In this case, teachers must conform to the social market model as they lost initiatives and are compelled to implement top-down imposed policies. Targets and learning objectives and outcomes are prefecified and the teachers’ role is restricted to achieving these set goals by implementing and abiding by a specified time line and pace of implementation. Hence, the quality of teaching risks to be compromised since it is defined by a predetermined evaluative structures designed by policy makers.

Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) admit that providing teachers with opportunities to develop professionally is persuasive. However, they caution against the problems of imposing these opportunities particularly when “knowledge and skills-based approaches are usually imposed on teachers on a top-down basis by experts from outside their own schools” (ibid: 3). Consequently, this may eventually lead to teachers’ resistance.

Within this technocratic and bureaucratic approach to professionalism, teachers play a role of dual dichotomy: passive receivers of orders on the one hand, but active implementers of policies on the other. Moreover, Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) drew our attention to the fact that teachers’ needs differ according to their different age, personality, and setting. For this reason, standardized and imposed developmental programmes cannot uniformly meet the needs, expectations, and desires of different teachers. Apart from personal factors, Hargreaves and Fullan

highlight the importance of the context in which professional development is supposed to take place. As they argue, “the nature of this context can make or break teacher development efforts” (ibid: 13). They further state how shortage of planning time or time away from class may hinder teacher development efforts. Moreover, the absence of a supportive work context, positive leadership, and lack of resources can be obstacles to professional development. Hargreaves and Fullan succeeded in drawing our attention to the reality that understanding teacher development does not involve only understanding the knowledge and skills that teachers should master, but involves also understanding the personality of teachers, and the context in which they work. However, a scrutiny of the three variables and requirements informs that in certain situations, teachers become de-skilled, a concept that will be discussed in depth in the second part of the paper.

From a different perspective, Breen (2007) suggests that there are four key concepts of teachers’ work that are challenged. They are teachers’ knowledge, practices, accountability, and working conditions. He states that much of what is attributed to as professional development serves the interests of publishing corporations and the parties that designed curricula for local institutions to meet local conditions. Moreover, these professional development programs position teachers as passive receivers of new knowledge brought from experts. Adding equally to exclusion and imposition of imported curricula is job insecurity, which is another challenge that destabilises teachers. Breen suggests that the “contractual conditions of many English language teachers combine with current changes to intensify professional uncertainty” (ibid: 1072). He contextualises the struggles of non-native teachers of English to compete against the advantages of being a native speaker. Non-native English language teachers do not only feel unsecure but also obliged to obtain higher academic qualifications to guarantee safer contractual positions. This currently fierce competition is in contrast with the stable job security position that teachers experienced decades ago during which “stability of employment and status have been the hallmark of teaching which traditionally has been regarded as a job for life” (Day, 1999: 8).

There is a consensus among theorists mentioned in this section that teachers’ professionalism is facing challenges (Evetts, 2012; Day, 1999; Hargreaves, 2000; Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992; and Breen, 2007). They tackled these challenges from different perspectives and agreed that teachers’ exclusion is the most threatening challenge. From that aspect, imposing policies and changes from above and the exclusion of teachers poses a threatening situation to teachers. It does not only destroy teachers’ feeling of pedagogical competence but also turns them into mere receivers and executors of experts’ ideas, thereby threatening their status and capability as authorities who are able to solve learning and educational problems. This brings

into focus the crucial element of inclusive professionalism as discussed in the following segment.

3- Inclusive professionalism

As a reaction to teachers' alienation and exclusion, many voices of concern were raised to propose solutions to redeem lost power, autonomy, creativity, and prestige. Day (1999), Hargreaves and Fullan (1992), and Stodolsky, Dorph, and Nemser (2006) suggest collegiality as a requirement to become professional. Stodolsky et al. for example, suggest, "sustained interaction among teachers about teaching and learning is a hallmark of professional school cultures that support teacher learning" (ibid: 93). They believe that effective professional development should be sustained, intensive, and ongoing. It underpins that developing collegiality occurs in workplaces with strong professional cultures, where teachers discuss goals, objectives, practices, students, curriculum, and different educational issues. It is an atmosphere that fosters involvement, inclusion, and active participation. Stodolsky et al. (2006) support that classroom observation is a rich and fruitful experience during which teachers can observe each other. They argue that schools should create opportunities for teachers to observe each other if observation is proved to be a promising vehicle for professional development. According to Stodolsky et al., it is the responsibility of learning institutions to adopt "structures and practices that permit teachers to interact with one another around teaching and learning" (ibid: 103). Parallel to this, Wood (2007) suggests that teacher-learning communities may offer to teachers a professional atmosphere, which encompasses exchanging classroom observation and continuous collegial dialogue. She encourages professional learning to be an integral part of teachers' work. Wood strives to revive Dewey's approach to teacher professionalism where "teachers engage in collective inquiry in order to weigh their practices and innovations" (ibid: 282). This appeal to collegial communities resonates with the recommendation of collegiality which allows teachers to work and learn together for the sake of improving learners' performance (Calderwood, 2000, and McDonald, Mohr, Dichter, and McDonald, 2013). Wood (2007) concludes that teachers may build knowledge as they reflect on their practices, air classroom struggles, ask colleagues for help, engage in-group discussions, and raise topics for investigation. Earlier to this, Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) highlight the importance of collegiality, as a factor, which involves active participation of teachers. They advocate neglecting the individualistic approach to professionalism and instead advise on the extension of "teachers' networks so that they can learn from each other" (ibid: 10). They view that a collegial culture context, which may allow and stimulate teachers to exchange experiences and learn from each other, is missing in real professional lives of teachers.

Parallel to this, Hargreaves (2000) proposes solutions to avoid teacher de-professionalism. He urges teachers

to defend themselves against the forces that de-professionalise them. He holds that teachers should struggle to obtain competitive salaries, counter the discourses of blaming and shaming adopted by politicians and the media, and broaden the idea and practice of collegial professionalism. To achieve professionalism, Hargreaves suggests that teachers should make sure that collegial efforts aim at improving teaching practices and learners' performance and that these efforts should be conspicuous to stakeholders such as parents and learners. Moreover, he claims that teachers' collaborative efforts should target colleague teachers everywhere, and not only in the narrow sense of the closer environment. He adds that teachers and principals should turn outwards toward the wider public while designing and preparing their teaching plans. He also advises teachers to collaborate with parents and consider them as sources of support rather than interferers and obstacles. Hargreaves highlights that "the new relationship that teachers are having to form with parents is one of the greatest challenges to their professionalism in the postmodern age" (ibid: 172). In postmodern professionalism, teachers and parents should exchange expertise and learn from each other. He states that teachers should not only interact with the outer world but also with the inner circle of colleagues because "postmodern professionals who interact with people beyond the school must also be collegial ones inside it-postmodern professionalism includes and depends on collegial professionalism" (ibid: 173).

In the same stream of thinking, Breen (2007) deduces seven desirable features of professional development, which can be divided into two main groups. The first group addresses how teachers can be active participants in the process of development. The second group consists of the requirements upon the developmental process. According to Breen, teacher development should "address all the attributes of professional identity and self-esteem grounded in ongoing achievements rather than merely the attainment of external imperatives" (ibid: 1078). Furthermore, he asserts that teachers' professional identities are sustained by relationships with others and that teachers' development programs should account for learners' and teachers' changing communities and therefore consider teachers as members of community. In addition to these factors, Breen adds collegiality, discursiveness, and evolution as necessary elements in developing professionalism. He highlights that teachers are members of the wider community of fellow practitioners who share the same interests, hopes, and pressure. He reiterates that teachers' local explorations can be interchanged and recontextualised for collegial access. More important, Breen encourages teachers to discuss, revise, and question constant beliefs and knowledge and reclaim their space "in terms of a collegial shift towards discursiveness or engagement in discourse" (ibid: 1080). Finally, Breen highlights the importance of professional development as a space where teachers can discover ways of thinking and

acting collegially. Breen acknowledges that the implementation of collegial development is difficult because professionalism has been always perceived as an individual endeavor, a situation quite similar to the prevailing condition in my workplace. Indeed the assumption of professionalism as a complex phenomenon deserves not only more attention but also individual teacher's observation of the context of his/her workplace.

Conclusion

Teaching and developing professionally is a demanding job in current complicated working atmosphere, vacillating between educational functions and work force demands. The focus on students' outcome and the exclusion of teachers has marginalized the work, effort, and position of the teachers. As second-class teachers, able teachers find themselves swinging between two phases of professionalism: the autonomous and the postmodern professional ages. In the absence of support from educational institutes and lack of real desire to help teachers to develop professionally, teachers are isolated, excluded, and obliged to implement a top-down imposed curriculum in an individualized way. We are teaching "in a box", to say the least. Furthermore, individual initiatives to attend national or international conferences and obtain higher academic qualifications to develop professionally are not encouraged, not even appreciated and acknowledged. Various alarming instances to de-professionalise teachers are actively prevalent in the current practices. Exclusion from designing tests, alienation from developing the curriculum, and neglect in taking part in conferences are conspicuous examples of academic marginalization. The absence of managerial support, acknowledgment for teachers' efforts to develop, and a collegial working community has created a culture of individualism that denies sharing, exchanging, negotiating, and developing. The following stanza written sarcastically by a colleague summarises the unprofessional working atmosphere enduring in many workplaces:

Unacademicality embraced unethicity
 Unethicity embellished immorality
 Immorality ushered in hypocriticality
 Hypocriticality hinged its fate on vanity
 Vanity celebrated academic unethicity.
 (Eno, 2013: 99).

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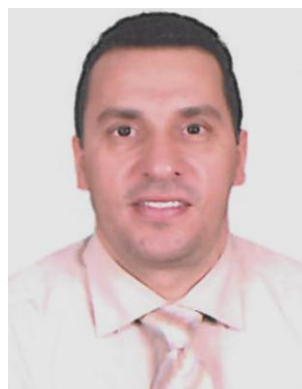
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SINGAPORE: VISION, MISSION AND CHALLENGES

Professor Dr Bruce R. Duncan*

The complete version of this summarised article is available at:
<http://www.stclements.edu/articles/The-Singapore-Model-Full-Article.pdf>

The full text of this topic¹ is available from the St Clements University e-library. This summary comprises a seven-point synopsis of the pre- and evolving history of Singapore, Lee Kuan Yew (the nation's Founding father), governance, corruption, economy, education, poverty and 21-st century challenges. The format quotes format will encourage readers to form their own opinions about Lee – a unique ethnic Chinese figure, father of three children from South East Asia.



Pre- and evolving history

Archaeology pinpoints the arrival of Homo sapiens to South East Asia at around 51,000 – 46,000 years ago. Skeletal evidence and scattered artefacts verify the existence of humankind's common ancestors inhabiting mainland Southeast Asia – and their subsequent migrations to the island now called, Singapore.

People from Indonesia, Malaysia, Brunei, East Timor, the Philippines, Mongolia, China, Papua, Thailand and Vietnam journeyed across marshland, forested plains and rocky areas to live. Subsequent trade routes linked a network of nations across land and sea. The importing of products and exporting of goods rewarded and enriched human enterprise that also contributed to feeding the needs and wants of other parts of the world (HUGO, 2009) – foreshadowing, the Singaporean

trading nexus that would become a prime source of its revenue in the future.

Greco-Roman history also offers a fascinating glimpse into the writings of Ptolemy (90 – 168). This astrologer, astronomer, mathematician and geographer mentions “Sabana” (Hack, 2006) – today's Singapore. In addition, a third-century account of the country explains the etymology of its name as a transliteration from the Malay word, ‘Pulau Ujong’, meaning ‘island at the end [of the Malay Peninsula]’.

The diamond-shaped island that is home to Singapore city-state abuts the southern tip of the Malay Peninsula - some 85 miles north of the Equator, and comprises some 60 small islets; the main island occupies around 18 square miles of this combined area.

The Johor Strait – a sea-filled channel now crossed by a road and rail causeway that is more than half a mile long, separates Singapore Island from the Malaysian Peninsula to the north. The southern limits of the state line the Singapore Strait, where outliers of the Riau-Lingga Archipelago that form a part of Indonesia, extend to within 10 miles of the main island.

The city of Singapore, in the southern portion of the main island, has, over the last 50-odd years, developed, expanded and urbanised. The sprawl of the population has blurred the pre-1960's distinction between urban, suburban and countryside areas. Built-up areas now cover a large part of the city-state.

The older parts of the city, now substantially refurbished, line the Singapore River. The traditional Malay kampong settlements - consisting of a declining number of stilt houses along the shoreline – now exist only in some rural areas. The once-common Chinese shop-houses, where occupants lived above a commercial establishment, are disappearing (as in many countries around the world). Change is endemic, is it not.

The growing population and the government's expanding housing and business development initiatives have slotted in with its Housing and Development Board's (HDB) relocating of trade and residential districts – the latter providing housing for people with mixed incomes.

About four-fifths of Singapore's population of some 5.6 million inhabitants now reside in high-rise high-

¹ Initially commissioned by the Commonwealth University: Business, Arts and Technology for its Dubai Summit in July 2016.

density HDB built flats located in housing estates and new towns. The residents of the relatively new and widely spread developments, Woodlands, Tampines, and Yishun, enjoy easy access to employment and shopping centres.

Singapore also operates the largest port in Southeast Asia - one of the busiest in the world. The city-state owes its growth and prosperity to its advantageous position outside the southern extremity of the Malay Peninsula, where it dominates the Strait of Malacca, which connects the Indian Ocean to the South China Sea.

Before the British colonised Singapore, only about a thousand inhabitants occupied the Sultanate-ruled island. The indigenous tribesmen and some Chinese merchants had engaged in trade, but piracy sailed the seas!

After forcing the British to return all of the East Indies trading ports to the entrepreneurial clutches of Holland (1815), the Dutch ships and ports held almost complete power over the East Indies. Britain, however, competing against the Dutch for trade decided to colonise Singapore – a tactically advantageous move. So in 1819, Sir Stamford Raffles signed a treaty with the ruler, Sultan Hussein of Johor, and founded the colony of Singapore. Thus, under the colonising umbrella of British imperialism, Singaporean nationhood began a new evolutionary journey – and the British colonial office smiled all the way to the bank!

The penultimate step, before impendence in 1965, saw Singapore (under the leadership of Lee Keon Yew – the PAP Party leader) joining the Federation of Malaysia in 1963. However, after two years the country disaffiliated to become an independent state on August 9, 1965. The political, economic and cultural differences gave rise to the rift but, as history records, this painful break for Lee was nevertheless an advantageous gain for Singapore (Edited from sources: Leinbach, 2016 and Scriba, 2011).

Lee Kuan Yew (1923 – 2015) – the nation's Founding Father.

Lee epitomises the truism, cometh the day – cometh the man. This visionary, charismatic, autocratic, politically astute, street-wise, British-educated, Machiavellian leader took the lead in transforming the British colonised swamp dotted with an unsophisticated and relatively uneducated population living in landscaped emptiness. Lee's controversial rule led to Singapore's evolution into an economic powerhouse.

In parallel, commentators have also often sung the praises of Israel as being the country that fulfilled the prophecy in making "the desert to blossom as a rose". South Korea, too, has been lauded as one of the four Asian Tigers that clawed its way to progress and international acclaim after repelling the North Korean

invasion (1950 – 1953) and repaying an International Monetary Fund loan in record time (the latter part of the 20th-century). In addition, China's place on the world's stage and the dawn of the Japanese revival following its justified World War II humiliation command the admiration and attention of the world. In concert, the United Arab Emirates continues to transform the lives of its people in addition to changing the desert into productive land.

Amazingly, however, Singaporean initiatives have to date ticked up more successes than failures. So, welcome to Singapore and, of course, to the nation's late founder!

Was Lee arrogant, egotistical, determined or ...?

"Here in Singapore, you didn't come across the white man so much. He was in a superior position. But there you are (in Britain) in a superior position meeting white men and white women in an inferior position, socially, I mean. They have to serve you and so on in the shops. And I saw no reason why they should be governing me; they're not superior. I decided when I got back, I was going to put an end to this" (Reuters, 2015).

"I have never been over concerned or obsessed with opinion polls or popularity polls. I think a leader who is, is a weak leader. If you are concerned with whether your rating will go up or down, then you are not a leader. You are just catching the wind ... you will go where the wind is blowing. And that's not what I am in this for" (Reuters 2015).

"Between being loved and being feared, I have always believed Machiavelli was right. If nobody is afraid of me, I'm meaningless" (Reuters 2015).

"Anybody who decides to take me on needs to put on knuckle-dusters. If you think you can hurt me more than I can hurt you, try. There is no way you can govern a Chinese society" (Reuters 2015).

"If you are a troublemaker... it's our job to politically destroy you... Everybody knows that in my bag I have a hatchet, and a very sharp one. You take me on, I take my hatchet, we meet in the cul-de-sac" (Reuters 2015).

What about Lee on governance and leadership?

Lee inherited and built on and amended the hierarchical British government style within what he termed as a democracy.

"Amazingly, throughout most of the contemporary Western world leaders in government require no special training or qualification. Many get elected because they sound and look good on television. The results have been unhappy for their voters" (Mothership SG, 2016).

"Repression, Sir is a habit that grows. I am told it is like making love-it is always easier the second time! The first time there may be pangs of conscience, a sense of guilt. But once embarked on this course with constant repetition you get more and more brazen in the attack. All you have to do is to dissolve organizations and societies and banish and detain the key political workers in these societies. Then miraculously everything is tranquil on the surface. Then an intimidated press and the government-controlled radio together can regularly sing your praises, and slowly and steadily the people are made to forget the evil things that have already been done, or if these things are referred to again they're conveniently distorted and distorted with impunity, because there will be no opposition to contradict" (Mothership SG, 2016).

"I have never been over concerned or obsessed with opinion polls or popularity polls. I think a leader who is, is a weak leader. Between being loved and being feared, I have always believed Machiavelli was right. If nobody is afraid of me, I'm meaningless (Mothership SG, 2016).

"An MP must now not only be good at speaking but also at getting things done. When an estate is dirty, out of order, and rubbish not regularly and properly collected, that is when residents realise that without regular maintenance, the value of their flats will drop" (Mothership SG, 2016).

"We have to lock up people, without trial, whether they are communists, whether they are language chauvinists, whether they are religious extremists. If you don't do that, the country would be in ruins" (Reuters 2015).

"If you don't include your women graduates in your breeding pool and leave them on the shelf, you would end up a more stupid society... So what happens? There will be less bright people to support dumb people in the next generation. That's a problem" (Reuters 2016).

"I am often accused of interfering in the private lives of citizens. Yes, if I did not, had I not done that, we wouldn't be here today. And I say without the slightest remorse, that we wouldn't be here, we would not have made economic progress, if we had not intervened on very personal matters - who your neighbour is, how you live, the noise you make, how you spit, or what language you use. We decide what is right. Never mind what the people think" (Goodreads, 2016).

"He took over, and he said: 'If I have to shoot 200,000 students to save China from another 100 years of disorder, so be it.'" - Recalling how former Chinese leader Deng Xiaoping dealt with the 1989 Tiananmen Square protests" (Goodreads, 2016).

"I started off believing all men were equal. I now know that's the most unlikely thing ever to have been, because millions of years have passed over evolution,

people have scattered across the face of this earth, been isolated from each other, developed independently, had different intermixtures between races, peoples, climates, soils... I didn't start off with that knowledge. But by observation, reading, watching, arguing, asking, and then bullying my way to the top, that is the conclusion I've come to" (Goodreads, 2016).

"Political reform need not go hand in hand with economic liberalisation. I do not believe that if you are libertarian, full of diverse opinions, full of competing ideas in the market place, full of sound and fury, therefore you will succeed" (Goodreads, 2016).

"Even from my sickbed, even if you are going to lower me to the grave and I feel that something is going wrong, I will get up" (Reuters 2015).

"I do not yet know of a man who became a leader as a result of having undergone a leadership course" (Mothership SG, 2016).

Lee on his faith and the death of his wife

"I wouldn't call myself an atheist. I neither deny nor accept that there is a God. So I do not laugh at people who believe in God. But I do not necessarily believe in God - nor deny that there could be one" (Reuters, 2015).

"There is an end to everything and I want mine to come as quickly and painlessly as possible, not with me incapacitated, half in coma in bed and with a tube going into my nostrils and down to my stomach" (Reuters, 2015).

"Without her, I would be a different man, with a different life... I should find solace in her 89 years of a life well lived. But at this moment of the final parting, my heart is heavy with sorrow and grief" (Reuters, 2015).

"I wish I can meet my wife in the hereafter, but I don't think I will. I just cease to exist just as she has ceased to exist - otherwise the other world would be overpopulated" (Goodreads, 2016).

Lee on corruption

Apparently, Singaporean corruption during the 19th-century remained widespread. Sadly, the initial efforts by the British administration in establishing the first anti-corruption legislation was little more than a paper tiger.

However, after the hijacking of an opium consignment (involving three police detectives) in 1951, the reality of the competent management of legislation dawned on the legislature - a reactive response followed and procedural tightening up took place.

However, in 1952, the colonial government had still not got to grips with the realities of combating sleaze.

After all, eradicating corruption depends, also, on the definition of the word, does it not! For example, taking out a client to a business dinner is, for some, a taboo but “why not?” we might argue.

Nevertheless, in 1959, when the Founding Prime Minister, Lee Kuan had led his People’s Action Party (PAP) to victory “they wore the party uniforms of white-on-white [to symbolise] the purity and the incorruptibility of its members. The PAP-led government remains committed to putting an end to corrupt practices in Singapore” (CIPO, 2016).

After putting their feet under the table, the PAP government declared war on corruption. Corruption faced the might of a determined and powerful state, and the results of the successful “be clean” intervention began to permeate all aspects of Singaporean life.

Kaufmann (2005), writing for the International Monetary Fund, cites the May 2005 report by the African Commission, “Good governance is the key ... unless there are improvements in capacity, accountability, and reducing corruption ... other reforms will have only limited impact.” Importantly, one of the cornerstones supporting the Singaporean Lion is its comparatively high level of no corruption.

Singapore’s grip on corruption did not happen overnight, but it is apparent that in 1959 after the new self-governing PAP had placed the then known CIPB under the Home Office, that change began. Their subsequent hands-on governance played a crucial role in addressing the reality of corruption in the country. Following an active business-like approach, the Singaporean Government established The Corrupt Practices Investigation Bureau (CPIB) to tackle sleaze. Interestingly, Singapore ranks at notch five away from the “very clean” with a score of 85 and ahead of The United Kingdom (ISSUU, 2015).

Ker 2013, citing Lee writes, “[Singapore] must be corruption-free... The basis for that was a non-corrupt bureaucracy, especially the police, heavy penalties for corruption, rigorous enforcement of the law. Today, people accept it as a fact - you’ve just got to obey the law...”. While corruption still challenges Singaporean statutes, the statistics show a significant drop in prosecutions of corrupt practices.

Lee and economic reforms

Singapore’s governance exemplifies the will to succeed and in so doing to explore alternative economic models. According to Huff (1995), the government had moved away from “the neo-classical model in development economics” – a concept that tied development to the market or a plan.

The legislature had adopted structuralism that allowed “extensive government intervention” without an inflexible central plan and thus encouraged both state and private sector engagement. This parallel

partnership found opportunities for a greater share of the foreign market by expanding services and goods to meeting the needs of the external requirement for manufactured products. Thus, national productivity and exports contributed to the nation’s development. Singapore opened up its economic front:

- Despite the absence of natural resources, the government had capitalised on the country’s historically strategic location – a natural harbour. Some 40% of world maritime trade passes the Malacca mouth. Singapore had harvested the potential of the passing trade.
- Visionary insight led to a captivating mission that welcomed overseas trade and investment that resulted in multinationals using the hub to expand their businesses.
- Governance remained small, efficient and honest - qualities absent in most of Singapore’s neighbours.
- Lee, the analytical thinker, had applied his authoritarian style of government to contribute to Singapore’s success and had justified his approach by emphasising the island’s vulnerability in a potentially hostile part of the world.

(Source: The Economist, 2016)

Poverty

The reality of poverty in one of the world’s wealthiest and developed countries raises concerns amongst analysts and others. However, all is not as it appears to be! Like the iceberg, Singapore’s public image is only one part of the Singaporean journey.

Despite holding the world’s highest concentration of millionaires, the city-state also boasts the second-biggest inequality gap among Asia’s advanced economies.

(Source: Leyl, 2014)

Challenges

Lee’s unique (mission in time) and his personality and entrenched power enabled his controversial style of leadership to survive. Times have changed. Just as Winston Churchill’s leadership was time-limited, so it will be with Lee’s Machiavellian approach. Absolute power tends to corrupt absolutely, does it not! Civil liberties must form part and parcel of any country espousing democratic governance.

The alleviation of poverty demands the attention of governance and, in tandem, a healthy debate about the pros and cons of globalisation on the Singaporean labour force and market demands attention. The sustainability of Singapore and countries like the AUE cannot carve out a sustainable future unless its people are fully employed in all sectors of the marketplace.

Welcome to Singapore – yes – but Quo Vadis?

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EGYPTIAN POLITICS AND AMERICAN DIPLOMACY 1973-2016

Dr Kemal Yildirim*

Introduction

In regards to the role of Politics and Diplomacy between states in international relations theory, and sadly romance, People may sometimes say they are an idealist in their heart, a realist in their head, and in life simply confused. So I guess the *the current gap between American and Egyptian worldviews and priorities is larger than at any time in the past*. U.S. aid has not been successful in producing a professionalized and effective Egyptian military. Nor has it encouraged Egyptian leaders to share Washington's worldview or strategic priorities. And it certainly has not had a particularly positive effect on the country's political trajectory: foreign military funding has proved wholly ineffective in pushing Egypt toward democratic reform.

Keywords US, Egyptian politics, Diplomacy

The politics of Egypt is based on [republicanism](#), with a [semi-presidential system](#) of government. Following the [Egyptian Revolution of 2011](#), and the resignation of [President Hosni Mubarak](#), executive power was assumed by the [Supreme Council of the Armed Forces](#),

which dissolved the [parliament](#) and suspended the [constitution](#). In 2012, [Mohamed Morsi](#) was elected as Egypt's fifth [president](#) but was [deposed](#) by army chief General [Abdel Fattah el-Sisi](#) who was subsequently elected as Egypt's sixth president in 2014 ("[El-Sisi sworn in as Egypt president](#)". Ahram Online. 8 June 2014. Retrieved 8 June 2014.)

The fact is that Egyptian Constitution, political parties are allowed to exist. Religious political parties are not allowed as it would not respect the principle of non-interference of religion in politics and that religion has to remain in the private sphere to respect all beliefs. Also forbidden are political parties supporting militia formations or having an agenda that is contradictory to the constitution and its principles, or threatening the country's stability such as national unity between Muslim Egyptians and [Christian Egyptians](#).

As of 2012, there are more than 40 registered political parties in Egypt. The largest are [Freedom and Justice Party](#), [al-Nour Party](#), [New Wafd Party](#), [Free Egyptians Party](#), [Justice Party](#), [Wasat Party](#), and the [Egyptian Social Democratic Party](#).

Summary of the 2015 election for House of Representatives (Egypt)

	Party	Ideology	Votes	Vote %	FPTP Seats	List Seats	Total Seats	Component Parties
	Free Egyptians Party	Liberalism, Secularism			57	8	65	
	Nation's Future Party	Populism			43	10	53	
	New Wafd Party	Egyptian nationalism, National Liberalism			27	8	36	1 appointed member
	Homeland Defenders Party	Populism			10	8	18	
	Republican People's Party	Liberalism, Populism			13	0	13	
	Conference Party	Big tent, Liberalism			8	4	12	
	Al-Nour Party	Islamism, Salafism			11	0	11	
	Conservative Party	Conservative Liberalism			1	5	6	
	Democratic Peace Party	Liberal Democracy, Civic Nationalism			5	0	5	

Summary of the 2015 election for House of Representatives (Egypt)									
	Party		Ideology	Votes	Vote %	FPTP Seats	List Seats	Total Seats	Component Parties
	Egyptian Social Democratic Party		Social Democracy, Social Liberalism			4	0	4	
	Egyptian National Movement Party		Secularism			4	0	4	
	Modern Egypt Party		Leftism			4	0	4	
	Freedom Party		Big tent, Liberalism			3	0	3	
	Reform and Development Party		Liberalism			3	0	3	
	My Homeland Egypt Party		Populism			3	0	3	
	Revolutionary Guards Party		Nationalism, Liberalism			1	0	1	
	National Progressive Unionist Party		Left-wing Nationalism, Democratic Socialism			1	0	2	1 appointed member
	Free Egyptian Building Party		Islamism			1	0	1	
	Nasserist Party		Arab Nationalism, Arab Socialism			1	0	1	
	Independents		Independents	-	-	251	74	351	28 Appointed members
	Total elected		elected MPs	0	100.00	0	0	0	
	Appointees		non-elected MPs	-	-	-	-	0	
	Total		MPs	-	-	-	-	0	

2014 Egyptian presidential election

Candidate	Party	Votes	%
Abdel Fattah el-Sisi	Military	23,780,104	96.91
Hamdeen Sabahi	Popular Current	757,511	3.09
Invalid/blank votes		1,040,608	–
Total		25,578,233	100
Registered voters/turnout			47.45
Source: Ahram Online			

2011 Egyptian revolution and thereafter

During the 2011 Egyptian revolution top US government officials urged [Hosni Mubarak](#) and his government to reform, to refrain from using violence and to respect the rights of protesters such the right to peaceful assembly and association. ("[Egypt unrest: NGO offices raided in Cairo](#)". *BBC*. 29 December 2012. Retrieved 13 April 2012.) Diplomatic ties between the two countries became strained after

Egyptian soldiers and police raided 17 offices of local and foreign NGOs - including the International Republican Institute (IRI), the National Democratic Institute (NDI), Freedom House and the German Konrad-Adenauer Foundation on December 29, 2011 because of allegations of illegal funding from abroad. The United States condemned the raids as an attack on democratic values ("[US says Egypt agrees to stop raids on democracy groups](#)". *BBC*. 30 December 2012. Retrieved 13 April 2012) and threatened to stop the

\$1.3bn in military aid and about \$250m in economic aid Washington gives Egypt every year,^[1] but this threat was dismissed by the Egyptian government. ("Egypt PM dismisses US aid threat over activists' trial". BBC. 8 February 2012. Retrieved 13 April 2012.) 43 NGO members ("US senators warn Egypt of 'disastrous' rupture in ties". BBC. 8 February 2012. Retrieved 13 April 2012.) including Sam LaHood, son of US Transport Secretary Ray LaHood, and Nancy Okail, then resident director of US-based NGO Freedom House's operations in Egypt, were charged with obtaining international funds illegally and failing to register with the Egyptian government. ("Egypt judges in NGO funding trial resign". BBC. 29 February. Retrieved 13 April 2012). After an appeal by those charged, the case had been switched from a criminal court to one handling misdemeanours, where the maximum penalty was a fine and not imprisonment. ("Foreign NGO workers reach Cyprus after leaving Egypt". BBC. 2 March 2012. Retrieved 13 April 2012.). After lifting a travel ban on 17 foreign NGO members, ("US and Egypt seek to repair relationship after NGO row". BBC. 7 March 2012. Retrieved 13 April 2012.) among them 9 Americans, the United States and Egypt began to repair their relations. ("US and Egypt seek to repair relationship after NGO row". BBC. 7 March 2012. Retrieved 13 April 2012.) Nevertheless, on September 11, 2012, (the 11th anniversary of the September 11 attacks) Egyptian protesters stormed the US embassy in Cairo, tore down the American flag and replaced it with a flag with Islamic symbols (Brian Walker; Paul Cruickshank; Tracy Doueiry (11 September 2012). "Protesters storm U.S. Embassy in Cairo". CNN. Retrieved 11 September 2012. and "Cairo protesters scale U.S. Embassy wall, remove flag". USA Today. 11 September 2012. Retrieved 11 September 2012.) to mock the Americans after an anti-Islamic movie denigrating the Islamic prophet, Muhammad, was shot in the United States and released on the internet.

Meanwhile there were on going diplomatic negotiations along 2012's late months such as in November 2012, Barack Obama — for the first time since Egypt signed the peace treaty with Israel — declared that the United States does not consider Egypt's Islamist-led government an ally or an enemy. ("Obama: Egypt Not An Ally, But Not An Enemy". Huffington Post. 13 September 2012 and "Obama: Egypt neither enemy nor ally". Reuters. 13 September 2012.) In another incident, General Martin Dempsey said that the U.S.-Egypt military ties will depend on Egypt's actions towards Israel. He said in June 2012; "The Egyptian leaders will salute a civilian president for the first time ... and then they'll go back to barracks. But I don't think it's going to be as clean as that. That's why we want to stay engaged with them ... not [to] shape or influence, but simply be there as a partner to help them understand their new responsibilities". (<http://www.defense.gov/news/newsarticle.aspx?id=67155>)¹

Diplomatic ties between the two countries have temporarily soured since the July 2013 military coup that deposed Egyptian president Mohamed Morsi. (Sharp, Jeremy M. (5 June 2014). "Egypt: Background and U.S. Relations" (PDF). Congressional Research Service. Retrieved 8 October 2014.¹ The Obama administration condemned Egypt's violent crackdown on the Muslim Brotherhood and its supporters, cancelling future military exercises and halting the delivery of F-16 jet fighters and AH-64 Apache attack helicopters to the Egyptian Armed Forces.¹ Holland, Steve; Mason, Jeff (15 August 2013). "Obama cancels military exercises, condemns violence in Egypt". Reuters. Retrieved 8 October 2014.¹ Popular sentiment among secular Egyptians towards the United States has been negatively affected by conspiracy theories, which claim that the U.S. assisted the then-unpopular Muslim Brotherhood in attaining power.

(http://mideast.foreignpolicy.com/posts/2013/02/26/closed_us_policy_on_egypt and http://talkingpointsmemo.com/archives/2013/07/the_weirdest_story_in_the_history_of_the_world.php?ref=fpblog and <http://www.egyptindependent.com/news/us-we-did-not-support-particular-egyptian-presidential-candidate> and <http://english.ahram.org.eg/NewsContent/1/64/47782/Egypt/Politics-/Liberal-and-Christian-figures,-groups-protest-Clin.aspx>)

However, in a 2014 news story, BBC reported: "The US has revealed it has released \$575m (£338m) in military aid to Egypt that had been frozen since the ousting of President Mohammed Morsi last year".

Foreign relations in Egypt

The permanent headquarters for the League of Arab States (The Arab League) is located in Cairo. The Secretary General of the League has traditionally been an Egyptian. Former Egyptian Foreign Minister Nabil El-Araby is the present Secretary General of the Arab League. The Arab League moved out of Egypt to Tunis in 1978 as a protest at the peace treaty with Israel, but returned in 1989.

Egypt was the first Arab state to establish diplomatic relations with the state of Israel, after the signing of the Egypt-Israel Peace Treaty at the Camp David Accords. Egypt has a major influence amongst other Arab states, and has historically played an important role as a mediator in resolving disputes between various Arab nations, and in the Israeli-Palestinian dispute. Most Arab nations still give credence to Egypt playing that role, though its effects are often limited.

Former Egyptian Deputy Prime Minister Boutros Boutros-Ghali served as Secretary General of the United Nations from 1991 to 1996.

A territorial dispute with Sudan over an area known as the Hala'ib Triangle, has meant that diplomatic relations between the two remain strained.

After the 1973 Arab-Israeli War, Egyptian foreign policy began to shift as a result of the change in Egypt's leadership from the fiery Nasser to the much more moderate Anwar Sadat and the emerging peace process between Egypt and Israel. Sadat realized that reaching a settlement of the Arab-Israeli conflict is a precondition for Egyptian development. To achieve this goal, Sadat ventured to enhance U.S.-Egyptian relations to foster a peace process with Israel. After a seven-year hiatus, both countries reestablished normal diplomatic relations on February 28, 1974. In moving toward the U.S. in foreign policy, Sadat worked with President Richard Nixon to expel 20,000 Soviet technicians and soldiers and reopen the Suez Canal. Sadat opened negotiations with Israel, resulting most notably in the Camp David Accords brokered by President Jimmy Carter and made peace with Israel in a historic peace treaty in 1979.^[2] Sadat's domestic policy, called 'Infitah,' was aimed at modernizing the economy and removing Nasser's heavy-handed controls. Sadat realized American aid was essential to that goal, and it allowed him to disengage from the Israeli conflict, and to pursue a regional peace policy (Mannin G. Weinbaum, "Egypt's 'Infitah' and the Politics of US Economic Assistance," *Middle Eastern Studies*, March 1985, Vol. 21 Issue 2, pp 206-222).

The Cold War locked the attention of the Soviet Union and the United States onto one another. Each sought to gain advantage in Third World regions or to prevent the other from doing so. Secure against other adversaries, leaders in Washington and Moscow had neither the incentive nor the attention span to exercise prudent and careful judgment in every international backwater where their rivalry appeared. The pervasiveness of their competition and, relative to the scale of local resources, the immense size of these Gullivers, created irresistible opportunities for Lilliputians to exploit great-power ignorance of local affairs and need for local allies.

Exploitation of the strong by the weak in those circumstances was enabled by an asymmetry of political agility, with local actors able to maneuver fluidly and play the superpowers off against each other in ways that often baffled and frustrated the clumsy, slow-to-learn, intercontinental behemoths. But the Cold War ended two decades ago. Now, as the world changes in the Middle East, the United States, at least, seems quite ready to adapt to change and even welcome it. The Obama administration's foreign policy in the region is based on two fundamental assessments.

History is inescapable in Egypt. Foreign tourists drawn to the abundant physical remains of Coptic, Pharaonic, Hellenic and Islamic cultures are reminded of the contemporary past as they head downtown from the Cairo airport past the triumphant October War Panorama, a 1973 war museum with fighter jets parked out front. Numerous place names — Sadat City, 26th of July Street, Talaat Harb Square, 6th of October Bridge — are constant evocations of persons and events raised to iconic status by former regimes.

In the past year, a new, unsanctioned layer of historical memory has been added to Egypt's villages, towns and cities in the form of graffiti, wall art, banners and flags: artifacts of the popularly named "January 25th Revolution." "Virtual" additions to the historical record, accessible via the Internet, are less visible but increasingly influential. Collected by activists, artists, scholars, journalists and ordinary people, millions of scanned photos, documents, oral histories, tweets, films, videos and audio clips portray and preserve alternative views of the tumultuous past year. Media airwaves and mobile phones convey popular revolutionary songs and video clips into remote villages. Some material is focused on remembering and honoring injured and dead civilians, while counterrevolutionary forces are fighting back with their own content. Digital technologies are now serving as platforms on which different versions of history do battle daily.

Egypt is no different from other countries in which historical narratives mirror conflict and its resolution. The Mubarak regime, like those preceding it, effectively manipulated historical memory to serve its own purposes. With Mubarak's removal in February 2011, the fight over historical narratives has become more overt. It is most intense with respect to events taking place in the year since the onset of the January 25th Revolution, but it also involves efforts to rewrite Egyptian history over the past 60 years.

This article addresses the following question: How have protagonists in Egypt's transition used historical narratives and memorialization to promote their diverse agendas since the fall of Mubarak? It argues that evidence of the unfinished nature of Egypt's transition is found in state efforts to control access to historical materials and in controversies about interpreting Egypt's contemporary history. It also provides examples of four different processes through which memory is created, manipulated and conveyed by ordinary people: the collection and storage of materials using digital technologies; demonstrations, marches and memorial services; the renaming of civic spaces; and artistic activism.

The Egyptian-American relationship has undergone several changes over the past six decades, and has now entered a new phase. The uprising that began on January 25, 2011, and ended by ousting President Hosni Mubarak 18 days later led to a political revolution that has continued into 2012 and not yet run its course. The generals in the Supreme Council of the Armed Forces (SCAF) who took over said they would transfer power to a new president and parliament as soon as they were democratically elected. The ultimate outcome of this transition is not yet entirely predictable, but it already seems clear that the domestic political scene has changed in significant ways and is unlikely to return to the kind of authoritarian rule Mubarak enjoyed. This in itself will have consequences for the U.S.-Egyptian relationship as new forces and new leaders assume power in Cairo.

The uprising and its aftermath have been almost entirely an Egyptian domestic affair, and the Egyptian people have paid relatively little attention to the United States since it started. This is in contrast to turning points in the past, when the United States has been seen as the primary cause of Egypt's problems (as in the disastrous 1967 war with Israel), or an important help (as in President Carter's 1978 role at Camp David). It is probably true that the Obama administration's support of the military's decision to jettison Mubarak made a difference. But the U.S. role was very quiet, and Egyptians give credit for the ouster to the large numbers of their citizens in Tahrir Square who persisted in their demands that Mubarak leave power. Unlike many occasions in the past, the questions of Israel and U.S. support for it have not been major topics of discussion during the many months since Mubarak departed. Israel became the focus of public attention only on one brief occasion, when a mob stormed the Israeli embassy; the United States did not even then become part of the discussion.

Yet an issue over American nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) arose unexpectedly and cast a spotlight on the U.S. relationship, causing bilateral tension for several months and revealing some latent Egyptian suspicions regarding American actions and intentions.

When Mubarak was overthrown as a result of a massive street protest against his rule and it seemed that Egypt might actually be entering a transition to democracy, the Obama administration was encouraged to think this was a positive development that America should embrace and support. U.S. officials pledged assistance, and private American organizations sought to take advantage of the opportunity to help Egyptians implement their expressed desire for democracy after decades of authoritarian rule. American NGOs that had been trying to promote democracy in Egypt since 2006, including the National Democratic Institute (NDI) and International Republican Institute (IRI), regarded the new situation as much more open to their efforts.

However on December 29, 2011, it was observed that Egyptian police raided the Cairo offices of 10 NGOs, including four American ones: the NDI and IRI plus Freedom House and the International Center for Journalists. The police confiscated documents and sealed the premises. Egyptian authorities charged 16 Americans and 27 other NGO staff with violating the law, and a judge imposed a travel ban on them. The authorities said that the NGOs had failed to register, as required by Egyptian law, and that they had spent foreign money in Egypt without necessary permissions. Some of the Americans were not in Egypt at the time, but seven were ordered not to leave the country, and three of those took refuge in the American embassy to avoid arrest.

An unexpected Reaction in Washington was surprise and indignation. The American NGOs have some U.S. government funding and high-level American support

among members of Congress and other prominent American personalities. Senator John McCain is chair of IRI, and Madeleine Albright is chair of NDI; both boards include former and current members of congress. The IRI director in Egypt, Sam LaHood, the son of U.S. Transportation Secretary Ray LaHood, was one of the Americans who were sheltered in the U.S. embassy. Senior officials in the Obama administration criticized the Egyptian action against NGOs. Some voices on the Hill pointed out that Egypt receives more than \$1.5 billion in financial assistance annually from the United States. Congress instructed the secretary of state not to release that money unless she could certify that Egypt was making progress toward democracy.

A number of Questions were raised about what had happened. Why did the generals in SCAF allow this action to be taken against American institutions when it could jeopardize the U.S. assistance that the military presumably wanted very badly? Moreover, since the NGOs were only working to help promote Egyptian democracy, which the Egyptian people themselves were obviously calling for with their revolution, why would the government not want that assistance? Ray LaHood told the press, "We simply support the democratic process; we do not pick winners and losers." And why were they suddenly being targeted? They had been working in Egypt for years; some had even participated in the 2011 parliamentary election as monitors, invited to do so by the authorities. There must be some mistake.

American diplomatic and private efforts went into high gear to try to resolve the problem. The U.S.-Egyptian relationship has been a cornerstone of America's Middle East policy for more than three decades, and Egypt is, for U.S. interests, arguably the most important Arab country in the entire region. Thus, when the NGO crisis erupted a year later, senior U.S. officials approached the generals in SCAF to help resolve it quickly. Senator McCain flew to Cairo himself to make the case to lift the arrest order on the Americans.

Yet the crisis was not so easily resolved. Voices in Egypt raised the stakes with inflammatory charges against the United States. Faiza Abulnaga, the Egyptian minister of international cooperation, made public statements alleging that the accused NGO personnel were actually working to undermine the Egyptian state, divert the Egyptian revolution, and serve American and Israeli interests. Leading personalities and the media echoed the accusations. Egypt's premier daily newspaper published a front-page story with a banner headline: "Investigations Reveal Facts about Dividing Up Egypt." The story asserted that a map found by police in an NGO office divided Egypt into four parts, "proving" that the United States planned to split Egypt into four separate countries. It also claimed that suitcases full of cash meant the NGO was paying millions of dollars to influence the parliamentary elections.

Politicians and media pundits as well as the grand sheikh of Al Azhar, one of the Islamic world's most revered institutions, took up the charges. Sheikh Ahmed Mohamed el-Tayeb announced on February 16 that he supported the call for "rejection of American assistance" and was establishing a "Fund for Dignity and Respect" (*sandug al azza wa al kirama*) to raise 500 billion Egyptian pounds from private sources so that the country would be independent of foreign influence.³ He asserted that it was an affront to Egypt's dignity to accept foreign money; its people could get along perfectly well without it.

Such bravado raised eyebrows among Americans who knew that the Egyptian economy was suffering badly from the loss of foreign investment and tourism revenues. By June 2011, Egypt's foreign-currency reserves had fallen to \$16 billion from the pre-uprising level of more than \$20 billion. The government has so far maintained subsidies to prevent food prices from rising — an important political measure. But serious import shortages could soon occur if something is not done to deal with the crisis. The Arab Gulf states promised nearly \$3 billion in aid after Mubarak fell, but by May 2012 they had delivered only \$1 billion, and were promising "soon" to deliver more. Cairo seemed to exacerbate the problem by turning down an IMF loan in 2011, although in spring 2012 it was again negotiating for a new \$3.2 billion loan.

Conclusion

The contemporary U.S.-Egyptian relationship began in the aftermath of the 1973 Arab-Israeli war and was shaped by the logic of the Cold War, with Egypt switching from the Soviet to the American camp in return for various kinds of support. During the quarter century since the end of the Cold War, other factors, such as cooperation in the Middle East peace process and the struggle against jihadist terrorism, provided new rationales for continuing the partnership. But at this point, after a popular uprising followed by an authoritarian relapse in Cairo, and with the peace process moribund and jihadism now a chronic condition, the U.S.-Egyptian relationship has become an anachronism that distorts American policy in the region.

Nearly a century ago, French sociologist Maurice Halbwachs argued that memory is socially constructed and influenced by familial, religious, geographic and other connections. His distinction between history (reaching for an objective, truthful account of events based on professional scholarship) and collective memory (selectively constructed perceptions of the past formed through complex interactions among individuals, social groups and their surrounding environment) has influenced generations of historians, philosophers, sociologists and psychologists.³ The notions that human understanding is influenced both by written history and collective memory, and that societies reconstruct their histories rather than merely record them, are now commonplace. However, the

definition of collective memory, and whether or how it influences personal memories, remains elusive and contentious.

In Iraq, the Obama administration skillfully implemented the Bush administration's agreement with Baghdad on the withdrawal of American forces. In the face of calls from discredited Iraq War hawks in Washington to set the agreement aside, the administration appropriately let the Iraqi political process, as messy as it is, work the issue out itself. Trying to impose a continued American military presence on a reluctant, democratically elected Iraqi government would have been the height of folly in the new Middle East of the Arab Spring.

A wide variety of actors initiate and guide memory projects according to different political agendas. For instance most of the Civil-society actors notably include individual victims, survivors and their families, as well as scholars, artists and nonprofit organizations. And almost all Government authorities and emerging state- and non-state actors also played a large role in conceiving and promoting memory sites and projects.

Memorialization cuts in two different ways. It can either help victims and survivors or obtain acknowledgement that they were wronged and promote social recovery (what some call "reconciliation" or "healing"). To me it is likely that it can also crystallize a sense of injustice and strengthen the desire for revenge. Used by protagonists throughout the conflict life cycle — before, during and after conflict ends — the documentation of historical events, preservation of materials, creation of memory projects and memorialization are highly politicized processes that reflect power dynamics within society.

From other hand Representation of historical memory, including revision of national-history such as textbooks and creation of interpretive museums, are in fact part of transitional justice but generally receives less attention than criminal prosecutions, truth commissions and lustration (barring participation in government or public life). Because it is a clear indication that It may play an essential element but understated role in contributing to the formation of national narratives about the past and in affecting how societies talk about and project their futures.

For instance, Before the revolution, Mubarak tolerated limited political activity by the Brotherhood for his first two terms, but then moved more aggressively to block its influence (arguably leading to its recent rise in public support). Trade unions and professional associations are officially sanctioned. In 2014, in Upper Egypt, several newspapers reported that the region of Upper Egypt wants to secede from Egypt to try to improve living standards ("[US and Egypt seek to repair relationship after NGO row](#)". BBC. 7 March 2012. Retrieved 13 April 2012.)

The United States though rarely make bargains with authoritarian regimes. And as extremist forces foment disorder and chaos in the Middle East, it might seem reasonable to mend fences with traditional allies in the region. However, for such compromises to be worth it, the strategic benefits must outweigh the costs, and Washington's resumed embrace of Cairo does not pass that test. Thus Continuing with the current policy might be a triumph of hope over experience.

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THE EFFICACY OF SUSTAINED DIALOGUE AS A CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

Dr James Chikuni Jerera*

Introduction

This paper has been written for publication in 'Veritas'. I hope it will be of interest to all interested in the powerful art of Negotiation. It examines the efficacy of sustained dialogue as a conflict resolution method in Africa.

The motivation for the study was that conflict poses a major challenge to United Nations (UN) efforts for ensuring global peace, prosperity, and human rights. This study has three primary objectives. These are to:

- examine the concept of conflict and consequences on development;
- assess the utility of sustained dialogue as a conflict resolution method, and
- propose the options for effective negotiation and conflict resolution.

The concept of conflict and its effects

According to Alden (2005), conflict includes differences between two or more parties regarding interests, beliefs, goals, and opposing preferences that are not possible to achieve at the same time. "While for many people, the idea of conflict has negative connotations, one can argue that disputes can be value-neutral" (www.u.osu.edu).

In Africa, "conflicts are, very often, the result of the interaction of the political, economic and social instability, frequently stemming from bad governance, failed economic policies and inappropriate development programmes" (www.ajsih.org). However, "the lack of peace drains away resources that otherwise might be applied to promote the well-being of a nation's citizens" (www.ijitam.org).

According to Marke (2007), the establishment of peace permits the recuperation of stable conditions for development and liberates resources for needed investments, although it does not ensure in and of itself that the resulting development will be sustainable. One can say, "no continent that has the problem of peace and stability in its society could progress" (www.ijitam.org). Ikejiak (2009) points out that the costs of conflicts in Africa regarding the loss of human life, property and the destruction of natural resources and social infrastructure are enormous. For example, "between 1998 and 2002, some four million people died in the civil war in the central African country of the Democratic Republic of Congo" (www.ccsenet.org).

Ikejiak (2009) provides that most African conflicts occur because of a combination of poverty and weak state institutions. The adverse conditions have had a devastating impact on Africa's development. Scholars like Goodhand (2003), Nathan (2003), Galtang (2004), Stewart (2004), and Schaefer (2005), when attempting to connect violent conflict and poverty, found out that conflict, particularly recurring, causes poverty. "It is also essential to notice that the impact of national civil disagreements has been devastating not only in the war-torn countries, but their spread to neighbouring countries has been equally dangerous" (www.ut.ee). For instance, Kenya and Ethiopia face problems because of the instability in Somalia (Ikejiak, 2009).

Sustained dialogue as a conflict resolution method

The approach is a continuous dialogue process, which occurs over an extended period. There are five stages in continued dialogue (Saunders 2011). "It is important to point out that these steps are a kind of ideal type description and not a recipe" (www.gracebibleholidaysburg.org). "Participants need to move back and forth between the stages, and will not follow this rigidly" (www.training.fema.gov).

• Stage 1: Deciding to engage

The first step is for members to agree to come to the negotiating table. A good size for a sustained dialogue has a minimum of eight but not more than 15 people, who should be respected community leaders but not necessarily in official positions (Saunders 2011).

• Stage 2: Mapping relationships and naming problems

The second step signifies the beginning of dialogue. Stage 2 is first a process of naming the issues, telling stories of personal experiences, venting grievances, downloading or 'dumping' all the concerns, letting it all out, and clearing the air (Saunders 2011).

• Stage 3: Probing problems and relationships

At the end of Stage 2 and the beginning of Stage 3, the character of the conversation shifts, 'me' becomes 'we' and 'what' becomes 'why'. Participants move from speaking 'to' each other to talking 'with' each other.

• Stage 4: Scenario building

The fourth stage is about resolving problems. While the groups have a primary focus on the problems until this point, they step into a solution space. The

negotiators identify the steps they and the wider community need to take to change troublesome relationships (Saunders 2011).

- **Stage 5: Acting together**

In the last stage, the shift is from talking to action, and the previously inward focus is now outward. The participants are either working out how to put their suggestions in the hands of those who can implement them, or go out to perform their activities themselves.

The key distinguishing feature of sustained dialogue is that it is a long-term negotiation process. “Over the extended periods of time, the same group of people takes part in consecutive meetings” (www.racialequityresourceguide.org). The focus should be on establishing the relationships instead of looking at the problem.

The sustained dialogue process was in use in Mozambique. Peace talks between the ruling party and the rebel group in Mozambique were possible because of Saint Egidio, a Roman Catholic institution (Mpangala 2004). “Burundi also used sustained dialogue, where the facilitators were people who commanded respect, ie Mwalimu Julius Kambarage Nyerere and, later, Nelson Mandela” (www.repositories.lib.utexas.edu). The same approach was also in use in Zimbabwe, after a disputed 2008 presidential poll.

However, conflict is still widespread in Africa. Therefore, sustained dialogue may not be 100% effective in all African communities.

The other options for negotiation and conflict resolution

One of the best options for facilitating effective negotiation is through tolerance and respect for one another. One term can be in use to describe this method, which is ‘Ubuntu’. Nussbaum (2003) defined Ubuntu as the principle of caring for each other’s well-being and a spirit of mutual support. “Each person’s expression is through his or her relationship with others and theirs in turn through the recognition of the individual’s humanity” (www.academic.sun.ac.za).

Mutwa (2009) also observed that Ubuntu is a way of living, and it pertains to how the people relate with one another as human beings. Broodryk (2006) noted that Ubuntu is ubiquitous in all the languages of Africa. For instance, “hunhu, a Shona description in the Zimbabwean context, is Ubuntu in Zulu, Botho in Sesotho, Ajobi in Yoruba, Numunhu in Shangaan, Vhuthu in Venda, Bunhu in Tsonga, Umntu in Xhosa, Utu in Swahili and Abantu in Ugandan” (www.dharmaramjournals.in).

Essential elements of Ubuntu

According to Mutwa (2009), Ubuntu has the following pillars:

- honesty;
 - working hard;
 - respect; and
 - fairness.
- **Honesty**
Honesty entails always being truthful to others and oneself. It means one lives up to his or her word and the ability to be trusted. Truthfulness comes from the way in which people uphold their name and live to their responsibilities. There is a need for honesty in trade and daily transactions between people.
 - **Hard work**
Africa always celebrates hard work. Both men and women receive fame for working hard, and there are rewards for their diligence. Laziness is not welcome in any productive community. In fact, there is respect for hard work and people who do not uphold this value find it difficult to fit into society. It is so hard for the lazy men that even their marriage prospects are small.
 - **Respect**
Respect is one of the core tenets of human interaction within the Ubuntu set up. Ubuntu’s fame comes from the belief that a person is a person because of others. In fact, “if a person lacks respect elders commonly refer to them as coming from a place where there are no people, or they would say he or she did not receive adequate socialisation” (www.herald.co.zw). It is important that Africans revert to upholding this value within their societies so that they restore sanity (Gade 2011).
 - **Fairness**
Ubuntu is in support of the concept of justice and being fair. “Unfair people have bad names and their integrations into society are not easy. Friends and business partners are few because they are unjust to other citizens” (www.herald.co.zw). Upholding such values will result in fewer complaints from workers, business customers, and other colleagues. (Gade 2011).

The preceding discussion shows that Ubuntu is about being principled and having the ability to maintain ethics, obedience, humility, honesty, respect for human life and transparency. However, there is a severe decay in the moral fabric in Africa and the relegation of these core values into the ‘garbage bin’. Therefore, conflicts are predominant because people no longer respect the fundamental values of Ubuntu. Accordingly, “it is hard to engage in productive negotiations because of the lack of humanity” (www.academic.sun.ac.za).

Role of active communication in dispute resolution

Sound interaction is essential in any post-conflict setting. Furthermore, “in the area of conflict transformation and peacebuilding, effective communication plays a role in shaping the views of policy makers and influencing public opinion” (www.sfcg.org). Communication helps in preventing violent conflicts, provides early warning and enables the implementation of more efficient responses to crisis.

In line with the need for effective communication, the UN and the European Union (EU) developed management information systems. For example, “in 2009, the UN established the Global Impact and Vulnerability Alert System (GIVAS) to collect real-time information to prepare better decision makers for a response to a crisis/emergency” (www.statistics.unwto.org). The system also helps in the raising of ‘red flags’ on newly emerging and dramatically worsening vulnerabilities of global concern. GIVAS strives to bring the voices of the most vulnerable into high-level decision-making forums (Werner 2010).

Development as a strategy for conflict resolution

Ikejiak (2009) stressed that development is the new name for peace. Unless people can promote a development philosophy and a framework that meets the needs of individuals, especially the poor and oppressed, then the standards of living will remain low in most countries. Though conflict retards economic progress, the lack of development is a primary source of grievances. A combustible mix of poverty, inequality, marginalisation and exclusion often precipitate into violent demonstrations (Schaefer 2005).

According to Marke (2007), most conflicts are primarily civil wars, protracted and increasingly complex in nature. “They mostly occur in the poorer countries of the world, where the development imperative is greatest. More than 15 of the 20 poorest countries in the world have had a major conflict in the past two decades” (www.un.org). The fact that developed countries do not face serious conflict also reinforces the notion that development is necessary for peace to prevail.

According to Ikejiak (2009), in many cases, when poverty coincides with ethnic, religious, language or regional boundaries, underlying grievances can explode into open conflict. The tension is often due to the external shocks such as sudden changes in the terms of trade, mobilised by groups who benefit, directly or indirectly, from the conflict. In this context, “those who move in and out of poverty are prone to the building up of grievances that can lead to violent conflict due to their relatively greater deprivation” (www.un.org).

Deprivation can be a cause of conflict. For example, in Nigeria, the inhabitants of the oil-rich Niger Delta are always violently demonstrating about denial of oil wealth. Unequal sharing of resources also leads to discontent. For instance, in Sudan, the unequal distribution of oil revenue resulted in a civil war and the subsequent creation of the nation of Southern Sudan (Ikejiak 2009).

Conclusion

This research shows that there are multiple definitions of the term conflict. Despite the variations in the meanings, conflict embodies differences in interests, beliefs, goals and opposing preferences between two or among more parties. Confrontations in Africa, especially armed conflicts, compromised economic and social development. Therefore, peace is necessary for national progress to occur.

There is a myriad of conflict resolution methods, but this study’s focus is on sustained dialogue. The approach is the interaction that occurs over an extended period, as the conflicting parties realise that they cannot afford to ignore one another. There are five steps in the process, which are deciding to engage, mapping relationships and naming problems, probing challenges and interactions, scenario building, and acting together.

Sustained dialogue has been in use to resolve conflicts in countries like Burundi, Mozambique, South Africa, Sudan, and Zimbabwe. However, in some cases, the approach failed to yield peace because it did not incorporate tolerance and respect for one another (Ubuntu). Ubuntu is a way of living, and it pertains to how people relate with one another as human beings. The lack of equitable development is also a hindrance to productive negotiations and the attainment of peace.

Recommendations

Many African countries have been in conflicts in their post-independence era. Peace and security have and continue to preoccupy the minds of African leaders. There is the holding of many summits with the desire to end conflicts in the continent. Therefore, the study makes the following suggestions.

Upholding the core values of Ubuntu in peace negotiations

This study shows that application of Ubuntu approaches is vital for ensuring successful negotiations. Active negotiations and sustained dialogue, which embody the core values of Ubuntu, communication, and equitable development seem to be the answer. The four essential elements of Ubuntu (honesty, hard work, respect, and fairness) help to facilitate productive negotiations. People will have the ability to maintain ethics, obedience, humility, honesty, compliance with decent human life, and transparency.

Conflicts are predominant because people no longer respect the fundamental values of Ubuntu.

The use of traditional leaders to facilitate peace and development

Africans have sound traditional leadership systems. The historical leaders could be in a better position to ensure peace because they stay with the people and know the culture of communities. Therefore, they are in a better position to facilitate the prevalence of peace. Traditional leaders also share common interests with their subjects, and their views are acceptable to communities.

The elders can and do play a vital role in development that enhances democracy and sustains good governance. At an international conference on chieftaincy in Africa, held in Niger, there were numerous reports from African countries such as Nigeria and South Africa as well as Ghana about the developmental role of chiefs. The traditional leaders uphold the core values of Ubuntu and encourage followers to have the respect for the law.

Harmonisation of systems of governance

Africa's general crises are unlikely to be in reversal without a coherent and efficient system of establishments. The formal organs of the state cannot be competent if they fail to advance the interests of the large segments of the population. "The modern institutions must not continue disregarding or contradicting the traditional systems, which govern the livelihoods of large sections of the population" (www.indianexpress.com).

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DYNAMICS OF THE NIGERIAN FOREIGN EXCHANGE MARKET

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1.0 Introduction

Nigerian foreign exchange market refers to the institutional arrangements where foreign convertible currencies are exchanged for units of the local currency. Generally, exchange rate forms part of the tripod variables that interface to achieve certain economic objectives. The other two (variables) are interest rate and inflation. An economy that sees inflation as constraining growth may work towards using interest and exchange rates to stem inflation, those that see exchange rate as a problem will work on inflation and interest rate to influence favourable exchange rate. Those that wish to rein in interest rate will work on exchange rate and inflation, it's a continuous cycle; hence only very serious and competent agencies can cope with the responsibility. Soludo (2008) refers to the three variables as trinities of evil. The real challenge with the trinities is that they come under the sphere of separate authorities. Interest and exchange rates fall within the purview of monetary authorities represented by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) and the Ministry of Finance has fiscal mandate, albeit theoretically, for moderation of inflation, except in jurisdictions where inflation targeting is a tacit mandate of the central bank.

Blending the trinities is like stemming an air balloon that pops elsewhere when squeezed from one end. In most economies, it is a real challenge. In Nigeria, efforts towards effective control of the trinities often lead to sharing of responsibilities between the monetary and the fiscal authorities. In the early sixties, the now repealed foreign exchange legislation placed the authorizing responsibilities for foreign exchange (FX) access, on the Federal Ministry of Finance (Foreign Exchange Act, 1962). This was subsequently reversed (Foreign Exchange {Monitoring and Miscellaneous} Act, 1995). The thrust of this discussion is, therefore, to throw more light on the dynamics of foreign exchange management in Nigeria with a view to eliciting interest for potential investor participation. In the light of this, the discussion is segregated into five sections, comprising introduction (S.1), foreign exchange management in Nigeria (S.2), thrust of the new floating rate policy (S.3), challenges of the new policy (S.4), prospects and recommendation (S.5).

2.0 Foreign Exchange Market in Nigeria

Foreign currencies are commodities of foreign exchange market. The currencies in this category include the US Dollar (USD), British Pounds Sterling, Canadian Dollars, European Euro, Chinese Yuan (Renminbi) and Japanese Yen. These are generally referred to as convertible currencies. The currencies constitute a basket of global trading funds and command public appeal in various countries. The sources of foreign currency to any country comprise: earnings from exports (natural resources or manmade resources); home remittances by citizens working abroad (Diaspora funds); funds brought in by foreign investors; earnings from investments abroad; in-bound donations and grants; royalties, copyrights, franchising and sundry receipts (students' left-overs).

Management of foreign exchange (Nigeria)

The supply of foreign currencies is always scarce in relation to the need for it; hence usage is normally stream-lined to achieve optimal utilization. Nigeria, in particular, has experienced scarcity of foreign exchange since its independence in 1960. According to the Central Bank of Nigeria, the first sign of foreign currency crisis was witnessed in 1962, when the private earned foreign currencies through export and left the proceeds in foreign banks (CBN, website). The scarcity led to the enactment of Foreign Exchange Control Act of 1962 to streamline usage of the scarce commodities. The administration of foreign exchange control regime under the Act was considered ineffective; while agitation by Nigerians against the process culminated in the repeal of the Act. The repealed Act was replaced with Foreign Exchange {Monitoring and Miscellaneous Provisions} Act, 1995. This Act liberalized foreign exchange access, to some extent, by creating an autonomous market for foreign exchange (FX), opening access to official window for Bureau De Change (BDC) and introduction of domiciliary accounts. Section 17 (1) of the Act permits any person who desires to open, maintain and operate a domiciliary account designated in a convertible foreign currency of his choice, with an authorized dealer, usually banks. The ensuing subsections of the main section provides modalities, indeed, subsection 3 states that *"except as provided under any other enactment or law, a person making an application to open a domiciliary account under the Act shall not be obliged to disclose the source of the foreign currency sought to be deposited in the account"*.

Although, some aspects of anti-money laundering and terrorism legislation may have altered the above provision, its spirit is still extant. The foreign exchange manual issued by the CBN in 1995 further permitted Nigerians of certain age to access foreign exchange on quarterly basis for business or personal travel allowances (BTA- \$5,000 & PTA- \$4,000). Bureaux De Change (BDCs) became active in addressing FX demands of the lower segment of the economy in terms of routine travels. Given enhanced access, authorities experimented several methods to arrive at a workable system. These include, though not limited to, first-tier and second-tier markets (1986-87); official, inter-bank and parallel markets windows (1999) and currently the single foreign exchange market. These regimes can best be recognized as controlled, managed-float and floating regimes.

Mechanics of determining exchange rate in Nigeria has been, mainly, the Dutch auction system (DAS). DAS is a system where authorized dealers bid for foreign exchange (FX) at their own rates irrespective of reserve rate by the monetary authorities. Successful bids are allotted available FX to exhaustion, which implies that the system allows for multiple rates in an offer. Dutch auction has been modified severally from wholesale Dutch auction (w-DAS), retail Dutch auction (r-DAS) and modified Dutch auction (m-DAS). Said differently, Dutch auction rations FX on the basis of need to prevent speculative tendencies. The w-DAS allots FX to authorized dealers (banks) for their own accounts using the strength of their shareholders' funds as yardstick (Open Position). The r-DAS, on the other hand, ensures that banks procure FX for their clients based on orders. The m-DAS uses any or a combination of features of the two extremes. Nigeria efforts at all the aforesaid approaches could not stem FX demand pressure in the last decade. This led to the floatation regime.

Under the floating regime, authorized dealers bid for FX in two ways (bid & offer) in order to provide for rate determined movement to arrive at an equilibrium exchange rate. The approach holds a number of variables constant; first of which is ability of demand and supply to determine effective price. Expert opinion suggests that this can only happen in an environment where supply is elastic. Secondly, global monetary authorities (IMF & WB) favour the approach, apparently, because of its capacity for capital flows (entry & exit). Thirdly, the global monetary authorities prefer floating regime, mainly, because of benefit of weak local currencies, against major world currencies (Dollars, Pounds Sterling & Euro). This implies that with little units of their currencies, they can fetch a basket-full of local currencies.

Despite the aforesaid, floating exchange rate regime has its inherent benefits such as: expectation that investors will leverage on the weak local currency by bringing in own funds massively; diaspora funds taking advantage of weak value of local currency to increase home remittance; incentive for manufacturers to

intensify efforts towards increasing export to earn foreign currency; attraction to foreign companies to set up industries at cheap cost; drive for entrepreneurial and intellectual efforts towards research and creativity to earn royalties abroad, etc.

Ideal Condition for Floating rate regime, include: steady flow of FX (elasticity of supply, otherwise, local currencies cannot withstand demand pressure for FX); strong industrial base, which guarantees vibrant domestic productivity and export to boost FX supply; strong infrastructure to enhance capacity utilization, product distribution and storage; active role in the foreign market, which guarantees effective participation through exportable products; existence of comparative advantage such that an aspiring country can rely on its comparative advantage and develop core competencies; vibrant tourism is necessary in view of its complementary role at bridging the FX supply gaps and the enabling environment.

Foreign Exchange Potentials in Nigeria

The entertainment industry, (Nollywood) presently contributes over \$4.0 billion to gross domestic product (GDP), which the industry sets to increase to \$8.1 billion by 2019 (Kola-Daisi, 2016). The target increase is based on the on-going institutional investments of over N15.0 billion (\$53 million); funds mobilized by Bank of Industries (BOI) and Nigeria's Export Bank (NEXIM) to promote growth and development of the industry worth N1.779 billion or \$6.307 million (Kola-Daisi, 2016) and Nollywood's potentials as tourists' bait. The government needs to do more to reap from this, after all, Kenya, Tanzania, Egypt and The Gambia are, relatively, smaller, perhaps, with less tourist sites than Nigeria, yet they earn more FX from tourism than Nigeria does. Nigeria has goldmines lying waste in industrial goods (such as electricity cables, steel and aluminum) sports, culture, education, agricultural and transport, which can all attract influx of FX into the economy.

3.0 Trust of the Newly Introduced Floating Foreign Exchange Rate Policy

The floating exchange rate introduced early July 2016 by the Central Bank of Nigeria (CBN) provides for primary and non-primary dealers. A target of 8-10 participants is envisaged to interface with the CBN in the primary segment. The operating guidelines set by the CBN specify minimum transactions of Spot, \$10.0 million, Forward (\$5.0m), Swaps (\$5.0m) and OTC Futures (\$5.0m).

Criteria for primary dealership

Primary dealers shall have elaborate branch network in order to adequately impact the larger economy, they must have been in reasonable (as defined) assets in foreign currencies, and with consistent liquidity ratios above minimum thresholds. Such banks must have achieved acceptable levels of compliance with CBN

guidelines & regulations, they must have the requisite IT soft & hardware. Quantitatively, eligible institutions shall meet all or any 2 of N200 billion Shareholders' fund unimpaired by losses, N400 million foreign exchange assets and liquidity ratio of 40.0 per cent. Qualitatively, their trading capacity in terms of manpower and infrastructure, shall not be in doubt, and must include financial market dealers' quotation (FMDQ) Thomson Reuters foreign exchange trading system. Their dealing room shall be supported with tools to enhance effectiveness of trading, and they shall be active participants in inter-bank FX market as evidenced by their FMDQ membership.

The floating exchange regime counts much on the FMDQ platform, which is understandable. FMDQ until recently was a fusion of money and capital market associations. The need to take advantage of improvement in technology, innovation and global convergence in financial services informed their fusion into one body in 2010, and incorporated the FMDQ-OTC in November 2013 as a Securities and Exchange Commission (SEC) licensed OTC market for securities and self-regulatory organization. Its objectives include: promotion of market governance; ensuring compliance with market rules; championing market development and provision of market data services. The above conditions will entrench the required integrity, liquidity, transparency and reliability of the market.

Since incorporation, FMDQ has enhanced reliability of Nigerian Interbank Offered Rate (NIBOR) as reference rate for the system, endeavoured to fix the Nigerian inter-bank foreign exchange quotation (NIFF) system, developed yield on Nigerian Treasury Bills (NTBs), FGN Bonds, Sub-National & Corporate Bonds, thereby, enhancing their tradability. The choice by the CBN to use FMDQ's platform, thus, stems from its role in exchange rate fixing. The CBN promises to strengthen this collaboration with some moderating intervention, including market participation (buying & selling), use of derivatives such forward contract and swaps that are amenable to predictability and flexibility in aid of planning.

4.0 Likely challenges of floating exchange rate regime for Nigeria

The envisaged challenge in the floating regime of FX in Nigeria is the apparent lack of capacity to sustain or deepen the market. This apprehension stems from the accelerated rate of depletion in the stock of FX, which nose-dived sharply from \$44.96 billion at end-June 2013 to \$26.34 billion at end-June 2016, a decrease of about 41.41 per cent (CBN, 2013-2016). This is compounded by the sharp decline in oil price which came down from above \$100 per barrel to average of \$45.0 per barrel in 2016, and deficiency in production capacity (from 2.2 million to an average of 1.5 barrel per day). A number of analysts opine that floating regime is transparent and could serve as bait to foreign investors, however, the primary source of supply, the

Central Bank of Nigeria, does not seem to have the capacity to withstand persistent demand pressure.

The second apparent challenge is how the monetary authorities can differentiate genuine from speculative demands without being seen to be wearing the toga of political coloration. The fact remains that those who place demand pressure on FX are those who benefited immensely from era (2013-2016) when \$18.0 billion US dollars left government coffers into private hands. In Naira terms, similar disappearance led to loss of trillions, which Economic and Financial Crime Commission (EFCC) has continued to unravel. Beneficiaries of the slur funds keep seeking investment havens overseas, thus, fueling demand for FX. The money authorities need to develop a sound mechanism for effective management of Nigeria's FX demand.

The third challenge is the political will to harness the inherent opportunities to come out of the present economic situation as a better nation. The opportunities abound for Nigeria to broaden its foreign exchange market. For instance, Nigeria has economic shock-absorbers in its pension fund (N5+trillions or \$17.73 billion), Sovereign Wealth Funds (\$2 {+} billion), Excess Crude Account (\$3.93 billion {Business Day, 2016}), population of 170 million, an anti-corruption leadership. Nigeria's diaspora presence is very strong, and has attracted home remittance of \$21.0 billion in 2015 (African Independent Television, AIT, 2016). In terms of non-oil export earnings, Nigeria has strong presence in the entertainment, agro-allied, education (private universities) industries. It has similar strength in industrial products, including steel (iron), electricity cables, aluminium and petroleum bye-products. These are low hanging fruits, whether the Nigerian economic team is willing to guide the country towards leveraging on these opportunities is another set of discussion.

5.0 Prospects and Recommendations

The country experimented with virtually all the models of foreign exchange without being able to address its scarcity. This is to suggest that a market-determined system is the way to go. Experience overtime shows that methods of foreign exchange allocation do play a role in the steady supply of FX but the scope of market does more. In FX market, the scope of supply matters a lot, as it eliminates speculative tendencies and reinforces market confidence. Nigeria has huge potentials to deepen FX market, but seems lacking in sustainable FX policies. Frequent policy summersault creates fears in the minds of market participants leading to artificial scarcity and market distortion. Government must work towards influencing the market through enduring policies that inspire confidence. At \$26.5 billion at end-June 2016, Nigeria's stock of foreign exchange could be considered adequate enough, and it is among the healthiest on the continent. This implies that the volatility the country is currently experiencing in FX market stems more from policy instability than foreign currency scarcity. In the last quarter of 2015, Nigerian banks refused to accept

foreign currency notes from their customers under the pretext that they had no lending room for it. This was in spite of the extant Foreign Exchange Act of 1995 that requires such funds to be deposited into domiciliary accounts. The same banks could not meet demand needs of the customers for FX by the first half of 2016.

Players in the industry (operators and regulators) must develop policies to enhance and deepen free-flow of diaspora funds to Nigeria. In 2015, the fund was \$21.0 billion, which compares reasonably with the country's stock of foreign reserves, which stood at \$26.34 billion at end-June 2016. Nigeria's Nollywood, with GDP contribution of \$4.0 billion and target contribution of \$8.1 billion by 2019, need be put on the world stage through appropriate policies in view of its FX earning potentials. Government could elevate Nollywood to anchor tourism, which it has been doing informally. Education sector has capacity to attract influx of Asians and other Africans to Nigeria's economy with several externalities. The private universities, in particular, came on board since 2001, and have demonstrated significant stability overtime. They are largely strike-free; their facilities (some anyway) are among the best in the world, with qualified and dedicated teachers. Rather than construct the necessary bridges, government agencies responsible for education policies continue to create scenarios that promote needless bickering between NUC, Private Universities and JAMB, on the one hand, and between public Universities, private Universities and the employers, on the other hand, which renders meaningful collaboration elusive. University processes, including admission, quality assurance and supervision must be unbundled and made market driven (Udendeh, 2012).

Bureaux De Change (BDCs) must look beyond their immediate comfort zone to source FX to bridge the supply gap in the economy. With their size (about 3,000 as at June 2016), and given the validity of the CBN licence, the space is wide enough for them to operate. Foreign investors are watching their moves to see if it is worthy of mutual partnership, after all, what one lacks, the other person has in abundance. BDCs, like banks, should focus on the future and refrain from the present mindset from quick gains, which are unsustainable. The Federal Executive Council (FEC) at its session of July 20, 2016, reinstated the position of Foreign Exchange Act of 1995 that banks accept foreign currencies into customers' domiciliary account while the CBN at the same time, indicated patronage of BDCs.

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MOTIVATION: A FOUR CORNERSTONE IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

Evan Ihuoma Charles-Ebere*

Introduction

This article will inform the reader about the aims, roles and purposes of motivation in addressing the four cornerstones in the teaching and learning process, the factors responsible for either high or low motivation, influences that impede learning, problem-solving and who is responsible for academic excellence. With the values of motivation, towards getting every individual involved in teaching and learning process motivated and exploring the needs to water and root for sustainable and increased motivation remains the writer's concern.

The teaching and learning process is complex in nature. Teachers need professional skills and knowledge to impart knowledge to students.

Motivation by students is crucial. Motivation plays a vital role in raising awareness and encouraging productivity in learning acquisition. Incentives motivate the school leaders who represent the government, the teachers, the parents and the students. Motivation is a psychological phenomenon, an influential factor in learning that drives students to their goals. Motivation generates from within an individual and acts as a catalyst or stimulus that urges a student to concentrate on learning. "Motivation apart from linking it to learning refers to the degree of readiness of an organism to pursue some designated goal and implies the determination of the nature and locus of the forces, including the degree of readiness" (Karthikeyan, Sendilkumar, and Jaganathan, 2007).

Stanley Vance (1959) defined that "Motivation implies any emotion or desire which so conditions one's will that the individual is properly led into action". Motivation is an important factor in the learning process; it is important to state that the success and the outcomes of learning depends on the level of motivation of parents, students, teachers and the government.

Of relevance is the fact that the motivational levels of each student differs because of external and internal factors. External factors, the influence of peers, the demands of a social life, affect a teacher's method of instruction and, of course the government's administrative roles. The external factors are the SELF VALUES made up of personality, interests, and enjoyment. An individual's need can promote or discourage learning. When a student's needs and interest are satisfied, learners become happy and enjoy what is taught, and information is retained.

Motivation contributes to productivity in learning and performance outcomes. Maslow, for example, would label this as self-actualisation. Conversely, a lack of motivation will reduce student performance. In every institution of learning 'MOTIVATION' must be an all round sided process. Emphasizing that in the teaching and learning process each person involved needs to be motivated before an enabling academic attainment is achieved.

Kinds of motivation

Intrinsic motivation has been studied since the early 1970s. Deci E. L. (1972, 1975) noted that intrinsic motivation is the self-desire to seek out new things and new challenges, to analyse one's capacity, to observe and to gain knowledge. It is driven by interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exists within the individual rather than relying on external pressures or a desire for reward. Intrinsic motivation was first acknowledged within experimental studies of animal behaviour. In these studies (Harlow, Harlow, and Meyers, 1950; Gately, 1950) conducted with experimental monkeys at the Harlow laboratories, (cited in Deci, 1971) it was evident that the organisms would engage in playful and curiosity-driven behaviours in the absence of reward. Intrinsic motivation is a natural motivational tendency and is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development. Therefore, in the learning process when both the teacher and the learner are intrinsically motivated they improve in their performances, hence their interest is self-drive.

Extrinsic motivation sometimes refers to as negative motivation the opposite of intrinsic motivation, and emanates from external sources normally characterized with rewards factors of motivation. Extrinsic motivation seems to make use of persistent push or forceful measures, which means such motivation an individual can easily be biased in pursuing goals especially when there are challenges or lack of reinforcement. Nevertheless, extrinsic type of motivation is important in teaching and learning as reinforcement or use of rewards can also lead to better academic performance though, depending on who is involved and what is being used to reinforce and the procedure adopted in reinforcing.

Obviously, extrinsic motivation is not natural in a person, numerous factors and challenges could impede it, but when adequate skills and strategies are used it could yield positively by increasing the zeal's of all

concerned in teaching and learning which in turn increase the academic performance.

Purpose

In education, motivation contributes towards developing students to enable them to enjoy their career. Globalisation affords many opportunities for work and academic knowledge is essential. Therefore, the collaborative and cooperative work of teachers, students, parents and the governments cannot be underestimated.

In this work the writer intends to explore the worth of motivation to the four cornerstones that hold the key to teaching and learning. Moreover, informing readers that motivation is an all round process when it comes to teaching and learning because both the teachers, students, parents and even the governments need to be motivated for them to bring out their best. More so, it is the intention of the writer to explore the factors that influence the level of motivation to the four cornerstones.

Content

Motivation: a four cornerstone in teaching and learning. The most important type of motivation in teaching and learning is the achievement motivation hence what everyone is looking at in learning remains the learning outcome. The four cornerstones in teaching and learning are as follows; parents, students themselves, the teachers and the government.

They are to strive for success, chose goal oriented activities. The important issue at hand in the choice of goals often lies on the extent at which the four cornerstones value and perceived education, this determines the levels of motivation they will give in to teaching and learning. It has been noted that for teaching and learning to be more productive there should be expectations set by all the four cornerstones on the learners. Moreover, this expectation should be guided very seriously, when is not yielding positively an increased motivational strategies are encouraged through the process of reinforcement and rewards. The question now is who should be reinforced for better educational attainment?

Rewards are not meant for only students, must people thought is just the students but for all the four cornerstones that holds key for acquiring optimum education. For instance, a teacher needs good remuneration, needs to be valued by the community, students and even the government, by so doing they bring out the best in them, and derive joy doing their work. The parents need encouragement through sensitization on the importance of motivation to education as well as government aids to help train their wards. By doing so they will improve on having interest in their children's learning in school. The students themselves are not expected to struggle single handedly, they should not be left alone, should be

reinforced and not only by rewards but also counseling them in this with the parents, the teacher, and the government being involved. This will water the intrinsic motivation in them and help build a strong concept to increased motivation. The government is represented by the educational administrators in our different institutions; they need to be encouraged and reinforced by the communities within the institutions. This could be informed of moral directives and suggestions among the teacher, parents and even the students through PTA meetings, all sit dialogue, discuss and find solutions to increased motivation.

Nevertheless, for a better teaching and learning all the four cornerstones need not to operate differently, rather they need to inter-relate among themselves and get positive reinforcement that will bring about increased and positivism in motivation.

Factors that influence motivating the four cornerstones in teaching and learning

Motivation is one of the most essential and challenging tasks facing the four cornerstones that determines the extent to which learning is attained. Different sets of students that come from various cultural backgrounds with different home lives and personal interests lead to various influences that could either hinder or promote learning. Motivation is influenced by both the internal and external factors, internal factors are linked to individual self-values, such as the motives, needs and interest mostly inherent in a person, whereas, external factors are associated with those physical factors that can affect teaching and learn such as, social life pattern, level of reinforcement giving to the students, teachers, parents and the government, peers influence, government or administrative roles and values to teaching and learning, and teaching methods, skills and facilities. These external influence needs to be well managed and not looked down on upon. If not the ideal expectations for the four cornerstones will degenerate and goals will not be actualized.

Factors responsible for high or low motivation in the learning process

It is pertinent to know that for learning to be useful and impart meaningfully in a student motivation remains the key. Humans are complex in nature and are surrounded with complex needs and desire, as a result of these complexity each individual in the learning process need to be motivated for academic excellence. Based on this, these factors will either lead to increased or decrease motivation in students, depending on how it is processed.

The students themselves, if they see education as goal oriented and pursue it with interest, and build high self esteem and ago it will be of benefit.

The teacher's method of teaching, academic qualifications, teacher's knowledge of the subject that

is the content, teaching skills and the skills in managing human relations are essentially important.

Parental attitude towards child's education and the school administrative attitude encourages motivation of students in the learning process.

Rooting and watering the four cornerstones in teaching and learning

It is evident that often the subject matter itself is interesting to the learner and useful enough for the students to be motivated in the learning process whereas, in most cases some subject matters may not be interesting to most students and based on these differences, variety of incentives and rewards are utilized to help root and water the four cornerstones in teaching and learning, {the parents, teachers, students and the government} as they are the key agents to an increased motivation in teaching and learning. Teaching and learning, for it to be effectively done, there must be sustainably grown in the motivation of each of the four cornerstones. Adequate motivation is needed to enhance, interest arousal, attaining of teaching and learning curiosity, perfect teaching and learning methods and skills, and attainment of perfect feedback that can serve as learning incentives.

Values of motivation

Motivation prepares the mindset of both the student and the teacher in the learning process, it improves the level at which knowledge is gained, when motivated information learnt is easily remembered, it encourages the flow of information thereby preventing tension in teaching and learning, motivation is a promoter of good relationship among students, teachers, parents and the school administrators because it increases interest and focused.

Conclusion

Motivation is a crucial issue in the world and the different institutions of learning. It is an all round process because it involves all the four cornerstones. The importance of effective teaching and learning may not be reached if the motivation of the parents, teachers, students and the school leaders (government) are neglected. They need incentives to help provide an in-depth knowledge to students with high-quality professional strategies.

When a parent lacks motivation it affects the child, there should be sensitization of parents on the need to have interest in their children's studies; this will increase their zeal and learning motivation of their wards. When the teacher lacks it, it affects the student, and that is the more reason they need it, to help get students attention and with good teaching and learning strategies. When students lack motivation they fail in standards with low educational outcome. Motivation helps build interest and attentiveness in the learning process. When the government lacks it, the particular

states in question deteriorate in the educational standard. The government gets motivated when their subject praise and acknowledge them in good deeds.

Motivation will promote performance in school. In institutions of learning for gaining standard education 'MOTIVATION' must be all round sided, one from parents to students. Teacher to student and the other from the government to teacher, if not the levels of comprehending knowledge by the students will decrease, and the level of quality delivering from the teachers will as well decrease. Therefore, motivation is the key element for optimum comprehension of knowledge in education that will generate human resource development and personnel management.

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