

# **The Contribution of Development Organizations to the Socio-Economic Development of Under privileged Communities in the Northern part of Sierra Leone.**

**Alusine Kamara**

Faculty of Social and Management Sciences, Ernest Bai Koroma University of Science and Technology, Port Loko Campus  
[alkamara@ebkustsl.edu.sl](mailto:alkamara@ebkustsl.edu.sl)

## **Abstract**

This work examined the Role played by the developmental Organizations operating in the Northern region towards the improvement of the status and living standards of the rural poor in the region.

Questionnaire, personal interviews, observations and focus group discussions were used to collect the required data. Stratified random sampling was used to select the interviewees.

Both quantitative and Qualitative data was collected. Simple percentage was used to analyze the quantitative data. Trends and peculiarities were reported in narrative form for the qualitative data. Tables were used to present the data.

The research revealed the following:

- One hundred and eight development organization in addition to ministries have been operating in the northern region aiming at improving the living standards of the poor.
- The areas of intervention of these organizations have interacted with the rural people of the north the letter are still poor. They lack basic facilities and less public service.
- These resulted from the poor implementation strategies of the organizations and the favourism and intrinsic corruption within them.
- Generally, the activities of the organizations had very little impact on the status and living standards of the rural people in the North.

## **BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

The World we live in manifests a scenario of appalling contrasts. While a few Countries are basking in immense affluence, nearly 75% of the population of the World subsists on incomes that are below minimum standards (Todaro, 1999). Illiteracy, bad housing, lack of good medical facilities malnutrition and undernutrition are prevalent throughout most of Asia, Africa, the Middle East and Latin America. These facts can no longer be ignored. Indeed they have come to dominate intellectual thought and political action to an unprecedented degree in our times. While this work and several others are a demonstration of such intellectual thought, desperate efforts of governments around the globe to combat the problems associated with poverty demonstrate political activity.

The historic evolution of a World split into rich and poor areas is too complex a phenomenon to be explained in any simple terms. It is a truism to claim that each country could become richer than it is now. Some Countries with dim economic prospects are bound to reconcile themselves to permanently low subsistence, relieved only by migration to better endowed, adjacent areas.

The scientific revolution has also finally rendered meaningless the idea of a nation with no potential for expansion. The growth of science and technology has steadily increased the prospects for materials improvement: techniques for locating mineral resources, improving crops and livestock and increasing production from given materials, for example, are continuously being devised.

Moreover, it is easy to be tempted into the conviction that climate is responsible for underdevelopment, and there is perhaps some truth in such a point of view; enervating heat, for instance can have a disastrous effect on human industriousness; fierce monsoons erode the soil and make life hazardous in equatorial regions. However, climate is subject to human manipulation in numerous ways; refrigeration and air-conditioning, for instance, reduce the rigours of heat.

It must be noted at this juncture that all kinds of resources are obviously necessary for accelerating economic development. Apart from savings which are crucial for accumulation of capital, other resources with some notable exceptions, also largely depend on the availability of savings; the exceptions are administrative, entrepreneurial and organizational resources which cannot necessarily be created with savings and the lack of which may prove to be the limiting bottlenecks in development in many underdeveloped areas. It is also worth noting that Countries are not limited to their own resources: capital, skilled labour and technical knowledge should therefore move across national frontiers.

Sierra Leone is a small Country in the West Coast of Africa bounded by the Republic of Guinea, in the North and North East, the Republic of Liberia in the South and in the West by the Atlantic Ocean. Like many other African Countries, it is a multi-ethnic society having some seventeen ethnic groups in a population of about seven million people occupying a geographical area of 27,925 sq. miles Statistics Sierra Leone.

The Country recently recovered from the Ebola killer disease that left thousands of people dead and many others as either orphans or single parents. During the EBOLA crisis economic and social activities were brought to a standstill as almost everybody concentrated on the fight to control the virus disease.

The Country had suffered from a civil war wherein Sierra Leoneans witnessed eleven years of extreme sufferings inflicted by the fighting forces. Rebel Militia, government soldiers, local militia groups eg. the Local militia fighting alongside government focuses in the east and Southern region. ‘Kamajors’ and the Local militia fighting alongside government focuses in the Northern region. ‘gbethies’ devastated the Country through savage attacks on villages and townships.

Houses were burnt, property looted and economic activities were brought to a halt.

(Truth and Reconciliation Draft Report, 20014).

In addition, the war was characterized by blatant Human Rights Violations such as mass killing, rape, limb amputation, and torture.

## **AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This study aims at finding out the involvement of Developmental Organizations in the improvement of the socio-economic status of the people in the target area. It will analyze, thoroughly, all the factors and key issues that pertain the attainment of the elements of socio-economic change and welfare improvement of the people in that part of the Country. It will specifically achieve the following:

- i. Comprehensively highlight all the developmental organizations involved in socio-economic activities enhancement in the Northern Province.
- ii. Identify the various socio-economic related projects undertaken by the organizations,
- iii. Analyze the implementation mechanism they have put in place,
- iv. Examine the situation in which the community people are living in terms of their standards of living.
- v. Assess the responsiveness of the people to the innovations brought to them and
- vi. Assess the impact of the implemented socio-economic development projects by the various developmental organizations and
- vii. Make useful recommendations to the government, the organizations and the people.

### **Research questions**

- i. What intervention strategies do the institutions have?
- ii. How relevant are these strategies to the needs of the people in this part of the Country?
- iii. Who are the direct beneficiaries?
- iv. What are the short-term and long-term objectives of these organizations?

What Impact have they created on the behavioral pattern of the people in the region?

### **METHODOLOGY**

No single research methodology was found adequately suitable for adoption in this study. This primarily, could be attributed to the varying characteristics and category of people involved in the study. Besides involving many people with different ethnicities, there are many socio-economic variations among those involved in the study. Because of the complexities involved in this work, the researcher inevitably had to make use of diverse ways of classifying and collecting the data. For instance the questionnaire method of collecting data, even though it proved very useful to the research, was limited to the educated members of the population whose occupational demands were not very taxing at the time of the survey. The use of this method to any other group different from the one described above would have created undue delays making the research work protracted and probably unsuccessful. In addition, secondary sources of data, though to a great extent were very helpful, could not have been totally dependent on. This is because it was not found applicable when soliciting the people's perception about the activities of the various developmental institutions. Moreover, the level of improvement on the socio-economic activities of the people would not have been perceived by the researcher. Personal interviews and observations had to be employed. These methods, however, could also not be used in isolation because they were found to be unsuitable for some of the very busy officials of the developmental institutions who had vital information but were almost always unavailable.

Nevertheless, the nature of the topic under review demanded a detailed field survey that involved many statistical tools. This was necessary because whether we were concerned with a government owned developmental institution or a non-governmental organisation, a community or an individual, we needed to look at the ways in which the intervention packages were administered and delivered, the impact created by the institution delivering the packages and the responsiveness of the target communities and beneficiaries to the innovations brought. Consequent upon the above, every aspect of the improvement of under privileged people in the north was examined with impartiality. This chapter therefore reveals all that was done by the researcher to collect, collate, and organize the data presented in chapter four of this work. It explains how the ground was prepared and also gives a brief description of the area in which the research was carried out. The following are also highlighted:

sources of information consulted, data collection methods, how the data was collected and the problems and constraints faced during the research process.

**Table One: Ownership of livestock by adult females in the five districts of the northern region**

TYPE OF LIVESTOCK	PERCENTAGE OF ADULT FEMALES THAT OWN LIVESTOCK				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
Pig	00	00	00	00	00
Fowls	72	70	78	78	69
Goats	38	42	40	42	46
Sheep	35	40	38	38	42
Cow	01	01	04	02	04

The livestock considered for this research include: Cows, fowls, goats, pigs and sheep. These are the animals commonly reared in the north for each of the cases.

For each of the cases, the number of livestock owned range from 1 – 6.

Table 1 shows the percentage ownership of livestock by females in the five districts of the north.

According to the table, Koinadugu and Port Loko districts recorded the highest ownership of fowls by females 78% each while Tonkolili had the least percentage of females (69%). For goats, however Tonkolili had the highest percentage of 46 while Bombalili had the lowest percentage of 38. The case is almost similar for sheep where Tonkolili and Bombali had 35%, the lowest. Cows presented the least average of 2.6% of which females in Bombali had 1% ownership while those in Koinadugu and Tonkolili had 4% each. Compared to the other livestock with the exception of pigs which no female respondent owned, Cows had the lowest in all the districts.

Ownership of livestock by males is shown in table 2 is a bit different from that of the females in the rural areas of the region. For instance while no female respondents owned pigs, 1% of their male counterparts owned pigs as shown in the table. Again cows ranked the least of 2.2% while fowls ranked the highest of 64.8% on average. According to the table, 75% of the males interviewed in the rural areas of Port Loko District owned fowls ranking the highest among the other four districts in the region. For cows Koinadugu district with a ranking of 6% is three times more than Bombali and Tonkolili districts that ranked 2% each.

**Table Two: Ownership of Houses by Adult Females in the five districts of the Northern region**

NUMBER OF HOUSES	PERCENTAGE OF ADULT FEMALES IN THE DISTRICTS				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
1 Houses	01	01	01	01	01
2 Houses	00	01	01	01	00
3 Houses	00	00	00	00	00
>3 Houses	00	00	00	00	00
No Houses	99	98	98	98	99

**OWNERSHIP OF HOUSES.**

In table two the ownership of houses by adult females interviewed in the rural areas of the North is shown. In all the districts, owners of zero to greater than three houses for female respondents were recorded. On the whole, 98.4% of females respondents of the rural areas of the region on average had no house at all. Among those who had, non had three or more houses. Those who owned at least a house had an average of 1%. For two houses the average was 0.6%. In all the districts there are females that had at least one house. For the male respondents, as shown, 97% on average did not own at least a house and as in the case of the females, none of the males interviewed owned three houses and more. For ownership of one house the highest percentage of three was recorded for Kambia followed closely by Bombali and Port Loko districts with scores of 2% each. Koinadugu and Tonkolili had the least percentage of one each. For ownership of two houses only Port Loko district had a score of 2% while all the other four districts scoring 19% each.

**Table three: Number of dependants per family in the rural areas of the districts in the northern region**

Number of dependants per family	Percentage of people interviewed for each district				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
None	00	00	00	00	00
1 Only	01	02	03	01	04
2 Only	03	02	02	02	03
3 Only	03	05	05	01	02
4 Only	08	04	07	13	06
5 Only	25	29	21	22	20
>5	60	58	62	61	65

**NUMBER OF DEPENDANTS PER FAMILY.**

In table three the number of dependants per family in the rural areas for each of the districts of the North are shown. The categories targeted were zero to greater than five dependants for each of the families interviewed. According to the table, the more-than five dependents per family category had the highest percentages in all the five districts. The table range from 58% in Kambia district to 65% in Tonkolili district. The finding further show that all the people interviewed had dependants. This is true for both the female and male interviewees. 1% - 4% of the respondents had just 1 dependant. The range for two dependants only is 2-3%. That for three dependants is 1-5%. On the whole the percentage range increased with an increase in the number of dependants portraying a direct relationship.

**Table four: Age distribution of the population of rural areas in the districts of the northern region**

AGE IN YEARS	Percentage of people in the rural area of the districts				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
1-9yrs	32	35	28	27	30
10-19yrs	10	06	04	05	03
20-29yrs	03	01	04	05	02
40-49yrs	08	07	10	05	02
50 & over	45	48	52	55	60

**AGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION**

This indicator shown in table four gives us an indication of the labour force available in the rural areas of the five districts. The ages considered are 1year to over 50 years. For the youngest group of 1-9 years old, Kambia district had the highest rate of 35% followed by Bombali district which had 32%, Tonkolili district 30% while Port Loko and Koindadugu districts had 27% and 28% respectively. The older people (50 years and over) account for an average of 52% slightly over half the people interviewed. Of them Tonkolili had the highest rate of 60% followed by Port Loko (55%) while Kambia district had an average of 52%. Bombali and Kambia districts had the lowest percentages of 45 and 48 respectively.

**Table five: sources of water used for drinking in the rural areas of the districts**

Source of water	Percentage of people using the source in the districts					AVERAGE /PEOPLE
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT	
Pipe borne	00	00	00	00	00	00
Bore Hole	00	00	00	00	00	00
Protected well	20	22	25	26	28	24.2
Stream/River	30	29	50	49	42	40.0
Unprotected wells	50	49	25	25	30	35.8

**SOURCE OF DRINKING WATER**

This is very important as it relates to the health situation of the people in the rural areas of the North. Five sources of water for drinking were considered. These include pipe-borne water, Bore holes, protected wells, streams/rivers, and unprotected wells. As could be seen in most of the respondents

depended on streams/rivers and unprotected wells for their drinking water. None of them depended on pip-born water and Bore holes for drinking.

The situation is more serious in some districts than the others. For instance in Bombali district only 20% of the respondents were depend on protected wells while 30% and 50% (the highest) were recorded for streams and unprotected wells respectively. A similar situation, though slightly less, was also seen with Kambia district where steams accounted for 29% and unprotected wells 49% of the people interviewed. For Koinadugu and Port Loko districts the situation is different.

For the former, the percentage of those that depended on protected wells is the same as for those that have unprotected well as their source of drinking water (25% each). As could be seen in the table, the latter had a higher percentage of those who depended on protected wells (26%).

**Table six: Formal School attendance of respondents in the rural areas of the districts in the north**

School attendance levels	Percentage of people reaching the levels in the districts of the north				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
Never been to school	30	32	30	32	15
Lower Primary	55	52	58	53	58
Upper Primary	10	12	10	11	11
Junior Secondary School	02	01	00	01	07
Senior Secondary School	01	01	01	01	06
Tertiary	02	02	01	03	03

**FORMAL SCHOOL ATTENDANCE**

This is an important indicator in Community Economic Development. The categories considered range from Never been to school to tertiary level.

Most of the people interviewed (52% - 58%) left school at the lower primary level

Of this category Koinadugu and Tonkolili districts had the highest percentage of 58 each. Kambia and Port Loko had the least percentages of 52 and 53 respectively.

The never been to school category had the second highest percentages that range from 25- 32. Here Kambia had the highest percentage of 32 while Tonkolili had 15%. 10 to 12% of the respondents went up to the upper primary.

In each of the districts, 65 – 76% of the respondents went through Basic Education ie, lower primary to Junior Secondary School levels. All the districts had 1% each for the Senior Secondary level with the exception of Tonkolili district which had 6% for that level. The table also shows that some of the respondents attained tertiary education.

This accounted for 1% in Koindugu, 2% each in Bombali and Kambia districts and 3% in Port Loko and Tonkolili districts. On the whole, in all the districts, 70% - 85% of the people interviewed went to school.

**Table seven: Conditions of houses occupied by respondents in the rural areas of the district of the North**

Condition of the house	Percentage of people living in the house in the districts				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
Mud house with grass roof	49	48	46	48	47
Mud walls with zinc roof	30	31	32	30	31
Cement walls with grass roof	00	00	00	00	00
Cement walls with zinc roof	18	17	18	17	16
Mud walls with tapauline roof	03	05	04	05	06

Table seven: Shows the housing conditions of the respondents. The categories observed include houses made up of: Mud walls with grass roofs, mud wall with zinc roofs, cement walls with grass roofs, cement walls with zinc roofs and mud walls with tapauline roofs.

According to this table, nearly half (46- 49%) of the respondents lived in houses that are made up of mud walls and grass roofs. Those houses that are made up of mud walls with zinc roofs accounted for 30 – 32%. None of the houses of respondents observed was made up of cement walls and grass roofs. 6 – 18% of respondents lived in houses that were made up of cement walls with zinc roofs while 3 – 6% of the houses of respondents observed were made up of mud walls with tapauline roofs.

**Table eight: Means of acquiring land used for farming in the rural areas of the districts in the north**

Status of ownership	Percentage of farmers				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
Purchased	03	02	01	02	04
Rented	60	58	62	66	66
Borrowed	10	05	06	04	03
Family	18	25	28	26	22
Community owned	08	10	03	02	05

In table eight: he conditions under which farm land was acquired by respondents farmers is shown. As could be seen, only 1-4% of respondents in the five districts owned the land they cultivate. Most of the farmland, as indicated in the table was rented. The percentage of respondents far this category range from 58 – 66%. 3 – 10% of the respondents work in borrowed land, 18 – 26% was land that belonged to the entire family and 2 – 10% on that farm that belonged to the community as a whole.



Koinadugu had the least percentage of farmers who worked on their own land. Of this category, Kambia and Port Loko districts had 2% each, while Bombali and Tonkolili accounted for 3 and 4% respectively.

**Table nine: Size of farms used for rice productivity in the rural areas of the districts in the north.**

Average	Percentage of rice farmers in the districts				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
¼ Acre	49	58	60	30	28
½ Acre	30	22	25	30	34
1 Acres	11	10	14	29	20
2 Acres	07	06	01	10	09
3 Acres	03	04	00	05	08
>3 Acres	00	00	00	00	00

Table nine: shows the size of farms used by respondents for crop production in the five district of the north. Most of the respondents (28% in Tonkolili 60% in Koinadugu) had rice farms that were as small as a quarter of an acre. Infact 60 – 85% of the interviewees had rice farms that were less than 1 acre in all the five districts. Those that cultivate 1 acre of farm land ranged from 10 – 29% only in the various districts.

1-9% cultivated 2acres while 3 – 8% had rice farms that were up to 3 acres.

Toilet facilities available to respondents in the rural areas of the five districts in the Northern region.

**Table ten: Types of toilets used by respondents in the rural areas of the Northern Region by districts**

TOILET TYPE	PERCENTAGE OF PEOPLE THE VARIOUS TYPES IN THE DISTRICTS				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
Bush	70	68	69	70	70
Flush	00	00	00	00	00
Pit	22	23	25	24	23
River	08	09	06	06	07

Table ten: The toilet facilities under consideration include flush toilet, pit latrines, bush and rivers/streams. According to the table over, 70% of the respondents did not own toilet. They depended on either the bush or rivers.

None of the people interviewed used flush toilets. On average, 23.4% had pit latrines, 69.4% used the bush while 7.2% used river banks and rivers. In all the cases the trend in the various districts is not too different showing very narrow variations. For instance, for the bush category, the range is from 68 – 70%. For those who use rivers including river banks, Bombali and Kambia had the highest rate of 8% and 9% respectively, Koinadugu and Port Loko had 6% rating each while Tonkolili had 7%.

**Table eleven: meals uptake of respondents in the rural areas of the five districts in the Northern region.**

MEAL UPTAKE	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS OR RURAL AREA PER DISTRICT				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
1 daily	96	97	97	99	98
2 daily	04	03	03	01	02
3 daily	00	00	00	00	00
>3 daily	00	00	00	00	00

Table eleven: shows the meals uptake of respondents in the rural areas of the five districts in the Northern region.

The meals uptake here is expressed by the number of meals the interviewees are able to get daily, whether it is one meal per day, two meals or three meals daily. According to the findings almost all the people interviewed were able to get only one meal a day making an average of 97.4% of the respondents. Comparing the various districts, Port Loko and Tonkolili had the highest percentages of 99 and 98 respectively for this category. Kambia and Koinadugu districts had 97% each while Bombali district had the least percentage of 96. Furthermore the findings revealed a very low number (2.6%) of people interviewed getting two meals per day. For three meals per day the research showed that none of the people were able to get that in the rural areas of all the districts in the region.

**Table twelve: Degree of certainty of getting at least one meal per day**

DEGREE OF CERTAINTY OF GETTING ONE MEAL PER DAY	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS OF THE RURAL AREAS IN THE FIVE DISTRICTS				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
Very certain	15	20	19	22	22
Certain	58	56	53	55	54
Uncertain	22	17	19	15	15
Very un certain	05	07	09	08	09

Table 12 show the degree of certainty of getting at least one meal per day.

The researcher in this case wanted to know how sure the respondents were of getting one meal per day even for those that were able to get it. Of all the people interviewed only 15 – 22% were very sure of getting the one meal per day. Slightly above half of the respondents ie. 53 – 58% were certain, 15% – 22% were not sure they would be able to get one meal daily while 5 – 9% were very uncertain.

**Table thirteen: employment status**

EMPLOYMENT STATUS	PERCENTAGE OF RESPONDENTS OF RURAL AREAS IN THE VARIOUS DISTRICTS				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT

Not employed	20	16	18	20	15
Ministry employees	02	03	04	02	04
Company employees	02	00	02	04	05
NGO's employees	00	00	00	00	00
Self employed	76	81	76	74	76

Table thirteen: According to the table, only 5.6% of the respondents were employed by companies and ministries. None of the people interviewed was an employee of any Non-Governmental Organization.

**Table fourteen: Fuel source.**

FUEL SOURCE	PERCENTAGE IN RURAL AREAS OF THE VARIOUS DISTRICTS				
	BOMBALILI DISTRICT	KAMBIA DISTRICT	KOINADUGU DISTRICT	PORT LOKO DISTRICT	TONKOLILI DISTRICT
Charcoal	06	08	08	06	05
Gas	02	02	02	03	03
Kerosene	04	05	05	06	07
Wood	88	85	85	86	85

In table fourteen. The categories considered were charcoal, gas, kerosene and wood. The research revealed that 85 – 88% of respondents used wood for cooking with Bombali having 88%, Port Loko 86%, and Kambia, Koinadugu and Tonkolili 85% each. 5 – 8% of the respondents used charcoal, 2 – 3% gas and 4 – 7% kerosene.

### Summary and Conclusion

Many organizations have been operating in the northern region, some have been in Sierra Leone for a Very long time. All of these organizations have attractive packages that are in consonance with the Sustainable Development Goals of the United Nations.

Findings revealed that the organizations are not well coordinated consequent upon which their intervention packages overlap particularly of Agricultural, Education, Health and Sanitation and welfare including Human Rights. The Overlaps often result to other areas of standards of living left unaddressed especially SDG4.

Moreover, despite the seemingly attractive packages the organizations purport to bring to the people the latter are still poor. They are isolated and therefore do not access many public services. They cover considerable distances to access education and health facilities. They also live on unprotected water sources, poor housing and other deplorable conditions.

Of evidence also is the misappropriation of supplies meant for the poor people. What came out clearly is that the potential beneficiaries were not involved in decision making about their welfare.

In view of all the above, the developmental organizations operating in the northern region have not created the required impact on the status and living conditions of the rural communities in the areas.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

For the developmental organizations to be effective in their work and for their packages to produce the desired effect on the under privileged people of the north, moving them from abject poverty and subservience to improved socio-economic status and determination, the following is recommended:

- that all developmental organizations (CDOs) in the country must have clear short, medium and long term objectives that are measurable.
- that a coordinating unit should be set up by government to review the activities of developmental organizations in a view to prevent overlaps in intervention strategies.
- that every DO must be strictly monitored and evaluated biannually.
- that every Dos should be made to abide by the local content policy and create jobs for people in the rural areas.
- that the DOs should ensure that the beneficiaries take part in all the activities of project such as the identification of felt needs, the planning for intervention, the implementation and the evaluation of the project(s).
- that people living in rural areas be made to access as best as possible public services e.g. electricity, good roads, health and education services,
- That packages provided especially for agriculture and Disaster response are made available on time.
- that the beneficiaries are thoroughly sensitized on the use of the packages.

## References

1. Ahmed, M & COOMBS, P. H (1975) Education for Rural Development: Case Studies for Planers Praeger Publishers, Washington D.C
2. Alie, J. A.D. (1990) A Political Economy of Sierra Leone, London, Macmilian
3. Anderson, L. G and Settle, R. F. (1977) Benefit Cost Analysis: A Practical Guide, Lexington Books.
4. Andener, S., (1995) Women Making Money Go Round Credit Associations, Journal of Royal Anthropological Institute, Vol. 94, No. 2, pp. 201-229
5. Arndt, H. W (1985) Market Failure and underdevelopment: World Development
6. Atkins. W. S. (1989) International Rural Development Programme: the case of Sierra Leone, SLG/EEC; Freetown, Ministry of Development
7. Bagura, Y.; (1986) ‘‘Crisis in Sierra Leone and Nigeria: a comparative study’’, Journal of African Maexist, No. 9, pp. 71-86
8. Bagura, .Y.; (1984) ‘‘Underdevelopment and the Politics of Sierra Leone’s Trade Relations’’ African Development, Vol. 9, pp. 77-86
9. Barker, J., (1989) Rural Communities Under Stress: Peasant Farmers and the State in Africa, Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
10. Basfor, Nancy (ed) (1972) Measuring Development: The Role and Adequacy of Development Indicators. London: Frank Cass
11. Baver, Peter T. (1972), Dissent on Development: London: Weidenield & Nicolson
12. Bebbington, A. and Thiele, G. 1993. Non-Governmental Organizations and the State in Latin America: Rethinking Roles in Sustainable Agricultural Development. Overseas Development Institute. London Routledge.
13. Bell, C & Newby, H. (1972) Community Studies: An Introduction to the Sociology of Local Community, Praeger Publishers, New York
14. Benedict, W.J.H (1967) Community Work and Studies of Communities. Biddles Ltd. Survey,

- London
15. Beoku-Betts, J. A., (1989) Agricultural Development: Household and Gender Differentiation in Rural Sierra Leone, Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin.
  16. Berg, Robert J. & Whitaker, Jennifer S. (1986) Strategies for African Development. Berkeley: University of California Press
  17. Bernstein, H., (1992) “Poverty and the Poor” in H. Bernstein, B. Crow and H. Johnson (eds), Rural Livelihoods: Crises and Responses, The Open University: Oxford University Press.
  18. Bhalla, A.S. (ed.) (1975) Technology and Employment, (Collection of Case Studies) I.L.O. Publications, New York, USA
  19. Biddle, W.W and Biddle, L. J. (1965) The Community Development Process Principles, Ethics, Skills Analysis, Biddles Ltd Survey U.K
  20. Biddle, W. W (April, 1966) The Fuzziness of Definitions of Community Development in Community Development Journal
  21. Binns, J. A., (1977) Integrated Agricultural Development: A Case Study from Sierra Leone, unpublished discussion paper, University of Sussex, Brighton.
  22. Booth D. (EDS.) (1994) Rethinking Social Development: Theory research and practice, Harlow: Longman Scientific and Technical
  23. Borghese. E. (1987) Third World Development: The Role of Non – Governmental Organisations. OECD Observed Apr/May 1987
  24. Boserup. E. (1970) Women’s role in Economic Development, London: George Allen and Unwin.
  25. BRAGER, G. & SPECHT, H (1973) Community Organisation, Columl University press. New York.
  26. Bratton. M. (1989) The policies of government –NGO relations in Africa, World Development, 17/4, pp. 569-587
  27. BREMER, J et al (Eds) (1980) Community Participation and Learn – (Book 1: who? 1980 plus) AACE Publication Australia
  28. BURKE, S. (1994) People First London: ITDG Books
  29. Central Statistics Office (1991) Report on Labour Force Survey 1988 – 1989, Government of Sierra Leone, Freetown: CSO
  30. Central Statistics Office, (1987) Annual Statistics Digest, (1987 edition), Government of Sierra Leone, Freetown.
  31. Cernea, M.M, (ed.) (1985) Putting People First: Sociological Variables in Rural Development Projects, New York: Oxford University Press.
  32. CHAMBERS: R (1974) Rural Development: putting the I First: London, Longmans Press.
  33. Chambers, R. (1983) Rural Development: putting the Last First, Longman Scientific and Technical
  34. Chambers R. (1996) Rural Appraisal: Rapid, related Participatory. IDS University of S
  35. Chambers, R. (1997) Whose Reality Counts? Putting the First Last, Intermediate Technology Publications.
  36. Chenery, Hollis B. and Syrquin, Moshe (1975) Patterns of Development: London Oxford University Press.
  37. Childs, H. (1949) A Plan of Economic Development in Sierra Leone. Sierra Leone Government Printer.
  38. Clark J. 1991. Democratizing Development: The Role of voluntary Organisations

- London: Earthscan
39. Cohen. J. M and Uphoff, N.T. 1980 Participation's place in Rural Development: seeking Clarity through specificity in World Development Vol.8
40. Cohen J.M (1980) Integrated Rural Development: clearing the Underbush'' Sociologia Ruralis. Vol.20, No.3, pp195-212.
41. Cole John P (1987) Development and under development a profile of the third World London Routledge.
42. COLEMAN, J. (1975) Community Conflict Glencoe, Free London.
43. Conyers, D. and Hills, P. (1984) An International to Development Planning in the third World, New York: John Wiley and sons.
44. CRAWFORD, R.H & WARD, W.B (eds) (1974) Communication Stra For Rural Development: Proceed the Ithaa Cornell – CIAT Intern Symposium, Ithiaca New York.
45. CROUCH, B & CHAMALA, S. (Eds) (1980) Extention Education and Development John and Sons, Ne
46. Curley, T. (1987) Agriculture Extension Services of the Integrated Agriculture Development Projects and the Adaptive Crops Research and Extension Project: A Comparison. Unpublished paper at the University of Maryland.
47. Cutis, D. (1991) Beyond Government: Organisation for Common Benefit. London: Macmillan
48. Devereux, S. Pares H. and Best, J. (1990) Credit and savings for development (Oxford, Oxford)