

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

CONTRIBUTION OF WORLD VISION GHANA TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT  
IN NORTHERN GHANA

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BY

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THE DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

APRIL, 2008

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## DECLARATION

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I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

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### Supervisors' declaration

We hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this thesis were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

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## DEDICATION

Dedicated to my late father Alibiya Awekeya; my loving mother Akantoe; my dear wife Juliet and our lovely children Akamikre, Ataritulum, Apegiwine, Atariwine and Adelwine.

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## ABSTRACT

This thesis examined World Vision Ghana's contribution to Rural Development in Northern Ghana. The study was carried out in six rural communities in three selected districts: Savelugu / Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo. The focus of the study was on how World Vision Ghana assists rural communities to achieve food self-sufficiency, safe drinking water, and education / training. Basic statistics were used to discuss the field data, while the chi-square test ( $\chi^2$ ) was used to show the association of the programme effect on food self-sufficiency, safe drinking water and education / training.

The study found out that World Vision Ghana employed the Area Development Programme (ADP) concept in carrying out interventions in the rural communities. It noted that the Area Development Programme (ADP) strategy involved the selection of needy communities, which were provided with necessary assistance for a period of 15 years. The purpose was to enhance the socio-economic living conditions of beneficiary communities.

It further observed that the programme made significant impact, firstly on food self-sufficiency and secondly, it made a significant impact on access to safe drinking water. As regards access to education/training, it was observed that in the Savelugu / Nanton and West Mamprusi districts school enrolment by households recorded positive impact except in the Bongo district where the programme recorded negative impact.

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## LIST OF ACRONYMS

ADP	-	Area development Programme
ADRA	-	Adventist Development and Relief Agency
CBOs	-	Community Based Organisations
CD	-	Community Development
CENDSUDI	-	Centre for Sustainable Development Initiatives
CRS	-	Catholic Relief Service
CUSO	-	Canadian Universities Services Overseas
FAO	-	Food and Agricultural Organisation
GES	-	Ghana Education Service
GSS	-	Ghana Statistical Service
IFAD	-	International Food and Agricultural Development
KVIP	-	Kumasi Ventilated Improved Pit
MFI	-	Micro Finance Institution
NGO	-	Non-Governmental Organisation
NORAD	-	Northern Region Area Development
PNDC	-	Provisional National Defence Council
PPAEP	-	Pilot Provincial Agricultural Extension Project
PRA	-	Participatory Rural Appraisal
SAP	-	Structural Adjustment Programme
TBA	-	Traditional Birth Attendants
TCOP	-	Technical Cooperation Project
WHO	-	World Health Organisation

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### **Background**

In Ghana, approximately two-thirds of the population lives in rural areas where the major occupation is agriculture (the cultivation of cash crops, staple foods, and animal husbandry). The major cash crops are cocoa, cotton and citrus fruits while the main staple food crops are maize, millet, rice, cocoyam, yams, beans and groundnuts. Northern Ghana forms about half the size of the country's land mass (Ghana Statistical Service, 2000). Its population engages in cotton production as a major cash crop. Livestock and poultry are raised as supplementary to the cash crop industry.

It is, however, surprising to note that despite the key role rural communities play in revenue and employment generation, their living conditions are generally poor. For example, in Northern Ghana there is inadequate provision of basic social infrastructure and support services to promote agriculture, trade and industry. Rural communities in Northern Ghana are the neediest in the country because they experience unfavourable climatic conditions, degraded soils, desertification, coupled with poverty and low educational attainment. The poor rural life has been a long-standing phenomenon rooted in the structure of Ghana's economy; this has experienced little spatial changes since independence.

The nation's economy has over the years exhibited fragility and an inability to adapt to emerging internal and external situations with the inevitable inability to absorb shocks in the formal sector (National Development Planning Commission, 2004). Besides, the geographical distribution of settlements and economic and social activities represent a high level of polarization. Concentration, therefore, occurs in four major centres dominated by entrepot and service functions, namely, the mining centres, the cocoa and timber producing areas, the harbours and the administrative headquarters of major international/local business enterprises, and political head offices which are situated in Southern Ghana. These centres have a greater connectivity with external systems, including pricing mechanisms to which they are economically subservient, than with their indigenous hinterlands towards which they have parasitic tendencies. Thus, the concentration of resource investment in a few areas has resulted in a large proportion of human and physical resources remaining outside the commercial economy.

The economically and socially peripheral regions remain rudimentary in terms of development. Their juxtaposition with sophisticated, more modern urban environments inhibits growth, wealth creation, and redistribution. It is the characteristic of such an economically divisive two- nation state for an ever-widening gap between rich and poor to occur, and the significant and sustainable alleviation of poverty, vulnerability, and exclusion to remain an intractable problem. Disparities in general development as regards levels of poverty and the rate of poverty reduction are particularly evident between the North (i.e. Northern, Upper East and Upper West regions) and the South.

Consequently, past governments sought to address the situation of poor social life of the North. Hence, rural development programmes have been launched since independence throughout Ghana. For example, Dr. K.A. Busia, a former Prime Minister, launched a Seven Year Development Plan (1972-1979) to promote rural development in Ghana. The programmes sought to reduce the rate of poverty, disease and squalor among rural people, particularly those in deprived communities in Northern Ghana. Even though the First Republican Government, headed by Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, launched the National Industrial Development Programmes, it was the Busia administration (1969 – 1972), which developed a Comprehensive Rural Development Programme to facilitate sustainable rural development (Dorvlo, 1980). However, the government failed to implement the plan to the letter due to its overthrow by the military led by Colonel I.K. Acheampong in 1972 (Dorvlo, 1980).

Over the years, governments in Ghana have generally not succeeded in providing adequate social services to improve rural socio-economic living conditions as a result of ad hoc and uncoordinated rural development programmes. This situation has led to persistent poverty among the rural people. This, therefore, explains the widening of the urban-rural gap, with its attendant social problems. The majority of rural people, especially those in Northern Ghana, continue to live deprived lives characterized by malnutrition, illiteracy, poor sanitation and high infant mortality rate. The development indices are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1: Socio-economic indicators of the upper regions of Ghana**

Indicator		Upper East Region	Upper West Region	Ghana
Net	primary school	92.2	89.8	88.0
enrolment (%)				
Population literate (%)		26.3	44.5	62.4
Children under five mortality		155.3	155.6	110.4
Doctor population ratio		61,413	52640	24867
Beds per 1000 population		0.79	0.96	0.73
% access to safe water		79.0	78.0	57.0
% access to good latrines		18.0	9.0	29.0
Children under weight (%)		48.8	43.2	26.0
Road density Km/sq km		0.058	0.159	0.072
Incidence of poverty		90.0	88.0	43.0
Depth of poverty		46.0	46.0	35.0
Population in agriculture (%)		79.2	84.4	56.0
Ownership of radio		41.3	37.1	37.2
Ownership of television		3.3	2.4	21.4
Ownership of bicycle		60.0	74.6	17.6
Adult literacy rate		17.2	22.4	48.3
Safe water sources		78.9	84.7	65.2
Medical services		8.2	19.8	37.2
Fertility rate (number of children per woman)		5.8	5.6	4.4

Source: Ghana Statistical Service, 2000

Available data indicate that the distribution of poor people in Ghana is skewed. For example, the Ghana Living Standard Survey report, 2002, the figures shows that about 6% of the nation's population live in Accra, 22% in the other urban centres and cities, while the remaining 72% live in rural areas. Also, a look at three Ghana Living Standard Surveys for the period 1987 / 88, 1988 / 89 and 1991 / 92 revealed that 37%, 42% and 31% of the population lived below the poverty line respectively. Moreover, corresponding figures within the same period showed that those living below the poverty line were 22%, 25% and 15% respectively. At the Zonal level, the savannah zone also, referred to in this study as either the "North", "Northern sector" or "Northern Ghana," has been the hardest hit in terms of depth and general incidence of poverty (See Table 1).

As regards the distribution of social welfare services, the North generally is poorly served. For example, though the general health service delivery in Ghana has not been the best, the distribution of health services is in favour of Southern Ghana's cities and urban centres. For instance, the Southern Administrative Capitals account for only 15% of the nation's population but controls over 50% of health service facilities and personnel. It is in the Southern Ghana cities that the nation's referral hospitals and health specialists are located. In like manner, education in Northern Ghana lags behind that of the southern sector. For instance, formal education was introduced late in the north in 1906 whereas in Southern Ghana it was introduced as early as the 1400's (Bening, 1972).

Also, even though the number of schools in the North has now increased with a corresponding increase in enrolment, resources and standard

of education in the schools still lag behind those in the southern sector. It is in the southern sector that the well-endowed schools are found. For example, when the results of the 2003 Senior Secondary School Certificate Examination (SSSCE) were published in the 'Daily Graphic', the first nine schools were from the southern sector of Ghana, while majority of the Northern Ghana schools occupied the bottom position (GES, 2004). Less than 40% of the people living in the North have access to potable water, compared to over 70% of urban dwellers in southern Ghana. Though good roads play a key role in terms of relative ease with which people and goods move about through the country, most parts of Northern Ghana are not linked up with good roads. For example, at present the Upper West Region is not properly linked with good roads to the Northern Region and the Upper East Region.

In spite of the obvious need for massive support in the north, past and present governments have not been able to provide the necessary investments to facilitate accelerated development in the area. In this respect, Diaw (1992) remarks.

When the rural people could no longer look to Accra with hope, a common feeling of neglect and discontent became a feature in many rural communities nationwide. These seemingly appalling conditions in rural areas actuated the creation of local development units and associations with sufficient motivation to overcome the many difficulties that confront them. Hence, the proliferation of several Town / Village Youth Development Associations during the 1970s was mostly a direct consequence of this situation.

So far, several Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) complement the efforts of the government in the rural development enterprise. Despite the increasing number of local NGOs and community groups in Northern Ghana that are engaged in the provision of social services, living conditions are still poor. The way out for the rural communities is for voluntary service

organizations to provide assistance to specific rural communities with limited resources. Henderson (1991) suggests that rural development should be run on joint venture basis; that is, by collaboration between the NGOs and the rural community on one hand and the government and other stakeholders on the other. It is hoped that such participation will enhance the sustainability of most rural projects.

The effects of inappropriate domestic policies and poor management of the economy in the 1970s culminated in deep economic crises for many sub-Saharan countries. This situation prompted governments in developing nations to adopt, amidst domestic and external pressures, structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) in the latter years of the 1980s. The main goal of the programmes was to curtail domestic demand and to promote economic growth through a number of policy instruments so that both internal and external disequilibria could be eliminated for the economy to improve (Tshibaka, 1998).

In Ghana the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) government in 1983 was supported by the World Bank to introduce the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). One component of that programme was the opening up of rural areas, especially those with exportable raw materials. Thus, transportation facilities were improved to connect the cocoa and mining regions to the coastal port centres. Given the fact that Northern Ghana is deemed not to have such exportable raw materials, it did not benefit from the programme. This perhaps, more than anything else explained the fact that poverty actually worsened in the Upper East and Upper West regions

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between 1992 -1997 because the policies of SAP failed to focus on the needs of the poor in the Ghanaian society, particularly in Northern Ghana.

At present, there are still large numbers of poverty-stricken communities in Northern Ghana which require assistance from government. So far, the ruling government has accepted the challenge that the North needs special attention, because under the present circumstance there appears to be no justification for citing the weak national economy as a factor for not allocating substantial funds in the national budget to support development projects in the north, which has suffered neglect from previous governments. From available official records, the national economy has become far more variant than it was in the 1980s, 1990s and even in 2001. For example, there has been a significant improvement in the world market for Ghana's primary products as compared to the 1980s and 1990s when such commodities suffered falling prices in the world market. So far, the Bank of Ghana Foreign Exchange receipts as reported by Ministry of Finance, 2003 have since 2001 been registering significant growth (See Table 2).

For example, Bank of Ghana's (BOG) foreign exchange inflows as shown in Table 2 for the first and second halves of 2003, were derived from cocoa, gold, manganese, diamond, capital and invisible receipts. Total foreign exchange inflows for the first half of 2003 was US \$ 551.40 million compared with US \$359.83 million for the corresponding period of 2002, an increase of US \$191.57 or 53.2%. In the second half of 2003, foreign exchange inflows amounted to US \$1,035.22 million compared to US\$516.54 million in the corresponding period of 2002, an increase of US\$518.68 million or 100.4%. Total annual foreign inflows for 2003 was US\$1,586.62 million compared to

US\$876.37 million for 2002, an increase of 81.1%. The table above shows that for the two halves of 2003 inflows from cocoa represented the highest component of the inflows contributing 29.0% and 57.86% of the total inflows in June and December respectively.

**Table 2: Composition of foreign exchange receipts in US\$ (million)**

Item	2001		2002		2003	
	June	Dec	June	Dec	June	Dec
Cocoa	31.59	264.63	101.84	345.06	241.40	599.02
Gold	72.20	79.75	88.02	85.69	96.07	103.21
Diamond	-	1.49	0.38	0.35	0.28	0.38
Manganese	1.06	1.24	1.44	2.01	2.23	2.86
Capital receipts	169.12	256.44	146.03	68.69	180.52	138.85
Invisible receipts	19.21	64.26	22.12	14.73	30.90	190.90
<b>Total</b>	<b>296.18</b>	<b>667.81</b>	<b>359.83</b>	<b>516.53</b>	<b>551.40</b>	<b>1,035.22</b>

Source: Ministry of Finance, 2003

In addition, the country also experienced a significant increase in foreign remittances, which rose from US\$650 million in 2000 to US\$4.5 billion in 2005. The remittances were higher than the total aid the country received from its development partners in 2005. It also exceeded the country's export earnings from cocoa and gold, its traditional commodities. Thus, though the remittances are on the increase they are routed through non-

official channels. The figures quoted here only represent officially documented remittances.

The country has in recent times been privileged to derive additional funds from the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative from the nation's external creditors, mostly the multilateral institutions such as the International Development Fund (IDF) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF). These financial institutions granted debt reliefs totaling US \$56.47 million in the form of cancellation of principal and interests on loans which matured during the period (Integrated Social Development Centre, 2005). This figure compared with debt relief of US \$14,385,821 of the first half of 2002 was an increase of 292.6%. The debt reliefs were not foreign exchange inflows to Bank of Ghana, so they did not impinge on Bank of Ghana's external accounts. The country benefited by way of retention of the foreign exchange which otherwise would have been transferred to pay the external creditors. The funds were meant to assist the country/government in solving critical national concerns, namely, assisting deprived areas to have access to education, health, water and shelter. One would have thought that these HIPC funds would have provided sufficient source of revenue to be channeled to the North by way of budgetary allocation based on poverty ratio factor. Unfortunately, the allocation of HIPC funds and other funds such as the Common Fund to the regions is not based on poverty ratio.

The continuing lack of political will to allocate HIPC funds and other funds on a pragmatic and radical basis continues to have an adverse effect on the development of the North. It is in this regard that NGOs such as World Vision Ghana's contribution i.e essential to the government's effort in

developing the area. World Vision Ghana is an international NGO that has been established in Northern Ghana for nearly two decades and is engaged in development activities in the rural communities. It is a Christian relief humanitarian organization involved in holistic rural development. It is a partnership of nearly 100 support and field offices serving over 70 million people worldwide. It is the poor, the oppressed and the vulnerable in society, made up of mostly children and women that are the focus of World Vision Ghana development policies. Currently, World Vision Ghana is working in all the 10 administrative regions in a number of deprived districts in the country using the ADP concept to provide relief and comfort to the least privileged communities, most especially those that are located in the rural settings.

However, sufficient understanding and knowledge in the arguments for the operations of NGOs in Northern Ghana, their philosophy and objectives are not enough to enable judgment on their successes or otherwise to be made. Indeed, there are still yawning gaps between the rural communities and affluent urban centres in the South in terms of health, educational facilities, physical development and, supply of food. Yet, these NGOs are increasing in number, with the media reporting about the wonderful work these NGOs are doing to achieve their objectives.

Easton (1998) describes NGOs as institutions which inhabit the space between government or state institutions and private, non-profit making organizations. He believes that such organizations possess a variety of characteristics. First, they are not associated with government agencies or departments; they are voluntary in nature; hence, they do not operate for profit. Secondly, they are primarily concerned with undertaking development

projects with local groups and communities to assist them increase their human and material resources through the provision of skills training in various fields of endeavour.

Baldwin (1991) further classifies NGOs into three types: Northern or industrialized country NGOs, African NGOs and local NGOs, which consist of national, community or church-based organizations. Baldwin further defines the development activities of NGOs as small-scale individual projects or investments with the direct provision of services to a specific group of beneficiaries. To him, the beneficiaries are almost always identified as a disadvantaged group which is beyond the effective reach of government or its allied bodies that provide services. He adds that most NGOs devote considerable resources and efforts to the development of activities that will improve the quality of life.

In everyday language, people categorise NGOs into three: International NGOs, local NGOs and other voluntary organizations. Specifically, NGOs are independent organizations formed to address some specific needs within the framework of government policies and with the active participation of the beneficiaries. It is worth noting that NGOs gained prominence in the post-independence era when it became clear that governments of developing countries could not achieve equitable development of the rural and urban areas. Consequently, the advent and proliferation of NGOs became a fait accompli. NGOs are seen as having the roles of working partners and catalysts for rural community development by providing socio-economic and technical assistance in the development process of deprived communities.

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In Ghana, activities of NGOs include human resource development, food self-sufficiency, water supply, health, environmental protection and conservation, gender and development, trade facilitation, and human rights advocacy. They also constitute a major source of contribution to rural communities in developing countries, especially in Africa. The aims and objectives of NGOs can, therefore, be summarized as follows:

- alleviation of rural poverty through improved agricultural services for the attainment of food self – sufficiency,
- empowerment of rural communities to provide their own basic needs such as potable water through some external assistance,
- enabling beneficiary communities to determine their own destiny through the provision of education and training facilities Besides, NGOs are self-funded or funded by other international agencies, churches and government agencies. Baldwin (1991) strongly recommends that NGOs need to be very flexible and imaginative, since they often serve as innovators of new technologies. It is sad to note that a number of them lack credibility with regard to the use of donor funds as often reported in the print and electronic media.

However, despite their observed weaknesses as human institutions, NGOs are indispensable organizations in developing countries. Hence, it is important for NGOs to forge a closer link between and among themselves on the one hand, and government ministries and development agencies on the other hand in order to ensure that assistance to rural communities results in sustainable rural community projects or programmes. NGO's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana is worthwhile only when their

interventions seek to provide lasting solutions to a range of knotty problems that confront the area's development. For instance, the North is faced with perennial food shortages, acute seasonal water problems, high illiteracy rate, worsening environmental degradation, rampant outbreak of common diseases, low-level participation in community development work and a myriad of moral/ social vices. The situation is even worse when we come to think of the rural areas of the North. Basic socio-economic infrastructure is virtually lacking and this requires special attention.

Development experts and academics have observed with concern a proliferation of NGOs in Africa and, especially in Ghana. The reasons for the fast growing number of NGOs are three fold. Firstly, most donor communities have of late considered it prudent to transfer the bulk of their resources to developing countries such as Ghana through NGOs. This practice stems from the fact that the donor communities are alleged to have lost faith in the poor performance of both military and civilian governments in developing countries, particularly in Africa, in the utilization of donor funds. For example, since Ghana's attainment of independence, succeeding governments have been accused of corruption and incompetence regarding the handling of state resources. In this respect, it seems that none of the past and present governments can be trusted with donor funds.

A second argument in support of funds being routed through NGOs is that such voluntary development organizations are noted to have the expertise and the appropriate know-how to access donor funds to deliver quality services. Thirdly, NGOs are also noted as good agents for promoting democracy, resolution of inter-ethnic conflicts and promotion of peace in a

number of developing countries, in Africa notably Ghana (Kastriku 1996, and Maseko 1994). By the first half of 2004, there were 321 NGOs that had officially registered with the Department of Social Welfare in Ghana. The breakdowns were: 257 International NGOs, 45 National NGOs (community based organizations). In particular there were 40 registered NGOs made up of 15 international and 25 national and community based organizations.

It may be noted that a large number of NGOs present in Northern Ghana are purported to be working in the interest of rural people. However a greater number of rural communities still remain deprived. In short, the social life of most rural communities is still besieged with poverty, high rates of illiteracy, rampant outbreak of communicable diseases, and above all, lack of access to potable water and sanitation, health and nutrition services. In some of the rural communities in the North, there is also a high rate of mistrust, frequent inter-ethnic and chieftaincy disputes and conflicts, which pose a great source of fear and worry among the indigenous people and settlers. Besides, the environment is under serious threat of degradation.

Given that some of the NGOs have been operating in the North for over a decade, one might be interested to find out the kind of contribution they make toward rural development in the area. Specifically, 'what contribution does World Vision Ghana make to promote agricultural activities, water services, health services and educational facilities in the rural communities of Northern Ghana?' Thus, arising from the general notion about NGOs, it could be inferred that they play a significant role in most developing countries' socio-economic development agenda. What constitutes the concept of "contribution"?

It is pertinent to note that in this study, contribution takes the form of money, materials, time, knowledge and skills that are provided by development-oriented NGOs, such as World Vision Ghana to poor/needier communities in the rural areas of Northern Ghana. In this study, Northern Ghana is referred to as the geographical area occupied by the Upper East, Upper West and Northern Regions. 'Northern Ghana' is used interchangeably with 'the North' to refer to the same geographical location in this study.

From the above discussion, it could be said that Northern Ghana is not only rural in character but has also been discriminated against and neglected in terms of the distribution of infrastructural development, social amenities and social services for a very long time. As noted earlier, the low rate of development in the North has been as a result of inadequate national budgetary allocation. Given that NGOs' contribution is to supplement government efforts to develop deprived areas, it is appropriate to conduct a study to find out the effects of World Vision Ghana interventions in agriculture, water and sanitation and education for the purpose of promoting rural development in the study area.

### **Statement of the problem**

The quest to bridge the development gap between the North and South through rural development in Northern Ghana has attracted a number of NGOs into the area. The exact number of NGOs working in the area is not known. However, it was estimated at the beginning of this study that 40 NGOs were working in the North and out of this number about 15 were international in nature. These NGOs are engaged in various activities, namely agriculture,

health, education, water and sanitation, micro-credit and advocacy among others. The NGOs concentrate their activities in some specific geographical locations of Northern Ghana, with each NGO doing virtually what the other NGOs are doing in the nearby communities.

Though NGOs play a useful role in filling resource gaps for development, particularly in rural development in Northern Ghana, no independent attempt has been made in assessing the effects of their activities in the beneficiary communities with regard to access to food self-sufficiency, water and sanitation and education/training facilities in the North. It was to find out the effects of NGOs intervention that World Vision Ghana was chosen to assess its contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana.

The choice of World Vision Ghana was based on the fact that it was the first international NGO to begin work in the rural communities in Northern Ghana. Secondly, time and financial constraints limited the ability of the researcher to widen the scope of the study to cover a number of NGOs at that time. Thus, considering the fact that there was no substantial literature in the public domain on any given single NGO, it was deemed appropriate to conduct an in-depth study of World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development which will serve as a source of reference material on specific NGO activities in the North

## **Objectives of the study**

The general objective of the study was to gain insights into World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana and how its programmes help the beneficiary rural communities to free themselves from poverty and dependency.

The specific objectives are:

- i. To describe World Vision Ghana's interventions in Northern Ghana;
- ii. To assess World Vision Ghana interventions in;
  - (a) agriculture/food-self sufficiency;
  - (b) Provision of potable water
  - (c) Provision of formal educational facilities
- iii. To examine the proposition that there is a significant difference between household access to:
  - (a) Self-sufficiency in food
  - (b) Safe drinking water
  - (c) Educational facilities before and after the interventions of World Vision Ghana.
- iv. To make recommendations based on the research findings to policy makers on how NGOs can assist government to promote rural development in Northern Ghana.

## **Research questions**

The study focused on the following broad questions:

- (i) How does World Vision Ghana's contribution in agriculture affect the capacities of beneficiary communities?

- (ii) How does the intervention of World Vision Ghana influence beneficiary communities' access to potable water and sanitation services?
- (iii) How does the contribution of World Vision Ghana influence access to education/training in the beneficiary communities?

### **Significance of the study**

Literature on NGOs' activities in Northern Ghana exists. However, there is no substantial in-depth study on specific NGOs such as World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana. Currently, a great deal of the available literature on NGOs is largely general. It is, thus, expected that the study will go a long way to add up to the stock of knowledge on specific contribution of NGOs to rural development in Northern Ghana. It will, in addition, serve as a guideline for policy formulation regarding NGOs' activities in Northern Ghana in particular and the country at large.

The study will also make available some useful information on World Vision Ghana's development strategies so that other development partners could design their programmes along similar lines. Besides, it will afford donor communities, specifically the sponsors of its programmes an opportunity to read from an independent source about the successes or otherwise of its contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana.

Finally, it will also make available information regarding the general perception of the beneficiary communities and other key individuals regarding the presence of the NGOs in Northern Ghana, especially that of World Vision Ghana. This type of information will, most likely, enable World Vision Ghana

to correct some of its mistakes in order to win the confidence of the beneficiary communities, government officials and above all, its main sponsors in order to maintain the inflows of funds into its coffers. Lastly, it will reveal areas that require further research on some specific NGOs that are engaged in rural community development programmes in Northern Ghana.

### **Organisation of the thesis**

The thesis consists of eight chapters. Chapter One deals with the background of the study. Chapter Two covers related literature and the conceptual framework. Chapter Three constitutes the methodology employed in carrying out the study. Chapter Four consists of a typology of NGOs operating in Northern Ghana. Chapter Five discusses the prevailing socio-economic conditions in the study districts. Chapter Six covers a descriptive analysis of the types of interventions undertaken by World Vision Ghana in Northern Ghana. Chapter Seven assesses World Vision Ghana's contribution in the selected study districts. Finally, Chapter Eight consists of summary, conclusions, recommendations and implications for policy-makers.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **Introduction**

The issue of uneven development between urban and rural areas is a common phenomenon in most developing countries, particularly Ghana. To bridge the widening development gap between the seemingly well-off urban centres and the rural communities' governments work in partnership with NOGs in order to promote rural development so as to make life meaningful for people living in rural areas. It is in this context that, concepts, works of scholars and theories which relate to the present study were reviewed.

#### **Concept of development**

The dream of most societies is development. Development seems to hold the key to man's success in life. It is possibly people's general perception about the concept of development that urges academics, social scientists, and politicians to discuss it at local and international fora. It is, therefore, no wonder that in recent times, governments all over the world have been concerned with providing a conducive socio-political and economic climate for civil society to function efficiently with the view to propelling issues related to development in their respective spheres of jurisdiction, with focus on rural areas. The issue at stake now is: What constitutes development and

how can developing nations such as Ghana attain it in the face of growing financial and logistic constraints?

In other words, development is both a physical reality and a state of mind in which society has, through some combination of social, economic, and institutional processes secured the means for obtaining a better life, (Todaro, 2000). As to what the specific component of this better life is, it is presumed that development in all societies should contain at least the following three objectives:

- (a) Increase and widen the availability and distribution network of basic life-sustaining goods such as food, shelter and health.
- (b) Raise the levels of living, including, the provision of more jobs, better education and greater attention to cultural and humanistic values, all of which will serve not only to enhance material well-being but also to generate greater individual and national self-esteem.
- (c) Expanding the range of economic and social choices available to individuals and nations by freeing them from servitude and dependence not only in relation to other people and nation-states, but also against the forces of ignorance and human misery.

Expectations for good life in the name of development keep rising daily in developing countries, in particular. These mounting expectations require national governments to vote huge funds to meet the cost of social services and social amenities for all citizens. However, most developing countries face resource constraints; hence, they are generally unable to make budgetary allocations to support development projects to facilitate the pace of infrastructural development that could increase food security as well as

delivery of social services. In the midst of budgetary constraints, people who live in cities and urban centres are the ones who are specially catered for by governments in developing countries because of their special connection to political power. On the other hand, those who live in areas outside urban centres and generally referred to as rural dwellers are often neglected. Typical examples abound in Africa and South East Asia (World Bank, 2000).

However, with increasing demand by rural communities for a part of the national cake, governments in developing countries such as Ghana, Tanzania and Nigeria have for some time embarked on specially designed national development plans referred to as rural development plans. It is appropriate now to turn one's attention to a brief discussion of the term 'rural development'.

### **Rural development**

In Ghana, a population threshold of 5,000 is usually used to classify settlements as being 'urban'. All other localities with less than 5,000 people are designated as 'rural' settlements. Besides, widespread disparities exist between the urban and rural areas which have often attracted calls to address them. For instance, while the livelihoods of the urban areas are drawn from the labour markets within the non-agricultural sector in the form of making or selling of goods or services, the livelihoods of the rural settlements are heavily reliant on agriculture, livestock, forestry or fishing (Boakye-Yiadom, 2004).

Another significant difference between the urban and rural settlements is the cash earning and reliance differences. While the urban populations usually rely greatly on cash for access to food, water, sanitation, employment

and garbage disposal, rural people have less opportunity for earning cash. They, therefore, rely heavily on self provisioning. It is in this regard that development practitioners are constantly working and trying hard to close the gap between the urban and the rural communities.

Rural development is reviewed as series of integrated measures directed at improving the productive capacity and standard of life of people in developing societies who live outside the urban centres. The livelihood of rural people depends directly or indirectly on the exploitation of the soils and natural resources in their environment. Besides, major activities such as agriculture, forestry, fishery, straw weaving, cotton spinning, commerce in addition to a host of other indigenous services are some of the life sustaining ventures that take place in the rural areas (Peil, 1992).

Besides, rural development can also occur if due attention is given to social satisfaction in terms of rewards such as economic advantage, prestige and power. For example, in certain rural areas where most communities lack access to basic social services such as safe drinking water, electricity, health care services and education/ training. It is usually a small section of the people who get a better share of such basic necessities of life based on one's political and economic connections. In Northern Ghana, rural dwellers do not only share common interests in the social conditions of life but live mostly according to ethnic groupings, dialects, and political districts. They, therefore, react similarly to circumstances that directly affect their common interest and aspirations.

Rural development can also be described as special plans drawn by central governments in collaboration with District Assemblies to cater for the

welfare of people living in rural communities. In Northern Ghana, rural communities consist of people of a common descent living in a cluster of houses and who speak a common dialect, share the same cultural values, and also come together to solve some socio-economic and environmental problems through voluntary contribution in the form of communal labour or cash. In some instances, community members, look up to the central government for direct support in the form of physical infrastructures, namely; dams, school buildings or health centres. However, when little or no help is coming from the central government or the district assemblies, members of rural communities tend to look outside for assistance in the form of cash or logistics from NGOs to support some rural projects.

In short, rural development schemes involve some specific activities that have the potential of reducing disparities in incomes and standards of living between rural and urban populations. Its objectives are achieved through the creation of opportunities in rural settings meant to enhance sustainable livelihoods and equity in investments (GDPC, 2004). Despite the amount of budgetary allocation made in developing countries' annual budgets to support rural development, not much in terms of the provision of health services, potable water systems, and improved educational facilities for rural communities can be realized unless NGOs' contributions to rural development are focused on enhancing the capacity of rural people to make development projects sustainable.

## **Endogenous development**

This theory holds that the development of a society, should be based on its internal characteristics such as traditional values, social, and economic activities and the skills and talents of its people. This is usually termed as development from within and it can be explained as a process that involves three phases: improvement of native knowledge, native skills, and native technology. These three attributes should be harnessed and modified appropriately in order to meet rural or local communities' needs. It could simply be termed as all-round development; that is, development which focuses on the mind, hand, and heart with the purpose of providing adequate services for all members of a given local community.

Fekade (1994) is of the view that the theory is people centred. He emphasized that the theory permits free choice by each country of its own form of development, on the basis of its social ideals and its national objectives. In the recent past, a number of resolutions and decisions of the United Nations bodies have stressed that development must always be endogenous, which means its nature must be determined by the country involved, on the basis of its internal possibilities, of the needs perceived and of the efforts a people is able to make or contribute to develop themselves.

However, as to how such development can be sustainable, the scholar identifies six endogenous strategies for adoption by developing countries. The first is: empowering people (the population) so that they are able to participate fully in any development programme. Secondly, an effort should be made to provide access to resources and equity. That is, there should be fair distribution of resources as well as equality before the law. Also, there should

be extensive use of and dependence on local resources such as labour, material and technical skills. Furthermore, there should be a properly laid down procedure directed at strengthening local institutions such as chieftaincy, families, clan groups, community-based organizations so that they can serve as catalysts to community development. Finally, emphasis should be placed on the development of appropriate technology; that is, appropriateness in respect of the usefulness and suitability of a given technology to its social and cultural environment. In other words, technology should be locally based and capable of being used by majority of the people to solve their every day socio-economic and cultural problems.

From the review of the basic needs concept, self-reliance concept and endogenous development, it could be inferred that rural communities experience real development when their members are assisted to provide for themselves sufficient food, safe drinking water, and health services, which are basic for their survival and livelihood. In addition, rural communities must be assisted financially and materially to develop personal capacities to become self-reliant rather than depend on the good-will of donor countries for their daily needs. World Vision Ghana, an agent of rural development, packages its programmes and projects to help beneficiary rural communities to develop relevant technological knowledge and skills that will enable them to improve upon their local environment and earn a living from its resources.

As has been discussed above, any development which is based on a community's internal strengths such as its traditional values, culture, norms, skills and talents of the local people, constitutes a complete community development strategy. It is observed to be one of the strategies adopted by

NGOs, particularly World Vision-Ghana in its Area Development Programme (ADPs) in Districts in Northern Ghana. Hence, the appropriateness of the theory to this study.

### **Sustainable rural projects and community development**

The objective of rural development is to create opportunities for human activities to thrive in rural settlements. To make living conditions in the rural areas favourable, the government of Ghana collaborates with NGOs to provide some basic projects such as dams, dug outs, agricultural stations, health posts and school building to facilitate rural development, particularly, in Northern Ghana.

The main concern for the central government, the District Assemblies and NGOs, especially those operating in Northern Ghana, is to ensure that projects which they provide to facilitate rural development are sustainable. It must be that sustainability of rural projects stands for the ability of projects or facilities to continue functioning to meet the needs of the beneficiary communities long after a sponsoring organization has ended its support services in any beneficiary rural community. Hence, for a rural project to be sustainable, World Vision Ghana takes, the following factors into accounts: The first factor is Demand Responsive Approach (DRA) in which services are provided in response to demand for such services that communities are willing to pay for. The basic understanding of the DRA is that a strong sense of ownership will be displayed when communities apply for services themselves, instead of just supporting without their involvement and resource commitment. Another key component is that the communities are in charge of

the operation and maintenance to sustain the project in question. Besides, some NGOs adopt various sustainability approaches, namely, the formation and training of community-based institutions such as women groups to manage water facilities as in the Bongo District. It has been observed from the survey that once a project is accepted by a beneficiary community, its chances of sustainability are higher since it is capable of facilitating rural development in the North.

It has been observed that all people would naturally actively pursue the betterment of their lives within the context of their understanding and cultural values. Thus, any form of development should take into consideration what the local people themselves think or perceive development to be, and not what the outsider thinks about development. This process is in line with the common saying that 'beauty lies in the eyes of the beholder. Therefore, what people cannot accept or easily assimilate as an integral part of their lives can never be construed as development. NGOs as development agents have to bear in mind that their operations have rural people to relate the who are responsible for making development sustainable; that is, local communities must take charge of sustaining development projects or programmes otherwise they will fail. If development not made sustainable development, productivity will not increase and standards of living will not improve. Thus, any intended skill or knowledge meant to improve upon the economic status of rural people, no matter its importance, will not in any way aid development unless the target communities internalize it. A truly acceptance of this notion is therefore crucial for ensuring sustainable development in rural communities.

A major contribution arises from the development of grassroots organizations through local groups as well. As such beneficiaries gradually assume responsibility for projects during planning, implementation, and follow-up stages. In order to ensure that grassroots organizations thrive, it has been observed that there is the need to include beneficiary inputs, including decision-making into project activities at all stages. In this respect there should be a high degree of autonomy and self-reliance to mark beneficiary control over management and an alignment of the project activities bearing in mind their needs and concerns as beneficiaries.

Above all, beneficiary participation and support is essential for sustainability development programmes for the enhancement the achieving of project objectives in any target community. Participation at all levels of a project helps to educate members about the project objective and also help strengthen its management process. People naturally will contribute to support and maintain projects and programmes if they perceive them as being able to serve their immediate, future needs and their interest, their cultural values, and aspirations (Ake, 1991).

The question that comes to mind is: what specifically is community development? Firstly, a community is a group of people living in a particular geographical area who share the same religion, race and cultural values. Thus, community development is a process which tries to maintain equity between meeting the demand of the local community for social amenities in the midst of dwindling local resources and falling prices for locally-produced products. In line with this understanding, it means that when a project is undertaken in a given a rural community, care should be taken to match the assistance with

local resources; that is, the type of local materials available, the type of labour at the local level and the level of financial commitment the local people can make towards the completion of the assisted project. This process of calling on local community members to make some contribution enables them to appreciate the fact that NGOs are not there simply as charitable organisations that move around donating projects or spreading programmes on gratuitous bases but that they exist to provide assistance to those that are ready and willing to assist themselves.

Local members are requested to match projects / programmes cost with their labour, local materials or some financial contribution. This simply means that development partners intend to make the local people own sponsored projects or programmes to ensure its sustainability when it is time for the development partners to move out of a given locality. Also, the process of making community members partly meet the cost of community programmes / projects is to allow them gain some economic benefits from their contribution. For example, it is common knowledge that whenever people make some form of material or cash contribution, they would naturally endeavour to ensure the success of the project or programme in order to reap the benefits that accrue from it.

It was out of the above discussions and understanding of the concept of rural development that led Brokfield (1983) to describe rural projects as a process whereby people participate in activities with the view of improving their lot. This assertion is echoed by Du Sautoy (1962) and Dunham (1970), who emphasized that community development is about genuine concerns expressed by local people to improve their social lives through community

initiative, participation and, above all, concerted effort to achieve a common purpose. The position expressed by Du Sautoy (1962) has strong basis even in current times given that most developing countries are not able to make provision for the needs of all its citizens, particularly those in rural communities. With time, rural communities have come to understand that their salvation lies within themselves. Village, town or community development associations are formed to enhance local capacities in the provision of labour and materials or financial contributions to undertake community development projects such as digging of wells, and building of school blocks. For meaningful community development to occur, some resources, in the form of materials and/or money, should be made available to the people.

It should be observed that where the central government or its representatives at the local community level are unable to assist rural communities, help should be sought from other development partners such as NGOs. The desire of local communities to do things for themselves in the midst of many limitations prompted Diaw (1992) to call on development partners and associations to make some contribution either in the form of materials and/or money to support communities to undertake development projects or programmes that are highly prioritized in their estimation. Diaw (1992) stated categorically that where material or financial assistance is not forthcoming, it behoves on the government or its local representatives, to collaborate with local community leader(s), to openly acknowledging their effort to promote development in their localities nothing withstanding their financial limitations. When the efforts of rural communities are not

supplemented due to difficulties on the part of Government to raise funds they (rural people) should at least be commended for their efforts to better their lot.

Besides the above general definitions of community development, the concept needs to be defined in more specific terms. That is, the concept 'community development' should be defined simply as a process, a method, a programme or a movement. In an attempt to let people understand what he meant by community development as a process, he emphasised that community development is not static but dynamic, in that it goes through stages of exponential growth or progression from one stage to another. Community development is, therefore, not only a process per se, but a process of study, training, education, planning, organising and finally action. It is worth noting that under the circumstance where rural communities generally lack formal education and there is ignorance concerning proper sanitation and hygiene, how to manage their farm produce in order to minimize post harvest losses and, above all, their inability to read simple instructions on labels regarding the application of farm inputs, community development provides the leeway. It is the process that can lead rural communities out of a long line of limitations and thus fall in line with apt description of community development. It should be noted that no individual community or even the state can succeed, if it fails to assist its members to acquire relevant skills to meet the task it sets for itself through community development.

It is education that will facilitate the rate of development. Education, whether formal or non-formal, provides rural communities with skills and knowledge which can make them undertake projects or programmes that they think can enhance their living standards. For example, when rural people are

made to go through an education programme they invariably learn how to plan and organise their activities in a systematic manner. This then will their future welfare since they will be able to do things for themselves through minimum assistance.

Community development is further viewed as processes by which the efforts of the people themselves are united with those of governmental authorities to improve the economic, social and cultural condition of communities, to integrate these communities into the life of the nation and to enable them to contribute fully to national progress and development. These complex processes are made up of these essential elements: the participation by the people themselves in an effort to improve their standard of living with as much reliance as possible on their own initiative and the provision of technical and other services in ways which encourage this initiative, self-help and mutual help. One could state that the United Nations' definition of community development is both a process and a programme. Community development is also viewed as a method. Carry (1970) advanced the community development concept further by indicating that some people simply view it as a means to an end, or a way of working in order to achieve a specific or a set goal or objective.

Judging from what other writers say about community development, one comes to the conclusion that certain methods such as change by degree or differential rewards as well as formal education are used by governments, private welfare agencies and local people to achieve community development goals. For example, it behoves the concerned community members to make some form of contribution such as labour and money before it approaches

either the government or its representative or any voluntary agency for some additional assistance to enable them realise their goal or objective. It is in line with the process of knowing where to go, and what to do in order to receive assistance to develop one's community.

Community development is also seen as a plan programme. It generally consists of a set of procedures or a list of activities. For example, Ghana's non-formal education programme, introduced between 1982 and 1992, and sponsored by the World Bank, qualifies as a programme because, under it, beneficiary communities went through a list of activities such as literacy, income generation, hygiene and sanitation, leadership training, and gender and development. Further, some people see community development as a movement. What this means is that community development has become institutionalised. That is, it has its own organizational structure, accepted procedures, and, above all, professional practitioners. Besides, community development is seen as a philosophy as well as a process. Its definition must therefore deal with its principles rather than its practice Du Sautoy (1958).

From the above discussions, some key concepts have come to the fore; community participation, self-help, self-initiative, community organisation, community education, dependence on local resources and dependence on governmental and non-governmental voluntary organisations. It can also be inferred from the above that community development has a wider coverage. It includes health and sanitation, home management, provision of social amenities and electricity, adult literacy, extension services, gender and development and advocacy (Kumar, 1979). It is further stated that community

development embraces any activity that seeks the well-being of the local people and entire community.

NGOs are one of the key players in community development all over the world, most especially in developing countries. NGOs come in handy in a developing country like Ghana, because past and present governments are unable to provide all the basic needs of the people who live in rural communities. Specifically, NGOs activities range from the provision of social amenities, extension services, gender and development, education, advocacy and policy reforms, agriculture and agroforestry, health, education, micro-finance and income-generating activities, human rights and humanitarian aid (Katsriku, 1996). In fact, all the listed areas that require contribution or intervention from NGOs are crucial. However, for the purpose of this study and also in line with World Vision Ghana's points of entry through food self-sufficiency, water and sanitation and education / training it is appropriate to limit oneself to these three critical areas.

It should also be noted that the North, which in the 1970s, was considered the food basket of Ghana, is now under serious threat of inadequate food production. Most rural areas of the North up to date are not adequately served with water and health facilities. Also, Northern Ghana was the least recipient of education and training a critical tool for development, right from the colonial administrators (Bening, 1972). Up to date, not much has been done to stem the tide; help state. Yet the people in rural communities, must also live and enjoy some comfort to be able to contribute to the development of their respective communities.

## **Community participation**

Community participation means the involvement of people in community affairs. Diaw (1999) described it as giving equal opportunity to groups and movements to expand and have greater control of resources and institutions. This means when community members participate in any project, they get to appreciate it as their own, and develop interest in its growth and sustenance. If, on the other hand, they simply see projects springing up in their locality without the involvement of any community in the execution of any part of the said project, they see it as alien and will not take delight in its development, much less its survival (Midley, 1986).

Arising from what has been said about community participation, Paul (1987) describes it as an active process by which beneficiaries directly influence the direction and execution of a development project or programme with the view to enhancing their final well-being (that is, income earnings, personal growth and development, self-reliance and self actualization). This description of community participation, it is argued that when community members participate in a project that leads to an increase in personal income, they will subsequently develop themselves in many ways. For example, increase in personal income earnings will enable the affected communities to change their nutritional habits, build better houses, go to well-equipped clinics when they fall sick and enroll their wards in good schools.

According to Piccito (1992) the term 'community participation' has close links with economic gains. In his view, it is the aggregation of human transaction which occurs voluntarily within and across organisations in a given community to ensure proper sustainable and equitable growth. Schubeler

(1996) illustrates the concept community participation by likening it to participation in infrastructural management. Schubeler (1996) thinks that, it is a process whereby people as consumers and producers of infrastructure services and as citizens do influence the flow and quality of infrastructure services made available for their use. He was, however, quick to add that participation is not limited to development projects only. From Schudeler's description, one can conveniently add that in the case of Ghana, when a given community requests for assistance to build a school block and is ready to contribute labour and also provide the land, it indicates that it will support the entire project by enrolling its wards in the completed school as well as see to its maintenance.

According to Diaw (1992), community participation is simply a process of action by the local people to reflect their own interests or to contribute labour and resources to the project which they believe governs their lives. For example, most rural communities now see the need to have potable water in order to minimize the rate of outbreak of guinea worm disease among. Consequently, they will jointly contribute labour or money and request a development agency to lend a helping hand so as to enable them to realise their goal of getting clean water. It simply means a process which involves planned mobilisation from above and voluntary participation from below. Community members must therefore be ready to participate in a project they have absolute interest in after which they can then seek external support to complement their effort, which is in the form of local materials, labour (skill and unskilled) and financial contributions.

Another interesting observation regarding community participations has been articulated in Diaw (1992). He further states that community participation is manifested in leaders organising their subjects and the subjects in turn offering their services voluntarily. Local participation can also be understood as a means of gaining local acceptance for project and strategy proposal and being able to recruit local, voluntary labour. It also means the initiative, needs and opinions of target groups should constitute an important premise in planning a project, defining its goals, and choosing strategies the right for implementing it. Besides, the responsibility for decision making and management must be shared among the beneficiaries (Midley, 1986).

From the discussion so far, one can deduce a number of elements which run through the various definitions put forward by the United Nations and some eminent scholars: involvement of the local people in decision-making, voluntary service or contribution and sharing of benefits of the fruits of their labour. In brief, community participation can be explained as voluntary involvement in the decision making of a given local people in the planning, organisation, implementation and monitoring and evaluation of community projects.

It is worth noting from the various reasons raised in support of community participation, that it is one fundamental principle and key characteristic underlying community development the world over. It is, therefore, not surprising that it is considered as a cardinal principle and, therefore, viewed as a fundamental requirement for any country, region, district or local community that wants to benefit from a donor community or specifically an NGO. The scholars mentioned above maintain unequivocally

that national policy-makers, district and community leaders, international aid organisations, particularly NGOs, should heed to the call to involve communities in projects and programmes at either the district or local community level. Ghai (1988), Piccino (1992) remarked that most donor-funded and NGOs' projects in developing countries have failed and, therefore, become white elephants due to the mistake made earlier by not actively involving the local community members. A typical example of this problem was the CIDA borehole project in the then Upper East Region in the early 1980s. Most of the boreholes broke down and were left unrepaired because local community participation was not sought.

It was the likelihood of failure of projects which never had the blessings of community participation that dawned on the donor community, NGOs, as well as international financial institutions like the World Bank and the LMF to make community participation at all stages of their sponsored projects or programmes the cornerstone, and, above all, their devout policy in all developing countries. In line with this policy, District Assemblies and local communities are both required to contribute a minimum percentage of the total cost of a sponsored project.

For example, the formula for the one-time European Union Micro Projects in Ghana was as follows: 75% was to come from the donor, while the beneficiary communities were required to contribute between 10% and 15% of the total project cost. The contribution of the District Assembly and the beneficiary community need not be in cash; it could be in the form of materials and labour. A related example is the Gowrie Community Senior

Secondary School Project where the beneficiary local communities were required to contribute money to meet the total cost of a Girls' Hostel.

It is important to stress that in all respects, local communities are required to play a leading role in the identification, formulation, selection and implementation of all sponsored projects in addition to contributing labour (skill or unskilled) and materials like sand and stones. In some instances what they are called upon to contribute is within their financial capability. In the case of Upper East Region, where Action Aid, a British NGO, is providing water for some rural communities, the beneficiary communities were required to contribute a quota towards the cost of the project. Most rural communities now understand and appreciate the need to make some contribution before approaching a sponsoring organisation to come to their aid.

Similarly, the Village Infrastructure Project (VIP) and the Community Water and Sanitation Project (CWSP) which are donor-funded, operate on the same basis. This practice reveals that the bottom-up approach to development, which has the tendency of empowering the local community, has enjoyed the recognition and support in international and national circles. It is in line with this observation that IFAD (2000) praise NGOs for involving community members in most or all their sponsored projects in developing countries. It emphasized that the process allows community members to gain first hand information in the art of project design, monitoring and evaluation, and, above all it helps to create a sense of ownership of community projects rather than viewing them as objects that belong to outsiders or to the government. This point once again draws one's attention to community centres which were built in most rural communities by the government

without the participation of the local people. Thus, they were viewed as Government buildings and with time, most of them were destroyed because of lack of maintenance by the communities. Similarly, the CIDA water projects in the Upper East Region in the late 1970s and early 1980s suffered the same fate. It must, therefore, be noted from the above that projects in the past meant for rural communities failed because the sponsors adopted the top-down approach; hence, the local people saw such projects as gifts and, therefore, had no role or business in ensuring their maintenance. To the local people once such projects are “gifts”, they could be replaced by “new gifts” (Diaw, 1992).

Community participation can therefore be summarized as follows: Community participation helps to bring about voluntary mobilisation and application of untapped local resources, skills and energies for the purpose of improving the quality of life of the respectively rural people. It is said to be a process that allows people at the local level to freely express their needs, problems and priorities. It further provides room for community development experts to obtain relevant data about specific local conditions, needs and societal attitudes, from which appropriate development programmes are formulated. Thus, a project for a local community which fails to take into account the needs and priorities of the people is most likely to collapse, no matter the amount of money and material resources sunk into it by a donor or an NGO. Above all, the participation of local people gives them some legitimate rights to the project; this promotes commitment on the part of the people on its whole set up, beginning from implementation and therefore assures sustainability (Gajanayake and Gajanayke, 1993). Gajanayake and Gajanayake (1993) note further that recent experience in development across

the globe suggests that there is a significant correlation between the level and intensity of people's participation on the hand and the subsequent increase in the success of development projects on the other hand.

It is refreshing to note that community participation has underpinned the success of community projects in a number of cases. For example, Diaw (1999) reported that out of 50 programmes, 21 were successful due to community participation. Similar studies in Indonesia showed significant improvement in rice production. In contrast, there are reports of some projects that have failed due to lack of community participation. Typical examples are a water project in Tunisia and the Agathi rural supply water in Kenya. These two projects and the one time village town halls and community centres in Ghana a decade and half ago were projects which failed because they were implemented without community participation. Some of the projects which earlier suffered some difficulties as a result of non-community participation later improved after community involvement. A classic example is the rehabilitation of some of the boreholes in the Upper East Region that were provided by CIDA but broke down for a long time without being repaired.

It must, however, be observed that there are instances where projects have been successful without any community participation. This observation has been made by Paul (1987), cited in Adarkwa and Diaw (1999) stating that 10 out of 50 development projects studied, which had no element of participation, were successful. This assertion was corroborated by Adarkawa and Diaw (1999), who revealed that eight projects without any form of community participation did succeed. Indeed, some studies have shown that there is no link between community participation and project outcomes.

However, as regards the level of sustainability of projects, Cernea (1992), after completing a study on 25 development projects, concluded that participation did have an impact on project outcomes; however, such outcomes have to be combined with local institutional power structures to enhance sustainability of projects.

From the above discussion, it can be said that the sustainability of any project or programme in any community, especially in a rural community, hinges on the involvement of the local people in the planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation as well as the contribution in terms of labour, cash and/ or material. An attempt was made in the research to find out whether NGOS such as to World Vision Ghana operating in Northern Ghana emphasizes community participation and the involvement of other stakeholders namely, the District Assemblies and Government decentralized agencies. Besides, efforts were also made to find out whether World Vision Ghana further involves other development partners (NGOs) in its development projects in the communities it provides such intervention.

### **Community education**

According to Bowers (1977), community education basically concerns the acquisition of skills and knowledge by people in a local community to improve upon their quality of life. For example, if in any given local community the people are taught how to filter water before drinking it in order to minimise the incidence of guinea worm infection and other communicable diseases such as typhoid and cholera, then one can safely conclude that such community or people had some form of community education.

Moving a step further, Brookfield (1993) defines community education as the process of identifying of community needs and the subsequent marshalling of resources to meet those needs in order for the community to develop through social and educational programmes. What this means is that social and education progress of any community is contingent upon satisfying the community's needs. Brookfield (1983) suggests that the ultimate goal of community education is the development of self-guiding, self-directed communities, who have been able to identify and satisfy their needs through the co-ordination, co-operation, and collaboration of all community resources.

In the light of the above, re-stated by Brookfield (1983), community education is giving local people assistance directed at their collective thoughts towards issues that are central to their general welfare at a particular point in time. Similarly, members of a community should be led to co-operate and co-ordinate their energies purposefully in order to ensure meaningful use of local resources so as to meet both immediate and future fundamental needs.

Brookfield (1983) is of the view that community education encourages the development of a comprehensive well co-ordinated delivery system for the provision of education, recreational, and socio-cultural services for all the people living in a given community. In more specific terms, community education viewed as 'how' and 'why' theory and principles, of teaching a particular social and behavioural technology to local groups facilitate individuals' learning and also for group problem-solving and community-building process. For example, why a given method of carrying out a particular programme instituted and how it instituted should be taught the

young ones for them to know and appreciate was what goes in their communities. Indeed, community education is meant to promote self-worth and self-respect among community members. It, allows them to see themselves as being unique and capable of doing things themselves.

From what has been outlined above, one can add that community education could be in the form of capacity building, training of individuals or groups to enable them to acquire knowledge and skills either through apprenticeship, short courses organised in the form of seminars and workshops or long courses such as formal education. In communities where access to potable water is a problem, single individuals, especially those in rural areas can possibly solve the problem. The people must see water problem as a communal problem which must be addressed by all. Community education provides the relevant or appropriate knowledge needed at a particular time to assist members to control their own future. It promotes self-reliance.

Arising from the views expressed so far, it is evident that community education is one of the principles of community development. The fact that community education provides new knowledge and appropriate skills for individuals and the community makes it an indispensable, powerful tool for use by NGOs in developing countries, including in Ghana. Vivian and Maseko (1994), in their evaluation of NGOs activities in Zimbabwe, observed that consciousness-raising was indeed one of the goals of one-third of the NGOs operating in local communities. Another area of co-operation between the World Bank and NGOs, as observed by Cernea (1985), is development education. What this means is that an effort is made by advanced industrialised countries such as Germany, UK, US and France to raise

North, also obtains logistic and financial support from outside. The same can be said of many NGOs that are springing up.

The main community education strategies used by development partners, specifically NGOs, include: role-play, drama and demonstration, storytelling and songs seminars, workshops, focus group discussions. In the present study, an attempt was made to identify some of the community education strategies which NGOs such as the World Vision Ghana have adopted to facilitate rural development in Northern Ghana.

### **Community entry and organisation**

‘Community entry’ refers to ways an NGO gets into a local community with the sole purpose of gaining deeper knowledge about the specific community in order to give the concerned community actor the chance to plan his/her development agenda. This process calls to mind a number of techniques: Participant Observation, Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and Surveys, (McGranahan 1997). For example, when a development partner plans to provide water services to a number of local communities but it is constrained financially, it is forced to cut down the number of communities requesting for the assistance. It must not just rely on the information provided from available records but should undertake first-hand field study. Similarly, in an attempt to assist local communities to better their lot, the development actor should directly involve the rural people to assess issues which are of priority. For instance, if a development organisation moves into any of the rural communities with funds ready to assist the people, it might realise that at the end of the process the people are not using the facility; hence the funds

spent on the project would have been wasted. However, if the development actor had adopted the Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA), the people's priority need would have been known.

It is in line with the above comments that Kotler (1982) states that in introducing any product or service into a community, the market must be segmented into sub-markets based on geographic factors, namely: districts, areas, cities, villages; demographic factors such as: sex, age, family; psychographic factors such as social class, life style, personality; and behavioural factors like attitudes and loyalty. In Kotler's view, this lengthy list must not be glossed over by any development actor because it provides a fair idea about the needs, wants, and demand patterns of the target group. The process will also help the development actor to design a befitting programme or project which will yield the right results. Besides, it will also facilitate the growth and development of beneficiary communities. In brief, it is expected that when projects or programmes are designed to meet the needs of target groups, the chances are that the right product or service would be provided, and therefore the development partners' money, time and effort will not be deemed to have been wasted.

After the development agency completes the community entry process, the next stage to move into is community organisation. Dunham (1970:4) defines community organisation as conscious process of social interaction and a method of social work concerned with any or all of the following objectives: the meeting of broad needs and bringing about and maintaining adjustment between needs and resources in a community or other areas. Secondly, helping people to deal more effectively with the problems and objectives, by helping

them develop, strengthen, and maintain qualities of participation, self-direction and co-operation and finally, bring about changes in community and group relationships and in the distribution of decision-making power.

Dunham (1970) underscores the fact that community organisation, brings people together to provide the needs of the local people and to make judicious use of local resources by assisting communities to solve their problems objectively. The process also provides community members an opportunity to achieve their set objectives through effective personal involvement or participation in issues that affect their social lives. It is, in short, a process of empowering local community members with the main objectives of bringing about changes in their standard of living.

Ferguson (1963) in turn views community organisation as planning and administration of programmes and assisting the target community to solve its own peculiar problems. Community organisation therefore means a mobilisation of forces around real or related conflict in order to ensure communication and movement. Controversy is used as a tool for organising a strong citizen-based group which can affect the decision-making process. Through such means, citizens are helped to become articulate, informed and politically active, to exercise their collective influence at the point where decisions are made.

The notion about the potential of community organisation is upheld and practised in today's world. Society has grown; hence, it is not possible to bring everybody to discuss the community's needs and interests before settling on appropriate actions to be taken to resolve community problems. The right approach is community organisation either at the local community level or

district level. Similarly, community organisation does assist local people to prioritize their needs after which they look for local and external resources to meet those needs. Community organisation can then therefore be summarized as a process by which a community selects and orders its needs. It is therefore not surprising that there is disagrees a link between community interest and development projects.

Another dimension to the term 'community organisation' is that it is principally concerned with problem-solving and social change. That is, it emphasises on how to deal with the local community with respect to social interaction which makes up community organisations. The process specifically involves individuals, groups, communities and organisations on various geographical levels. However, a closer look reveals a thin line of distinction between community organisation and community development. Indeed, community organisation forms part of community development with similar characteristics.

Community organisation may also operate in any aspect of community life such as education (including adult literacy), economic life, intergroup relations, organised labour, religion, health and recreation. In all these aspects of life, members identify themselves as belonging to one or two areas in order to achieve a common objective. The strategies that are generally used in community organisation are fact-finding, planning, organisation, conferences and committee meetings. Other strategies include interpersonal and intergroup discussions within a community, a political or social grouping. Direct action, procurement and allocation of funds, and administration also come in handy (Dunham, 1970).

According to Diaw (1992) and Amedzro (1993), community organization has been one of the key prerogatives of chiefs in Ghana. There is virtually no rural communities in Ghana, where chiefs have not mobilized their subjects to undertake self-help projects, such as clean up campaigns, digging of wells, building of school blocks and construction of feeder roads. It must, however, be noted that in recent times, this attribute of mobilisation spirit is fast fading away. Amedzro (1993) attributes the sinking spirit of mobilisation of rural community people to the emergence of certain political structures in Ghana, namely, the People Defence Committees (PDCs), which were replaced by the Committees of the Defence of the Revolution (CDR). This argument is true particularly in the PNDC days. In Amedzro's (1993) submission, it is those structures that weakened the one-time powerful authority and power of the chiefs in the rural and urban communities. Diaw (1992), however, is of the view that chiefs in Ghana have lost their traditional authority and power because majority of them have dabbled in active politics.

The reviews of Amedzro (1993) and Diaw (1992) can be depended on since the new political structures introduced by the one time military regime (PNDC) undermined the authority of most traditional rulers, except, perhaps, the traditional overlord of the Asante Kingdom. In most traditional areas throughout Ghana, the PDC and CDR activists took over cases that should naturally have gone to or been taken to the traditional rulers for resolution. There were instances in the Upper East Region where cases relating to customary marriages in certain communities were taken to CDR offices for settlement instead of submitting them cases to the traditional rulers. Also, some chiefs who got involved in active partisan politics lost the respect due

them because in some instances they belonged to political parties to which some of their subjects opposed.

Some development practitioners have stated that community organisation is one of the main strategies of NGOs. Thus, writers like Cernea (1988) states that the mainstay of NGOs' contribution to development is not only financial but also organisational. He notes that the emphasis on NGOs' activities in organising people, especially rural dwellers, to achieve their common objectives has been on the increase in recent years. For example, most NGOs would want a community to get together to make some contribution for an intended project before they move in to supplement community's effort. In this way, NGOs are said to be "putting people first" as a methodology and also as a goal (Cernea, 1988). In short, NGOs take pains to organise people to make good use of their own local productive natural resources to create goods and services.

It is argued in some circles that NGOs' emphasis on first organising the people embodies a philosophy that recognises the central role of people in development policies and action programmes, and the importance of self-organisation. Vivian and Maseko (1994) indicated that NGO's, with particular reference to the international ones working in Zimbabwe, put emphasis on the mobilization of the local people; thereafter, the local people are aware of the causes of their peculiar problems. To NGOs working in Zimbabwe, what is crucial for community development is the ability to organise community members to pool their resources together: labour, knowledge, skills and financial contributions in addition to sand and stones before external assistance is sought. This meant that sustainability of projects is of great

concern to both beneficiaries and NGOs. They, therefore, emphasize the need for empowerment of the rural poor and community mobilisation as the key to the sustainability of community programmes or projects.

### **Community groups and leadership**

Community groups are defined as associations of people in a particular community with common interests, aspirations, and focus. According to Wahab (1996), indigenous organisations and grass root associations are built on the principles of co-operation and organised group work. He adds that an organization is formed by the coming together of individuals with the common purpose of achieving personal objectives. In this instance, it is the survival instinct of the individual that propels a group to come together. He further emphasised that an association is a special purpose group and that if an association is a community development association then it is seen as a voluntary association or interest group which is usually made up of people with mutual interest, common purposes, traits and peculiarities. Such come together with the sole aim of collectively tackling a common problem or meeting a need while at the same time retaining a degree of self-independence.

Though groups or associations seek the welfare of members, they also seek the welfare of the entire community to which they belong. In this regard, three reasons are advanced for the formation of groups. firstly; certain tasks can be done by the efforts of individuals working together; secondly, groups provide the individual member opportunities for initiative and creativity; finally, groups dictate the behaviour of individuals. Besides, other attributes like group pride, solidarity, loyalty, team spirit, teamwork and mutual

attraction among members breed group cohesion. In their estimation, cohesiveness increases the satisfaction of individual needs or goals through a group, and the more individuals perceive the group as a means to obtaining their satisfaction, the greater the cohesiveness of the group. Two examples of groups are the Asanteman Youngsters Association and the Bimoba Youth Association. There are other such associations found throughout the country.

By natural instinct, people come together in anticipation of receiving support when a calamity strikes. However, some associations are formed for greedy purposes, though outwardly they are portrayed as perfect, gentle, and selfless bodies. Indeed, it is difficult to know from a distance which particular association is devoted to genuine community service. The above comment notwithstanding, community groups which manifest in NGOs tend to play an invaluable role in developing their communities. For example, some NGOs activities include community education, mobilisation, motivation and undertaking self-help projects especially in rural communities. Wahab (1996) observes that community associations are as old as human existence and of varied forms, especially in peasant societies. To him, most of the socio-economic and physical developments of most communities have come about through the activities of some associations. Salmen and Eaves (1989) also share similar views as regards the positive role of associations.

One school of thought maintains that community groups, in addition to playing a traditional role, also act as agents or partners of bigger NGOs. Salmen and Eaves (1989) hint that community groups sometimes act as agents or intermediaries for national and international NGOs in community education, mobilization and participation. Besides as guarantors of micro-

credits they collaborate with indigenous organisations and provide the basis for improved communication between the agent of change and the communities. These scholars argue that it is more cost-effective to work with and through existing community organisations in ways that strengthen their capacity to carry out development activities that reflect priority problems identified by the community members themselves than attempt to establish entirely new ones. Wahab (1996) shares the same view point.

Cernea (1987) blamed the failure of some of the World Bank financed projects on the lack of involvement of local grassroots organisations. According to Cernea, grassroots organisations act as enduring structures that can support project-initiated activities long after project completion. Indeed, these local community organisations are quite instrumental in ensuring long-term project sustainability. It is refreshing to note that scholars like Kotler (1985), Paul (1985), and Cernea (1988) equally share similar views regarding the critical role of donor-funded projects or programmes in developing countries. As already mentioned previously, the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) water project in the Upper East Region in the late 1970s to the mid-1980s. Its failure led to the formation of Community Water and Sanitation Management committees throughout the country. The Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD) (1989) is of the view that external NGOs can form new grassroots groups or organisations independent of already existing ones at the local or national level in order to facilitate their programmes. In this way, the local or national organisations will be open to new channels of resources or funds from the external NGOs to help equip themselves in terms of logistics and financial strength.

Leadership is as old as the human society. At both international and national levels, leadership is required; at community level, leadership is needed. Leadership is very important in community work. Robbins (1989) describes leadership as the ability to influence a group towards the achievement of goals. That is, local leaders are people selected on the basis of either their interest or fitness to perform. They indicated that groups depend on leaders for survival. To them, leadership is directly associated with responsibility; that is, what the leader does or fails to do directly affects the entire group with particular regard to their welfare.

However, it must be noted that a leader cannot achieve much without the co-operation of the group s/he leads. The group must recognize the person as their leader by offering him the necessary support as well as according him/her the needed respect and power. An example in Ghana is the case of the leader of the Asante Kingdom in recent years. It appears his success in the establishment of the Otumfuo Scholarship Fund arose from the fact that most Asantes recognise, respect and accord him power. They, therefore, accept his noble proposal to promote education in Asanteman. In fact, the leader of present-day Asante Kingdom is enjoying mutual confidence and it is this that enables him to exercise wide discretion and relatively broad powers. Therefore, any leader who is recognised by his people must be ready to articulate issues that affect their welfare. When a group observe that their leader is working in their interest, they will automatically recognise him/her as their true representative and grant such a leader their loyalty; notwithstanding the personal deficiencies of the person.

In Ghana, there are cases where people of higher academic qualifications have failed to perform well in politics and other social or national assignments whilst those with moderate educational (academic) attainment have been able to achieve much for the nation, in general, and for their local community, in particular. Otumfuo Osei Tutu II of Asante Kingdom and Sam Jonah of Anglo Gold of Asante are typical examples of personalities who have not attained top academic levels such as doctorate degrees (Ph.Ds); yet they have been able to achieve much for their societies.

Community leaders, especially those in the rural areas of Ghana, play a crucial role in developing their respective communities. The leaders in rural communities encourage their subjects to rally together to contribute towards community projects in the form of labour, materials or fiscal cash. Such leaders also have the power to sanction subjects or members as well, (Diaw, 1992; Amedzro, 1993). It is not surprising to see signs of physical and social development in certain communities in Ghana that enjoy relatively stable community leadership whilst in those communities where there is confusion over leadership there is low physical development and abject poverty among the members, particularly women and children.

Community leaders are often used as agents or intermediaries by NGOs in areas of community education, mobilisation of resources (labour and materials), in addition to motivating intended beneficiaries to participate actively in programmes which will be of benefit to them. Paul (1987) argues that when a user group forms leadership within itself, the rate of community participation increases because the leaders would serve as a source of encouragement to their fellow group members. This situation can be likened to

what is now happening in some parts of Ghana where local community people create non-traditional leadership positions with the responsibility of overseeing and supervising them in all matters relating to donor-sponsored rural community water projects. Such newly-created power structure usually has the mandate to levy the people or ask them to offer their labour towards the completion of a project being sponsored by either a donor community or an NGO. Invariably, the leaders succeed in the assignment they are entrusted with based on the assumption that they are representatives of the community.

The story may be different if the donor community or an NGO chooses to by-pass the local leadership and work directly in the beneficiary community. Such an approach may not yield the same results on the grounds that the community members may see the donors as imposters and for that matter refuse to accord them similar level of co-operation. Vivian and Maseko (1994) observe that even the grassroots (local) NGOs must work through traditional, church and local elected community leaders. According to Vivian and Maseko (1994), though local NGOs are often times familiar with the socio-cultural conditions of the communities in which they operate, they choose to work through the local leadership structure.

Thus, by working with the community through their leaders, an NGO, whether International or local, stands the chance to win the favour of the entire community since local people tend to trust and respect those that represent them on the NGOs' management boards. It has further been noticed in recent times that, it is the community leaders who generally control the inflow of resources into their respective communities. That is, it is community leaders who decide from whom the community will accept resources, to whom the

resources will go, and for what purposes resources they will be used. It is usual for leaders to block development projects in their areas because “proper” procedures were not followed.

This observation is true in certain parts of Ghana where there is very high respect and reverence for chiefs, priests, elders and even clans or elected local leaders of identified associations. A donor community or an NGO cannot enter an Akan community and begin to do any work purported to be in the community’s interest without, seeking audience with the community leader(s). If one by-passes or attempts to by-pass these traditional authorities (leaders), it will mean usurping and undermining their authority and, in reaction, the local authorities will do everything possible to stifle the efforts of the NGO. This painful fact regarding the power of community leaders to accept or reject assistance from NGOs is to protect their self-worth against organizations which might want to misuse their poor state to exploit or undermine their integrity.

NGOs and other development partners need to tread cautiously in dealing with local authorities, especially those in Ghana, where most of them are corrupted by people. There are a number of cases pending in the traditional courts against some traditional rulers who have collected compensation paid by state organisations but have failed to account properly to their subjects. According to Vivian and Maseko (1994), traditional leaders can impede the efforts of NGOs. They stressed that some community leaders have used their power for their personal gain by allocating for themselves funds meant for development by NGOs in Zimbabwe. Similarly, in Ghana, there are several unrecorded cases of some traditional leaders who have made

conditions difficult for some relief NGOs to reach the vulnerable, specifically. the rural poor who through no fault of theirs, have got raw deals or not catered for by Governments.

### **Gender and development**

In the past decades, it has been observed that society had assigned roles to both sexes. So for both sexes to be active in any community work, due cognisance must be given to gender planning and development (Moser, 1995).

Kabeer (1994) has indicated that project planning and implementation from a gender-based perspective can have only one ultimate goal: projects or programmes must contribute to changing the balance of the sexual division of power and resources in order to make it equitable. Kabeer further states that the basic aim of incorporating the issue of gender into a project is to overcome the psychological conditioning which governs prevailing gender relations and militates against changing them. That is, there should be discussions related to the need to modify some of the gender roles in society such that people will appreciate why within a family or society some people should / may be assigned specific tasks just on the basis of sex. Secondly, there may be an attempt to encourage unity and solidarity among women and between women and men aimed at facilitating the process of gender equality. Finally, efforts must be made by interest parties in development to help transform development practice into a process which involves both the public and the private.

In order to achieve the above aims, Kabeer (1994) states that a self-evident pre-requisite is a gender-specific analysis of the project and the

context in which it will be operational. In this regard, two issues need to be borne in mind. First, there should be gender awareness among the people who will be involved in the project design, that is, both the donor NGO and the local partner NGO and the target group need to be facilitated through gender training. Besides, target groups should be involved through a participatory, beneficiary-centred project-design process by way of information gathering and consultation that will give an equal voice to both women and men at all levels, more particularly in the target group. This view of Kabeer (1994) seems to suggest that should there be meaningful development, then gender issues must be incorporated into development planning processes in respect of programmes or projects meant for target beneficiary communities. Kabeer again advocates gender sensitivity in every development programme or project, its monitoring and evaluation. In this regard, there is the need to include gender experts and a number of local women on evaluation and monitoring teams at both the donor NGOs (International) and the local NGOs' partner levels. Wallace (1994) shares Kabeer's position by emphasising that gender planning, monitoring and evaluation all require the active involvement of women.

From the views of Kabeer and Wallace (1994), it behoves NGOs as funding agencies to remove all barriers that impede women's involvement and participation in development issues. Kabeer observes further that if projects are to be designed so as to be relevant and efficient, NGOs must of necessity understand what problems people want to solve with a project. For instance, an NGO which intends to institute a project has to dialogue with the beneficiary community on the type of project they want, and the groups that

would benefit from it. A typical example is a water project which has the potential of helping men to water their domestic animals during the dry season, and also of relieving women of the burden of walking long distances to fetch water for household use.

NGOs have to constantly bear in mind that communities and groups are not homogenous. Men and women have different needs; for instance, women have different views regarding what effort a donor intends to put in for the community of which they form part. In this regard, any intended sponsored project has to consider the gender needs of the community; hence, the monitoring and evaluation aspect of every sponsored project should involve both women and men. So far projects that have been successful by meeting the needs of both men and women through gender analysis and participate planning, monitoring and evaluation include FAO's Philip-Australian Pilot Provincial Agricultural Extension Project (PPAEP) in the Provinces of Albay and Camarines Sur, Bukidnon and Misamis Oriental in Philippine in 1992 (FAO, 1995).

Gender and development is an indispensable factor that has to be taken into consideration by policy makers. It is a strategy that is appropriate for the NGOs in Northern Ghana, especially for World Vision Ghana which has its focus on the most vulnerable groups (women and children) in the rural communities where living conditions are generally unfriendly towards the weak and powerless members of the traditional societies.

## **Problems facing rural development**

From the forgone discussion it can be stressed that community participation refers to various attempts made by people towards the improvement of life in rural areas. The attempts that people make to improve the living conditions in rural areas are at times carried out in close collaboration with government departments and other agencies that embark upon projects to improve social conditions and the environment. The participation could come about in the form of construction of roads, community centers, school buildings, health posts/clinics and sinking of wells. It could also result from street-cleaning, as well as agricultural projects.

In the desire to implement successful community participation in projects and programmes in rural communities, developing countries like Ghana are confronted with the problem of urbanization. Thus at independence, most African countries attempted to develop their communities by embarking upon large-scale industrialization programmes. Interestingly, this attempt was a “false start” arising from a sudden exhaustion of the national (state) coffers to complete the financing of most of the projects that were perceived as gigantic and white elephants. The result of the first development programmes initiated by newly independent African States gave rise to the growth of modern cities as Tema, Ouagadougou, Accra, Lome, and Abidjan. The inhabitants of these modern cities were privileged to benefit from many kinds of social services. For example, in these cities there were relatively cheap goods, entertainment and medical services and facilities, clean running water, as well as better and higher educational opportunities.

Besides, there were good roads, electricity, hotels and restaurants, neat environment and a lot more of things that help to make life modern, pleasant and enjoyable. Consequently, an attraction of people into the cities began to pick up. Hence, emphasis was placed on physical capital, that is, attention was placed on large-scale projects. Batten (1967) notes with concern that before and during the 1960s, this was the trend of development programmes in emerging developing countries. Interestingly, one would have thought that the under-development problems inherited at independence by the developing countries would have been solved much quicker due to the euphoria/enthusiasm for development in all fields of activity. It was further presumed that wider support for development programmes would follow suit, especially in the rural areas. Unfortunately, the enthusiasm faded off because community leaders failed to mobilize their citizens to undertake communal labour to support NGOs to provide development projects such as school, buildings and water supply systems in their respective communities to serve their needs.

### **Causes of poverty in rural communities**

As regards the causes of poverty in the rural areas, physical weakness of households appears to greatly contribute to poverty in many ways. They include productivity, weak labour, and inability to cultivate large areas of crop lands. It can also result from the people's inability to work for longer hours, coupled with low wages paid to women and are generally poor men.

In Ghana, for example, the causes of rural poverty, according to the government's poverty reduction strategy paper, (2004) are low productivity

and poorly functioning markets for agricultural produce. Small-scale farmers rely on traditional, rudimentary methods and technology; they lack the skills, and inputs such as fertilizer and improved seeds that would increase yields. Because of erosion and shorter fallow periods, the soil loses its fertility, thereby posing a long-term threat to farmers' livelihoods, incomes, and security. Increasing population pressure leads to continuous cultivation in the densely inhabited Upper East Region whereas a shorter fallow period in the Upper West Region, causes less further deterioration of the farm land.

### **Micro-finance and income generating activities**

Micro-finance refers to the provision of financial services to low-income clients, including the self-employed (Ledgerwood, 1999). Specifically, it deals with the provision of credits to peasant farmers and those engaged in petty trading/enterprise. Amoah (1995) states that NGOs constitute an important source of providing credits to the poor, especially those living in rural communities. McGuire (1988) emphasises very strongly that NGOs have proved to be particularly affective in the field of micro-finance. Micro-finance, as described briefly above, can be carried out directly by NGOs themselves without intermediaries. On the other hand, NGOs may in addition act as social intermediaries; that is, they can select and motivate a group of borrowers to secure loans from banks.

Ledgerwood (1999) has observed that besides NGOs providing micro-finance to serve as small working capital for community members to set off small business enterprises and also in assisting them to acquire small loans from financial institutions by acting as intermediaries or guarantors, NGOs

provide additional services by encouraging group formation, development of self-confidence and training in financial literacy and management capabilities among members of a group. Ledgerwood (1999) states further that the general goal of micro-finance institutions (MFIS) of which NGOs are a part is to service the financial needs of unserved or underserved markets as a means of meeting development objectives. These development objectives generally include one or more of the following: to reduce poverty, (McGuire et al., 1998), to empower women or other disadvantaged population groups, and to create employment and income opportunities particularly for those living in deprived communities. In Ghana, such a facility should be directed to the rural communities of Northern Ghana, where life is quite hard for financially vulnerable groups, and rural women. Another objective is to provide financial assistance to those already in small business so as to augment their working capital in order to enable such beneficiaries expand or diversify their business activities.

Finally, the aim of micro-financing is to encourage and assist the development of new businesses. In the case of Northern Ghana, women who initially were engaged in the making of shea butter could be assisted to go into groundnut oil processing, while rural group farmers could be encouraged to go into beekeeping, in addition to their normal farming activities. These notwithstanding, the main goal of micro-finance offered by NGOs is to help create employment and income opportunities for people living in rural communities who generally idle for most parts of the year. Typical cases of NGOs which have operated successful micro-financial and income-generating activities to improve the lot of most disadvantaged and vulnerable groups

especially women include: Grameen Bank, Gonoshasthaya Kendra (GK) and Saptagran (all in Bangladesh), and the Self-Employed Women Association (SEWA) in India (Kaber, 1994).

Clearly, micro-finance and income-generating activities are an indispensable component in designing and marketing community project for any community in Ghana, especially Northern Ghana, where the level of poverty is high, hit. It appears this concern is probably known by the NGOs, thus the reason why there are many International and local NGOs such as Action Aid-Ghana, Tehnoserve, Sinapi Aba Trust, Catholic Relief Services, Freedom from Hunger and World Vision-Ghana, which are all engaged in giving micro-credits to communities in Ghana.

#### **Weak bureaucratic approach to effective community improvement**

One of the key reasons for weak bureaucratic approach to effective community improvement is that plans and projects conceived in the cities do not necessarily lead to successful rural development (community development). The best-laid plans may fail to produce the expected results when communities are not considered as close partners in development. Often times, people become disillusioned about the implementation of programmes, the objectives of which they do not clearly understand. The beneficiaries are at times suspicious of the motives of the administrators of these programmes; hence such communities do not lend support to the assistance offered. Therefore, when people are not made to be part of a programme, no matter its good intention, its target beneficiaries would feel alienated and disassociate

themselves from it, rather than fully participate in it to enhance the success of the programme.

It must also be noted that there are other problems which retard the progress of community development in Ghana. The general view that Government is “Father Christmas” makes, people, especially the rural folk, look up to the government of the day as the giant development agent that should provide all the development needs of its citizens without calling on them to participate. People generally fold their arms and expect Government to honour its promises and develop their communities accordingly.

### **Role of chiefs in rural development**

It is sad to note that chieftaincy, which is the oldest unifying factor and as such could serve as a mobilizing force for community development, is now fraught with succession difficulties. The chieftaincy institution, which was noted in the early 1950s by Dr. K. A. Busia as a powerful tool for mobilizing the people in Ashanti (Busia, 1958), for community development work, has of late lost its power to bring people together for communal activities. In the past, chiefs could cause the town crier to summon people to discuss and plan community projects related to health, social or economic development. Community development was accelerated as a result of the role of chiefs in their respective communities.

Unfortunately, this one-time powerful institution for development has ceased to perform its assignment partly because some of the traditional rulers/chiefs now stay far away from the people over whom they exercise traditional authority. In some communities, others have lost their authority

over their subjects through inappropriate conduct by mismanaging royalties through failure to render proper accounts of monies paid by the State as fees collected from mining and timber firms operating in some traditional areas.

Another factor, which diminishes the potential of chiefs to mobilize community members to participate in community development programmes, is political power struggles between the chiefs and the newly-appointed political administrators. For example, when the People's Defense Committees were established in the wake of the 1981 military coup, tension arose between some traditional rulers and the then newly-created political institutions. Besides, some chiefs abandoned their traditional role and engaged in open political campaigns thereby siding with one of the political parties.

To lessen this unnecessary tension between traditional rulers and their subjects, chiefs require some form of education to enlighten them on the need to be neutral in the political power struggle. By being neutral in times of heated political party campaigns, it is most probable that chiefs would be able to intervene to mobilize their people for community development programmes.

### **Levying of many taxes on individuals**

It appears people's lack of enthusiasm in participation in development programmes arises from the levying of taxes by successive governments. Governments of developing independent African countries in their desire to execute a number of development projects saw a leeway in levying various kinds of tax including poll, income, and property taxes on the citizenry. The thinking of the people was that the moneys they pay to the Government of the

day would be supplemented to undertake development projects in the local communities based on the understanding that most countries' natural resources and foreign exchange earners, namely timber, cocoa, gold and other, precious minerals come from the rural areas. Besides, it is the rural areas that produce foodstuffs to feed the entire country yet little attention is paid to their developmental needs. Not surprisingly, most of the rural people feel reluctant in recent times to voluntarily contribute in cash or kind to community improvement programmes, citing unjust treatment by the government in taking the best things from them and turning round to levy many taxes.

### **Belief that the rural folk cannot develop themselves**

A number of people, including those of high political and educational profiles are of the erroneous belief that the rural folk, even if given the necessary resources and motivation, cannot develop their respective communities. Generally, rural people generally are not poor but they are the residual and the last in the line. They are also the most difficult to find and the hardest to learn from. They also claim that rural people are used to their poor conditions and limited facilities. In their view it is only large-scale government projects and huge foreign aid that can possibly wake up the rural people. This kind of belief about the inability of the rural people to develop largely contributed to the lack of serious efforts made earlier to aid development in rural communities. The fact is that no foreign country will willingly provide massive aid in the form of finance to develop rural areas. Also, decision-makers often gloss over the fact that given the appropriate education and

motivation, rural people can make contribution towards sustainable community development.

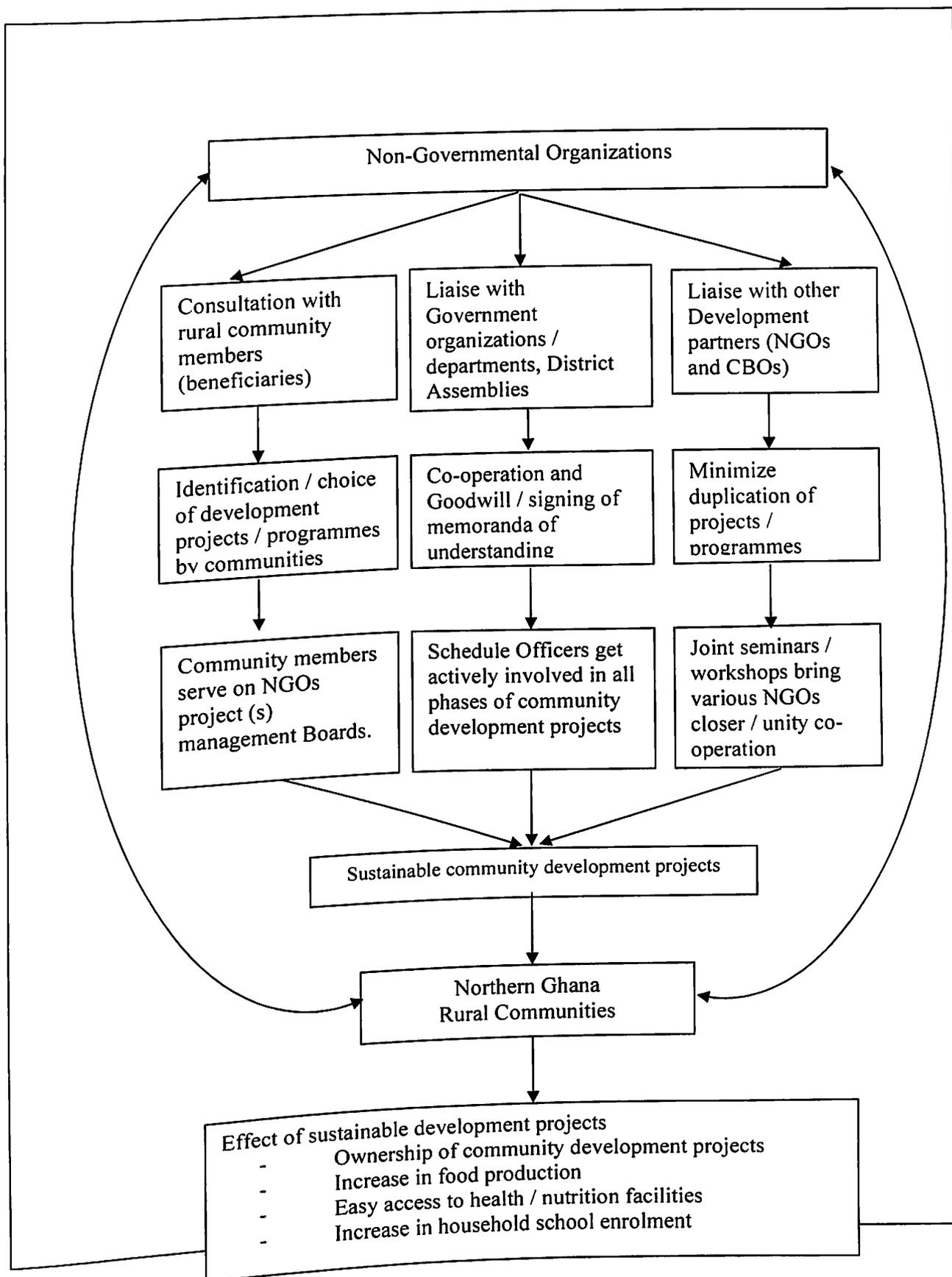
The theoretical and empirical bases of these assertions are that rural people lack the ability to manage their own resources. They equally lack the requisite skills and knowledge to put donor assistance in the form of physical cash and materials to effective use to enhance development in their respective localities. NGOs and other international development agencies like UNICEF and the World Bank in the past decades initiated development programmes in rural communities through the top-down approach, rather than the bottom-up, approach involving the public, and particularly the poor. The top down approach to development ignores full local community participation so rural people do not take interest in development programmes initiated without their involvement.

It is further noted that rural interest groups, which represent the poorest people, are hardly involved in deciding issues related to donor-funded projects programmes. This class of people usually do not have the personnel and material resources needed to effectively participate in negotiations affecting their socio-political and economic lives. It is further noted that national parliaments, as well as elected bodies at the regional or local level, often remain uninvolved, too. However, if participation of the rural people is to succeed for the benefit of enhancing sustainable development in the rural areas, then there should be an established permanent dialogue structure between the NGOs, decentralized agencies, other stakeholders and the target rural people. Figure 1 is a summary of the process of attaining sustainable

community development projects in the rural areas of Northern Ghana by World Vision Ghana, which served the basis for the conceptual framework.

### **Education**

In the view of academicians, it is lack of capital that has accounted for lack of participation in development programmes in the rural communities. It is, however, noted that capital invested in development will not produce the desired results unless education is appropriately organised along side. Dore (1976) states that capital given to Europe under the Marshall plan, and capital given Japan to restore its divested industries, proved productive because those countries had people with the requisite knowledge necessary to make the programme productive. He contrasts this situation with lack of adequate education in developing countries by stating that similar investment in Indonesia or Burma which lacked engineers, managers, and technicians failed to produce the same results. Briefly, education which produces the right human resource, is critical for the promotion of development in the rural areas. Indeed, without purposeful education rooted in the rural people, development programmes are not likely to be sustained and would eventually collapse as soon as massive funding from external sources dries up.



**Figure 1: Flow chart of sustainable project planning.**

Source: Generated from field data (2002)

### **Basic needs concept**

Fekade (1994) aptly describes the basic needs concept as a strategy to enable the poor and the disadvantaged to meet their own needs through their own sweat. That is, people must be made to understand and appreciate the usefulness of work, particularly hard work, in order to satisfy their present and future daily requirements for sustaining life.

Food is vital for every society; hence, everybody must be made to work for it at all times. Green (1988) remarks that the theory concerns basically the provision of primary needs of communities and individuals. This view was also shared by UNESCO (1982). The concept places emphasis on some provision to be made to meet each person's or family's basic necessities of life such as food, clothing, housing, portable water, health and sanitation services and education. From the issues raised regarding the basic needs theory, it can be said that the theory requires governments, no matter their stage of development, to cater for the welfare of their people. This means each government, especially governments of developing countries, have to take note that the key to the development of their economies hinges on the health status of their people. However, the people cannot attain good health if there is no provision of affordable food supplies, water and sanitation services as well as health and nutrition deliveries.

In line with UNESCO's thinking about the concept, Green and Walter (1986 in Fekade 1994) state that the provision of basic needs should include job creation and the provision of social infrastructure. Ghai (1988) makes some advances to the concept by emphasizing that it covers other issues such as human rights, which appear to include Dore's (1978) view about the theory

that calls for the redistribution of wealth. Another interesting point raised by Ghai in respect of the theory is that there should be a careful selective approach to the use of technology. He further cautioned against the indiscriminate use of modern technology, irrespective of its social benefits.

It is worth noting that even though the Basic Needs Theory appears novel and worthy, it has some inherent flaws and is, therefore, subject to criticisms. Ghai (1988) points out that the concept lacks an authoritative, comprehensive, and definitive basis. He adds that the theory has no standard measure. For example, as regards human rights the question that arises is what constitutes "human rights"? In his view, what one might consider to be human rights violation in one country might be considered as upholding the rights of others by someone else. A case in point is the Zimbabwe Government's seizure of large tracts of farmlands from the white minority for redistribution among majority landless blacks. This action might be regarded by some people as upholding the human rights of others while another school of thought might see the move as a violation of human rights. In short, the theory has enabled some people with divergent views and ideologies to give different interpretations to what it purports to portray. In consequence, different policies, strategies and institutional framework have been instituted to serve the purpose of the theory. Hence, some critics argue in many circles that the theory is deficient. The concept's objective function is vague and diffused and lacks credibility. It is further observed that in various parts of the world some people use the concept to serve dual personal goals.

Ghai (1988) further argues that there are a number of issues raised by the theory which require thorough investigation. He identified the key issues

as measurement and quantification of basic needs, and the estimation and generation of resources to meet those needs. Others are an elaboration of the necessary productive systems and structures coupled with the political, administrative and economic problems of transition as the economies shift towards a basic needs orientation. In his view, the theory has presumed a number of issues or taken many things for granted; hence, many people are unable to comprehend its real meaning and interpretation. Furthermore, there is a problem of how to measure it also how to achieve it. These are all matters that have not been addressed by the proponents of the concept. It is therefore, not surprising that its context is understood differently in various socio-politico economic cultures.

Another key problem associated with the Basic Needs' Theory is that it gives the impression that the elimination of poverty is very easy. Besides, the theory assumes class and group conflicts and underestimates the extent of the structural and institutional changes necessary for an effective attack on poverty (Ghai, 1988). Ghai emphasizes that some critics see the theory as entirely consumption-oriented and that it represents "social welfarism" in conditions of under-development and thus it is biased against economic growth. Another argument is that the concept, if fully implemented, would perpetuate economic backwardness. This is because it puts emphasis on production of consumer goods instead of capital goods; that is, of agricultural commodities, instead of industrial goods and recommends intermediate and mediocre production techniques rather than modern and advanced technology.

The concept, as discussed above, is relevant to this work. This emanates from the fact that rural community development is also about

meeting the basic needs of the local people. This is exactly what NGOs in Northern Ghana are doing: that is, providing various interventions in agriculture to promote food self-sufficiency, water and sanitation services, health and nutrition services education/training services to reduce illiteracy rate, micro-credits and income generation activities, gender and development, and advocacy.

### **Self-reliance concept**

The self-reliance concept is generally understood as the process of mobilizing the national energies of each country for development. The concept stresses on the need for every country to develop through the maximum use of its resources such as labour, materials, and land so that it becomes economically and socially independent. This challenge can become a reality through the active participation of the people in decision-making at every level of a community project (UNESCO 1982). This view expressed by UNESCO is not different from that of Fekade (1994): who viewed self-reliance as the autonomy to set one's goals and realize them as far as possible through one's efforts and resources.

The lesson that can be learnt from the UNESCO and Fekade definitions of the self-reliance concept is that as much as possible, a country should endeavour to support itself from its own human and material resources rather than always look up to foreign donors to bail it out of every least financial difficulty. This, therefore, means developing countries such as Ghana should learn to do the following: spend prudently within their own local resources and endeavour to raise sufficient funds by widening the scope of the

tax net in order to raise as much funds as the country requires to support its national budget. In addition, the government in power should constantly check its ministers and other political activists so that none is able to pilfer the scarce financial resources of the country. Finally, there should be an instituted national policy guarding against over borrowing; that is, as much as possible the government should limit itself to modest development projects.

Brown (1986) submits that self-reliance means self-confidence, reliance on one's own human and natural resources, the capacity for autonomous goal setting and decision-making and increased international co-operation for collective self-reliance. He emphasized that self-reliance, as a concept, is a potent strategy to effectively attack mass poverty. He suggested a number of guidelines to serve as the basic tenets of the concept of self-reliance as follows: the society should not introduce any consumption goods which cannot be shared by the vast majority of the population at that particular stage of development. Secondly, the society must make maximum use of indigenous resources and technology. Further reliance on foreign assistance must be viewed as the minimum that the country can do with, not the maximum that the country can negotiate. Last but not least, there must be a deliberate de-linking of the society from its past dependent relationships with its previous colonial masters.

From the above basic tenets of the concept of self-reliance, it could be inferred that self-reliance is an integral part of radical restructuring of the whole system of international economy. The concept is meant to spur on developing countries to wake up from their slumber to solve their respective development problems through the mobilization and judicious use of their own

resources (UNESCO, 1992). Besides, UNESCO states that the underlying principles of self-reliance concept are: belief in the people and in the nation at large; secondly, the ability of the people themselves to find new resources and invent new techniques for applying these resources to serve socially useful ends; and, lastly the ability of leadership of the country to take full control of the national economy and direct it towards attaining the commanding heights of the state. The lesson that can be drawn from the UNESCO guiding principles for achieving self-reliance is that people, the developing countries must learn to cultivate the spirit of self-worth and self-respect for themselves.

In addition, people should trust in their own personal skills and knowledge, and endeavour to develop a strong attitude and will power believing that they are capable of doing things for themselves with available local resources. Besides, each member of society should bear in mind that self-reliance requires them as a people to be disciplined in the use of resources that are available to them at a given time, rather than always looking for external assistance which usually comes with many strings attached. It is important to note that the concept of self-reliance does not in any way mean a complete de-linkity with any external body or nation. What it requires is mutual relationship arising from trade and co-operation and an equitable distribution of resources for the satisfaction of vital Needs.

In the case of Ghana, an attempt should be made to properly direct the nation's resources to meet the food, water, health and the educational needs of every Ghanaian instead of using the nation's scarce resources to buy expensive cars for Members of Parliament. No wonder therefore that UNESCO advocates radical changes to be made in the social, economic

political and cultural life of the developing countries as to ensure an even distribution of income, an expansion of the domestic market and more active participation by the people in decision-making at every level; (the family, community, the school and the organisation).

A close examination of UNESCO's view's about the concept of self-reliance reveals that the beneficiaries/communities should constitute the center of every community development programme. Thus, whenever a project / programme is to be designed, it must aim at making the local people better off through a process of enhancing their ingenuity in order to enable them to make use of their locally produced materials to produce goods for themselves and possibly for sale. From the assertion, it can be said that if a country like Ghana is able to produce goods locally to satisfy its domestic needs, then, it can be said to be practicing self-reliance or otherwise referred to in Ghanaian parlance as "domestication", meaning the ability to produce goods to meet a country's domestic needs rather than importing everything from foreign lands.

Hence, from what has been said so far about the self-reliance concept, one can conclude that the theory is relevant to this study because it calls for the use of local resources (material, human and financial) which constitute an important component for NGOs' rural community development programmes in developing countries.

## **Dependency theory**

Fagerlind and Saha (1989) state that the underlying assumption of the dependency theory is that development and under-development as relational concepts within and between societies are inversely related. In their view, the under-development of a region or society is seen as a process which is linked to the development of another region or an outside society. The theory focuses on the process whereby the condition of less developed regions and countries in the World are seen to be caused by the activities of the metropolis/urban centres, and the rich nations (the rich Western Europe countries such as Germany, France and the UK and in recent times, the US and Japan).

For instance, in Ghana, the cities and the urban centres (towns) are developed at the great expense of rural areas, creating room for the latter to depend on the former. Similarly, the rich nations (UK, Germany, France, the US and Japan) also develop at the expense of the (developing) poor countries such as Ghana, Kenya, D.R. Congo and most of the underdeveloped countries.

The above scenario has been justified by some renowned development economists such as Fekade (1994) and his counterparts. According to Fekade, the realization of rapid and high growth rates of Gross National Product (GNP) requires significant inequalities of income and wealth; hence development at the initial stages will be unequal and uneven. He added that economic growth is not evenly distributed in all parts of a region or a country. In his view, it is initially concentrated in poles, that is in the urban centres and thereafter it extends to the rural areas or the hinterlands in the form of capital flow, innovation, entrepreneurial skills and know-how, industrial and commercial work. The urban centres do also serve as important market centres

for the products of the rural areas. In Ghana are: Accra, Kumasi and Takoradi serve as market centres for the farm produce from Dambai, Ejura, and other rural communities. Lewis (1970), cited in Fekade (1994), also shares a similar view on the uneven relationship between the urban-rural dwellers or the developed nations vis-à-vis the under-developed countries. He states that there will be “negative polarization effects” initially when agriculture is sacrificed to finance industrialization, physical and social infrastructure at the poles. Agriculture will have a trickle down effect thereafter.

Nketia (1993) states that dependency may develop between private individuals, groups and nations where one party controls the relevant aspects of behavior of the other party by virtue of superior political, social, economic, technological skills and resources related to specific problems. What this means is that within families, clans or community, dependency can occur because some members will certainly have command over their neighbours and will, therefore, use those superior advantages unduly to the detriment of their fellow kinsmen or neighbours.

Ninsin (1993) states that the recipe for technological dependence and foreign aid is the draining of beneficiary countries of scarce resources, thereby stifling and distorting development. Ninsin’s view was acknowledged by Acquandah (1993), but then he goes on to state that the technologically-advanced nations use subtle means to enrich themselves through giving aid with one hand and receiving huge benefits from the developing countries with the other hand through the payment of low prices for their primary products (raw cocoa beans, unprocessed timber, rubber and coffee).

Acquandah (1993), Nketia (1993), and Ninsin (1993) are of the view that the sustainability or perpetuation of a dependency syndrome requires local partners; such partners, to them, are usually the elite or leaders in key positions in a given society or country. What the elite do is to build and legitimize structures that would strengthen dependency. Thus, in Ghana and other developing countries, the elite consist of the chief directors at the Ministry of Trade, the mining sector and top political activists who condone with powerful rich foreign business enterprises (Importers and Exporters), specifically the multi-nationals to cheat their fellow countrymen. The local elite usually share the proceeds with the multi-nationals. The multi-nationals then repatriate the huge profits to the parent company which sends it back to the poor country in the form of grants or loans to support the mining, coffee and timber sectors in order for the cycle of exploitation to repeat.

Nketia (1993), and Ninsin (1993) note further that the dependency syndrome in the developing countries can be summarized as open plunder, colonialism, neo-colonialism and imperialism. In their view, the history of the colonialists in all developing countries had been marked by subjugation and plunder of their human and material resources. With time the colonialists stopped the plunder of human beings when it was no longer profitable to use slave labour in the plantations. However, the practice of open plunder of developing countries resources still goes on unabated but with the connivance of the local elite.

The dependency theory, like the modernization theory, has been subjected to a barrage of criticisms. For example, in Fagerlind (1989) stated that current studies have indeed shown that foreign investment, trade and aid

given to a country in the short run at least contribute to economic growth in the recipient country. He emphasized that no country can develop by itself; that is, it must by necessity trade with other countries that need its products. However, if those that are ready to buy its products happen to be the rich nations, so be it. On the other hand, if any developing country needs assistance to carry out its development projects and the aid can only come from the developed countries there is certainly no reason why it should refuse to go for it. What that country needs to do is to guard against the practice whereby loans and grants obtained from the developed countries are not misapplied or diverted to satisfy personal greed and caprices.

It appears the proponents of the dependency theory have indeed glossed over the fact that some dependent nations have succeeded in becoming rich while others have remained poor. It appears a blind eye has been turned on the active participation of some non-capitalist countries, namely the then Soviet Union, and its allies even though such countries have equally promoted their own form of dependency and under-development in poor countries where they exercised domination. Fagerlind and Saha (1989) note with concern the difficulty associated with the dependency theory for its failure to provide an alternative strategy for development without introducing any traces of dependency in the economies of developing countries. Thus, a call for the cancellation of trade relations, rejection of international aid or nationalisation of multinational companies as policies which are not the least likely to eliminate dependency or promote some level of economic growth needs to be reviewed by policy makers in developing countries. Besides, the goals of

attaining absolute self-sufficiency and autonomy by a nation are unrealistic, far-fetched, and totally impracticable in today's world of inter-dependency.

The issue then is if developing countries cannot do without getting involved in the dependency syndrome, then what style of dependency-related development should they pursue within a reasonable context? There appears to be no clear solution, except a few guidelines such as routing donor funds through NGOs for development projects / programmes in the recipient countries. On the other hand, dependency theorists have not indicated clearly how the local elite who act as collaborators with the elite of the developed countries in facilitating the dependency syndrome can be made to dispense with their unpatriotic tendencies in order to pull their poor countries out of the woods.

From the above discussion it can be deduced that the dependency theory has a direct link with this study, as World Vision Ghana's assistances are meant to enhance local food self sufficiency

### **Modernization theory**

Moore (1963) states that the modernisation theory denotes a total transformation of a traditional society into the types of technological society that prevail in the advanced Western countries such as the UK, France, Germany. What this means is that there should be a change in the traditional set-up in developing countries like Ghana, Nigeria, and the Gambia, and other African countries. In short developing countries should adopt modern technology of production, embark on industrialization, encourage the growth of urbanization as well as practice pluralism and a multiparty system of

governance. Fagerlind and Saha (1989) maintain that the theory has a causal link between five variables; namely, modernizing institutions, modern values, modern behaviour, modern society and economic development.

To modernize therefore means is to develop; a society cannot hope to develop; until the majority of its population are able to acquire modern values. These scholars further differentiate development by indicating that developed countries are characterised by universalism, achievement orientation, functional specificity whilst underdeveloped countries are characterized by the opposite variables of particularism, ascription and functional diffuseness. It is certainly not clear whether there are in real life situations that societies can really be grouped into clear-cut watertight compartments. Smelser (1963) states that even in Western societies, there are traces of underdeveloped characteristics such as the practice of witchcraft.

In the same vein, in underdeveloped countries there are also traces of the so-called modern characteristics such as monetary economy and multi-party electoral systems. Esmann and Uphoff (1984 in Fekade 1994) add another dimension to the theory by disclosing that natural factors such as indigenous institutions inhibit development. Therefore, in line with Esmann and Uphoff's reasoning, one might be right to say that chieftaincy which is an indigenous institution inhibits development in certain parts of the country. This point is based on the fact that in certain communities in Ghana people tend to fight over succession to a stool/skin and as a result life and property get destroyed. Such confused circumstances tend to destroy the little achievement they have made over the years, instead of working together to achieve modern technological progression.

Smelser (1963) further advances the understanding of social transformation that accompanies economic development goes through the modernisation of technology. The end consequence leads to a change from simple traditionalized techniques to the application of scientific knowledge. It also involves commercialization of agriculture which is usually characterized by movement from subsistence to commercial farming, resulting in specialization in cash crop production and the development of wage labour. In addition, it involves an industrialization process which depicts a transition from the use of human and animal power to machine power. The transformation also involves urbanization, which consists of changes in the ecological dimension, and the movement from rural communities to towns and cities. This symbol of economic development does not necessarily mean an assurance of quality human life for any country which professes to have passed through the outlined four basic transformational processes that underpin development. There are pockets of very poor people living in deplorable conditions in the wealthier countries just as in underdeveloped countries there are well-to-do people who live in affluence comparable to that of their counterparts in the advanced countries.

A process of modernization can therefore be characterized into many forms: revolutionary, complex, systematic, global, phased, homogenizing, irreversible, and progressive. What needs to be noted about these various forms of modernization is that they are intermingled. Hence, there appears to be no such that depicts one or two particular forms of modernization. What could possibly be said about modernization is that it is an ongoing process

which evolves from one form to another. That is, it could be revolutionary and systematic.

Eisenstadt (1966) states that modernisation can be viewed as a reality through differentiation, integration, and adaptation. By his estimation, modernization can only be sustained when a society develops a certain degree of flexibility, dynamism and is able to absorb and adjust to prevailing socio-political and economic conditions. It could, therefore, be deduced from his description of modernization that it is a continuous process and so whether it is revolutionary or systematic, for the system to remain functional it should contain some degree of flexibility to enhance its continuous existence. If it remains rigid, it will be susceptible to a breakdown or total collapse. Hence, any country or society, which is going through the process of modernizations needs to have the following attributes: flexibility, dynamism, and capacity to absorb the daily forces of internal and external friction that militate against its steady progress.

The modernisation theory, like other theories, is not sacrosanct. It has its own limitations. Thus, the assumption that modern attitudes and values are incompatible with traditional ones is not entirely true. Fagerlind and Saha (1989) advanced arguments to support the fact that the values of the two systems are not incompatible by citing Japan as an example where traditional forms of labour commitments seem to have contributed to its economic growth while the same commitments were observed to be an impediment in the West. According to Gusfield, there is sufficient evidence to show that countries like Japan, Taiwan, Korea, Israel, Switzerland and Holland have all developed by preserving their native cultures. That is, each of the mentioned

countries maintained their perspectives, cultural values, social norms, institutions, laws, management practices and, above all their individual national philosophy or ideology. It is, therefore, possible for a country to depend on the raw materials and even financial resources of other countries and yet not be entrapped in a culture of material dependency (Hagan 1993).

Besides, the modernization theory assumes that modern values and behaviour by individuals automatically leads to socio-economic development at the societal level. However, Fagerlind and Saha (1989) stated that this casual link does not necessarily hold because a society is not simply the sum total of the individuals within it. He notes, for example, that emigration of professionals from less-developed countries is some form of modern behaviour, but could not be said with any certainty to contribute to structural and economic development in those countries. Hoogvelt (1976) in Fagerlind and Saha (1989) also states that the modernization theory is ideologically biased and ethnocentric because the criterion for measuring it is for the society to become Western. That assumption is certainly inadequate because it has been observed that countries like Japan, Taiwan and Korea each has become modernized without necessarily becoming westernized.

This theory is related to the work of NGOs in rural communities in Northern Ghana. NGOs encourage modernization of agriculture by providing water sources such as dugouts and dams to facilitate dry season gardening to supplement produce from rain-fed agricultural activity. NGOs also collaborate with the Ministry of Agriculture's decentralized offices at the District level to maintain extension service programmes on post-harvest management techniques. In addition, they introduce rural communities to new

crops such as soya bean, and support the farmers to cultivate it on commercial scale. New breeds of animals such as the exotic Malian type of goats are introduced to rural communities in the North by some NGOs.

Besides, some of the NGOs give out loans to rural communities to enable them to buy farm inputs like fertilizer and chemicals to enhance crop yield and animal production. The beneficiaries of the loans advanced by NGOs could also use part of it to buy farm implements (ploughs, donkey carts) to expand their farm size rather than relying on the use of the traditional hoe and cutlass.

In conclusion, the fact that NGOs provide rural communities with water sources to enable them to undertake additional agricultural activity in the dry season, and to collaborate with the Ministry of Agriculture to organize programmes in extension services for rural farmers to enable them to acquire modern techniques in food production and management practices to some extent confirms that the modernization theory is relevant in World Vision Ghana activities which are geared at facilitating rural development in Northern Ghana

### **Conceptual framework**

The conceptual framework for the study sheds light on how World Vision Ghana's interventions facilitate rural development in Northern Ghana. It is based on the Goal Optimisation Model, conceptualised by Parsons (1969). The Goal Optimization Model suggests that an organisation's effectiveness is determined by the consequences of its activities in a given environment. It is based on three main factors:

- every organisation must define its main purpose for being in existence, that is, specify its goal in clear terms.
- every organisation should determine its resources or capabilities that could be used to achieve its goal within its operational area.
- an organisation should establish means for coordinating efforts to achieve its goal.

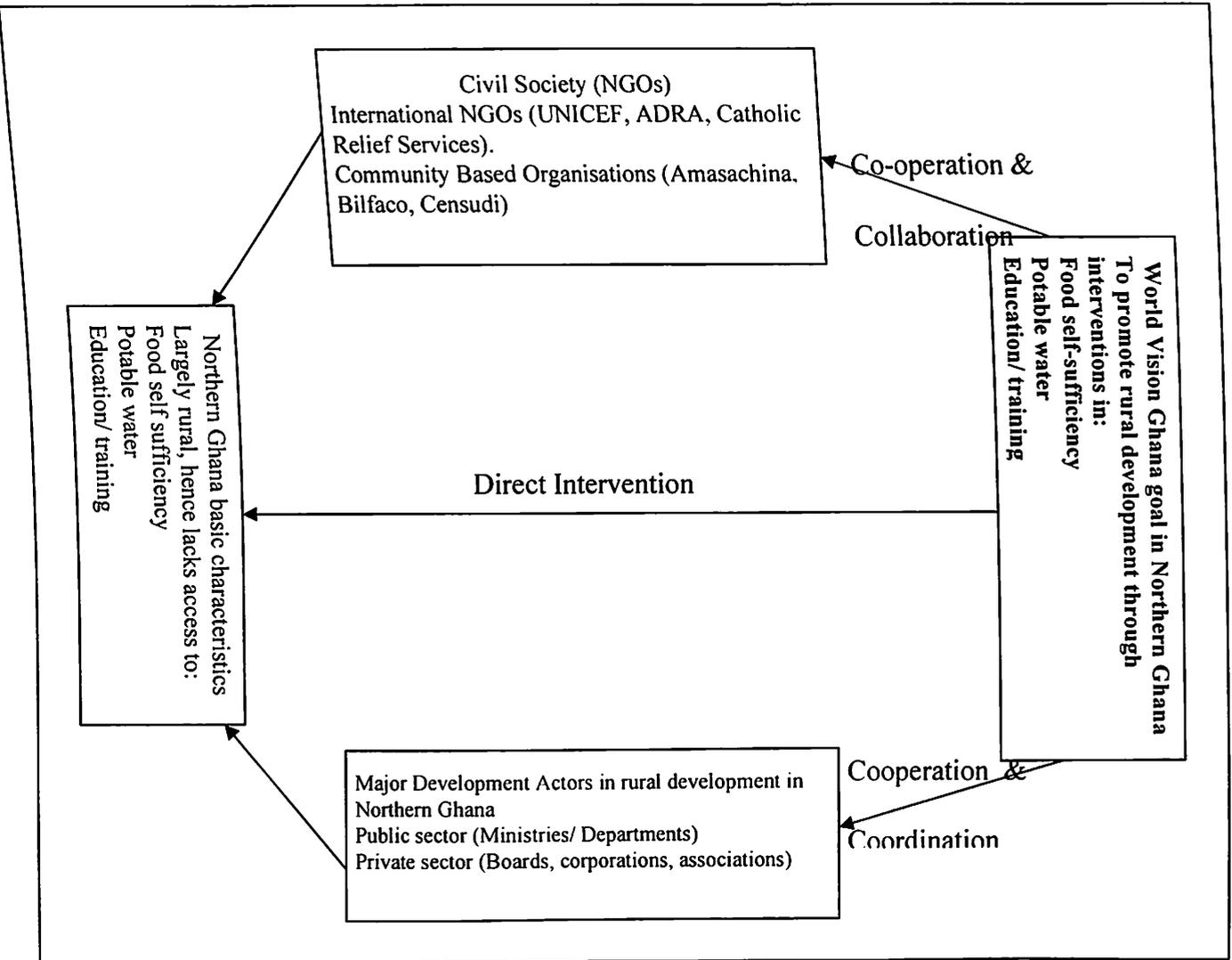
According to Parson, (1969) the Goal Optimisation Model centre on clear definition of objectives and methods of evaluation of individual or group accomplishments. Its interventions of World Vision Ghana are rooted through the Goal Optimization Model in order to promote rural development in Northern Ghana. Thus, by providing beneficiaries with modern technological knowledge and skills as outlined in the modernization theory, it is expected that World Vision Ghana would be able to contribute its quota to improve upon traditional industries as outlined by the endogenous concept of development.

To meet its goal in Northern Ghana, World Vision Ghana either has to compete or co-operate with other organisations in the areas it operates. In this regard World Vision Ghana has been collaborating with identified stakeholders and other development organisations that are engaged in poverty reduction, wealth creation, and accumulation in the beneficiary districts. The Goal Optimisation Model does not only assist World Vision Ghana to determine the effectiveness of the methods adopted but also their functionality. Besides, its activities have to fall in line with what the target groups desire in order to meet its goal for the North.

In summary, the Goal Optimisation Model adopted by World Vision Ghana is based on the dependency and modernization theories as well as the concepts of development, rural development and endogenous development. In addition, the basic needs and the self-reliance concept were also drawn to guide the choice of the Goal Optimisation Model as basis of the conceptual framework. Thus, to be able to achieve its goal of contributing to rural development in northern Ghana, World Vision Ghana focused its interventions on the following:

- access to food self-sufficiency
- potable water and
- education/training in rural communities.

It is expected that World Vision Ghana can meet its goal in contributing to rural development in the North, if it utilizes the Goal Optimisation Model efficiently. Thus, the adoption of the Goal Optimisation Model by World Vision Ghana is, therefore, meant to help it uplift the economic, social and psychological welfare of rural communities in its beneficiary districts in the north. Figure 2 is a summary of the Goal Optimisation Model adapted by World Vision Ghana in its target communities in Northern Ghana.



**Fig 2: Goal Optimisation Model**

Source: Adapted from Parson (1969).

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter describes the methodology used in conducting the research. It covers the type of study and study area, target population, sampling procedure, research design, research instruments, pilot study, conceptual framework for analysis, weaknesses of the “before and after” framework, techniques of analysis and limitation of the study. In this particular research, there is the need to start with problem definition. Prior to the collection of data for the study, there were series of interviews and personal discussions with various stakeholders on different programmes initiated by NGOs in the study districts. These interactions with the stakeholders facilitated the definition of the key issues related to rural community development.

It also included methods adopted for obtaining data through the use of the standardized open-ended interview techniques as shown in (interview schedules I, II, III and IV). Interview Schedule I covered household survey; Schedule II covered World Vision Ghana activities; Schedule III covered District Assemblies and identified decentralised agencies, namely, The Ministries of Agriculture, Health, Education, the Water Board, and the Sanitation Unit of the District Assemblies; Interview Schedule IV was for focus group discussion. The responses of the four sets of Interview Schedule I,

II, III and IV were grouped according to topics in order to facilitate baseline situation analysis and assessment of World Vision Ghana programmes in Northern Ghana.

### **Study area**

The study is on the contribution of World Vision Ghana to rural development, with particular focus on its operations in some selected districts in Northern Ghana referred to by its officials as 'Area Development Programme (ADP) districts. At the time of writing, World Vision Ghana had established seven Area Development Programmes out of the twenty-four political Administrative Districts of the Northern, Upper East and Upper West Regions, which constitute Northern Ghana. The seven ADP districts are Savelugu/Nanton, Bongo, West Mamprusi, Tolon/Kumbungu, Nadowli, Gushegu/Karaga, and Saboba/Chereponi districts. World Vision Ghana plans to open one more Area Development Programme office in 2005 in the Talensi-Nabdam District in the Upper East Region to make up the eighth Area Development Programme (See Figure 3). Based on time and resource constraints, three out of the seven Area Development Programmes (districts) namely; Bongo, West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton, were selected for the present study.

## **Research design**

The research design chosen for the study was the descriptive sample survey. It sought to assess the contribution of World Vision Ghana to rural development in Northern Ghana with particular focus on some selected districts rural beneficiary communities. It was meant to find out whether rural communities in which World Vision Ghana operate were deriving any benefits in terms of access to food self-sufficiency, potable water, education/training facilities.

The process involves the collection of data in order to test hypothesis or answer questions concerning the current state of the subject under study. It helps in determining and revealing the way things are (Gay, 1992). It further provides a picture of a given situation as it exists at the time study was conducted. It involves getting answers from a selected group of people to a set of thoughtful properly worded questions on the subject of interest and administered by the researcher and a team of trained research assistants. The field data were later analysed, using basic statistics to enhance meaningful descriptive analysis of the effect of the programmes on the life situation of the beneficiary communities in the selected districts.

Four different sets of questionnaires were drawn and administered by both the researcher and his team of six research assistants. The object was to obtain first-hand information from the target communities. The questionnaire was personally delivered to the NGOs by the researcher for them to respond to in writing within a given time limit. That of the households in the communities was administered by the six research assistants, while the third set of questionnaire was given to identifiable bodies such as the District

Assemblies, Ministries of Agriculture, Health and Education, the Ghana Water Company and the Environmental Protection Agency. The fourth set, which sought answers from the focus groups, was carried out by the researcher assisted by some of his field assistants. In addition to the above outlined field data collection process, information was also gathered from personal observation, official records, and general library reading in order to obtain additional data from relevant literature to enrich the study.

Also, to achieve meaningful results from the study, the work was conducted in three phases: the first phase lasted nearly four months, beginning from September, 2001 to December, 2001. During this first phase, the researcher and his team of six assistants were engaged in the listing of houses in six selected communities, two in each of the three selected World Vision-Ghana's Area Development Programmes Districts; namely, Savelugu-Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo districts. The second phase began in January 2002 and lasted only three weeks due to the researcher's involvement in a car accident, which got him hospitalized for a long period of time. Data collection resumed from January 2003 to October 2003. It involved interviews, self-administered questionnaires, focus group discussions, and field observation. The third and final phases lasted from November 2003 to December 2005. It involved the processing of the field data, data analysis, and writing of the report, first in drafts followed by a final report for submission.

### **Target population**

The target population consisted of all people receiving World Vision Ghana's assistance in rural communities of Northern Ghana where World Vision Ghana implements its ADP programmes.

Six rural communities, two each from the three Area Development Programmes (ADPs) districts were selected: Pong Tamale and Laligu in the Savelugu-Nanton ADP district, Yagaba and Kubore in the West Mamprusi ADP District and Gowrie and Adaboya in the Bongo ADP district. The choice of the six beneficiary communities was based on the fact that those communities had benefited from World Vision Ghana assistance for at least four years. It was assumed that such beneficiary communities would be in a better position to provide adequate responses to the questionnaires and also participate meaningfully in the focus group discussions.

The six selected communities (that is, Gowrie and Adaboya in Bongo ADP district, Yagaba and Kubore in West Mamprusi ADP district, and Pong Tamale and Laligu in Savelugu-Nanton ADP District) are shown in Figure 3. The choice of the six beneficiary communities was purposive. They were selected on the basis of their being the first beneficiaries of World Vision Ghana assistance in their respective districts.

### **Procedure for sample selection**

At the inception of the study, there were 40 registered NGOs in Northern Ghana, international, national and community-based, 15 of which were foreign and 25 national/local. Despite this large number of local and international NGOs, the researcher selected one International NGO on purpose

for this particular study, the main reason being limitation of funds for the study. Beside the problem of resource constraint, the researcher was working within a limited time frame. Furthermore, the researcher discovered that even though there is literature on NGOs activities in the North, much of it is general, thereby necessitating a comprehensive study of one of the NGOs. World Vision Ghana was, therefore, selected for this study with reference to its history, programmes, method of operation and the effect of its interventions on agriculture, safe drinking water/sanitation, health/nutrition, and education / training services in its beneficiary communities.

The simple random sampling technique was used in the selection of beneficiary rural communities from each of the three Area Development Programmes (ADPs). This was to help minimise bias and give credibility to the final findings. The process of deriving the sample size began first with listing the houses in six communities. The total number of houses in the six communities was 1840 (See Table 3), though there were differences in the number of houses in each Area Development Programme (ADP) district (See Table 3). There was, therefore, the need to obtain a representative fraction for each district. To obtain this, the total number of houses in a district was divided by the total number of houses in all the three districts. For Savelugu/Nanton the sample fraction was  $0.39$  ( $\frac{720}{1840}$ ); in West Mamprusi it was  $0.32$  ( $\frac{580}{1840}$ ); in Bongo it was  $0.29$  ( $\frac{540}{1840}$ ).

With respect to the sample size for the number of houses, it was decided that 6% of the total number of houses should be used based on limited resources and time frame. This came up to 110 houses, that is  $\left(\frac{6}{100} \times 1840\right)$ . To arrive at the number of sample houses in each Area Development

Programme district the sample fraction for a district was multiplied by the total sample of houses (See Table 3). In each of the 110 houses four adults were chosen randomly and interviewed; two males, two females where possible. Therefore, the expected sample size was 440 (Table 3). It must, however, be noted that the houses represented households which constituted the unit sample for analysis. As contained in the GSS Survey report (2001) the term 'households' stands for members of a house living together and sharing the same catering arrangements. In Northern Ghana this criterion appears to be true for most rural communities; hence, it seemed appropriate to use houses to represent households as units of analysis for this work.

As to which houses would constitute the sample households, the lottery system was used so as to minimise bias. In addition, as to which adult to interview in a given household an equal opportunity was given to all the house members who were available and ready to be interviewed. In the case of households that did not have the required number of adults, the team had to move to the other households to make up the difference in the number of respondents. This procedure continued until the expected figure was obtained at the end of the data collection exercise.

However, the actual returns were 404. This short fall was due to human error on the part of the research assistant during the process of the field data collection, coupled with the fact that, some potential respondents refused to cooperate with the research team to provide appropriate responses. The response rate was about  $\left(\frac{404}{440} \times 100\right) = 92\%$ .

In addition, one officer from each of the World Vision International (Ghana) Area Development Programmes Districts (ADPs), Savelugu–Nonton,

West Mamprusi and Bongo was interviewed. Similarly, an officer each from the Ministries of Agriculture and Health, the Ghana Water Company, and the Ghana Education Service in the respective three (ADPs) districts was also interviewed. Identified community groups and target individuals were also contacted for focus group discussions in order to obtain their candid opinions on NGOs' activities (World Vision Ghana in particular).

**Table 3: Number of respondents from three area development programmes districts**

Name of Study Districts	A	B	C	D	E
ADP	Number of listed Houses	Sampling fraction N	Adjusted Proportion B x 110	Expected Returns C x 4	Actual Returns
Savelugu/Nanton	720	0.39	43	172	160
West Mamprusi	540	0.29	32	128	120
Bongo	580	0.32	35	140	124
Total	1840	1.00	110	440	404

Source: Field Survey 2002

## **Research instruments**

The data for the study was collected from primary and secondary sources. The questions had two characteristics: they were closed and open-ended.

The closed ended questions were meant to give the respondents time to provide the appropriate answers to the questions. It was aimed at minimising the rate of some respondents' failure to respond to some of the questions as a result of time constraints. Besides, the closed-ended questions provided an easy task for the researcher in coding and collating quantitative field data. It further facilitated the recording of respondents' responses. Specifically, it made it easier to record quantitative field data. Kerlinger (1973) indicates that closed-questions have two benefits: they promote uniformity of measurement, thus ensuring a high reliability of answers to suit the pattern of response needed by the researcher. On the other hand, the open-ended questions provide respondents leverage (freedom) to express themselves openly and freely on particular issues (questions). It is further noted by Kerlinger (1973) that even though open-ended questions are dictated by the problem or an issue at stake, a respondent is at liberty to answer questions the way he or she deems appropriate. In short, no respondent is restricted to provide a standard form answer such as 'Yes' or 'No', because the individual is permitted to express his or her opinion on a given problem or issue.

Also through open-ended questions, it is possible to obtain some relevant information that was previously not thought of by the researcher, but which could surface through the process of not limiting respondent's to straight jacket answers. Kerlinger (1973) echoes that open-ended questions

enable the researcher to know the respondent true nature, that is, their belief systems, attitudes, interests and aspirations. In short, open-ended questions provide an avenue for the researcher to obtain detailed information from respondents on a particular problem which demands various views arising from respondents' answers to the questions raised in a questionnaire. Best and Kahn (1995) state that the process of engaging in open-ended questions is good because it creates room for respondents to indicate what they consider as their most important reason for opting for a particular choice of answers. Best and Kahn (1995) further state that the researcher might not have foreseen this point but by making room for respondents to freely express themselves, he or she stands the chance of gathering information which had not been anticipated.

As regards the provision for the focus group discussions, an interview guide was prepared covering basic information needed to augment the final write up of the study (Appendix IV). It must be noted that in the process of preparing the focus group discussion guide, consideration was given to the views of Cohen and Manion (1995). They emphasise that an interview guide for focus group discussions needs to cover the objectives and the research questions so as to serve as an appropriate guide for the researcher to obtain the right data to be collected from the identified various groups. According to Cohen and Manion (1995), it is possible to obtain all members of the groups actively participating in focus group discussion sessions because such an exercise usually brings people of similar interests together in an open and friendly environment. By this process, group members are able to express their views on issues that affect them directly or the neighbourhood communities. In short, what matters most in the conduct of a focus group

discussion is the ability to formulate a well-focused interview guide, which can stimulate and promote free and frank discussion amongst members of the respective focus groups.

Besides, beneficiary community members were grouped according to their social standing as well as those with a common interest. The youth were not put in the same discussion group with the senior citizens. Similarly, the women's groups were not put together with the men's groups. Finally, the number of people that constituted each group was limited to eight in order to ensure orderly discussion of the issues raised in the interview guide.

### **Pilot study**

Before the commencement of the study, the researcher performed two assignments. First, a pre-test of the questionnaire meant for World Vision-Ghana's Area Development (ADPs) district officers was conducted on one National NGO called New Energy working in the West Mamprusi (ADP) district. Similarly, the questionnaire for the beneficiary communities (household) was pre-tested in Tibali, a village in the Savelugu-Nanton (ADP) District. The interview guide for the focus group discussion was pre-tested on Vea, a community in the Bongo Area Development Programme (ADP) District.

The pre-testing exercise helped the researcher to eliminate ambiguous and irrelevant questions. It also made it possible to effect corrections on the first three sets of questionnaires before using them for the actual research work. From the pre-test exercise, it was revealed that the time allotted to the household interview questionnaire was too long, hence there was the need to

reduce the number of questions in order to secure the respondents' attention in the course of the interview. However, some degree of care was taken in order not to distort the content of the questionnaires so as to facilitate the collection of adequate data to enhance the quality of the study.

### **Framework of analysis**

The study was a descriptive type geared at finding out World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana, as regards access to food self sufficiency, potable water and sanitation services and education and training facilities. It called for comparative procedure. The comparative process is based on the 'before and after' (with and without) method. This type of evaluative procedure is meant to facilitate the setting up of benchmarks against the results before the interventions vis-à-vis the situation after the NGO's interventions in the study districts. By employing the 'before and after' approach of looking at the findings of the data analysis and the discussions that follow, attention is focused on food self-sufficiency, water/sanitation and education/training situation in the study communities before World Vision Ghana started providing some interventions vis-à-vis the after effect of the NGO's assistance at the time of the research. The outcomes of the 'before and after' comparative process enabled the researcher to assess the effect of World Vision Ghana contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana.

## Techniques of analysis

At the end of the data collection exercise, the different sets of data collection instruments, particularly those for the households, were counted to find out the response rate. The data instruments were numbered for identification purposes and edited so as to minimize coding mistakes. The various responses provided by the respondents to the same questions were used to prepare coding manuals. Master data sheets were prepared afterwards, and the data were processed using Computer Software Package.

Responses from the survey households were collated and duly tabulated. The questionnaires were coded and data entry made into the computer. The data were then analyzed using the chi square ( $\chi^2$ ) test.

### Chi square ( $\chi^2$ ) formula

The Chi Square statistic ( $\chi^2$ ) was calculated, using the following

formula:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i} \quad \text{where;}$$

- $O_i$  = Observed data
- $E_i$  = Expected data derived from the observed data,
- $E_i$  =  $\frac{R_i C_i}{n}$

where:

- $R_i$  = Sum of the observed rows
- $C_i$  = Sum of the observed columns
- $n$  = Total number of observed rows and columns

## **Interpretation of chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) results**

The results were interpreted by using the conventional chi square ( $\chi^2$ ) decision criteria. The decision criterion states that the association between any two variables is statistically significant when their calculated  $\chi^2$  values is equal to or greater than the critical tabulated value with the appropriate significant degree of freedom.

At 5% significance level, the tabulated  $\chi^2$  value is 3.84 for a degree of freedom of 1. This is the critical tabulated value against which the calculated  $\chi^2$  is compared.

## **Hypothesis**

The null hypothesis is that there is no significant difference with regard to the number of households with access to food self-sufficiency, safe drinking water and educational facilities before and after the programme. The alternative hypothesis is that there is significant difference in the number of households with access to food self-sufficiency, safe drinking water, and educational facilities before and after the programme.

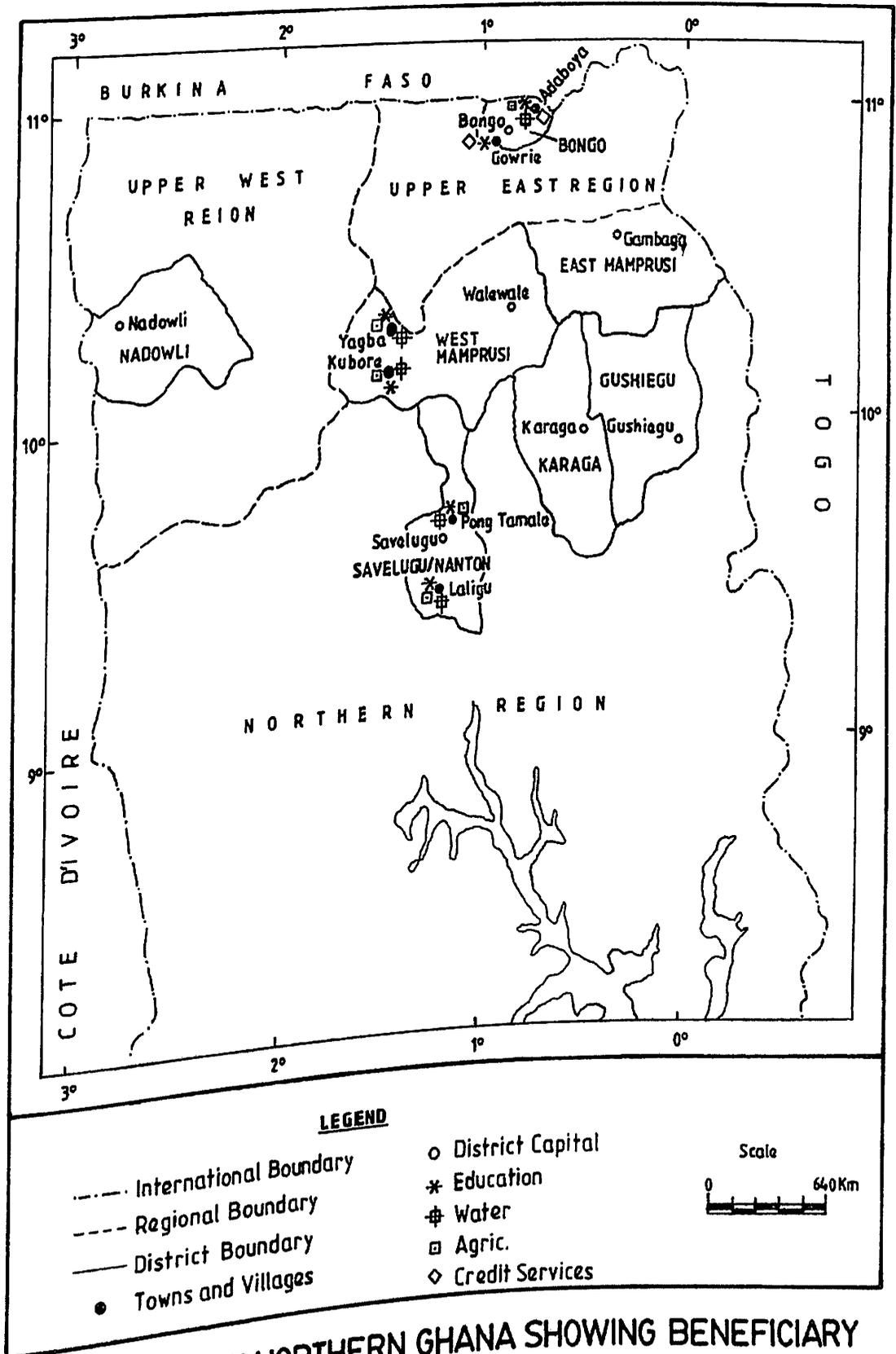
The  $H_0: P_1 = P_2$  versus  $H_1: P_1 \neq P_2$ .

Where  $P_1$  represents the number of households with access to: (i) food self sufficiency, (ii) safe drinking water, and (iii) educational facilities before the programme, while  $P_2$  represents the number of households with access to: (i) food self sufficiency, (ii) safe drinking water, and (iii) educational facilities after the programme.

### **Limitations of the study**

Ideally, a sample should have been drawn from each of the seven Area Development Programme districts in order to enhance the validity of the findings. That is, the study should have covered all the Area Development Programme districts. However, the selection of three programme districts ensured representativeness. Another problem that emerged in the course of the field study was that the researcher got involved in a car accident and was hospitalised for three months. The absence of the researcher in the field to supervise the research assistants caused a delay in the data collection process. The study was self-financed; hence, any time the researcher ran out of funds the work had to be put on hold till he came by some money to continue from where he stopped.

Lastly, the unco-operative attitude of some of the programme field officers even at their national headquarters to willingly release official evaluation reports on the programme activities in order to facilitate discussion on the baseline situation and assessment of the programme in the beneficiary communities adversely affected the completion of the study on time. To overcome this difficulty, the researcher had to make several rounds of visits to the officers concerned with varying methods of tact to enlist their cooperation. This approach eventually worked as officers who at first proved difficult became friends and gave the researcher access to the needed documents.



**FIG. 3: MAP OF NORTHERN GHANA SHOWING BENEFICIARY COMMUNITIES OF WORLD VISION GHANA PROGRAMMES**

Source: Geography & Tourism Department, University of Cape Coast, Cape Coast — 2008

## CHAPTER FOUR

### BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY OF NGOS IN NORTHERN GHANA

#### **An overview of Northern Ghana**

To be able to appreciate NGOs' contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana, it is appropriate to examine some key factors, which affected and continue to affect development in the area. Geographically, the north occupies a land area of about half the total land surface of the country. It is naturally endowed with rich arable land suitable for the production of various grains, namely sorghum, millet and rice. Leguminous crops, notably cowpeas, groundnuts, and beans, also abound in the region. The area also has the potential for the rearing of cattle, sheep, goats, pigs and birds. It also leads in high quality cotton production. The Shea tree, 'dawadawa' and a host of valuable fruit trees equally abound in the region. It has the potential of producing more than a third of the whole nation's food requirement.

The area is equally rich in mineral resources. For example, gold, iron, clay and lime deposits of commercial quantities are found in most parts of the region. Besides, the indigenous inhabitants of the region are noted for their modesty and hardwork. However, in spite of the region's rich natural endowment in agricultural products and mineral resources, the area lags behind other regions, especially those in the southern sector, in all aspects of development. The area's snail pace development process is attributed to the

certain factors. Firstly, the North was naively misrepresented as an area that lacked resources of commercial value. It was portrayed as an area with harsh physical and climatic conditions; hence, investors were scared and, therefore, not attracted to invest there.

Secondly, the Colonial Administrators wilfully failed to express interest in the North, so they selectively discriminated against it in the development programme outlined for the whole colony. The colonial administrators regarded the north as an area that had no potential for the development of agriculture as well as the mining of mineral resources – gold, bauxite, diamonds and manganese. The only good thing the colonialists saw in the North was its people, who were considered as a source of cheap labour to be in cocoa farms and in the mines in the Southern sector as well as perform menial jobs in cities such as Kumasi, Accra, Sekondi –Takoradi, and Cape Coast.

In order to achieve the objectives of obtaining cheap labour from the North to serve the interest of the plantation farmers and the colonialists at large, conscious efforts were made to ensure that the North was starved of funds for carrying out development projects. The well- designed and calculated plan was meant purely to either halt or slow down physical development in the north and to redirect such funds to help speed up development in Ashanti and the coastal towns. The British Governor, Sir F. M. Hodgson, expressed this view in 1899 when he wrote to the Colonial Secretary in Britain.

For the present, I therefore cannot too strongly urge the employment of all available resources of the government upon the development of the

country to the south of Kintampo leaving the Northern Territories to be dealt with in future years. I would not at present spend upon the Northern Territories – upon in fact the hinterland of the colony—a single penny more than is absolutely necessary for their suitable administration and the encouragement of the transit trade.(Bening, 1971; 220).

In the view of the colonialist administrators, it was a good option to delay development in the North till such time that surplus funds were available. Consequently, funds were directed to prop up development in the Southern towns and cities that were within the 'golden triangle': Accra-Kumasi-Takoradi/Sekondi. The policy of selective development as introduced by the colonialist created "push and pull" forces in the North. This process precipitated labour migration from the area to the south to seek work in the mines, cocoa farms, the rubber plantations and to do odd jobs in the southern cities and urban centres.

Besides denying Northern Ghana of general physical development, such as roads and railway the inhabitants were also denied formal education. Thus, when it became necessary to open schools in the area, it was observed that the curriculum was limited in scope and so did not provide adequate standard of education to the beneficiaries. Among the social services that were denied the area included water facilities and health services. The absence of these vital social services exposed the people to various diseases such as yellow fever, cholera, small pox, leprosy, measles and guinea worm. Consequently, whenever the area experienced an outbreak of an endemic disease like guinea worm, agricultural productivity fell.

From observation, it appears the development gap between Northern Ghana and the South had been the result of neglect of the area (the North) by the colonial administrators. However, one is at a loss as to why after several decades of the nation's independence, there should still be clear signs of differences between the North and South in terms of general development. The questions to be answered with reference to differences in development between the North and the South are as follows: (a) Is the area still being neglected as was the case during the colonial era? (b) Does the size of the area affect its ability to catch up with other regions in terms of development? It is the view of some people that past and present governments have not shown any strong political will to the cause of developing the North, and thus rarely vote significant amounts of money for development projects in the area. With very little money coming from the central government, it becomes extremely difficult to undertake and carry out projects and programmes that provide social services like safe drinking water, clinics and schools for the people.

Another school of thought holds the view that the continuous slow pace of development with regard to rural community development in Northern Ghana is due to recurrent financial constraints experienced by successive governments over the years as a result of falling prices of cocoa, timber and minerals (gold and diamonds) in the world market as against price hikes of imported manufactured goods from the developed countries. As a result of restricted foreign exchange earnings from exports, the central government has, for some years now, been unable to increase budgetary allocation to meet the requirements of the various regions development component nation wide. It, therefore, stands to reason that Northern Ghana, which is the focus of the

study, being the largest of all the regions in the country in terms of land mass, should naturally have benefited commensurately from the annual budgetary allocation. Unfortunately, this has never happened; hence, development in the area continued to suffer stunted growth for years. It is, therefore, no wonder that Northern Ghana still lags behind the rest of the country in terms of physical development. This assertion is confirmed by a number of development indicators ranging from the level of urbanization, industrial development as well as basic social facilities. On the average, the three administrative regions constituting Northern Ghana are observed to be the least urbanized with levels of urbanization by 1984 as low as 8.5% for the Upper East, 10.8% for the Upper West, and 24.7% for the Northern Region. These individual levels fall far below the national average of 31.3% as at 1984 (GSS, 2002).

With regard to regional concentration of industries, the South is better catered for than Northern Ghana. Thus, as regards industrial development indicators such as the number of industries employing 30 and over persons, value added etc., the North is at a great disadvantage. The industrial nerve centre of the country is around Accra/Tema, Sekondi/Takoradi and Kumasi, all in southern Ghana which account for over 88% of the total number of industrial establishments, 92.1% being value added, and about 83.5% of the total number of persons employed in industry in Ghana. The remaining Southern Ghana accounts for respectively, 9.6%, 7.6% and 15.8% of the number of establishments, value added and number of persons employed respectively. On the contrary, Northern Ghana accounts for respectively, 1.3%, 0.3%, and 0.7% of the total number of the establishments, value added, and

total number of persons employed. These observed scenarios together with the low level of urbanization in Northern Ghana clearly reinforce its rurality.

It must also be noted that road network which is critical to agricultural development anywhere in the world and, particularly, Ghana is very poor in the North. Except a few major roads which link the regional capital towns and some key urban centers, the general condition of roads is deplorable. For example, the roads in Bongo district are approximately 245km but are barely able to withstand the effects of rains at the peak of the rainy season which is usually around July to August. Also in the West Mamprusi district, the road network situation is equally poor. For example, the total length of feeder roads in the West Mamprusi districts is about 360km, out of which of 21km needs re-gravelling whilst others need major construction to ensure all-year-round use. The World Vision Ghana Report (2002) indicates that the district has a road density of about 0.0950/Km<sup>2</sup> and is relatively one of the lowest in the country. In fact, road accessibility in the district is very poor, as compared to that of other districts in the North. This poorly served road network has for a long time had a ripple effect on the provision of other social and economic services. It is, therefore, as a result of the poor and badly maintained nature of the roads in the North especially in such deprived districts as West Mamprusi and Bongo, that of bicycles and donkey-carts are used as the main means of transport to the local markets and farms. The poor state of the roads render them completely useless during rainy season. The inter-regional disparity between the North and Southern Ghana is equally wide in respect of delivery of vital social services. With regard to health care delivery, the three regions in the North are worse off when compared to the rest of the country. For

example, Northern Ghana has about 2.4% of the health facilities in the country. Whereas the Greater Accra and the Ashanti regions have a doctor-population ratio of 1: 6,400 and 1: 18,000 respectively, Northern Ghana has a doctor population ratio of 1: 110, 000 (GSS, 2004). Besides long period of socio-economic problems, the North also experience repeated inter-ethnic and chieftaincy wars. In 2002 the area was plagued with a number of chieftaincy and ethnic conflicts such as the Kpabuso–Mpaha, Bawku, Wa, Yendi and Bimbago conflicts. These conflicts can be alluded to high illiteracy rates prevalent in the entire North coupled with long periods of non-economic activities which make majority of the people gullible to misinformation. Thus, to solve the problem of underdevelopment in the rural areas of the North, there is the need for an ‘SOS’ to bail the people out of poverty, disease and misery.

Bridging the wide developmental gaps between the Northern and Southern sectors of Ghana does not rest on food aid and other NGOs’ offers to provide for the rural people during difficult periods. It rests on how much the government would provide in terms of realistic and workable solutions to the beneficiary communities to assist them acquire knowledge and relevant skills to be able to address the problems that stand their way to speedy development with respect to improved agricultural practices and other social services. This assistance can lead to an enhancement of their living conditions. The role of the NGOs is to help when able and they need to be reminded of the popular Chinese proverb, “Give a man a fish and you feed him for only a day, but teach a man how to fish and you feed him for the rest of his life”. Since this study seeks to shed light on the contribution of NGOs to rural development in Northern Ghana, it makes sense to identify the various NGOs in the North

with emphasis on their interventions and other relevant data. Hence, the sample typology of the NGOs was selected through the lottery system from the three categories of NGOs operating in the North. The sample typology of the NGO's, therefore, sought to minimize the long list of NGOs engaged in almost the same kind of activities in the area.

In Table 4 NGOs in Northern Ghana are categorized as follows: (i) International NGOs such as Oxfam, World Vision International (ii) National NGOs such as ISODEC, and (iii) Community based/self-help organizations namely, New Energy, BILFACU and CENSUDI. The organizations include research institutes, churches, professional associations, and lobby groups'. The World Bank tends to interact with two main categories of NGOs, namely, Operational NGOs whose primary purpose is the design and implementation of development – related projects, and secondly, advocacy NGOs whose primary purpose is to defend or promote a specific cause and also seek to influence the policies and practices of the Bank. So far, there appears to be no strict and fast rule governing the nature and operations of NGOs in Northern Ghana. Some NGOs engage in both operational and advocacy activities, typical examples are ISODEC and CENSUDI. Others, such as the Legal Resource Centre specialize in advocacy only.

In Northern Ghana, community-based organizations (CBOS) serve a specific population in a narrow geographical area while the national organizations; which operate there, also operate in other parts of the country (see typology above). The international organizations have their headquarters in the developed countries but they carry out their operations in more than one developing country. The CBOs are generally referred to as grassroots

organizations or people's organizations and they are distinct in nature and purpose. The international organizations are understood to be "intermediary" NGOs which are formed to serve some CBOs which normally consist of "membership" organizations made up of group of individuals who come together to further their own interest, (e.g. women's groups, credit unions, youth clubs etc.). The national and international NGOs in the North generally concern themselves with the delivery of basic services, through the design of special projects and of conducting research to assess their activities. CBOs are usually recipients of project goods and services in the North. However, they in turn get involved in community projects, through participatory development.

CBOs are consulted by the national and international NGOs during the design stage to ensure that project goals reflect beneficiary interests. In addition, they undertake the implementation of community-level projects meant to benefit the rural poor. The key fact worth noting is that the national and international NGOs work in close partnership with CBOs by either channeling development resources through them or by providing them with services that are technical in nature. Typical examples of national and international NGOs that work in collaboration with CBOs are Action Aid, Catholic Relief Services (CRS), Danish International Development Agency (DANIDA) and Integrated Social Development Centre (ISODEC).

In spite of the diversity of NGOs in the North, numbers of strengths and weaknesses have been associated with the operations of NGOs in the North. The strengths include: strong grassroots linkages, field-based development expertise, the ability to innovate and adapt; goal-oriented approach to development; participatory methodologies and tools of

community development projects, long-term commitment, and emphasis on sustainability and cost effectiveness. On the other hand, the following weaknesses have been identified: limited financial management and expertise, limited institutional capacity, low levels of self-sustainability, isolation/lack of inter-organizational communication and/or coordination, small-scale interventions; lack of understanding of the broader social and economic contexts in their fields of operations. In spite of their weaknesses, NGOs in the North have become major players in rural development.

It is, therefore, not surprising that their number, size and influence keep increasing with passing years. From the above typology, it is possible to quickly look at the contributions of the NGOs in the North under the following sub-headings:

- NGOs and rural development
- NGOs in advocacy
- NGOs in education
- NGOs in rural agriculture
- NGOs in health
- NGOs in water and sanitation

**Table 4: A sample typology of NGOs in Northern Ghana**

Types of NGOs	Place of origin	Source of funding	Areas of intervention	Forms of intervention	Expected outcomes
<b>(A) International</b>					
World Vision- Ghana	U.S.A	U.S.A, Canada, Australia, Switzerland Ireland	Education, Water, Agriculture	- Establishment of primary education, - provision of school uniform, food ration for school children, learning materials (books and pencils)	- Improve school enrolment in target communities/access to primary and functional education by children and young adults 40%. - Reduce incidence of water borne disease 50%. - Raise food production per hectare by 40%.
Catholic Relief Services	U.S.A	U.S.A., Canada	Education	School feeding/ furniture.	Raise school enrolment 40%. Enhances teaching and learning by 30%. Improved pupils' academic performance by 40%.

**Table 4 continued**

Action Aid	U.K	U.K	Water	-Wells and dugouts for rural communities.	-Reduce incidence of water borne diseases by 40%
			Education	-School building, furniture and school uniform.	- Increase in school enrolment/improved teaching and learning in target communities by 50%
Oxfam	U.K	U.K	Health	- Local capacity building and strengthening of CBOs and sourcing for external assistance	- Enhances management and leadership skills for community mobilization.
			Advocacy	- Provide health services (drugs). - Provides School buildings/ furniture	- Improve access to health services in target communities by 30%. - Raise school academic performance in target communities by 40%.
ADRA	U.S.A	U.S.A	Education,		
			Agro forestry	- Increase interest in Tree planting and skills in post harvest management.	- Reduce the rate of desertification through agro- forestry by 30%.

**Table 4 continued**

(B) National	Ghana	Ghana	-Provide facilities for Early child education.	- Establishment of Nurseries - provision of micro credit for women groups, for procuring oil and gari processing mills	- Create awareness and interest amongst children at very tender age in formal education.
31 <sup>st</sup> Dec.		Government and external donors		- Mobilization of women into micro credit groups	
Women Movement			-Advocacy	- Create gender awareness issues.	- Enhance women financial capacity to become financially supportive.
				- Provide Education materials (Exercise books and school uniforms)	- Raise gender #consciousness amongst women.
ISODEC	Ghana	U.K.	Education	- Organize workshop for heads of rural schools.	- Improve standard of teaching & learning in target schools by 30%.
					- Encourage female education in target communities by 40%.
Mathan Tudu	Ghana	External Support plus local funds	Financial support to Women Groups Create awareness of women rights.	- Provide micro credit to women groups. - Provide gender education to target women groups.	-Increase women financial base. -Raise women awareness in gender issues

**Table 4 continued**

Amashachina	Ghana	External support plus local funds.	-Youth groups	social	- Organize workshops / seminars on issues related to self-help spirit in target communities by leadership skills. ---- 30%.	Increase Community mobilization and
			- Advocacy		Provide training for rural community work.	
(C) Community Based Organization (CBOS)						
BILFACU	Bunkurugu	Local	plus	Adult Literacy,	men/women	about 30% and also increase school
		External funds	programme	Men	- Promote interest in Literacy classes amongst	- Raise local community members
			and	Women	- Provide micro-credit for enrolment at household level by 60%.	
			groups		women/men groups to	- Raise financial position of
					engage in trading /farming	beneficiaries.
					activities through the	- Create high civic awareness amongst
					services of agricultural extension officers	beneficiaries.
					- Increase farm and animal production.	

**Table 4 continued**

New Energy	Walewale	Local External funds	plus	Water Sanitation	and	Hand dug wells with pumps, KVIPS	- Reduction in water borne diseases by 30%. - improve health management practice by households by 30%.
CENSUDI	Bolgatanga	Local External funds	plus	Women capacity building Advocacy		Micro-credit, workshops on gender issues	- Empower women economically-create gender awareness amongst women on their civic rights and responsibilities.

Source: Field survey (2002)

## **NGOs and rural development**

It is agreed that the role of national governments is to provide development programmes to meet the needs and aspirations of all citizens. In Ghana, national development policies are planned by technocrats and executed in collaboration with the various political and administrative structures at the national headquarters, and the Metropolitan and District Assemblies. The national budget is usually prepared with the focus on available resources at a given point in time. In Ghana, rural populations contribute substantially to the growth of the national economy through the production of essential raw materials for foreign exchange. However, when the national cake is shared in terms of development projects, the rural areas take a lesser percentage as compared to that of the urban centres. For example, large budgetary allocations are made to help establish and maintain large physical projects such as sports stadia, national theatres, clean water systems in the urban centres, while the rural poor continue to be deprived of basic facilities and services such as potable water and health clinics. In short, rural people are nearly forgotten when it comes to the distribution of the national cake.

The limited allocation of resources to rural communities by national governments in Ghana could be explained by the escalating oil prices, ever rising prices of imported products as against unstable prices for primary products in the world market. In the light of the “unjust economic order” (Tshikaba, 1998). Ghana, like other developing countries, has to use its limited foreign exchange resources earned from gold and cocoa to provide essential services for the urban people who are politically and socially conscious and

can rise against political leaders in the form of strikes, demonstrations, and agitations.

The way to address the underdevelopment of rural areas in Ghana is to borrow funds from international financial institutions at high interests. Unfortunately, such funds rarely get down to the rural areas due to alleged top-level corruption by some key figures. Because of the alleged high-level mistrust and corrupt practices at high political levels, with regard to the disbursement of credits and loans meant to cater for rural development, some lending institutions are reluctant to send money for rural projects. Instead, they prefer to channel their funds for rural projects through NGOs such as World Vision International (Ghana).

### **NGOs in advocacy**

From the sample typology of NGOs in Northern Ghana, the 31<sup>st</sup> December Women Movement, Amashachina, Mathan Tudu and Censudi include advocacy in their programmes for the North. The practice is meant to create gender needs and sensitivity among rural women in Northern Ghana. For example, during one of the focus group discussions, it came to light that at the household level some husbands rarely consulted their wives on financial matters. Specifically, women in households were not told how income earned from the sale of farm produce or some animals was spent. Through the awareness of the right to household information, women of late make their household heads (husbands) account for income realized from the sale of household properties.

The NGOs that play advocacy role also led to a gradual increase in the formation of women groups in almost all urban and rural communities. The increasing numbers of women groups give rise to women becoming aware of their civic rights and responsibilities. The 31<sup>st</sup> December Women Movement and CENSUDI interested in women issues play a key role in promoting gender awareness and sensitivity in rural communities.

In the field of politics, women in recent times are beginning to make remarkable strides in both local and national policies as a result of NGOs' advocacy programmes. A case in point is that recently, women have assumed the role of presiding members in some Metropolitan, Municipal and District Assemblies. The Bolgatanga Municipal Assembly and the Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly are two instances which portray the good works of NGOs advocacy. In national politics, three women from Northern Ghana were voted to the National Assembly in the December, 2004 general elections as a result of the NGOs' advocacy role.

It has been observed that one of the key points about NGOs' collaboration with national governments is the advocacy role they freely offer to serve the interests of the poor and deprived in society. The fact that NGOs are closer to government administration and power structure, makes the former favourably placed to serve the interests of the marginalized rural poor of the North. Indeed, NGO officials easily get in touch with government officials and policy-makers at the district, regional, and national levels a result, they are able to influence policies that affect the lives of the disadvantaged rural people throughout Northern Ghana. NGOs do not only serve as the

“mouthpiece” of the rural people but also serve as vehicles for promoting justice and fairness.

### **NGOs in education**

In recent times, most households in Northern Ghana see formal education as an important tool that can transform their lives from poverty to affluence. School enrolment and high attendance in some schools in certain parts of the North shows that majority of the people in the North have developed high interest in enrolling their wards into formal schooling. In response to the great demand for formal education in the North, the majority of NGOs operating in the area have an education component in their activities. They have undertaken the construction of classrooms in some communities that lacked schools.

Besides, education is seen as a principal instrument in awakening the rural children to some cultural values by preparing other them for later professional training. It also helps them to adjust normally to their local environment. The rural people have become aware that children cannot be expected to succeed in life if they are denied the opportunity for formal education. In the areas where the state has provided facilities for teaching and learning, children stand to benefit. However, where the state is unable to provide schools and teaching or learning materials in some parts of Northern Ghana, community members look up to NGOs for assistance.

Since independence, World Vision Ghana (2002) has revealed a high illiteracy rate for the area: 52.6% of children, (5-15 years old) never went to

school while 63% of girls (5-15 years old), never went to school. On the average, about 30% of girls and 10% boys drop out of school between nursery stage and junior secondary school level. Also in Northern Ghana, education suffers from low teacher-pupil ratio. For example, in Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi districts there is on the average less than 3 trained teachers in each school. Some of the NGOs, particularly the World Vision Ghana and Action Aid, respond to this low teacher-pupil ratio by sponsoring young men and women to undergo training in training colleges. Lack of school furniture still remains a major problem in the North, particularly in the remote communities that lack decent accommodation for teachers. In response to this problem, some NGOs such as World Vision International (Ghana) have constructed teachers' quarters in some of its beneficiary communities.

The survey reports revealed that some of the schools in the North lacked basic textbooks at all levels and in most cases there were no school libraries. However, with the timely intervention in the form of material assistance from the Catholic Relief Services, ADRA, Action Aid and World Vision Ghana, the problem of inadequate textbooks and other teaching and learning materials is gradually being addressed. Another major problem associated with education in the North is dwindling average daily school attendance which ranges from 41 to 45%, depending on whether there is a school feeding programme or not. A typical example is the Bongo District in the Upper East region. In order to mitigate this problem, some NGOs, particularly the Catholic Relief Services, have for some time now been sponsoring the feeding of children in selected schools in deprived rural

communities in order to encourage children to attend classes regularly.

In some rural communities, particularly in West Mamprusi, teachers' accommodation is non-existent. Most teachers, therefore, commute to school from nearby towns, covering an average of 15-25Km each day. Lateness and absenteeism of teachers is, therefore, quite high. The result is low output. In order to address this unfortunate situation, World Vision Ghana constructed not only classrooms but also a number of teacher's quarters in some deprived rural communities. An example is the West Mamprusi District in the Northern Region of Ghana. This action is meant to supplement the effort of the Ministry of Education. The World Vision Ghana, Action Aid and other NGOs instituted incentive packages in the form of bicycles as means of enticing teachers to accept postings to deprived communities and to stay in such areas for at least four years.

The survey revealed that among the major problems with child education in most of the study districts were the payment of high school fees and provision of uniform. In an attempt to reduce the burden on parents in deprived rural communities, World Vision Ghana in particular undertakes to pay the fees of some needy students in its beneficiary communities. It also provides such children with school uniforms. The World Vision Ghana also gives some children in some selected beneficiary communities either poultry or animals to rear as part of its gift- in- kind packages. The practice is to make it possible for children to sell some of the animals to buy their basic school needs and also to pay their school fees when the need arises. On the whole, the various forms of NGO interventions in the education sector in the North

supplement central government and the District Assemblies' contribution towards achieving the objective of helping all children to have access to formal education by 2015.

### **NGOs in rural agriculture**

Agriculture remains an important source of livelihood, in Northern Ghana. The general well-being of rural people is related to efficient agricultural productivity. In Northern Ghana, over half the adult population is engaged in agriculture (GSS, 2002). Despite this high percentage that is engaged in farming, some parts of the North experience food shortfalls in certain periods of the year.. A UNICEF report in 1999 shows that about 76.5% households were without enough food to eat throughout the year. According to the heads of households in Bongo, one of the study districts, the lean periods are between March – June and June – September (survey, 2002). Food insufficiency leads to worsening rural poverty, resulting in a number of malnourished children (Kwashiorkor) in some parts of the North. The problem of insufficient food to meet household food requirements causes poor school performance at the basic level as it keeps children away from school. Also 15.9% of respondents in the Bongo district identified malnutrition with kwashiorkor. This attests to the fact that some people are aware of the dangers of food insufficiency.

In response to this precarious food situation in the predominantly farming communities, a number of NGOs operating in the North include agriculture in their intervention activities. World Vision Ghana, ADRA and

Action Aid include credit facility, dugouts, various extension services such as post harvest loss and supply of varieties of seeds and livestock for the beneficiary rural farmers. In line with this objective, the West Mamprusi District supports rural farmers with improved seed while CEDEP supports rural farmers with credit facility in the Upper West region. In the Savelugu/Nanton District, World Vision Ghana assists beneficiary communities to carry out small ruminant production. ADRA provides post harvest education to farmers in most parts of Northern Ghana. The 31<sup>st</sup> December Women Movement also supports the establishment of wood lots in most of its operational areas. These interventions are expected to enhance farm output per unit area so as to increase the number of households with access to food. Improved livestock services provided by the NGOs are meant to provide sources of revenue for rural households to buy additional food stock in times of food shortfall.

In summary, the various interventions in the form of credit facility, dugouts, training in post-harvest loss and general extension services provided by such NGOs as Action Aid, World Vision Ghana and ADRA are meant to supplement the services provided by the Ministry of Agriculture and its allied agencies like IFAD in Northern Ghana to raise food production from about 40% per household to 70% by 2010.

## **NGOs in health**

Ghana's health status is generally low. The North experiences the lowest health status in respect of doctor-patient ratio of 1:5000 (GSS, 2004). Other essential health facilities such as efficient and equipped laboratories, and X-Ray centres are virtually lacking in the North. Only one Referral Teaching Hospital is located at Tamale. This facility has been, however, in total disrepair for many years and is yet to undergo major rehabilitation. In the rural areas of the North, some of the health facilities are either broken down or have no qualified staff to manage them. In the West Mamprusi District hospital, there is no medical doctor, not enough nurses and no efficient laboratory as at the time of the data collection. In the Bongo District, the situation was no better in terms of nurse-patient ratio. Some of the NGOs, especially Action Aid, have developed a sponsorship package for young men and women in its beneficiary districts to undergo nursing training and to return to serve their communities. Other NGOs like ADRA, World Vision Ghana provide some drugs and medical equipment to some of the district health centres. In addition, some school children undergo a deworming programme through the assistance of some NGOs, namely ADRA and World Vision Ghana.

## **NGOs in water/sanitation**

Northern Ghana generally lacks improved and reliable safe drinking water sources. In most parts of Northern Ghana, particularly in the Northern region, only 7% of the rural communities have access to potable safe drinking

water (GSS 2002). The situation whereby only a small percentage of rural people have access to clean water gives rise to the high incidence of guinea worm disease and other infectious water-borne diseases, namely, cholera, typhoid and trachoma. Consequently, the absence of reliable source of good drinking water in most rural communities, especially in the Northern region, does not only pose a serious health hazard to the people but also creates a situation of time wasting as women and children spend long hours searching for water. A typical example is the Savelugu/Nanton district where women and girls sometimes walk miles to fetch water from distant streams and rivers that dry up during the dry season. Consequently, household chores and farming activities reduce significantly due to the crippling effect of the guinea worm disease, which makes most of the rural farmers bedridden.

In addition, the North faces serious sanitation problems due to lack of adequate sanitation facilities. For example, in some of the study districts, many communities suffer from poor environmental practices which result in poor solid and liquid waste management. From the survey, about 80% of rural households do not have latrines; hence, the people defecate indiscriminately. The practice contaminates the communities' immediate environment. The problem of poor sanitation in the North gives rise to water and food pollution in the rural areas and towns. Unfortunately, health education is very low; in some cases it is not taken seriously by majority of the rural dwellers.

In some parts of the North where water is obtained from the ground, much of it contains high concentration of fluoride. For example, in some communities in the Bongo District in the Upper East Region, fluoride levels

are high: Balungu 2.28 mg/l, Tarongo 2.5 mg/l and Namoo 1.94 mg/l. These figures exceed the WHO recommended fluoride concentration of 1.5 (mg/l) in drinking water. Not surprisingly, about 62% of children in schools in Bongo District suffer from dental floozies (World Vision Ghana, 2000).

It has been observed that refuse disposal in most of the rural communities is unorganized. For example, most households do not keep refuse bins. Households are to heap waste and rubbish a few meters away from the home and set fire to it to burn to ashes. This poor sanitation practice leaves much to be desired. It, therefore, requires intensive public health education to create awareness as well as raise the communities' consciousness as regards the use of latrines and proper disposal of household waste products in order to maintain a clean and safe environment. Thus, by way of helping to reduce poor sanitation of some communities, the World Vision Ghana and Action Aid so far have been providing assistance in the construction of KVIP latrines. World Vision Ghana has trained about 40 artisans who helped to construct 700 KVIP latrines in about 80 communities by 2003.

In spite of the substantial NGO contributions towards rural development in Northern Ghana with regard to increased access to food security, potable water, and access to formal education, the area still remains largely underdeveloped. Besides, it has been hit by the deadly HIV/AIDS. Though most of the NGOs are collaborating with the Ministry of Health to bring the problem under control, very little results seem to have been achieved. This probably is due to the lack of health service centres at both the regional and district capitals in the entire Northern Ghana.

**CHAPTER FIVE**  
**PREVAILING SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS IN THE STUDY**  
**DISTRICTS**

**Introduction**

This chapter focuses on a discussion of the social and economic conditions of the study districts before World Vision Ghana's interventions. The study area consists of three administrative districts in Northern Ghana namely, Savelugu/Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo districts, referred to by World Vision Ghana as Area Development Programmes. The data used in discussing the prevailing conditions before the interventions were obtained from the following sources:

- (i) The three Area Development Programmes Districts: Savelugu/Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo offices,
- (ii) Focus group discussion,
- (iii) Officials of government decentralized outfits: Ghana Education Service, Ministry of Agriculture, Health and Ghana Water Company.
- (iv) Library sources.

The study examined the socio-economic background of the study districts before and after (World Vision Ghana interventions). It was noted that, the colonial government embarked on discriminatory development policies towards the area. The outcome of the discriminatory development

plan for the area caused it to fall behind Southern Ghana in physical infrastructural development. For example, Northern Ghana had very little general physical infrastructure development in terms of road networks. This affected the socio-economic development of the area because the absence of good road network did not only affect the movement of goods and services, but also affected agricultural development. Agricultural research stations were not established in Northern Ghana for a very long time. Thus, the absence of this important facility limited increased crop production and animal husbandry, thereby undermining food self-sufficiency.

The effect of neglect and the lack of political will to develop the North has led to lack of food self-sufficiency, potable water and effective education delivery. In this regard, the World Vision Ghana and other development partners are collaborating with the central government and the District Assemblies to develop the area in order to raise the standard of living of the people. World Vision Ghana focuses is on the most deprived rural communities, especially those deemed to be needy and therefore require support from donor agencies. World Vision Ghana's goal is to provide relief services for needy communities anywhere to facilitate rural development. It, therefore, deems, it appropriate to extend its assistance to cover poor communities in Northern Ghana.

## **Socio-economic conditions prior to World Vision Ghana's interventions in the study districts**

As indicated in the introductory chapter, rural development has been a long-standing problem in Ghana. It dates back to pre-independence days. Its long-term goal is to reduce disparities in the rural areas through the provision of the necessary structures/institutions to enhance income generation and access to social services.

Previous governments made attempts to address the rural–urban gap by adopting some development strategies. For example, the Provisional National Defense Council (PNDC) government (1982-1992) embarked on development programmes such as rural electrification and decentralization. The aim was to speed up rural development in the country in order to improve the living conditions of rural people. This notwithstanding, the gap still continues to widen between Northern and Southern Ghana.

The PNDC rural development agenda was based on decentralization policy. Through the decentralization programme, the country was divided into 110 administrative districts in 1988. Each district was given political and socio-economic mandate to carry out government development programmes in the rural areas. The then PNDC government demonstrated commitment to the districts through financial commitment towards rural development. The government did allocate funds to the 110 districts through the institution of the District Common Fund to enhance rural development through out the country.

It was out of the 110 administrative districts that the three study districts in the North were selected to find out the contribution of World

Vision Ghana to rural development in Northern Ghana. These three study districts were ranked among the least developed districts not only in the North but in the whole country (GPRS, 2002). It was their poor socio-economic conditions which formed the basis for their selection for this particular study. The criteria for selection included the absence of basic general support services, particularly with regard to households' energy needs. Table 5 provides reasons why NGOs should support rural people to use solar energy as a source of light and other domestic uses rather than depending heavily on wood/charcoal for their energy supply needs.

Table 5 shows the availability of modern lighting facilities to be a major problem in Northern Ghana. From the data above on types of sources of lighting, the savannah area which includes Northern Ghana, is poorly served. For example, in the savannah zone (Northern Ghana) it is only 4.3 percent of households that have access to electricity, which is the most efficient source of lighting in the country. On the other hand, 90.6 percent of households use electricity in Accra, while 19.0 percent of households use electricity in the forest zone which represents Southern Ghana.

Concerning access to sources of fuel, the cities alone use 22.7 percent of gas while the urban and the forest areas, which cover mostly Southern Ghana, use over 40 percent of the product. On the other hand, the savannah zone (Northern Ghana) uses less than 1 percent of gas. On the contrary, it uses over 80 percent of wood as its major source of fuel and this accounts for the rapid deforestation in the savannah zone.

**Table 5: Distribution of households' energy sources (percentages)**

Type of Utility	Urban				Rural			Ghana
	Accra	Other	All	Coastal	Forest	Savannah	All	
Source of lighting								
Electricity (mains)	90.6	72.2	77.4	26.7	19.0	4.3	17.1	39.2
Generator	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.8	0.5	0.5
Kerosene/Gas/lamp	8.4	27.4	22.0	72.9	80.5	93.8	82.0	60.0
Candle	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	-	0.5	0.2	0.2
Other	-	-	-	-	0.1	0.6	0.2	0.1
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Actual use								
fuel								
Wood	1.1	34.2	24.9	72.2	87.6	89.2	84.4	62.5
Charcoal	70.5	57.2	60.9	24.8	11.3	5.2	13.0	30.6
Gas	22.7	5.2	10.1	1.1	0.6	0.2	0.6	4.1
Electricity	0.6	0.4	0.5	1.0	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.4
Kerosene	4.6	1.3	2.2	0.8	0.3	0.2	0.4	1.1
Other fuel	0.5	1.6	1.3	0.1	0.1	5.1	1.4	1.4
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2002)

It can be observed from the distribution of households' use of basic utilities with regard to sources of lighting and fuel that Northern Ghana, which falls under the savannah zone, is poorly served as compared to that of Southern Ghana. Since source of fuel forms the basis of development, it is appropriate that development programmes for the North should include the

provision of electricity and other sources of fuel in order to attract investors to the area, as well as enhance the opportunity for expanding local industries to absorb the large number of unemployed youth.

### **Agriculture and food self-sufficiency situation**

From a review of literature about Northern Ghana, specifically from the (GSS, 2002), reports and also data from the field, it could be seen that about 80% of the people in Northern Ghana are traditional peasant farmers. The report further indicates that 80% of the populations of Northern Ghana are peasant farmers. The field survey of 2002 also ranked farming first in the list of major occupations of the people in Northern Ghana (Table 6).

**Table 6: Distribution of major occupations according to districts**

Occupation	Savelugu/ Nanton	West Mamprusi	Bongo	Total
Farming	86 (53.8%)	84(70.0%)	70(56.5%)	240 (59.4%)
Trading	44 (27.5%)	10(8.3%)	11(8.6%)	65 (16.1%)
Artisans	14 (8.8%)	2(1.7%)	12(9.7%)	28 (6.9%)
Civil public service	16 (10.0%)	16(13.3%)	30(24.2%)	62(15.3%)
Other	-	8(6.7%)	-	8 (1.9%)

Source: Field survey, 2002

From Table 6, the majority of the people are engaged in farming as a major occupation. They produce largely food crops namely millet, rice, yams and groundnuts for household consumption. Another feature of the peasant

farming in the North is that it depends heavily on family labour. In most cases, hired labour is almost virtually absent because farmers do not have money to engage the services of farm labourers. Consequently, the size of each household farm is small because of the unavailability of active workforce and lack of access to credit facilities. The fewer the number of adult workforce in a given household, the higher the likelihood of a smaller farm size per household in a community. This situation contributes to low agricultural productivity, and hence inadequate food supplies for domestic purposes. For example, in the West Mamprusi District farm sizes vary from 0.5 to 2.4 hectares per household though there is available land for the establishment of larger farms farmers are unable to hire labourers to assist them.

In Table 7 50% of the farms in the study districts range from 1 hectare to 2 hectares in size. Less than 30% of the farms are above 5 hectares in size. Farms that range between 3 and 5 hectares are 16.1%. These relatively small farm sizes coupled with farmers' lack of access to credit facilities explain the low agricultural productivity in the North. It was also observed that the rural households inability to expand their farm sizes was due to lack of credit facilities to purchase modern farm implements and possibly hire tractor services to expand their farm size. Apart from the problem of the small size of household farms, the high rate of soil infertility arising from deforestation due to shifting cultivation and bush burning, erratic and unreliable rainfall are also factors which affect food self-insufficiency in the study districts before World Vision Ghana interventions.

**Table 7: Household farm size**

Size	in Savelugu/Nanton	West Mamprusi	Bongo	Total
1 hectare	68(42.5%)	28(23.3%)	19(22.6%)	125 (30.9%)
1 – 2 hectares	62(38.8%)	54(45.0%)	80(64.5%)	196 (48.5%)
3 – 5 hectares	22(13.8%)	34(28.3%)	9(6.5%)	65 (16.1%)
5+ hectares	2(1.3%)	4(3.3%)	2(1.6%)	8 (2.0%)
No answer	6(3.8%)	-	6(4.8%)	12 (3.0%)

Source: Field survey, 2002

It is observed that some parts of Northern Ghana have for sometime now been experiencing poor soil fertility largely due to over cropping and continuous tilling of the same piece of land every successive farming season (World Vision Ghana, 2000). In Bongo District (Figure 3), soil infertility is also said to arise from water and wind erosion besides periodic bush burning. These factors affect the production of staple food for the households in the study districts prior to the entry of World Vision Ghana. Besides these problems which limit food production in the study districts, over half of the total land area of Bongo district, in particular, is covered by rocks.

Also, Northern Ghana generally experiences a unimodal rainfall which has some peculiar characteristics. It has a single rainy season stretching from May to October with an annual mean rainfall of about 700mm which reaches its maximum in August. From the month of November to April, the region is completely dry. During this dry period, the weather is associated with the dry harmattan wind. These North-Easterly Trade Winds cause water in the rivers

and streams to dry up fast, thereby forcing human beings and animals in some parts of the North, especially in Savelugu/Nanton district, to walk several kilometers in search of water. It is, therefore, not surprising that under such extreme conditions of water scarcity, several deprived rural communities in Savelugu/Nanton and parts of West Mamprusi districts whose major economic activity is farming, are not able to engage in dry season farming in order to supplement the meager crop yield from rain-fed agriculture.

Arising from the above analysis of the prevailing socio-economic conditions in the study districts, a pilot programme on poverty reduction was carried out in Bongo district in 1999. The Baseline data in 1999 revealed that there were inadequate food supplies to meet individual households' food requirements. This was the key poverty indicator identified in the rural communities during the communities' sensitization and awareness creation forum in 1999. It also revealed the following characteristics of Northern Ghana: 97.3% of households were engaged in crop farming, while 84.8% of households reared livestock. The report added that 63% of the households did not have any other source of income besides farming and only 9% of the households in Northern Ghana had access to credit facilities. Further details of the report were that only 5.6% of the households were engaged in dry season farming, 44.4% of households obtained income from the cultivation of cash crops like groundnuts, cotton and rice. It added that 57.7% of the households experienced inadequate food production, thereby causing frequent annual food shortages especially in the deprived districts rural households without access to food self-sufficiency.

A common feature, which was associated with inadequate food production in the deprived rural communities was the presence of children with distended bellies (Kwashiorkor). This feature was common in the Bongo district. It signified a high rate of malnourishment. Also in Northern Ghana 39.3% of the children were underweight, about 13.1% of such number of children were severely underweight. These statistics are relatively lower than what was recorded in the (GSS, 2000) in which Upper East had 48.8%, Upper West 43.2% and Northern Ghana 42% of underweight children.

Following the difficulties associated with rural food production in Northern Ghana with particular reference to the study districts, World Vision Ghana provided various forms of assistance to rural farmers to enhance their capacity to become food self-sufficient (Table 8). The objective of World Vision Ghana in the study districts was to build the capacity of rural farmers to enable them to produce large quantities of staple food crops (millet, rice, yams, beans), and cash crops (cotton, mangoes and cashew) to meet domestic and commercial needs. The programme also assisted beneficiary communities in the study districts to increase the number of livestock (cattle, sheep, goats, pigs and birds) by collaborating with the Ministry of Agriculture to introduce improved variety of livestock to people who are interested. The livestock industry was to supplement the incomes of rural farmers through the sale of the stock in the local market to raise money for contingencies. Table 8 shows the various forms of assistance provided by World Vision Ghana in the study districts. The objective was to reduce food shortfalls of households from 57.7% to about 20% as projected by World Vision Ghana in its working

document for Northern Ghana.

In spite of the important role that livestock and poultry play in the socio-economic life of rural communities in Northern Ghana, the livestock industry is plagued with diseases such as tick and worm infestations, diarrhoea, black leg, foot and mouth disease, pneumonia, ascariasis and anthrax. Anthrax is the worst deadly disease affecting both livestock and humans. It occurs seasonally because of the rural farmers' unwillingness to pay a token fee for their animals to be vaccinated against the disease. The vaccination fee is ₵5000 per cow, which though affordable, is rarely paid by most of the rural farmers. The reason is that, in the past, farmers animals and birds were vaccinated free of charge. Thus, bearing that the livestock industry constitutes a major source of income for rural farmers, World Vision Ghana assists rural farmers to raise their income levels by collaborating with the veterinary services to vaccinate livestock periodically at subsidized rates and educate farmers on how to bring health to animals and birds that could fetch them good prices in the local market.

**Table 8: Assistance provided by World Vision Ghana for rural farmers in the study districts**

Type of assistance	Savelugu/ Nanton	West Mamprusi	Bongo	Total
Farm implements/inputs	20(12.6%)	34(28.3%)	52(41.6%)	106(26.4%)
Credit facility	40(25.2%)	43(35.9%)	23(18.8%)	106(26.4%)
Improved livestock	35(21.7%)	23(18.8%)	44(35.1%)	102(25.2%)
Improved seed	39(24.5%)	4(3.1%)	2(1.9%)	45(11.1%)
Food processing	-	8(6.3%)	-	8(1.9%)
No answer	-	6(5.5%)	-	6(1.4%)

Source: Field survey, 2002

### **Access to credit facilities**

Rural communities in the study districts are predominantly subsistence farmers. This, therefore, accounts for their low income earnings. To address this problem, there is the need for rural people to have access to credit facilities. However, over the years, access to credit by rural farmers in the study districts has been very low and even difficult. The reason is that there are no local financial institutions, namely, rural banks to give credit to interested farmers and local entrepreneurs to expand their businesses. For example, in 2000 access to credit by people in the formal sector in Northern Ghana was less than 30% (GSS, 2004). Besides, most of the people living in the rural areas were not aware of the processes involved in obtaining credit to finance their farming activities and other micro-businesses, such as basketry, cloth weaving, shea butter extraction and leather works. Those who were aware of the processes involved in accessing credit blamed their inability on the uncooperative nature of officials of the few available financial institutions. Others were also of the view that their failure to access credit stemmed from their lack of collateral security being demanded by the banks as a condition for granting loans.

The limitations to credit seriously hinder the growth of farming and other local business in the study districts and the North in general. It was noted that the inability of most people in Northern Ghana, especially rural dwellers, to access credit is the root cause of farming which is still not mechanized. The people rely heavily on traditional methods of farming through the use of the hoe and cutlass, a tedious activity, which does not attract the youth to take up

farming as a means of livelihood.

### **Road network**

Access to health service delivery and local markets in some of the rural communities is limited by poor road network. This explains the difficult conditions under which rural people go through in order to access health delivery services and marketing farm produce in neighbouring towns. The roads in the “overseas” area of the West Mamprusi district are usually flooded during the rainy season. There are no bridges or culverts over the streams and rivers. Also, in some parts of Bongo district, particularly in Zorko and Adaboya communities, access by road to those villages during the rainy season is extremely difficult because of lack of bridges across rivers and large streams. As a result of the poor state of roads in West Mamprusi district in particular, foodstuffs are generally locked up after harvest. Patients with referral and emergency cases also take longer time to reach either Navrongo or Sandema district hospital in the Upper East region for immediate attention.

### **Strategies for solving food shortfalls**

Respondents were asked to state the various strategies which they adopt for solving food shortages in their respective households. Table 9 shows the various strategies which respondents in the study districts adopt to solve food shortages.

**Table 9: Strategies for combating food shortfalls in the study districts**

Index process	Absolutes (Number)		
	Savelugu / Nanton	West Mamprusi	Bongo
Sell animals /poultry	90 (56.3%)	52 (43.3%)	86 (69.4%)
Migrate to south to work for money to buy grains	8 (5.0%)	28 (23.4%)	22 (17.7%)
Borrow money to buy grains	50 (31.3%)	38 (31.7%)	16 (12.9%)
Receive assistance from relations	12 (7.5%)	2 (1.7%)	-

Source: Field survey, 2002

The responses from the survey revealed as follows: Out of the 404 respondents, 228 (56.4%) of the respondents sold animals / poultry; 104 (25.7%) of the respondents went to the South to work for money to buy grains; 52 (14.4%) borrowed money to buy grains while 14 (3.4%) of the respondents received food rations from relations and NGOs. Analysis of results from the Table 9 indicate that most rural people depend on the sale of either animals or poultry to raise money to buy food stuff to supplement household production. This accounted for about 25.7% of the respondents who engage in other activities to make up for food shortages due to rain failure, bushfires or pest attack. Domestic animals, especially poultry play a major role in mitigating the periodic food crisis of the study districts, accounting for about 56.4% of households' food requirement. However, the removal of subsidies on agricultural inputs such as, fertilizers, agro-chemicals, veterinary inputs, drugs, vaccines, and equipment by the government led to a fall in the

livestock/ poultry industry.

The fact that livestock / poultry supports the domestic budget of rural households means that there is the need for World Vision International (Ghana) to assist rural farmers to improve the animal/poultry industry through the introduction of new breed/stock. For example, new breed of goats from Burkina Faso were given to school children in some of the study districts known as 'Gifts in Kind' purposely to support the beneficiaries pay their school fees.

Another interesting feature observed from the field survey and the focus group discussion was that people in the North in recent times, appear to be losing the spirit of "being their brother's keeper" or good neighbourliness. This phenomenon was confirmed by the research that less than 5% of households receive help from relations during periods of food crises. In the past, rural people used to rely on relations for support in the form of food rationing during the lean period, but in recent times the results in Table 7 show that nowadays the rural people are fast neglecting their relatives. The communal way of living is diminishing owing to the fact that people living in rural areas are now becoming individualistic. The nuclear family system, which is a feature of urban life, is becoming the order of the day.

## **Water and sanitation**

Apart from low food production in some parts of Northern Ghana, some districts in the North are faced with other problems, one of which is inadequate supply of safe drinking water and poor sanitation management. For example, in Savelugu/Nanton District it was observed that before World Vision Ghana interventions, nearly 90% of the population did not have access to potable water. Besides, the people's inability to have access to safe drinking water, poor sanitation was another major problem for rural communities in the study districts. For example, in all the three study districts, nearly a third of the rural communities had no access to latrines.

From the survey, it was observed that sources of good drinking water in the study districts can be grouped into three categories: pipe-borne water, well water and water from rivers, ponds, dams and dugouts. Whereas at the national level access to pipe-borne water was 41.6 percent, it was 18.8 percent for Northern Ghana and the percentage even varied from one community to another (GSS 2000). On the other hand, access to potable water varied greatly in Northern Ghana's rural communities. For example, whereas access to safe drinking water did not constitute a problem in Bongo district because the area had over 200 boreholes and wells supplying the communities with potable water, in Savelugu/Nanton district, there were virtually no boreholes before World Vision Ghana's intervention. However, in some districts which had access to potable water, it was observed that there was a high concentration of fluoride. The Bongo district, for example, had a large proportion of ground water containing a high proportion of fluoride (Bongo District

Water/Sanitation Office, 2002). Thus, whereas the WHO recommends a maximum fluoride concentration of 1.5 (mg/L) in drinking water, fluoride concentrations was beyond this acceptable limit in some parts of the Bongo District, which gave rise to skeletal or dental fluorosis. Communities with higher fluoride concentration figures were Balungu 2.38mg/L, Yorogo 3.5mg/L and Namoo 1.94mg/L (Bongo District Water/Sanitation Office (2002). It was as a result of the high fluoride levels in drinking water that children in schools in Bongo Central were suffering from dental fluorosis.

With regard to sanitation, there were inadequate sanitation facilities to serve the needs of the growing rural population of Northern Ghana. Indeed, the sanitation condition in the rural settlements was so precarious that it gave rise to poor environmental conditions resulting from improper management of both solid and liquid wastes disposal. For example, more than 60% of the rural households in the study districts did not have latrines, resulting in indiscriminate defecation by the people. In addition, household waste disposal was observed to be not more than 50 meters away from the homes; the refuse dumps attracted flies to the compounds.

In the study districts, it was observed that most of the rural communities, except the district capitals, had no drainage systems, so water flowed freely around the houses and caused serious erosion problems. In some instances, frequent flooding occurred during the peak of the rainy season, thereby contributing to the collapse of mud houses. In the 'overseas' area of West Mamprusi district rural communities suffered the consequences of poor drainage system. Besides, rampant flooding of the rural communities during

the rainy season contributed to the breeding of mosquitoes. This resulted in frequent outbreaks of malaria in Northern Ghana, particularly the West Mamprusi District.

In Savelugu/Nanton district, it was reported that in communities which are now beneficiaries of World Vision Ghana assistance, women and children used to spend almost 100 minutes in fetching water from distant dugouts and streams. However, in Bongo district, where the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) had been providing potable water for the people since the 1980s, women spent less than 30 minutes fetching water for household use.

For the purpose of reducing the frequent outbreaks of water borne diseases such as guinea-worm and reducing the average time spent on fetching water, World Vision Ghana identified some rural communities in certain specific districts particularly Savelugu/Nanton and provided them with safe drinking water in the form of boreholes, deep wells fitted with or without pumps, and water filters. As a result of the intervention in the water sector, it was observed during the field survey that previously there used to be a minimum number of 100 patients who reported cases of water-borne diseases at the district health post monthly bases. However, following the intervention, an average of 30 patients with water-related diseases reported to the district health centres about water related diseases (Savelugu/Nanton District Health Centre, 2002). In the same district, headteachers reported that school attendance in the morning had improved considerably. After the programme, 70 percent of pupils reported to school on time for classes than it was

previously, when half the school population reported late to school with the excuse that they had to travel long distances in search of water. This fact was confirmed during the visits to the beneficiary communities because classrooms appeared full at the start of classes. According to some headteachers, this was not the case previously. Also in the Savelugu/Nanton district, some of the school heads reported that before the programme, many of their pupils used to come to school in dirty uniforms. The water situation in some parts of Savelugu/Nanton district before the programme was so serious that one community leader commented: "Water is like leopard's blood in this community", meaning it is extremely difficult to come by water in his community.

### **Education**

Even though education holds the key to development, evidence in the selected study districts (Figure 2) points to the fact that some rural communities in parts of Northern Ghana were not adequately catered for in terms of educational infrastructure, logistics and personnel. As stated earlier, the West Mamprusi district had no schools in its western rural communities prior to interventions. The problem of lack of school buildings in some rural communities was not peculiar to this newly created district alone. The problem appeared to cut across the entire North, especially in rural communities, which was largely inaccessible in terms of road network. Reports from community leaders in the West Mamprusi district, estimated that over 50% of the children between 5 and 15 years old never went to school. When the Ghana Education

Service (G.E.S.) officers were contacted on the issue of low school enrolment, it was revealed that the district had not only low school enrolment due to inadequate school infrastructure but also a high school drop-out rate estimated at 10% for boys and about 14% for girls.

It was observed from the survey (2002) that the low enrolment of children in school, coupled with the high rate of school drop-out rate with regard to girls, in particular, accounted for the high emigration of young females from West Mamprusi district and other deprived districts of Northern Ghana to Southern Ghana to serve as head porters and house helps.

In an attempt to step up school enrolment in Northern Ghana and to minimize the high school drop-out rate, World Vision Ghana provided the Bongo district with a dormitory block for girls at Goriwe Senior Secondary School. This measure was to boost girl-child education in the area. In the West Mamprusi district too, World Vision Ghana collaborated with government agencies namely, the Ghana Education Service and the District Assemblies to provide not only school infrastructure to deprived communities but some books and writing materials to enhance the level of formal education.

Many household heads stated that following the entry of World Vision Ghana in their communities, they showed interest in enrolling their wards in school. The school enrolment as reported by the Ghana Education Service in the West Mamprusi district had so far registered an increase of 16% after the programme. In the Bongo district, the number of children per household that attended school rose slightly by 3%. For example, the average number of children per household that attended school prior to World Vision Ghana entry

in the area was 60%. This rose slightly to about 63%. The difference in the educational situation between Bongo, Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi districts arose from the fact that in the Bongo district, the Catholic missionaries (White fathers) in the 1940s introduced formal education to the communities by building schools to enable children to have access to formal education. Education, however, began late in the Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi districts.

Thus, the long contact with the Catholic Church exposed several households in the Bongo district to the benefits of formal education. Indeed, the people's interest in education had risen over the years before the arrival of World Vision Ghana. On the contrary, the people of Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi were not privileged to benefit from such opportunity, and this accounted for the comparatively low interest in education in the two districts. For example, before World Vision Ghana intervention in the formal education sector, about 63% of households of the Bongo district enrolled at least 3 out of 6 children in school. In the West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts, less than 40% of households enrolled their wards in school. It was reported from the two districts that even in the households which enrolled their wards in school less than half of the number of children per household went to school.

In recent times, it is no longer tenable to say that low literacy rates in rural communities in Northern Ghana is the result of lack of access to educational facilities (school buildings), as was the case during the period of colonial administration. The reasons advanced by the respondents during the

field survey in respect of low school enrolment in the West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts included no money to support child education (46.3%), helping in farming (21.2%) shepherding cattle (13.8%), chores and care for younger siblings (18.7).

Apart from financial constraints on parents to support children's education, the few educational facilities in the study districts were reported to be in poor state; hence they did not attract parents to send their wards to school. For example, in some of the schools in the West Mamprusi, Savelugu/Nanton and Bongo districts, some schools had their roofs ripped off by rainstorm. Again, many of the schools were without furniture. This latter situation made pupils use stones as improvised furniture. In the Bongo district, one of the community Senior Secondary Schools lacked hostel facilities to accommodate girls who travelled from distant villages to attend classes. Thus, the inability of the rural community Senior Secondary Schools to accommodate students, coupled with inadequate staffing, accounted for the high school drop-out in the rural second-cycle schools. These unfavourable situations did not augur well for any meaningful academic achievement. It is, therefore, not surprising that in 2004 when the Ministry of Education undertook an exercise to rank public schools in the country, majority of the public schools fell below the 30<sup>th</sup> position in the order of performance rating. It was the private schools, namely, Notre Dame in the Upper East Region, Xavier in the Upper West Region and St. Charles in the Northern Region whose performance attracted appreciation (Daily Graphic, 21/10/2004). Accommodation facilities for teachers in the study districts were poor.

In the Bongo district, in particular, there was only one bungalow and three quarters in the Gowrie Senior Secondary School for accommodating the headmaster and a limited number of teaching and non-teaching staff. The majority of the staff lived in town and travelled each day to teach or perform routine office duties. The lack of staff accommodation in the rural communities served as a disincentive for teachers to accept postings in the deprived schools. In the West Mamprusi district, a report from the Ghana Education Service revealed that the staffing situation in the schools had over the years been low. For example, out of a total of 482 teachers in the district, untrained teachers accounted for 36%. Similarly, in the only Community Senior Secondary School in the same district, trained teachers accounted for only 54% of the total teaching staff

It was within the context of the prevailing socio-economic situation as regards low level of formal education in the study districts in particular and the North in general that, the World Vision Ghana deemed it fit to make some contribution to education of Northern Ghana. It is worth commending World Vision Ghana for its contribution towards strengthening the capacity of teachers in the North particularly in its Area Development Programmes Districts. For example, in the Bongo district, the study programme had so far sponsored the training of one female in a Teacher Training College, who upon completion of her study would return to augment the number of trained teachers in the district. Officials of World Vision Ghana were reported to have indicated their willingness to identify potential successful young men and women for sponsorship in Training Colleges in the hope of getting more

teachers to beef up the low number of trained teachers in rural schools in Northern Ghana.

### **Previous attempts to address the issue of rural development in Northern Ghana**

The discussion of the current socio-economic conditions of Northern Ghana portray the area as one which is faced with several socio-economic problems. These developmental problems require some positive actions by various interested development partners to raise the standard of living of the people.

It is important to note that before the advent of World Vision Ghana's interventions in some of the rural communities in Northern Ghana, a number of agencies and organizations had made attempts to assist selected rural communities. Forms of assistance were provided in the following areas: education, water and sanitation, health, agriculture, and advocacy. For example, in the Bongo district, it was noted that through the District Assembly, the Central Government, the Catholic Church and the World Bank in collaboration with community self-help initiatives, 10 nursery schools, 39 primary schools, 13 junior secondary schools (JSS), 2 senior secondary schools (SSS) and 1 vocational training centre were established to provide the educational needs of the entire Bongo district

Also, in the Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi districts similar efforts were made by the central government and other development partners, notably, the Catholic Church, Oxfam, Adventist Relief Service Agency in

collaboration with beneficiary communities to construct school buildings and to carry out periodic repair and maintenance of educational infrastructure. In the West Mamprusi district, the Catholic Church and the Adventist Relief Service Agency have assisted over 10 rural communities with schools. In the same manner, the Savelugu/Nanton district has benefited from the services of the Adventist Relief Service, and the Catholic Church.

With regard to the health sector, past governments with support from some development partners such as UNICEF, Oxfam and CUSO provided health service facilities in some rural communities to enhance general health service delivery in Northern Ghana. For instance, UNICEF and the Catholic Church collaborated with, and supported the Central Government and the Bongo District Assembly to establish one major health centre and six sub-district clinics in selected rural communities to serve the health needs of the people. Also, before World Vision Ghana interventions in Northern Ghana, Oxfam and UNICEF either in collaboration with, or on individual basis embarked on some programmes to make health services accessible to rural communities. UNICEF, had in the past given support to the health sector to help improve Primary Health Care Delivery Services ranging from immunizations, family planning and micro-nutrients supplementation to children in rural communities, specifically those from the deprived areas.

In addition, the Presbyterian Church had in the past provided Primary Health Care Services, with emphasis on eye care, to rural people. Its target group had been those living with eye diseases in endemic areas. Similarly, the Catholic Relief Services (C.R.S) had in the past been contributing to the health

and nutrition needs of children by establishing child care service centres in rural communities in the North. The Bongo district is a major beneficiary of the Catholic Relief Services nutrition and early child welfare programme.

In the water sector, organizations such as CIDA had offered assistance to the government of Ghana, dating back to the late 1980's, by providing safe drinking water for some rural communities in Northern Ghana. The Bongo district was the first beneficiary of the CIDA rural water assisted programme which realized the following outcomes: 170 boreholes were provided in a number of rural communities, 9 small dams, 5 dugouts and 1 large-scale dam (Vea Dam) and several wells were provided for rural communities in the Bongo district through the assistance of Ghana government, the World Bank, and other development agencies like Rural Aid with a Bongo District Assembly counterpart funding through community self-help initiatives at the local level. Also in the Bongo District, it was observed that British Water Aid and the Community Water and Sanitation Agency have been supporting the search for potable water project in rural communities. Similarly, in the West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts the Central Government and the Ghana Water Company also provided potable water services to rural people, particularly those living in guinea worm disease infested areas. Other agencies like UNICEF, British Water Aid, Community Water and Sanitation Agency and some Churches had provided of potable water supply to meet the growing water needs of rural communities in the North.

Likewise, in the agriculture sector, the Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA) in collaboration with development agencies like the International

Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), the Irrigation Company of Upper Region (ICOUR), the Adventist Development and Relief Agency (ADRA), Land Conservation and Small Holder Rehabilitation Project (LACOSREP) and Upper Region Agricultural Development Programme (URADEP) had provided varied assistance to farmers in Northern Ghana to enhance their capacity in terms of knowledge and skills to improve food production. Some rural farmers in Northern Ghana had benefited from extension services and credit facilities prior to World Vision-Ghana's intervention package for some deprived rural communities.

**CHAPTER SIX**  
**A DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF TYPES OF INTERVENTIONS**  
**UNDERTAKEN BY WORLD VISION GHANA**

**Introduction**

In this chapter, the researcher adopted the standardized open-ended interview technique for each question in the Interview Schedules I, II and III in order to shed light on the contribution of World Vision Ghana to rural community development in Northern Ghana.

**Brief background of World Vision Ghana**

World Vision Ghana is one of the few acknowledged reputable non-profit making development organisations in Ghana. It has its international headquarters in the United States (US) and its local headquarters in Accra. It is one of the few international Christian-oriented relief and development organizations, which seek to transform the lives of rural communities in Ghana. It first came to Ghana in 1979 and began operation in Northern Ghana in the same year. As at the time of the conduct of this research, World Vision Ghana was providing development assistance in rural communities in six deprived districts in Northern Ghana. The districts are Bongo in the Upper East Region, Tolon/ Kumbugu, Savelugu/Nanton, Gushiegu/Karaga and West

Mamprusi, all in the Northern Region. By the end of 2004, it had opened an office in Saboba-Chereponi District in the Northern Region. It derives its source of funding from foreign charitable organizations and private donors in the United State of America, Canada, Australia, Switzerland and Germany.

World Vision Ghana generally seeks to uplift the living conditions of needy communities, irrespective of their geographical location. Northern Ghana lacks basic social infrastructure and suffers from inadequate food self-sufficiency, poor water supply, poor, health facilities and poor education/training institutions. This undoubtedly qualifies it as a needy area worthy of World Vision Ghana's assistance to facilitate development in the area. The interventions of World Vision Ghana are meant to provide for the needs of the least privileged rural communities, focusing on women, children and the aged. World Vision Ghana's interventions are summarized in Figure 4.

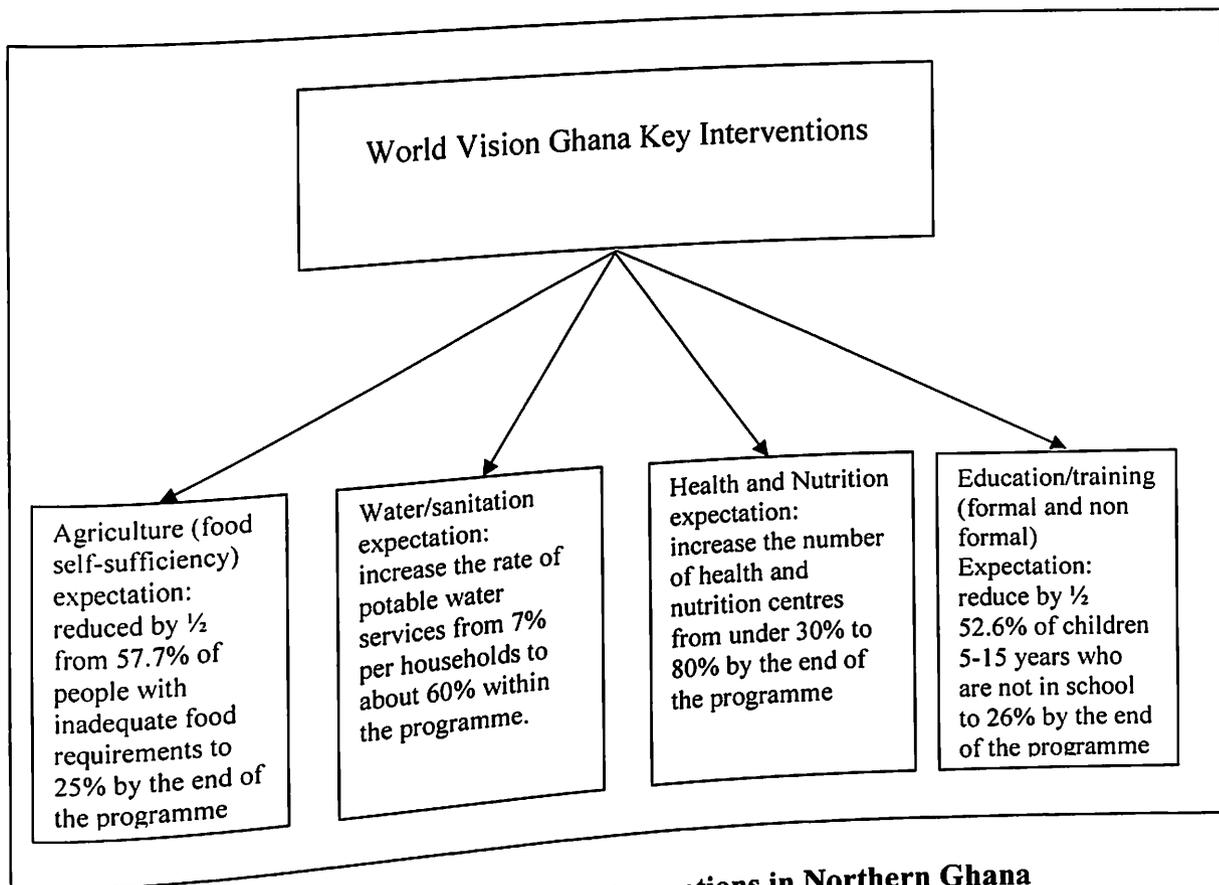
### **World Vision Ghana's method for rural community development in Northern Ghana**

World Vision Ghana initial strategy of operating in the country, particularly in Northern Ghana, was to distribute development projects to several communities referred to as Community Development (CD) projects. However, by the 1990s World Vision Ghana had shifted from the Community Development (CD) paradigm to Area Development Programmes (ADPs) as a result of lessons it learnt from its participation in the National Poverty Reduction Programme (NPRP) in September 1998. The programme was funded by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and executed

by the International Economic Relations Division (IERD) aimed at reducing rural and urban poverty in order to improve the standard of living of beneficiaries. As a way of ensuring maximum results/success, the programme first focused on five pilot districts drawn across the country: Afram Plains, Juabuso-Bia, Ga Mashie in the Accra Metropolitan Assembly (AMA), Dangme West, and Bongo.

Part of the National Poverty Reduction Programme was to undertake community awareness creation, project identification, preparation and implementation, as well as building the capacity of community-based organizations (CBOs) to implement projects and programmes that would facilitate poverty reduction at the district level. It was against this background, that World Vision Ghana was contracted to serve as the link NGO for one of the five pilot districts.

One of the critical lessons noted by World Vision Ghana was the recognition that for the National Poverty Reduction Programme to achieve its goals and also attain sustainability, the beneficiary districts must be made to own the programme/project. It stressed that, in order to achieve full ownership of a programme, both the district and the community members must first grasp the basic concepts involved in the programme. These concepts are; (i) setting of priority needs/strategies identified for poverty reduction (ii) selecting a project to meet priority needs of the communities (iii) getting involved in programme execution and (iv) being involved in assessing programme effects on beneficiaries.



**Figure 4: World Vision Ghana's interventions in Northern Ghana**

Source: Field survey, 2002

To encourage beneficiary communities to develop a sense of ownership in any development programme/ project, World Vision Ghana adopted the Appreciative Inquiry (AI) techniques in its operations. The Appreciative Inquiry (AI) assumes that in every society or community or organization, something works; hence, change can be managed through the identification of what works and the analysis of how to do more of what works. It is in short, a way of seeing possibilities in situations, rather than deficiencies.

World Vision Ghana also confirms its belief in the Area Development Programmes (ADP) concept. It views not only as an approach to

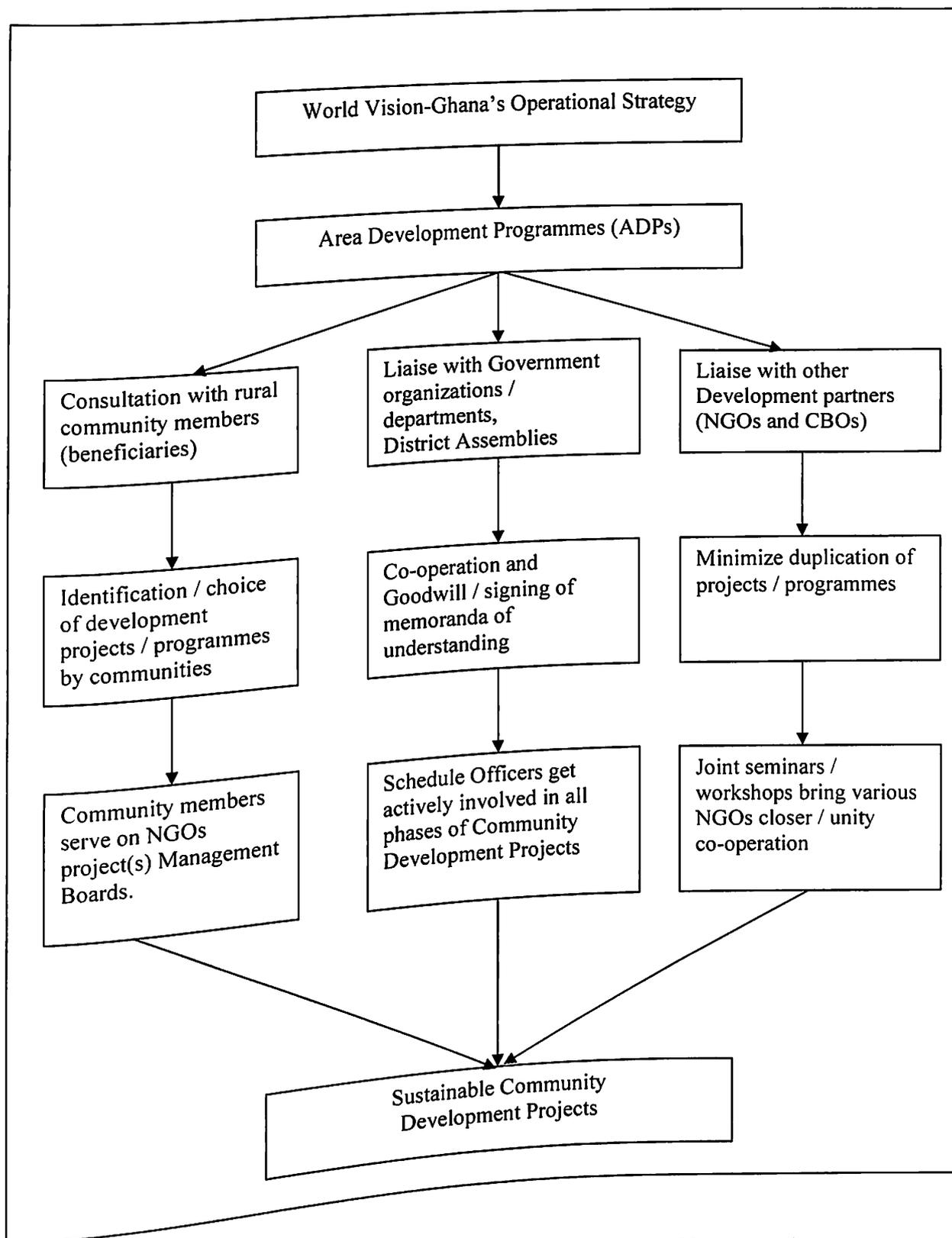
transformational development but also as a strategy which targets usually a district or part of a district for effective maximum support. It calls for a long-term commitment of resources to a selected district, focusing on some parts of it which require much help most. The paradigm shift in operation strategy from Community Development Projects to the Area Development Programmes was to ensure that, firstly, resources and attention are given to districts in order of level of deprivation. It further looks at the selected districts and identifies specific communities which require prompt assistance.

West Mamprusi, one of World Vision Ghana's Area Development Programme (ADP) with several communities in its 'overseas' area was chosen as the first beneficiary based on its remoteness and neglect over the years, thereby making it lag behind other communities in terms of social services such as school buildings and health facilities. Secondly, development assistance provided through the ADP concept lasts for about 15 years. This 15-year period is to provide sufficient time for government officials in the District Assemblies and other development partners in the locality to collaborate with World Vision Ghana in its development efforts and to create a network of relationships among the various stakeholders.

The process of involving officials of government agencies in ADP projects is to ensure that whatever project World Vision wants to initiate or sponsor falls in line with the development plan of government or the District Assembly. Besides, it is to create collaborative spirit between it and government agencies / District Assemblies in order to minimize rivalry and suspicion. The lengthy period (15-years) is to provide beneficiaries with the

requisite knowledge and skills to acquire the capacity to maintain the projects for ensuring their continuous efficient service delivery at the end of the ADP 15-year period. World Vision Ghana through dialogue liaises with relevant interest groups, namely, officials of government decentralized agencies (Ministries of Education, Health and Agriculture), officials of the affected ADP Districts and representatives of target beneficiaries to come to a common understanding of the role each party should play in order to achieve sustainability of whatever project(s) it intends to support in any given community.

In summary, World Vision Ghana's choice of the ADP development strategy is to enhance the potential capacity of beneficiary communities to own, operate, and maintain the sponsored programmes. It is also to ensure that its assistance in the form of funds, material resources, and time do not come to nought but that at the end of its sponsorship period, its contribution would manifest in the transformation the lives of beneficiary communities from abject poverty to plenty and happiness. Figure 5 summarizes the ADP's concept, which World Vision Ghana uses:



**Figure 5: World Vision Ghana plan for rural development in Northern Ghana**

Source: Self-Generated from field data (2002)

Figure 5 shows that World Vision Ghana involves beneficiary communities in project selection, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. It further shows how it involves officials of government agencies/departments and other NGOs operating in the area to make meaningful contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana. The objective of the work plan is to ensure that projects are effectively and efficiently carried out to attain a high level of sustainability. The question whether or not World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana can be sustained after the lapse of the sponsoring period is discussed in the next sub section.

#### **World Vision Ghana's intervention in rural water supply and sanitation**

Potable water constitutes an important component for the sustenance of human life. Water is one of the most important natural resources essential for national development. A number of social and economic activities are closely related to access to water. Indeed, access to water is so crucial to mankind's socio-economic needs such that nations and even communities go to war to determine the ownership of water sources. This is the reason why in Ghana water have been placed under the direct control of the President of the Republic of Ghana. Furthermore, a law has been enacted known as Act 522 of 1996 creating a Water Resources Commission to oversee the supervision of water delivery services and other related issues associated with the provision of water to both urban and rural communities of Ghana.

Water supply in most rural communities in Northern Ghana, particularly in the Northern Region, is limited due to lack of reliable water

sources in several rural communities such as Savelugu/Nanton. Domestic and commercial activities have been thwarted as a result of scarce water resources. An example of one of the barriers to sustainable water supply in some of the rural communities in the North is government's inability to provide adequate funding for the development of water resources in the form of dams, wells, boreholes, and dug outs to serve the water needs of deprived communities.

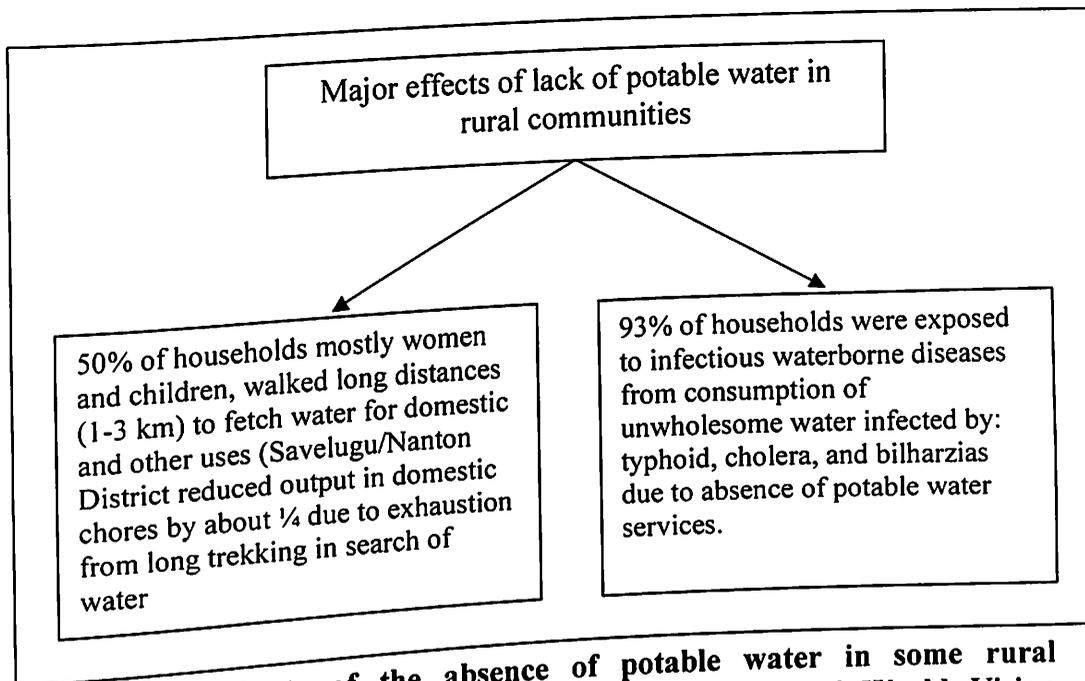
In the midst of chronic water problems in the Savelugu/Nanton District of the Northern Region, it is only women and children who, by culture and tradition, are responsible for looking for water. It is these two groups of people who ensure that water is brought to the house for household and commercial use. Women and children are, therefore, seen daily with water containers (buckets, basins, pots etc) trekking long distances to fetch water from muddy sources (ponds and rivers). The difficulty of getting water from good sources gives rise to the following: (i) Women and children get exhausted at the end of each day due to the long trekking for water. (ii) Women and children also lose weight due to the effect of exhaustion from the daily trekking an average distance of four kilometers twice or thrice daily to fetch water. (iii) On the average, 2-3 household members in the Savelugu/Nanton District suffer from any one of water borne diseases: (guinea-worm, trachoma and typhoid) as a result of using water from contaminated open water bodies, wells, rivers and ponds.

The discussion on the effects of lack of reliable water sources in rural communities of Northern Ghana before World Vision Ghana's entry into the region is summarized in Figure 6.

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The discussion on the effects of lack of reliable water sources in rural communities of Northern Ghana before World Vision Ghana's entry into the region is summarized in Figure 6.



**Figure 6: Effects of the absence of potable water in some rural communities in Northern Ghana before the entry of World Vision International (Ghana)**  
 Source: Survey (2002)

In response to the many human sufferings associated with the lack of access to potable water in some rural communities in the Savelugu/Nanton district, in particular, World Vision Ghana considered the problem as critical and, therefore, required prompt attention so as to facilitate rural development in the North. The World Vision Ghana had, by the time of this study, provided communities in its beneficiary areas in the Savelugu-Nanton District boreholes in order to reduce the acute water problem during the long dry season.

World Vision Ghana also provided communities with wells fitted with hand pumps. The wells with manual pumping mechanism were meant to minimize the rate of contaminating water sources through the dipping of dirty cans into the wells by individuals. For example, between 1995-2003 World Vision Ghana drilled about 206 boreholes in 143 communities for about

42,900 people. It also provided sanitation facilities in its ADP districts. This package consisted of educational campaign messages meant to equip rural people with adequate knowledge and skills in the use and management of water resources to ensure clean environment. Besides, the beneficiaries of World Vision Ghana were taught how to filter water to avoid contracting the guinea-worm disease. In addition, they were taught personal hygiene to enhance their daily personal living (World Vision Ghana, 2004).

The issue is whether World Vision Ghana's interventions have so far satisfied the target beneficiary communities in the Savelugu/Nanton ADP district as regards the eradication of the guinea-worm disease. In spite of over 100 boreholes with apron laundry pads constructed in 80 guinea-worm endemic communities, majority of which are located in the districts in Northern Region, the success rate is between 33 and 35% (World Vision Ghana, 2003). Officials of World Vision International (Ghana) blame the prevalence of the guinea-worm in some of its ADP districts in the Northern Region on the attitude of members of the beneficiary communities, who they alleged, continue to drink water from guinea-worm infected sources, especially during the periods when they go to work on their distant farms.

### **World Vision Ghana's intervention in rural health/nutrition services**

Good health is a key to happy life. This dictum is upheld by all nations. Successive governments in Ghana openly proclaim their desire to make health services available and accessible to all Ghanaians, no matter one's political, religious and ethnic affiliation. Despite this good intention of

past and present governments, Northern Ghana as at present has not received sufficient attention in respect of efficient health delivery services. There is no efficient health centre in the whole of the North. The only hospital which serves as a health referral centre is the Tamale Hospital, which is not well equipped. The North also lacks health professionals. For example, in the study districts, it is only Bongo that had a qualified medical doctor. Besides, in Northern Ghana health centres do not have two-thirds of the required number of nurses; they, therefore, have to depend on the services of retired nurses to supplement the number of nurses required to keep the health sector functioning.

It is, therefore, in line with providing for the health needs of Northern Ghana that World Vision Ghana stepped in with various interventions to complement government's efforts in providing basic health services. The assistance includes the facilitation of the District Health Management Team (DHMT) to carry out immunization programmes as well as give vitamin A, iron and iodine supplements to young children in its ADP districts. It also assists the Ministry of Health to conduct eye, ear and dental screening of both children and adults. In addition, the World Vision Ghana provides medical equipment to some district hospitals and rural health centres as a way of augmenting the limited supplies of some medical equipment from the Ministry of Health.

The NGOs also provides health facilities and other forms of health services in the target communities. The responses from the interview Schedule II showed that officials visit the target communities first to assess their health

status before providing the relevant intervention package. The pre-survey of the health needs of the beneficiary communities enabled World Vision Ghana to identify the critical areas to enable it to direct its assistance appropriately. The result of its pre-survey findings is the building of four nutrition centres in the Bongo District of the Upper East Region.

Besides, it provided training programmes for traditional birth attendants. The training programme was to enhance their capacity to perform efficiently in the rural areas, where there is lack of qualified health personnel to cater for maternal health care delivery. Specifically, the training scheme provided by World Vision Ghana for Traditional Birth Attendants (TBAs) is to augment the services of the few trained midwives in the area.

The high incidence of HIV/AIDS and children with disabilities has occupied the attention of World Vision Ghana in recent years. Though HIV/AIDS in recent times appears to be decreasing at the national level, it is increasing steadily in the study districts. The West Mamprusi District was observed from the field survey, to have a number of HIV/AIDS patients per household attributed to young girls contracting it while doing “kaya-yei” in Southern Ghana. World vision Ghana has in recent years included HIV/AIDS and sex education in its health package for the beneficiary districts of Northern Ghana to help curb the spread of HIV/AIDS. For example, Peer Health Educators are trained through the support of World Vision International (Ghana) in collaboration with the District Health Management Team (DHMT). These health personnel are assisting rural people (aged 18-45) years to acquire knowledge in safe sex as a preventive measure against contracting the

HIV/AIDS virus.

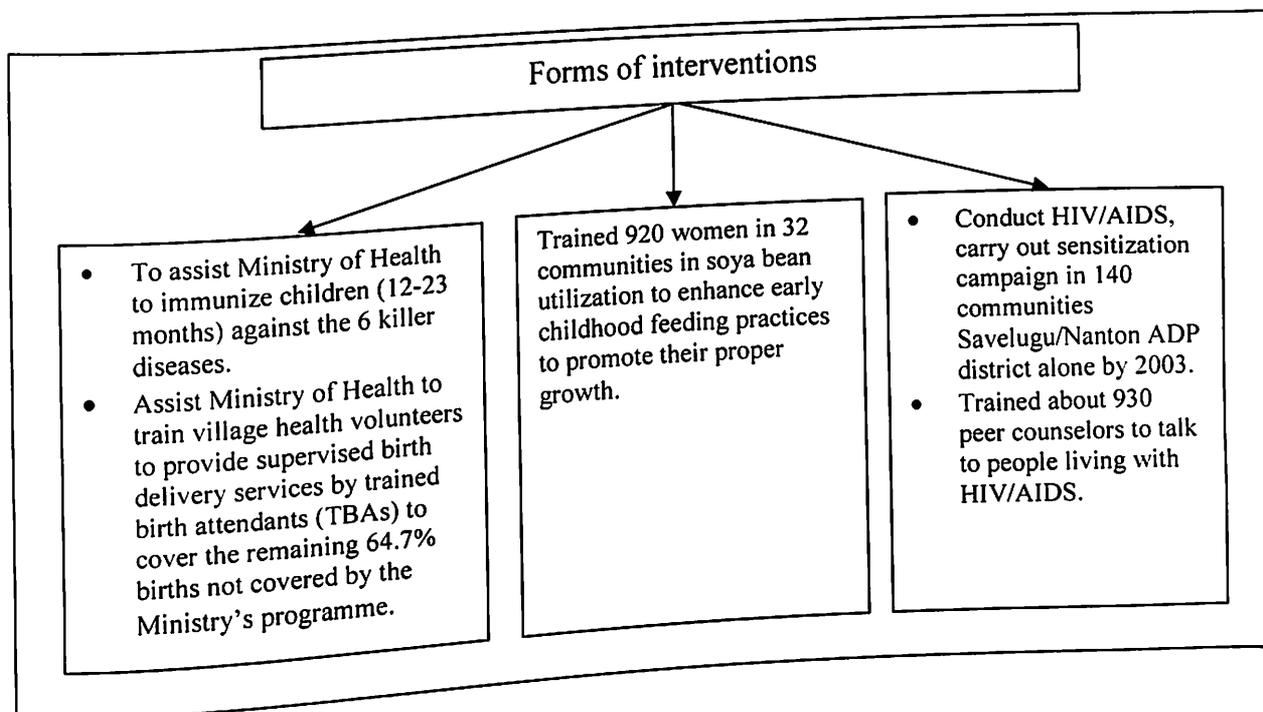
World Vision Ghana views the health of children as an important component of development in Northern Ghana. It recognizes that children are the ones that hold the future of the North; hence, their good health is paramount to the future development of the area. It makes provision for children's health needs by assisting officials of the Health Ministry to organize periodic de-worming of children in the study districts. It also gives vitamin A, iron and iodine supplements to pre-school children and conducts eye, ear and dental screening for children and adults in all its ADP districts

From the survey, about 75% of the responses by a cross section of officials of World Vision Ghana, community leaders government Ministries' and Boards stated that before World Vision Ghana's entry into the North, the health status in some of the rural communities, especially those in West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton, was quite poor. So interventions from development partners like World Vision Ghana were required to lend assistance to the Ministry of Health. From the field survey, over 60% of the respondents in Savelugu/Nanton, 65% in West Mamprusi stated that they had experienced some improvement in their health status. About 60% of the respondents in Savelugu/Nanton said there had been a reduction in the outbreak of guinea-worm in their localities. This assertion was confirmed by members of the focus groups who stated that fewer numbers of households members now suffer from guinea-worm infection after World Vision Ghana's intervention in the water sector. The outbreaks of typhoid, trachoma and cholera are also reported to be on the decrease in some beneficiary

communities in the Savelugu/Nanton District due to improved access to water provided by the programme. It appears that the World Vision Ghana is chalking steady success in the water sector in the districts.

Some opinion leaders in the study districts expressed dissatisfaction about the programme's contribution though. Such individuals as the chiefs and the elite felt that the NGO was receiving so much funding from foreign donors but it is only spending very little on the deprived communities. What needs to be noted is that World Vision Ghana is a voluntary organization and, therefore, should only be expected to complement government's effort in providing rural communities with all basic social services. It is not expected to take over the responsibility of the central government to provide all the social services needed by the people in Northern Ghana. When the need arises, they must welcome and collaborate with the NGOs to facilitate the provision of development projects in rural communities.

Following from the above discussion, demonstrate World Vision Ghana's intervention in Health services for rural communities in the study districts of Northern Ghana is summarized in Figure 7.



**Figure 7: World Vision Ghana intervention in Rural Health Services**

Source: World Vision Ghana 2004

### **Food self-sufficiency**

In recent years, food self-sufficiency in some parts of Northern Ghana has been of great concern to state officials and other development partners. The problem of inadequate food production leading to lack of food self-sufficiency in the North surprises a great number of people. This is because Northern Ghana in the early 1970s was regarded as the food basket of the nation. But of late, it is experiencing rampant food shortages. Indeed, the situation is so bad that many households, especially those in Bongo District are not able to provide at least one decent meal a day; this situation is acute during the lean season from May to June each year. These perennial food shortages have resulted in women and children not only losing weight but also becoming lean and weak. These underprivileged groups of people in the

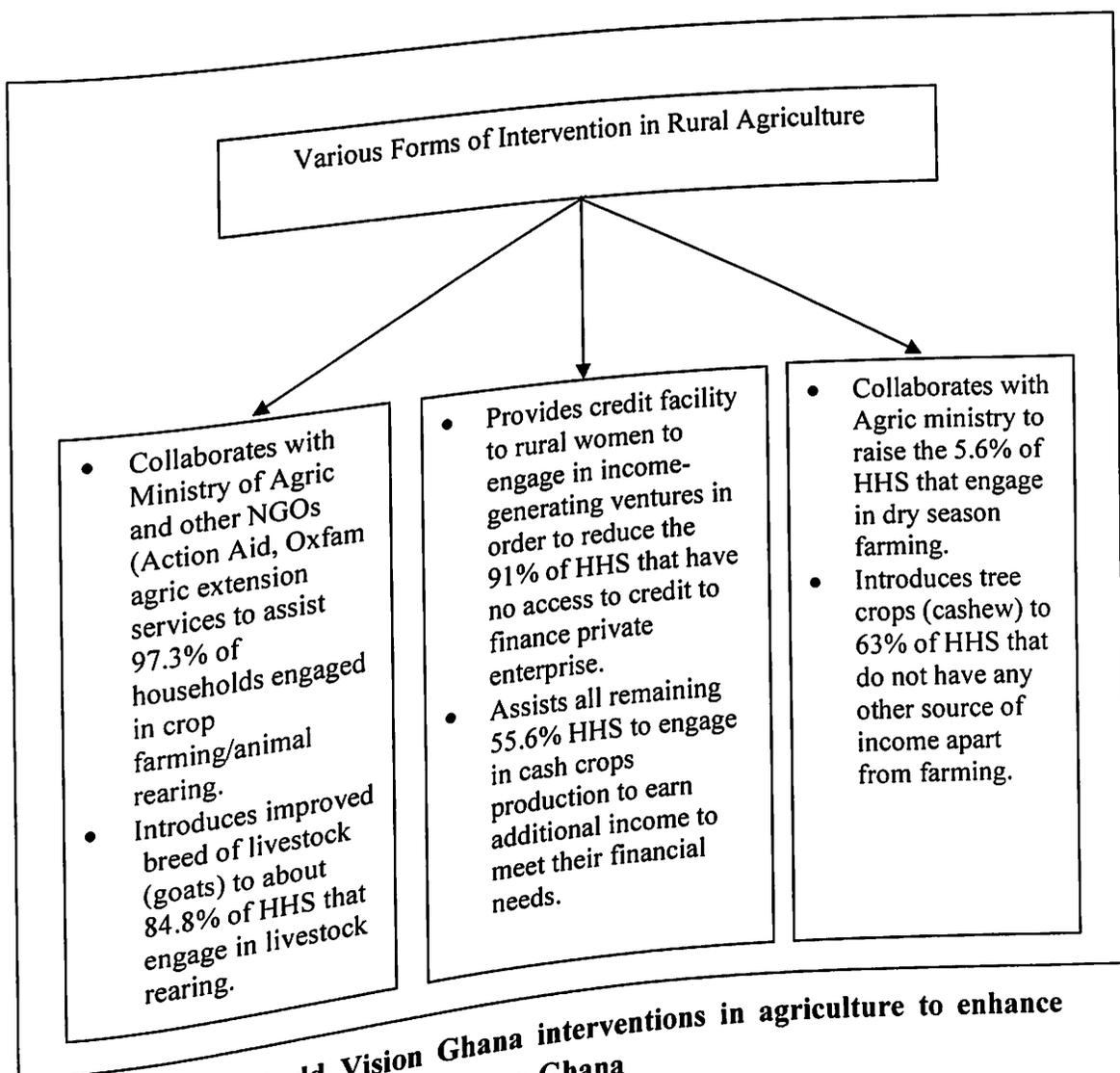
Bongo District also suffer from anaemia due to inadequate feeding arising from their inability to produce sufficient food. The poor food situation contributes to children absenteeism during the lean period. It was reported in one of the study districts that many children slept in class during the period of food shortage.

The questions that currently engage the attention of concerned individuals and voluntary organizations with regard to the problem of frequent food insufficiency in certain parts of the North are as follows: What factors contribute to the decline of food supplies in Northern Ghana? Secondly, how can the identified problems which militate against increase in food-sufficiency be addressed in order to reverse the trend of the over 50% of the people without adequate food supplies in the study districts. It is, therefore, to help reverse the annual declining rate of food self-sufficiency in Northern Ghana that prompted World Vision International (Ghana) embarked on a number of interventions.

In order to achieve its goal of enhancing its target communities to achieve food self-sufficiency, the World Vision Ghana makes it possible for rural women in the study districts to access credit facilities. The money is given to women as a loan to enable them to engage in income-generating activities, such as sheabutter extraction in the West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts while in Bongo, the women use the money to engage in straw business. The measure rose from 9% access to credit in the rural setting, as contained in the Ghana Development Planning Commission (2002) document on Poverty Reduction Strategy to over 60% between 2002

and 2004.

Also, as a supplement to food self-sufficiency, the programme has so far provided 60,000 tree seedlings to 100 communities for planting. Some of the tree seedlings are fruit trees meant to increase households' level in food sufficiency. It was also gathered from the survey that the programme had introduced nearly 200 rural farmers to small-scale irrigation farming practices with the aim of increasing food self-sufficiency. From the survey, one could summarize the interventions of World Vision Ghana in Figure 8.



**Figure 8: World Vision Ghana interventions in agriculture to enhance food self-sufficiency in Northern Ghana**  
Source: World Vision Ghana (2004)

The overall objective of World Vision Ghana's intervention in agriculture is to create access to critical but scarce resources such as credit facility. Secondly, it is to provide improved agricultural technology for rural farmers to undertake meaningful farming ventures to enhance their productive capacity in order to reverse the declining rate of food production and other agricultural produce. For example, the provision of water supply in some rural communities in Savelugu/ Nanton district enables rural to people have access to water not only for drinking but also for watering their domestic animals during the dry season. The availability of water at short walking distances helps to reduce the rate at which rural farmers lose their domestic animals during the long dry season when most sources of water dry up. The availability of water helps majority of the rural farmers to increase the number of animals per household based on the fact that many of the domestic animals (sheep, goats, cattle) are no longer stolen by alien or native cattle rustlers. Once the rural farmers are able to retain their domestic animals within the local environment, it becomes possible for them to raise their personal earnings and from such extra income, they can pay the cost of basic social services.

The programme has also taken notice of the rising rate of soil infertility and degradation of the environment in the study districts in Northern Ghana. The programme has observed that soil infertility and degraded environment, coupled with poor rainfall, give rise to frequent fall in annual crop yields. Therefore, to help reverse the degradation of the environment as regards vegetative cover and soil fertility, World Vision Ghana collaborates with the

Ministry of Food and Agriculture to provide training in extension services to beneficiary communities on the use of composite manure. It also helps farmers to protect their local environment through tree planting, first to save the depletion of the local vegetation cover and, secondly, to provide source of firewood and seasonal fruits. So far, 40 communities in the Bongo district have benefited from the rural agriculture extension services.

It was observed that in spite of World Vision Ghana's interventions in rural agriculture in Northern Ghana, some parts of the study districts still experienced annual food shortages. As to why the problem persisted, the survey took note of the following:

- (i) There were inadequate agricultural extension services in the form of rural fora to educate rural farmers on the need to abandon their traditional farming methods such as bush-burning, and agree to adopt new technologies in farming, such as the use of improved seeds and animal breed (mixed farming) to enhance higher crop and animal productivity.
- (ii) Though World Vision Ghana gave loans/credit facilities to women in the study districts, it was observed that some of the women groups abandoned their income generating ventures and traveled to Southern Ghana. Typical examples are cited in the West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts. The result is that the loans that were given to rural women, in particular, were not paid back.
- (iii) It was reported during the focus group discussion that NGO officials seldom paid visits to beneficiary communities to find out how such

communities were benefiting from their interventions.

- (iv) In some study districts, like Bongo, cultural and traditional beliefs seriously worked against the practice of improving upon the degraded local environment through tree planting despite the fact that the districts had been in contact with the Christian Missionaries, especially the Catholic Church, for several decades. Also in the West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts, the beneficiary communities had still not paid heed to the bush-fire campaign message; hence, the local environment was still being destroyed by fires every dry season.
- (v) Also, agricultural produce in the North, such as sheabutter and tomatoes do not enjoy the benefit of a ready market like cocoa, bananas and pineapples do. The lack of ready market for the region's agricultural produce and the failure of NGOs to help organize market for rural produce give rise to the low interest shown by the youth in rural agriculture.

### **Education/training**

Education is perceived as one of the most important functions of every state. Education to plays a critical role in the preparation of children and the youth for proper conduct of private and public affairs. It is required for the performance of the most basic responsibilities in the public sector. It is needed for commerce, banking, farming and the military. Education is, in fact, the foundation of good citizenship. It is considered as a principal instrument in awakening the child to society's cultural values; hence, through education

every child or youth receives various forms of professional training. In short, it is the process of education/training that future adults are provided with requisite skills to adjust appropriately to their local environment as responsible members of their respective communities.

### **State of education in the rural communities of the study districts**

That child can succeed in life if he/she is denied the opportunity to acquire appropriate functional education is doubtful. Under the circumstance where the state has undertaken to provide it, it becomes a right, which must be made available to all on equal terms. Notwithstanding the responsibility of the state to provide adequate educational facilities in all parts of the country that dream is still far from reality in Northern Ghana. Western education began late in the North and coupled with insufficient logistical support its spread in the rural communities has been slow.

Severe poverty among rural families in the North also retards parents' capacity to enrol and maintain their children in school. Majority of the rural people are poor and cannot afford to pay their children's school fees. Besides, the survey revealed that in most rural communities, cultural and traditional beliefs with regard to the proper role of girls largely hindered the number of female children that were enrolled in school. For example, in West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts the cultural belief associated with girls is that they are supposed to be groomed for marriage. Girls, as some focus groups in the study districts stated, are meant to be trained in traditional house-keeping management skills in addition to being properly equipped to meet the pleasure

and needs of their husbands. It is, therefore, not surprising that formal education for girls is regarded as non-essential and, therefore, of little relevance to the well-being of rural communities. The elderly, in particular, find it difficult to appreciate any benefit accruing from the education of the girl-child.

### **World Vision Ghana's intervention in education in the rural communities of the study districts**

In response to the notion that education is the tool that can be exploited for the development of deprived communities, World Vision Ghana moved to the North in the early 1980s. Though its initial entry was through relief packages after the ethnic conflict in the Northern Region, World Vision Ghana it turned to education as one of the critical areas which required intervention for facilitating the process of rural development. Before World Vision Ghana's entry into some of the rural communities, there were no educational facilities like school buildings to serve as classrooms for pupils and teachers. The absence of educational infrastructure gave rise to very few parents being motivated to enrol their children in school. The low school enrolment in some of the rural communities was attributed to the refusal of many children to walk long distances each day to the nearest village to attend school. In West Mamprusi District in the Northern Region very few children went to school before World Vision International (Ghana) entered the area to provide school infrastructure classroom buildings. It also provided classroom furniture and teachers' quarters.

The programme also realized that the provision of physical structures (classroom buildings) in schools was not enough to entice the rural communities to enroll their children in school. Thus, bearing in mind the high rate of poverty among the rural people for the programme provided pens, pencil, and exercise books in its intervention list to achieve its objective of making the rural people literate. The programme would identify brilliant but needy children in the targeted communities and provide such children with special incentive packages in order to lessen the burden of parents who might be willing to enroll their children in school but were hindered by poverty.

In the West Mamprusi district, in particular, the Ghana Education Service personnel reported during the field work that after World Vision Ghana entry into the district's communities, there had been changes in the number of pupils attending schools as compared to the period before its entry. For instance, in some rural communities in the 'overseas' area where some families or households hitherto did not enroll their wards in formal school, the situation has since changed with the presence of World Vision Ghana. Also with the intervention of the programme which include an incentive package for rural teachers in the form of teachers' quarters in the rural communities, teachers accept postings to the 'overseas' schools and even agree to stay there for at least a period of three to four years to teach. The provision of one meal a day for pupils in the lower classes by the programme in collaboration with the Catholic Relief Services (CRS) increased enrolment and attendance figures in its target communities. The enrolment and attendance per class, which stood at 20%-25%, when shot up to 45%.

Besides the various forms of interventions which the programme provided to promote basic education in the rural communities, it also made some tangible contribution towards the enhancement of senior high school education in some rural communities. For instance, the programme has provided some financial support to assist the construction of a student hostel in one of the most deprived senior high schools at Gowrie in the Bongo District to solve the acute boarding accommodation needs of the school. The construction of the hostel facility has enhanced the school's capacity to attract pupils with good grades in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) from the surrounding community schools who would otherwise had sought admission in urban centres senior secondary schools that have boarding facilities. For example, since 2004 when the school was provided with a hostel by World Vision Ghana, it had admitted students with an aggregate of 18 or better.

In line with the programme's deep conviction in functional literacy, it has collaborated with the Non-Formal Education Division (NFED) in its target communities to open about 20 adult literacy centres in the Bongo district, with women being the beneficiaries. The effect of the interventions on formal and non-formal education in the rural communities has led to high awareness among the women about the importance of education. Many of them have encouraged their husbands to enroll their children in schools. Examples of increase in school enrolment as a result of encouragement from women can be found in West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts.

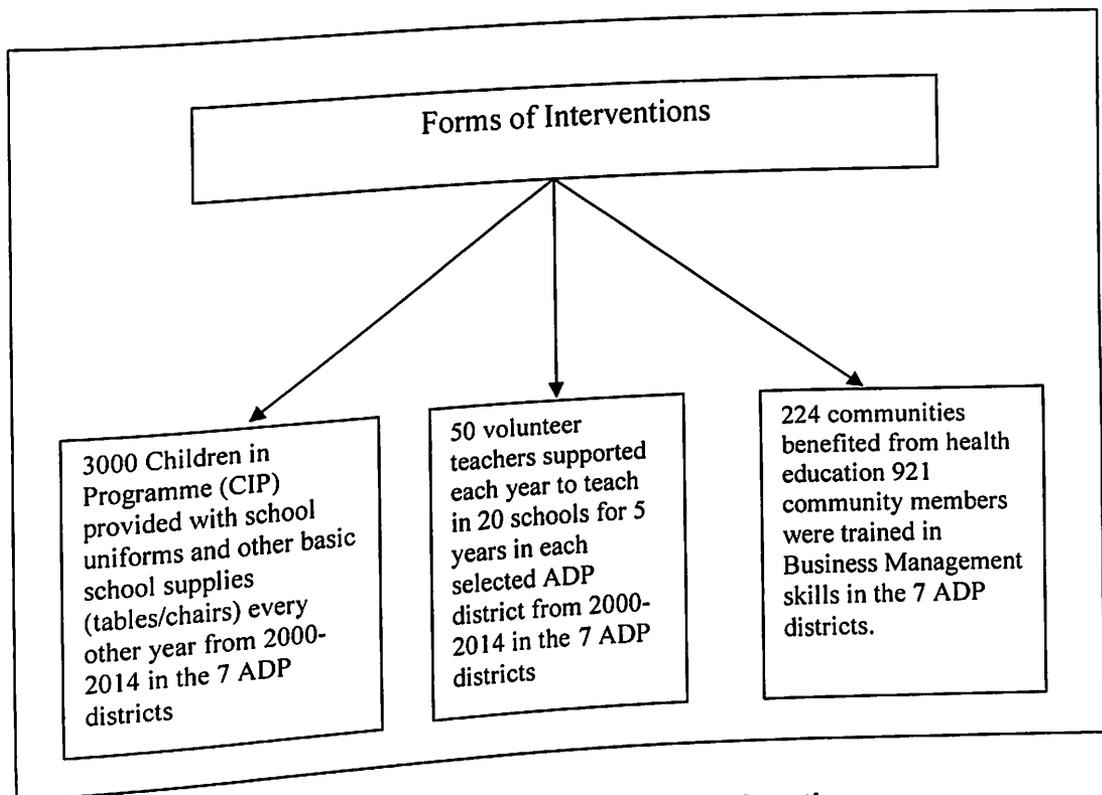
Despite World Vision Ghana's contribution by way of supplementing

education in the study districts, there are still large numbers of children who have not taken advantage of the programme. This is because in the West Mamprusi and Savelugu/Nanton districts there were many households that were identified during the survey to have less than three out of an average of seven children enrolled in school. It was observed that some households in the two study districts did not have a single child enrolled in school. Apart from the programme intervention in the formal and non-formal education sector, World Vision Ghana has also set up a number of Youth Skills Training Programmes (YSYP) from which girls and young women are trained in dressmaking and basketry. The Bongo district has at least three of these training centres.

#### **Provision for early childhood education by World Vision Ghana**

It was revealed from the survey (2002) revealed that World Vision Ghana had so far made a number of provisions for pre school education in its target communities. Apart from the many interventions it provided in support of basic level and senior high school education in the study area, World Vision Ghana sponsored the establishment of over 70 day care centres in the study districts to prepare young children for formal school. It makes provision for feeding very young children in the day-care centres in the beneficiary rural communities as a means of encouraging parents to send their wards to school. In addition, World Vision Ghana provides funds for the recruitment and training of day-care nursery attendants to supplement the effect of Ghana Education Service in providing for early child education in the study area.

World Vision Ghana interventions in Education is shown in Figure 9.



**Figure 9: World Vision Ghana interventions in education**

Source: World Vision Ghana, 2004

The intervention of World Vision Ghana in the areas of water/sanitation, health, agriculture (food self-sufficiency) and education, seem to hold the key to the transformation of Northern Ghana rural communities from being underdeveloped to developed. It is presumed that education would provide people with the necessary knowledge and skills which would in turn enable them to provide solutions for inadequate food production, water, health and sanitation problems with support from government in collaboration with NGOs. Thus, given the power of education, it is not surprising that no society can develop without making education accessible to its citizens. In short, it is through education/training that the

rural communities of the North can acquire the right knowledge and skills to deal with the fundamental causes of its underdevelopment. Also, through education and training, rural people in Northern Ghana are able to live worthy lives. For example, in the study districts, some people in the target communities in Savelugu/Nanton district are taught how to filter water in order to reduce the rate of contracting water-borne diseases, specifically guinea-worm. Through education, particularly the functional literacy programme, learners are taught how to keep their immediate environment tidy in order to avoid the risk of contracting contagious diseases, such as leprosy, trachoma and cholera.

Adult learners of World Vision Ghana's intervention in education have also led to a number of benefits to rural communities in the study districts. For example, through World Vision Ghana collaboration with the Ministry of Agriculture, not less than 200,000 farmers in the study districts alone as at the time of the field work gained knowledge and skills on how to attain food self-sufficiency through the use of improved farming methods such as contour-farming, the right application of fertilizers as well as the use of improved crop seed and the use of improved animal breed. It was also reported that during the focus group discussions some adult learners were able to read simple instructions regarding the use of veterinary drugs and agro-chemicals, and this has enhanced their capacity to increase animal and crop production simultaneously.

**Table 10: Summary of World Vision Ghana Interventions in Northern Ghana**

Area of Intervention	Objectives of Intervention for the North	Target District with special Attention	Progress achieved in Target District	Difficulties encountered	Lessons for Future
Agriculture	To achieve food self sufficiency by reducing by about 57.7% of households without adequate food requirement to about 25% by the end of the programme.	Bongo	7.8% of households are not food self-sufficient before the programme, after the programme 82.5% of households are food self-sufficient	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• High cost of farm implements / inputs as a result of removal of agricultural subsidies.</li> <li>• Lack of access to market for farm produce after harvest.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Encourage the formation of co-operatives to qualify for credit / loans to be able to go into viable agricultural activities (cash crop, food stuff and livestock rearing.</li> <li>• Liaise with appropriate government agencies to provide marketing outlets for farmers producing tomatoes and rice.</li> </ul>

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**Table 10 contd.**

Water / Sanitation	Water/sanitation expectation: increase the rate of potable water services from 7% per households to about 60% within the programme.	Savelugu / Nanton	93% of households were without safe drinking water before the programme, so far 33% of households have access to safe drinking water in the focus districts.	Within the programme beneficiary communities certain households still have some of their members suffering from water borne disease (guinea worm infection)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• increase public health education on the need to discontinue drinking water from unhygienic water sources.</li> <li>• Provide safe drinking water sources at vantage points in major farming areas.</li> </ul>
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**Table 10 contd.**

Health / Nutrition	Health and Nutrition expectation: increase the number of health and nutrition centres from under 30% to 80% by the end of the programme	Savelugu / Nanton	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Trained about 920 women in 32 rural communities in the use of soyabean to enhance children food nutrition.</li> <li>• Assist ministry of health to train traditional birth attendants (IBAS) to provide safe births delivery services to areas not covered by the ministry programme.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The importance of proper feeding of children has not been well understood by rural women.</li> <li>• Many women feel reluctant to offer themselves for training to acquire skills to serve their communities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• stepped up public education with focus on child nutrition education for rural women.</li> <li>• Involve community leaders to assist in getting many women to volunteer to be trained as TBAs.</li> </ul>
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**Table 10 contd.**

Education/training

(formal and non formal)

Education

Expectation: reduce by 52.6% of children 5-15 years who are not in school to 26% by the end of the programme.

West

Mamprusi

- Before the programme the 'overseas' area of West Mamprusi District had no formal school buildings within a walking distance.
- Presently two day centres and two set of school buildings (primary and JSS) are built to serve the educational needs of the area.

- Children dropout of school, despite the presence of educational facilities in the localities.

Liaise with Ghana Education Service, other development partners and parents to initiate appropriate measures which could help minimise school dropout rate in the district. For example, provision of a decent meal a day for school children during the noon break.

Source: Field data, 2002

Table 10 shows that World Vision Ghana is making steady progress towards achieving its set objectives in agriculture, water / sanitation, health / nutrition and education. It however, makes sense to limit the discussion to agriculture and education which were the initial areas of concentration. Before the entry of World Vision Ghana, 57.7% of the people in Northern Ghana were not self-sufficient in food production; (Baseline Data 2002); 7.8% of households in the Bongo District were not self-sufficient in food production. However, due to World Vision Ghana's interventions, 82.5% of households in the Bongo District achieved food self-sufficiency.

In the field of education as shown in Table 10, 52.6% of children of school-going age in Northern Ghana were not in school. The problem of low participation in formal education in the area could be traced to lack of educational facilities, such as school buildings to serve as classrooms in some of the deprived areas. For example, before the programme in West Mamprusi District, some households did not enroll their wards into school. The excuse was that formal schools were not within a walking distance. West Mamprusi District is one example where households experienced difficulties in getting their children to have access to formal education. In response to some of the rural communities' interest in getting their children have access to formal education, World Vision Ghana established 70 day care centres in its beneficiary districts. It also constructed twelve classrooms to serve as both Primary and JSS, in addition to a day-care centre.

As regards the problems encountered by World Vision Ghana in its operations in Northern Ghana (Table 9), high cost of farm machinery, fertilizer and agro-chemicals as well as lack of ready market for farmers'

produce continue to pose a challenge to rural farmers. For example, farm machinery (tractors and their spare parts), bullock ploughs, fertilizers and agro-chemicals are so expensive that most rural farmers are unable to purchase them from their meagre earnings. The result is that most household farms are relatively small in size. Besides, livestock and poultry are mostly of local breed. The reason is that peasant farmers usually lack finances to purchase improved breed which are not only expensive but require drugs and chemicals to enhance their health status.

Apart from the high cost of farm inputs and agro-chemicals, rural farmers in Northern Ghana also lack access to ready market for rice, tomatoes, groundnuts and millet. In their quest for finding money to settle households bills such as children school fees, hospital fees and other contingencies, most rural farmers in Northern Ghana sell their farm produce at a 'throw away' price soon after harvest.

In response to the high cost of farm inputs and lack of ready market for farm produce, World Vision Ghana collaborate with other development partners, especially advocacy groups, to dialogue with the government of the day to introduce subsidy on agricultural machinery, agro-chemicals and fertilizers in order to make prices of such items affordable for majority of the peasant rural farmers in the North. Secondly, as regards lack of ready market for farm produce, World Vision Ghana further still dialogues with advocacy associations to impress on the government to institute minimum prices for rice, tomatoes and onions, similar to the price policy on cocoa and coffee. Thus, it is anticipated that when these measures are adhered to, farming (which is the major source of livelihood for majority of the people of Northern

Ghana, Ghana Statistical Service, 2001) would attract the youth of the area to enter instead of migrating to Southern Ghana to look for non-existing menial jobs.

### **Views from District Assemblies and Ghana Education Service on World Vision Ghana's interventions**

Contact with officials of the study Districts Assemblies in Savelugu/Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo revealed the following. In respect of Savelugu/Nanton district, members of the focus discussion groups were of the opinion that before World Vision Ghana's entry in the area, access to potable water was a serious problem. Most rural people resorted to drinking water from infected sources. Hence, nearly a third of the rural households were attacked by water-borne diseases ranging from guinea-worm to trachoma. In West Mamprusi district, the group discussion was centred on World Vision Ghana interventions in education. Members emphasized that World Vision Ghana's contribution to education has been of great benefit to communities in the 'overseas' area where before World Vision Ghana's entry, there had been no school infrastructure in the form of classroom and teachers' quarters. The lack of school infrastructure, in their view, was the cause of high illiteracy rate in their community.

As regards the health status in the study districts, opinion leaders and members of the focus groups in the Savelugu/Nanton stated that until World Vision Ghana's entry in some of their local communities, many of the people's health was in jeopardy. They attributed the poor health status of the people to the drinking of water infected with water-borne diseases; hence,

some members of households got infected with guinea-worm. In its view, the provision of potable water in the district has contributed to the improvement of the health status of most of the World Vision Ghana beneficiary communities. In West Mamprusi, similar views were expressed about World Vision Ghana's contribution to local communities' health through its sponsorship training of Traditional Birth Attendants (TBAs) to supplement the efforts of Ministry of Health. They mentioned, in particular, the de-worming of school children in their communities as one of the key contributions of World Vision Ghana towards the improvement of rural health delivery.

In Bongo district, opinion leaders and officials of Ghana Education Service (GES) mentioned that, since the arrival of World Vision Ghana, the district has benefited from its educational assistance. For example, the construction of a girls' hostel in the Gowrie Senior Secondary School to accommodate 80 female students and the construction of a six-unit classroom block in six communities are some of the programme's contribution. It has also renovated two school blocks to serve the educational needs of two communities in the district. Twenty needy pupils have been supported with some learning materials, that is, exercise books, pens and pencils as well as school uniforms.

In spite of the support World Vision Ghana is rendering to some deprived rural communities in Northern Ghana, a handful of focus groups, community leaders, officials of Ghana Education Service and the three District Assemblies (Savelugu/Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo) express some reservations about its activities in the rural communities as follows: that most of the NGOs officials are cheats. They argue that NGOs officers use the poor

people to source for funds from outside (Western Europe, Australia and the US). That, however, when they succeed in getting the funds (money) they divert a greater part of it to buy expensive vehicles for personal use. Another leading opinion leader in the West Mamprusi ADP District also stated that: he will also form an NGO or seek a political appointment in order to change his living condition and that of his family for the better. He maintain that some NGO officers get cheap money and bluff those people working in the public sector.

In addition to the above remarks, which were centred on their personal dissatisfaction of World Vision Ghana personnel life style, some of the focus groups and some key figures accused World Vision Ghana of employing some of the best teachers from the schools, thereby denying the Ministry of Education quality service. In fact, a check at the Northern Region Area Development Programmes office in Tamale confirms that two-thirds of their senior staff in the seven ADP districts were teachers.

Though that World Vision Ghana intervention's in education / training in the rural communities of Northern Ghana is in the right direction for, it is unfortunate that its action of recruiting teachers for its offices seem to undermine its objective of contributing to the development of education/training in the North, in particular, and the country, in general. In their view, World Vision Ghana's interventions in education / training in Northern Ghana will come to naught if the practice of luring seasoned teachers out of the classrooms with attractive service conditions to take up appointments with it is not minimized or stopped. Members emphasized that the practice of recruiting teachers by World Vision Ghana and other NGOs is

largely one of the contributory factors that account for acute staffing problems of public schools in Northern Ghana.

In conclusion, it is important to note that even though World Vision Ghana purports to have its focus on the underprivileged groups living in the rural communities, it had glossed over one neglected social group, specifically, witches and wizards. This fact came to light when one alleged witch whispered to the leader of the research team during the household interview session that as for her and her counterparts they not better off now than they were before the programme. She added, "These people have been in this our community for quite sometime now but they have not looked into our face. We need their assistance but then who will talk to them on our behalf." Also, the alleged display of arrogance and use of project funds to buy expensive vehicles were some of the reasons beneficiaries repeated a number of times and ended by stating that World Vision Ghana has not done enough to promote education/training in its target beneficiary communities. Thus, considering the alleged quantum of resources it receives from international donors for funding development projects, what is given to beneficiary communities is negligible. These observations and remarks quite contradict what World Vision Ghana says about its activities in the rural communities coupled with what is contained in its official records regarding its remarkable success-stories in deprived rural communities countrywide.

However, some of the focus groups and a few senior citizens from the study area were of the view that World Vision Ghana is a purely voluntary organization. That is, it only volunteers to assist Central Government and the District Assemblies to assist rural communities in the North, to improve upon

their lot through the provision of food production and access to education, water and health services. It was remarked by one senior citizen in one of the beneficiary communities that the view that World Vision Ghana has not done enough to meet the needs of rural communities in its beneficiary areas is not true. He stressed that World Vision Ghana needs to be recommended for the gains it has so far made in its target communities. He further emphasised that it is unreasonable for beneficiaries and some individuals to be too curious to know how much comes to the coffers of World Vision Ghana to be disbursed on various development projects. In his view, beneficiary groups of World Vision Ghana should allow it free hand to conduct its development activities without interference.

## **CHAPTER SEVEN**

### **ASSESSMENT OF WORLD VISION GHANA INTERVENTIONS IN THE STUDY DISTRICTS**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter seeks to carry out an assessment of World Vision Ghana's contribution in the three selected districts: Savelugu/Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo. The areas covered are:

- Self-sufficiency in food production
- Water supply
- Education / training

#### **Self-sufficiency in food production**

In this context, self-sufficiency in food production means the ability of households to produce enough food stock from their respective farms to meet the food requirements of members of households, without relying on outside support or food aid. Food self-sufficiency also stands for the capacity of the households to store some considerable amount of their farm produce to cater for contingencies, meet household needs, and also to serve as security against food shortages in the immediate future in case of drought or crop infestations.

The concept may also mean the ability of households to purchase extra food to supplement their own produce by means of selling some of their farm produce such as poultry, goats, sheep and pigs in the local market for cash. It

should be noted that before the advent of World Vision Ghana in agriculture in some parts of Northern Ghana, especially in the study districts, the food situation was generally poor. For instance, World Vision Ghana by-annual report in 2002 showed that 57.6% of the population of Northern Ghana were not food self-sufficient because only 42.4% of the population were food self-sufficient. With regard to the food situation in the study districts, the survey recorded the following findings.

**Table 11: Distribution of responses on food self-sufficiency**

Time frame	BF	AF	BF	AF	BF	AF
Before (BF) (1990-1996)	Savelugu/ Nanton		West Mamprusi		Bongo	
After (AF) (1997-2002)						
Number of households	148	28	108	40	62	30
without access to food self sufficiency before and after the programme	92.5%	17.5%	90%	33.3%	50%	24%
Number of households with access to food self-sufficiency before and after the programme	12	132	12	80	62	94
	7.8%	82.5%	10%	66.7%	50%	75.8%
TOTAL	160	160	120	120	124	124

Source: Field survey, 2002

Note: Bf stands for before the programme, while Af stands for after the Programme

Table 11 shows the food supply situation before and after the programme in the study districts. The table it revealed that there was an increase in the number of households who attained self-sufficiency in food production after the programme. The increase in the number of households who were food self-sufficient after the programme appears to be the outcome of World Vision Ghana's contribution to the agricultural sector in the form of small credit for purchasing farm inputs and implements (donkey and bullock ploughs, agro-chemicals, fertilizers, improved seeds and exotic animal breed). Beneficiary rural farmers also acquired new scientific knowledge and practice in modern farming techniques through closer collaboration with the World Vision Ghana and the Extension Services of the Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MOFA).

The field survey report, as observed in earlier discussion showed that over 70% of the beneficiaries increased their farm size from 2 hectares to about 3-5 hectares. Besides the increase in household's farm size, 5.6% of the households were able to engage in dry season farming as a result of the programme. Through the knowledge acquired, beneficiaries were able to store large quantities of produce for future use.

Although World Vision Ghana based its interventions in Northern Ghana for enhancing food self-sufficiency, on UNICEF reports on the food situation in the North, nothing was mentioned as to how the critical food situation could be ameliorated. In short, it did not envisage how the situation could be improved for the benefit of rural farming communities in Northern Ghana. For example, though the UNICEF (1999) stated that 63% of the area's active population were without any source of income apart from farming, no

reference was made to whether or not it was the situation of no job opportunities which had compelled the youth of the area to migrate to Southern Ghana in search of menial jobs. It has been argued that the migration from Northern Ghana to the South enables the migrants to earn some money to support themselves and their family members back home. Unfortunately, it was observed during the survey that half the number of migrants did not return to their respective communities to help the older ones to carry out farming activities during the rainy season.

Also, following the programme interventions, over 200 women and young girls acquired basic skills in basket weaving and batik, tie and dye business in the Bongo district. The beneficiaries of the skills training programme were able to make extra money to cater for their basic needs. They were also able to contribute towards the purchase of foodstuff to supplement household's food requirements during the lean seasons. It was also observed from the survey that prior to World Vision Ghana's interventions in Northern Ghana, 46% of children experienced stunted growth as a result of food shortage, while 36.3% of children in the same category were underweight due to inadequate feeding arising from inadequate food and nutrition. For instance, some communities in the Upper East Region experienced frequent food shortfalls, thereby making it difficult for households to afford three square meals a day. However, after the programme, it was observed that only 20% of children showed signs of malnutrition (Bongo District Health Centre, 2002). It was also observed that "korshikor", which was a common feature in most rural communities, had been controlled, if not eliminated.

**Table 12: Food self-sufficiency index**

Time frame	BF	AF	BF	AF	BF	AF
Before (BF) (1990-1996)	Savelugu/ Nanton		West Mamprusi		Bongo	
After (AF) (1997-2002)						
Number of households without access to food self-sufficiency before and after the programme	148	28	108	40	62	30
Number of households with access to food self-sufficiency before and after the programme	12	132	12	80	62	94
TOTAL	160	160	120	120	124	124
$\chi^2$	181.82*		81.5		17.69	

Source: Field survey, 2002

df = 1 at 5% significant level

Note: Bf stands for before the Programme, while Af stands for after the Programme

\* Refer appendix 5

The results of the  $\chi^2$  tests for food self-sufficiency are shown in Table 12 for all the three districts. The tests revealed a significant difference in the number of food self-sufficient households before and after the programme. The computed  $\chi^2$  for Savelugu/ Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo are 181.82, 81.5 and 17.69 respectively, all greater than the theoretical value of 3.84. The programme certainly has had significant impact on households' food self-sufficiency since the absolute numbers of food self-sufficient households after the programme are greater than those before the programme.

In Savelugu / Nanton the absolute number of households without food self-sufficiency before the programme was 148 but after the programme the number of households without food self-sufficiency was reduced to 28, a significant drop of 81%. On the other hand, the number of households with food self-sufficiency for Savelugu/Nanton rose by 1000%. Before the programme, the number of people with food self-sufficiency for Savelugu/Nanton was 12 but after the programme it increased to 132.

For West Mamprusi, the absolute number of households without food self-sufficiency before the programme was 108 but after the programme it was reduced to 40 households. This also shows a fall of 63%. The absolute number of households with food self-sufficiency was 12 before the programme; after the programme it rose to 80, an increase of 566%. In Bongo, before the programme the absolute number of households without food self-sufficiency was 62, after the programme 30 households were recorded as being without food self-sufficiency, showing a decline of 52%. With regard to households with food self-sufficiency the absolute numbers were 62 before the programme and 94 after the programme, signifying a remarkable 51% improvement in access to food self-sufficiency. It can, therefore, be concluded that the programme has had a positive significant impact on households' food self-sufficiency in all the districts.

It is worth noting that the significant change in the number of food self-sufficient households before and after the programme is the outcome of a multiplicity of interventions, notably, introduction of improved farming methods, and credit facilities advanced to rural farmers who, prior to the programme, were unable to procure the requisite farm inputs and implements

to expand the size of their farms as well as maintain such farms properly in order to achieve maximum yields.

What should be noted is that in spite of the significant impact of the programme on household's food self-sufficiency, other external factors such as availability of extension services also contributed to the number of households achieving food self-sufficiency. For example, the contributions of some NGOs and government agencies such as MOFA, through Extension Services, played a role towards the achievement of food self-sufficiency in the research area.

### **Potable water**

Water services here mean the provision of various sources of water for rural communities. They include water from dugouts, dams, wells, boreholes and stand pipes. The first two water systems are used to water animals during the long dry seasons as well as for gardening and domestic use such as cooking, washing and bathing. The wells, boreholes, and stand pipes are used as sources of safe drinking water. However, in Northern Ghana when we talk of water services we usually think in terms of water for domestic purposes as well as for drinking, with the hope of minimising chances of contracting water-borne diseases, particularly guinea worm.

In this study, access to water services means households' ability to easily link up with any of the various water sources; that is, water from dugouts and dams as well as water from wells, boreholes, and stand pipes. These five sources of water, if provided for rural folks, would help reduce the time spent in search of water for domestic use and also help in minimising the

effect of guinea worm, typhoid and cholera diseases. Before the programme, many communities (both urban and rural) in the North lacked access to potable water. Thus, from the survey, some focus groups in Savelugu/Nanton complained that agriculture productivity in their rural areas had significantly been reduced due to the effect of guinea-worm and other water-borne diseases. Indeed, these diseases attacked both young and old, as a result of drinking of guinea worm infected-water. It was noted that the principal source of water in the deprived rural communities of Northern Ghana was surface water; which includes water from rivers, streams, ponds and small dams. Water from these sources was used for all purposes both domestic and agricultural.

It must be emphasized that prior to World Vision Ghana's interventions in the water sector, access to potable water in some parts of Northern Ghana was 7%. An example is Savelugu/Nanton district. Thus, World Vision Ghana decided to include the Savelugu/Nanton rural communities in its water programme to enable them have access to potable water. The programme have so far provided 170 boreholes and over 100 hand dug wells, some fitted with pumps. Besides, a large quantity of about 100 water filters were given to some beneficiary rural communities, particularly those that were identified as guinea-worm prone areas. The field survey findings were further confirmed by the mid-year report on the programme (2000) which stated that between 1997 and 2000 accessibility to potable water in the North per household had risen from 7% to 31% (World Vision Ghana, 2000). It was also observed from the survey (2002) that access to potable water in the beneficiary communities enabled women and children to use the extra time saved in search of water for household chores and other productive

ventures such as shea butter extraction. Moreover, late attendance to classes by children also reduced drastically as a result of easy access to potable water. (District Directorate: Savelugu / Nanton, 2002).

As a result of the programme interventions, some impact had been made. The guinea worm infection had reduced considerably in the beneficiary communities as a result of access to safe drinking water through the provision of boreholes, and over 100 wells fitted with pumps. It is surprising that in some of the beneficiary communities, some people did not use the water provided by the programme. According to the survey, some about 55% of respondents were of the firm belief that guinea-worm was from human blood or from a natural cause other than from drinking unsafe water. The consequence was that they disregarded common preventive measures.

With regard to sanitation, the situation was very deplorable even in the beneficiary district capitals. Most of the households in both district capitals and rural communities did not have latrines in their homes. It was only few people who lived in the urban centres that used public toilets. Majority of the people who lived in the rural areas defecated in the open. In addition, most of the households including those in towns, had no solid waste disposal system. The common practice was indiscriminate dumping of refuse in any available open space, thereby leading to general poor sanitary conditions in Northern Ghana.

In order to minimise the poor sanitation, World Vision Ghana collaborated with the beneficiary districts' Water and Sanitation Teams to disseminate relevant information on efficient water and sanitation management practices. It specifically focused on the co-ordination of water

and toilet facilities in the beneficiary communities. World Vision Ghana also collaborated with other NGOs that were involved in the promotion of proper water and sanitation management practices so as to enhance healthy living conditions in the area. From the survey (2002), the programme interventions led to a number of beneficiary communities being sensitized on how to handle and manage solid and liquid wastes. Consequently, there was an increase in the level of awareness regarding the need to have latrines in rural homes. From the research, over 100 households in the district capitals and the sub-urban centres had the Kumasi Ventilated Improved Pit (KVIP) latrines in their homes (Field Survey, 2002). There was a great awareness among the beneficiary communities on proper methods of solid and liquid waste disposal.

In conclusion, the survey (2002) as revealed by the Districts Health Directorates showed that there was a gradual reduction in the number of reported water-related health cases as a result of the provision of good drinking water and improved sanitary conditions in the beneficiary districts. However, it must be emphasised that if the success story in the water and sanitation sector is to be sustained, then the programme must embark on sensitization of the beneficiary communities on the need to take keen interest in water and sanitation issues. It should be borne in mind that if it fails to assist beneficiary communities to raise their living standards through the provision of safe drinking water and good sanitary management practice, then its effort would come to naught, notwithstanding the heavy expenditure incurred annually to meet the cost of provision of boreholes and wells for the target communities. In short, the programme must not divorce sanitation from

the provision of safe drinking water because the two facilities go hand in hand in enhancing the health of the target communities.

In view of the useful role water services play in the lives of the rural communities in Northern Ghana, it was proper to use the chi square ( $\chi^2$ ) to find out the association of the programme interventions on rural households access to portable water services. The table below depicts the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) tests on the significant association of the programme on households with access to water services before and after the programme.

**Table 13: Water services index**

Time frame	BF	AF	BF	AF	BF	AF
Before (BF) (1990-1996)	Savelugu/		West		Bongo	
After (AF) (1997-2002)	Nanton		Mamprusi			
Number of households without access to safe drinking water before and after the programme	138	67	100	54	120	96
Number of households with access to safe drinking water before and after the programme		93	20	66	4	28
Total	160	160	120	120	124	124
$\chi^2$	68.43		38.34		20.67	

Source: Field survey, 2002  
df = 1 at 5% significant level

Note: Bf stands for before the programme while Af stands for after the programme.

The results of the  $\chi^2$  tests for access to water services are shown in Table 13 for all the three districts. The tests revealed a significant difference in the number of households with and without water services before and after the programme. The computed  $\chi^2$  for Savelugu / Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo are 68.43, 38.34 and 20.67 respectively, all greater than the theoretical value of 3.84. The programme certainly has had significant effect on households water services since the absolute numbers of household with access to water services after the programme are greater than those before the programme.

On one hand, in Savelugu/Nanton the absolute number of households without water services before the programme was 138 but after the programme the number of households without water services reduced to 67, that is, 51%. On the other hand, the number of households with water services for Savelugu/Nanton before the programme was 22 but after the programme it increased to 93 that is, 323%.

In West Mamprusi, the absolute number of households without water services before the programme was 100 but after the programme it was reduced to 54 households showing a reduction of 46%. As regards the absolute number of households with water services, it was 20 before the programme but after the programme it rose 66 showing 230% increase. In Bongo, before the programme the absolute number of households without water services was 120. After the programme 96 households were recorded as being without water services, that is, a fall by 20%. With regard to households

with water services there was a great improvement by 600%. The absolute numbers were 4 before the programme and 28 after the programme. It can be concluded that the programme has had a positive significant impact on households' access to water services in the districts.

In conclusion, the chi-square test revealed that there was significant change with regard to households' access to water services after the programme in the research area. However, notwithstanding the contributions of other development partners in the rural water sector as observed earlier, the World Vision Ghana had played a significant role in providing safe drinking water to some rural communities in the Savelugu/Nanton district. These communities hitherto lacked access to safe drinking water sources; hence, they were prone to a number of water-borne diseases. Thus, it is not surprising that these beneficiary communities are now free from periodic outbreak of water-borne diseases namely guinea worm, cholera, typhoid and trachoma.

### **Education**

In recent times, development partners, academicians, and the government of Ghana are laying emphasis on education as key to development in Northern Ghana. World Vision Ghana sees education as a major component of its development package in the beneficiary communities. The purpose was to enhance the capacity of rural communities in Northern Ghana and also to enable them to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to improve upon their standards of living thereby eliminating poverty, misery, deprivation and suffering. In line with this conviction, World Vision Ghana encouraged the rural communities to send their children to school to enable them to acquire

knowledge and functional literacy skills to undertake meaningful development programmes in their respective local communities.

Specifically, school enrolment stands for the process of getting children ages 5-15 years into the formal school programme to facilitate acquisition of literacy and other functional skills by the youth.. the people in Northern Ghana were totally denied education for a long time due to the colonial administration's discriminatory educational policy. Even when it was finally provided for the citizens of the North, it was observed to be woefully inadequate and poorly resourced (Bening, 1990). The low educational situation of Northern Ghana, as noted in the baseline by World Vision Ghana, showed that 52.6% of children aged 5-15 years never went to school. Again, 63% of girls in the same age category never went to school. It was further noted that in some communities as high as 29.8% of their total population never had any kind of formal education because of inaccessibility.

It was based on the deprived nature of some of the districts in Northern Ghana that World Vision Ghana adopted the Area Development Programme Districts Concept by collaborating with beneficiary communities in providing educational infrastructure and logistics such as school buildings, hostels, school furniture, teaching and learning materials in the form of textbooks and exercise books. World Vision Ghana also provided school feeding to pupils in some selected rural schools. In some cases, it paid the school fees of the needy but brilliant pupils in the beneficiary communities.

Considering these interventions, it was appropriate to carry out an impact analysis of the programme by focusing on whether the programme had made an impact on the educational situation in its Area Development

Programme Districts. This was assessed by comparing before and after the programme interventions. For instance, in the 'overseas' area of the West Mamprusi District, there were virtually no school buildings and in some of the communities where school buildings existed, they were poorly constructed and easily washed off by heavy rains. Besides, frequent flooding of the rivers and streams in the area and parts of Bongo District impeded easy movement of children to school. This situation contributed largely to poor school enrolment in the deprived rural communities in Northern Ghana.

It was noted that in some of the rural communities in the study area, the programme had provided 70 day-care centres, fully furnished to attract parents to enrol their young children in school. In the 'overseas' communities of the West Mamprusi Area Development Programme District, classrooms and offices were built in three separate rural communities through the programme; previously, these communities lacked school facilities. For example, before the programme school enrolment of children aged 5 – 15 years by households in the West Mamprusi district in particular was 20%, but after the programme it rose to about 80%. In the Savelugu / Nanton District, school enrolment of children aged 5 – 15 years before the programme was 23.8%, but after the programme it rose to 70.5%. Before the programme, school enrolment of children aged 5 – 15 years in the Bongo district was 95.2%, but after the programme it rose slightly to 96.8%.

It is worth noting that in view of the intervention, the provision of school furniture has largely improved. The children were no longer lying on their bellies to write or use stones as improvised furniture in the classrooms. In addition, it was observed that both parents and pupils had developed

interest in formal education because of the availability of classrooms equipped with furniture that enhanced teaching and learning in the beneficiary communities. Thus, with improvement in classroom environment through the interventions, parents were now encouraged to enrol their wards in school, thereby raising school enrolment to an appreciable level.

Furthermore, children in (CIP) programme also provided some assistance in the form of school uniform to pupils who could not afford. The programme, for instance, also encouraged school pupils to keep small ruminants and birds. This programme had so far benefited about 300 beneficiaries in the Northern sector alone. This intervention assisted beneficiary school pupils to sell some of the small ruminants and birds to meet the cost of basic school materials such as school uniforms, exercise books, pens and pencils. The programme also paid school text book user fees, cultural / sports, and school feeding fees for the needy pupils in the beneficiary communities. The CIP and the supplementary school feeding programme organised for the beneficiary communities led to an increase in school attendance from about 29% for children aged 5-15 years to 41-45% nearly five years after the interventions. In some places, it rose to 80-85 %, depending on whether there was school feeding programme in place.

It is important to note that before the programme, teachers' accommodation was virtually non-existent in most rural communities, particularly in the Area Development Programme Districts. Teachers had to commute 15-25km each day to schools from nearby towns. This resulted in frequent lateness, absenteeism, and general low output of most rural teachers. The most common problem that teachers faced was accommodation. This

situation seriously affected the academic performance of rural schools in both internal and external examinations. It is, therefore, no wonder that performance in the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) by school candidates in Northern Ghana before the programme had been generally poor. For example, the Community Day Senior Secondary Schools candidates in Northern Ghana performed poorly in the Senior Secondary School Certificate Examinations, conducted by the West African Examination Council in June 2003. Their poor performance in the said examination graded by the Ghana Education Service made them to occupy the bottom position in the ranking table for the schools that took part in the June 2003 School Certificate Examination. For example, before the programme, candidates at both the Bongo and Gowrie Senior Secondary Schools scarcely qualified for the University Entrance Examinations. However, with the provision of hostel facilities by the programme for both boys and girls and the assistance given to some needy students the general performance in public examinations registered a remarkable improvement at individual school level, with a pass rate of 10% to over 40% in each succeeding year.

Finally, it was observed that before the programme, there were no technical and vocational training centres in most parts of Northern Ghana, especially in the deprived districts. Hence, there were no avenues for acquiring technical and vocational skills in several Northern Ghana communities. Thus, the absence of training facilities in the form of technical institutes and vocational schools did not make these “graduates” to realise their full potentials in the area of dressmaking, woodwork, leatherwork and cloth weaving. With the advent of the programme, a vocational centre has been

established in the Bongo district to provide vocational skills for the youth in cloth weaving, basketry, and dressmaking. So far, over 60 women and teenage girls, have passed out of the vocational institute sponsored by World Vision Ghana. The programme is also in collaboration with other district assemblies to construct technical and vocational centres in other deprived districts in Northern Ghana so as to meet the growing vocational needs of the youth in order to enhance their capacity to become self-employed. In brief, the poor level of education in Northern Ghana is gradually changing for the better. This is due to the pragmatic measures put in place by World Vision Ghana and the District Assemblies. However, it must be noted that the programme needs to intensify its collaboration with other NGOs in Northern Ghana so as to enhance the provision of relevant educational facilities in target districts in order to raise the standard of formal education in Northern rural communities that can be comparable to the standard attained in the urban centres of Ghana.

It has become necessary at this stage of the thesis to assess the impact of the programme on household school enrolment before and after the programme implementation in the beneficiary communities. The table (14) below shows the  $\chi^2$  tests on school enrolment by households before and after the programme in the study districts.

**Table 14: Education Index**

	BF	AF	BF	AF	BF	AF
	Savelugu/ Nanton		West Mamprusi		Bongo	
Rate of Access						
Number of households without access to education before and after the programme	124	38	108	24	6	4
Number of households with access to education before and after the programme	36	122	12	96	118	120
Total	160	160	120	120	124	124
$\chi^2$	92.46		118.79		0.42	

Source: Field survey, 2002

df = 1 at 5% significant level

Note: Bf stands for before the programme; Af stands for after the programme while access to education stands for proximity and education subsidies.

The results of the  $\chi^2$  tests for access to education are shown in Table 14 for all the three districts. The tests revealed a significant difference in the number of households with and without access to education before and after the programme. The computed  $\chi^2$  for Savelugu/Nanton, West Mamprusi and Bongo are 92.46, 118.79 and 0.42 respectively. Thus, with the exception of Bongo where the figure is less than the theoretical value of 3.84, Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi have figures that are greater than the theoretical value. The programme, no doubt, has had significant effect on households'

access to education since the absolute number of households with access to education after the programme is greater than that before the programme. This is as a result of proximity of educational institutions in the rural communities. The assistance given to needy children in the form of school uniforms and educational subsidies had facilitated access to education in the three study districts.

On the other hand, in Savelugu/Nanton the absolute number of households without access to education fell by 72%. Before the programme, it was 124 but after the programme it was reduced to 38 while the number of households with access to education for Savelugu/Nanton rose by 239%; that is, before the programme it was 36 but after the programme it increased to 122.

In West Mamprusi, the absolute number of households without access to education before the programme was 96 but after the programme it was reduced to 12, showing a fall by 86%. The absolute number of households with access to education was 24 before the programme but after the programme it rose to 108, showing a rise by 350%. In Bongo, before the programme the absolute number of households without access to education was 6; however, after the programme, it fell by 33%. The number of households recorded as being without access to education was 4. With regard to households with access to education, the absolute numbers were 118 before the programme and rose to 120 after the programme, signifying a slight improvement of 2%.

It can be concluded from the above analysis that the programme has had a significant positive impact on households' access to education in

Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi districts, two out of the three beneficiary districts. However, in Bongo district there has not been any significant impact on households' access to education after the programme.

From the conclusion drawn from the data analysis based on the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) formula, it has been revealed that there is significant difference in the number of households with access to food self-sufficiency, safe drinking water, and educational facilities due to the effect of the programme. Therefore, the alternate hypothesis that there is a significant difference in the number of households with access to (i) food self-sufficiency, (ii) safe drinking water and (iii) educational facilities before and after the programme has been confirmed to be true.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY**

#### **Introduction**

This thesis explored and documented World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana. It reviewed the work of NGO activities, in general, and that of World Vision Ghana in particular, in Northern Ghana. The work was prompted by the fact that skeptics view the activities of NGOs as mostly visible through signboards and vehicles. Critics posit that the work of NGOs has no significant impact on the lives of the beneficiary communities. They further argue that NGOs simply duplicate development activities and, in some cases, they fail to collaborate with other social groups and beneficiaries in the execution of programmes, thus rendering their activities counter productive. This chapter summarises the findings followed by the conclusions. The recommendations and implications for policy are then discussed.

#### **Summary of findings**

The study revealed that NGOs generally undertook various development programmes geared at promoting socio-economic development in their operational areas. World Vision Ghana had contributed to rural development in Northern Ghana by providing some rural communities with

social and infrastructural services through a number of programmes. The programmes it undertook dealt with the appropriate measures to promote rural development in Northern Ghana.

It was observed from the study that World Vision Ghana's development activities were mostly located in the deprived districts of Northern Ghana. In the selected districts, the poorest communities were chosen to benefit from various development assistances. Its activities got to the right social groups because its officials worked in close collaboration with other interested development partners such as the District Assemblies, unit committees and village community leaders in order to solicit their cooperation and support in carrying out its work. It was further observed that, various bodies recognized as partners in development made the communities feel proud and this raised their commitment to a very high level. The final outcome was that the beneficiaries acquired various skills in project planning, implementation and evaluation.

The study came up with major and minor findings based on the healthy relationship between World Vision Ghana and other development partners operating in Northern Ghana. The major findings related directly to what the study sought out to find with regard to whether World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana had achieve its set objective of assisting beneficiary communities to have access to food self-sufficiency, potable water and education/training facilities. The minor findings related to issues which did not form part of what the study sought to find out but came up in the course of the research, and hence were noted.

## **Major findings**

The major findings of the study were drawn from a review of World Vision Ghana programmes in the six selected beneficiary communities of the three Area Development Districts in Northern Ghana on:

- agriculture (food self-sufficiency)
- provision of potable water
- formal education/training facilities

It was observed from the study that in Northern Ghana rural communities lacked adequate financial support to improve on agricultural productivity in order to achieve food self-sufficiency. In order to achieve food self-sufficiency for beneficiary communities, World Vision Ghana based its programmes on the goal optimisation model drawn from the modernisation theory which seeks to equip beneficiary rural communities with modern techniques and skills for enhancing agricultural productivity to ensure food self-sufficiency. Its assistance to rural beneficiary communities, therefore, enabled rural households to overcome some problems facing food production and in consequence break the dependency syndrome of looking up to external support to improve their livelihood.

The findings showed a significant difference between 'the before and after' food self-sufficiency levels of the households in the beneficiary communities. The change was due to World Vision Ghana's assistance to rural farmers to purchase farm inputs and implements to expand their farms. It was further revealed that as a result of the attainment of food self-sufficiency coupled with good nutrition, 'Korshiokor' among children was no longer a

common health problem; hence, World Vision Ghana's objective of facilitating rural development is achieving positive results.

A second major finding of the study was that there was a significant difference between access to potable water in beneficiary communities before and after World Vision Ghana's interventions. The provision of potable / drinking water led to a reduction in water-borne diseases such as typhoid, cholera, and guinea worm in the Savelugu/Nanton district in particular.

A third major finding of the study was that World Vision Ghana's interventions in formal education led to a significant increase in the construction of classrooms, which in turn enhanced effective teaching and learning in the beneficiary communities. The interventions in education led to a significant increase in households' access to education and training in two of the study districts, namely, Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi districts. However, Bongo district did not record any significant change because of its earlier contact with the Catholic Missionaries who had provided educational and some basic social infrastructure for the communities since the 1920's. The major outcome of World Vision Ghana education/training programmes is that a lot more people have become functionally literate. As such, they are able to read and gain knowledge in modern techniques related to issues such as food production, water and health management.

## **Minor findings**

One of the minor findings from the study of World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana was that it helped to promote the formation of social groups which serve as a useful tool for mobilising rural people to work together in order to improve their living conditions. It also enabled women groups in the beneficiary communities to obtain financial assistance from the NGOs and other financial institutions. This positive outcome resulted from the fact that World Vision Ghana dealt with social groups rather than individuals in its beneficiary communities.

A second minor finding was that World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana helped beneficiaries to acquire knowledge on personal health and general hygienic practices through its health education programmes. Thus, beneficiaries learnt to keep general households utilities clean all the time. In addition, beneficiary communities learnt how to protect their environment through planting of trees around their homes to serve as wind breaks and to check soil erosion.

## **Conclusions**

The interventions of World Vision Ghana to rural development in Northern Ghana have brought some relief to the people in three areas:

- agriculture,
- potable water, and
- educational infrastructure.

In agriculture World Vision Ghana has provided credit facilities, extension services, farm implements and inputs as well as high breed animals

to the beneficiary communities, resulting in improved food self-sufficiency. With respect to potable water, World Vision Ghana has provided potable drinking water in a number of beneficiary communities. It has also provided classrooms through community initiatives, furniture, school uniforms, teaching and learning aids to some of its beneficiary communities.

In all, three issues can be derived from the study:

- Rural people were made aware of their capabilities and limitations through their interactions with World Vision Ghana. They also learned to cultivate self esteem and confidence from NGO seminars, training programmes and workshops;
- Rural people learned where to go and what steps to take to obtain assistance for solving community socio-economic problems;
- Rural people learned to partner with various development agencies for assistance in cash and kind to facilitate rural development in their respective communities.

Finally, the study showed that rural people lack certain technical knowledge, skills, financial and human capacities to effectively plan and manage resources for rural development. It, however, became clear in the study that through World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development, the beneficiary communities were able to acquire some basic knowledge and skills that enabled them to handle problems facing food self-sufficiency, potable water and education/ training in their respective localities.

There is still a lot, though, that needs to be done by World Vision Ghana on the one hand and the beneficiary communities on the other hand

with regard to further action on issues such as food self-sufficiency, access to potable water and education and training.

### **Recommendations**

For World Vision Ghana to achieve its goal of contributing to rural development in Northern Ghana in the areas of food self-sufficiency, potable drinking water and education/ training, certain bottlenecks have to be overcome. In this respect, some recommendations emanating from this study are offered.

#### *Food self-sufficiency*

In order for Bongo, Savelugu-Nanton and West Mamprusi district to overcome some of the problems hindering food self-sufficiency, the form of assistance must be tailored to meet each district's peculiar needs in the areas of:

- Increase in food production
- Improved storage and preservation methods; and
- Improved livestock production.

With regard to increases in food production, it has been observed that in the Bongo district, farmlands are not relatively small in size but also have poor soils. World Vision Ghana, therefore, needs to collaborate with the agricultural extension officers to organise regular training workshops to educate the rural farmers, first, on how to improve the fertility of their farmlands through the use of local materials to make compost manure to fertilise the farms poor soil content. By this process World Vision Ghana

would be able to use the endogenous concept and the modernization theory, as discussed, to assist beneficiaries to gain appropriate knowledge and skills. The acquired knowledge and skills could help improve not only food production techniques but also enhance the basket, straw weaving and the smock industries in the respective local communities. In addition, World Vision Ghana should assist the farmers to go into the onchocerciasis free zone area in the western part of the Bongo district to drill boreholes at vantage points to provide potable water to attract farmers to increase food production using knowledge and skills gained from the collaboration of World Vision Ghana and the agricultural extension services workshops.

In the Savelugu/Nanton district, land for making large farm size is available, except that the farmers lack access to credit. World Vision Ghana, therefore, needs to assist the farmers to form co-operatives to enable them to access financial support from credit institutions to buy machinery and farm tools, this that will help them to expand their farms. In addition, beneficiary farmers should be given skills training to enable them to overcome problems involved in food production.

It was also observed that food storage and preservation are key problems that World Vision Ghana needs to address in the districts to facilitate food self-sufficiency. For example in Bongo, Savelugu/Nanton and West Mamprusi, the farmers must be trained in food storage and preservation skills to enable them to gain knowledge on how to check post harvest losses after each farming season. Besides the expected actions on the part of World Vision Ghana, community leaders need to co-operate with World Vision Ghana officials by encouraging beneficiary communities to attend and participate

fully in all training workshops organised in collaboration with agricultural extension officers.

### *Potable drinking water*

From the study it was observed that each district had a peculiar safe drinking water problem and, therefore, required special attention rather than a general approach. It should, however, be borne in mind that apart from the assistance beneficiary communities obtain from development partners, each community needs to be empowered to manage and maintain its water systems.

In the Savelugu/Nanton district, in particular, most of the beneficiary communities still experience insufficient potable water supplies during the dry season. For example, from February to May each year majority of the boreholes dry up; hence, the communities fetch water from ponds and dugouts. World Vision Ghana could address this perennial water problem by drilling deeper boreholes to replace the existing ones to ensure all year-round water supply. In addition, it could assist the communities to acquire skills in the maintenance of the boreholes and also institute a system that requires financial contributions from the communities to ensure regular maintenance of the boreholes. Besides, World Vision Ghana should place order for first class water filters from reputable foreign companies and make them available to the rural communities to purchase at subsidised prices.

In the Bongo district the issue of safe drinking water is different. Water systems (boreholes and wells) provided by World Vision Ghana and other development agencies are observed to have high fluoride content which affects the people's teeth. World Vision Ghana should, therefore, lobby the District

Assembly and the central government to provide funds for the Ghana Water Company to extend water services from the Veve dam to the communities. Beneficiaries in the Bongo district should equally be prepared to make some contributions in cash or kind to support the district assembly and World Vision Ghana to extend water services from the Veve dam to their respective local communities.

### *Education/ training*

In order for the beneficiary districts to realise the full benefits from World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana, it is essential that all people have access to formal education and training. This is necessary because education empowers people to take their destiny into their own hands by acquiring of modern technology, knowledge and skills that can be used to create favourable conditions for modernizing food production as well as ensuring proper management of portable water and health services

With regard to Bongo district, facilities such as school buildings and furniture were available. The major problem, however, that faced the educational authorities was that most girls were not enrolled in school; the few that entered school did not stay long enough to complete the in basic education. World Vision Ghana needs to intensify its educational messages to parents in the district on the need to enrol their girl child in school and assist such children to stay long enough to finish, at least, the basic education, bearing in mind that literate women contribute immensely to households' health and water needs.

In the case of West Mamprusi district, World Vision Ghana needs to increase its assistance to the district assembly to provide more school infrastructure to some of the rural communities which still lack basic educational facilities. For example, in the 'over-seas' area of the West Mamprusi district, certain communities still lack school buildings. Children, therefore, either have to walk some kilometres to school or stop going to school. It is, therefore, necessary that World Vision Ghana collaborates with the District Assembly and other development partners to build additional school blocks in identified localities and encourage parents and guardians to enrol their daughters, in particular, in schools. In the Savelugu/Nanton district, to overcome problems facing formal education, World Vision Ghana needs to increase its collaboration with the District Assembly to provide school blocks in the remote communities.

### **Implications for policy**

From the conclusions drawn, the following implications for policy are noted. Specifically, the success story of World Vision Ghana programmes in Northern Ghana is attributed to:

- The Area Development Programme concept which involves: giving assistance to needy communities for a long period of time (for example, 15 years) is more preferable to the Community Development Project (CDP) which involves scattering projects over a wider area and with a shorter duration. It is anticipated that when projects are concentrated in communities and supported for a much longer time, such communities could reap benefits in the form of modern technology, knowledge and

skills that could be applied to improve upon food production systems, water/sanitation and health services. Policy makers should therefore encourage NGOs in their areas of operation to adopt the ADP concept so as to ensure the promotion of rural development in Northern Ghana

- World Vision Ghana which collaborates with other NGOs in Northern Ghana in organizing seminars and training workshops meant to reduce rivalry among the various development partners. The collaborative efforts among the NGOs help to reduce the rate of duplication of programmes in some communities. Besides, the collaborative process enables World Vision Ghana in particular to achieve its set goals in Northern Ghana. For example, World Vision Ghana's goal of facilitating rural development in Northern Ghana is yielding positive impact in the areas of food self-sufficiency, safe-drinking water and education in the study districts. Policy makers should, therefore, encourage other NGOs to collaborate with each other in order to achieve their set goals, as outlined in the Goal Optimisation Model in Figure 2.
- The Area Development Programme (ADP) concept calls for total commitment of resources and collaboration with wider interest groups, thereby facilitating the implementation of sustainable rural projects that have the potential of enhancing rural development in Northern Ghana. Policy makers should, therefore, encourage other NGOs operating in Northern Ghana to, first seek the co-operation and interest of their stakeholders in order to make the attainment of their set goals in Northern Ghana much more meaningful.

### **Areas for further research**

From the research findings, the researcher recognised that further research needs to be done in order to draw reasonable conclusions on some issues relevant to World Vision Ghana's contribution to rural development in Northern Ghana. These include:

- Assessing the capacity of some of the NGOs operating in the North in order to establish their effectiveness or otherwise towards the promotion of rural development in Northern Ghana.
- Comparing the various approaches to rural development adopted by Plan Ghana, Catholic Relief Services, and World Vision Ghana. This type of study will facilitate the determination of the strengths and weaknesses of the approaches adopted for rural development programmes in Northern Ghana.

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**APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX I**

**CENTRE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**

**INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF WORLD  
VISION GHANA TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NORTHERN  
GHANA**

**INTERVIEWER: QUESTIONS IN THIS INTERVIEW SCHEDULE  
ARE TO BE ANSWERED BY HOUSEHOLDS**

- A. Background information
1. (a) District..... (b) Village.....
2. Sex: Male  Female
3. Age:
4. Educational background:
- None  Primary
- Night  Secondary
- Middle school  Other specify.....
5. Occupation: Major.....

## FOOD SELF-SUFFICIENCY

6. Have you any knowledge of NGO's?

(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]

7. If yes to question 6 then list three types of assistance NGOs provide to enhance food self-sufficiency in your community.

Type of Assistance

8. What was the size of your farm before the NGOs intervention in agriculture in your community?

(i) Less than 1 acre [ ] (ii) 3-5 acres [ ]  
 (iii) 1-2 acres [ ] (iv) 5 acres+ [ ]

9. State as many forms of innovations in farming that has been introduced to you through the NGOs intervention?

- (i) .....
- (ii) .....
- (iii) .....
- (iv) .....
- (v) .....

10. Did your farm output last your household throughout the year before the programme?

(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ] (c) Somehow [ ]

11. What fraction of your farm produce could you store before the programme for future use?

- (i) All  (iv) less than or equal to  $\frac{1}{4}$    
(ii) Less than or equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$   (v) less than or equal to  $\frac{3}{4}$    
(iii) More than  $\frac{3}{4}$   (vi) None

12. After the programme what fraction of your farm produce are you able to store for future use?

- (i) All  (iv) About  $\frac{1}{4}$    
(ii) About  $\frac{1}{2}$   (v) less than  $\frac{3}{4}$    
(iii) More than  $\frac{3}{4}$

13. Indicate whether before or after the programme your farm output was register sufficient to meet your household food requirement?

**(Tick one of the following)**

- (a) Yes  (b) No  (c)  
Somehow

### **WATER / SANITATION SERVICES**

14. Indicate whether water / sanitation services were accessible to your community before the programme? .....

15. If before the programme your communities suffered from acute water problems then state the common water borne diseases that were prevalent in your locality.

(i) .....

(ii) .....

- (iii) .....
- (iv) .....
16. List the various forms of assistance the programme provide to help solve acute water / sanitation problems in your community?
- (i) .....
- (ii) .....
- (iii) .....
- (iv) .....
17. Indicate whether after the programme access to water by households has improved .....
- .....
18. If after the programme there still exist some water borne diseases in your community, do list the common ones in order of magnitude\de and indicate why such diseases still exist.
- (i) .....
- (ii) .....
- (iii) .....
- (iv) .....

**EDUCATION / TRAINING**

19. Indicate by ticking the under listed answers whether before the programme children from your household age 5-15 years were enrolled in school?
- (a) Yes                      (b) No                      (c) Somehow [ ]

20. List three major socio-economic problems that limit participation in education / training in your community prior to the programme.

(i).....

(ii).....

(iii).....

21. Has school enrolment by households in your community increase after the programme intervention? Indicate by stating:

(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]

(c) Somehow [ ]

22. State any three types of knowledge and skills which members of your household derived from the programme for solving community development problems?

i.....

ii.....

iii.....

23. What is your personal assessment of the World Vision-Ghana's programmes in your community? Tick the appropriate Column.

(a) Excellent [ ] (5 points)

(b) Very good [ ] (4 points)

(c) Good [ ] (3 points)

(d) Fair [ ] (2 points)

(e) Poor [ ] (1 points)

(f) Very poor [ ] (0 points)

**APPENDIX II**

**CENTRE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES  
UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**

**A QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE CONTRIBUTION OF WORLD VISION  
GHANA TO RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN NORTHERN GHANA  
A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR OFFICIALS OF SOME NGOS**

**A. BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

1. Name of NGO: .....
2. Type of NGO:
  - a. International [ ]
  - b. National [ ]
  - c. Community Based Organization [ ]

**(Tick the one applicable)**

3. a. Country of Origin: ..... b. NGO: .....
4. Method of funding: .....
5. Year of Initial Operation in Ghana: .....  
in Northern Region .....

6. Area of operation in the Northern Region:

Name of District	Name of Towns	Name of Villages

7. What are your objectives in the Northern Region?

(a) Original .....

(b) Modified .....

If b. state reasons for modification .....

.....

.....

8. What is your vision for the rural people of the North?

.....

.....

9. What are your methods of operation?

(i).....

(ii).....

10. Do you involve the government departments/DAS in your rural development programmes?

(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ] (c) Sometimes [ ]

11. If yes how do you involve them? .....

.....

12. If no, why don't you involve them? .....

.....

	Top Priority	priority	somehow	Not Priority
a. Agro-farming/use of compost manure	4	3	2	1
b. Bullock/donkey farming	4	3	2	1
c. Use of improved seed/animal/birds	4	3	2	1
d. Techniques in post harvest loss/food storage/preservation	4	3	2	1

### FOOD SELF-SUFFICIENCY

13. Does your NGO provide assistance to rural people to achieve food self-sufficiency?

(a) Yes [ ]

(b) No [ ]

14. If yes to question 9 what type of assistance do you provide? List them in order of importance:

(i) .....

(ii) .....

(iii) .....

15. Indicate by marking the appropriate response against the following listed activities to show the emphasis you attach to each to enhance food self-sufficiency in your operational areas?

16. How would you rate the outcome of your contribution to realising and sustaining food self-sufficiency with regard to the following?

	Excellent	Very good	Good	Fair
a. Provision of farm tools/equipment to help enlarge farm holdings	4	3	2	1
b. Provision of technical services and drugs to check animal/poultry diseases insect pest	4	3	2	1
c. Provision of water sources to ensure all year round farming	4	3	2	1
d. Provision of knowledge / skills to minimise post harvest loss	4	3	2	1

### WATER / SANITATION SERVICES

17. Does your NGO get involve in providing water / sanitation services to rural people? (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ]

18. If yes, what form of assistance does your NGO provide to enhance access to potable water by rural households?

- (i) .....
- (ii) .....
- (iii) .....
- (iv) .....

19. The following listed water borne diseases have over years been attributed to lack of access to safe drinking water by most rural communities, how do you rate your contribution towards reducing the occurrence of such diseases to tolerable levels?

**EDUCATION AND TRAINING**

	4	3	2	1
a. Guinea worm	4	3	2	1
b. Cholera	4	3	2	1
c. Trachoma	4	3	2	1
d. Typhoid	4	3	2	1
e. Dysentery	4	3	2	1
	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor

20. Indicate whether your NGO is involved in providing assistance in promoting education / training in rural communities of the North? (a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ] (c) Somehow [ ]
21. If yes, what form of assistance do you provide to widen the scope of rural households participation in formal education / training?
- (i) .....
- (ii) .....
- (iii) .....
22. Who are the target group(s) of your education / training programmes and what specific assistance do you provide for each beneficiary group?

Target Group(s)
a.
b.
c.

23. How do you rate your contribution / training in your target beneficiary rural communities?

- (a) Poor [ ]
- (b) Fair [ ]
- (c) Good [ ]
- (d) Very good [ ]

**APPENDIX III**

**CENTRE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**

**CONTRIBUTION OF WORLD VISION GHANA TO RURAL  
DEVELOPMENT IN NORTHERN GHANA**

**A QUESTIONNAIRE FOR OFFICIALS OF GOVERNMENT  
DEPARTMENTS/DAS**

**A. BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

1. Name of Department/Ministry/District Assembly .....

2. Operation Area .....

3. What is your goal for Rural Development in the Region/ District?  
.....

**B. PROBLEMS AND SOLUTIONS**

4. (a) Is your department/Ministry/District Assembly able to provide solutions for solving problems Confronting rural development in the district?

(b) How do you go about solving those problems?

(i) Problems .....

(ii) Solutions .....

5. Do NGOs in your operation area provide some assistance towards solving problems affecting rural development? If yes list those NGOs and the types of assistance they provide.

Names of NGOs	Type of Assistance

6. Are you involved in the various Stages (planning Implementation) of the NGOs rural development programmes? If yes, which of the stages do the NGOs involve you and why?

(i) Stages of Involvement:.....

.....

(ii) Reasons:.....

.....

7. Are you fully satisfied with the Contribution of NGOs in complementing your efforts in promoting rural development?

(a) Yes [ ] (b) No [ ] (c) Somehow [ ]

8. In your view, what aspects of the NGOs work / operation require modification?

(i) .....

(ii) .....

(iii) .....

9. What are your Observation and Recommendation of NGOs  
Contribution to rural development in your district?

- (i) Observations:.....  
.....
- (ii) Recommendations:.....  
.....

**APPENDIX IV**

**CENTRE FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**

**FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE**

**Food Self-Sufficiency**

1. Are crop yields on the increase or decrease in your locality during the last five years?

.....  
.....  
.....

2. What factors accounted for your answer to Question 1?

.....  
.....  
.....

3. What type of assistance do you receive from NGOs to enhance food production in your Locality?

.....  
.....  
.....

4. In what ways would you want the NGOs assistance to cover in order to enhance food self-sufficiency in the district?

.....  
.....  
.....

**Health / Nutrition**

5. What major common health problems confront your community members during the last five years?

.....  
.....

6. What account for the prevalence of the common diseases you have mentioned above?

.....  
.....

7. What form of assistance would you want NGOs to provide to enable your community overcome its health problems?

.....  
.....

**Water / Sanitation**

8. What sources do your community gets its water supply from?

.....  
.....

9. Does the type of water your community members use for household services and for drinking have any effect on their health status?

.....  
.....

10. In what ways are NGOs assisting your community to overcome its periodic water needs?

.....  
.....

**Education / Training**

11. What factors account for either the high or low school enrolment in your community for the past five years?

.....  
.....

12. What role do NGOs play in influencing access to education / training in your community?

.....  
.....

## APPENDIX V

### AN OUTLINE OF CALCULATED CHI SQUARE ( $\chi^2$ ) STATISTICS

Observed Table – Food self sufficiency: Savelugu/Nanton

Time Frame	BF	AF	Total
Without	148	28	176
With	12	132	144
Total	160	160	320

Expected Table – Food self sufficiency: Savelugu/Nanton

Time Frame	BF	AF	Total
Without	88	88	176
With	72	72	144
Total	160	160	320

Formula applied for Expected Table:  $\frac{R_i C_i}{n}$

Where  $R_i$  = sum of ith Row of observed data  
 $C_i$  = sum of ith Column of observed data  
 $n$  = Total sum on Row and Column (320)

Chi Square ( $\chi^2$ ) Table: Food self sufficiency: Savelugu/Nanton

$O_i$	$E_i$	$O_i - E_i$	$(O_i - E_i)^2$	$(O_i - E_i)^2 / E_i$
148	88	60	3600	40.91
28	88	-60	3600	40.91
12	72	-60	3600	50
132	72	60	3600	50
				181.82

Formula used for Chi - square  $x^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (O_i - E_i)^2 / E_i$

Where :  $O_i$  = Observed data  
 $E_i$  = Expected data