THE CONTRIBUTION OF NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS (NGOs) TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN THE GAMBIA: A STUDY OF SAVE THE CHILDREN FEDERATION, U.S.A.

BY

FOMA A.M. M. CEESAY

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT UNITED STATES INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY-AFRICA NAIROBI, KENYA.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the nature and extent of the contributions made by Save the Children Federation to the rural development process in the North Bank Division of the Gambia, in terms of training of extension personnel; income-generation; adult-literacy/education; self help; and project criteria and grassroot institutional building within its programme framework.

Data used in the study was therefore obtained from the extension workers involved in Save the Children programmes in the North Bank Division. However, the researcher conducted a simple random sampling in order to select the particular non-governmental organization herein reviewed, and thereafter developed and posted self-administered questionnaires to all the extension workers concerned. Upon receipt of the returned questionnaires, the data was then tabulated, analyzed and subsequently related to the research variables mentioned above. Furthermore, the researcher reviewed and collated various secondary data relevant to the study.

The findings have reasonably demonstrated that non-governmental organizations - particularly Save the Children - have significantly contributed positively to the development of the rural areas of the Gambia. The numerous in-service courses organized for the field workers were found to have qualitatively improved the
performance of the participants, and consequently, the improved performance was duly reflected in the overall project implementation and management processes of Save the Children. In addition, Save the Children had organized and considerably assisted many adult literacy classes, self-help projects, and income-generating activities in the North Bank Division, of all of which were found to be of relevance and of some practical utility to the villagers concerned. In this regard, the income-generation projects warrant special mention because of their favourable impacts in helping to raise the income levels of the rural poor, as well as their potential in accelerating the overall development efforts in the concerned areas.
This thesis is accepted as partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Management and Organizational Development.

Dr. Lilian Kennedy Beam
Director

Mr. Philip Mogere Omoni
Lecturer in Research, Planning and Administration
DEDICATION

To the private, development-oriented, Non-governmental Organizations concerned and involved in the Development process of the rural poor in the Gambia and elsewhere. The answer to the problems of global peace and stability lies in the roots of your programmes.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The author acknowledges the valuable guidance, criticisms and advices offered by the supervisor of this study, Mr. Philip Omoni. The frantic telephone calls made occasionally during odd hours - and the constant but patiently conducted consultation sessions, will doubtlessly be long remembered and appreciated.

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Finally, special thanks are due to my family for their unique attention during this study as well as their patience during my prolonged absence. Nothing was as equally comforting, relieving, and/or consoling to me than their incessant loving messages of reassurance/reaffirmation of their patience and understanding. In this regards, a word to my mother is necessary: Your lifelong teachings to me, on the values of hard-work and dedication to duties have now made sense to me. "Abarak" ad infinitum!
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This study is about the contribution of Non-Governmental Organizations to Rural Development in the Gambia, with particular reference to Save the Children Federation (U.S.A.). In this regard, the study examines the contribution of Save the Children, in terms of training; income-generation; self-help; adult-literacy/education and grassroots institutional building, in the context of rural development.

The Gambia is located between 13° and 14° north latitude and 14° west longitude. It consists of a narrow strip of land (about 475 kilometres long and 25 to 50 kilometres wide) on both sides of the River Gambia - a fresh waterway stretching throughout the length of the country. The Gambia occupies an area of 11,295 square kilometres (4,361 square miles) and is surrounded on all sides by Senegal except on the west coast where it connects with the Atlantic ocean.

The vegetation cover, like much of tropical Africa, is savanna and its climate is typical of the drier tropical type. With seasonal and geographic temperature variations, the national average temperature is about 75° to 78° F. Considerable variations are experienced in annual rainfalls - ranging from 30-65 inches. The dry
season, which is usually hot and humid, extends from September/October to May/June each year. Unconventional rains are uncommon, but sometimes occur during this dry season period. They usually cause considerable crop damages when they occur at the start of the dry season.

The colonial history of the Gambia dates back to the 17th Century, when in 1888, the Gambia was proclaimed a British Crown Colony. After a three-quarter century of active colonial rule, it attained political independence in 1965. The post-independent political arena of the Gambia is characterized by multi-party politics, with elections being held at five years intervals. However, it is interesting to note that the elections have been dominated by the ruling political party since independence, with an uninterrupted presidency in the person of His excellency, Alhagy Sir Dawda Kairaba Jawara. The country has, under the leadership of Sir Dawda Jawara, experienced a relatively calm and peaceful, political climate.

Like most African countries, agriculture constitutes the backbone of the country's economy, with groundnuts as its main cash crop and principal source of foreign exchange. Other crops like cotton, maize, sun-flower, millet and rice are also produced in varying quantities; the latter being the staple food in the country, is cultivated in all regions of the Gambia.
TABLE 1.1: DISTRIBUTION OF CROP PRODUCTION IN THE GAMBIA

<table>
<thead>
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<th>TYPE OF CROP PRODUCED</th>
<th>1983/84</th>
<th>1984/85</th>
<th>1985/86</th>
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<td>Groundnuts (GDP) in</td>
<td>D38</td>
<td>D41.1</td>
<td>D68.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>cash (millions)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coarse Grains (tonnes)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>59,350</td>
<td>93,010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cotton (tonnes)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2,496</td>
<td>1,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paddy Rice (tonnes)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>27,220</td>
<td>23,010</td>
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The time series data on crop production (as indicated in Table 1.1) provides the gross domestic production rates of some of the crops cultivated in the Gambia. It will be noted from the table that the production rates of cotton and paddy rice decreased from 1984/85 to 1985/86 as opposed to the increased production rates of groundnuts and coarse grains. This decrease in production could be due to insufficient rains for the season - which perhaps affected the cotton and rice crops more than the others - among other factors influencing agriculture in the Gambia. The decreased rice production (as noted above) warranted increased importation of more rice for local consumption in 1985/86 - thus sapping the country's foreign exchange more.
The population of the Gambia is 637,817, of which 78.8 percent live and eke their livelihood from the rural areas (Census report, Vol. 2, 1989; Malatsi, 1984A:3). Approximately, 70 percent of the country's wealth (Gross National Product) is generated by these rural people (Malatsi, 1984A: 3-4). This significant contribution by the rural dwellers not only underscores their numerical preponderance in the country's total population, but also indicates their undeniable value to the economic development process.

As the case of urban bias and lop-sided development strategies, especially during the pre-independent era in Africa has been well documented (Mbithi, 1974; Rodney, 1976; Aziz, 1978; Obudho, 1981), the development process in the Gambia is no exception. The colonial administration pursued a development strategy in the country which left the rural areas and the rural peoples impoverished and disadvantaged. However, upon the attainment of political independence, the new regime attempted and continues to attempt to remedy this inappropriate development pattern - which favours the urban sector to the detriment of the rural sector. For example, by the dawn of independence, the rural areas of the Gambia had only one hospital, one Secondary Grammar High School, no major factory or economic activity (apart from agriculture), and virtually no paved public roads - connecting the various rural communities. Nonetheless, despite more than two decades of relentless efforts to normalize this situation, much has been attained but still more needs to be done to bridge the disparity
between the rural and the urban sectors of the Gambia. For example, the estimated average per capital rural income in 1975 was D190.00 ($42.22) per annum, while that of the urban areas was D730.00 ($162.22), according to the Gambia's Five Year plan for Economic and Social Development 1975/76-1979-80:2 Commenting on this urban/rural disparity, Malatsi, maintains that "after ten years later, this ratio has not changed" (1984A:3). Elsewhere, the widening nature of the gap between the two sectors was more vividly presented. According to Malatsi (1984B: 17-18), the estimated urban per capita income was about D1,670.00 ($239.26), whilst that of the rural areas was only about D540.00 ($77.36).

It should be noted however, that the international community engaged and concerned with development, had, within the 1970s and 1980s widened the scope of the definition of development. This rather recent conceptualization of development encompasses not only the economic, but also the cultural, social and political aspects of the target group, all incorporated into one complex phenomenon. Development literature abounds in this regard (Elkan, 1973; Lele, 1974; Chambers, 1983; Burdigde, 1988), all calling for a more broader redefinition of the concept of development. Infact, Blomstroom and Hettne asserted that:

"today, most development theorists find it quite natural to think of development as not only economic problem, but also a political, social, and cultural problem. The theory of development is therefore now thought of as an interdisciplinary field of research (1984: 195)".

A brief review of other non-economic indicators of the level of the country's development process could be instructive here. According
to the Census Report, Vol 1, (1987: 61), "the estimates of child mortality ranged from 114-150 in urban, to 172-256 in the rural areas respectively". An independent survey by Vermilya (1988: 24), found a somewhat lower child mortality rate in the rural areas surveyed in the study, but even there, the rates were still at variance to those of the urban areas. Furthermore, although the national literacy rate is relatively low, there are wide variations between the literacy rates of the rural areas and those of the urban areas. Part of the explanation to those regional variations in literacy rates, perhaps, lie in the fact that up to 1988, all but two of the country's secondary high schools and other institutions of higher learning were situated in the urban areas. Considering other indicators like access to electricity supply and piped borne water, the urban areas by far stand to benefit than the rural areas of the Gambia.

In spite of all these disparities between the urban and rural areas however, "The Gambia Government declared in its various policy statements that it wants to close the gap between the urban and rural areas, between the rich and the poor, in short it strives for the establishment of an egalitarian society*. In order to attain this goal, rural development undoubtedly remains a priority in the development process of the Gambia. Apart from the various governmental departments engaged in rural development in the country, about thirty

*Adopted from Mosebjane Malatsi, 1984A:9; as quoted from:
other Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) are actively participating in the same development arena, of course concentrating on various facets of rural life/society. However, common to all these non-governmental organizations is the desire to bring about some improvements in the rural areas and thus raise the standard of living of the rural people of the Gambia.

Non-governmental organizations have been involved in the development process of least-developed countries for quite some time now, and they have both their opponents and protagonists. Hyden, among other advocates, was more categorical in his justification for the involvement of non-governmental organizations in the development process of the Least Developed Countries. In an attempt to justify the continued involvement of non-governmental organizations, he maintained that:

"An obvious reason is the general failure of the public sector efforts to cope with development tasks. Another is that even if governments could become more efficient and effective in performing their duties, they cannot serve as universal dispensers of services and resources. Other institutions are needed to complement government," (1983: 120)

It is perhaps, more because of this principle of complementarity hinted above by Hyden that the Gambia's rural development arena is
experiencing an upsurge of non-government organizations. They and their programmes make an important contribution (presumably) to rural development efforts in the Gambia. The results of their contributions are evidenced in public infrastructural development, the provision of social and medical services, technical assistance, training and education, and institutional building (AID, 1984: 19). One of the major non-governmental organizations involved in rural development in the Gambia is Save the Children Federation (USA).

Save the Children is a private, non-Sectarian, tax-exempt, International and Charitable development agency. Founded in 1932, Save the Children works with children and their families in 39 countries including the United States. Its programmes are designed to enhance living conditions through self-help projects which assist people to achieve more meaningful lives for their families and communities (AID, 1984: 39). Structurally, Save the Children consists of a volunteer board of 27 members, a headquarter in Westport, Connecticut, and 52 field offices around the world. The individual field offices are given a substantial latitude of freedom as regards operational details and staff matters.

The Gambia field office began its activities in September 1981 with a two year operational grant from USAID in the amount of $300,000. Its mandate for this initial period was to strengthen the community Development Department, especially in the North Bank Division; (see Administrative map of the Gambia, Appendix A). By the end of the first phase, it was granted permission to extend its
coverage for the second programme. This extended programme to the Upper Baddibu area of the North Bank Division was accompanied by a change in strategies from the initial key village approach to one of a heavy concentration of resources and inputs in a few selected target (impact) areas. Whereas the key village approach operates on assumptions that the "trickle-down" effects of development will eventually filter through the key village to the satellite (surrounding) villages, the second strategy adopted by Save the Children in the Upper Baddibu area was an expensive approach, which utilized rather capital-intensive modes and thus made it possible to show tangible results and improvements in a shorter period of time (Tall, 1989: 3). The initial key village approach to rural development by Save the Children, is grassroot based, and comparatively slower to yield tangible results. However, the approach utilizes labour-intensive methods, and thus allows for mass participation in development projects. The slow pace of growth and development is more than compensated for, by the other intangible but significant benefits accrued from the strategy. By enabling mass participation, the development process becomes a learning process for the local participants, and increases their confidence as well as their capability to undertaken future development tasks.

Currently, Save the Children's programmes cover some 34 villages in the North Bank Division, with a total population of about 30,000 people. Apart from the field office Director and a few support staff at the Field Headquarters in Banjul, the rest of the staff are based in North Bank Division (Figure 1.1). It has been (and
is still) engaged in varied and many types of rural development projects in the Division ranging from adult literacy/education, self-help projects, income generating activities, to grassroot level institutional building and extension education. The main concern of this study is thus to determine the contributions these projects make to the development of the target (impact) areas - within Save the Children's operational domain.
1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Whilst Mbithi (1974), Lele (1975) and Chamber (1983) both argued for the fact that rural development is a multi-sectoral and multi-dimensional phenomenon, Aziz (1982) and Makokha (1985) also subscribed to this view, but added that the programmes and projects designed to address rural development problems must of necessity be interdisciplinary and multifaceted in content, if they are to have far-reaching impacts on the target populations. This approach to rural development, therefore, demands that the programme packages of rural development agencies should be wider in scope and content rather than merely focusing on one or a few symptoms of rural deprivation and/or problems (Chambers, 1983: 104-134).

Rural development in the Gambia has historically suffered from the sectoral project approach to development. Many development agencies designed their programmes and projects in a vacuum, and attempted to solve merely one or a few rural problems. It was not uncommon to find projects concentrating on purely economic problems, or health or education, virtually forgetting the inter-relatedness of the problems of the farmers. The problems of a rural community might on the surface appear to be strictly economic issues, but when they are analysed closely and in their total context, they point to other non-economic issues as well.

The magnitude and complexity of the Gambia's rural problems have been discussed above. Suffice here to reiterate that illiteracy, lack of economic opportunities or inadequate opportunities, poverty,
infant mortality, and such development problems are more pronounced in the rural areas than in the urban areas of the country. All these problems have together made the development agencies more concerned and thus prompted to know more about them in a bid to design and manage rural development programmes better.

However, various studies conducted to find out about the problems of the rural people as felt and expressed by themselves, reveal that rural problems are of varying and different natures; although interacting and mutually reinforcing each other, (Malatsi, 1984A; AID, 1984; Jagne, 1988). In order to address such rural problems therefore, one has to take into consideration the nature of the problems as well as the fact that they interact and mutually reinforce and/or compound each other.

However, in view of the resource constraints and manpower limitations confronted by rural development agencies in the country, many have been forced to curtail their programme contents, and coverage in the target rural areas. It is thus a fairly common characteristic of Non-Governmental organization in the Gambia to concentrate in one or a few selected administrative Districts and Divisions and also to attempt to discharge selective services in aid of some identified rural problems. This has of course resulted into a situation whereby some administrative regions experienced an over saturation of development agencies and their programmes, whilst other regions remained under-served and under-represented. This situation was further aggravated by the fact that the country
had no umbrella organization which could co-ordinate and guide the
efforts, activities and directions of the non-governmental
organization in a coherent and well co-ordinated fashion. The
Association of Non-Government Organizations (TANGO), a voluntary
membership association established to facilitate cooperation among
non-governmental organizations and between them and the Gambia
government, was formed in 1983 to cater for this gap in
coordination and cooperation; although its success has yet to be
documented in this regard. Yet without such guidance and co-
ordination of the activities of the non-governmental organizations
in the rural development arena, the possibilities of duplication,
wastages, and confusion loom larger.

Individual private, charitable development organizations have
occasionally attempted to evaluate and determine the impact of
their programmes on the targeted areas. Notably AID-Self-help
programme, Action Aid, Save the Children, Canadian University
Service Overseas- CUSO, Freedom From Hunger Campaign and
Christian Children’s Fund, conducted such evaluation missions in the
past. However these evaluations and impact analysis missions often
carried studies of particular projects and/or the commulative
effects of studies of particular programmes in specific areas, but do
not go further to assess the concerned projects against the known
parameters of development in a wholesome manner. For example, a
project designed to enhance adult-literacy in a rural area might not
readily manifest visible and tangible results to the evaluators, but
nonetheless, such a project may have far-reaching impacts on other
aspects of rural life. A comprehensive study of the contribution of a development agency should therefore, explore the relationships between the projects as well as the collective impact of these projects on the totality of rural problems and rural life.

In view of the above background, this study evolved to make a contribution towards the generation of knowledge and research evidence on the nature and extent of non-governmental organization's impact on the rural development process in the Gambia.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Due to the numerical strength of the rural population in the Gambia, and the predominance of the subsistence agricultural sector, it has been argued that rural development should be encouraged and promoted, in order to facilitate a sustainable national development. Furthermore, to ensure a development process of far-reaching consequences such rural development must of necessity adopt an integrated approach whereby several fronts are attacked simultaneously by a single development programme package.

One of the problem areas of rural development in the Gambia is the shortage of trained and qualified personnel in the extension arena. This is more important because an efficient rural development staff is, in a way, a prerequisite for the success of rural development programmes. Uma Lele (1975) argues in favour of
the need for an efficient and well trained extension personnel, and observes that the quality of service delivery in rural development is related to the quality of the rural development staff concerned. It is perhaps because of these considerations that many non-governmental organizations in the Gambia concern themselves with the training of their extension staff (see Appendix D for details of SCF training).

Besides the problem of training the rural development staff, another major problem in the rural areas of the Gambia is the low income-earning capacities of the rural people. It is believed that when these underprivileged rural communities are helped with income-generating activities, they will be better placed to help themselves to improve their overall living standards. Moreover, since the rural areas of the country have fewer and inadequate social and economic infrastructures, the rural peoples themselves need to augment the efforts of government, through self-help endeavors, to provide the social amenities and facilities needed in their areas.

However, even with the promotion of income-generating activities and the self-help projects in the rural communities, considerable amount of bottlenecks remain, because of the fact that the majority of these rural dwellers are unable to read and write simple instructions in English - the official language of the Gambia. Furthermore, due to this high illiteracy level (about 80%), the rural people often fail to take active roles in very many issues concerning
their lives and living conditions. Adult literacy is therefore considered an important area in which these rural dwellers can be helped to become not only socially responsive to their environment, but also be able to fully understand and participate in other development projects. The problem and significance of adult-literacy cannot be under-rated in the country's development efforts.

Furthermore, many development programmes and projects failed in the rural areas because of the lack of supporting grassroots institutions. The absence of local institutions at the grassroots level has also hindered genuine local participation and contribution to development programmes in the country. This hindrance is brought about because the villagers do not usually trust the outsiders who are implementing and managing projects in their villages. Besides, once the projects are completed, outside funding is phased out and outsiders (extension agents) are diverted to other projects. Without local level, development oriented institutions, the problems of post-project implementation/management at the village level will always continue to affect the success of the rural development programmes in the Gambia. It is thus in these respects that grassroots institutional building continues to pose a real threat to rural development in the country.

In conclusion, therefore, assuming that the non-governmental organizations are involved in the search for solutions to the above problems in the Gambia, what is the extent of Save the Children's contribution?
1.3 **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The purpose of the study is, therefore, to determine the contribution of Save the Children to rural development in the North Bank Division of the Gambia, in terms of:

a) Training of rural development personnel for the provision of efficient and effective services to the rural people;
b) Promoting rural income-generating activities;
c) Initiating and assisting self-help projects within the concerned rural communities;
d) Encouraging and promoting adult literacy/education in the North Bank Division; and
e) Project identification and implementation criteria, and grassroots institutional building and/or strengthening within the framework of Save the Children programmes.

The above listed five variables were established as means to addressing the central concern of the study as indicated in Chapter 1.2, and they therefore constitute the core elements of the purpose of the study.

1.4 **RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following questions listed below were specifically designed to be answered by the data generated from the study:-
a) Does inservice and on-the-job training enhance the quality of the performance of the rural development extension personnel; and does Save the Children offer such training opportunities to rural development extension personnel?
b) When training is offered as in (a), is the content, duration and timing appropriate and adequate?
c) Do the beneficiaries of the training programmes consider them as relevant and useful?
d) Does Save the Children promote income-generating activities, and do they actually raise the income of the participants?
e) Who benefits from these income-generating activities; and are the timings appropriate enough to allow for optimal participation and benefits?
f) Do self-help projects facilitate rural development process? Does Save the Children assist self-help projects?
g) Does adult literacy/education facilitate improvements in the living conditions and lives of the learners, and does Save the Children encourage and promote them?
h) Who participates in these literacy/education programmes and is the timing appropriate?
i) Does Save the Children impose projects on the target populations or does it work on collaborative basis with the villagers to choose the most desired projects?
j) Does the establishment of village development oriented institutions facilitate rural development and does Save the Children encourage the formation of such local institutions?
k) How does Save the Children ensure the continuity of its completed projects, once funding is phased out?

1.5 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Development writers, practitioners, and students have, in the past, treated development as almost synonymous with economic growth, (Aziz, 1978: 89). This misconception had therefore pre-empted them to assume and plan for development with solely economic tools and measures. However, recent experience and research data on development (especially rural development) have demonstrated that a more broader conception is necessary if development plans were to achieve any significant successes.

In this regard therefore, rural development is perceived as a highly complex, multi-disciplinary field, which involves not only economic questions/problems, but also social, political, cultural, and environmental issues of pertinent concerns to the peoples (Chambers, 1974: 150). This perception of the phenomenon of rural development, therefore, presupposes that "rural problems result from a cumulative impact of multiple problems", (Makokha, 1985: 45), and therefore, an integrated approach (or rural development programme) is required for the solutions to these rural problems.

Chambers (1974) maintains that in recognition of the multiple dimensions to rural poverty and rural problems, development
practitioners and researchers ought to adopt a "systems thinking" approach in order to better appreciate the inter-relationships and influences of the multiple factors involved. Through such a "systems thinking" approach, the relationships (for example between income-generation and self-help) could be thoroughly analyzed and thereby better understood within the context of rural development. Aziz (1978), also calls attention to this multi-dimensionality of rural development. According to him, a criterion for judging the results of a rural development programme should, of necessity, include the economic elements of the target areas/peoples, as well as the social, political and administrative elements, in order to ascertain that the programme was effective in combating the problems of the rural poor.

Besides the issues of the actual scope of (that is the dimensions to be included in) rural development programmes, another area of interest to researchers and practitioners is the strategy adopted by the implementing organization. Centrally planned (top-down) rural development strategies have been tried but with limited success (Korten, 1982: 28-30; Makokha, 1985: 34). According to Makokha, the "top-down strategy" is a process in decision-making (and implementation) whereby the lower levels of the decision-making hierarchy are only involved with the criteria set by the upper levels of that hierarchy. This strategy, to some extent alienates the local people and thereby precludes them from genuinely participating in the decisions affecting their lives. An alternative strategy is the "bottom-up" approach to the development
process. In contrast to top-down, the bottom-up approach implies a situation in planning strategies whereby the lower levels of decision making have autonomy in setting their objectives and priorities. By all intent, it implies a decentralization of the planning and implementation processes. While this alternative strategy is appealing to most development thinkers, it also has a significant limitation when applied exclusively. It runs the risk of planning and implementing rural development programmes without any effective coordination at the national level. Such a risk could easily turn into wastages, duplication, and/or inefficient utilization of scarce rural resources.

A more appropriate strategy is therefore a judicious mixture of both approaches - which has the added benefits of utilizing the advantages of both (Chambers, 1974; Korten, 1982; Malatsi, 1984). With such a synthesis of approaches the rural development programmes could be more appropriately planned and co-ordinated at the national level, while at the same time enjoying the participation and support of the local people. Such local support and participation is very vital for the success of rural development programmes (Mbithi, 1974; Streeten, 1984:4; Davis and Newstrom, 1985). Therefore, any approach (such as this admixture) which guarantees the maximization of rural peoples participation while contributing to the attainment of the objectives of the national development plans would be highly advantageous.
In order to attain optimum results therefore, the rural development process should adopt an approach which allows for the application of both top-down and bottom-up strategies. Furthermore, the programme should incorporate as many elements as is possible into its scope, so as to confront the rural problems in an integrated fashion (this, however, calls for the realization of the multiple nature and complexity of issues). Through such an integrated and participatory rural development process, the economic concerns of the villagers could be duly addressed (with projects geared towards income-generating); social concerns (through self-help projects) and other related concerns could all be simultaneously addressed in a single programme. Besides, the adoption of the integrated programme approach allows for the incorporation of other concerns to rural development, (like training of extension personnel), which is very essential to the impact and effectiveness of the rural development programme (Lele 1974; Flippo, 1984).

However, not withstanding all the above considerations, another dimension to the effectiveness and success of the rural development process is the empowering of the rural peoples themselves. Chambers (1983) emphasized the significance of this process whereby the rural people are seen and treated as equal partners in the development process. This "democratization" of the rural development process requires the establishment of, and support to the rural-based, development-oriented institutions which could mobilize and enhance the contribution of the villagers (Lele,
1974; Korten, 1982; Makokha, 1985). Furthermore, since Adult illiteracy is high in many rural African societies, a viable way to establish these rural institutions and ensuring local participation, is through the education of the concerned adults. Therefore, the rural development programmes could be made in such a way that they will also be a learning process for the participants (Korten, 1982), and a means to an end. These programmes could also be provided with adult literacy classes designed to make participants both literate and more conscious of their socio-economic and political environments.

If the rural illiterate adults are accorded these learning experiences and adult literacy/education opportunities, then the chances for their participation and commitment to development programmes around them will be significantly higher (Makokha, 1988; Hamadache, 1986; Bhola, 1988, Burbidge, 1988). Besides satisfying the participants quest for knowledge, the process will also go a long way toward democratizing the development process as well as ensuring the continuity of development programmes even after initial fundings are phased out.

1.6 IMPORTANCE OF THE STUDY

The study is important in several dimensions. In the first place, it exposed the researcher to new and more research methodologies, and thus better equipped him for his future duties/assignments in rural development.
Secondly, the study will be of use to the Government of the Republic of the Gambia, in that it shed more light into the nature and extent of non-governmental organizations' contribution to rural development. Besides, the study's recommendations will be of valuable use to both Save the Children and the Gambia Government, with respect to the management and packaging of rural development programmes in future.

Lastly, other non-governmental organizations involved in rural development in the Gambia will find the study relevant and important to them, since they have a lot in common with Save the Children in so far as their aims, objectives and strategies are concerned. In this respect, the recommendations and the findings of the study will invariably benefit all of them.

1.7 **SCOPE OF THE STUDY**

The study is primarily concerned with the contribution of Save the Children to the rural development process in the Gambia. However, it should be noted that Save the Children's programmes and projects are almost all concentrated in only one of the five administrative regions of the country, namely North Bank Division. Although Save the Children has some collaborative development ventures/projects elsewhere, such were not included in the study.

Furthermore, even within the North Bank Division in which the thrust of Save the Children's development projects are concentrated, some districts are more involved and affected than others.
The study utilized self-administered questionnaires completed by the extension staff of Save the Children, in addition to review of secondary data. The recipient rural communities and villagers within Save the Children's programmes could not be reached by the researcher for reasons of resource constraints and time limitation. These missing potential sources could have added more data into the research and which probably could have altered the direction of the findings of this study.

Finally, the study was restricted to only five main variables, to the exclusion of others. Those excluded variables are not totally insignificant, and if they are abysmally neglected in rural development, the contribution of the development agency concerned will be undoubtedly affected. The variables include some or all of the following:

a) Empowering the target rural population, in terms of:
   - Their ability to influence and/or change political decisions affecting their lives;
   - Their willingness and ability to restructure the power base of their communities, if such a base functions to their disadvantage.

b) Extension education with respect to:
   - Changing the dysfunctional cultural traits/aspects of the clientele rural communities;
- inculcating development oriented philosophies in the faculties of the rural people.

c) The role of the development agency, in terms of:
- Strategies of motivating its extension staff;
- remuneration policies;
- Supervision and regulatory frameworks;
- Flexibility in operational and administrative matters;
- Willingness to cooperate with and coordinate its services/programmes with sister development agencies.

1.8 LIMITATIONS

Because of resource constraints and time limitation, the study was limited to one Non-Governmental Organization - Save the Children Federation (USA). However, with time and resources permitting, a multi-staged random sample of the private, non-governmental organizations could have been made, and thereby including several organizations in the study. With such an approach, the study would have had a more wider coverage and more suited for broader generalizations than is allowed in this study.

Furthermore, by virtue of the same constraints, the study confined itself to only five parameters (research variables), to the exclusion of others. The possible inclusion of those eliminated variables will undoubtedly shed more light into the study.
Finally, due to the fact that the researcher was geographically removed from the respondents, cross-checking and verification of information, where needed, had to be sacrificed. It will have certainly helped, had the researcher got the opportunity to cross-check and verify information used in this study.

1.9 OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

There are terms and concepts used in this study, some of which do not easily lend themselves to any single universal definition. Where such terms/concepts are used in the study, they are used with meanings operationally defined as follows:-

1) Training of rural development personnel refers to inservice, on-the-job coaching designed to maximize the productivity, efficiency and effectiveness of the extension workers. It is measured by the number of training sessions conducted, length, and content of curriculum.

2) Adult literacy/education refers to the structured learning processes of the illiterate adult populations whereby participants are taught simple reading, writing and arithmetic skills, and topical issues of practical value. It is measured by the number of literacy classes, length and content-relevance.

3) Income-generating project refers to any economic activity/undertaking with the potential of producing goods and/or services of economic value to the participants. They
are measured by number of projects undertaken, returns on the projects, timing and category of beneficiaries.

4) Self-help refers to the participation and contribution of the rural communities themselves, in efforts to bring about improvements in their social, economic and political lives. It is measured by the number of projects undertaken, type, and categories of services provided by those projects.

5) Institutional building refers to the establishment and strengthening of local level, development oriented, self-propelling organizations. This is measured by the number of village development organizations, level of village participation, and composition of these organizations.

6) Sustainability of completed project refers to a set of policies, mechanisms and/or strategies utilized to ensure that once external assistance (of any sort) is phased out, the continuity of the projects will be assured by the beneficiary local community. The measures are the number of uncompleted projects, and the composition of the project committees.

7) Non-monetary benefits (accrued from income-generating projects) refer to other additional benefits which the projects bring to the participants. Such benefits may or may not be initially intended from the projects. They are measured by
the number and type of such benefits mentioned to have been derived from the projects.

1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS

The following terms and concepts are used in the study with meanings as defined below:-

1) Non-Governmental Organization refers to a private, non-profit, voluntary organization that mobilizes the enthusiasm and commitment of volunteers to the objective of the relief of suffering, and development, especially in the rural areas ((Streeten, 1987: 4, p 92).

2) The term Least Developed Countries is used here interchangeably with "Third World Countries". It is used to refer to 42 out of the 159 member countries of the United Nations, who by themselves constitute the poorest and the most vulnerable bloc in the world, with a total population of over 400 million inhabitants distributed unproportionately within Africa, Asia, the Pacific, the Middle East, and the Caribbean.

3) Contribution is also interchangeably used with performance, referring to the overall impact and/or effects of the development agency concerned with respect to its programmes and activities in rural development. It is measured by the five research variables used in this study.
4) Division means one of the five administrative regions of the Gambia. This is the mega-administrative classification used in the Gambia as opposed to Districts.

5) Districts refer to the smaller administrative sub-regions usually within a Division. There are 32 Districts in the Gambia.

6) District Development Committee (DDC) refers to the umbrella organization deliberately established at the level of the District, in order to initiate, plan, implement and coordinate all development oriented programmes above the village level but within a particular District.

7) Village Development Committee (VDC), in contrast, refers to an individual village organization responsible for initiating, planning, implementing and coordinating the development activities within the confines of a particular village. Its members are freely and democratically elected to the committee and are chiefly answerable to only the village community.

8) Community Development Assistant (CDA) is used here as a generative term referring to the grassroots extension workers as well as the middle level supervisory cadre of Save the Children.
SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In summary, this Chapter was designed to cover the following areas: background information to the study, statement of the problem, purpose and scope of the research, limitations experienced, and operational definitions.

The thesis has four Chapters subsequently following this Introduction. Chapter two is primarily about literature review as pertaining to the important variables used in the study. This is followed by the Chapter on research methodology used in conducting this study. Chapter four deals with the presentation and analysis of the findings. Finally, Chapter five consists of the summary, conclusion and Recommendations of the study.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews related literature and previous research findings on the following areas:-

1) Rural Development;
2) Participation;
3) Sustenance and maintenance of development projects; and
4) Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs).

2.1 RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Raising the standards of living of the rural dwellers has, for a long time, been the concern of development writers, especially in the Third World. As a step towards the realization of broader national development objectives, some writers (Lele, 1974; Mbithi, 1974; Meier, 1984; and Makokha, 1985), have argued for the need for a strong rural development component in development plans of the less developed countries.

Rural Development according to Lele (1974: 5), is a strategy designed to "improve the living standards of the mass of the low income populations residing in rural areas and making the process of their development Self-sustaining". Rural development, therefore viewed from this perspective, will invariably have to be multi-
disciplinary and multi-dimensional in scope. It will include
improvement of human resources (training); economic activities
(income-generation); enhancement of local initiatives (self-help);
and adult literacy/education; among other things.

Chambers (1983: 103-138) and Strong (1989: 213) both argued
in favour of such an integrated approach to rural development. Most
of the problems in rural development are, by and large, problems
associated with rural poverty. Therefore, for a social phenomenon
like rural poverty to be effectively tackled, according to these
writers, it has to be considered appropriate by the development
agencies concerned, to confront it on many fronts albeit in an
integrated fashion. Any other approach that zeroes on only one
dimension (for example health or economic) could be misleading and
might be concentrating on the symptoms rather than the causes of
rural problems (Chamber, 1974; Lele, 1975; Makokha, 1985). Aziz
(1982: 99) in a study designed to analyze and identify the key
elements necessary for a successful rural development programme,
not only agreed to the multi-dimensionality of rural development,
but went further to assert that "if any of the elements are absent in
a particular situation, we can have agricultural development but not
rural development".

Leger (184) in this regard, adopted this approach to rural
development (as advocated by Chambers and Lele), in his review of
United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) rural development
programmes in Mali. He concluded his study by asserting that:-
"Rural development is not simply a segment of what could be called 'development'. Rather, it encompasses all aspects of the rural population's daily life. Therefore, a rural development project is not primarily an infrastructure nor an economic development project. It is a social project involving the transformation of the human, economic, political, ecological and institutional aspects of the rural society of a specific area". (1984: 2; p.2).

It is therefore, reasonable to conclude that there is a fairly substantial agreement between the development writers, practitioners, and government officials, on the multi-dimensionality of rural development; although, this appears to be a breakaway from the rather restricted approach of the classical development theorists - who tended to perceive development mainly from the narrow confines of economics; by only considering the Gross National Product (GNP), Gross Domestic Products (GDP) and/or per capita incomes.

Besides the nature and scope of rural development programmes (as discussed above), some other writers have continued to argue that rural development and urban development in a country are mutually interdependent. Meier while agreeing with (Lele 1974), on the significance of rural development to African countries, went further to establish an interactive relationship between rural poverty and urban development. According to him,

"whenever the agricultural population is poor, the non-agricultural population serving the former tends to be relatively small in size and also at a low standard of
living. When the rural sector is prosperous, the non-rural sector tends to be large and also prosperous; (1984: 6)."

This interactive relationship between the urban and rural sectors, makes the development of the latter sector all the more crucial for African countries - whose majority of populations live in the rural areas. Development theorists and writers alike, agree on the significance of rural development to the development efforts of their countries.

Based on this redefined and expanded scope of rural development, some of the main elements considered important in rural development programmes are discussed below:

2.1.2 TRAINING

Training of rural development extension personnel is very consequential and fundamental to the performance of the development agencies involved in rural development work. "No employee can work well without adequate job knowledge" (Graham, 1986: 199). However, this important variable in rural development is often relegated to a secondary position by many public and private development agencies in their efforts to attain rural development objectives (Jagne, 1968: 18). "Investments in training of manpower do not seem to have been commensurate with the substantial investments in rural development programmes", (Lele, 1974: 17). In this regard, Lele further observed that:

Trained manpower poses a particularly severe constraint to expansion of the rural services in African
Countries. Substantial investments in manpower training at field level and administrative staff is therefore necessary if rural development programmes are to reach a mass of low-income rural populations.

The Gambia is no exception to the above remarks. The training of the rural development personnel was, by and large, neglected, and consequently, trained extension agents and supervisory rural development personnel are far below their demand.

This unfortunate shortage of trained and qualified manpower within the development agencies, deprives them of the full utilization and benefits accrued from such a trained manpower. The benefits derived from training such as "increased productivity, heightened morale, reduced costs, greater organizational stability and flexibility to adopt to changing external requirements" (Flippo, 1984: 199), are greatly reduced in the absence of a well trained extension staff force. The need for, and significance of training, cannot therefore, be underscored in development efforts, especially within rural development programmes.

Lele (1975: 162) also maintained that the outcome of the rural development programmes is dependent on the quality of the involved manpower. Furthermore, Lele went on to assert that the rural development programmes are not likely to be very effective unless training is provided at three levels:

1) In its broadest sense, to sensitize rural people and, thus, to increase the receptivity and ability of rural people to respond
to development programmes as well as to encourage local initiatives. (This will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2.1.5).

2) For the field staff, to improve technical and administrative performance.

3) For higher level administrative staff, to improve the ability of policy formulation, degree of coordination, and overall effectiveness of implementation.

This implies, therefore, that training in rural development should be conceived and conducted at both national, regional, and local levels, so as to enhance the quality contribution of all levels concerned. However, although the need for training at all these three levels was acknowledged, the concern and scope of such training activities in rural development (as reviewed in this study), is confined to the first two levels identified above by Lele.

When a training programme is designed for either extension workers or small-scale rural farmers, the content of the package must be related and relevant to the practical concerns of the group (Lele, 1974; Hyden, 1983). It is perhaps in line with this consideration that Lele further maintains that "to improve the context of training and to make it practically oriented, training programmes can of course, be linked to specific rural development programmes" (1974: 19). Such rural development programmes should thus plan and conduct training programmes which are not only meaningful to the participants, but also appropriate in terms of the length of the courses, timing, and beneficiaries of the training programme (Graham, 1986; 1982-206). The appropriateness of
timing will allow for optimum learner participation without undue disruption of their other commitments and the choice of participants to the training programme could enable the poorer segments of the rural population to equally participate and benefit from rural development training programmes.

2.1.3 **INCOME GENERATION**

Underdevelopment in Third World Countries in general, and deprivation in rural agricultural communities in particular, is an historical phenomenon, which is still affecting Africa. It is both a cause and a consequence of poverty. Most of the countries in Africa, by and large, remain trapped in a poverty circle, with comparatively low Gross National Products (GNP), and together with their collateral and reciprocal problems (Mbithi, 1972: 133; Meier, 1984: 22; Ndegwa, 1987: 50-51).

Breaking this poverty circle in Africa and also alleviating the problems confronting rural dwellers, therefore require efforts and programmes aimed at providing income earning opportunities to those affected. Meier (1984: 19) argued in favour of such programmes and their benefits to the overall national development objectives. Productive economic activities geared towards increasing the income-earning capacities of the rural people, will not only benefit those concerned, but will be a means to an end. Apart from the direct benefits to the participants, increased income-generation will be a catalyst to the broader national development process. It has other economic benefits like increased
national consumption (resulting from increased incomes); increased productivity; enhancing the participation of the low-income earners; and in general accelerated national economic growth (Meier, 19854; Ndegwa, 1987).

However, although an accelerated national economic growth is essential, it is meaningless to the masses of the low-income earners (especially in the rural areas), if it is not accompanied by a redistributive process which will spread the effects of the newly generated national wealth. By redistribution of wealth, according to Chenery et al. (1974), the low-income earners in the rural areas benefit from the accelerated economic growth in terms of increased access to health and social facilities - increased health centres, drug supplies, roads, schools, and community recreational infrastructures; and also more importantly, 'redistribution with growth' brings the mass of the rural population into a more active national economic life.

Chenery, as quoted by Meier (1974: 9), underscored the need for this redistribution by asserting that:

It is now clear that more than a decade of rapid growth in underdeveloped countries has been of little or no benefits to perhaps a third of their populations. Although the average per capita income of the Third World has increased by 50 percent since 1960, this growth has been very unequally distributed among countries, regions within countries, and socio-economic groups. Paradoxically, while growth policies have succeeded beyond the expectations of the first (World
Bank) Development Decade, the very idea of aggregate growth as a social objective has increasingly been called into question. Indeed, income disparities are not only experienced between regions, but also between socio-economic groups within same regions. "Almost everywhere, the earning power of rural women is less than that of rural men" (Chambers, 1983: 135). While Boserup agrees to this type of income inequality, she nevertheless argues further, that women also contribute more than they earn in the agricultural production process in Africa. Writing on the findings of her studies conducted in Kenya, she maintained that:

Women in nearly all the cases recorded, were found to do more than half of the agricultural work, in some cases they were found to do around 70 percent, and in one case nearly 80 percent of the total. Even today, village production in Africa South of Sahara continues to be predominantly female farming (1970: 17).

Income inequalities between sexes of the same region, therefore demand that rural development programmes should be deliberately planned (where possible), to raise the income-earning capacities of the rural women as a target group (Gladwin and Macmillan, 1989: 347-364).

Productive economic activities like fishing, seasonal vegetable gardening, tie and dyeing, small-scale retail trading, and allied agro-based activities undertaken in the rural areas, offer viable ways to providing additional incomes to rural people. Moreover, some of them like soap-making and seasonal vegetable
gardening lend themselves more to female participation primarily because they are traditionally female domains. Their encouragement and support in a bid to bridge the income gap in the rural areas (and between socio-economic groups) affected, will therefore immensely contribute to raising the living standards of those concerned. Furthermore, such an encouragement of additional economic activities with the view to bridging the gap between the urban and the rural areas in the Gambia, squarely fits with the objectives of "establishing an egalitarian society" as pronounced in the Gambia's Five Year Plan for Economic and Social Development (1981/82-1985/86: 3).

In general, "the less people have, the more vulnerable they are, and the harder it is for them to rise", (Chambers 1983: 130). When people are poor, and therefore have very little incomes, they become even more vulnerable to other factors such as disease, indebtedness, landlessness, illiteracy, and the like, all of which further compound their poverty and underdevelopment. Haswell's findings on "The nature of Poverty" conducted in The Gambia not only supports the above assertion, but further points to the need to assist and support the small farmers on their efforts to make additional incomes. Haswell found in Genieri village in The Gambia that those farmers who had no assets to fall on during the rainy seasons, when scarcity is common, were obliged to take short-term loans which bore interest rates as high as 157 percent, thereby further compounding their poverty; (1975: 186). In view of the above, efforts dedicated to raising the income levels of the rural poor, especially those
which offer additional economic opportunities, are often highly welcome in the rural development arena. There is agreement between development theorists and practitioners, that income-generating activities play an important role in improving the lives of the rural poor. These economic activities, apart from providing increased earnings to the participants, also provide additional benefits like increased availability of food (from vegetable gardens), increased ability to pay for medical costs (from incomes additionally generated); and enables villagers to better participate through contributions either in cash or kind. Income is therefore not the answer to all the rural problems, but is certainly instrumental in the search for other solutions.

2.1.4 SELF-HELP

The concept of self-help refers to the process whereby individuals, groups, and/or communities mutually undertaken development works through their own efforts and for collective gains, with little or no external assistance. Through self-help works, the local people have gradually taken their own destinies and tempo of their development into their own hands.

However, some development writers have cautioned that this might lead to the exploitation of the rural poor, while others maintain that it encourages the Third World governments to divert national resources elsewhere - probably to regions whose people have not demonstrated any initiatives for their own development - in all likeliness the urban areas. However, amidst lack of national
resources, inadequacies of the "top-down" approach to development, and the inability of the national governments to adequately mobilize and harness the abundant human and local resources, self-help remains a logical development option in most Third World Countries - although assuming various indigenous names in different countries (Mbithi, 1974: 194-198). With proper and adequate guidance to these self-help organizations and projects, they could greatly facilitate the rural development process (Chambers, 1983: 69; Malatsi, 1984A: 8).

Self-help groups and their various projects, therefore serve different functions to the rural communities, and also have varying reasons for involvement. Nonetheless, almost all the functions and reasons for involvement are legitimate and very useful to the rural development process (especially in Least Developed countries). In attempts to expound the reasons for and functions of self-help and self-help groups, Munkner (1983: 15) has provided the following list of reasons:

1) To struggle for survival;
2) To fight against a common enemy;
3) To defend common interest;
4) To build up countervailing power; and
5) To gain access to resources or services not available for the individual.

Clearly, each of the above reasons is a justifiable ground for the local and rural people to undertake self-help ventures for their
collective goods. What is needed, therefore, is for the outside development agencies (government and/or Non-governmental) to provide the framework and appropriate institutions through which the self-help groups/projects could best function. However, on the issue of promoting self-help through outside assistance, especially with the participation of non-governmental organizations, it is worth mentioning that the promotion of self-help groups is a rather difficult and tricky phenomenon. The promotion of self-help groups, according to Munkner, is only possible under special circumstances, that is, where deliberate efforts are made to:

- encourage but not to replace self-help action;
- give temporary, self-liquidating assistance, rather than permanent aid;
- avoid over-promotion (spoon-feeding); and
- grant autonomy in goal-setting and implementation.

Through such a deliberate approach to promoting self-help within the context of rural development, the ability and self-confidence of the participants is also greatly enhanced. As the rural people continue to participate and thereby increase their confidence levels, these very dynamics produce fears and resistance from other quarters. As the self-help process advances, the demands of the villagers/participants gradually shifts from simpler to more complex development projects and activities. The process therefore poses a threat to bureaucrats and others following the conventional "top-down" approach to development. While Zubeida agrees with Munkner that the self-help approach to rural development is both
logical and beneficial to the rural participants, he however, states research findings as a way of cautioning the advocates of the approach to the effect that they should expect some resistance from the top bureaucrats and government servants, as the self-help process progresses with increased local participation (Zubeida, 1984:4, p. 40). Literature and research evidences in this regard, therefore, all point to the potential functions of self-help to rural development efforts, although with probable bottlenecks as the process reaches its advanced stages.

Despite the arguments against the promotion of self-help (as indicated above) it remains a logical step through which the poor villagers and the impoverished rural communities are by and large, being helped to develop. Self-help projects in the rural areas contribute towards the development process by way of increasing the rural peoples' access to: (a) Communication, where bridges, feeder-roads, and other communication facilities are constructed; (b) Health, when villagers construct health posts/centres; and embark on other projects which in turn raise their health standards (for example, gardening); (c) Education, where additional classrooms are built and/or new primary schools established; and lastly (d) Participation; through the self-help process, the concerned villagers are enabled to genuinely take part in the development of their communities, and therefore not only lowering the costs of development (to the government), but also easing the problems of project maintenance, (Conyers, 1982; Malatsi, 1984A). It must however, be borne in mind that although the issue of self-
help in development has been treated here independent of other related variables (so as to facilitate a closer analysis), in reality, it works together with such variables to produce maximum desired effects. Therefore, variables such as participation, institutional building, and adult literacy are closely related to self-help in the context of rural development.

2.1.5 ADULT LITERACY/EDUCATION

From time immemorial man has been struggling for education of one sort or the other. Man's increasing knowledge base over the years has enabled him to better adapt to the environment socially, economically, and politically. However, the need and demand for education has always been kept below the requirements and desires of societies all over the world. Inspite of increasing educational opportunities which have been created in contemporary times, education still remains a significant problem to the society's development efforts.

Much concern has been raised over the problem of illiteracy and education precisely because of the inter-relationships which have been established between education and development. Numerous research findings (Thompson, 1981; Crouch and Chamala, 1981; Makokha, 1985; Bhola, 1988), have all pointed to this direction, and provided insights as to the influence and effects of education on a country's development process. The significance of adult literacy/education programmes to the development process
vis-a-vis the rural development process cannot, therefore, be underrated.

By enabling the illiterate adults to acquire new skills, especially reading, writing, and calculation skills, their contributions to the development process (both qualitatively and quantitatively) are also enhanced, (Chambers, 1983, Bhaola, 1988). While Makokha (1985: 185), also subscribed to this function of adult literacy/education, he went further to assert that "literacy/education is a prerequisite to technological advancement and innovation". He provided research findings in a study illustrating how the potentials of rural women in a poultry project in Changamwe division of Mombasa district (Kenya) were underutilized, primarily because of illiteracy. In another research study conducted by Bhaola in rural Zimbabwe, her findings were similar to those of Makokha's, on the effects of literacy/education to the lives of the participants. According to Bhaola:

"The consequences of literacy have been remarkable. Without a single exception, the 146 adult learners interviewed, both men and women, the quite young and the very old, claimed that literacy had improved their lives, irrespective of the level of literacy attained and the subsequent contexture of its use. Learners' minds 'opened up' and they could 'do things without help'. Everything improved, and everything came up-to-date," (1988: 12).

Literacy/education, therefore serves a very useful function to development (as indicated above).
In addition to this function of adult literacy/education, adult education programmes have the potential of increasing and/or enhancing the social consciousness of the learners and thereby making them better able to qualitatively participate in development activities going around them. Besides, it makes them more aware of their own problems and needs, and accordingly more analytical in finding solutions and implementing them. Wickramaarachi (1984) in a study conducted on a small-scale rural development effort by the local vegetable growers in Rana (South Sri Lanka), found out that adult education had indeed "hightened the level of the rural community’s social consciousness" and made them better able to conduct their economic activities than was previously possible. Besides, adult literacy/education can also enhance the level of local participation in the planning and execution of development projects. For instance, when villagers actively participate in rural development projects, it has been realized that the overall project costs are significantly lowered, and also more importantly though, the participation of the villagers (beneficiaries) goes a long way to ensuring the sustainability of the projects (Mbithi, 1974; Burbidge, 19788). UNESCO, on the other hand maintains that this type of literacy greatly facilitates the maximum utilization of the abundant human resources in Third World countries at a fair cost. According to UNESCO:

The aim of ... literacy remain basically the same: to mobilize, train, and educate still insufficiently utilized manpower, to make it more productive and more useful to itself and to society (1973:10)
It is, therefore, against this background and context that adult literacy/education is regarded as an important variable in the development process, especially in rural Africa.

However, despite all these research findings, a significant percentage of the world's adult population still remain illiterate. According to UNESCO sources, by 1985, 27.7 percent (approximately 889 million) of the world's adult population (age 15 and above) were illiterates (UNESCO, 1989: 2). The Figure below further highlights the magnitude and scale of this phenomenon. This clearly indicates that illiteracy has affected all regions of the world but rather in a disproportionate manner. Furthermore, a closer analysis of the whole issue as shown in Table 2.1 below, indicates that the percentage of adult illiterates have been declining in all regions of the world, although again the African decline rates remain the lowest.
A comparative analysis of both percentage (decline rates) as well as the absolute numbers of illiterates in relation to the overall population clearly indicates that sub-Saharan Africa has quite a high number of adult illiterates. This is due to a complex, number of reasons. Among others, the restrictive nature of the educational systems, coupled up with the inappropriateness of the various curricula have contributed to the problem of education (Thompson, 1981: 201-210). Besides, formal education systems are expensive to maintain and have by and large, failed to cope with the needs and demands of rural communities and peoples (Hamadache, 1986).
### Table 2.1: Adult Illiterates and Illiteracy Rates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Adult Illiterates (in Millions)</th>
<th>Illiteracy Rates (%)</th>
<th>Decrease 1985-2000 (% Points)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>World Total</td>
<td>965.1</td>
<td>962.6</td>
<td>942.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing countries</td>
<td>908.1</td>
<td>920.6</td>
<td>918.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sub-Saharan Africa</td>
<td>133.6</td>
<td>138.8</td>
<td>146.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arab States</td>
<td>58.6</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>65.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latin America/Caribbean</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastern Asia</td>
<td>297.3</td>
<td>281.0</td>
<td>233.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>South Asia</td>
<td>374.1</td>
<td>397.3</td>
<td>437.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developed countries</td>
<td>57.0</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Given the extent of illiteracy in Sub-Saharan Africa, and considering its implications for the development process within the member countries, a great deal of effort is required toward finding solutions to the problem (Lowe, 1982: 56-62). However, the limitations posed by the phenomenon to the development efforts of the African countries are quite substantial to the effect that it has created a momentum for the search of better solutions. Many countries are now turning to adult literacy/education programmes in their search for such solutions, (Lowe, 1982). Bhol (1988: 98)
agrees to the need for adult literacy/education, but further states that the content of the literacy programmes ought to be appropriately designed if the programmes are to achieve their intended goals. According to her, "the content of the curriculum largely determines the outcome of the adult education programme".

For the attainment of the aims and objectives of the adult literacy/education programmes in the context of development, "there is 'therefore', the need to teach content relevant to the time/life/space contexts of adults' daily lives" (Bhola, 1988: 103). The curriculum content and delivery should be carefully packaged with particular considerations to certain aspects. Mbow, the then Director-General of UNESCO, as quoted in Hamadache (1986: 29), stressed the need for attending to basically four aspects of the curriculum and delivery processes, identified as "functionality, participation, integration, and diversification". In emphasizing the areas of attention as regards the packaging of adult literacy programmes, it is felt that the curriculum content should be designed in such a way that it will be related to the daily concerns of the learners (functionality). Furthermore, since the learning situation is mainly centred on adults, the learners should also be involved in their own learning process - in otherwords, it should not be a spoon feeding type of learning experience. Besides, the adult literacy programmes should be integrated into the whole body of social and economic activities of the learners, so as to enable them to put the skills into practice. "Literacy and numeracy are useless accomplishments unless these skills are put to actual use in
everyday life", (Hamadache, 1986: 33). If adult literacy/education programmes are structured in a way that actually enables the learners to relate to and apply the learning experiences to their daily problems, then the programmes will invariably contribute to the rural development process. For instance, when learners apply the acquired arithmetic skills to their agricultural or business undertakings, the acquired skills from the adult education programme definitely become advantageous to the learners and by extension, to the development process in general.

2.2 PARTICIPATION

Participation in development projects, whereby the beneficiaries actively and genuinely contribute as partners in the development activity from the planning stage right through to the post-project management, is essential for the success of such projects. Such participation gives the local people a chance to decide and take part in decisions affecting their lives, and thereby making the development process democratic (Conyers, 1982; AID, 1984; Makokha, 1985; Korten, 1987). When villagers are consulted and involved in the projects affecting them, they become more receptive to and responsible for all the aspects of the projects concerned (Davis and Newstrom, 1985: 248). On the contrary however, lack of involvement and consultation breeds apathy on the part of the villagers, and a feeling that the project is external to them, (Pitt, 1976, 140-141; Conyers, 1982: 103; Makokha, 1985: 37).
Participation has another subtle but significant effect on the participants. By being involved in the development of one's community, one feels a sense of "responsibility" and "self-actualization", (Davis and Newstrom, 1985: 189). The experience gained from the participation, in itself helps the participants to advance further towards self-reliance, (AID, 1984; Davis and Newstrom, 1985). Chambers refers to this experience as a "learning process" for the participants, which makes them subsequently more able to undertake the search for the solutions to their own problems in future (1983: 212). Chambers however goes further to observe that the learning process approach is easier to achieve for small voluntary agencies than for the great field bureaucracies of government. According to him, "the best approach in finding out the priorities of the poor rural people may be an unrestrained dialogue with them" (1983: 145), which is probably better done by the "small voluntary agencies". Mbithi made a similar observation by underscoring the significance of local participation as a strategy which complements the national development process in general:

"In intensifying growth from below, the Kenyan experience shows clearly the national savings generated through increased local participation by reducing probabilities of failure, the gestation period of implementing a programme, cost of extension services and wasteful resistance to programmes are significantly high and it can increase the confidence of people in government....(1974: 149).

The other dimension to the issue of local participation in the development process has to do with local contributions to the projects. With increased involvement and participation, the
villagers are apt to become more committed and concerned with the projects, and thus ready and willing to contribute towards the cost of the project. Such contributions may be in the form of cash and/or some local inputs (together with labour). All of these contributions nonetheless relieve some burden from the project sponsors or government. Besides, when these villagers contribute towards the cost of the project from their meagre resources, they develop a sense of ownership towards that particular project and are thus committed to ensuring the success of the project. This sense of ownership and commitment by the villagers further enhance the sustainability and maintenance of the project even after the external assistance has been phased out, (Dore and Mars, 1981: 30). The participation of the local beneficiary groups, especially towards the cost of projects, thus has far reaching implications for the faith of the projects both during implementation phase as well as post-implementation phase. It seems therefore that one way of securing the sustenance and maintenance of development projects is by increasing the chances of local participation during the planning and implementation stages. Once the organization climate is transformed into a more participatory one, then the process as a whole becomes more humanly effective, (Davis and Newstrom, 1985: 194).

2.3 SUSTENANCE AND MAINTENANCE OF DEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

Ensuring sustainability and maintenance of development projects however goes beyond the issue of participation alone. In as
much as participation is essential, the dynamics of the development process require still some other ingredients to be present before a project could be fully assured of a proper post-implementation management and care.

In many instances, the government and other non-governmental organizations are in a position to provide funding for the implementation of projects. However, what remains difficult for them is the care and maintenance of these projects once the budgeted resources have expired at the end of the implementation phase. Development projects require a substantial amount of recurrent expenditure and post-implementation care which could hardly be afforded by the external sponsors and donors. It is therefore in these regards that the local inputs are most needed to assure continuity and care of the projects throughout their useful periods (Strong, 1989: 2/3, p.50)

2.3.2 INSTITUTIONAL BUILDING

Development projects require the support and care of local level institutions. These local level institutions are better placed to mobilize and generate significant support from the grassroot and most probably on a continued basis. It is in recognition of the contribution of these local institutions which perhaps prompted Lele to conclude that:

"Making the process (of rural development) self-sustaining requires development of institutions at local, regional and national levels to ensure effective use of
existing resources and to foster mobilization of additional financial and human resources for continued development of the subsistence sector" (1974: 5).

This conclusion was further supported by research evidence from a USAID evaluation mission on rural development in The Gambia. This research mission found out that working with the Village Development Committee has empowered the community, to be able to improve their access to resources, and besides, they also found out that "the most successful projects were those in which the Community Development Assistants (CDAs) and the village Development Committees had been involved throughout the life of the project....." (AID, 1984: 59).

This should not be surprising because once the leaders of the village community lend their support to a project, the rest of the villagers then closely identify themselves with that particular project and hence increases its likelihood of success. Institutional building efforts should therefore constitute a significant percentage of development efforts of government and non-governmental agencies alike. Rural development agencies should not merely attempt to reach the target rural populations, but should involve them as well, into the whole development process, (Lele, 1974: 5; Muchiru, 1984: 4, p. 115). Lele in particular, went further to maintain that there is a qualitative difference between "reaching" the target rural populations and "involving" them, in the context of rural development. When the target rural populations are involved in the process, such an involvement facilitates the enhancement of the other variables (identified in this study).
2.3.3 **LEVEL OF TECHNOLOGY**

Technology refers to not only the tools and equipments used by a people in their attempts to effectively adapt to their environment, but also refers to their knowledge and experience, their customary ways of doing things, and their social and/or political mechanisms designed for coping with the environment around them. This broader perspective of the concept of technology is essential to grasp in order to appreciate the interaction and impact of technology in relation to development, (Perrow, 1970; Schumacher, 1973; Long, 1977; and AID, 1980).

A development programme that is built around the technology of the people therefore has a higher chance of being accepted and sustained by the group concerned. This consideration requires that the development planners should be conscious of the local environment as an input per se in their development planning process (Davis and Newstrom, 1985: 245). When alien and highly sophisticated technological packages are introduced into the projects, the local people merely become objects instead of subjects in the development process. The sophisticated (and alien) technology package (which is beyond the cultural and knowledge base of the recipients) therefore makes their participation and contribution minimal. On the contrary, when development agencies build on what is available and within reach of the local people, the dysfunctional effects of technology are not only greatly reduced, but also the capability of the recipient local community to participate is enhanced.
When development projects are implemented with the support and assistance of available local resources, equipment, knowledge and/or human resources, the local community is able to ensure the continuity and maintenance process with virtually very little external assistance. This becomes difficult (if not impossible) with projects implemented with high-technology, capital-intensive, and allied foreign inputs. This is not to argue that foreign inputs and technologies are not essential in rural development, but rather that they must be based on a careful study of the recipient local community’s conditions. The more the technology is adapted and made compatible to local needs/conditions, the more manageable the pre-and post-project implementation phases become. Therefore, the rate of recurrent project expenses, maintenance, participation and project sustenance are all (to some extent) contingent on the technology utilized in the implementation of the project, (Schumacher, 1973; Huden, 1983; Makokha, 1985). This is mainly because the technology used in a particular project determines whether the villagers could sustain/maintain that project, and also influences their ability to understand and thereby participate in the project. If the technology used is higher than what they could comprehend, then their participation also becomes minimal.

2.4 NON-GOVERNMENT ORGANIZATIONS (NGOS)

Rural development process (as indicated in Chapter 2.1) is multi-sectoral and inter-disciplinary in nature. This therefore means that the various actors in the field must not only adopt a multi-sectoral approach to project implementation, but also an
integrated approach whereby the various components of their programmes could be supportive of each other. This integrated approach, by extension, also requires that the programmes and activities of the various development agencies should be coordinated and thus complementary to the efforts of the government (Streeter, 1987: 4 p. 92). Private, non-governmental organizations engaged in development programmes should therefore, synchronize their development strategies and objectives to those of their host governments, so as to facilitate this principle of complementarity.

"-----NGO projects are often intertwined with the public sector in a number of ways. Indeed the outcome of NGO projects may depend on public sector performance. Governments can often benefit tremendously by allowing and encouraging private and voluntary efforts to take root in society, thereby providing effective entry points for governments;" (Lewis, 1988: 4, p. 34)

Hyden (1983) agrees with this complementary role performed by non-governmental organizations, but he nonetheless maintains that they have some added advantages which make them more suited for development work. He identified advantages which could be summarized as follows:

1) The non-governmental organizations are much closer than the government to the poorer sections of society.
2) Their staff are normally highly motivated and altruistic in their behaviour.
3) They operate economically. They tend to use labour-intensive approaches and rely on community participation in their activities.
4) Because of their relatively small sizes, and the decentralized nature of their decision-making structures, they are able to be flexible in their activities.

5) Their independence gives them an opportunity to develop demands for public service and resources, and thus facilitate the work of individual government departments in the rural areas.

While some of the advantages identified by Hyden may not be readily tested and supported by other theorists, his list nonetheless provides the basic characteristics and approaches of non-governmental organizations in rural development in Africa.

Paul Streeten argues, on the contrary, that whilst the advantages associated to non-governmental organizations by Hyden and others could be true, "many (of their) projects do not live-up to these claims" (Streeten, 1987: 4, p. 92). According to him, non-governmental organizations:

- frequently do not reach the poor but reinforce the rule of the local power elite;
- Often involve enlightened top-down control, even if this takes the form of "Consciousness-raising";
- In many cases, projects are not innovative but are extensions and applications of well-known approaches;
- For success, their projects have relied on complementary support from the public sector.
- Co-ordination between different NGOs is poor; and
Their projects also suffer from the fact that they are not easily replicable. "They are insufficiently concerned with the long-run impact, after their staff has gone away".

It is against the above background that the study shall proceed to assess the contribution of Save the Children as in Chapter 4.

**SUMMARY OF CHAPTER**

Rural Development is a multi-disciplinary field, which requires an integrated approach, in order to effectively tackle the intricate rural problems involved. The reviewed literature above supports this view.

The training of rural development extension personnel, income-generation, self-help, adult literacy/education and grassroots institution building can all favourably influence the outcome of a rural development programme - when given due consideration. These above mentioned variables are however inter-related and therefore in practice, they influence each other.

Finally, the literature reviewed above, indicates that Non-Governmental organizations can play a vital role in the rural development process of the least developed countries. They however have some weaknesses which ought to be considered, if they are to effectively and efficiently function in the rural areas of Africa.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter reviews the research design of the study; the methods used in the data collection phase; the techniques employed in the data analysis and finally, the assumptions made by the researcher whilst conducting this study.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This was a survey research design intended to study the contribution of the Non-Governmental organizations to rural development in The Gambia. Since the objective of the study was to describe and analyse the contributions of the above named organizations to rural development, the choice of a survey research design was quite appropriate. By choosing this particular design, the study was better able to bring to light the various areas in which the non-governmental organizations contribute, as well as exploited and reviewed such areas (and treads) where research data reveal their occurrence. The use of the survey research design was therefore an advantage to the study, in as much as enhancing a thorough description and logical analysis of the contribution of non-governmental organizations in the context of rural development was concerned. Besides, the other alternatives of research design were either unsuited for the study, for reasons of lack of control of the study's subjects, or unaffordable because of resource constraints.
and geographical distance. Moreover, because descriptive studies of this nature which utilize survey research designs are not usually limited to any single method of data collection, such an advantage further enabled the researcher to use multiple sources of data in this study.

The population of the study were the extension workers of Save the Children. These extension workers were all based in the North Bank Division, engaged in many and varying rural development projects. However, by virtue of their educational background and preservice training, they have some common characteristics in terms of their actual extension duties, level of qualification and positions held within Save the Children. Those extension workers (community Development Assistants) who serve as rather general purpose change agents, have all been to the Rural Development Institute and possessed a Certificate in Rural and Community Development. The rest, mainly the paramedical staff, have also attended the Community Health Nursing School and attained the required certificates. They are all relatively young adults with an average (mean) age of 31 years.

In order to obtain the population (as mentioned above) the study used a simple random sampling method. The researcher first obtained a list containing all the 28 Non-Governmental Organizations involved in rural development in The Gambia at the time of the study. The names of these organizations were then written on small pieces of paper and thoroughly shuffled in a bag,
and thereafter, only one piece was drawn out by a colleague upon instructions. This represented 3.5 percent of the non-governmental organizations in The Gambia. By this method of simple random sampling, the study ensured that each and every organization concerned had an equal chance of being selected. Therefore, issues of bias and undue influences in the selection of the sample were checked through the application of simple random selection. Furthermore, by using this method, it enabled the study to be conducted on an organization which is highly representative of the larger population.

Having drawn the piece bearing the name of Save the Children from the rest of non-governmental organizations in The Gambia, by simple random sampling, the researcher decided to use all the extension workers of this organization in the population of the study. Save the Children has relatively a small extension staff force. It was felt by the researcher that the inclusion of all the extension workers as the population of the study will undoubtedly increase the responses and thereby bring out a divergence of the responses and/or information. Besides, given the small size of the extension workers of Save the Children, it was perfectly possible to reach and solicit responses from all of them.

However, rural development process in general, and Save the Children work in particular, involves programmes and projects directed to both sexes in the rural areas of the country. This, therefore, requires that the sample should be drawn in such a way
that it solicits responses from both sexes concerned. In this regard, out of the 19 respondents, six (that is 31.6 percent) were females, thereby giving a fairly balanced sex representation in the population of the study.

**TABLE 3.1: SEX REPRESENTATION IN THE SAMPLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SEXES</th>
<th>NO. OF CDAS</th>
<th>NO. OF PARAMEDICS</th>
<th>% OF FEMALES IN SAMPLE</th>
<th>% OF MALES IN SAMPLE</th>
<th>SAMPLE SIZE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FEMALES</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MALES</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>68.4</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2 **DATA COLLECTION**

Once the name of Save the Children was drawn from the population of the study (that is the Non-Governmental Organizations operating in The Gambia), the researcher then sent a letter, accompanied by a copy of the project proposal to the Directorate of Save the Children requesting for its approval of the research. The Directorate, indeed, granted approval and further gave assurance for future cooperation in the research exercise. This was necessary because the researcher was undoubtedly going to take some time of their staff during the data collection phase, and besides, the researcher was further going to request for assistance with respect to secondary data and other relevant literature from the Directorate.
The requested secondary data from Save the Children was mainly in the areas of the operational history of The Gambia Field Office, the organizational structure, the organization's philosophies and extension strategies, and any previous study document on their programmes. The review of this secondary data greatly helped the researcher especially with regards to areas of emphasis in the questionnaires. The researcher also made another use of secondary data with respect to previous research documents and/or literature related to this study. Review of such literature as contained in the literature review chapter had invariably helped the researcher in terms of understanding the interrelationships of the major variables used in this research.

Upon granting of permission for the study, questionnaires were constructed for the data collection. The choice of this data collection instrument was a function of both convenience and resource constraints, on the part of the researcher. Nonetheless, the use of self-administered questionnaires for data collection, has its own merits especially in this study. Since the respondents were all literate and fairly conversant with research activities, it was hoped that using this particular data collection technique would enable them to freely express their views without having to go through a third-party. This could minimize the chances of errors of interpretation and/or translation. These strengths of the self-administered questionnaires were therefore enhanced in the data collection. However, the limitations of the method in terms of
inflexibility and inability to contain all the possible responses of
the respondents were acknowledged.

The questionnaire consisted of both open-ended questions and
closed-ended questions in equal proportions. This was done with the
hope that the potential of the open-ended questions, in terms of
extracting as much information as is possible, could counterbalance
the restrictive tendency of the closed-ended questions. Some of the
closed ended questions had their possible choices listed below
whilst others were simply yes or no alternatives. The questionnaire
was constructed to adequately cover the following areas of the
study (see sample questionnaire in Appendix B).

a) Rural Development Training: Specific questions were asked
relating to the length, duration, timing, content and relevance
to the participants work. This was done to determine the
relevance and impact of training on the performance of the
extension personnel.

b) Income-generation in the rural areas: Questions asked in this
area were related to the types and number of income-
generating activities; amounts generated; number; and sexes of
the beneficiaries. These were asked inorder to determine the
nature and extent of income-generation in the context of Save
the Children's programmes.
c) Self-help projects: Questions in this area were related to the numbers and types of self-help projects; external assistance received; and categories of services provided. These were asked in a bid to determine the extent and nature of these projects vis-a-vis Save the Children's activities.

d) Adult literacy/education: Questions were related to the number of classes and learners; content of the curriculum; length of classes; external assistance received; and sex representation. Such questions will help to indicate the usefulness of the programmes as well as the extent to which Save the Children supported and encouraged them.

e) Institutional building at grassroots level: The questions in this area were related to the number of grassroots institutions established; composition of the membership to these institutions; assistance/support given and level of local participation. These were asked so as to determine Save the Children's approach at the grassroots level in the context of rural development.

f) Project selection and implementation criteria: The questions asked here were in respect to the degree of local involvement; specific project criteria; and rate of abandoning uncompleted projects. These were asked with a view to determining the nature of Save the Children's project selection and
implementation, as well as the extent to which its approach allowed for and encouraged genuine local participation.

The questionnaires were constructed with a view to making them as clearly understood as possible. This meant, therefore, that the frames of reference and the common concepts used by the target respondents were inbuilt into the questionnaire. The draft questionnaires were pretested with the help of colleagues and thereafter corrected. The corrected version was then further discussed with the instructor supervising the study, and again re-adjusted in the light of the suggestions which emanated from that discussion.

The researcher, after finalizing the questionnaires, then sent copies to The Gambia for administration. A copy of the questionnaire together with an accompanying letter were also sent to the researcher’s workplace (Rural Development Institute) requesting for assistance in the form of the distribution, retrieval, and forwarding back the completed questionnaires. The Rural Development Institute staff, accordingly honoured this request, and thereby made it possible for the study to attain an 84.2 percent response rate. Out of the 19 questionnaires sent out, 16 of them were filled and returned. Considering the inadequate response rate associated with self-administered questionnaires, the response rate attained in this study was therefore impressive.
3.3 DATA ANALYSIS

After receiving the completed questionnaires, the researcher then developed codes and other mechanisms for analysing the open-ended and closed-ended questions respectively. The data collected were thereafter converted into percentages in relation to the issues the questions were designed to address. This, in essence, allowed for convenient and accurate inference to be drawn from the data.

In order to enhance the reporting of the findings, some aspects of the data were quantified and presented in the form of tables and graphs, where they were deemed appropriate. Specifically, tables, histograms, polygons, and line charts were used in the data presentation. Since this is basically a descriptive study and was not designed to test any specific hypothesis, the need for inferential statistics did not arise, and were therefore not used in this study.

3.4 ASSUMPTIONS

The data collected from the extension workers of Save the Children were assumed accurate and thus truly reflective of their views at the time of the research.

It was also assumed that the variables used in the study are collectively sufficient to determine the contribution of Save the Children to rural development in The Gambia (see Chapter 1.7 for the list of other excluded variables). However, the researcher fully acknowledged the multivariate nature of the rural development
process, and therefore proceeded to treat the (herein identified) variables as part of the rural development process.

Finally, the respondents of this study were Save the Children extension workers involved in rural development in The Gambia. It was therefore assumed that the views expressed (and the estimates provided) by these extension workers by and large reflect the problems, views, and/or other related aspects of their clientele rural communities and peoples.

**SUMMARY OF CHAPTER**

The use of self administered questionnaires (as in this study) was justified and their advantages were mentioned in relation to the study. Finally, the assumptions inherent in this study (which if proven otherwise could have affected the findings) have been listed and explained above.
CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter presents and analyses the study's findings as related to five variables which together indicate the extent and nature of Save the Children's contribution to rural development in the Gambia. The five variables are as follows:

1) Training of extension staff;
2) Income-generation
3) Self-help projects
4) Adult literacy/education; and,
5) Project criteria, and institutional building

4.1 TRAINING OF EXTENSION STAFF:

Save the Children recruits extension workers of varying educational levels into its service. However, irrespective of the educational levels of these extension workers, some of whom have had pre-service training before joining the organization, Save the Children conducts a number of in-service courses and workshops for them.

The relevance and usefulness of these in-service, on-the-job training to the extension workers is further examined in detail in this chapter, as well as the aspects of the
extension workers' duties which were not covered by those courses. Since the content of a training programme is as significant as the timing and extent of coverage of the syllabus, the chapter proceeds to state the findings on those related issues also.

4.1.1 **EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF EXTENSION WORKERS**

Of the extension workers of Save the Children, 6.2 percent have the West African Examination Council's A' Level General Certificate of Examination (G.C.E.) This group represents a smaller percentage mainly because the organization does not require an A' level Certificate as an entry requirement for its extension workers.

Another group representing 68.8 percent of the sample hold 'O' Level General Certificate of Education (G.C.E.), while 56.3 percent of the extension workers have Secondary Technical School leaving Certificates. This latter group constitutes the para-medical extension staff. Some 18.7 percent of the extension workers hold some kind of a Diploma Certificate (in addition to 'A' levels and/or 'O' levels), and this group constitutes the middle-level extension cadre who perform supervisory functions in addition to their normal extension service. Figure 4.1 provides the details of the educational levels of the extension workers.
4.1.2 PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE COURSES ATTENDED

The questions raised in this area were designed to indicate the extent and nature of training courses conducted by Save the Children. This is with respect to the major research question raised in connection with pre-service and In-Service courses. Save the Children does not organize any kind of pre-service courses for the new entrants into the extension arena. Therefore, the pre-service courses mentioned below were those the extension workers attended elsewhere before joining the organization. Some 52.9 percent of the respondents attended the certificate course offered by the Rural
Development Institute of the Department of Community Development. This group represents the biggest category and could be explained in terms of Save the Children's reliance on the Department of Community Development for its supply of trained Community Development Assistants (CDAs). Some 29.4 percent of the respondents had attended and obtained certificates from the Community Health Nursing School at Mansa-Konko. These were mainly the para-medical extension staff - whose nature of training and extension duties demand more specialization than the multi-purpose community Development Assistants. Finally, 17.6 percent of the respondents had attended pre-service courses (lasting from 6-8 weeks), organized for untrained teachers by the Department of Education.

The In-Service courses organized by Save the Children on adult literacy/education, and communication were attended by 18.7 percent of the respondents respectively. Some 31.3 percent attended a course on agriculture, while 25 percent participated in Some health related in-service course/workshop. The duration of these in-service courses range from 3 days to 2 months. See table 4.1 for the details of the in-service courses and their varying durations.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COURSE</th>
<th>DURATION</th>
<th>% ATTENDED</th>
<th>MOST USEFUL</th>
<th>LESS USEFUL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Health Course</td>
<td>1-2 wks</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Health Information system*</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Family Planning*</td>
<td>1 wk</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Communication</td>
<td>1-2 wks</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Extension Communication training*</td>
<td>2 wks</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Institutional Building*</td>
<td>2 wks</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Adult literacy/ education*</td>
<td>1-2 wks</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Research methods/ techniques*</td>
<td>2 mths</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Credit management*</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Agriculture*</td>
<td>1 wk</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Com. Dev. In-service</td>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Iman Orientation*</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Sponsorship</td>
<td></td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Training of Trainers*</td>
<td>2 wks</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Women in Development</td>
<td></td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 16

*Courses organized by Save the Children.
4.1.3 USEFULNESS OF IN-SERVICE COURSES

When respondents were asked to rate the in-service courses they attended, which were organized by Save the Children, none of them rated these courses as either "less-useful" or "not-useful". Ranging from 60 percent to 100 percent of the respondents who attended any one In-Service course of the 12 courses organized by Save the Children over the last 12 months, said they found the courses either "most-useful" or "Useful" to their work situations. Usefulness (as used here) relates to the extent to which a particular course enabled the attendant to qualitatively improve his performance and service delivery in the field. Table 4.1 (provided above) gives the details of the ratings of the respondents.

4.1.4 USEFUL ASPECTS OF WORK NOT COVERED

On the useful aspects of the extension workers' duties which were not covered by these In-Service courses, 25 percent of the respondent mentioned some identified agricultural practices/techniques, while 12.5 percent mentioned mid-wifery. The response in this category generally tended to be those aspects which relate to the practical and applicable dimensions of their work. Some 66.7 percent identified practical aspects of their work which were not covered by the In-service courses. These identified aspects were:-
1) Agricultural practices/techniques
2) Mid-wifery;
3) Soil erosion; and
4) Information communication and education

4.1.5 DURATION OF IN-SERVICE COURSES

Of the extension workers in the sample who have attended one or more In-service courses organized by Save the Children over the last 12 months, 45.5 percent said the average duration of the subjects covered was one hour. Some 27.3 percent said it was 45 minutes, while 18.2 percent said it was 30 minutes. Only 9.1 percent said it took one whole day to cover a single subject.

As regards the rating of the time allocated per subject, no one indicated that it was too long. Some 75 percent of the respondents said the time allocated per subject was adequate, while 25 percent to the contrary, said the time allocated was inadequate for the subject-matter intended to be covered. This might have been so because the subjects treated in the courses were relevant to the work of the participants, and they therefore would have liked more time to be spent on those subjects to allow for indepth coverage of the subject-matter.
4.2 INCOME-GENERATION

The questions raised in this area were designed to provide data which will in turn answer the research questions on whether Save the Children does promote income-generation? Who benefits from these income-generating projects?; and the appropriateness of the timings of these projects? The findings are therefore presented and analyzed in accordance with these research questions.

4.2.1 PROFILE OF INCOME-GENERATING PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN

The extension workers of Save the Children have over the last 12 months (November 1989 to November 1990), undertaken 131 income-generating activities in the North Bank Division. These economic activities which were undertaken, range from Soap-making, tie and dyeing, and vegetable gardening to school/community tree-planting, seed multiplication and animal rearing projects.

While most of the projects had both male and female participants/beneficiaries, some however were sex biased. The fishing project, Black-Smithing, Capentry, bakery and loan disbursement were exclusively male biased with no female participants. Retail business, on the other hand, had only female beneficiaries, and Soap-making, seed multiplication and sewing projects were heavily dominated by females. This discernible tendency of sex biases in some types of income-generating projects is in part, a relic of the traditional and customary practices of cultural distinctions between sexes.
Some economic activities are by and large, regarded by the rural Gambians as distinctly male domains for example, fishing, Carpentry and bakery, whilst some others are traditionally female reserves, like Soap-making and vegetable gardening. The total number of participants from all the 131 projects was 9,305, representing 31 percent of the population of the villages in which Save the Children operates. See Table 4.2 for the details of these income-generating projects.
### TABLE 4.2 NUMBER OF PROJECTS BY SEX OF PARTICIPANTS AND INCOME GENERATED IN YEARS

(All sums in Gambian Dalasis)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Project</th>
<th>No. of Participants</th>
<th>Income Generated in Years</th>
<th>MEAN Income</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Vegetable Gardens</td>
<td>36 922 2980</td>
<td>300 482 550 880 1042</td>
<td>870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Soap-making</td>
<td>20 2 315</td>
<td>2 250 250 425 467</td>
<td>348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Tie and Dyeing</td>
<td>11 15 70</td>
<td>250 250 950 1000 613</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Retail business</td>
<td>8 0 10</td>
<td>200 6000 3000 13000</td>
<td>9500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Sewing</td>
<td>1 2 8</td>
<td>10 300 300 250</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Tree planting</td>
<td>7 820 210</td>
<td>10 15 18 14.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Loan Disbursement</td>
<td>4 30 0</td>
<td>3000 3250 3075 3250</td>
<td>3215</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Seed multiplication</td>
<td>4 245 1300</td>
<td>40 38 25 34.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Technology promotion</td>
<td>15 1000</td>
<td>900 1000 1000 1000</td>
<td>967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Fishing</td>
<td>8 27 0</td>
<td>1000 2200 1600</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Bakery</td>
<td>5 6 0</td>
<td>1200 1200</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Animal Rearing</td>
<td>10 440 400</td>
<td>40 40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Blacksmithing</td>
<td>1 2 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Carpentry</td>
<td>1 1 0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No Response 56%

*US$ is approximately equivalent to D6.50

*1 Mean income reported from all the projects (of that type) in the particular year.

*2 No data provided on incomes for that year.

*3 Mean income for the project (calculated from the incomes reported from 1985-1989).

#### 4.2.2 EARNINGS GENERATED

Time series analysis was applied here in a bid to further reveal the extent and nature of the earnings generated by the income-generating projects listed in Table 4.2 above. By income (as analyzed here) is meant the economic/monetary...
earnings accrued from the projects. The period covered by the analysis ranged from 1985 to 1989, both inclusive.

The analysis clearly shows a consistency in the increase of earnings as years go by, except with the loan-disbursement project and the seed multiplication. There could be a number of reasons for these down-ward trends indicated in these two projects ranging from non-payment of credit and issues of inappropriate business practices and decisions on the part of the loan disbursement projects, to crop failure either because of inadequate rains and/or pests, relating to the seed multiplication projects. However, in both cases, the decline of income indicated did not exceed 40 percent of the previous years indicated earnings.

Furthermore, the earnings of some of the projects were not indicated in the columns for some years. This was either because those particular projects had not yet been implemented or had not yet started producing revenue. The Black-Smith and Carpentry projects were not provided with any data on earnings. On the whole however, the retail business, loan disbursement, fishing, bakery and technology promotion projects appeared to be the higher income-earning projects. All these projects share one characteristic and that is the conduct and management of business involved was more individualistic and less communal. This invariably allowed for
the application of individual entrepreneurial skills and efforts, than was possible in the others.

Lastly, there is consistency in increase of earnings, although not statistically significant, in almost all the reported projects. However, it should be noted that the statistical insignificance of the increase, could have been mainly due to the small sample size of the individual earnings as reported on the various projects. Nonetheless, the tendency to increase over time is there. Figure 4.2 further illustrates the increasing tendency of the earnings of some of the projects.

FIG. 4.2 EARNINGS OF SOME PROJECTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EARNINGS (DALASIS)</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>1000</td>
<td>1500</td>
<td>2000</td>
<td>2500</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>3500</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend:
- Loan Disbursement
- Vegetable gardens
- Technology promotion
- Tile and dyeing
- Soap making
- Seed multiplication
4.2.3 NON-MONETARY BENEFITS ACCRUED

Besides the monetary benefits enjoyed by the participants of these income-generating projects, there were other non-monetary benefits accrued from the same projects. These non-monetary benefits were largely of the types which are non-quantifiable (intangible benefits), but nonetheless valued by the beneficiaries of the projects. Some 50 percent of the respondents indicated that the participants of the projects acquired extra-skills and experiences related to the projects. Some 18.8 percent reported health benefits, while increased awareness and enhanced managerial capabilities were reported by 12.5 percent of the respondents respectively. Another 25 percent of the respondents also indicated improvement of diets as an additional benefit from the projects. Dietary improvements were made possible largely because of the fact that some products from the projects like vegetables, fish and other similar products went to the household of the participant for home consumption. Besides, a fisherman, for example, may not find a ready made buyer for all the catch for the day, and will therefore take the unsold fish to the household for consumption and/or preservation (where possible). The Table 4.3 provides the list of the indicated non-monetary benefits as reported by the respondents.
### Table 4.3 Non-Monetary Benefits from the Projects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF BENEFITS</th>
<th>% RESPONDENTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acquired skills and experience</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enhanced Managerial capacity</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement of diets</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotion of communal work spirits</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased farm and garden implements</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increased Awareness</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved living standards</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improved health</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Response</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 16

#### 4.3 Self-Help Projects Undertaken

The questions asked in this area were meant to provide data so as to address the major research question raised in relation the self-help projects. The major research question here was whether self-help projects do in fact facilitate rural development, and to what extent (if any) does Save the Children assist self-help projects in North Bank Division? The findings in relation to this research question are presented and analyzed below.

#### 4.3.1 Type and Number of Self-Help Projects Undertaken

The extension workers of Save the Children undertook various types of self-help projects over the last five years.
4.3.1 TYPE AND NUMBER OF SELF-HELP PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN

The extension workers of Save the Children undertook various types of self-help projects over the last five years. These projects range from school building, well digging and feeder road construction to Day Care Centres, Youth and Community Centres, and grain stores. The self-help projects cater for varying community needs and thus, provide different categories of services in the rural areas (see Chapter 4.3.2 for the details of the categories).

Over the last five years, the respondents have undertaken 111 self-help projects in the North Bank Division. Of these, 23 were water related projects. This forms the largest single category of self-help projects implemented. This could be explained in part, because of the water shortage usually experienced by the villagers in the North Bank Division, especially during the dry seasons. Furthermore, the well digging projects are usually labour intensive relying heavily on the available local resources, and that makes it possible for the needy villagers to pool resources together (on communal basis), to address their water problems.

School building projects - mainly putting up additional classrooms and/or some other educational infrastructures - constitute 16 percent of the total number of self-help projects reported. Causeways/bridges form 13.5 percent while Pit latrine construction constitutes 14.4 percent. The least number of projects was recorded on the Day Care Centre projects which had in the past experienced massive failures
nation-wide, and it is perhaps this experience which was still dictating a cautious attitude on the extension workers and villagers. The previous failure of the day Care Centres was largely because of faulty project implementation and lack of local support and participation. See Table 4.4 for detail of these self-help projects.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF PROJECT</th>
<th>PURPOSE</th>
<th>PROJECT SUB-TOTAL (%)</th>
<th>KIND OF ASSISTANCE*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EDUCATIONAL</td>
<td>To support and encourage primary education</td>
<td></td>
<td>materials and Cash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Day Care Centres</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>Tech. and materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HEALTH</td>
<td>To improve the standard of health in the area</td>
<td></td>
<td>Materials and tech.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Health centres/Dispensaries</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Tech. and materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Pit Latrines</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>Materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Well digging</td>
<td>........*</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>Materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Waiting shelters</td>
<td>........*</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Materials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AGRICULTURAL</td>
<td>To improve productivity</td>
<td></td>
<td>Tech., materials, and cash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Causeways/bridges</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>13.6</td>
<td>Tech. and material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Seed (Grain) stores</td>
<td>........*</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>Tech., cash, and material</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMMUNITY PROJECTS</td>
<td>To provide social facilities and services for communal use</td>
<td></td>
<td>Material, Cash and Technical.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a. Youth/Community Centres</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Material and Tech.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Feeder roads</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>Material, tech. and cash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPONSORSHIP</td>
<td>To generate funds for future comm. projects</td>
<td></td>
<td>Technical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OTHERS</td>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO response - 25%</td>
<td></td>
<td>100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

N = 111

*Where cash was reported as assistance to the projects, the money involved was spent on meeting other project requirements and not necessarily given as a handout or a form of payment to the project participants.
4.3.2 CATEGORIES OF SERVICES PROVIDED

When asked to categorize the services provided by these self-help projects, 50 percent listed Communication; 66.7 percent mentioned Education, Health 100 percent (that is, all the respondents); Recreation 58.3 percent; and 83.3 percent listed enhancing participation.
1. Communication
2. Educational
3. Health
4. Youth recreational
5. Enhancing participation
6. Others
4.3.3 ASSISTANCE PROVIDED BY SAVE THE CHILDREN

Self-help projects are mainly low-cost, rural-based, labour intensive activities aimed at addressing community problems. However, the resource requirements for some types of projects usually warrant external assistance. The rural people may be willing to contribute labour and some local inputs, but by and large, some foreign (often expensive) inputs cannot be all together avoided.

Of all the 111 self-help projects undertaken in the North Bank Division (see Table 4.4), Save the Children contributed in kind and/or cash as the situation demanded. All the respondents (that is, 100 percent) said Save the Children contribution was usually in the form of providing materials for project implementation, while 91.7 percent said the assistance was of technical support to the projects. These two categories of external assistance from Save the Children constitute the top-rated types of assistance to the self-help projects. Part of the reason for this, as indicated above, is due to resource constraints of the villagers as well as the lack of technical know-how required for the projects. Being largely an area of high illiteracy rates, the village technology and level of technological know-how of the villagers in the North Bank Division need to be supported and raised by external technical support if some of the self-help projects were to be successfully implemented.
Save the Children also provided food for work, reported by 16.7 percent of the respondents, although constituting the least common type of assistance. See Table 4.5 for the rest of the details of the external assistance. As regards the rating of the assistance provided by Save the Children to these self-help projects, 88.3 percent of the respondents indicated that the material support was adequate while 16.7 percent, to the contrary, said such support was inadequate. The material support/assistance were mainly concentrated on the health, literacy/numeracy projects, and food production/agriculture related projects. Furthermore, 25 percent said the financial assistance rendered to the self-help projects was inadequate, while 8.3 percent indicated the adequacy of the financial assistance. The financial assistance aspect was the only one which had more negative ratings than the positive. This was perhaps because of the fact that Save the Children does not encourage giving out cash to the villagers for project implementation, but rather prefers the community development approach whereby some amount of assistance (in kind) is offered to augment the local people's own contribution.
TABLE 4.5 KIND AND RATING OF ASSISTANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND OF ASSISTANCE</th>
<th>RESPONDENTS (%)</th>
<th>RATING OF ASSISTANCE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Materials for Project Implementation</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>83.3 16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>8.3 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food for work</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>- -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical Support</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>91.7 25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extension education</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>41.7 8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>- -</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 12

4.4 ADULT LITERACY/EDUCATION

The research questions raised with respect to adult literacy/education were as follows: Does adult literacy/education facilitate improvements in the living conditions and lives of the learners? and does Save the Children encourage and promote them? Who participates in the literacy programmes? and the appropriateness of the timing? The questions asked to the respondents were therefore in view of generating data to enable the answering of these research questions.
4.4.1 NUMBER OF CLASSES AND PARTICIPANTS

Save the Children organized and supported 24 adult literacy classes. As to the distribution of the classes, the respondents were asked whether they have adult literacy/education programmes in their area of operations. The majority, that is 91.7 percent of the respondents said that they do have literacy programmes, while 8.3 percent said they do not have such programmes. On further probing relating to the issue, 36.4 percent of the respondents said they have two or less classes; 9.1 percent said they have three to four classes, and nine to ten classes respectively. 45.5 percent however, said they have 10 or more classes.

Of those respondents who said that they have literacy programmes in their areas, 54.5 percent indicated that the average number of participants per class in their area was between 11 and 20. Some 36.4 percent said the number of participants was between 21 and 30, while 9.1 percent said between 31 and 40. However, the average number of participants per adult literacy class was 21 from the responses.
4.4.2 DURATION AND FREQUENCY OF CLASSES

As regards the frequency of the meeting of these literacy classes, the respondents indicated only two different schedules. One group (representing 36.4 percent of the respondents) reported that the classes met for sessions daily, while the other group (which consists of 63.6 percent of the respondents) said the classes met twice every week. However, the majority of these literacy classes were conducted on seasonal bases. 91 percent of the respondents said the classes were usually held during the dry season only, while 9.1 percent
said they were conducted only during the rainy season. No
class went all the year round.

As to when (that is the time of the day/night) the
classes meet for sessions, 72.7 percent of the respondents
said they met only during the day time. On the contrary, 9.1
percent said the classes met only during the night time. This
difference in schedules for the classes is perhaps explained by
the fact that the classes were conducted in different times of
the year. It is only logical and possible that those classes
which had sessions during the rainy season, could only meet
during the nights. Since farmers are usually busy on their
farms during the rainy season, the adult learners could
therefore only afford to come to class during night times. For
the classes conducted during the dry season only, the learners
could afford day time classes without much disruption on their
other activities.

Concerning the duration of the sessions, 18.2 percent of
the respondents said the sessions lasted for one hour.
However, the majority of the respondents (that is 81.8
percent) said the sessions lasted for about two hours. None of
the sessions reported lasted for less than one hour or more
than two hours.
4.4.3 **SUBJECTS TAUGHT**

Basic literacy and numeracy were reported to be among the list of subjects taught in all the literacy programmes. Civics, health related topics, and basic management principles were reported by 18.2 percent of the respondents respectively to be part of the curriculum for these literacy/education programmes. Some 45.5 percent of the respondents also indicated skills training as part of the curriculum, while 9.1 percent indicated horticulture.
TABLE 4.6: SUBJECT AREAS TAUGHT IN ADULT LITERACY/EDUCATION PROGRAMMES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBJECT AREAS</th>
<th>RESPONDENTS (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Literacy</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Numeracy</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Skills training</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Horticulture</td>
<td>9.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Civics</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Health related</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Management (Principles)</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n = 11

4.4.4 USEFULNESS OF COURSES

The respondents were asked to indicate the usefulness of the adult literacy/education courses to the farmers in terms of helping them to better cope with their day-to-day operations. While 63.6 percent of the respondents indicated that the courses were most useful, some 45.5 percent said that they were useful. On the contrary 9.1 percent of the respondents indicated that the courses were less useful to the farmers. None of the respondents however, said that the courses were not useful to the farmers. Figure 4.5 illustrates findings in this regard.
4.4.5 ASSISTANCE PROVIDED BY SAVE THE CHILDREN

The adult literacy/education classes in the North Bank Division were assisted and/or supported by Save the Children in a number of ways. Some 72.7 percent of the respondents said the classes were assisted with stationery and reading materials, while 36.4 percent said the classes were provided with Blackboards and Chalks. 27.3 and 36.4 percent of the respondents also said the classes were supported by Save the Children with facilitators and supervisors respectively. Of the respondents, 45.5 percent furthermore said that the classes were assisted with loans from Save the Children. In 1989, Save the Children had issued 6 loans to these classes (representing 25 percent of the total number of classes), and the total value of these loans was D17,000 (about US$2,430.00). However, all the adult literacy/education classes benefited
from one type of assistance or another from Save the Children. The type of assistance provided to these adult literacy/education classes by Save the Children, according to the respondents, could be summarized as follows:

a) Stationery and reading materials
b) Soft-loans
c) Blackboards and Chalks
d) Supervisors and facilitators; and
e) Lights (Kerosine lamps and/or gas lamps)

4.5 PROJECT CRITERIA AND INSTITUTIONAL BUILDING

The findings in this regard are presented and analyzed with respect to the research question raised as to Save the Children's project selection and implementation criteria, and how it ensures the continuity of its completed projects. The rest of this section therefore analyzes the data with view to finding out the answers to the above research question.

4.5.1 PROJECT ADMINISTRATION

When the respondents were asked to indicate the project administration approach of Save the Children in terms of who runs the project, 16.6 percent indicated that the projects were run by a Village Development Committee (VDC). The same proportion of respondents (that is, 16.6 percent), also indicated that the projects were run by Save the Children.
However, 91.6 percent of the respondents further indicated that the projects were jointly run (that is, Save the Children in collaboration with the concerned villagers). Some 8.3 percent indicated others as responsible for the administration of the projects. On the whole, however, the majority (91.6 percent) seemed to have concurred that the projects implemented and/or supported by Save the Children were managed through some form of a collective forum or body. This was further confirmed by 50 percent of the respondents who indicated that decision-making on project selection was done by Save the Children in conjunction with the villagers. Some 25 percent said decisions on project selection were made by the villagers in a village meeting, while another 25 percent, similarly said that decision were made exclusively by the Village Development Committees.

4.5.1.1 SELECTION OF PROJECT LEADERSHIP

When respondents were asked to state how project leadership (within the framework of Save the Children programmes) was selected, 81.8 percent said the villagers selected their own leaders. Some 18.2 percent of the respondents, however, said that the Village Development Committee selected leaders from the village community, to be incharge of particular projects. In both cases though, the selection of the leadership was conducted by a group, of which the villagers were fairly and fully represented. For details on
the appointment and composition of the Village Development Committees, see Chapter 4.5.2.1.

4.5.1.2 CONTENT AND FREQUENCY OF LEADERSHIP MEETINGS

In response to the question of items usually discussed in the meetings of these leaders (as mentioned in 4.5.1.1), 75 percent of the respondents said the meetings usually dwelled on issues related to project planning and management. This could be due to the fact that the dynamics of communal work and/or collective enterprises (like the village projects), require substantial planning and detailed workings so as to enable each and every one involved to exactly know what is required of him/her, and how to attain the goals/objectives of the project. Moreover, issues of project planning and management are usually ongoing issues constantly reviewed, analyzed and adjusted as the situation so demands. Furthermore, 41.6 percent of the respondents also said that the item discussed in these meetings was project participation - that is, devising ways and means of ensuring adequate village participation in the concerned projects. The explanation for this, is to some extent, similar to the one given above for project planning and management. Ensuring participation of the villagers requires contingency management planning on the part of the leadership, in order to deal with each project and each group of villagers on the basis of the given situations. For details of the content of the leadership meetings, see Figure 4.6.
FIG. 4.6: ITEMS USUALLY DISCUSSED IN LEADERSHIP MEETINGS

PERCENTAGE

ITEMS USUALLY DISCUSSED

PPM = Project Planning and Management
PP = Project participation
AM = Acquisition of materials
VLA = Vetting of loan application
OTHERS

In response to the question on the frequency of the meetings of these leaders, 16.7 percent of the respondents said that the meetings were held weekly, while 8.3 percent said they were held fortnightly. Those who said that the meetings were held once every month constitute 41.7 percent of the respondents. However, 50 percent of the respondents also said that the meetings were held only when the need arose. In answering this question, some respondents ticked two possible choices, which could perhaps indicate that there was no general pattern as to when the meetings were
convened. Some Village Development Committees could decide to meet fortnightly while other meet only when the need arose, and when they are all within the Community Development Assistant’s area of operation, the need to tick two possible choices (as some did) would thus arise. Figure 4.7 illustrates the findings as reported above.

**FIG. 4.7: FREQUENCY OF LEADERSHIP MEETINGS**

![Graph showing frequency of leadership meetings](image)

4.5.1.3 **CRITERIA FOR ASSISTANCE**

In response to the question on Save the Children's procedure for assistance to village projects, all the respondents (that is 100 percent) indicated that all the assistance provided by Save the Children were channelled through the Village Development Committees. This could
therefore indicate that Save the Children had a deliberate policy of putting its assistance under the care of these village committees. Such an approach would invariably lower the project administration costs to Save the Children since the involvement (and participation) of the village committees will be geared towards the goals/objectives of the projects with little or no formal administrative regulations by Save the Children.

When asked further as to whether all the projects which were identified by the Village Development Committees in consultation with the Community Development Assistants, had been assisted by Save the Children, 75 percent of the respondents said the projects had been assisted. However, 25 percent on the contrary, said not all the projects identified by the Village Development Committees had assistance by Save the Children. Although the percentage of unassisted projects could not be categorically stated by the respondents, it appears that such unassisted projects were in the minority of cases.

Of those respondents who claimed that not all projects identified were eventually assisted by Save the Children, when they were further asked as to what criteria were used to reject request for assistance, 33.3 percent (of the 25 percent) indicated feasibility considerations, while 63.7 percent indicated funding constraints; sustainability; and/or projects
not considered by Save the Children as a priority for the village community concerned.

4.4.2 GRASSROOT INSTITUTIONAL BUILDING

Some 68.8 percent of the respondents said they have Village Development Committees and/or District Development Committees in their areas, when asked about the presence of these grassroot development committees. However, 31.2 percent of the respondents did not respond to this question, mainly because the nature of their duties is one of a specialized service and thus not requiring the involvement and establishment of committees. Of this category of non-respondents, 83.3 percent were para-medical extension staff within the organization.

By virtue of the responses of the extension workers (Community Development Assistants) whose duties require the services and involvement of the grassroot committees, it seems therefore, that the Village Development Committees and the District Development Committees were very much common within Save the Children operational areas. Furthermore, when the respondents were asked whether these committees were involved in the administration and implementation of the development programmes in their various villages, all the respondents who said they had these committees, acknowledged their involvement and participation. Since all of the committees were claimed to have been involved, none of
the respondents went further (as was requested) to indicate the reasons for the lack of involvement of the committees.

From the responses therefore, the presence of the Village Development Committees and the District Development Committees in the areas concerned was noted. Their involvement and participation in the development activities around their communities was also acknowledged by the majority of the respondents (75 percent). The heavy presence of those local committees might have been influenced by Save the Children's project criteria (see 4.5.1.3) which required all community assistance to be channelled through the concerned local committees.

4.5.2.1 **APPOINTMENT AND COMPOSITION OF VILLAGE DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEES**

In response to the question on the appointment of the Village Development Committee members, all the respondents (that is, 100 percent) indicated that they were appointed by the villagers of their respective villages. This particular question was phrased as a closed-ended question in the questionnaire, thereby containing other probable agents who could have been responsible for the appointment of the committee members. The inclusion of the names of such agents did not however influence the respondents as regards the unanimity of their responses.
When the respondents were further asked as regards the composition (membership) of these Village Development Committees, all of them said that the members only comprised of the villagers. That is to say that the representatives of these Village Development Committees were all chosen from the village populations concerned and virtually no outsider was a member to any Village Development Committee. However, 22 percent of the respondents further indicated that the extension workers in the areas concerned, served in the committees as ex-officio members. The extension workers in the rural areas serving as ex-officio members to the committees could be explained in terms of the uses of their skills and knowledge to the functioning of the committees. Since the majority of the committee members (in some cases all) were illiterate, the village extension worker therefore bridges that gap and could write and read letters, memos, project proposals, donor agencies guides/rules, and other issues which concern the committee’s operations. The findings of this study thus indicate that the Village Development Committee members were representatives chosen from the ranks of the villagers, and furthermore, they were chosen by the villagers concerned.

4.5.3 **UNCOMPLETED PROJECTS AND POSSIBLE REASONS**

50 percent of the respondents said that the projects undertaken by Save the Children were never abandoned before completion. Such a successful rate of project completion could be, in part due to the fact that the villagers were by and
large, involved in the development projects, and the projects were therefore designed to address the problems and issues considered important by the affected villagers. Another partial explanation to this could be that Save the Children extension workers were quite efficient and effective at implementing village development projects, and were thus able to secure the involvement and cooperation of the villagers to the end of the projects as planned. In both cases however, the role and influence of the organization cannot be underrated.

Apart from the respondents who said that the projects were never abandoned before completion, 18.8 percent said that the projects were abandoned before their completion. A further 6.2 percent also claimed that sometimes, some projects undertaken by Save the Children were abandoned. Figure 4.8 further illustrates the findings to this regard.

Of those who said that some projects within Save the Children's programmes were abandoned (25 percent of the respondents) when they were further asked to state the possible reasons for abandoning these uncompleted projects, they said, the reasons were:-

a) lack of funds;
b) Ineffective Village Development Committees;
c) Labour not forthcoming; and
d) Changing circumstances/strategies.
The role of Village Development Committees is very significant to the success of village projects, and their inefficiency and/or ineffectiveness could therefore hamper the implementation of the projects as indicated by the responses above. Besides, when the village Development Committee is ineffective (as stated above), it could have an effect on the villagers concerned, especially with regards to their participation. This could possibly lead to labour shortages in the implementation of the projects. The effects of changing circumstances and/or strategies could understandably bring a development project to a standstill. When the circumstances around the project change-especially in dramatic proportions - the reactions of the villagers could be negative or unfavourable to the interest of the project concerned. Thus situational elements like leadership, contributions to the project, the political and economic micro-environments, which together make-up the circumstance around a project, could have significant consequences for the faith of the development projects.
4.5.3.1 PROJECT MAINTENANCE AND SUSTENANCE

In response to the question on the care of the village development projects, in terms of maintenance and sustenance upon completion, 71.4 percent of the respondents said that the Village Development Committees concerned looked after the projects. Another 42.9 percent of the respondents also said the village community as a whole became responsible for the welfare of the projects. These two categories of responses, therefore clearly indicate that the maintenance and sustenance of the village development projects undertaken within Save the Children programme frameworks, were by and large taken care of by the villages, but mostly through their village representatives. Since the assistance to the projects were channelled through these village committees, it is not therefore difficult to understand this trend whereby the beneficiaries take care of the projects after the
implementation phase. The channelling of resources through the village representatives had probably created a feeling (on the part of the villagers), that the projects were theirs and thus closely associated themselves with those projects. Out of the respondents, only 7.1 percent indicated that the projects were maintained and sustained by Save the Children. Figure 4.9 illustrates the findings to this effect.

**FIG. 4.9 POST-PROJECT CARE**

- **VDC** = Village Development Committee
- **VC** = Village Community
- **SCF** = Save the Children Fund
- **NO RES** = No response
SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The findings of the study have illustrated that Save the Children has considerably improved the performance of its extension staff by virtue of the In-service courses which were organized for them.

Save the Children has also organised and/or supported many income-generating activities in the North Bank Division. By the same vein, it has organized and/or supported adult literacy/education programmes, self-help projects, and grassroots institution building, all of which have some favourable impact/influences on the rural development scene in the North Bank Division.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY

The purpose of this study was to determine the contribution of Save the Children to rural development in the North Bank Division of The Gambia. The determination of this contribution was with respect to the training of extension personnel; income-generation; self-help; adult literacy/education; and project identification and implementation criteria, as well as grassroots institutional building and/or strengthening. The data was therefore collected from the extension workers of Save the Children dispersed all over the Division for this study.

The reviewed literature and previous research findings have however indicated that private, non-governmental organizations can favourably contribute to the rural development process of African countries. This is supported by the findings of this study (as discussed below).

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

This section presents and discusses the conclusions with respect to the following five areas:

1) Training of extension staff;
2) Income-generation;
3) Self-help projects;
4) Adult literacy/education; and
5) Project criteria, and institutional building

5.2.1 TRAINING OF EXTENSION STAFF

All of the extension workers of Save the Children have had ten years (or more) of formal education, with secondary technical school leaving certificates, G.C.E. 'O' levels and/or 'A' levels. The majority (as indicated in Figure 4.1) hold 'O' level Certificates, and/or Secondary technical school leaving certificates of education.

Save the Children did not organize any pre-service courses for its newly recruited extension staff; however, 52.9 percent of the respondents had attended the Community Development Pre-service Training - thus acquiring a National Certificate in Community and Rural Development - before joining the organization. Furthermore, 29.4 percent of the respondents also had attended the Community Health pre-service training and thereby acquired Certificates in that area.

It is therefore evident from the data that although Save the Children did not organize pre-service courses for these staff, all of them (or at least the majority) had so attended pre-service courses elsewhere and were therefore appropriately oriented and prepared for their subsequent extension duties with the organization. Besides, Save the Children organized a substantial number of in-service courses for the extension staff, once they joined the
organization. Within the last 12 months (November 1989 to November 1990), it organized 12 in-service courses and workshops which covered various aspects of the extension workers duties (see table 4.1 for details). The majority of these in-service courses conducted by Save the Children were however process-oriented (relating to the process dimensions of the project planning and implementation cycle). This is similar to the research findings of AID, discussed in Chapter 1, whereby Save the Children training programmes conducted (from June 1982 to February, 1984) were concentrated on the process-related aspects of the extension work; (see appendix D for details of these courses).

Since the bulk of the work of the extension staff relates to these process dimensions of extension service, the respondents generally felt that all the in-service courses they attended were useful to their work situations. None of the respondents rated the in-service course attended as either less useful or not useful. The usefulness of these courses was further (although indirectly) reflected in the work of the extension staff, whereby the organization was enabled to attain a significantly higher rate of project completion with only few uncompleted projects (4.5.3 further discusses this aspect). The in-service courses have enhanced qualitative improvements in the performance and service delivery aspects of the field workers.

However, notwithstanding the favourable ratings of the courses organized by Save the Children, some respondents (25
percent) felt that the courses did not cover some useful aspects of their field work. The identified aspects which were left uncovered by the in-service courses were by and large related to the practical and applicable dimensions of their work - the details are listed in Chapter 4.1.4. These aspects which were identified as not covered by the courses may not be immediately useful or beneficial to the participants, but will inevitably eventually serve them in future extension duties. Learning and education are cumulative in impact, and therefore, the benefits derived from a particular learning exercise or training activity might not be immediately applicable after the exercise, but will certainly become fruitful and relevant in future extension duties. Besides, the duties of the Community Development Assistants require them to be versatile not only in the areas of project planning and management, but also in other areas of interest to their clientele rural communities - even if such areas happen to be of some specialized (and practical) domains. As general purpose change agents, it certainly serves purpose if some of the in-service courses are geared towards their practical concerns related to their extension duties.

The in-service courses were of an average duration of 45 to 60 minutes per subject covered, and this duration was considered appropriate and adequate by the majority of the respondents (75 percent). However, 25 percent of the respondents felt that the duration (that is the time allocated to the subjects) was inadequate. Considering the varying learning/training needs of the individual participants, it is natural for some to feel that the time allocated
for a particular subject area covered should have been more than
was allowed for. The appropriate structuring of the curriculum
content and the delivery process of the inservice courses (as
hypothesized by Chambers and Hyden in 2.1.2) could best be done by
an elaborate analysis of the training needs of the extension staff
prior to the launching of the training courses. Once the true
dimensions of the training needs of the participants are established,
then the in-service courses could be appropriately conducted taking
into account the individual needs of the learners.

5.2.2 INCOME-GENERATION

The extension workers of Save the Children had, (with the
approval and support of the latter), undertaken 131 income-
generating activities over the last 12 months - November 1989 to
1990 - in the North Bank Division. These economic activities
represent a wide variety of income-generating projects (see 4.2.1
for the profiles). The estimated total number of beneficiaries from
these projects (9,305) constitutes 31 percent of the population of
the villages in which Save the Children operates in the North Bank
Division. This percentage of beneficiaries would invariably increase
if one considered the other types of projects (self-help) which also
cover a wide geographical area in the North Bank Division, with
additional number of participants who benefit from Save the
Children programmes (but not necessarily from income-generation
activities).
However, whilst most of the income-generating projects had both male and female participants/beneficiaries, some indeed were sex biased; (Table 4.2 clearly shows this trend). Some types of income-generating activities were exclusively male dominated, while only one kind of project was exclusively female dominated and even that particular project was mainly because of Save the Children's deliberate attempts to off-set the traditional male dominance in the economic struggle in the rural areas. Besides, females may be counted as beneficiaries/participants to some income-generating projects, but qualitative benefits accrued from income-generating projects were more to the favour of the males than females. The numerical representation is therefore only one side of the issue. There is a tendency that those economic projects exclusively benefiting the males had higher returns than the traditional female soap-making and vegetable garden projects.

If rural development continues to support income generation indiscriminately without close attention to issues of who benefits from the generated incomes, then the outcome will almost always be an economic growth but without economic development; this will be as a result of increased incomes of some socio-economic groups to the detriment of other less fortunate groups. In the Save the Children case, the male members of the rural communities will realize increased incomes whilst the females will be disproportionately worse-off. The theory of growth with redistribution (as indicated in 2.1.3) will definitely allow for the attainment of economic growth (through increased) incomes from
these projects) with the expected economic development - by equitably redistributing the additionally generated incomes. The deliberate attempt made by Save the Children (as mentioned above) with regards to promoting and integrating the concerns, problems, and/or needs of the women into the thrust of its programmes, will therefore, go a long way in raising the income-earning capacities (and the general standards of living) of the women - who constitute a significant and an unnegligible proportion of the population. Fortunately, this was recognised by Save the Children (as stipulated in Tall, 1989: 12; mentioned in Chapter 1), and the findings of this study support the full implementation of such a rural development programme approach designed to raise the contribution and integration of the less fortunate members of the rural communities.

Apart from the monetary (or economic) benefits accrued from the income-generating projects implemented by Save the Children, the participants also enjoyed a considerable amount of various non-monetary benefits from the same projects (See Table 4.3 for details of these non-monetary benefits). Although the bulk of these reported non-monetary benefits are by nature non-quantifiable, intangible benefits, they are nonetheless important to the process of raising the living standards and quality of life of the rural peoples. Besides, rural development by definition is not only pegged on economic indicators and measures, but also to a substantial degree, on the non-economic indicators and/or parameters - which are by and large satisfied by these reported non-monetary benefits. The multi-dimensionality of rural development programmes (as
discussed in 2.1) therefore presupposes and requires that some programme impacts/benefits be geared towards other non-economic concerns of the rural people. Moreover, while improving the health standards of the rural people might not be considered as an economic project, it certainly has significant consequences for the economic productivity of the rural peoples. A healthy body and mind works better. This interrelatedness of the factors involved in rural development was thoroughly discussed in 1.1, and thus reasonably justifies the significance of these non-monetary benefits to the rural development process.

It should be noted however, that the reported non-monetary benefits discussed in this study were obtained from the extension workers involved in the projects, and were not directly reported by the actual beneficiaries (that is the rural people who participated in the income-generating projects). However, since the extension workers were closely associated with the projects and the project participants, it is therefore reasonable to expect that their assessments and estimates of these intangible benefits - are by and large reflective of the realities. Besides, for some of the reported non-monetary benefits like increased agricultural implements, and acquisition of skills and experience - the extension workers involved in the projects can definitely be able to offer some information without necessarily asking the concerned rural participants, by virtue of their proximity and close associations.
5.2.3 SELF-HELP PROJECTS

Over the last five years, Save the Children had implemented and supported 111 self-help project within the North Bank Division. The self-help project fall under various categories (as illustrated in 4.3.2), and therefore cater for varying needs/problems of the concerned rural communities.

Of the 111 self-help projects, 23 of them were water related projects - mainly well construction and well digging projects. Given the common problems of water shortages in the North Bank Division, especially during the dry seasons, these water projects assisted by Save the Children were therefore quite appropriate and useful. School building projects were reported by 16 percent of the respondents, causeways and bridge construction projects by 13.5 percent, and pit latrine construction by 14.4 percent, (Table 4.4 provides the details of the self-help projects).

Since the less fortunate rural areas of The Gambia mostly have inadequate and/or inappropriate social facilities and services, these self-help projects therefore fill an important vacuum. The broad aims and purposes of the projects were either to support and encourage primary education by providing the infrastructural facilities mainly through local initiatives; to improve the standard of health in the area; to improve and/or aid agricultural productivity, through the provision of adequate and reliable causeways/bridges; to provide social facilities and services for communal use, such as youth/community centres and feeder roads;
or simply to generate funds which could be used in future community projects. All these aims/purposes are quite legitimate and useful to the under-privileged rural areas of The Gambia.

Save the Children assisted these self-help projects mainly in one of the three modes - materials, technical inputs, and/or cash. All the respondents (that is 100 percent) indicated that Save the Children assisted these self-help projects in the form of materials required for project implementation. Furthermore, 91.7 percent of the respondents also said that the projects were in one way or the other assisted in the form of technical support. These two types of assistance are undoubtedly valuable for the success of self-help projects in the rural areas considering the tremendous resource constraints and lack of technical know-how in the areas concerned. An external assistance (of this nature) which helps the rural people to implement development projects of their choice and at their will is therefore a valuable contribution to the development process of those areas.

The material support/assistance was mainly concentrated on the health, literacy/numeracy projects, and food production and agriculturally oriented projects. Given the nature of rural poverty (discussed in Chapter 1), the concentration of the material support into these areas was justified. These three broad areas when adequately assisted and appropriately channelled, will doubtlessly and favorably enhance the local people to raise their standard of living. The chain-reactions of the benefits accrued from the
assisted health sector will enhance agricultural productivity, and the same interrelationship exists between adult literacy/education and agricultural productivity (as illustrated by the adult literacy theories and research findings stated in 2.1.5).

This provided assistance to self-help projects was rated by the respondents as adequate in terms of the material support (83.3 percent), technical support (91.7 percent), and extension education (41.7 percent). However, the financial assistance was generally rated low in terms of adequacy by the respondents, although some respondents (8.3 percent) said it was adequate, (Table 4.5 provides the details of the ratings). The low ratings of the financial support when viewed from Save the Children's project implementation approach (discussed in 4.5.1.3), is understandably a realistic approach to supporting self-help projects.

The previous research findings (mentioned in 2.1.4) which demonstrated the positive value of self-help projects to rural development elsewhere, have been supported by the data generated from this study. The findings of this study, by and large have indicated that the assisted self-help projects made a valuable contribution to the development process in the country by encouraging and mobilizing local initiatives and participation. Through such local initiatives and participation, the villagers of the North Bank Division have benefited from a number of projects which could not otherwise have been possible if they were to solely rely on government aided development projects. The complementary role of non-government organizations to national Governments (reviewed in
2.4) is therefore reflected here, with respect to Save the Children vis-a-vis The Gambia Government.

5.2.4 ADULT LITERACY/EDUCATION

Save the Children organized and supported 24 adult literacy classes distributed all over the North Bank Division. 91.7 percent of the respondents said they had adult literacy/education programmes in their areas of operation, and the average number of participants per adult literacy/education class was 21 from the responses; (the distribution of the participants per class is illustrated in figure 4.4).

There was no uniform pattern (as reported in 4.4.2) with regards to the duration and frequency of the classes. Some respondents (36.4 percent) said the classes met daily for sessions while 63.6 percent said they met twice every week. Similarly, 91 percent said the classes were conducted only during the dry season, while 9.1 percent to the contrary, said they were conducted only during the rainy season. However, no class went all year round.

Since adult literacy/education process is a non-formal type of education programme, this diverging schedule of the literacy classes could be understood in that context. No rigid, formal class schedules can be stipulated for all the classes for all the times as with formal school educational systems. Farmers had to be left to decide the appropriate times and durations for their classes, which had to be chosen in line with their other daily concerns. This is furthermore
in agreement with the adult literacy/education theories (as reviewed in 2.1.5), which state that the success of the literacy programmes was dependent on their relevance to the time/space/life of the learners. If 30 minutes per week was all what the adult learners could afford from their busy daily schedules, then that is the appropriate schedule for that particular adult literacy class.

Literacy and numeracy were reported to have been part of the curriculum of all the classes. Beyond these two subject areas, there was no general agreement as to the precise content of the curriculum, with respondents indicating skills training (45 percent), civics, management and health (18.2 percent respectively), and Horticulture (9.1 percent). However, it is clearly indicated in table 4.6 that the subject areas taught in these classes were both of literacy types and also of functional types. This was important since the adult farmers in those classes had problems and concerns which extend beyond the ordinary confines of reading and writing. A way of incorporating their interests, problems, and/or concerns into the curriculum was to make the classes and the learning experiences appropriately functional and thereby geared towards the relevant local environments of the learners. In this way, one can teach a farmer how to read and tie that reading ability/skill to (for instance) how to read instructions written on a fertilizer bag (which is directly relevant to the farmers wider economic environment).
The adult literacy/education courses conducted by Save the Children were all reported to be useful - though in varying proportions (as illustrated in figure 4.5) - and none was reported to be not-useful to the daily operations and concerns of the adult learners. However, this aspect of the data ought to be interpreted with caution because the respondents were not the actual beneficiaries/adult learners. Although the respondents (the community Development Assistants) were actively involved in these adult literacy/education programmes and had some general insights as to how the classes had benefited the participants, they nevertheless, can be able to determine with precision the views of the learners as regards the usefulness of the classes to their daily operations. The responses from the actual participants could point to other directions not indicated by the respondents in this study. Having noted this, it should be indicated that in the absence of such possibilities, the estimates of the extension workers can be generally instructive as to the extent of the usefulness of the courses conducted in this respect.

Save the children assisted and supported these classes in a number of ways. It provided loans to some of them, 25 percent of the classes benefited from such loans in 1989, with a total value of D17,000 (approximately US$ 2,430.00). Apart from granting loans to these participants of the adult literacy classes, it also assisted them by providing:

1. Stationery and reading materials
2. Blackboards and chalks
3. Lighting equipments for classes at night; and
4. Supervisors and facilitators.

When all the data, with respect to save the children's role to adult literacy/education, generated from this study is put together, it becomes clear that it significantly assisted adult literacy in the North Bank Division. Furthermore, the classes had some utility value to the participants, although the exact extent cannot be verified in this study - for lack of direct access to the learners concerned.

5.2.5. PROJECT CRITERIA AND INSTITUTIONAL BUILDING

In determining the specific nature of save the children's project criteria, 91.6 percent of the respondents maintained that the projects implemented in their areas were jointly run by save the children in collaboration with the concerned villagers. Furthermore, 50 percent of the respondents also said that the decision making in terms of project selection was done by save the children in conjunction with the villagers. Some 25 percent in this regard maintained that the decisions on project selection were made exclusively by the villagers in a village meeting, (see 4.5.1 for specific details). Similarly, another 25 percent of the respondents said decisions on project selection were made by the village Development Committees concerned in those areas. From these responses therefore, it was clear that the decisions on project selection were made either exclusively by the villagers and/or their village Development Committee members, or by save the children but in consultation with the concerned villagers. In either case, the
approach is definitely suggestive of a participatory project criteria which allowed for optimum local involvement right from the decision making phase of the selection of the projects.

As regards the selection of the project leadership within the framework of save the children programmes, (as discussed in 4.5.1.1), 81.8 percent of the respondents indicated that the villagers selected their own leaders for these projects. Some 18.2 percent, however, said that the village Development Committee selected leaders from the village community, to be in charge of the particular projects. In both cases therefore, the leadership was selected democratically and thereby representative of the village communities affected.

The leaders met with varying frequencies (Illustrated in figure 4.7) and discussed relevant aspects of the particular development projects. The specific items usually discussed in these leadership meetings (identified in figure 4.6), vary but nonetheless, were virtually all related to the relevant aspects of their projects; and these discussed items were all related to development and its attending processes.

This reported pattern of project implementation (with the participation of the villagers and/or through their elected representatives), was further supported and strengthened by the nature of Save the Children's criteria for assistance to the development projects (discussed in 4.5.1.3). All the respondents
(that is 100 percent) maintained that all the assistance provided by Save the Children were channelled through the village Development Committees. Placing the available external assistance in the hands of the concerned local participants, by implication facilitated their participation and commitment to the particular projects. This aspect lends support to the theories of participation in relation to development projects (as reviewed in 2.2), and was of valuable significance to the success of Save the Children projects (indicated in 4.5.3).

Furthermore, given the overall involvement of the local people by virtue of the organization's criteria for assistance, 75 percent of the respondents further maintained that all the projects which were identified by the villagers in consultation with the Community Development Assistants had been assisted by Save the Children. Although 25 percent, to the contrary, said that some projects identified had not been subsequently assisted by Save the Children (due to various reasons which were explained in 4.5.1.3), these unassisted projected were definately in the minority of cases. Besides, the reasons given for the rejection for assistance to those projects, were by and large genuine considerations which any sponsoring agency would scrutinize before committing its funds. Most of the reasons identified by the respondents were issues which hinged on local factors and feasibility constraints which were essential for the proposed projects - but mostly beyond the direct control of save the children.
Indirectly though, save the children can favorably influence these locally constraining factors, through attempts geared towards the establishment of individual village Development Committees (VDCs). The theory behind the establishment of these grassroot, development-oriented institutions and their significance as documented by previous research findings were reviewed in 2.3.2. In this regard, 68.8 percent of the respondents said that they had village Development Committee and/or District Development Committees in their respective areas of operations. Furthermore, all those who acknowledged the presence of these grass root institutions in their respective regions (that is 68.8 percent of the respondents), further maintained that all the village/District Development Committees had been involved in the administration and implementation of the various development programmes in their respective villages. Besides, (as discussed in 4.5.2.1), the appointment and composition of these village Development Committees was a function of the collective village decisions reached through democratic consensus. 100 percent of the respondents maintained that the members of the various village Development Committees had been virtually appointed by the villagers of the concerned Communities. In addition, all of the members of the village Development Committees were comprised of the villagers chosen from the ranks of the represented electorates. This meant that the members were chosen from within the villages and by implication, they were representative of the village Community.
The developmental implications of the grassroot institutional theories hinted above, further suggested that the appropriate establishment of these institutions will favourably influence the project implementation phase of the organization. This has definitively been the case with regards to the projects reviewed in this study. The majority of the projects initiated by Save the Children had been successfully completed (as explained in 4.5.3). Even the minority of cases (reported by 25 percent of the respondents) whereby some projects had been abandoned, the reasons stated for such abandonments were more of village dynamics and problems of changing circumstances/strategies (see the complete list of these reasons in 4.5.3). However, the reported cases of abandoned projects were definitively in the minority (illustrated in figure 4.8) and the record speaks well in favour of Save the Children's projects.

With respects to project maintenance and sustenance within the framework of Save the Children programmes, 71.4 percent of the respondents said that the Village Development Committees concerned looked after the completed projects. In addition, 42.9 percent of the respondents also said that the village community as a whole became responsible for the welfare of the projects - the details are illustrated in figure 4.9. It is therefore clear that the post-project care and administration was catered for by the villagers and/or with their village representatives.
However, one is inclined to wonder whether these villagers and their respective representatives actually had the capabilities to sustain these development projects - as reported above. Several factors will invariably have to be considered in view of such skepticism. The ability (and even the willingness) of the local participants to sustain the development projects, to a great extent, relies on the level of technology used in the project (discussed in 2.3.3.), and the project approach of the implementing agency (as in 2.4). When the technological considerations have taken the relevant local conditions into account, then the ability and willingness of the local people to sustain the project upon completion, is usually higher. Besides, if the implementing agency (in this case, Save the Children), genuinely involves the concerned rural people right from the conception and planning phases of the projects, then the villagers will most likely be adequately committed to and responsible for the projects even after the external assistance has been phased out. Considering these factors against the evidence provided by the study, there is therefore, higher chances that the villagers will continue to look after the completed projects. The heavy representation and participation reported above, by the concerned villagers, presupposes that the projects were geared towards their felt needs and therefore relevant to their conditions/problems. This goes to ensuring that they will continue to look after the projects in the post-implementation era.

In summary, it is evident as regards the research questions raised in 1.4 above that:-
a) In-service courses and on-the-job training do in fact enhance the quality of the performance of the rural development extension personnel; and although Save the Children did not have the need to organize pre-service courses, it had nonetheless offered a considerable numbers of in-service courses to the extension staff.

b) The in-services courses offered by Save the Children were relevant to the performance of the extension staff, and the duration and timing were also considerably appropriate.

c) Income generating activities undertaken by Save the Children had actually helped the participants to raise their incomes, although the distribution of the generated income appeared to be in equitable with respect to the sexes involved.

d) The adult literacy/education programmes sponsored by Save the Children had by and large, benefited the participants, and their content, duration and timing were generally favorably rated, and accordingly appropriate.

e) Self-help projects were assisted considerably (both materially, financially, and technically) by Save the Children, and these projects had invariably facilitated the rural development process in the North Bank Division.

f) Village/District Development Committees were very much an integral feature of Save the Children's programme approach, and they had greatly (and favorably) influenced the project implementation and administration. Furthermore, all of these
grassroots institutions were democratically elected and thus representative of the village communities concerned.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Emerging from and supported by the findings of this study, the following set of recommendations will go a long way in improving the contributions of the non-governmental organizations if and when they are given due considerations. The recommendations will also be of valuable use to the government in terms of project design and management in the future.

5.3.1 TRAINING OF EXTENSION STAFF

The In-service courses conducted by the Save the Children should be continued with the same vigour and frequency, because they significantly contribute to the qualitative improvement of the performance of the participants. However, Save the Children needs to conduct training needs assessment on the field workers so as to determine the specific nature and needs (of training) of the individual Community Development Assistants. This will enable the In-service courses to address the needs of the Community Development Assistants more relevantly. In this regard, the conducted courses will reflect the needs of the participants and
most probably the courses will include some practical agricultural topics and/or subject areas - as these were the areas the extension workers expressed desires for more coverage in the future inservice courses.

In addition to these in-service courses conducted internally, Save the Children should encourage and give more support to the pre-service training programmes conducted by the Rural Development Institute of the Department of Community Development. Such a programme support to the Rural Development Institute will undoubtedly help the Community Development process with adequately trained extension personnel, as well as assist other rural development agencies - including Save the Children itself who in turn considerably rely on the Institute for their supply and pre-service training of their extension personnel. Considering the rather expensive nature of running and maintaining a rural development training centre like the Rural Development Institute, the efforts of the Department should of necessity be augmented by other external, rural development agencies - more so, if they benefit (directly or indirectly) from the services and/or the products of the Institute.

Besides, the support and assistance given to the Rural Development Institute in this respect will squarely be within the overall programme objectives of Save the Children, as indicated in 1.1. Apart from guaranteeing that the pre-service courses given to the Community Development Assistants (whom Save the Children later use in the extension field) are appropriate and adequate, the
support and strengthening of the Rural Development Institute will also have the added advantage of generally strengthening the rural development process in The Gambia, through proper and adequate community development pre-service training.

Support to the Rural Development Institute could obviously take many and varied forms. However, with regards to the present handicaps/areas of concern in which such support will be significantly instrumental and far-reaching, the following areas significantly need help: a) assisting training efforts of the Institute to further train the existing lecturers in their various subject specialities. This would have a long-term effect on the Institute's performance especially in relation to the quality of the graduates so produced from the Institute; b) Assisting the Institute with respect to some of its material needs, technical support and generally helping to fund some of its research needs or contribute to such expenses - like helping to support its regular annual field research activities, providing the library with relevant reading/research documents; and c) Collaborative training and/or research programmes whereby the Institute's staff will be accorded the rare opportunity to test and match their rural development theories to the existing field realities, and at the same time offer some concrete and valuable services to Save the Children by way of such action-researches and/or collaborative training exercises. In all of these cases, the benefits to be derived from the given assistance will in due course (or immediately) be felt within Save the Children's programme frameworks. The specific modalities and
appropriate framework within which the particular support and/or assistance could be given are subject to inter-organizational negotiations between Save the Children and the Department of Community Development.

5.3.2 INCOME-GENERATION

Given the fact that the per capita rural income of The Gambia - including the North Bank Division - is D540.00 ($77.36) as compared to the Urban per capita income of D1,670.00 ($239.26), as indicated in 1.1 above, it is therefore very necessary to promote economic activities in the rural areas which will increase the income earning capabilities of these less fortunate rural people. Besides, the encouragement of rural economic opportunities will favorably give an additional impetus to the overall national Development process, as the development process will be enhanced towards achieving some degree of income distribution and equality - by virtue of the additionally generated incomes from the less fortunate rural groups - explained in Chenery, 2.1.3.

However, while the continued promotion of income-generation is essential, the issue of female representation and beneficiaries should always be an important consideration in the execution of these projects. Because when rural development merely encourages income-generation without regards to the distribution of the generated incomes (as mentioned by Meier 2.1.3), the process tends to lead to more income inequalities, and thus staunted national economic development in the country. Since women work equally
hard - if not harder - than men, (Boserup as cited in 2.1.3 has clearly demonstrated this), they should be therefore accorded with equal economic opportunities from these income-generating projects. In these regards, the findings of this study have amassed enough evidence (see table 4.2) to justify the recommendation that women should be given more attention (and priorities where applicable) in the projects assisted by Save the Children, so as to balance the sex representation and beneficiaries of the income generating activities. The example of the retail business projects (discussed in 4.2.2) is a step towards this direction, and the policy pronouncements of Save the Children (as in Tall, 1989: 12 mentioned above) should be fully implemented in order to adequately raise the income of the women folks in the North Bank Division.

Furthermore, the considerations of the organization - in terms of project selection, implementation, and appraisal - should focus also on the non-monetary benefits that could be accrued from those particular projects. These non-monetary benefits, although non-quantifiable and intangible by nature, are significant to the rural development process and ought to be given more weight than has been hitherto the case. As is evident from table 4.3, most of these intangible, non-monetary benefits will be of immense benefits to the rural participants, and will also be of further instrumental benefits to the success of future projects/development efforts in those areas. For example, the acquired skills/experience and the improvement of diets-although intangible and may have been by-products to the originally conceived objectives of the concerned
projects - were undoubtedly significant contributions in themselves and also of promised value to the future development projects in the villages concerned.

Non-governmental organizations are often inclined to go in for projects which have the potential to yield immediate and tangible results which can be visible and demonstrable to their credits (as mentioned in 2.4), and hence this approach tends to influence their project selection and appraisal methods. Save the Children (and preferably all the other non-governmental organizations in The Gambia) should be alert to this and thereby be more willing and ready to positively consider the intangible, non-monetary benefits that could be possibly accrued from their projects.

5.3.3 SELF-HELP PROJECTS

Given the general resource inadequacy and constraints on the part of the Central Government, and to some extent, the non-governmental organizations (indicated in 1.1); and further considering the need for and benefits of local participation to the development process (reviewed in 2.2 above), self help projects and self-help groups therefore play a vital role in the rural development process, particularly in The Gambia - see 4.3. By virtue of this vital role performed by self-help groups/projects, they relieve the Central Government, and in part, the external donor agencies from meeting some part of the project costs - either through contributing 'free-labour', materials, and/or some other cost requirements - without which the implementing agency will have to incur as part of
the overall project costs. Besides, self-help groups undertake on their own, many meaningful, low-cost development projects in the rural areas, which serve some functional roles. These projects - usually on small-scale, and on available local resources - serve many and varied functions to the rural people, which are definitely vital for their survival - as illustrated in 4.3.1. The non-governmental organizations should therefore take stock of the roles performed by these self-help projects and thereby seriously consider granting assistance to them, especially assistance in the form of required project materials and technical support.

Save the Children, in particular, has done a commendable job in this regard, and should continue the trend and magnitude of the assistance provided to these self-help projects in the North Bank Division (as illustrated in 4.3). However, whilst the researcher hesitates to recommend herein that Save the Children should improve on its financial record assistance where possible (as mentioned in table 4.5) because of reasons indicated earlier in 4.3, it should nonetheless always critically consider and assess the individual financial needs of the self-help projects and thereby offer assistance as the situation so demands. This calls for a more closer working approach and attention to the self-help groups/projects, in order to better determine their financial needs and requirements.
5.3.4 ADULT LITERACY/EDUCATION

In a region of high adult illiteracy, such as the North Bank Division of The Gambia, a rural development process that encourages and supports efforts directed towards the literacy and education of the concerned adults can only be recommended. Moreover, such is in congruence with almost all the known theories of rural development as reviewed in 2.1.5 above.

Non-governmental organizations should therefore be encouraged by the Gambia government to seriously consider and promote adult literacy/education programmes within the framework of their respective programmes. Irrespective of the programme objectives and goals of the development agencies in the rural areas of The Gambia - governmental or non-governmental - education in general and adult literacy/education in particular, invariably and favourably influence the long-term goals of these development programmes. Illiteracy of adults (as indicated by Makokha and Bhola respectively in 2.1.5), has significant unfavourable bearings on the development programmes/projects they undertake, and usually inhibits the optimum exploitation of their talents and potentials in relation to their development programmes. For the long-term benefits of rural development and for considerations of the overall national development in The Gambia, adult literacy should be given a more positive encouragement and support.

In this regard, Save the Children has undoubtedly taken the lead in many respects - as discussed in 4.4. above - and should be
encouraged to strengthen the already established classes in the near future and where and when possible, phase them out as self-propelling and self-reliant adult learning centres. Save the Children should be, further encouraged to expand into yet other unassisted villages and regions within and outside the North Bank Division, especially with respect to its adult literacy/education programme assistance. Such a gradual approach of expansion and intensification with regards to adult education will definitely benefit the long-term prospects of the development process in The Gambia.

5.3.5 PROJECT CRITERIA

The particular set of project criteria adopted by a non-governmental organization always has significant repercussions for the future of its programmes, especially with respect to local participation, sustainability of the completed projects, and post-project management, after phasing out the initial fundings. These project criteria in relation to Save the Children projects were discussed in Chapter 4 above. The project criteria can preclude the participation (or otherwise) of the local people; it can influence, either favourably or negatively, the sustenance of the development projects, once completed; and by the same token, it determines whether or not the development projects will be adequately looked after by the intended beneficiaries, upon the withdrawal of the external sponsoring agency (as reviewed in Chapter 2). These considerations all point to one direction, and that is, the importance of scrutinizing and synchronizing the project criteria and approaches of the private, non-governmental organizations involved
in rural development, so as to make their efforts complementary to, and congruent with those of the Central Government.

With the declared pronouncements of The Gambia government as to the premium attached to participatory and sustainable rural development (indicated in 1.1), it is therefore necessary to strengthen the association of Non-governmental organizations (TANGO) so as to facilitate the achievement of these desired national goals. In addition to the strengthening of TANGO, the non-governmental organizations should also be made to carefully design their project criteria/approaches in order to allow for genuine local contributions and effective participation. Through such a grassroot, participatory project approach, the rural development projects undertaken by the non-governmental organizations will thereby be made not only relevant to local needs/problems, but will also be more adequately supported by the villagers and thus better sustained and maintained.

The project approach by Save the Children whereby all assistance were channelled through the project committees or Village Development Committees had worked well in the North Bank Division and should therefore be more thoroughly studied and emulated (where applicable) by other non-governmental organizations elsewhere in other regions of The Gambia. Moreover, this approach further encourages and allows the affected villagers to be more responsible and committed to the development projects in their areas.
5.3.6 GRASSROOTS INSTITUTIONAL BUILDING

Participatory rural development process whereby the recipient villagers are treated as equal partners in the development venture, has demonstrably positive effects for the success of the development programmes/projects (as discussed in 4.5.2), and it further influences the attitudes and commitment of the villagers towards the care and management of the projects, even after the completion of the implementation phases and subsequent expiration of external fundings.

Save the Children has established and/or supported a number of Village Development Committees in the various villages of the North Bank Division (see 4.5.2), and these village institutions have demonstrated considerable impacts on the development programmes/projects in their respective villages. There is therefore adequate evidence in favour of the establishment of and support to Village Development Committees in other regions of the country, and to make them unavoidable features in the development process - such was also recommended by the AID study referred to in 1.1. The Gambia government and the respective non-governmental organizations should seriously adopt the approach of rural development whereby village intervention will be made solely through the respective Village Development Committees of the areas concerned.
To further strengthen and integrate the Village Development Committees into the wider national development process, the required District Development Committees should also be subsequently established and/or strengthened so as to provide a smoother and logical channel for the development process from the grassroots right through to the higher national levels. However, it should be mentioned here that the appointment and composition of these Village-District Development Institutions should freely and democratically be conducted by the affected villagers, if they are to escape the problems of dictatorship and undemocratic tendencies, which are detrimental to the development of the rural areas in the country. The process and mechanisms of the appointment and composition of the Village Development Committees in the North Bank Division as supported by Save the Children (discussed in 4.5.2) will be instructive and insightful in this regard.

5.4 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

Some of the recommendations made above, especially those touching on the grassroots institutional building and project criteria, definately presuppose a clear determination and willingness on the part of The Gambia government to effectively make the rural development process more participatory, democratic, and sustainable - as suggested in the National Development Plans mentioned in 1.1 above. Therefore, attempts by individual governmental departments and/or non-governmental organizations with regard to these recommendations and in the absence of such policy directions and enforcements by the Central Government may
be frustrating and not very rewarding. These particular recommendations were therefore made in view of The Gambia Government’s commitments and willingness to implement the contents of the document referred to above.

However, the non-governmental organizations operating in The Gambia have an opportunity to explore in this regard. The association of the non-governmental organizations which is formally and officially recognized by the government, can be an effective forum whereby the concerns, problems, aspirations and/or plans of the member organizations can be effectively transmitted to the relevant Central Government authorities. This association therefore presents an opportunity to the non-governmental organizations to influence the government with regards to the implementation of the policy documents referred to.

Besides, the integration and coordination of programme/project criteria recommended in 5.3.5 further requires the willingness and cooperation of the various non-governmental organizations in the country. Again, TANGO can and should be instrumental here, in order to ensure the optimum required inter and intra-organizational coordination and integration, without undue hindrance/interference in the detail operations of the member organizations.

Finally, the policy implications of the recommended grassroot, participatory rural development approach in this study, in relation
to the organizational structural demands of the concerned rural development agencies is not without significance. The rural development agencies will invariably have to reconsider their internal organizational structures and accordingly readjust (where necessary) with a view to making the organizations more responsive, appropriate, and flexible as the relevant rural societal dynamics may dictate. This will also be a step toward making the concerned organizations more permissive of and encouraging to the "bottom-up" rural development approach which is relevant to these recommendations. Unfortunately however, the study falls short of proposing specific organizational changes and/or rearrangements necessary for the implementation of these recommendations, since the individual organizational forms/structures in The Gambia differ considerably; and furthermore, the degree and extent to which a participatory, bottom-up approach is desired by the organization will in turn influence (if not dictate) the nature and extent of the required organizational engineering. What cannot be escaped in all organizations intending to adopt this recommended approach is some measure of structural readjustments (minor or major) before any reasonable breakthrough could be achieved in the rural areas in The Gambia.

5.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

With the view of making the grassroots institutions better adoptive and responsive to the needs/problems of the concerned villagers, more studies should be conducted (by future researchers) so as to ascertain the positive and replicable features of the already
established Village Development Committees in the North Bank Division. Such descriptive studies will in the future, help the other regions/villages to learn from the development experiences of the villagers in the North Bank Division, as well as enhance the quality contribution of the newly established grassroot development institutions. Furthermore, besides the apparent practical utility which can be derived from the findings of such researches, the studies themselves will go a long way into contributing to the understanding of the dynamics of village, development-oriented institutions, and thereby, making a valuable contribution to the growing knowledge in development management studies.

Studies should also be conducted on the non-governmental organizations operating in The Gambia, with respects to the specific nature and quality of their respective project criteria and the extent to which such criteria/approaches allow for local inputs and/or participation in the rural development process. Such comparative/multi-organizational research approach in this direction is apt to reveal a diversity and/or richness in project approach, which will be of use to The Gambia Government and the non-governmental organizations in their future rural development programme designs and management processes. Moreover, the more data and information available to development planners and administrators (especially on areas of programme design and the relationships between particular designs and implementation processes), the more they are able to design appropriate rural development programmes and eventually better administer these
programmes. Further research efforts in this direction will therefore be a contribution to the qualitative improvement of the rural development process in the country.
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APPENDICES

A. Administrative map of the Gambia

B. Sample Questionnaire-

C. Nature of Save the Children's Projects

D. Training workshops organized by Save the Children (1982-1984)

E. Self-help projects undertaken over the last five years, by type of project, percentage of Community Development Assistants (CDAs) involved and Project Sub-total-
APPENDIX A

ADMINISTRATIVE MAP OF THE CTAMBIA

DIVISIONAL BOUNDARIES

[Diagram showing boundaries and regions, including North Bank, Lower River, Western, and Upper River.]
THE RESEARCH IS PART OF WORK TOWARDS MASTER'S DEGREE IN M.O.D.

Name...........................................(optional) Age...........................................

Sex................................................Designation...........................................

District.........................................Station............................................... 

Level of Educational attainment: (Please tick the appropriate boxes)

a. Secondary Four School Leaving Certificate

b. G.C.E. - 'O' Level Certificate

c. G.C.E. - 'A' Level Certificate

d. Diploma Certificate

e. Others - specify ...........................................

Please list the Courses you have attended and the length of these courses since leaving school.

a. Pre-Service Courses

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b. In-Service Courses

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</tbody>
</table>

c. Of the courses you have attended over the last 12 months, Please list those organized by Save-the-Children Federation.

(a) .............................................
(b) .............................................
(c) .............................................
(d) .............................................
6. a. Identify aspects which you learnt in the courses you have attended in the last 12 months which are useful to you in your work situation in the following order:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Most Useful</th>
<th>Useful</th>
<th>Less Useful</th>
<th>Not Useful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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</table>

b. Identify the most useful aspects of your work which were not covered in the courses you have attended in the last 12 months.

i. .................................................

ii. .................................................

iii. .................................................

7. a. How much time was allocated on average to the individual subject covered during these training sessions?

i. 30 minutes per subject [ ]

   [ ]

ii. 45 minutes per subject [ ]

   [ ]

iii. 1 hour per subject [ ]

   [ ]

iv. 1 day per subject [ ]

   [ ]

b. How do you rate the timing of the subjects covered in these courses?

   Too Long: [ ]

   Adequate: [ ]

   Inadequate: [ ]

Please list below the types and number of Income-generating projects you have undertaken in your area of operation within the last five years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(b)</td>
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<td>(c)</td>
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<td>(d)</td>
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<td>(e)</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

For each of the Income-generating projects undertaken above, please list the approximate number of participants involved, by sex in the table provided below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROJECT</th>
<th>MALES</th>
<th>FEMALES</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td>c</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. From the above income-generating project, indicate the estimated net earnings for each participant as provided in the table below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Project</th>
<th>Estimated Earnings For:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. What are the other benefits enjoyed by the participants of these projects besides the monetary gains?
   a. 
   b. 
   c. 
   d. 

12. Please list below, the type and number of Self-help Projects undertaken in your area of operation over the last five years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type / Category</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. Which of the following Services are provided by these Self-help Projects? (Please tick in the appropriate boxes only.)
   a. Provision of Communication facilities and Services
   b. Provision of Educational facilities and Services
   c. Provision of Health facilities and Services
   d. Provision of Youth Recreation facilities and Services
   e. Enhancing the participation of villagers in development works
   f. Others - Specify
14. Who runs the projects?
   a. Project Committees
   b. S.C.F. (Save the Children Federation)
   c. Jointly
   d. Others - specify __________________________

15. Please state how project leadership identified above is selected:

16. List what items are usually discussed in the meetings of these leadership:
   a. __________________________
   b. __________________________
   c. __________________________
   d. __________________________

17. How often do these Project Committees meet?
   a. Weekly
   b. Once every two weeks
   c. Monthly
   d. Occasionally
   e. When the need arises

18. a. What procedures does S.C.F. (Save the Children) follow to provide assistance?

   __________________________

   b. Are all projects identified and approved by project committees in consultation with the Community Development Assistants (CDAs) assisted by (S.C.F.)?

      Yes □
      No □
18. c. If no, what criteria are used to reject requests for assistance?

________________________________________________________________________

19. a. The kinds of assistance provided to these Self-help Project groups by S.C.F. are: (Please tick the appropriate boxes only).

i  Material assistance for project implementation

ii  Financial assistance

iii  Food for work

iv  Technical support (when required)

v  Extension Education

vi  Others - specify __________________________________________________________________________

b. How would you rate these assistance: (Tick as appropriate)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adequate</th>
<th>Inadequate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i  Material assistance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ii  Financial assistance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iii  Food for work</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iv  Technical support</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v  Extension Education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vi  Others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20 a. Do you have any Adult Literacy Programme in your area of operation?

Yes []

No []

b. If yes, how many Adult Literacy classes are there?

i  < 2

ii  3 - 4

iii  5 - 6

iv  7 - 8

v  9 - 10

vi  10 >

21 What is the average number of participants per class?

a.  < 10  d.  31 - 40

b.  11 - 20  e.  41 >

c.  21 - 30
22. How often do they meet for sessions?
   a. Daily
   b. Twice a week
   c. Weekly
   d. Once in two weeks
   e. Monthly
   f. Others - specify ____________________________

23. What is the estimated duration of each session?
   a. 45 minutes
   b. One hour
   c. Two hours
   d. Others - specify ____________________________

24. Please list the subject areas in which these participants are instructed:
   a. ____________________________
   b. ____________________________
   c. ____________________________
   d. ____________________________
   e. ____________________________
   f. ____________________________

25. How useful are these courses to the farmers in their day-to-day operations?
   a. Most useful
   b. Useful
   c. Less useful
   d. Not useful
   e. Don't know

26. When are these Adult Literacy Sessions held? (Please tick as appropriate)
   a. Dry Season only
   b. Rainy Season only
   c. All Year round
   d. Day time only
   e. Night time only
   f. Both day and night times
Please list the type of support given to these Adult Literacy classes by S.C.F. and the number of classes which benefited from such S.C.F. support.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Support</th>
<th>Number</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>b.</td>
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<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Who makes the decision as to which project to select in your area of operation?

a. Save the Children (S.C.F.)

b. Project Committee

c. Villagers in a Community Meeting

d. S.C.F. in Consultation with Villagers

e. Others - specify

Who appoints project committee members, if any?

Who are the members of these project committees?

1. 
2. 
3. 
4. 
5. 

Are there any village development committees and/or District development committees in your area of operation?

- Yes
- No

If Yes, are they involved in the various projects you undertake in their respective villages?

- Yes
- No
- Sometimes

If they are not involved, please state why
Who looks after the self-help projects, in terms of maintenance and sustainability, once they are completed?

a. The Project Committees  

b. The Village Development Committees  

c. The Village Community  

d. Save the Children  

Are some of the projects initiated abandoned at some point before their completion?

- Yes  
- No  
- Sometimes  

If some are abandoned, please state clearly why______________________________________________

______________________________________________

Thank you! I wish you all the Success in your endeavours in the Field.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VILLAGE</th>
<th>PROJECTS</th>
<th>NO. OF BENEFICIARIES</th>
<th>% OF IN-KIND CONTRIBUTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MBOLLET BAI</td>
<td>1. Communal Farm On-going</td>
<td>900+ Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>70.85% Funds spent successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Ox-Cart On-going</td>
<td>900</td>
<td>7.9 %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. VIP Latrine On-going</td>
<td>Prototype</td>
<td>19.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Communal Farm On-going</td>
<td>210 Rice Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>88.52% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. School Enrichment &quot;</td>
<td>338 Children</td>
<td>10.52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Vegetable Garden On-going</td>
<td>889 Women &amp; Families</td>
<td>42.10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. School Construction &quot;</td>
<td>889 Children</td>
<td>86.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Nearly completed under revised budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KERR MANA</td>
<td>1. Vegetable Garden On-going</td>
<td>500 Women &amp; Families</td>
<td>61.62%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. School Furniture On-going</td>
<td>180 Children</td>
<td>Part success, wells ran dry Successful (Onions rotted)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KERR CHIRNO</td>
<td>1. Village Garden On-going</td>
<td>1900 Women &amp; Families</td>
<td>41.40% Successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. School Furniture On-going</td>
<td>564 Children</td>
<td>41.40% Successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PAKAU NJOKU</td>
<td>1. School Furniture On-going</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>70.30% Successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Tie-dying</td>
<td>Women</td>
<td>10/01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. School Environment On-going</td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>70/31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KERR NOONIAN</td>
<td>1. School Construction On-going</td>
<td>80 pupils</td>
<td>7.23% Construction to continue under revised budget</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Communal Farm On-going</td>
<td>400 Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>56.59% Part success, poor rains/ harvest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DARSI LAMI</td>
<td>1. School Canteen On-going</td>
<td>200 Children</td>
<td>58.10% Funded, construction begun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Communal Coos Farm On-going</td>
<td>500+ Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>67.06% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOOFAN</td>
<td>1. Village Garden On-going</td>
<td>100 Women</td>
<td>47.50% No wells dug first year</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. School Construction On-going</td>
<td>300 Children</td>
<td>- Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEDINA SERIGN KASS</td>
<td>1. School Construction On-going</td>
<td>350 Women</td>
<td>9.05% Completed, no furniture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>2. Village Garden On-going</td>
<td>850 Women &amp; Families</td>
<td>49.92% Incomplete, no wells dug</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Onion Storage &amp; Tomato Paste Processing</td>
<td></td>
<td>56.28% Construction to begin shortly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village</td>
<td>Projects</td>
<td>No. of Beneficiaries</td>
<td>% of In-Kind Contribution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>FASS OMAR SAHO</td>
<td>1. Communal Farm</td>
<td>On-going 1000</td>
<td>70.39% Unsuccessful, poor rains/harvest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Poultry &amp; Egg Production</td>
<td>On-going</td>
<td>1st Phase moderate success; 2nd Phase planned</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BALLI</td>
<td>1. Cassave Farm</td>
<td>On-going 300 Farmers</td>
<td>33.70% Unsuccessful, people not motivated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Latrine Construction</td>
<td>On-going 400 Villagers</td>
<td>18.69% Successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHILLA</td>
<td>1. Communal Farm</td>
<td>On-going 2500 All Villagers</td>
<td>Successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Vegetable Garden</td>
<td></td>
<td>Part success, problems with present CDA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BAKANG/KEKANTABA</td>
<td>1. Village Garden</td>
<td>On-going 1000 Women &amp; Families</td>
<td>59.73% Funds spent, building almost completed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Women's Programme</td>
<td>On-going 98 Women</td>
<td>33.04% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NJAHARA</td>
<td>1. Seed Store</td>
<td>On-going 600 Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>25.67% Funds spent, building almost completed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Communal Farm</td>
<td>On-going 300 Youths &amp; Families</td>
<td>33.04% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SAIOBE</td>
<td>1. Land Reclamation Phase I</td>
<td>On-going 3500 All Villagers</td>
<td>18.07% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Land Reclamation Phase II</td>
<td>On-going 3000 Rice Farmers, Youths &amp; Families</td>
<td>90.30% Funds partly spent, no grader available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Land Reclamation Phase III</td>
<td>On-going 1000</td>
<td>63.36% Funds being spent, orchard planted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TONO ALASAN</td>
<td>1. Latrines</td>
<td>On-going 328 All Villagers</td>
<td>18.07% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Communal Coos Farm</td>
<td>On-going 300+ Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>82.35% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KEREMAN</td>
<td>1. Ban Bolon Rice Devel. I</td>
<td>On-going 3000 Rice Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>18.70% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Ban Bolon Rice Devel. II</td>
<td>On-going 3000</td>
<td>81.63% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LAMIN</td>
<td>1. Tie-Dying &amp; Soap Making</td>
<td>On-going 60 Women</td>
<td>15.49% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Rice Development</td>
<td>On-going 150+ Women Farmers</td>
<td>77.26% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VILLAGE</td>
<td>PROJECTS</td>
<td>NO. OF BENEFICIARIES</td>
<td>% OF IN-KIND CONTRIBUTION</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>---------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farafenni</td>
<td>1. 5 Bay Seed Stores</td>
<td>500 Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>47.46% Funds spent, building completed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Joddewni</td>
<td>1. Water Supply</td>
<td>806 All Villagers</td>
<td>- Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Baseline &amp; Needs Assessment</td>
<td>806 &quot;</td>
<td>64.12% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pass Njaga Choi</td>
<td>1. Communal Coos Farm</td>
<td>5000 Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>93.55% Funds spent, successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bakindoik</td>
<td>1. Vegetable Garden</td>
<td>350 Women &amp; Families</td>
<td>71.52% Site selection bad, garden relocated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Katchang</td>
<td>1. Wells Rehabilitation 2245 All Villagers</td>
<td>26,22% Funds spent, successful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nuimi's</td>
<td>1. Rice Distribution</td>
<td>16,000 Rice Farmers &amp; Families</td>
<td>Funds spent, successful collaboration with PPNC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mansakonko</td>
<td>1. TOT WORKSHOP</td>
<td>16 GOTG Civil Servants</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Country Wide</td>
<td>1. Training in Baseline Data</td>
<td>20 CDAS</td>
<td>44.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Training in Member Education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>53.36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Field Staff Training</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>54.01%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Child Test Case</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>North Bank</td>
<td>1. VDC Training</td>
<td>225 Villagers &amp; DCD Staff</td>
<td>63.42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kerr Amadou</td>
<td>1. School Kitchen</td>
<td>130 Children</td>
<td>39.22% Successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Latrines</td>
<td>448 All Villagers</td>
<td>58.52% Successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title</td>
<td>Topics Covered</td>
<td>Date</td>
<td>VDC Members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Save the Children Orientation &amp; Training Workshop</td>
<td>CBIRD Methodology, problem &amp; objective trees project planning &amp; budgeting (SCF planning documents), data collection, working with VDCs</td>
<td>9/6/82 to 9/11/82</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CDA workshop on methods and techniques in communication, project planning &amp; building construction</td>
<td>Project planning, key village approach in extension work, communication, extension methodology, motivation, integrated approach to rural development, building construction</td>
<td>3/7/83 to 3/11/83</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Village Development Committee training session</td>
<td>Community organizations, problem &amp; project identification, implementation, motivation, women's program demonstration, building &amp; layout, monitoring &amp; supervision, role of VDCs in development process and health talks</td>
<td>4/11/83 to 4/30/83</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training of Trainers Workshop</td>
<td>Train trainers in the methods and techniques of needs assessment; skills; techniques and efficient methods of training trainees</td>
<td>7/24/83 to 7/31/83</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baseline Data Collection Workshop</td>
<td>How to collect, compile &amp; analyze data, the role of data collection in project planning &amp; evaluation</td>
<td>10/31/83 to 11/31/83</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Save the Children Training Workshops

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Topics Covered</th>
<th>Date</th>
<th>VDC Members</th>
<th>SCF Staff</th>
<th>Field Staff</th>
<th>RDI Staff</th>
<th>Other Agencies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Save the Children Training and Orientation Workshop</td>
<td>CBIRD Methodology, the role of DCD Field Staff, participation, planning &amp; evaluation, VDC formation</td>
<td>12/12/83 to 12/17/83</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child-Centered Strategy Workshop</td>
<td>Presentation of Child-Centered approach to needs assessment, introduction of tools, preparation for field stay, Workshop followed by 1 week's field stay in 3 North Bank villages</td>
<td>3/2/84 to 8/2/84</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** SCF expands into entire North Bank

**Source:** ADC, 1984, "Approaches to Rural Development in the Lower Gambia: An Analysis of NGO and GO/GF Activities, Their Impact on Women and a Case Study of the SCF/Lower Gambia's CBIRD Program in the North Bank Division", Banjul, September.

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APPENDIX E:

TABLE 4.9: SELF-HELP PROJECTS UNDERTAKEN OVER THE LAST 5 YEARS BY TYPE OF PROJECT, PERCENTAGE OF CDAs INVOLVED AND PROJECT SUB-TOTAL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TYPE OF PROJECT</th>
<th>CDAs INVOLVED (%)</th>
<th>PROJECT SUB-TOTAL</th>
<th>TOTALS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. School, Building, Construction</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Sponsorship</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Pit Latrines</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Health Centres/Dispensaries</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Well digging</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Youth/Community Centres</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Causeway/bridges</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Feeder roads</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Waiting shelters</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Seed (grain) stores</td>
<td>18.7</td>
<td>5.4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. Day care centres</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. Others</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>8.1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m. No Response</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Totals</strong></td>
<td>n = 16</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>