



# **IMPACT ASSESSMENT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES IN THE GAMBIA (1816-1994)**

**By**

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### **Declaration**

I hereby declare that this Dissertation was entirely my handiwork and output. In carrying out this research, concerted efforts were made to formally acknowledge through the bibliography, all sources of data and information used.

Nonetheless, in case of unintentional omissions or incomplete referencing, I nevertheless, still express the acknowledgement of such sources. I accept full responsibilities for any shortcomings and errors of judgment, logic or fact in this work.

**Cajetan Ifeanyi Nnaocha**

.....  
**Signed**

### **Certification**

This is to certify that this Dissertation entitled “**Impact Assessment of British Colonial Economic Activities on The Gambia (1816- 1994)**” by Cajetan Ifeanyi Nnaocha with Matriculation No. 10659, was carried out under my supervision and guidance. Also, that the Dissertation has been approved for submission to St. Clements University, British West Indies, for the award of Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) in Colonial Economic History .

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### **Dedication**

This Dissertation is dedicated chiefly to the Almighty God who gave me the good health, strength and knowledge to carry out this challenging research. It is also dedicated to my highly beloved late parents; Pa Paul Ogbonnaya Nnaocha and Mrs. Ezinne Regina Adaku Nnaocha who denied themselves minimum comforts to see me through in my pursuit of education and to my late senior brother, Director, Charles Uzoma Nnaocha whose death caused an irreparable loss in our immediate family.

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This Dissertation marks the end of a rigorous and long academic pursuit, the realization of a dream and the beginning of a new and exciting career in academics, which will open up more opportunities for the expansion of the frontiers of knowledge. To God be the glory, Amen!

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### **Abstract**

It has been speculated that Colonialism has been a major set-back in the development of The Gambia and a critical determinant of national development performance in the country. As The Gambia totters towards a failed state, speculations are rife that the British and other European countries especially the French caused a great disarticulation to the country which continues to have major adverse and multiplier effects on The Gambia. It is in recognition of these speculations that the study attempted to assess empirically the actual impact of British Colonial Economic Activities on The GAMBIA's national development from 1816- 1994. To carry out this assessment study, extensive literature review was carried out which formed the background knowledge to the study as well as provided the necessary input to the discussion of the findings from the study.

In carrying out this study, a total of 300 respondents made up of men and women were drawn from the five geo -political zones in The Gambia; and administered with questionnaires, and their responses collated and analysed. The data generated from interviews and questionnaires were analyzed using quantitative and qualitative methods. Four hypotheses were tested in order to quantitatively analyze the findings from the study. The analysis confirmed all the hypotheses stated as well as the fact that Colonialism has played a critical role in Gambia's national development and that The Gambian society is yet to come to terms with the concomitant effects of colonialism.

A statistical technique of Measure of Central Tendency was used for hypothesis 1, 2, 3 and Pearson's Product- Moment Correlation Coefficient( $r$ ) for hypothesis 4, were used in analysing the collated data, and testing of the research hypothesis. Results revealed that British colonialism had unfavourable impacts on The Gambia's development and that the present state of the country's economy is largely attributable to colonial legacies. The findings of the research also strongly attest to the fact that the British benefitted more from the colonial enterprise and that if Gambians (Africans) at all benefitted from it, it was coincidental and or minor.

Finally the study concluded by alluding that, though, The Gambia had passed through the excruciating and painful experience of British colonial exploitation from 1816-1965, which that had robbed her of ancestral and God's given natural and human resources, it should see Colonialism as one of those challenges of development process and brace up to overcome it. This study therefore suggested that the country's economy should be diversified and mechanized, the citizens should be empowered to alleviate poverty through affordable education, government should avoid wasteful spending, government and government institutions should be transparent and accountable to the people, human capital development is an absolute necessity for The Gambia's economic development, among other recommendations. In addition, there is need to promote goal-oriented national projects that encourages technological capacity building and Research and Development (R&D). This, it is hoped will engender economic self-sustenance, growth and development.



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## **Chapter One**

### **1.0 Introduction**

#### **1.1 General Background and Conceptual Framework.**

What are the impacts of the British colonial economic activities on The Gambia's economic development? The British colonialism had positive impact in the country's economy. Would The Gambia's economic development have been different without colonialism? Would it have been richer today? The Gambia would have developed better but for the interlude of British colonialism which lasted for over a century and half. These are the questions and assumptions which have continued to resonate all through The Gambian society, social sciences and humanities for over a long time now. Yet traditional answers have tended to point to exploitation of economic resources and the assumption that the country would have developed better than it is now has become a recurring issue. However, these questions and assumptions do not have empirical findings (supportive data) to back up such purported claims.

Given this backdrop, this dissertation examines the impact assessment of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia (1865-1965). As a matter of fact, economic activities in the context of British economic colonialism refer to those British activities which aim at producing, processing, packaging, selling, distributing, purchasing and the utilization of agricultural products, resources, consumption of goods and services as well as revenue generation and exploitation of the colonised resources with a view to fulfilling colonial mandates, which were the enrichment and development of mother country. It could also be described as all activities that ensured continuous supply of raw materials and profit making from the colonies' mushrooming economies and industries. These economic activities for instance, cut across agriculture, mining, trade, infrastructure, export and import, transportation, communication etc.

Between 1816 (when Bathurst, the capital of Gambia was founded) and 1965 (when the country gained independence), the British were all over Gambia engaged in colonial economic enterprise and exploitation of the country's natural and human resources (as like in other parts of African countries where they also colonised) which resulted to the transfer of the colonized resources to

metropolitan countries' development. However, what has remained challenging is the extent to which these British economic activities cum colonialism have actually affected The Gambia in particular and Africa in general, positively or negatively as the case may be. This study therefore attempts to validate or otherwise these claims and assumptions. The Researcher's interest is also drawn to the obstacles to rapid economic development in an underdeveloped nation like The Gambia, which has continued to suffer perennial economic challenges and to submit possible economic strategies to solving them.

In the view of Marxists like Lenin there is a questionable consensus with other colonial administrators in believing that European colonization had very positive effects on African economic development. By 1926 a British academic was writing of an Economic Revolution in British West Africa unleashed by the colonial powers on backward Africa (McPhee, 1926). These divergent views between the leftists and the rightists continue to the present, with Lenin being replaced by Birnberg and Resnick (1975), Warren (1980), and Sender and Smith (1986), who argue that the empirical evidence is consistent with the Marxist view that imperialism has dragged Africa closer to capitalism, and wrecked havoc in their traditional economy, Bauer (1972) and Ferguson (2002, 2011). Remarkably, these scholars refer to too many of the same empirical outcomes though starting from a different set of presumptions and perspectives about the intentions of the colonizers. Perhaps even more interesting, they often have the same counter-factual in mind – which posits that without colonial intervention Africa would have stayed backward. Opposed to this eccentric consensus is a vast literature blaming colonization for all the ills of former colonies.

The impact of Colonialism on the continent of Africa is an issue that has raised a lot of controversy amongst historians in particular and scholars in general. While many a historian thinks that Colonialism was on balance; either a blessing or at worst not harmful for Africa and Africans, others, mainly Africanists and Marxist scholars maintain that it had virtually no benefit on the African continent. Contrary to the view held by some scholars that despite the exploitation and oppression, colonial governments did much for the benefit of Africans and the development of Africa. Rodney, (1981) opines that it is complete falsehood and postulates that “*Colonialism had only one hand – it was a one-armed bandit.*” In fact, he attributes poor economic

performances of industries, countries or even whole continents have been blamed upon a heritage of capitalist exploitation, slavery, and especially, Colonialism as the worst culprit.

Suffice it to say here that more than four decades after The Gambia's independence, the economic activities of the British towards the making of modern Gambia has not received a critical and comprehensive appraisal. With The Gambia still only tottering on its feet for economic survival, some argue that the present state of the country is attributable to the inimical roles the colonizers played in creating a niche for themselves. Others hold the view that it was the inherent inadequacies and leadership failure that have continued to hurt the country. For apologists of colonialism, the answer is simple. Whatever may have been the shortcomings of colonial rule, the overall effects were positive for The Gambia. Sure, the colonial powers exploited the country's natural resources but on argument, colonialism reshaped the political, economic and socio-cultural landscape of The Gambia in particular and Africa in general. Indeed, the colonial masters in several states such as The Gambia constructed ports, harbours, roads, bridges, hospitals, and institutions such as banks, police, army, built schools, introduced modern currency to replace commodity based money such as cowries, manila and exposed Africa to the capitalist world.

They further argue that The Gambia received new and more efficient forms of political, educational and economic organization. Warring communities were united into a modern nation-state with greater opportunity of survival in a competitive world than the numerous mini entities that existed before. That The Gambia is in economic turmoil today, defenders of imperialism say, is because it failed to take advantage of its inheritance from colonial rule. It was, they summarize the pre-existing inadequacies that made colonization necessary and the outcome of post-independence self-rule suggests that the withdrawal by the colonial powers was premature.

Critics of colonialism dismiss such arguments as racists. They maintain that colonial rule left Gambia economically marginalized, not adequately represented, discriminated against, half educated and caused divide and rule among them thereby incapacitating them. Not only were its labour and resources super-exploited, the nation's capacity to develop, and its native intelligence and creativity were undermined. (Rodney, 1981) contends that under colonialism, "the only thing that developed was dependency and underdevelopment." As far as Rodney and other critics were

concerned, the only positive development in colonialism was when it ended. Under imperial rule African economies and peoples were structured to be permanently dependent on Western nations. They were consigned the role of producers of primary products for processing in the West countries. In terms of trade, the West controlled international market, discriminated against African nations who were unable to earn enough to develop their economies. The point of interest in this work is, however, not to identify the impact of Colonialism on the political and socio-cultural life of the African people as a whole but rather to look at Colonialism's economic impact on a tiny country in mainland Africa, The Gambia, which was a colonial anomaly and an accidental creation of the British imperialist.

However, a more recent debate has raged on this taunting question for years but for the first time exciting research by economic historians in colonial archives is putting the debate on a sound empirical footing. Some of the findings are puzzling for critics of colonialism. There is evidence of improved economic development outcomes within the colonial period, for instance real wages increased under the formal sector in British West Africa (Frankema and Van Waaijenburg 2005). Moreover, the stature of military recruits in Ghana and British East Africa suggests that height increased during the colonial period (Moradi 2009, Austin, Baten and Moradi 2011), a sign of increasing prosperity. Was colonial rule as predatory as many claim? Should we take this as evidence that colonialism was good for development on the African continent? In the recent research of (Heldring and Robinson 2012), they evaluate these questions and argue that the answer is probably no. A few observations are in order as bellow:

- Most African countries saw steadily rising incomes over the colonial period relative to the base year 1885.

Africans were able to reap the benefits of the introduction of railways and mining technology. Furthermore, being colonised meant deeper integration into world trade. Yet, how much of this is due to colonialism and how much of it would have happened anyway, in the wake of trade expansion is unclear.

- The fact that we see living standards increase on average does not imply that everybody's living standards increased.

For instance, in Southern Africa, the immiserizing impact of land expropriation and the creation of 'dual economies' (Palmer and Parsons 1977) on incomes suggests that Africans experienced a severe deterioration in living standards as the consequence of colonialism. So one might observe formal sector wages going up while the vast majority of the population who were cut off from the formal sector, sees its purchasing power deteriorate.

- Evaluating the impact of colonialism involves not just looking at the raw numbers but considering the counterfactual. We have to think about what the trajectories of African societies would have been in the absence of colonialism.

For example, would the type of immiserisation of Africans in South Africa have happened if the Zulu state had taken over the Rand and developed the gold mining industry? If the Europeans brought technology and or institutions, absent colonialism, Africans could have adopted or brought the needed changes themselves. In addition, any of this data has to be seen in the context of existing trends and international comparisons. It seems plausible therefore that even without colonisation, missionaries would have expanded education and the World Health Organisation (WHO) would have brought medical technology, for instance.

- To understand the impact of colonialism on development one has to think carefully about what happened after colonialism as well.

To judge the impact of colonialism on development in Africa simply by looking at outcomes during the colonial period is a conceptual mistake. Post-independence Africa looked nothing like it would have done in the absence of colonialism (Heldring and Robinson 2012).

In light of the above, survey of relevant literature indicates on-going empirical discussions in recent years concerning the impact of colonialism on the economies of Africa appear limited and mixed. However, none of the previous empirical studies including (Heldring and Robinson 2012), which is closest focusing on the impact of colonialism by contending that, contrary to some recent commentaries highlighting the benefits of colonialism, it is this intense experience that has significantly retarded economic development across the continent. Relative to any plausible counterfactual, Africa is poorer today than it would have been, had colonialism not occurred.

Nevertheless, there appears to be implicit doubts on the background checks on subsisting traditional economies of Africa before the advent of colonialism. The impact of colonialism on Africa advanced by most researchers is usually doubtful. To understand the impact of colonialism on development, one has to perform a thorough x-ray of the state of African economy before the advent of colonial rule, during and after colonial rule in order to make unbiased and valid conclusions on this important subject. This is where this research work differs from others. It would amount to a conceptual mistake if one looks at only outcomes during the colonial interlude. It is argued that ‘research is not a routine task and the most empowering setting is that of academic freedom’ (Ozor, 2012 in Schubert 2009). Still there has not also been any empirical proof showing that The Gambia would have fared better or otherwise if she was absolved from colonial emasculation. Besides, empirical discussions concerning the correlation between Colonialism and development in Africa and background of possible interactions with other explanatory factors such as availability of resources/ economic systems, human resource etc, meanwhile, appear mixed and inconclusive.

It appears therefore there is a missing gap (link) in literature on a possible association between impact of colonialism and economic performance. In this context, it is also important to consider, apart from the question of whether a particular predictor or explanatory variable exerts significant influence on African development, the relative significant impact of these causal factors on the response variables. In addition, most recent studies focusing on determinants and hampering factors, employed one measure for research output at a time, without testing the effects of considering different variables simultaneously.

Colonialism as an ideology is neither a European phenomenon, nor is it limited to the Scramble and Partition for Africa. Suffice it to say here that it was not entirely European phenomenon since one can argue precisely that Ethiopia under Menelik II also participated in the episode when he extended the shores of his kingdom outside of Ethiopia. In the same vein, modern China is an Empire constructed over ages chiefly by the Han Chinese. The Ottomans built a vast empire in the late Middle Ages and Early Modern period which stretched from the Gates of Vienna to Iraq, Yemen and Tunisia in present day Africa. Again, the Russians colonized Siberia and large parts of Central Asia and in the 100 years before the conquest of the Americas, the Incas created a huge empire stretching from southern Colombia to Chile and north-western Argentina. Britain,



which was to be later, one of the master -minder and main actors of colonialism was colonized by the Angles, Danes, Jutes and Saxons and afterwards, the Normans.

This research will be restricted to European colonization in Africa and it focuses on The Gambia since this has been the crucible of much of the academic debate and where the literature spans the entire spectrum of answers. Therefore, this research will be devoted to formal colonization in The Gambia rather than more general 'interaction' with potential colonial powers or the type of 'informal empires' postulated to exist by Gallagher and Robinson (1953). In the context of Gambian development, the issue of the impact of the Atlantic Slave Trade and other trades on the development of Gambia, except to the form that it moulded the initial conditions at the time of colonization will be put aside. Equally, the question of whether the huge adverse health effects of colonialism were really just due to 'contact' (and thus would invariably have happened in the wake of simple trade expansion) or can be attributed to colonialism will be put aside. More broadly, this treatise will focus simply on the impact of colonialism on the colonized Gambian economy and whether The Gambia could have made more development progress if not the distractions of Colonialism. Also, this research will not investigate the overreaching impact of colonialism on the colonizing country, for instance, the British as in the case of The Gambia, even though this is an important topic. The major objective of this study is to ascertain if there was a break with The Gambia's economic past as a result of the British contact or touch in the economic activities of the people, or that, colonialism was a mere episode in the economic history of the Gambian people.

## **1.2 The Nature of Senegambia Economic Activities before the Colonial period**

### **1.2 .1 An Overview**

The Senegambia region comprises autonomous and semi-autonomous kingdoms and more decentralized societies similar to the political arrangement in other African regions. What has traditionally been called the Senegambia before colonization is a perfect example of the regional rather than state groupings. The Senegambia as a region encompassed Senegal, The Gambia, Guinea Bissau and parts of Mali, Mauritania, and Guinea.

It is established that the first written historical accounts of the Senegambia region were given by Arab traders and travellers during the pre-colonial era around the 9<sup>th</sup> to 11<sup>th</sup> centuries, a period that coincided with the advent of Islam in the region, thanks to the trans-Saharan trade that opened the leeway for such external contacts in the 5<sup>th</sup> century with the Western Sudan. During the pre-colonial period, what is today's Senegambia was part of the successive great West African empires: Ghana Mali and Songhai. There were also small kingdoms such as the Jolof empire which was run like the modern confederate state, consisting of Walor, Cayor, Baol, the Serere Sine and Saloum, the Tukolor kingdom of Tekrur, the Mandinka kingdom of Kaabu, and the much later Fulladu Kingdom of 1870 (Diop, 2013).

In the 16<sup>th</sup> century, the Portuguese were the first Europeans to circumnavigate the African continent on their way to Asia and thus came into contact with the native Africans on the shores of the Atlantic Ocean. From the 17<sup>th</sup> to the 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, there were ceaseless Franco-British rivalries in the West African region. As Senegal became a French colony in 1854 under the aegis of General Louis Faidherbe, The Gambia was to become a British Crown colony in 1888; following an agreement between France and Great Britain. Both The Gambia and Senegal Rivers were used by the European colonial powers as entryways to the West African hinterland, primarily for colonization, exploitation, and trade purposes. Additionally, since both Senegal and The Gambia are geographically well positioned, they were used as shipping points to the Americas during the trans-Atlantic slave trade. Thus, we have famous slaving trading posts such as Goree Island (off the coast of Dakar) and Fort James Island on the north bank of The Gambian River.

In order to have a better understanding of the latter's economy of the would-be Gambia, it is germane to have a run-down of the nature of the pre-colonial economic activities of the northern Senegambia region, out of which The Gambia evolved. The northern part of Senegambia refers to the region bounded on the north by Senegal River and on the south by The Gambia. In this Sahel-Sudanese area, the Senegal and Gambia valleys form a sort of vast oases surrounded by the western lowlands by the West African corridor (Barry, 1998).

### **1.3 Nature of the Traditional Economic activities of the Senegambia Region**

Traditional Economy is a system where the allocation of available resources is made on the basis of inheritance. As a deep-rooted economic theory with well-built social set-up, traditional economy generally makes use of prehistoric instruments and techniques. Also its products are consumed locally and exchanged by barter and later, by means of commodity money such as cowries, manila, salt etc. From time immemorial, conventional and age-old human activities like agriculture, manufacturing (traditional) and trade have remained the focal point of interest for traditional economy. In fact, traditional economy can be referred to as the economy of the ingenious population of the world like most African and Asian countries before the outbreak of colonialism. As the World Bank estimates, this type of economy is still prevalent among 400 million indigenous people across the world (World Bank Report, 2012). So, it is not at all an extinct economic concept in present times. The concept of traditional economy is therefore all about popular autonomy, where productions take place as per the demand generated. Hence, nascent human occupations like animal grazing, gathering, hunting and cultivation are also the basis of this economy. However, the surplus food production is not consumed but used for commercial activities.

#### **1.3.1 Agriculture production and production systems**

Agriculture was the bedrock of the Senegambia region's traditional economy. It is a transition zone between savannah and forest habitats. Agriculture is a primary economic activity in the region, which forms the livelihood of peoples and an essential factor for the emergence of states and empires as the case everywhere in the world. In the words of Evans – Pritchard, “the initial evolution that transformed the human economy gave man control over their own food supply, folks began to plant, grow and enhance by selection of herbs, roots and trees.” This economic development has been described as “Neolithic Revolution.” As in modern times, the pre-colonial Senegambia, a key factor in the choice of solution was the availability of favourable climate, free of epidemics, fertile land suitable for cultivation and grazing, coastal environment attractive for fishing and safety, such as absence of wars and other natural and supernatural barriers. When these factors are lacking, folks resort to migration in search of comfortable living areas. Given these phenomena, the reasons for crop rotation planting in

agriculture, grazing and roaming nomadism in fisheries can be understood. In other words, the ecological factors play a role in humans' settlement.

The way to practice agriculture and the crops grown were determined by the nature of the soil and terrain of the region. Shifting cultivation and crop rotation characterizes the agricultural practices in pre-colonial Senegambia, due to mainly land tenure practice and lack of knowledge of highly mechanized agriculture. There are natural issues such as erosion, drought, pests and diseases. These issues are addressed at the local level, depending on the various communities and the nature of such disaster. For example, setting traps to catch birds and vermin on farms and canals were also dug to drain the water to check floods. Wetting of farms during the drought had been an ancient agricultural practice among Senegambians. All these practices have not been necessarily influenced by conservation as seen by some Western observers, but the most efficient and proper maintenance of soil fertility and evaluation of the economic situation of the period.

In the pre-colonial Senegambia, farmers relied hugely on local instruments such as the hoe, machete, and sickles. In the south of The Gambia for instance, rice is the main staple food, whereas to the north and north-east, pearl millet and sorghum are the main staples, except in areas near rivers where fishing and other river borne activities are prevalent. According to (Tosh, 1980) agriculture in the savannah zone requires more and better organized labour, because of the shorter cultivation season and steeper labour peaks. Consequently, it is more common for farm operations to be shared between men and women: for example, men prepare the land, women sow and weed, and all take part in the harvest. In certain areas in Mali no gendered division in tasks exist at all (Toulmin 1992, Lewis 1981). But in the forest zone, for example further south in Sierra Leone, there is more gender segregation. It is easier for men to organize a large labour force than it is for women because they have more power (Johnny et al. 1981). Hence, they concentrate on upland farming where labour peaks can only be mitigated by large labour groups, while lowland rice farming and vegetable gardening, regions where women dominate, have a more of a constant labour requirement.

Originally, the slash-and-burn method of agriculture was predominant in sparsely populated Senegambia region. Besides, the growth of indigenous crops such as sorghum, millet, rice, and Bambara groundnut (as opposed to the American groundnut grown today), potatoes, fruits,

vegetables and leaves of various kinds. From the 8th through the 18th century, several crops of Asian origin, and later on, American crops, such as maize and groundnut were introduced and quickly assimilated into local food production and consumption systems in West Africa. The American groundnut was introduced by Portuguese agencies in the sixteenth century.

### **1.3.2 Rice as a cash crop**

West Africa is believed to be one centre of indigenous rice species, and rice was grown on the annually flooded banks of The Gambia and Senegal Rivers long before Europeans arrived. As rice production is rather labour intensive, it presupposed some degree of political stability and labour supply, and it is thus no coincidence that the Wuli Empire (now in modern Gambia Upper River Region) was centred in an area well fitted for rice production. Rice provided a high yielding and nutritional food staple and a trade commodity, while the empire could provide political stability and a labour force of slaves. Long before the arrival of the Europeans, rice was traded throughout the Western Sudan. With the emergence of the transatlantic slave trade, demand for rice and other cereals increased. These products were sold to slave raiders and traders, slaves and European merchants and slave ship crews. This made the coast-near Gambia and Senegal a more important production site, boosting the demand for slaves for rice production locally. By 1800, the agricultural labour force was almost exclusively composed of slaves, and the slave population of The Gambia is estimated to have been over 50%.

### **1.3.3 Peanuts and slavery**

Peanuts, popularly known as groundnut was an American produce but was introduced to West Africa by the Portuguese in the 16th century, and spread slowly as a fairly drought resistant diet supplement. Demand for kitchen oil and industrial oils and fats (for lubricants and production of soap and candles) was booming in the early 19th century Europe and America, making it necessary to import groundnut and palm oil from the tropics. Groundnut overseas trade was introduced by the British in the 1820's, and found immediate response amongst African growers, including the indigenous building up of a system of middle men and a transport system. This slowly led to a commercialisation of the agricultural sector in the Senegambia region during the 19th century. The groundnut trade it could be noted replaced the slave trade after 1807.

#### **1.3.4 Livestock-raising**

The Senegambia plains were suitable particularly for livestock-raising. Particularly, having been located in the semi -arid (savannah) zone of West Africa, where there are dense grasses suitable for animal grazing. The Fula ethnic group of the Senegambia valley were mainly pastoralists (animal rearers). Livestock such as fowls, goats, sheep, cattle, ram, horses, donkeys, camels were reared and also used as beasts of burden. These animals, especially donkeys, horses and camels replaced human portage. Horse and camels were used during the Trans -Saharan Trade. Although, during this period the keeping of livestock was essential to rural households. Involvement in livestock and degree of sedentary life varied among the different ethnic groups of the Senegambia region. Outside the various empires, farmers were fairly mobile, responding to attacks from slave raiders, ravaging warlords and shifting ecological circumstances. A general low population density implied that free land resources always were available. There was, on the other hand, a chronic labour shortage.

#### **1.3.5 Land**

Land was a critical issue in the traditional economy of the Senegambia region. Communal ownership of land was the rule rather than the exception. Land was regarded as communal property of the community which include the living, the dead and generations yet unborn. For this reason, land was regarded as an asset (wealth) which should not be parted with or let out; otherwise one would incur the wrath of the dead (ancestors). It was not individually owned, nor can land be sold by one individual to another but was a communal possession. The chief or leader was the custodian of the land who has the responsibility to designate portions for individual use. When no longer used, or if the land is abused, it reverts to the leader for redistribution. Every full male member of the community has an inalienable right to a reasonable share according to his entitlements. This right is as secure as a person's membership in the community. It is thus a vested right. In a more profound sense not even the community as a whole owns the land, it belongs to the ancestors. Their graves in the soil of that very land prove their ownership and guarantee the right of their descendants to that land. Blood links human beings to the soil in an intimate identification. Bakare (1994) refers to the fact that when a person is born the umbilical cord is buried in the soil, establishing a kind of existential bond between

person and land. Land cannot be owned it belongs to the people; a free gift of the Creator, just as life itself is a free gift.

In the traditional Senegambia economy, like other traditional economies of Africa there was what was called 'kola tenancy' - a system of leasing out land on a token gift of kola nut to allow a person to farm on a piece of land but not to own it. In other words, the person enjoys usufructuary rights- a right to use a particular piece of land for at least one farming season before the land goes back to the rightful owner. The land was only sub-leased and to be farmed provided the gift of kola to the actual owners or distributor is made.

### **1.3.6 Labour organisation**

Labour organisation is not only regulated by practical agronomic factors, but also by economic and socio-cultural conditions (Guyer 1980). Guyer (1984) argues that the different working rhythms of men and women emerge from their institutionalised means for mobilising labour, and that the resulting differences in cropping systems are a reflection of social power, rather than the result of innate gender difference. This also helps explain the organisation of labour and crops in the Senegambia region. According to Webb (1992), the Mandinka rice farming system in Senegambia is gendered, although the term describes the prevailing ecology as much as it does the Mandinka ethnic group itself. Swamp rice cultivation is less common in the former Mandinka Wuli kingdom in Eastern Gambia, and yet the organisation of labour in farming there was gendered, which suggests its labour organisation has an ethnic origin. In Wuli, men used to grow millet, sorghum, groundnuts and beans, and women grew *findo* (hungry rice), chickpeas, groundnuts and vegetables in the same fields (Weil 1984). In the few available depressions, women grew rice. According to Weil (1984), this gender divide reflects the labour requirements of the various crops: vegetables and rice require daily or at least regular care and are thus women's responsibility. However, groundnut, a male crop, also requires regular care. So, apart from labour requirements, a second factor determining a gender-based labour division is whether a crop is meant for subsistence or for sale. It seems to be a general rule that men take the responsibility for the cash crops (i.e. groundnut), while women have the responsibility for the subsistence crops (Howard 2003). Whereas in The Gambia rice is a staple food grown by women, in Mali and Sierra Leone for instance, men are involved in rice cultivation in various



degrees, depending on the importance of rice as a cash crop (Johnny et al. 1981; Nyanteng et al. 1986; Richards 1986). In addition, Guyer (1984) suggests that differences in labour organisation are also related to the longevity of individual crops: indigenous staples are characterised by complex and ritualised labour.

### **1.3.7 Fishing**

Fishing is an important economic activity in the former Senegambia region. Its activities consist of courses both inland and coastal water and was of wonderful economic value to the pre-colonial Senegambians. The fish was one of the most critical items of trade. Fish of numerous types are either sun dried or smoked to preserve them for long or short market. Fresh fish had been said to be marketed primarily in the areas of short distance, due to the perishable nature and the difficulty of the storage facility. Commercial fishing is characterized by craft and skills, and by boat, canoe, paddle, float, and construction of the network along with the coast lines. Fishing in the pre-colonial Senegambia generated the highest number of professional migrants who have to leave their homes to improve their prospects elsewhere. Fish migration rate was really prominent among the Serere, Jukun, Jola, Fula etc. In pre-colonial times to date, the Fula are said to have been the most migratory, celebrities and experts, both inland and offshore fisheries not only in the Senegambia region but also in West Africa. In the pre-colonial period fishing was said to be practised with rudimentary techniques and tools such as raffia materials, wood and pasture with very limited notice scope. In the early 18<sup>th</sup> fishing gear and improved techniques, such as clap nets, cast nets, etc. and thus, fishing economy was at this stage of development at the eve of the European colonialism.

### **1.3.8 Hunting**

Hunting can be considered as one of the leading economic activities in the pre-colonial Senegambia region. Prey hunting supplied bush meats of various kinds such grass cutters, antelopes, rabbit, squirrel, etc which met their basic food requirements. It was quite essential because many men and women depend on it for their economic survival in their stage of economic development. Nonetheless, over time, hunting became an essential complement to agriculture. Hunting in Senegambia region during this period was of several levels. On the lower

level, hunting included setting local traps for birds, small animals like rats, mice, squirrels, rabbits, lawn mowers, gators, etc. Yet another level is the hunting of large animals such as crocodiles, elephants, wild pigs, antelopes, etc. Although, these big wild animals have gone into extinction as result of desertification, as some can only be found in animal Zoo nowadays. It is the belief in most local communities in Africa that hunting, specifically at higher level requires special skills which involve the use of charms and supernatural possession powers. Hunting was a dependable source of skin from meat and animal material, shoe and drum making. In addition to its economic value, was a means by which the foot paths and settlements had been developed just before the advent of the European way of road construction and settlement in the cities. In the pre-colonial Senegambia society, hunters served as security by protecting important individuals from attacks by enemies or wild animals. Hunters also supply animals and their special pieces that have medicinal value among indigenous medicine practitioners. Complementary to the game was the harvest. Collection of the variety of berries was an economic enterprise for some folks, particularly women in pre-colonial Senegambia. Fruits and spices are critical for food and herbal medicine; as a result, demand has been and remains elevated until the advent of colonialism.

### **1.3.9 Crafts**

A discussion on the development of handicrafts among the pre-colonial Senegambia peoples requires a description of their arts and industries in the distinct levels. The major arts and crafts included the extraction of salt, soap production, metal work, wood and weaving activities. This massive development reminds us how far technology has advanced in indigenous Senegambia in pre-colonial period. It is evident that iron technology had developed considerably in the pre-colonial Senegambia. It is widely believed that crafts revolutionized manufacturing in the traditional system of the Senegambia

### **1.3.10 Salt Production**

The production of salt was one of the mineral extractions in the traditional economy of the Senegambia. In pre-colonial Senegambia, the production of salt in huge quantities, of course, was limited to coastal areas due to the availability of raw materials like salt water. The

production method was the evaporation of sea water either by boiling or sunbathing. Among the coastal dwellers in Senegambia the process starts with seawater collected in a significant pot of baked clay until it dries, leaving the white and solid salt at the bottom. This was collected, with a small basket to filter dirt. What remained was the salt, which could be largely free of impurities or debris. This industrial activity is the fastest growing trade between the inhabitants of the coast and inland in the pre-colonial Senegambia. Salt had important economic value in the Senegambia region. It was used in seasoning food, had medicinal value; especially in the treatment of stomach ache and skin rashes such as eczema and ringworms. Traditionally, it constituted an important item during marriage ceremonies. Before the advent of colonialism, grains of salt were used as commodity money.

#### **1.3.11 Soap Making**

In close connection with this pre-colonial economic enterprise was the production of soap. The main raw materials for the production of soap were palm oil, ashes of banana tree and other local materials which were mixed and grinded. Then the mixture was boiled and poured into a soap molder where it is allowed to dry and solidify, ready for use. In pre-colonial Senegambia, for example, various types of soap were produced. In addition to domestic and commercial applications, the soap also had economic value as they served as drugs for the treatment of skin related diseases like craw-craw. The black soap among the Senegambia peoples, for example, is still utilized to date for these purposes. Though, the advent of modern, medicated and perfumed soaps has largely reduced the demand and production of local soap.

#### **1.3.12 Metal Works**

One of the essential aspects of pre-colonial Senegambia crafts that deserve attention in this study is metal works. A careful study of the history of the Senegambia shows that, of all trades, iron works was critical to the economic and political development in the pre-colonial period. The Iron Age was the period in which the Senegambia began to actively dominate and control their environments. The discovery of iron led to the manufacture of iron tools such as hoes, knives, swords, spears, local guns, axes, and the highest productivity impact on handicrafts, agriculture,

fisheries and hunting which transformed the traditional society. Apart from the economic revolution caused by the smelting of iron, it also equipped most of the traditional leaders to wield more powers; to even become semi-divine. The possession of iron weapons influenced the military buildup and the subjugation of weaker communities by strong ones, as exemplified in the build –up to the Kaabu and Fulladu empires. In the traditional Senegambia society, the blacksmiths were highly respected as he was assumed to possess ‘supernatural powers’. He engaged in local circumcision and produced ornaments like jewelries, bangles, chains, ear-rings etc. Equally, the blacksmith produced images which were worshipped as representatives of the Supreme Being, God. Hence, the traditional Senegambia society was idol worshippers.

### **1.3.13 Wood Work**

Wood work or carving was an important economic activity in the pre-colonial period of the Senegambia region. Most African sculptures were historically in wood and other animate materials that have not survived from earlier than, at most, a few centuries ago; older pottery figures can be found from a number of areas in the Senegambia. Masks are important elements in the art of many peoples, along with human figures, often highly stylized. There is a vast variety of styles, often varying within the same context of origin depending on the use of the object, but wide regional trends are apparent; sculpture is most common among "groups of settled cultivators in the areas drained by the Niger and Congo rivers" in West Africa. Direct images of deities are relatively infrequent, but masks in particular are or were often made for religious ceremonies; today many are made for tourists as "airport art".

Later West African cultures developed bronze casting for reliefs, like the famous Benin Bronzes, to decorate palaces and for very fine naturalistic royal heads from around the Yoruba town of Ife, in terracotta as well as metal, from the 12th–14th centuries. Akan gold weights are a form of small metal sculptures produced over the period 1400–1900; some apparently represent proverbs, contributing a narrative element rare in African sculpture; and royal regalia included impressive gold sculptured elements. Many West African figures are used in religious rituals and are often coated with materials placed on them for ceremonial offerings. The Mande-speaking peoples of the Senegambia region made pieces from wood with broad, flat surfaces and arms and legs shaped like cylinders.

### **1.3.14 Transportation**

Transportation was an important economic activity in the Senegambia region during the pre-colonial period. The region fashioned its own means of transportation peculiar to the environment. Being in the Sahel region or the semi- arid zone, they had domestic animals such as camels, horses, donkeys to help address the growing need of moving people, goods and services over land. At the same time, a number of innovations, such as the construction of rafts and canoes capable of providing water-based transportation services. Thus, the transport infrastructure in the Senegambia region at the time consisted largely, but not exclusively, of tracks for pedestrian and animal traffic, and naturally navigable waterways. For instance, the northern region of Cayor and Walor (where camels brought down from Mauritania provided comparatively cheap means of transportation to the local ports) and the banks of river Gambia and Saloum rivers, where efficient river transportation had existed for centuries (Curtin, etal 1978).

Some evidence suggests that a number of the Senegambia empires and city-states of the region had developed a system of well-aligned roads and streets, as opposed to meandering footpaths and bush paths claimed to be subsisting before the coming of colonialism into the region. There were well-established Caravan Routes across the desert from the Senegambia to Mauritania and to the rest of North Africa. Trade and communication links that developed with the Senegambia and her neighbours were as a result accessible means of transportation. This extensive series of roads, footpaths and waterways later served to facilitate the transportation of slaves during the infamous trans-Atlantic slave trade era. The emphasis on road construction—albeit on a small scale and using very rudimentary tools commensurate with that era—that took place before any significant number of Europeans had arrived Africa, was abruptly terminated during the colonial era.

### **1.3.15 Local Currency**

Local Currency has played a central role in man's economics history for a period that dated back to ancient time. Currency has evolved from very rudimentary (not fully develop) object since

ancient time and the Senegambia region has always been part of the history. According to some anthropologist, currency in Africa could be seen without reasonable doubt to have been well developed. This is because the people of Africa saw that it was difficult to have an effective and efficient distribution system without currency. It was sort of growth in the economic system in the pre-colonial period that gave birth to currency from barter. . In Africa like in other ancient societies, the earliest form of exchange was trade by barter. A major type of this barter in Africa was what D J. Fage described as ‘silent trade or dumb trade’. During the pre-colonial economy in the Senegambia, barter was the only means of exchange in the pre-colonial period. Barter is a means of exchange of goods for other goods. However, barter as system was not dominant as some anthropologists would assume, but some assumed that trade by barter predominated the economy of Africa; that production for the needs of people was subsistence. However, research has shown that trade by barter was used for short distance trade, which took place within the neighbourhood communities while long distance trade was conducted using a particular medium of exchange. Though trade predates currency, both had complemented each other as economic forces in man's history

According to Fage, this trade existed between Senegambia merchants and their southern neighbours. In spite of the predominance of barter in ancient Africa, the Egyptians for example, used metal ring as money some 2500 BC. The trend in the use of local currency continued alongside barter to the eve of colonialism. At the beginning of colonialism, barter had evolved to a higher stage which was called commodity currency. This involved items which because of their quality, enjoyed special advantages as stores of value, media of exchange or units of account. They included valuable commodities which were bought and sold in major trading centres in West Africa.

The type of currencies used in ancient Africa included: slaves, commodity currency (examples of commodities that have been used as mediums of exchange include gold, silver, copper), salt, manilas, cowries shell etc. These items were sometimes used in a metric of perceived value in conjunction to one another, in various commodity valuation or price system economies.

### **1.3. 16 Trade**

If agriculture was the life wire of the Senegambia region, then trade was a second close and was therefore an important economic activity in the pre-colonial Gambia. A cursory look at the map of West Africa reveals that the region was criss-crossed by a remarkable net -works of trade routes with markets dotted along them. Attempts have been made to explain the origin of trade and market in the traditional economy of West Africa. In this respect, (Ukwu, etal, 1971) suggested that markets arose as a result of the traditional observance of a rest day. The theory opines that the indigenous peoples of the Senegambia region have a rest day on which they do not go to farm. In this regard, some who do not have their necessary food items for the day, collected from others through trade by barter organised at the public square. However, this theory has been challenged by other scholars. What appear certain to them is that trade or marketing arose as a result of the complementarities of needs between groups endowed with different resources.

Two types of trade have been identified in the pre-colonial economy of the Senegambia – the local or short distance trade and the regional or long distance trade. These two types of trade were not exclusive of each other but were complementary. Local trade refers to transactions which took place within an area of production covering a distance which could be covered in one day on foot or by the use of a donkey, while still allowing for time to exchange goods and return home the same day. Beyond this radius, it was necessary to make arrangements for over-night stops. It was mainly dominated by women and dealt chiefly on food items and the mode of exchange was barter. Trading was done in a market place which was not more than a place where people sold and bought goods. It was also a place of traditional gossips, relaxation and local political bickering. Most communities have market days which has circles ranging from 4 to 6, 7 and 8 days. Market rings or circles could be identified throughout the region.

On the other, long distance trade differed from local trade in many important ways. In the first place it demanded a widely accepted medium of exchange as it involved people from different regions and sometimes speaking different languages. The medium of exchange has been discussed in the early part of this study. Secondly, long distance trade demanded conscious organisation, as the traders needed to amass trade goods in sufficient quantities to take on any

journey. They have to make prior arrangement for their safety, porters, accommodation, capital etc. These traders sometimes passed through hostile communities and so adopted various measures to minimize risks. There were for example diplomatic marriages, blood covenants, homage to kings in order to offer protection, employment of touts when necessary to protect them along the way. Most importantly, long distance traders were generally professionals, among which were the Diula traders; they were high income group and traded on light goods. The general direction of long distance trade was South to North or North to South mainly because the major markets were located in the transition routes within different ecological routes (Hopkins, 1973).

### **1.3.17 Slaves**

Slaves were important elements in the pre-colonial economy of the Senegambia region. Slaves were needed in pre-colonial period to provide labour in agriculture, trade and industry. Some slaves were employed in the administrative sectors of the state, kingdom or empire. Other slaves served in the military; some performed domestic chores, a few others were sacrificed and some satisfied the personal needs of individuals. Slave labour was used to grow foodstuffs in the forest and the savannah regions of the Senegambia region as well as along the coast and the desert fringes. They were also used in collecting food plants like shea butter, kola nuts, oil palm and coco nuts etc. Slaves were also employed in trade as porters, merchants or trading agents. Trusted slaves conducted trade on behalf of their masters. They traded for individuals as well as for the state. Some slaves were put in charge of the trade routes and asked to collect tolls.

They were recruited into the military divisions of traditional pre-colonial political society. Some served as soldiers for warfare; others performed menial jobs on the battlefield; some were personal bodyguards of kings and chiefs; trusted slaves held command positions in battle. In the household division of the palaces, slaves served in the music department as drummers, horn blowers, praise singers or griots in local parlance etc. In the religious department they were the caretakers of the royal mausoleum, the soul washers, etc. In the diplomatic corps they were the sword bearers, heralds, assistant linguists.



Equally male and female slaves provided domestic chores in the palaces, shrines and individual households in the form of cooking, washing, fetching water and firewood, sweeping, cleaning the compound. Some slaves were sacrificed in accordance with traditional rites, beliefs and practices during festivals, ceremonial occasions, religious observances and the death of important personalities. During the pre-colonial period, some people acquired slaves for personal reasons. These included prestige and power. The more slaves one had, reflected one's prestige, power and status in African traditional society.

Pawning was one of the ways by which one could become a slave .It was basically the act of offering a person as security for money borrowed. The pawn became a pledge, mortgage or security for what a person owed. In pre-colonial Africa, it mainly took the form of pawning human beings to secure debt. Pawns served for debts they either personally contracted or, more often, for the indebtedness of senior members of their corporate kinship groups (Adu- Boahen, 2013). The practice was not profit-oriented in the Senegambia society, but a “brother’s keeper” system in which the wealthy in a community assisted close neighbours caught up in unexpected adversity and needed urgent financial bailout. However, pawning later had oppressive features with the passage of time, partly as an organic process, but mainly due to the impact of the emergence and growth of the Atlantic trading system. The pawn worked for the creditor who fed and clothed him/her until the debt was paid. Pawning was not slavery, but pawns who were not redeemed found themselves in slavery hood.

Slaves in pre-colonial Africa enjoyed certain rights and privileges. They had the right to be fed, clothed, housed and granted the privileges of bearing their own children while staying with their masters. They had the right to marry. They could marry among themselves or marry slaves from distant neighbours. Among the Wolof and the Serer of Senegambia, the head of the lineage was obliged not only to feed and clothe his slaves but also to find spouses for his slaves.

### **1.3.18 Mining**

Traditional mining was an important economic activity in the pre-colonial period of the Senegambia region. Since the beginning of civilization, native people of the region have used stones of various kinds like chippings, black and red stones, gravels, sands, ore, salt, ceramics,

solid minerals like gold, diamond, bauxite, and, later, metals found on or close to the earth's surface in their natural environment before the coming of colonialism. . The later was used to make early agricultural such tools such as hoes, cutlasses and weapons for wars of expansion It involves the use of simple manual tools such as shovels, pickaxes, hammers, chisels pans etc to extract solid natural resources from the earth's surface and underground environments. Until the early 1900s, traditional mining was widely used throughout Africa. It is still a used mining method in some modern countries of Africa. In traditional surface and underground mining, diggers, hammers and chisels with pickaxes and shovels ware were used. Mine carts were used to take out ore and other materials in the process of mining. Pans were used for placer mining operations, such as gold panning.

### **1.3.19 Communalism, not Capitalism**

Overall, the pre-colonial economy of the Senegambia was communal in nature and not the exploitative tendencies of European capitalism. Communalism refers to the process of forming collective communities, where property, assets, lands, and other resources are owned by the community and not individuals. Communalism is sometimes said to put the interests of the community above the interests of the individual, but this is usually only done on the principle that the community exists for the benefit of the individuals who participate in it, so the best way to serve the interests of the individual is through the interests of the community.

Communalism in Africa in general and the Senegambia in particular was created on the concept of community luxury. In the African culture, the community was a genuine value. It is not a social responsibility, it is their strength and what binds them together. It is premised on the belief that 'I am because we are' and also that, what is mine perishes and what is ours abides.

## **1.4 Historical Background of The Gambia and the establishment of the European Contact**

### **1.4.1 Locating The Gambia**

The Gambia is a relatively small country in size and population on the mainland West Africa and Africa respectively. It is a narrow strip of land of about 15 miles wide and stretching about 300 miles inland. It has an area of about 11,300 sq. km (4,361sq mls), less than half the size of Maryland, the United States. The country is bounded by the North, East and South by Senegal and by the West, by the Atlantic Ocean and situated within a number of larger world regions. It is an African country, and part of 'Black' or sub- Saharan Africa, with a population of about 1.8 million people (2009 Est.)

The Republic of The Gambia is located in West Africa with a Latitude and Longitude of 13°28'N and 16°34'W respectively. The capital city of Banjul was founded in 1816 and is geographically located at a Latitude and Longitude of 13°28'N and 16°36'W. Serrekunda is the largest city of The Gambia, having a Latitude of 13°28'N and a Longitude of 16°39'W. Due to its geographic location, the climate of Gambia is tropical.

### **1.4.2 Government**

The 1970 constitution, which divided the government into independent executive, legislative, and judicial branches, was suspended after the 1994 military coup. As part of the transition process, the Armed Forces Provisional Ruling Council (AFPRC) established the Constitution Review Commission (CRC) through a decree in March 1995. In accordance with the timetable for the transition to a democratically elected government, the Commission drafted a new constitution for The Gambia, which was approved by referendum in August 1996. The constitution provides for a strong presidential government, a unicameral legislature, an independent judiciary, and the protection of human rights. Local government administration in The Gambia varies. The capital city, Banjul, and the much larger Kanifing Municipality have elected town and municipal councils. Five rural administrative and political regions exist, each with a Local Government Council containing a majority of elected members. Each Council has

its own treasury and is responsible for local government services. Tribal chiefs retain traditional powers authorized by customary law in some instances.

### **1.4. 3 Defence**

The Gambia Armed Forces is about 5,000 strong. The Army consists of infantry battalions, Republican National Guard (which comprises the State Guard, Special Forces, and the Guards Battalion), and the Navy, all under the authority of the Ministry of Defense. Prior to the 1994 coup, The Gambian Army received technical assistance and training from the United States, United Kingdom, People's Republic of China, Nigeria, and Turkey. With the withdrawal of most of this aid, the Army received renewed assistance from Turkey and new assistance from Libya and others. The Gambia allowed its military training arrangement with Libya to expire in 2002. However, military assistance from the U.S. has resumed and is steadily growing across the spectrum of Gambian Security.

Members of The Gambian Military participated in ECOMOG, the West African force deployed during the Liberian civil war beginning in 1990. Gambian forces have subsequently participated in several other Peacekeeping Operations, including, inter alia, Bosnia, Kosovo, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sierra Leone, Eritrea, Timor-Leste, and Darfur. The Gambia contributed about 150 troops to Liberia in 2003 as part of the ECOMIL contingent. In 2004, The Gambia contributed a 196-man contingent to the UN Peacekeeping Mission in Darfur, Sudan. As of August 2010, The Gambia was contributing 2,156 Peacekeepers to seven UN missions (including UNAMID in Darfur, UNMIT in Timor-Leste, UNMIS in Sudan, UNMIL in Liberia, UNOCI in Cote d'Ivoire, and MINURCAT in Central African Republic). Responsibilities for internal security and law enforcement rest with The Gambian Police under the Inspector General of Police and the Minister of the Interior.

### **1.4. 4 Political Conditions**

Before the Military Coup D'etat in July 1994, The Gambia was one of the oldest existing multi-party democracies in Africa. It had conducted freely contested elections every 5 years since independence without hitches. After the military coup, politicians from deposed President Jawara's People's Progressive Party (PPP) and other senior government officials were banned from participating in politics until July 2001.

The People's Progressive Party (PPP), headed by former President Jawara, had dominated Gambian politics for nearly 30 years. After spearheading the movement toward complete independence from Britain and drawing up grass root support, the PPP was voted into power and was never seriously challenged by any opposition party. The last elections under the PPP regime were held in April 1992.

Following the coup in July 1994, a presidential election took place in September 1996, in which retired Col. Yahya A.J.J. Jammeh won 56% of the vote. The legislative elections held in January 1997 were also dominated by the APRC, which captured 33 out of 45 seats. In July 2001, the ban on Jawara-era political parties and politicians was lifted. Four registered opposition parties participated in the October 18, 2001, presidential election, which the incumbent, President Yahya Jammeh, won with almost 53% of the votes. The APRC maintained its strong majority in the National Assembly in legislative elections held in January 2002; particularly after the main opposition United Democratic Party (UDP) boycotted the legislative elections

President Jammeh won the September 2006 elections with 67% of the vote while the opposition alliance won a total of 27%. In the January 2007 Parliamentary elections, Jammeh's APRC won 42 of the available 48 seats. While both the September and January elections were declared credible, several sources reported increased oversight of journalists in the preceding months. A failed coup in March 2006 had a major effect on The Gambia's political climate. Since then President Jammeh has taken far-reaching steps to maintain power. The next presidential elections will be held on November 24, 2011, and parliamentary elections on March 24, 2012.

#### **1.4.5 Foreign Relations**

The Gambia followed a formal policy of non- alignment throughout most of former President Jawara's tenure. It maintained close relations with the United Kingdom, Senegal, and other African countries. The July 1994 Coup strained The Gambia's relationship with Western powers, particularly the United States, which until 2002 suspended most non-humanitarian assistance in accordance with Section 508 of the Foreign Assistance Act. Beginning in 1995, President Jammeh established diplomatic relations with several additional countries, including Libya, Taiwan, and Cuba.

The Gambia plays an active role in international affairs, especially West African and Islamic affairs, although its representation abroad is limited. As a member of the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), The Gambia has played an active role in that organization's efforts to resolve the civil wars in Liberia and Sierra Leone and contributed troops to the community's ceasefire monitoring group (ECOMOG) in 1990 and (ECOMIL) in 2003. It also has sought to mediate disputes in nearby Guinea-Bissau and the neighbouring Casamance region of Senegal. The Government of The Gambia believes Senegal was complicit in the March 2006 failed coup attempt. This has put increasing strains on relations between The Gambia and Senegal. The subsequent worsening of the human rights situation has placed increasing strains of U.S.-Gambia relations.

#### **1.4.6 Peoples and Languages**

As in most sub-Saharan countries, The Gambia consists of diverse ethnic groups such as Jola 10%, Mandinka 42%, Fula 18%, Wolof /Serer 16%, Serahule 9% ,Manjago, Balata, Aku (4%), non-African 1% (2003 Population Census). Beyond this diversity, there is a considerable degree of commonality. All the six of Gambia's 'national' languages (Mandinka, Wolof, Fula, Jola, Serahule, and Serer belong to the Niger-Kordofanian linguistic family (Ross, 2008). This family stretches across the breadth of the continent from Senegambia to the east and southern Africa, and it includes the various Bantu Languages (Swahili, Zulu, Congo etc) as well as Igbo, among others.

Mandinka and the Wolof are by far the most widely spoken language in the country. Whilst the Wolof is spoken largely in the urban areas, the Mandinka language is prevalent in the rural areas. The importance of this rests in the political history The Gambia. They were at the centre of the Jolof Empire (ca.1200-1549) and of the subsequent independent kingdoms of Walor, Cayor, Baol, Sine and Saloum. These kingdoms controlled access to Atlantic trade with the Europeans and thus benefitted more from this contact than states farther inland. Thus, the Wolof and the Aku (Creole), as the liberated slaves and Recaptives were called, constituted the core of African population of colonial cities such as Bathurst (now Banjul) and McCarthy Islands formed the majority of the African civil service in The British colony of Gambia till in the 1970s. This was ostensibly because they were the first to embrace western education. However, rural areas of The

Gambia preserve an older, classical form of Wolof, identified as ‘deep’ Wolof. On the other hand, a mix of English and French language Wolof is noticeable in the urban areas of the country, especially among the youth.

The Gambia is an Atlantic country. At the westernmost tip of the Old World (consisting of Africa, Europe and Asia), it was the first part of the Black Africa to enter into direct contact with Atlantic Europe, namely Portugal, then the Netherlands, France and Britain and to become involved in the triangular trade with the Americas (Ross, 2008). James Island, near Banjul, The capital of the Gambia has become synonymous with the memories of the Atlantic slave trade.

Closer to its borders, The Gambia is part of the Sahel- Sudan zone, a semiarid bioclimatic region that stretches south of the Sahara Desert from the Atlantic Ocean to the Red Sea. The Sahel-Sudan region zone is important historically for the spread of Islam in Africa and for the early emergence of states in that area. This area was important for the diffusion of Islamic scholarship generally, and Sufism in particular. The history of this zone is exemplified by the powerful medieval empires of Ghana, Mali, Songhai and by the famous ancient cities of Timbuktu, Jenne and Gao, which have remained till today and in the present day Mali Republic.

The far western end of this zone, open to the Atlantic, is called the Senegambia. As a historical region, Senegambia includes the Senegal and The Gambia river basins, which empty into the Atlantic, as well as parts of surrounding countries: the emirates of the southern Mauritania, the kingdoms east of the Senegal river (western parts of modern Mali), Futa Jallon (modern Guinea), and Guinea Bissau (historical Kabu). The modern state of Senegal is central to this region. The Gambia, a former British colony, constitutes a narrow enclave within Senegal, and it isolates Senegal’s Casamance region from the rest of the country. Senegal and The Gambia have close cultural and social ties, and from 1982 to 1989 they were loosely united within a political entity called the Senegambia confederation.

#### **1.4.7 Climate**

The Gambia is in the savannah or semi-arid zone region and the weather is subtropical. There is a dry wind called the Harmattan which blows during the dry season. The Harmattan Sahara

winds give The Gambia a uniquely pleasant winter, completely rainless and blessed with daily sunshine. From October to May, the temperature varies between 70°F (21°C) and 80°F (27°C) and the relative humidity stays between 30% and 60%. Summer temperatures range between 80°F (27°C) and 90°F (32°C) and the relative humidity is high. The rains begin in June and continue to October, conceding to dry season which begins in October and ends in May. Inland, the cool season is shorter, and by the day high temperatures are encountered between March and June. Generally, there is considerable cooling off in the evening. Rainfall in most parts of the country does not exceed 40 inches (1,016 Millimetres) and sunny periods occur on most days even in the rainy season.

#### **1.4.8 The Landscape**

The Gambia's physical landscape is characterized by lowlands and by varying degrees of aridity. The plain is subject to the tropical monsoon climate characteristic of the entire Sahel- Sudan zone. The rains come from the south in the hot summer months (June to October), which constitutes the agriculture growing season. The rest of the year (November to May) is mostly dry, with desiccating winds, called the Harmattan, coming from the Sahara to the north and east. Coastal areas between the cities of Banjul, Brikama and its adjoining towns, on the other hand, are subject to cooler winds off the Atlantic. Gambia is situated along the northern fringe of this monsoon system.

The country's agricultural activity is characterised by extensive dry farming. Crops are sown in a field that have been previously subjected to burning. Ashes from scrub and brush provide valuable nutrients for soils that otherwise are light, sandy, and very permeable and that receive little manure. In such light soils the hoe and cutlass are preferred to the plough and fields can be left fallow for many years between planting seasons. The savannah landscape typical of the Sahel region ,which The Gambia finds herself consists of field and pasture beneath a very light canopy of baobab trees, acacias and kapok, which become sparse and smaller as one travels from the humid south to the drier north. This is not a natural landscape but rather, it is a product of many centuries of agricultural and pastoral activity. Historically, various types of millet and sorghum have constituted the staple cereals and their production dominated agriculture. Beans



(Yebbe as known in Wolof), were also grown alongside with these cereals. In the early modern era, when new crops diffused into the region, was added to the list of subsistence crops. In the 1840s, another American plant, the peanut (popularly known as groundnut), was introduced as an export cash crop.

#### **1.4.9 Population**

The population of Gambia is estimated at 1.038 million and 1.361 million at the 1993 and 2003 population censuses with population densities of 97 and 127 persons per square kilometre respectively. As at September, 2012 the total population is estimated to be 1,776,103 million people while the annual population growth rate is estimated at 2.344% (World Bank Report, 2006)

The population of The Gambia is mainly young with more than half (about 63.55%) being below 25 years. Elderly persons of 65 years and above account for 2.8% of the population. The age structure: The 0-14 age bracket makes up 43.9% of the population (males 382,385 / females 378,853) and the 15-64 age bracket makes up 53.4% (males 459,315 / females 466,689). Finally, the 65 years and over group represents 2.8% (males 24,303 / females 23,919). (July 2008 Est.)

The urbanisation rate increased from 30.8 % in 1983 to 37.1% in 1993. In 2003, this rate is estimated at 50.3%; which means that presently, more than half the population live in urban areas. The population is unequally distributed in the eight Local Government Areas (LGA) of the country. With a land area of 11,300 square kilometres, The Gambia is one of the most densely populated countries in Africa with a population density of 134 persons per square kilometre. Increased population density coupled with the Sudan-Sahelian deforestation has increased pressure on agricultural land and contributed to declining agricultural output, which has led to an out-flow of people from rural to urban areas

This is more evident in the northern part of The Gambia. A population movement from rural to urban areas has resulted in about 55 per cent of the population currently living in Banjul,

Kanifing and the Brikama Local Government Areas. In total, about 50 per cent of the population now lives in urban areas compared to 37 percent a decade ago.

#### **1.4.10 The Gambia River**

A major attraction and landmark in The Gambia is the River Gambia which takes its rise from the Futa Jallon highlands nearly a thousand river miles away in the Republic of Guinea Conakry. It crosses Eastern Senegal before entering Gambian territory some 300 miles (480 kilometres) inland. In The Gambia, The River is the dominating features and provides both a useful means of transportation and irrigation as well as a rich ground for fishing, boating and sailing. The River Gambia is several miles wide at its mouth near Banjul, the capital of the country and has a bar with a depth of 27 feet (8. 1 Metres). It narrows to three miles (4.8 kilometres) at Banjul where the Ferry to Barra operates. Ocean-going vessels up to about 3,000 gross registered (241 Kilometres) to Kuntaur. The River is also navigable to steamers for 140 miles (225 Kilometres) farther upstream.

Interestingly, river Gambia divide the country into South and North banks which were into six administrative regions namely North Region (NR), West Coast Region (WCR), Lower River Region ( LRR), Upper River Region (URR), Central River Region( CRR) and Kombo St. Mary Division (KSMD). For the first 80 Miles (129 kilometres) inland from Banjul, The River Gambia is fringed with mangrove-covered banks, which give way to red ironstone cliffs crowned with a tangle of green vegetation. Farther up River, the ironstone cliffs give way to banks of waving grass and parklands. The whole River and the numerous creeks (locally known as 'Bolons') which join it are fascinating to the bird lover and the student of nature: Hippopotami, Crocodiles and Dog-faced baboons are often seen.

In the past, the River's fame lay in the fact that, for sailing vessels, it was navigable at least as far as the country's eastern boundary; it is one of the finest waterways in West Africa. More recently, it has become the target for government development plans including an extension to the Port of Banjul. Fisheries development, Hydrological Surveys, a rice development project and even a feasibility survey for a bridge-barrage building programme at the Trans-Gambia Ferry crossing near Farafenni. The Bridge-Barrage Project is to be a joint venture by the Senegalese

and Gambian Governments. In addition to Ferries, ships and cutters loaded with groundnuts, the country's main export crop, can be seen plying up and down the river, and dugout canoes used by fishermen are also a common sight. Their existence, however, does not diminish the serene, tranquil beauty of the Great River flowing majestically westward into the Atlantic Ocean.

#### **1.4.7.0 Ethnic Groups**

The Gambia is a multi-diverse country with many ethnic groups. It is therefore important to examine the major ethnic groups and the available quantitative national population data. We seek to assess each ethnic group's share of the national population, its geographical location, its typical occupations and religious beliefs.

##### **1.4.7.1 Mandinka**

The Mandinka is the largest ethnic group in The Gambia and may have moved into the region in the late 13<sup>th</sup> or early 14<sup>th</sup> century as the then Mali Empire of Western Sudan expanded. They were fully established on both banks of the River Gambia when the European explorers from Portugal first arrived in the 15th century and by 1800, they provided the ruling class and accounted for 49 percent of the total population of The Gambia in 1911 (Arnold et al 2008). They then comprised the bulk of the population in the North bank and South bank provinces of the protectorate and were the most numerous group in all but one of the other of the three protectorate provinces. However, even though Mandinka from the Kombo had been among the earliest African inhabitants of Bathurst, they made up only 3 percent of its population in 1911 (Colonial Office Report, 1911). During the first half of the twentieth century, their share of the population declined slightly, although they still comprised 41 percent of the total population in 1963 (46 percent of the Gambian population). By 1993, these figures had fallen to 34 and 39 percent respectively. In 1963, 48 percent of the Mandinka population lived in LRR. This was clearly the Mandinka heartland; Mandinka accounted for 76 percent of the total population of Mansankoko LGA (which consisted of Baddibu, Nuimi, and Jokadu districts). The Mandinka were also the most numerous ethnic group in all other LGAs except Bathurst. However, after

independence, the centre of the Mandinka population began to shift westward. By 1983, there were more Mandinka living in Brikama LGA than in any other LGA and by 1993, the Western Division (WD), (now West Coast Region) had become the main centre of the Mandinka population; 26 percent of the Mandinka lives in Brikama and a further 16 percent in Kanifing. This compared with only 14 and 3 percent, respectively, in 1963. Although the Mandinka were still the predominant group in four LGAs (Brikama, Kanifing, Kerewan, and Mansankoko), they have been overtaken by the Fula in Georgetown and Kuntaur (in the latter, they were also now outnumbered by the Wolof) and by the Serahule in Basse. Moreover, only in Mansankoko did they now form an absolute majority of the population. Nevertheless, because they comprised at least one quarter of The Gambian population of all LGAs, they could justifiably claim to be the most national of the various ethnic groups, in terms of national spread and location.

The pre-colonial Mandinka society was organised along caste line and even at independence; caste has remained an important feature of their social status. At the top of the leader is the royal family lineage; the middle caste consist of people performing specialist functions such as the smiths, leader workers, potters, praise singers/griots ( traditional historian ) and the lower caste, the slaves or Jongo.

Until independence, almost all Mandinka lived in the rural areas; as late as 1963, 95 percent lived in the protectorate. More recently, they have moved into the urbanized areas of the Banjul and Kanifing where 21 percent lived 1993. Since the late nineteenth century, male Mandinka in the rural areas have mainly grown groundnuts (it is thought that, by the late nineteenth century, they were responsible for three quarters of the total groundnut production) and female Mandinka have generally cultivated rice. The few Mandinka who lived in Bathurst before the 1990s tended to be poorly educated and employed in semiskilled and unskilled jobs. More recently, the Mandinka have moved up the occupational hierarchy and those in employment in the Banjul area are particularly likely to be employed in the public sector.

Most Mandinka were animist until at least the 1860s, but, following the Soninke -Marabout wars, many had converted to Islam by the 1890s and virtually all had done so by the 1920s. There have never been many Mandinka Christians, although their number have included The Gambia's first Prime Minister and President, Sir Dawda Kairaba Jawara (who later reverted to Islam) and Edward Singhateh, one of the leaders of the 1994 Military Coup in the country.

#### **1.4.7.2 Fula and Tukolor**

The Fula ethnic is the second largest of the ethnic groups of The Gambia after the Mandinka. Their settlement in the country is dated around the 17<sup>th</sup> century and by the 19<sup>th</sup> century the various sub- Fula groups such as the Tukolor, Futa –Fulbe accounted for a substantial proportion of the country's population. History has it that the Fula ethnic migrated from the Fula Jallon highlands in modern day Guinea Conakry and settled in The Gambia. In the 1870s and 1880s, a famous Fula leader, Musa Molloh, established a Fula kingdom north of the river centred on Fulladu and in 1911, when they made up one fifth of the population of the protectorate; they resided mainly in the North Bank and Upper River provinces. During the next fifty years, the estimated Fula population fluctuated, but by 1963, the Fula and the Tukolor between them comprised 15 percent of the total population. Their share of the national population remained broadly the same over the next three decades, so that by 1963, they comprised 16 percent of the total, and 19 percent of The Gambian population.

In 1963, well over half of the Fula population lived either in Basse or in Georgetown, whereas 86 percent of the Tukolor lived in Kuntaur; 96 percent of their combined population lived in the Protectorate. Since independence, the Fula/Tukolor has become more evenly distributed across the country. Until the 19<sup>th</sup> century, most Fula were pastoralists who tended the cattle of their Mandinka overlords in return for pasturage. Some Fula sub groups did take up farming in the 19<sup>th</sup> century and, in the view of Swindell, by the 1970s, the Fula was as heavily involved in groundnut cultivation as other Gambian ethnic groups. Nevertheless, the Fula are still associated with cattle rearing and even in the 1980s, the wealth of a Fula was measured by the number of cattle he or she owned. Urban or town Fula, at least until the 1950s, appear to have been mainly employed as petty traders or as unskilled workers.

Some Fula sub groups, as well as the Tukolor, were strongly islamised by the 1860s, but others remained animist well into the twentieth century. There have never been many Fula Christians, in part because a concerted effort by Wesleyan Methodists in the 1830s to convert them to Christianity proved a complete failure. Also an Anglican attempt to proselytize among the Fula by the building of a mission station and a school at Kristkunda in Upper River Region (URR) in 1940 was probably only a little more successful.

### **1.4.7.3 Wolof**

Quite like the Mandinka, the Wolof were firmly established in The Gambia by the fifteenth century. They entered the Gambian valley from Senegal, where they continue to be the most numerous and popular ethnic group, and established a kingdom in Saloum for which, by 1800, was the only non-Mandinka kingdom below the Barrakunda Falls; however, there were relatively few Wolof in any of the Mandinka kingdoms until the mid-nineteenth century. Some Wolof from the interior may have later migrated to Bathurst. Meanwhile, in the 1820s, a substantial number of Wolof moved directly to Bathurst from Goree and St. Louis in the French colony of Senegal. They were sent there by European employers and mulatto slave owners to work as artisans on the construction of the town, or as domestic servants, and tended originally to live in an area of north Bathurst, known as Jollof town until the 1960s. It is probably that in the early days of the settlement on St. Mary's island, they formed the majority of its African population. There appear to have been little contact between the Goree Wolof of Bathurst and the Wolof of the interior, who formed distinct communities at least until the 1960s. In the early twentieth century, the Wolof comprised nearly half of Bathurst's population; they also made up 16 percent of the protectorate's population in 1911. The number of Wolof living in the protectorate increased relatively slowly up to independence, so that by 1963 they accounted for only 10 percent of its population. Most of these lived in the Sabach Sanjal districts of Kerewan LGA, in the Saloum district of Kuntaur LGA, and in Georgetown LGA. In contrast, the Wolof formed easily the most numerous group in Bathurst, comprising 41 percent of its total population and an absolute majority of Gambians. By 1993, this composition has changed in several respects. Only 7 percent of the Wolof lived in Banjul, compared with 28 percent in Bathurst in 1963, and the Wolof now barely outnumbered the Mandinka in the capital, almost one-third of the Wolof lived in Kerewan LGA- as they had in 1963.

Male Wolof in the rural areas have tended to be groundnut farmers since the end of the nineteenth century, and female Wolof have tended to grow food crops. Wolof farmers in the 1990s were more likely to be described as large export oriented farmers, than as subsistence farmers (although it should be emphasized that all Gambian farmers are fairly small scale in comparison with commercial farmers elsewhere in West Africa). Bathurst Wolof were often employed as skilled manual workers (artisans) or traders in the 19<sup>th</sup> and first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> centuries and,

even in the mid- 1950s, they were often artisans, drivers, mechanics, and clerks. Thanks to improved education, they began to move into higher level civil service posts and the professions in greater numbers after World War II, a process that has continued.

Since the end of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, most rural Wolof has been Muslims. Moreover, it is possible that most Wolof in modern Banjul are Muslims; however, there has also been significant Christian Wolof community in the capital since the earliest years of the settlement on St. Mary's Island. Some of the Wolof immigrants from Goree were converted to Christianity by the Wesleyan missionaries and formed the nucleus of the Methodist Church in the 1830s and 1840s; for example, the first two African assistant missionaries of the Wesleyan church, John Cupidon and Pierre Sallah, were both Wolof ex-slaves from Goree. With the establishment of a permanent Roman Catholic Mission in Bathurst in 1849, many Wolof converted to Catholicism, particularly after 1860, and Wolof Catholics came to outnumber their Protestant counterparts.

#### **1.4.7.4 The Jola**

The Jola are one of the ethnic groups in The Gambia and are majorly found on the Atlantic coast around the southern banks of The Gambia River, the Casamance region of Senegal and the northern part of Guinea-Bissau. The Jola settlement is believed to have preceded the Mandinka and Fula peoples in the riverine coast of Senegambia and may have migrated into Casamance; their original homeland before the 13th century. In 1911, they comprised 7 percent of the population and lived mainly in small and isolated communal groups in the forests and swamps of the southern districts of Kombo –Foni Province; a minority also settled in Bathurst. Indeed, a key feature of Jola society at least until independence was its fragmentary nature. The Jola remained concentrated in the Kombo and Foni up to independence; as late as 1963, 55 percent of all Jola lived in either Eastern or Western Kombo. This meant that 83 percent of the Jola living in Brikama LGA. There were smaller Jola communities in Bathurst and Kanifing LGA increased from 1,400 in 1963, to more than 35,000 in 1993; this meant that by 1993, more than one-third of all the Jola lived in the area. However, the majority (58 percent) of Jola still lived in the Brikama LGA

Jola living in the rural areas in the 20<sup>th</sup> and early 20<sup>th</sup> centuries tended to grow rice and millet, rather than groundnuts, and also collected palm kernels for export; while urban Jola were mainly

employed as unskilled labourers as late as the 1950s. Unlike most other riverine peoples, the Jola were very slow to convert to Islam in the nineteenth century and many remained animist as late as the 1960s. Most Jola are now Muslims, with a minority being Roman Catholic.

#### **1.4.7.5 Serahule**

The Serahule, who may be of mixed Mandinka, Tuareg, and Fula origin, are popularly believed to have been the main inhabitants of the ancient Empire of Ghana, which flourished between the 8<sup>th</sup> and the 11<sup>th</sup> centuries A.D. After the decline of the Ghana Empire, some Serahule (Soninke) moved to Gambia. A further migration of Serahule into Gambia occurred in the mid-19<sup>th</sup> century. As early as the 1840s, Serahule were growing groundnuts as strange farmers for Mandinka landlords in the Upper River Region and they also served as mercenaries during the Soninke - Marabout wars; they were also successful long distance traders in the pre-colonial period. By 1911, they made up 3 percent of the total population of Gambia, being resident mainly in Upper River Region.

Within the next fifty years, the pattern of Serahule settlement changed over time. The recorded Serahule population increased more rapidly than that of most other ethnic groups, so that, like the Jola, they accounted for 7 percent of the total population in 1963. Again like the Jola, they were also heavily concentrated within one region; 82 percent lived in Basse. Indeed, the Serahule were the most numerous group in three districts within the regions: Kantora, Basse, and Jilmara. Most other Serahule lived in Georgetown (now Janjanbureh). Few lived in Bathurst or Kombo St. Mary before independence. In the first three decades after independence, the pattern of Serahule settlement changed in some respects; nevertheless, even in 1993, nearly three-quarters of all Serahule lived in Basse. Most others lived in Kanifing. It is probable that most Serahule in the 19<sup>th</sup> and 20<sup>th</sup> centuries were farmers, although some urbanized Serahule were prominent in commerce, including more recently in international trade in diamonds, investment in property and clothing. Since the late nineteenth century, almost all have been Muslims. The Serahule also have been the least willing of the major Gambian ethnic groups to adopt Christian or western modern education, by preferring Madarasa (Arabic Education).



#### **1.4.7.6 Serere**

The Serere ethnic group has been living in the present Gambia for many centuries. Though they comprised a higher share of the population of Senegal where they are mostly found. In the early part of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, most Serere lived north of the river in the kingdom of Saloum, but in 1863, an estimated 2,000 fled to the Crown Colony (Bathurst) to escape from the fighting in the interior and eventually settled in Bathurst and British Kombo (Hughes et al 2006). By 1901, they formed the third largest ethnic group in Bathurst after the Wolof and the Aku, and in 1911, 1/3 of all Serere in the colony lived in the capital. However, in 1963, only 17 percent of the Serere lived in Bathurst and the majority resided in Kerewan. Since 1963, the crux of the Serere population has shifted again to just over 1/3 lived in Kerewan and just under a third in Kanifing municipality.

Serere are traditionally engaged in either farming or fishing, male Serere in the rural areas of The Gambia and Senegal tend now to grow groundnuts, and female Serere produce millet and vegetables. Certainly in the 19<sup>th</sup> century (and probably for much of the 20<sup>th</sup> century), male Serere in Bathurst tended to be employed as unskilled labourers.

During the 19<sup>th</sup> and first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> centuries, the majority of Gambian Serere has remained animist, but in recent times, most have become Muslim. Christianity has never made much headway amongst Gambian Serere, unlike in Senegal, where a significant minority became Catholic during the colonial period. Efforts made by the Methodist church to convert the Serere in Bathurst in the 1870s proved unsuccessful.

#### **1.4.7.7 The Aku, Igbo and Liberated Africans**

The enlightened Aku were the last ethnic group to settle in The Gambia and they constitute a distinct group within The Gambian society. Like the Creoles of Sierra- Leone, they are majorly the descendants of liberated African slaves and Recaptives after the abolition of slavery and slave trade throughout the British Empire in 1807. These returnees' former slaves, who were popularly called liberated Africans, were first resettled in Freetown, the capital of Sierra- Leone. Then some of these liberated African slaves and the Recaptives were further resettled from Freetown to Bathurst in 1818 and a handful more were resettled in McCarthy Islands in 1820s at the

request of the British merchants based in Bathurst. Most emigration occurred between 1832 and 1843 when liberated Africans were settled en mass, when the Liberated African Department (LAD) was closed, by which time the population of liberated Africans in Bathurst was between three to five thousand (Fyfe, 1961). Thus by the 1840s, they were a significant population in Bathurst.

The Liberated Africans in Gambia were of diverse ethnic group. It is not possible to provide accurate figures of the ethnic composition but majority had Yoruba origin (modern Western Nigeria), who were as in Sierra Leone, called Aku. The Igbo of Eastern Nigeria may have constituted the second largest group. There were people from Grand/ Little Popo in what is now modern Togo, Moco in present day Cameroon, Congo, and Hausa from Northern Nigeria. When the first ever comprehensive assessment of the ethnic origin of the colony population was made in 1901, the Aku, followed by the Igbo, comprised the largest proportion of the descendants of the Liberated Africans (Hughes & Perfect, 2006 p.20).

Certainly, by 1901, the term Aku was apparently used in the census to refer to all the descendants of the Liberated Africans except the Igbo, as well as freeborn immigrants from Sierra Leone and possibly the children of Wolof Protestants and of mixed Aku/Wolof parents. During the 1830s, the official policy was to place as many Liberated African immigrants as possible on McCarthy Island, although a settlement was also established in the Ceded Mile in the North Bank and in the British Kombo in the 1850s and 1860s. The settlement in the Ceded Mile could not survive for long time as the inhabitants soon relocated to Bathurst but the Liberated African community in McCarthy Island survived until a few years after the withdrawal of its military garrison in 1866

Over the next fifty years, the number of Aku who resided in the Protectorate remained very low; in 1963, 85 percent of the Aku population lived in Bathurst and a further 7 percent in Kombo St. Mary. Only 8 percent were found in the Protectorate and these made up a mere 0.1 percent of its total population.

The first Liberated African settlers in Gambia tended to succumb to the hostile climate, and the survivors often remained illiterate, unemployed and destitute. Gradually, however, Liberated Africans and their descendants became better educated. By the 1860s, they were among the

foremost traders in the river Gambia and were well represented in government services; by the 1870s, a few had become merchants and by 1911, they were said to comprise the majority of the educated class. During the next fifty years, the Aku strengthened their position in the civil service and also supplied most African merchants and professionals. At independence in 1965, many senior civil servants were of Aku extraction and have continued to be well represented in the senior ranks of the civil service until in the 1970s, when the Mandinka ethnic group overtook them.

#### **1.4.7.8 Non-Gambian Africans**

Another group noticeable in the early settlement in Bathurst in the 1840s was non- Gambian Africans. They constituted majorly people from neighbouring Senegal and within the sub – region. These were ‘strange farmers’ from Senegal and other French territories who moved into the area to grow groundnuts on a sharecropping basis. This (strange farmers) was later to be a significant feature of Gambian rural society. For instance, there were about 16,000 strange farmers from the neighbouring French and Portuguese territories in Gambia in 1945. A farmers’ Survey carried out in the mid -1970s, estimated that there were about 25,000 Guinean, Senegalese, and Malian ‘strange farmers’ in The Gambia (Hughes et al in Gamble, 2006).

Non- Gambian Africans has also moved into Bathurst in considerable numbers since the 19<sup>th</sup> century. The first to arrive were the Creoles from Sierra-Leone, who came to Bathurst initially for trade and from the 1870s onward, to seek for clerical employment with the land Gambia declared considerably after World War II and by the 1970s, Gambians were more likely to live in Sierra-Leone than vice versa. In the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, and perhaps particularly between World War I and II, Senegal and other immigrants from French and Portuguese territories travelled to Bathurst during the trade season to load groundnuts (peanuts).

#### **1.4.7.9 Europeans**

The founding of Bathurst in 1816 was without the presence of small but influential European population, who were mainly British merchants and soldiers. The first civilian settlers were a group of British merchants who moved to Bathurst from Goree soon after the French had

reoccupied their trading post in 1817. By 1823, there were 45 Europeans on St. Mary's Island, most of whom were permanent residents and a handful lived outside Bathurst. However, following the abandonment of Albreda after its ruin, there were small, but significant, French commercial community in Bathurst from 1860 when the first French firm – Maurel Frères in the Island. In the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the number of Europeans on St. Mary's increased, reaching 261 in 1939 and by 1963, the British population in Gambia stood at 413 and these increased over time (Gambia Government Census Report 1963).

Most Europeans who resided in Bathurst in the 19<sup>th</sup> century were either officials or merchants and a handful of missionaries. No clear distinction was made between the two groups; due to shortage of manpower they often required to take on official positions.

#### **1.4.7.10 Mulattos**

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century there was also a distinct Mulatto community in Bathurst. A total of 135 Mulattos were recorded as living on St. Mary's Island in 1824 and 116 in the 1901 census. Mulattos were products relationships between European men and African women, mainly Wolof. At one end of the social scale were the offspring of British officials and merchants who were often educated in Europe, became merchants themselves and lived alongside Europeans. On the other hand were the descendants of early Portuguese traders who were generally employed as artisans, sailors and domestic servants. It could be noted that the Mulatto community disappeared and after 1901, were reintegrated into the European community, while others were reclassified as Wolof.

#### **1.4.7.11 Lebanese**

The Lebanese community constitutes another important group within Bathurst. 'Syrians', from what is now Lebanon began arriving in Bathurst in the 1890s when it was a booming commercial centre. The Lebanese, a mix of Christians, and Shi'is, have been active in the import-export, wholesale, and large- scale retail sectors and based mainly in urban areas of The Gambia; the Kombos and Bathurst (now Banjul). Since then, the Lebanese community has been fully integrated into the Gambian society and could vote and be voted for, for those who were born in the country and or whose parents have been living here since independence.

#### **1.4.7.12 West Indians**

There were some noticeable countable numbers of West Indian communities in Bathurst in the 1880s. For example, there were about fifty-nine of them living in Bathurst in 1881 then. These were officials and mostly were engaged in trading. West Indian settlers in Bathurst served as one of the regiments stationed at different times in the early formation of Bathurst. However, by 1901, most of them were redeployed; some died and or left The Gambia.

#### **1.5 Government**

The Gambia is a multi-party democratic republic within the Commonwealth; independent since 1965; and an Executive Presidency established in 1970. The 1970 constitution was revoked following the July 1994 military coup

The Constitution of the Second Republic of The Gambia, which was approved in a national referendum on 8 August 1996, came into effect on 16 January 1997. Under its terms, the Head of State is the President of the Republic, who is directly elected by universal adult suffrage and holds executive authority. Legislative authority is vested in the National Assembly, which serves a five-year term and comprises 53 members - 48 of which are directly elected and 5 appointed members. The President appoints government members, who are responsible both to the Head of State and to the National Assembly. The current president is Yahya A.J.J Jammeh. The president's official residence is the State House

After 200 years of British Colonial rule, The Gambia became independent on 18th February 1965 and 5 years later in April 1970-adopted a republican constitution. The Gambia, a multi-party republic within the Commonwealth, is administered by an Executive President. Under the current constitution general elections through secret ballots are held every five years to elect candidates who constitute the country's House of Parliament

For administrative purposes the country is divided into The Capital and Seat of Government together with the adjoining Kombo St. Mary and the provinces are in turn divided into five Divisions (now known as regions), each headed by a Commissioner (now Governor) who is the administrative head. These regions are further sub-divided into 35 districts locally administered

by Seyfos (Chiefs). Each district covers a number of villages and settlements with the Alkalo as the village head.

## **1.6 Religion**

The Gambia is predominantly a Muslim country, though it is a secular state; as the country has not adopted any official religion. However, Islamic institutions and practices dominate the public sector and space. The majority of Gambians- 90 percent, according to official government sources are Sunni Muslims who follow the Maliki School of Islamic law. Despite the statistics, there is a great deal of religious tolerance in the country and there is a sizeable number of Christian communities in The Gambia of about 8 percent of the national population. It is composed mainly of Catholics, Wesleyans and Anglicans. The small percentage of Christians, however, does not accurately reflect the influence and positions of this religion in the public sphere. The Christianity community is mainly concentrated in The Gambia's largest and oldest cities- Bathurst and McCarthy Islands and it is embedded within the Aku, Manjago, Jola and handfuls of Serer ethnic groups. Official government sources indicate that about 1 percent of Gambians follow 'traditional religion, that is, they are neither Muslims nor Christians and therefore practice locally based rites related to the spirit world. However, such religious practices have virtually no visibility in the public sphere. On the other hand, deeply embedded popular beliefs about the spirit world, also considered to be traditional, are shared across religious divides. Acceptance of religious diversity and recognition of the underlying commonality of all religious beliefs form the basis of interfaith relations and tolerance in The Gambia, which has greatly contributed to maintaining social peace and harmony in the country over the last 100 years.

By 1800, the great majority of people living along the River Gambia were animist. Islam had been introduced into the riverine region in the 14<sup>th</sup> century and, in the early 1800s, there were small Muslim communities in almost all the kingdoms. However, they suffered discrimination from the majority animist population, being prohibited from owning land or holding the highest offices of the kingdoms. In the late 1850s, the underlying tensions between stricter Muslims (Marabouts) and animists Muslims (Soninke) led to a conflict in the South Bank kingdom of Kombo. More significantly, in 1861, Ma Bah Jahou, Fula Torodo who had been initiated into the

Tijaniyya brotherhood around 1850, launched a successful Muslim jihad against the Soninke (infidels) ruling class in the kingdom of Baddibu.

### **1.7 History and Contact with Europeans**

The first written historical accounts of The Gambian were given by Arab traders and travellers (Ibn Battuta and Leo Africanus come readily to mind) during the pre-colonial era around the 9<sup>th</sup> to 11<sup>th</sup> centuries, a period that coincided with the advent of Islam in the region, thanks to the trans-Saharan trade. During the pre-colonial period, what is today's Gambia was part of the successive great West African empires created by the Soninke, also known as Serahule; after which we had the Mali Empire epitomized by the great emperors like Mansa Musa and Sundiata Keita. There were also small kingdoms such as the Wolof ones of Walor and Jollof, the Serere Sine and Saloum, the Tukulor kingdom of Tekrur (symbolized by the leadership of Alhaji Umar), the Mandinka kingdom of Kaabu, and the much later Fulladu Kingdom of 1870 of Musa Molloh.

In the 15th century, the Portuguese took over the Trans- Saharan Trade using maritime routes. At that time, The Gambia was part of the Kingdom of Mali. Being the first European country to circumnavigate the African continent on their way to Asia and thus came into contact with the native Africans on the shores of the Atlantic Ocean. In 1588, the claimant to the Portuguese throne, Antonio, Prior of Crato, sold exclusive rights to trade on The Gambia River to English merchants and this grant was in turn confirmed by letters of patent from Queen Elizabeth I. In 1618, King James 1 granted a charter to a British company, the Company of ‘‘Adventurers trading into Africa’’ for trade with The Gambia and the Gold Coast (now Ghana). In 1651, the first permanent was established when James, Duke of Courland acquired an Island near the mouth of the river Gambia from a local chief (King of Nuimi, Brunai Sonko). It was later named James Island after James 1 of Courland.

In 1661, Charles II granted a new patent right to trade to another company, ‘‘ the Royal Adventurers Trading in Africa’’ which took over the possession of the Fort on James Island. In 1677, the French captured the Island of Goree from the Dutch and in about 1681 acquired Albreda on the North Bank of River Gambia opposite James Island. Then began the struggle for

supremacy between the British and the French over the Senegambia region which lasted for over one hundred years.

During the late 17<sup>th</sup> century and throughout the 18<sup>th</sup> century, the United Kingdom and France struggled continuously for political and commercial supremacy in the regions of the Senegal and Gambia Rivers. However, the 1783 Treaty of Versailles gave Great Britain possession of The Gambia, but the French retained a tiny enclave at Albreda on the North Bank of the river Gambia which was ceded to the United Kingdom in 1857 with exchange with Portendick, which is now in modern Senegal. In the Napoleonic Wars (1789-1815), Britain captured St Louis and Goree but however returned them to France in 1815.

From the 17<sup>th</sup> to the 18<sup>th</sup> centuries, there were the ceaseless Franco-British rivalries in the West African region. The Gambia became a British Crown colony in 1888, following an agreement between France and Great Britain. Both the Gambia and Senegal Rivers were used by the European colonial powers as entryways to the West African hinterland, primarily for colonization, settlement, and trade purposes. Additionally, since both Senegal and The Gambia were geographically and strategically located, they were used as shipping points to the Americas during the Trans-Atlantic slave trade. Thus there were famous slaving posts such as Goree Island (off the coast of Dakar) and Fort James Island on the banks of the Gambia River.

Although in 1807, slave trading was abolished throughout the British Empire, and the British tried unsuccessfully to end the slave traffic in The Gambia and it was considered necessary to establish a military garrison in Bathurst (now Banjul) in 1816 in order to monitor incoming and outgoing vessels carrying slaves. In the ensuing years, Bathurst was at different times under the jurisdiction of the British Governor General in Sierra Leone. For instance, within the periods of 1821-1843 the British settlements in The Gambia was placed under the administration of Sierra Leone under Charles McCarthy. And by 1843 – 1866 the British colonial settlements of Gambia, Gold Coast, Lagos and Sierra Leone was centralized. The Governor of Sierra Leone became the Governor –in- Chief of the settlements and, in the other colonies, administrators answerable to the Governor –in - Chief were appointed and Executive Councils were abolished.



Suffice it to say that after the founding of Bathurst, the British began to expand their territory in The Gambia. Negotiations with some local chiefs led to an area of about 69sq<sup>2</sup> km being annexed to the colony. This was followed by further inland territorial acquisitions in the Upper reaches of the river. Thus McCarthy Island, 150 miles upriver was acquired in 1823 from the king of Kataba and Fort George was built there. In 1826, a treaty with the king of Barra established British sovereignty over the whole water ways on its North Bank. In 1827, similar treaty with the king of Wuli established British sovereignty over Fatatenda and South Bank. As more and more liberated slaves were sent from Freetown more areas were acquired. In 1840, the Kombo was acquired for this purpose and as well, in 1843, Bondu and the same with Albreda in 1857. This finally placed the navigable stretch of the river slowly under the British; which was declared a Crown Colony in 1888.

In 1889, British agreement with the France established the present boundaries, and The Gambia became a British Crown Colony, divided for administrative purposes into the colony (city of Banjul and the surrounding area- known as the Kombo by the local people) and the protectorate (remainder of the up- land territory). The Gambia received its own executive and legislative councils in 1901 and gradually progressed toward self-government. A 1906 ordinance abolished slavery in its entirety in the country.

During World War II, Gambian troops fought with the Allies in Burma. Banjul served as an air stop for the U.S. Army Air Corps and a port of call for Allied naval convoys. U.S. President Franklin D. Roosevelt stopped overnight in Banjul enroute to and from the Casablanca Conference in 1943, marking the first visit to the African Continent by an American president while in office.

After World War II, the pace of constitutional reform quickened. Following general elections in 1962, full internal self-government was granted in 1963 and the pace was set for Marlborough Constitutional Conference of 1964. The Gambia achieved independence on February 18, 1965, as a constitutional monarchy within the British Commonwealth. Shortly thereafter, the government proposed conversion from a Monarchy to a Republic with an elected president replacing the British monarch as Chief of State. The proposal failed to receive the two-thirds majority required to amend the constitution, but the results won widespread attention abroad as

testimony to The Gambia's observance of secret balloting, honest elections, and civil rights and liberties. On April 24, 1970, The Gambia became a republic following another referendum.

The Gambia was led by President Dawda Kairaba Jawara at independence, who was re-elected five times. The relative stability of the Jawara era was broken first by a violent coup attempt in 1981. The coup was led by Kukoi Samba Sanyang, who, on two occasions, had unsuccessfully sought election to the National Parliament. After a week of violence which left several hundred dead, Jawara was in London attending the wedding of Prince Charles and Lady Diana when the attack began and so, appealed to Senegalese government for assistance. Senegalese troops intervened and defeated the rebel forces and restored normalcy.

In the aftermath of the attempted coup, Senegal and The Gambia government on 17 Dec. 1981 formal signing of the agreement for a confederation was undertaken; providing for the confederal state of Senegambia with the President of Senegal as President and the President of The Gambia as its Vice President. The Confederation combined the armed forces of the two nations and unified their economies and currencies. Also, a confederal Parliament consisting of 2/3 Senegalese and 1/3 Gambian. However, The Gambia withdrew from the confederation in 1989.

On July 22 1994, a section of the young junior officers of The Gambia National Army (GNA) led by Captain Yahya AJJ Jammeh seized power in a Military Coup D'état from the constitutionally elected president, Dawda Kairaba Jawara for alleged rampant corruption and gross incompetence and established the Armed Forces Provisional Ruling Council (AFPRC) government. He transformed into a civilian government by retiring as a military officer, after a two –year transition period (1994-1996).



**Map of The Gambia**

## **1: 8 British Colonial interests in The Gambia – Justifications**

The British had many conflicting interests in the colonization of The Gambia and these are summed into Political, economic, social and humanitarian concerns:

### **1.8.1 Political Interest**

As a result of the exploration of Africa by the European countries, the Scramble began, and each European nation pressed inland into Africa from its own sections of the coast to stake out its colonial claims. Even if colonies were not economically beneficial, imperialists argued, it was crucial for political and military reasons to maintain them. This explains the justification for the rush for territories in Africa by the European countries who were enthused about everything African. There is therefore no doubt that those European explorers like Mungo Park, David Livingstone, Stanley, Richard Lander, Henry Barth, De Brazza, etc were all deliberately preparing grounds for the European occupation of territories in Africa, which became more effective in the 1870s.

The British interest in The Gambia began as early as 1816 when they occupied a tiny Island which was later called Bathurst and went ahead to annex the rest of the Protectorate; which was declared a Crown Colony in 1888. But one pertinent question is, why the British showed much interest and enthusiasm about the tiny enclave called The Gambia? Just like other territories in Africa, the British interest was quite complex and varied. However, this occupation was the outcome of the Scramble and Partition of African territories by European nations; which was given a legal status and recognition during the Berlin West African Conference (1884-1885), held at the instance of the German Chancellor, Ottoman Von Bismarck.

Geo-politically motivated and economically driven, Britain strategically colonized Africa; creating a vast and well-connected empire at the expense Africa and its indigenous peoples. Evident through its early territorial claims along the Gold Coast, and later, its stakes on the Suez Canal and in South Africa; it became clear that Britain believed obtaining Gambia territories was also crucial for political and military reasons. One political factor that motivated British interest in The Gambia was the influence which the contemporary European rivalries had on the

Scramble. Thus, the competition for African territories among European powers between 1880 and 1900 was to some extent an extension of their international rivalry and the struggle for power and supremacy in Europe. Britain had before 1880 been contented with creating spheres of influence of the West Coast. She joined the craze for the acquisition of The Gambia for reasons of prestige and honour because she felt that French activities in the Senegambia region were a threat and a challenge to her dominant position on the West African Coast (Onwubiko, 1972). For instance, the French had signed treaties with the local folks around the Senegal Rivers- St. Louis and Goree Island, which they reoccupied in 1817. The period 1870-1871 was one of great uncertainty and France's preoccupation during this decade was the recovery of Alsace Lorraine lost during the Franco-German war of 1870-1871 and colonial expansion was out of the question until 1879, when colonial conflicts became an aspect of European competitions.

Just like other African countries which were victims of colonial imposition, the Berlin West African Conference facilitated the colonisation of The Gambia. By given legal and recognition and acquisition of colonies in Africa and by specifying the conditions and terms under which such colonies could be formally acquired encouraged European countries to launch out into unsuspecting Africa. This grand conference among European countries created the avowed feeling that speed was necessary for territorial acquisition in Africa, especially for Britain and France who had more territories in Africa than other European countries.

The growth of nationalism in Europe was also a political factor that influenced the annexation of The Gambia. The second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> witnessed European nationalism at its climax just as the second half of the 20th century saw the apogee of African nationalism. One way through which this strong national feeling found expression was the quenching desire for imperial acquisitions overseas (Africa). As such, the possession of colonies in The Gambia and in any other African countries became a matter of prestige and honour for European powers and their nationals who beckoned for colonization. For the British, the acquisition of The Gambia was purely prestigious. For instance, the British were particularly interested in acquiring land only 10 miles away from both the South and North Banks of River Gambia as a way of monitoring the activities of the French around the Senegambia regions. Therefore, national prestige and interests were the

primary driving force for the imperial activities of men like Goldie, Sir Frederick Lord Lugard and Harry Johnson of Great Britain (Onwubiko, 1972).

More significantly, the contemporary political situations in most African states were exploited by European powers to establish their control. To the European countries, Africa was pictured as one of universal den of desolation, crime, chaos, disorder, confusion, inter-tribal wars. Also disputes over succession to the chieftaincy which were common; resentment of conquered peoples against their African overlords and wars between African states were exploited by colonial powers to interfere in the affairs of those states and eventually established their colonial hegemony.

### **1.8.2 Economic Interest**

As early as the 15th century, European nations began to open up the areas around the River Gambia or the African coast to trade. Despite the promise of lucrative resources such as gold, ivory, gum, and above all, slaves, Europeans did little more than scratch the surface of the continent. Rather they became deeply ingrained in the reape-off campaign and unbalanced trade with Africa which they dictated. However, the estuary of the great Gambian river provided the British opportune location for trading posts. The capital of The Gambia (then Bathurst) but now Banjul, situated on St. Mary's Island where the Gambia River enters the Atlantic was an important trading post for the British as its port handles oceangoing ships.

The British interest in The Gambia was largely motivated by economic exploitation, ostensibly by the search for raw materials (mainly cash crops) which were abundantly needed for British industries. The Gambia for example exported gum, vegetable oil, peanuts, timber, beeswax, palm kernels, palm oil, hides and skins to Britain. In the early part of colonialism of Bathurst beeswax was the most important export product as it accounted for about 9/10 of the value of The Gambia's export product in 1817. But by 1848 bee wax had lost its importance to groundnut, the value of which constituted 2/3 of Gambia's export trade. By the beginning of the 20<sup>th</sup> century: groundnut gave about 93% of value of the annual total export (Onwubiko, 1972). These raw materials were transformed into finished goods and brought back to The Gambia and sold at higher prices. This was the height of economic exploitation and inhuman act on the side of the British and other European countries.

Britain also imperialized The Gambia because of the economic benefits of labour and new markets for their surplus goods. Gambia's resources just like other African countries resources according to the British were left largely unharnessed by natives so there were large supplies of easily accessible resources. In the words of Lord Lugard, a British colonial Administrator, "the tropics, (referring to Africa) is a free gift of nature and not the birth right of any person who thinks and or calls himself a native African". "Gold and diamonds were and still are two of the most valuable resources on the planet and they were abundant in Africa. "The discovery of diamonds and rich gold deposits brought... European settlers" to Africa" (Bentley and Ziegler, 2001). These mineral deposits were so valuable that Britain could not hesitate to fight wars of obtaining solid and liquid minerals from their African colonies.

Another economic reason for British imperialism in The Gambia was labour. The Gambia like other African territories had a cheap, untapped labour pool that would work long hours for little money. This increased the profitability of every British industry and multi-national companies in the country. Bathurst permanent labour force in the 19<sup>th</sup> century consisted mainly of skilled and unskilled manual workers, traders, shopkeepers and domestic servants. Virtually no native Gambians were employed in the professional occupations and relatively few in clerical works. There was also seasonal labour force of unskilled labourers who migrated from the interior to the colony each year to load groundnuts into ocean-going vessel with little pay. Groundnuts production in The Gambia by the British primarily used nearly cost free forced labour. This demonstrates how Britain exploited the native people of Africa to their economic benefits.

The British interest in The Gambia was also motivated by the prospect of new markets. The British were "compelled to seek new markets" for their surplus goods. The most economic factor was the Industrial Revolution which created the need for new markets for the sale of surplus manufactured goods. Essentially, the British were able to sell the cheap manufactured goods to the populations in The Gambia with high price. In fact, colonies were not allowed to sell their raw materials offering high prices and were also not allowed to buy European goods offering low prices. This was the trick of colonialism which created unbalanced terms of trade with the colonialists dictating the terms. This created a poor cycle for Africa but a profitable one for Britain. During this period under review, the most important goods included cloths, rum, spirits, gunpowder, guns etc which were sold to Gambians using European companies based in Africa,

such as *Compagnie Française de l'Afrique Occidentale* (CFAO), Royal Niger Company (RNC), Liverpool, United Trading,( UTC), Leventis, Basel Trading Company ( UTC) etc.

### **1.8.2 Social Interest**

The British colonization of The Gambia was not only motivated by political and economic factors but also by social interest. Many people in Britain who supported British colonization of The Gambia did so for purely humanitarian reasons. The fact was that the reports of explorers and missionaries had aroused a new interest in the continent of Africa. Many humanitarian-minded people therefore urged their governments to colonize various parts of Africa so that the internal slave trade (still going on in most Africa countries) could be finally wiped out and the material and spiritual benefits of European civilization extended to Africa peoples. This was the misguided notion of Europeans being in Africa for a 'civilizing mission'. According to them, Africa, including The Gambia, was uncivilized, cannibalistic, animist, chaotic, full of crimes, primordial and therefore they had that divine mandate to open their eyes and bring western civilization considered the best in the world to Africans. The European people were prepared for seizing colonies with the notion that they were bringing the benefits of modern society to the backward peoples of the world. The actual impact of colonial rule was often very different from the rosy view provided by European governments. Kiplinger described it the "White man's burden"(Wilson, 2000). This was to bring the benefits of modern science and Christianity to Africa. Thus the work of missionaries and doctors was widely publicized.

In the 19<sup>th</sup> century, The Gambia became more important to the British than ever. One reason for this was that in the effort to suppress the slave trade from 1807, the British government decided to establish a military post (garrison) at the mouth of the River Gambia for the sole purpose of checking the illegal traffic in human beings. This, it aimed at finally abolishing slave which was still going on in the interior of the country. Accordingly, in 1816 St. Mary's Island (Banjul Island) was acquired from the king of Kombo and a settlement was established there and named Bathurst, Earl Bathurst, the then Secretary of State for British colonies. Garrisoned with 80 soldiers, Bathurst soon replaced James Island as British headquarters in The Gambia. The growth and development of Bathurst was encouraged by the British Merchants in Goree and St. Louis (which was now French) moved over to Bathurst.



Europeans believed that it was their duty to spread Christianity among 'heathens' (non-believers) in other countries of the world, especially in Africa. Both Roman Catholic and Protestant missionaries were sent to remote areas in order to convert people to Christianity. Missionaries also offered the indigenous people Western education and medical care, which they believed were better than those offered by traditional teachers and healers. They believed they were doing God's work and helping to 'civilise' the rest of the world. They refer to themselves as humanitarians because they were concerned about the welfare of their fellow human beings. Unfortunately, many greedy and ruthless people hid behind religion to disguise what they were actually doing - destroying whole cultures and civilisations, so that they could have control over the people, resources their land.

### **Africa divided among colonizers in 1925**



## **1.9 The Colonial Economy of The Gambia**

In the early years of the British settlement on St. Mary's Island, the colony's revenue and expenditure were very low and revenue might not have exceeded £5,000 before 1835 (Hughes et al in Newbury, 1971). Import duties comprised the greater part of government revenue, but the Colonial Office did not allow The Gambian government to impose duties on goods imported by French traders who had been based at Albreda since 1817. These traders were not allowed to trade further up river than James Island, but they ignored the prohibition and goods imported legally into Gambia from Goree Island (in Senegal) were subsequently smuggled up river. The effect of this contraband trade was to reduce legitimate trade and therefore both customs duties and government revenue.

The establishment of the groundnut trade in the 1840s meant that merchants could now import a greater volume of goods into the colony for onward sale by their agents to farmers up river. Consequently, government revenue increased and exceeded £10,000 for the first time in 1851. However, in the 1850s, French traders began to buy groundnuts with cash (the five franc piece remained legal tender until the 1920s) and because imports of specie and bullion were not subject to duty, customs revenue was reduced and total revenue fell from more than £17,000 in 1856 to £14,000 in 1860. In response, and after much debate in official circles, an export tax of three farthings per bushel (about five shillings per ton) was imposed on groundnuts in 1863 (Mahoney, 1963). Revenue subsequently rose to an average of £22,000 in the 1870s, but as the colony's expenditure, which was consumed largely by the salaries and pensions of officials, increased faster, budget deficits became the norm. There were budget deficits in all but three years between 1849 and 1865 (including every year between 1859 and 1865) and in five out of eight years between 1869 and 1876 and a Parliamentary Grant was required between 1860 and 1871 to defray expenses. Surpluses were achieved between 1877 and 1883, but there were five more consecutive deficits after 1884. In 1887, total revenue was the lowest since 1852, due to a combination of a poor groundnut crop and a very low market price.

After its separation from Sierra Leone in 1888, Gambia enjoyed a period of fiscal prosperity that lasted until World War I. The buoyant groundnut export market meant that total revenue increased significantly after 1900 and averaged £95,000 between 1910 and 1914 and 1914

(compared with the record £49,000 in 1900) (Newbury,1971). Expenditure also rose, although salaries and pensions still consumed a substantial proportion of the expenditure. During World War I, the high value of the groundnut crop boosted export earnings and, although imports were restricted by a lack of available shipping in 1914 -15 (which reduced customs revenue), there were surpluses each year between 1915 and 1920. Consequently, reserves reached nearly £29,000 by 1920 (or double the colony's expenditure in that year). But the restriction of imports also helped to double the cost of living in Bathurst between 1914 and 1920.

Groundnut exports were worth a record £2,322,000 in 1920, a boom year in the colony, and export value remained high throughout the 1920s (Colonial Office Report, 1925-1929). Consequently, except in 1921 and 1925, gross revenue always exceeded £200,000 during the decade. But the colony did not benefit fully from the favourable export market. In January 1922, the Gambian government was forced to demonetize the five franc piece, which had dropped considerably in value by the end of World War I, and to bear the full cost of doing so. Expenditure in 1922 was no less than £430,000 (a figure not to be exceeded until 1944) and the budget deficit in that year was £226,000 (which was not surpassed until 1956). Reserves fell to just under £100,000 in 1922 and proposed development projects, such as the drainage of part of the swamp at Half Die (located at the southern end of Bathurst), were therefore either postponed or cancelled (Hughes and Gailey, 1999). World groundnut prices fell to an average of only £8 per ton between 1930 and 1934, thereby reducing the value of groundnut exports and thus government revenue. The Gambian government responded by making retrenchments to balance the budget, but this was only achieved at a cost of increased urban unemployment.

A surplus was achieved on the recurrent budget each year between 1940 and groundnut exports, which were affected by a lack of shipping and a shortage of 'strange farmers', was low throughout the war and their value did not reach pre-war levels until 1945. Import restrictions also reduced revenue from indirect taxation, although part of the shortfall was met by the introduction of income tax in 1940. As in World War I, inflation was fuelled by import restrictions (and not checked by ineffective price controls) and the consumer price index of Bathurst more than doubled between 1940 and June 1942, before falling slightly in the second half of the war. Unlike during World War I, wartime concerns employed close to 20,000 in the

capital and surrounding areas in 1942 (although wage employment did fall after the threat of an invasion from Vichy-controlled Senegal was lifted in late 1942).

Groundnut exports were worth more than £2 million for the first time in 1948. They were valued at £3.56 million in 1952 and at more than £3 million in five out of eight years between 1955 and 1962, despite a falling world price. Despite the high value of exports, there were budget deficits in most years between 1948 and 1965 as expenditures increased. Much of this expenditure was directed toward medical and social services. Thus the Medical and Health Departments' budget rose from £56,000 in 1945 to £154,000 in 1958, and the Education Department's budget increased from less than £30,000 in 1948 to over £124,000 in 1958 (Gailey, 1961). By 1961, the budgetary situation was so unfavourable that the Gambian government had to apply for "grant-in-aid" from the British government, and between 1962 and 1964, the recurrent budget was subsidized by a total of £1.5 million. As part of the deal, the British government reserved the right to scrutinize the draft estimates and to insist on economies; for example, 700 employees of the Marine and Public Works Departments (PWD) were laid off in 1964 (FO 371/176512 and Perfect, 1987).

Throughout the colonial period, The Gambia, like other West African colonies, depended largely on the proceeds of international trade. Until World War II, the greater part of government revenue was provided by customs receipts. These were generated by duties imposed on manufactured goods, clothing, and foodstuffs imported from Europe by trading companies and, to a lesser extent by a duty, which was first imposed in 1863 on the principal export crop, the groundnut. Other sources of revenue, such as fines and licenses, were usually of much lesser importance and there was no income tax in the colony until 1940. After World War II, development expenditure was primarily financed by grants or loans from the British government. However, at independence, nearly two-thirds of domestic revenue (total revenue excluding foreign grants) was derived from taxes on international trade (Hughes et al, 2008).

Gambia's main trading partners before World War I were France, which took three-quarters of its exports, and Great Britain, which supplied three-fifths of its imports. Britain replaced France as the main recipient of Gambian exports during World War I. It retained this position as The Gambia's main trading partner up to independence, when the United Kingdom took three fifths of Gambian exports and supplied more than a third of its imports. Trade links with Sierra Leone

had been important between the 1880s and World War II, but by independence, recorded trade with other African states was negligible. Britain remained The Gambia's most important trading partner until 1965, when the Netherlands took the lead as the main recipient of Gambian exports for the first time.

Between the mid-1840s and independence, groundnut generally was the principal export item; indeed, its dominance was so great that the country was described as a "classic monoculture" as late as the 1960s. That is, dependent on one type of crop as earner of foreign exchange. However, in the early years of the settlement on St. Mary's Island (now Banjul), gum, beeswax, and hides and skins were the leading exports, and the most important imports included rum and spirits, guns and gunpowder. Gum exports declined rapidly after the 1830s, and beeswax and hides and skins were superseded by the groundnut in the 1840s and never regained their former importance. Although groundnuts had been grown for food before 1837. The United States, which imported groundnuts for food, provided the initial market for groundnuts, before its market for Senegambia groundnut was closed by the imposition of a substantial tariff in 1842. More significantly, France began to import groundnuts in increasing quantities in the early 1840s, particularly to make soap. There was no equivalent demand from Britain, which preferred to import palm oil from the Niger Delta (Nigeria) to manufacture soap. Nevertheless, the demand from France was sufficient to ensure that the export value of groundnuts rose rapidly. By 1844, they accounted for 64 percent of export value and by 1857, for 83 percent. Thereafter, in most years before 1900, groundnuts accounted for between 70 and 90 percent of export value. Since 1848, France had been the recipient of the greater part of the Gambian groundnut crop, a status it was to retain until World War I, when it was replaced by Britain.

Until the establishment of the Protectorate in the 1890s, the greater part of the Gambian crop came from areas that were neither under British rule nor British protection. Moreover, a substantial proportion of the crop was produced not by Gambian farmers, but rather by "strange farmers" from the interior of West Africa. Groundnuts were exchanged by barter for goods imported from Europe, which indirectly increased the government's tax revenue. But the increasing emphasis on groundnuts was not wholly beneficial, because foodstuffs were often neglected. Imports of "foreign" rice rose steadily after 1857 and there were periodic food crises. Other imports in the second half of the nineteenth century included cotton manufactured goods,

which made up one-quarter of import value by the 1850s: tobacco: guns and gunpowder (particularly during the religious wars of the 1850s); and kola nuts. The kola nut was an acceptable substitute for alcohol for Muslims and so the trade increased remarkably after the Muslim Jihad of the 1850s. Kola nuts were imported from Sierra Leone, not from Europe, and the trade was dominated by Liberated African entrepreneurs rather than by European merchants firms.

In the first half of the twentieth century, the dominance of the groundnut (which was grown mainly on the north bank of the river and in upper river areas) became even more pronounced. In 1909, the hydrogenation process was perfected, which meant that cheaper liquid oil could be substituted for oleo in the production of margarine. This led to a huge increase in demand for Gambian nuts. Consequently, whereas the record export volume before 1910 had been 35.805 tons in 1900, export volume averaged over 60,000 tons between 1910 and 1938. The world market price fluctuated sharply, but in most years before World War II, groundnuts made up over 90 percent (and frequently as much as 98 percent) of export value (if re-exports and exports of specie and bullion are excluded). The export of hides and skins was significant during World War I, but less so after 1920, and apart from groundnuts, only palm kernel exports were worth more than £10,000 a year between the wars (and not again after 1929) [Colonial Office 1920s], *Blue Books*).

After World War II, the British government through the Colonial Development Corporation (CDC) attempted to provide an additional source of export income for The Gambia, but the Wallikunda rice project and especially the infamous Yundum Egg Scheme were disastrous failures. Attempts to explore illiminite (black stones for making enamel wares) and oil resources in the mid-1950s were equally unsuccessful. The export value of palm kernels did rise significantly after the war, reaching a record total of £124,000 in 1958, but even then it made up only 3 percent of exports. Groundnuts continued to dominate external trade and in most years before independence made up at least 90 percent of exports and were therefore virtually the only source of foreign exchange earnings.

### **1.10 The Post- Colonial Economy of The Gambia**

On attainment of independence status on February 18, 1965, The Gambia's composition of imports and exports remained similar for nearly two decades, with groundnut products accounting for 90 percent or more of the value of domestic exports (as noticed in the colonial period) virtually each year until the late 1970s and again in 1983-84. Thereafter, however, the groundnut's share of domestic exports declined sharply to only 63 percent in 1991-92 and an estimated 51 percent in 1994-95. In part, this was due to a gradual diversification into exports other than groundnuts; other exports – principally fish and fish products, cotton products, and horticultural products- were worth Special Drawing Rights (SDR 7.0 million in 1991 -92, compared with only SDR 3.6 million in 1983 -84 and after declining in the next two years, were valued at an estimated SDR 7.3 million in 1994-95. More importantly, however, the value of groundnut exports fell sharply from a peak of SDR 31.7 million in 1983 -84 (when output reached 151,000 tons) to a low point of SDR 8.5 million in 1985 -86 (when output was only 75,000 tons) recovered somewhat over the next few years to reach SDR 12.9 million in 1989 – 90, before falling again to an estimated SDR 7.6 million in 1994 -95. The collapse of the groundnut sector in the mid-1980s was caused by a combination of factors. These included prolonged drought; parasite infestation; lower soil fertility (which to some extent was in turn due to the general poor performance of the government parastatals, the Gambia Cooperatives Union (GCU), which had a monopoly on the supply of seed and fertilizer to farmers); and over taxation, which discouraged farmers from growing export crops. World prices were also falling in the early 1980s. The partial recovery of the second half of the 1980s has been attributed to the subsidizing of the producer price at the behest of the International Monetary Fund (IMF); once this was removed in 1989-90, groundnut production fell sharply from 133,000 tons in 1989-90 to 76,000 tons a year later. Production continued to decline during the 1990s, falling to a new low of only 46,000 tons in 1996 (Hughes 2006 in Jones et al).

As late as 1974-75, groundnuts accounted for 78 percent of the value of total exports. Recorded and estimated re-exports (and adjustments) accounted for a further 19 percent. Since World War II, there had been a substantial (but officially not quantified) contraband re-export trade with Senegal and other Francophone colonies, which involved the trans-shipment of rice, flour, and other consumer goods that had been imported into Banjul. By the mid-1960s, the contraband



trade between The Gambia and Senegal and was estimated to be worth about \$2 million, or 15 percent of Gambian imports. During the 1970s and 1980s, the re-export trade grew in importance; by 1982-83, re-exports accounted for 62 percent of total exports (Gambia Government Data, 1970s & 1980s).

Reforms undertaken as part of the Economic Recovering Programme (ERP), such as the introduction of a flexible exchange rate system in 1986, the removal of trade and exchange restrictions and major cuts in import tariffs, provided a further impetus to the re-export trade, because the costs of importing into the West African region were now much lower via Banjul than through other locations. Economic and political problems in other countries like Sierra Leone and Liberia also improved Banjul's relative position. As such, re-exports accounted for 88 percent of exports in 1992-993, before falling to an estimated 82 percent in 1994. The downturn in re-export trade occurred basically for political reasons; in August 1993, Senegal tightened its border control following the collapse of the Senegambia Confederation in 1989 and suspended repurchases of the CFA franc and in January 1994, the CFA franc was devalued by 50 percent, which contributed to a weakening of demand for imports, including via The Gambia. Political uncertainty in the country following the July 22, 1994 coup caused further difficulties for the re-export sector.

The decline of the groundnut sector meant that by 1990-91, it contributed only 14 percent of foreign exchange earnings. Re-exports contributed a further 30 percent. But the main source of foreign exchange was now tourism; travel income contributed 49 percent of foreign exchange earnings in that year<sup>142</sup>. The total number of foreign tourists rose from fewer than 1,000 in 1967-68 to nearly 50,000 by 1982 – 83 and then increased rapidly to reach almost 102,000 in 1988-89. The total again exceeded 100,000 in 1990 -91, but then fell back to the levels of the mid-1980s. Following the overthrow of the civilian government in July 1994, nine out of ten tour operators withdrew from the country and the number of tourists fell from 78,000 in 1993-94 to 45,000 in 1994 ( Gambia Central Bank Report, 1995). Consequently, travel income fell by nearly two-thirds.

Despite its vulnerable state in 1965, The Gambian economy performed reasonably well in the first decade after independence, particularly in the early 1970s. A combination of high output and high world prices resulted in record groundnut export receipts, which in turn produced large

foreign exchange reserves (equivalent to ten months of imports in 1974 – 75) and meant that foreign debt remained low. Moreover, the recurrent budget was usually in surplus. During this period, aggregate real income increased substantially and average per capita income rose. Inflation, as measured by the consumer price index for the low income group in 1972 and 1974; urban unemployment may also have started to rise around 1972.

After 1974 – 75, the overall economic situation began to deteriorate. This was in part caused by external developments. The world oil crises of 1973 sharply raised the foreign exchange cost of fuel (the increase in world oil prices in 1979 had a similar effect) and thus increased the cost of imports, which in turn fuelled inflation in the urban areas. Moreover, the onset of the prolonged Sahelian drought in the early 1970s affected production both of food and export crops and resulted in increasing imports of staple foodstuffs. As pointed out, world groundnut prices also declined in the late 1970s and the early 1980s, thereby further reducing the value of exports. Inappropriate government policies were also to blame. Following the introduction of the first Five Year Plan in 1975, government expenditure on development projects, many of which made little net contribution to national income, increased dramatically. Civil service employment also expanded significantly in the 1970s, with most of the Parastatals established in the 1970s making substantial losses between 1979 and 1982. In addition, the exchange rate became overvalued, which boosted the demand for imports and damaged exports. Large-scale public sector corruption, including the Rural Development Project I scandal and large-scale theft in the Gambia Credit Union (GCU), also undoubtedly contributed to economic decline (McPherson and Radelet, 1995).

Until the early 1980s, The Gambia was protected from many of the adverse economic trends earlier mentioned. This was due in part to the foreign exchange reserves it had built up by the mid- 1970s, but mainly resulted from substantial foreign grants and loans after 1975. Between 1975 and 1985, The Gambia received one of the highest levels of per-capita foreign aid in Africa (Radelet, 1995). However, on its debts service obligations, which by 1983, international donors began to withdraw their support as The Gambia fell arrears in turn further reduced foreign exchange reserves. The government was therefore forced to negotiate a stand-by- agreement with the International Monetary Fund in 1984; the local currency, the Dalasis was devalued by 25 percent to boost exports, but the economy continued to deteriorate. By mid-1985, foreign

exchange reserves had fallen to the equivalent of two weeks of imports as foreign debts and external arrears mounted rapidly; inflation had risen sharply since 1984, shortage of basic commodities, such as fuel and rice, were commonplace, agriculture production was falling, and real per capita income was declining. Arrears to the IMF and other international creditors were also rising rapidly. When it became clear that the government could not meet its obligations, the IMF cancelled its stand-by- agreement. Because foreign donors made it clear that they would not bail the country out in the absence of IMF support, the government was forced to act. Consequently, in June 1985, the Minister of Finance, Sheriff Ceesay, assembled a task force consisting of senior Gambian officials and two expatriate advisers to develop a reform program to halt the deterioration of the economy and lay the foundations for sustained economic growth. President Dawda Jawara was then successfully persuaded to endorse the bail- out programme (McPherson and Radelet, 1995).

Although, IMF has no hand in the design of the four-year Economic Recovery Programme, but was in many ways a typical example of the IMF's Structural Adjustment Programme in Africa. Its key objectives were to reform the exchange rate by devaluing the dalasi, revitalize the agriculture sector through changes in pricing policies and other means; promote other productive sectors such as tourism and fisheries, reduce the size of the civil service, improve the performance of the parastatal sector, cut the budget deficit through monetary and fiscal policies; re-orientate the public investment programme from new capital projects to rehabilitation and reconstruction; reschedule and refinance the country's external debt.

To achieve these objectives, a series of measures were enacted between 1985 and 1989. These measures have been analysed in detail by McPherson and Radelet and other members of the Harvard Institute of International Development (HIID) team, which acted as consultants to the Ministry of Finance staff between 1985 and 1992. Consequently, only the key reforms are the floating of the dalasis in January 1986; the signing of performance contracts in 1987 with major parastatals; job cuts in the civil service in 1986 and a wage freeze until 1989; increased taxes on petroleum and rice; the raising of public transport and electricity prices; and a range of measures to improve agricultural production, including a sharp increase in the producer price for groundnuts in 1986, reform to the groundnut marketing system, and the ending of the Groundnut Produce Marketing Board's monopoly on the export of groundnut products in 1990 (McPherson

and Radelet, 1995). The Gambia proved more willing than most African countries to fulfil the requirements of the IMF's Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). As the HIID study shows, some reforms were more successful than others. Nevertheless, by 1989, the country had experienced an impressive economic recovery programme; the government budget deficit has been reduced, the annual inflation rate, which had risen drastically in the first stages of the ERP to 56.6 percent in 1986, had fallen to 8.3 percent by 1989, being the lowest figure since 1981. As well, agricultural production and export had increased, and foreign exchange reserves have been built up. Consequently, the confidence of foreign donors has also been restored and the external debt service arrears have been eliminated. One estimate is that real wages in the rural sector increased by 7 percent due to the introduction of subsidy on groundnuts. However, economic recovery was achieved at a price. The real wages of civil servants and others on fixed incomes had fallen; many of the 3,000 civil servants who had been laid off remained unemployed or at least underemployed, and a quarter of all men aged 20-24 were unemployed in 1993 (McPherson and Radelet, 1995). Expenditures on social services, agriculture, and public works were cut significantly and were about half of their pre-ERP levels in real terms in 1988-1989.

These side effects notwithstanding, the ERP was generally judged a success by most external commentators, although with some reservations. However, it was recognised by Gambian government that the programme had not even begun to remove the underlying constraints on sustained growth. The aim of the Programme for Sustained Development (PSD), which was adopted in June 1990, with the blessing of IMF, was therefore to accelerate improvement in the living standards of the population by achieving a faster and sustained rate of economic growth. In many respects, the PSD sought to reinforce reforms begun under the ERP. For instance, further fiscal reforms designed to increase tax revenue were introduced, and performance contracts were drawn up or extended with four Parastatals, whereas others were leased or sold off to the private sector. But in addition, the PSD sought to address the social dimensions of adjustment and to alleviate institutional and human resource constraints.

These were determined aims and, in the view of Hughes and Cooker, the record of the PSD prior to the 1994 coup was mixed. On the positive side, the overall balance of payments remained in surplus because of the continued growth of the re-export trade until 1993-1994; inflation remained low and foreign exchange generated by tourism was at higher levels than in the 1980s.

Revenue and profits also increased in the Parastatals where performance contracts had been drawn up. On the other hand, groundnut exports declined after 1989-1990 and the overall value of domestic exports was also lower than in the late 1980s. The fall in the value of re-exports in 1993-1994, owing to the tightening of the Senegalese border restrictions and the devaluation of the CFA Franc, also reduced foreign exchanges.

Notwithstanding the real achievements of The Gambia government's economic recovering policies and programmes, its failure to root out mismanagement in the public sector, together with continuing hardship arising from the implementation of its policies, bred discontent and undermined its authority, providing a motive for disaffected elements within The Gambia Armed Forces to stage a successful Military Coup D'état on Friday July 22, 1994.

### **1.11 Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of this study is to assess the impact of British colonial economic activities on The Gambia in the period, 1816- 1994 and to find out if the post -colonial economic under performance of the country is attributable to colonialism. As The Gambia faces challenges of developing its economy, there may be a compelling need to use better economic policies to enhance development activities. As well, it is the objective of this study to identify the prevailing economic challenges that hinder the viability of The Gambia's economy as a country and make appropriate recommendations that may help put the economy in a better shape.

### **1.12 Statement of Problem**

For a better understanding of The Gambia's current economic situation, it is necessary to analyse the pre-colonial, colonial and post- colonial economic conditions (activities) of the country. Since The Gambia attained independence on February 18, 1965, the nature and impact of colonialism in the country have not been given a critical and thorough assessment. As the country totters for survival in the face of economic meltdown, some people hold the view that colonialism may have played a strong role in determining The Gambia's present economic fate.

While others argue that what The Gambia is today (positively) is attributable to the British who laid the foundation and contributed immensely towards the building of the country.

It is well known that colonialism influenced today's modern Gambia. However, what has remained challenging is the extent to which colonialism has impacted on the country's economic development. Studies by (Bertocchi et al 1996, Beninart, 2000) on the subject of colonialism indicate that considerable gap exists in development between the colonizing and the colonized countries. It seems therefore, the efforts of the Gambian governments to tackle some of its post-independence economic challenges are ineffective and not much has been done to figure out the actual challenges of the economic under performance.

This study may go a long way to dispelling or confirming the strongly held view that the root-cause of economic underdevelopment of The Gambia was largely due to the colonisation of the country by the British.

### **1.13 Significance of Study**

This study investigates the impact of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia with the purpose of identifying development challenges and proffering remedies which may give The Gambia's economy a new face-lift. Besides, this study by its nature, will contribute in appreciable measure; as an additional repertoire to the stock of knowledge concerning the country's economy. However, since a study of this nature cannot claim to have exhausted the contextual relevance of the impact of British economic activities in the country, it is envisaged that it will provoke the hunger for further research on other missing links. Notwithstanding theoretical findings, no empirical work formally links the country's colonial economic activities with its current level of development. Finally, the study is also expected to be of immense benefits to a number of groups such as government, global stakeholders of poverty reduction efforts such as public and private sectors strategists, NGOs, planners, managers, coordinators, UNDP etc.

### **1.14 Research Questions**

Against the background of the contextual problems and challenges of The Gambia's colonial economic science system, these questions have always been recurring and therefore call for detailed answers:

- 1). What are the impacts of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia?
- 2). What are the challenges of economic development of The Gambia?
- 3). Would the post- colonial economic challenges of The Gambia be attributed to Colonialism?
- 4). What considerable steps would be practically appropriate for improving the economy of The Gambia in the short or long run, as the case may be?

### **1.15 Statement of Hypotheses**

As a result of these research questions, the following Hypotheses have been drawn for this study:

#### **Hypothesis 1**

Null (Ho): British colonial economic activities have not had impact on The Gambia.

Alternative (HI): Null (Ho): British colonial economic activities have had impact on The Gambia.

#### **Hypothesis 2**

Null (Ho): The present economic challenges of The Gambia are not attributable to colonialism.

Alternative (HI): The present economic challenges of The Gambia are attributable to colonialism.

#### **Hypothesis 3**

Null (Ho): The Gambia would not have developed better but for colonialism

Alternative (HI): The Gambia would have developed better but for colonialism

#### **Hypothesis 4**

Null (H<sub>0</sub>): There is no significant relationship between the economic development in The Gambia and colonialism in the country.

Alternative (H<sub>1</sub>):

There is a significant relationship between the economic development in the Gambia and colonialism in the country.

#### **1.16 Scope and Methodology of Study**

This research will be anchored within a given historical time frame (1816-1994); a period that marks the beginning of colonialism and the end of The Gambia's 29 years First Republic. It will cover all the five political and administrative regions of the country: North Bank Region (NBR), West Coast Region (WCR), Central River Region (CRR), Lower River Region (LRR) and the Upper River Region (URR) and the Kombo St. Mary's Region; which is made up of Banjul and Kanifing Municipalities.

The methodology of the research is basically diverse; which combines both qualitative and quantitative designs. The study will employ the use of survey questionnaires and structured personal interviews to obtain data from the population sample in all the political and administrative regions of The Gambia.

A 5- point Likert-type Questionnaire will be designed to elicit responses classified into: [Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Strongly Disagree (SD), Disagree (D), and Undecided (UD), from the sample population.

To analyse the data, descriptive statistical Measure of Central Tendency will be employed for Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. While the one -tailed Pearson's Product- Moment Correlation Coefficient at 0.05 level of significance ( $H_0 = 0$ ;  $\alpha = 0.05$ ) will be used for hypothesis 4 to establish the relationship, if any, between the economic development and colonialism in The Gambia.



## **Pre-view of subsequent Chapters**

### **Chapter Two: Review of Related Literature**

- 2. 1 Introduction
- 2.2 Assessment of the Impact of the British colonial economic activities in The Gambia
- 2.3 The Post Colonial economic Under-Performance of The Gambia's Economy
- 2.4 How Colonialism affected Economic Development
- 2.5 Prevailing Economic Challenges that hinder Economic Development in The Gambia
- 2.6 Strategies for Improving the Economy of The Gambia
- 2:7 Conclusion

### **Chapter Three: Research Methodology**

- 3. 1 Introduction
- 3.2 Methods of Data Collection
- 3.3 Descriptive Data
- 3.4 Quantitative Data
- 3.5 Chapter Conclusion

### **Chapter Four: Presentation of Data and Test of Hypotheses**

- 4.1 Introduction
- 4.2 Quantitative Data Analysis
- 4.3 Test of Hypothesis
- 4.4 Chapter Conclusion

### **Chapter Five: Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations**

- 5.1 Introduction
- 5.2 Findings
- 5.3 Conclusion

5.4 Recommendations

5.5 Limitation of Study

Bibliography

Appendices

## **Chapter Two**

### **2.0 Review of Related Literature**

#### **2:1 Introduction**

The advent of colonialism in The Gambia has a mixed impact in the country. It has some positive effects as well as adverse effects and so altered the trajectory of its history forever. This is because its introduction has come with both benefits and shortcomings, such as the establishment of infrastructure and the exploitation of the natural resources of the country. On the overall, the countries modes of thought, patterns of economic, political, social, and cultural developments were mostly affected by the change in political, social and economic paradigm brought about by the British. The Gambia's economy was fundamentally transformed first by the Atlantic Slave Trade through the process of British imperialism and then second, by the unfavourable and exploitative economic tendencies (formula) that accompanied colonialism, which lasted for one hundred and forty nine years (1816 – 1965) in the country.

As the Gambia continues to experience a short fall in its economic growth and development since independence, with many attributing it to colonialism, a statistical description of the economy is required in order to establish the actual impact and connection between colonialism and the country's economic development. This section essentially, therefore, assess the impact of the British colonial economic activities on The Gambia, the post colonial economic under-performance of The Gambia's economy, how colonialism affected economic development, the prevailing economic challenges that hinder economic development in The Gambia and strategies for improving the economy of the country.

## **2.2 Assessment of the Impact of British Colonial Economic Activities in The Gambia**

The purpose of this session is to analyse whether there was a major break with The Gambia's past as a result of the encounter with British colonial economic activities in the country or if colonialism was merely another episode in their economic history. The effects of colonialism past and present are visible all over The Gambia. It is not an overstatement when Edem Kodjo, author of 'Africa Tomorrow' describes the condition of Africans as "torn away from his past, propelled into a universe fashioned from outside that suppresses his values, and dumbfounded by a cultural invasion that marginalizes him. The African... is today the deformed image of others. " However, what is known is that colonialism had very heterogeneous effects, operating through many mechanisms, sometimes encouraging development, sometimes retarding it. In the Gambian case, however, this heterogeneity is muted, making an assessment of the average effects more interesting and could be summarized under:

### **2:2.1 Economic Exploitation**

Colonialism was built and consolidated in The Gambia on the basis of economic exploitation. It was not a benevolent political and economic system that addressed the needs of the colonised. A look at the balance sheet of colonial rule in the country shows that it was very exploitative. For instance, Gambians were not allowed to sell their native products offering higher prices and were not also allowed to buy British goods offering lower prices. This is an unfair economic policy which affected Gambians greatly. The British colonial agricultural and industrial policies in The Gambia have implications for the country's economic advancement. The colonial economic policies in The Gambia, for instance, discouraged indigenous industrialization, but promoted export crop and mineral production to feed the British factories. The colonial territory of The Gambia served, not only as ready source of cheap raw materials to feed the growing industries in Britain and European states, but also as trading post for the British, European traders and merchants, and at the same time supported the importation of end- products because the British wanted an outlet for her own manufactured products in order to stave off declining domestic consumption, and falling rate of profits at home. In either case, the emphasis was on developing the resources for export, not for local use or consumption. Profits from the export of mineral and agricultural goods such as groundnut, palm oil, tin, cotton, beeswax, timber etc were also sent to

Europe. It is argued that the current state of development crisis in The Gambia can be traced to the antecedents of pre-independence unscrupulous economic policies of the British.

## **2: 2.2 Monetization of The Gambian Economy**

One of the most significant and revolutionary changes brought about by colonial rule in The Gambia was the introduction of the British currency system - the pounds sterling which replaced the use of trade by barter and the use of commodities' money. The British deemed it necessary to monetize Gambia's economy in order to integrate it into the world capitalist market system.

Suffice it to say that the monetization of Gambia's economy was another effective instrument or strategy used by the colonialists to take direct effective control of the economic and political administration of the Gambian territory. Using this as bait, they regulated and manipulated the economy of The Gambia to suit their whims and caprices. Interestingly, the currencies introduced in The Gambia were those used by the colonialists back home. It was therefore easy for them to regulate the use and value of the currency.

However, despite the introduction of modern currency, the British made the Pounds- Sterling too difficult for Gambians to obtain. The way they did this was to make the prices of raw materials and agricultural products produced by Gambians to be too cheap. On the other hand, the British made the prices of goods manufactured by them to be high, so that the natives would spend all they had toiled for years to purchase a little of the British goods which were in high demand.

## **2:2.3 Exploitation of Peasants' labour**

Labour exploitation was high in the British colonial agenda in The Gambia. Most capital projects such as road construction, public works and construction of British official quarters used peasants' labour. They were poorly paid and most often subjected to forced labour. One of the strategies used by the colonialists to maintain direct control and administration of Gambian territories was the payment of low wages to Gambians employed in the colonial service. The

manner of treating wage-earners was indeed typical of the whole colonial system in general and a reminiscence of the Trans- Atlantic Slave Trade.

For instance, when the US President Franklin D. Roosevelt visited Gambia on January 13, 1943, he was so appalled by the conditions of Gambians and Gambian labour force that he made this lamentation rhetorically:

'It's the most horrible thing I have ever seen in my life... The natives are five thousand years back of us... The British have been there for two hundred years – for every dollar that the British have put into Gambia, they have taken out ten. It's just plain exploitation of those people.'

He continued, telling his son Elliot, 'I must tell Winston Churchill (referring to the British Prime Minister then) what I found out about his British Gambia today. This morning, at about eight-thirty, we drove through Bathurst to the airfield.' (Elliott notes that it was here that his father began speaking with 'real feeling in his voice'.) 'The natives were just getting to work. In rags ... glum-looking... They told us the natives would look happier around noontime, when the sun should have burned off the dew and the chill. I was told the prevailing wages for these men was one and nine. One shilling nine pence. Less than fifty cents.

'An hour?' Elliott asked.

'A day! Fifty cents a day! Besides which, they're given a half-cup of rice. Dirt. Disease. Very high mortality rate. I asked. Life expectancy – you'd never guess what it is. Twenty-six years. Those people are treated worse than the livestock. Their cattle live longer!' (Adusei, 2009) (Accessed at <http://www.martinfrost.ws/htmlfiles/april/new-africa-colonisers>) This has been the distressing experiences of Gambians in the hands of the British.

## **2:2.4 Establishment of Infrastructure**

The British colonial administration established some level of infrastructure, especially in the urban areas (and not in the interior of the country) during the colonial period in The Gambia. This could be seen in the construction of railways, roads, bridges, telecommunication, electricity,

pipe borne water, modern markets, ports and harbours, etc which were meant to facilitate colonial drive for the exploitation of natural resources of the country. These infrastructures apparently served colonial interests and if Gambians benefitted at all from it, were purely coincidental. Although, these entire infrastructures were built initially to service the minority white colonial community or to support the very small urban settlements, it as well assisted Gambians to acquire important skills by working for colonial bureaucracies. Later, their experience was important in maintaining these infrastructures even after independence.

However, the small patches of infrastructure that the colonial authorities established became the foundation upon which new Gambian leaders built their new institutions. At the same time, colonialism laid the foundation of lopsided provision of social amenities and the urbanization pattern in The Gambia. Most of the little social amenities provided during the colonial period were concentrated at a place, that is, the urban areas. This made most people to migrate from the rural areas where these amenities were virtually non-existent to colonial urban centres where they could be found.

The consequence of this was the struggle for and over-use of these amenities with the attendant overcrowding of the cities. The multiplier effects of this were, but, not limited to rural urban migration, overcrowded cities and towns, filthy and slum environment, poor hygienic condition, spread of epidemic diseases, social vices, urban squalor etc.

### **2:2.5 Introduction of Modern Banking System**

One of the most important benefits of colonialism in The Gambia was the establishment of modern banking system and the introduction of currency of different denominations which replaced the country's traditional means of exchange, such as manilas, cowries' shell, salt, cloth etc as veritable medium of exchange. The earliest forms of currency were 'coins' made of copper or brass rods and sometimes metal tokens. By 1880 coins made of silver, predominantly in the shape of French 5 Franc monetary units, were in widespread circulation. In 1892 the African Banking Corporation was established in Lagos, Nigeria, and one of the Bank's functions was to supply West African countries with new British coins and remove old silver coins from the

monetary supply and send them back to the United Kingdom. In 1894 these functions were given to the Bank of British West Africa.

In 1912 a committee was set up to examine possible ways of establishing a more consistent currency and to establish policies for the future. In 1915 the committee that had now become the West African Currency Board (WACB), updated its established constitution to allow it to issue bank notes. The proposal was put forward that currency notes be issued in each West African colony but that these should be "under the authority of the Currency Board in London". The notes were to be the same design but bearing the differentiating mark of each issuing office. This system stayed in place until 1949. Although, 1 penny and 1 /10th of a penny coin had been issued from 1907, and a 1/2 penny from 1911, the French 5 Franc silver piece was still in widespread use in The Gambia. In 1913 a 3 penny, 6 penny, 1 Shilling and Florin coin were introduced into the country's general cash circulation. An order was thus placed with the London Printers, Waterlow & Sons Ltd., for 2 shilling, 10 shilling and £1 banknotes. These entered circulation in The Gambia towards the end of 1917. With the exception of the 2 shilling note, the reception was generally favourable. The following year when 1 shilling note was printed by the Bank of England it was also found to be as unpopular as the 2 shilling. The year 1919 marked the issue of a £5 note that was withdrawn only four years later through lack of popularity. It was not until 1954 that this note was reissued in The Gambia

The Gambia gained internal self-government in October 1963 and on the orders of the West African Currency Board an order for notes was lodged with a company called Bradbury Wilkinson & Co. Ltd. for 10 shilling, £1 and £5 notes. These were put into issue only four days after the new currency ordinance, that formed The Gambia Currency Board, came into force 1st October 1964. On the 18th February 1965 The Gambia Currency Board issued its own coinage, produced by the Royal Mint, to replace the West African Currency Board coins, on 21st November 1966. (<http://www.accessgambia.com/information/history-gambian-dalasi.html>)

## **2:2.6 Establishment of Marketing Boards.**

Marketing Boards were one of the instruments through which Gambian resources and peasants were exploited. This sector involved the export of resources and other agricultural products out



of the country. Under this system, peasants sold their crops to the British at cheap prices, while buying British goods at exorbitant prices. Agitations by Gambian farmers compelled the colonial government to set up Co-operative Credit Union (CCU) for the sale of their agricultural produce. But this was hijacked by rich Gambian farmers in collaborations with some British merchants and other foreign nationals stationed in Bathurst. For instance, Indians and Lebanese became the major distributors of this sector as they became intermediaries between producers and monopoly buyers. This was facilitated by a credit grant of 90 days. They bought in bulk from the Europeans importers, sold them to retailers who then resold the manufactured goods to the various shops and business outlets scattered all over Bathurst and other towns.

The growth of the export sector on groundnut, cotton, beeswax etc in The Gambia made the country vulnerable to economic exploitation. Minerals and agricultural produce were exported to Britain in large quantities in which profits were maximized at the detriment of native Africans. As a result, frustrated Gambian peasants received little or no profits from their labour.

## **2: 3 Post – Colonial Economic Under- Performance of The Gambia’s Economy**

This section attempts to establish whether the post- colonial economic under-performance of The Gambia’s economy is attributable to colonialism. The decolonization of The Gambia in the 1960s was a watershed experience for the country that witnessed one hundred and forty nine years of unscrupulous economic exploitation in the hands of the British. Despite its susceptible state in 1965; having handed down to succeeding Gambia Government (G.G.) empty treasury to develop the country with, The Gambia’ economy performed reasonably well in the first decade after independence, particularly in the early 1970s. A combination of high output and soaring world prices in groundnut export receipts, which in turn produced large foreign exchange reserves (equivalent to ten months of imports in 1974 – 75) and meant that foreign debt remained low. Moreover, during that period the recurrent budget was usually in surplus and aggregate real income increased substantially as well as per capita income.

The Gambia shortly after independence is mired in an economic under-performance, (not the common narrow monetary or financial crisis portrayed in the standard literature) but a crisis of a more profound and protracted nature. An under- developed economic performance refers to as the generalized incapacity of an economy to generate the conditions necessary for a sustained improvement in the standard of living of the people. The problem is basically structural in nature. The antecedents lay majorly in the colonial period and in the inability of post -colonial Gambia governments to fundamentally transform the economies inherited at independence. While structural adjustment has exacerbated the underlying weaknesses of in The Gambia’s economy, its greatest crime is located in its inherent inability to structurally and institutionally transform its economy after independence. The major reason can be found in its roots that lie in neo-classical economic theory with its misplaced emphasis on balancing financial variables in a hypothetical axiomatic world. Adjustment is simply incapable of either assessing the nature of Gambia’s problems or putting in place the policies that will put the country on a trajectory of sustainable economic development.

Between 1974 and 75, groundnuts accounted for about 78 percent of the value of the total exports in The Gambia. Recorded and estimated re-exports and adjustments accounted for a further 19 percent. Since World War II, there has been a substantial contraband re-export trade

with Senegal and other Francophone colonies, which involved the trans-shipment of rice, flour, and other consumer goods that have been imported into Banjul. By the mid-1960s, the contraband trade between The Gambia and Senegal was estimated to be worth about \$2 million, or 15 percent of Gambian imports. During the 1970s and 1980s, the re-export trade grew in importance; by 1982-83, re-exports accounted for 62 percent of total exports (Gambia Government Data, 1970s & 1980s).

Reforms undertaken as part of the Economic Recovering Programme (ERP), such as the introduction of a flexible exchange rate system in 1986, the removal of trade and exchange restrictions and major cuts in import tariffs, provided a further impetus to the re-export trade, because the costs of importing into the West African region were now much lower via Banjul than through other locations. Economic and political crisis in other countries like Sierra Leone and Liberia also improved Banjul's relative position. As such, re-exports accounted for 88 percent of exports in 1992-993, before falling to an estimated 82 percent in 1994. The downturn in re-export trade occurred basically for political reasons; in August 1993, Senegal tightened its border control following the collapse of the Senegambia Confederation in 1989 and suspended repurchases of the CFA franc and in January 1994, the CFA franc was devalued by 50 percent, which contributed to a weakening of demand for imports, via The Gambia.

The decline of the groundnut sector meant that by 1990-91, it contributed only 14 percent of foreign exchange earnings. Re-exports contributed a further 30 percent. But the main source of foreign exchange was now tourism; travel income contributed 49 percent of foreign exchange earnings in that year. The total number of foreign tourists rose from fewer than 1,000 in 1967 - 68 to nearly 50,000 by 1982 - 83 and then increased rapidly to reach almost 102,000 in 1988-89. The total again exceeded 100,000 in 1990 -91, but then fell back to the levels of the mid-1980s. Following the overthrow of the civilian government in July 1994, nine out of ten tour operators withdrew from the country and the number of tourists fell from 78,000 in 1993-94 to 45,000 in 1994 ( Gambia Central Bank Report, 1975). Consequently, travel income fell by nearly two-thirds.

After 1974 - 75, the overall economic situation began to deteriorate. This was in part caused by external developments. The world oil crises of 1973 sharply raised the foreign exchange cost of fuel (the increase in world oil prices in 1979 had a similar effect) and thus increased the cost of

imports, which in turn fuelled inflation in the urban areas. Moreover, the onset of the prolonged Sahelian drought in the early 1970s affected production of food and export crops and resulted in increased imports of staple foodstuffs. As pointed out, world groundnut prices also declined in the late 1970s and the early 1980s, thereby further reducing the value of exports. Inappropriate government policies were also to blame. Following the introduction of the first Five Year Plan in 1975, government expenditure on development projects, many of which made little net contribution to national income, increased dramatically. Civil service employment also expanded significantly in the 1970s, with most of the Parastatals established in the 1970s making substantial losses between 1979 and 1982. In addition, the exchange rate became overvalued, which boosted the demand for imports and damaged exports. Large-scale public sector corruption, including the Rural Development Project I scandal and large-scale theft in the Gambia Credit Union (GCU), also undoubtedly contributed to economic decline (McPherson and Radelet, 1995).

Until the early 1980s, The Gambia was protected from many of the adverse economic trends earlier mentioned. This was due in part to the foreign exchange reserves it had built up by the mid- 1970s, but mainly resulted from substantial foreign grants and loans after 1975. Between 1975 and 1985, The Gambia received one of the highest levels of per-capita foreign aid in Africa (Radelet, 1995). However, on its debts service obligations, which by 1983, international donors began to withdraw their support as The Gambia fell in arrears in turn further reduced foreign exchange reserves. The government was therefore forced to negotiate a stand-by- agreement with the International Monetary Fund in 1984; the local currency, the Dalasis was devalued by 25 percent to boost exports, but the economy continued to deteriorate. By mid-1985, foreign exchange reserves had fallen to the equivalent of two weeks of imports as foreign debts and external arrears mounted rapidly; inflation had risen sharply since 1984, shortage of basic commodities, such as fuel and rice, sugar, were commonplace, agriculture production was falling, and real per capita income was declining. Arrears to the IMF and other international creditors were also rising rapidly. When it became clear that the government could not meet its obligations, the IMF cancelled its stand-by- agreement. This is because foreign donors made it clear that they would not bail the country out in the absence of IMF support, the government was forced to act. Consequently, in June 1985, the Minister of Finance, Sheriff Ceesay, assembled a task force consisting of senior Gambian officials and two expatriate advisers to develop a reform

program to halt the deterioration of the economy and lay the foundations for sustained economic growth. President Dawda Jawara was then successfully persuaded to endorse the bail-out programme (McPherson and Radelet, 1995).

Although, IMF has no hand in the design of the four-year Economic Recovery Programme (ERP), but was in many ways a typical example of the IMF's Structural Adjustment Programme in Africa. Its key objectives were to reform the exchange rate by devaluing the dalasi, revitalize the agriculture sector through changes in pricing policies and other means; promote other productive sectors such as tourism and fisheries, reduce the size of the civil service, improve the performance of the Parastatals sector, cut the budget deficit through monetary and fiscal policies; re-orientate the public investment programme from new capital projects to rehabilitation and reconstruction; reschedule and refinance the country's external debt.

To actualize these objectives, a series of measures were taken between 1985 and 1989. These measures have been analyzed in detail by McPherson and Radelet and other members of the Harvard Institute of International Development (HIID) team, which acted as consultants to the Ministry of Finance staff between 1985 and 1992. Consequently, only the key reforms were the floating of the Dalasis in January 1986; the signing of performance contracts in 1987 with major Parastatals; job cuts in the civil service in 1986 and a wage freeze until 1989; increased taxes on petroleum and rice; the raising of public transport and electricity prices; and a range of measures to improve agricultural production, including a sharp increase in the producer price for groundnuts in 1986, reform to the groundnut marketing system, and the ending of the Groundnut Produce Marketing Board's monopoly on the export of groundnut products in 1990 (McPherson and Radelet, 1995). The Gambia proved more willing than most African countries to fulfil the requirements of the IMF's Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP). As the HIID study shows, some reforms were more successful than others. Nevertheless, by 1989, the country had experienced an impressive economic recovery programme; the government budget deficit has been reduced, the annual inflation rate, which had risen drastically in the first stages of the ERP to 56.6 percent in 1986, had fallen to 8.3 percent by 1989, being the lowest figure since 1981. As well, agricultural production and export had increased, and foreign exchange reserves have also been built up. Consequently, the confidence of foreign donors has also been restored and the external debt service arrears have been eliminated. One estimate is that real wages in the rural

sector increased by 7 percent due to the introduction of subsidy on groundnuts. However, economic recovery was achieved at a price. The real wages of civil servants and others on fixed incomes had fallen; many of the 3,000 civil servants who had been laid off remained unemployed or at least underemployed, and a quarter of all men aged 20-24 were unemployed in 1993 (McPherson and Radelet, 1995). Expenditures on social services, agriculture, and public works were cut significantly and were about half of their pre-ERP levels in real terms in 1988-1989.

These side effects notwithstanding, the ERP was generally judged a success by most external commentators and international community, although with some reservations. However, it was recognised by The Gambia government that the programme had not even begun to remove the underlying constraints on sustainable economic growth. The aim of the Programme for Sustained Development (PSD), which was adopted in June 1990, with the blessing of IMF, was therefore to accelerate improvement in the living standards of the population by achieving a faster and sustained rate of economic growth. In many respects, the PSD sought to reinforce reforms begun under the ERP. For instance, further fiscal reforms designed to increase tax revenue were introduced, and performance contracts were drawn up or extended with four Parastatals, whereas others were leased or sold off to the private sector. But in addition, the PSD sought to address the social dimensions of adjustment and to alleviate institutional and human resource constraints.

These were determined aims and, in the view of Hughes and Cooker, the record of the PSD prior to the 1994 coup was mixed. On the positive side, the overall balance of payments remained in surplus because of the continued growth of the re-export trade until 1993-1994; inflation remained low and foreign exchange generated by tourism was at higher levels than in the 1980s. Revenue and profits also increased in the Parastatals where performance contracts had been drawn up. On the other hand, groundnut exports declined after 1989-1990 and the overall value of domestic exports was also lower than in the late 1980s. The fall in the value of re-exports in 1993-1994, owing to the tightening of the Senegalese border restrictions and the devaluation of the CFA Franc, also reduced foreign exchanges.

The breakdown of Gambia's economic under-performance in the post-independence period shows the economy has not been viable, except for a short timeframe. Failure to achieve sustained and balanced growth over the 20<sup>th</sup> century contended Stanley and Stein (1970), is as

result of the persistent colonial heritage and informal imperialism. At independence, the post - colonial Gambian government inherited an economy with low levels of education, poorly developed infrastructure, few Gambian entrepreneurs, little technical change in agriculture, undiversified economy with no manufacturing capability, a reliance on one crop (ground) or export earnings and state structures and policies which were quite intrusive and this has continued to have multiplier effects in The Gambia's post- independence economy.

## **2:4 How Colonialism affected Economic Development of The Gambia**

In understanding how Colonialism underdeveloped The Gambia, it is useful to first examine the ways in which the colonizers claimed to have 'developed' the country. Colonialists would have us believe The Gambia was an untamed, savage country before the noble colonialists came to build roads, schools and hospitals; to bring freedom and political structure; to modernize and industrialize; and to teach greater, more civilized cultures, languages, and Christianity. Yet underlying all these claims are the parts of Gambia's history that are often glossed-over or completely omitted: racism, exploitation, oppression, alienation, subordination, and created dependency. Ultimately, the development of The Gambia is one of history's greatest scams, as much of the wealth of European colonial countries was derived from the exploitation of Gambia's labour force and the depletion of its resources. Colonialism affected Gambia's economic development in the following ways:

### **2:4 .1 The Socio-Economic Restructuring of The Gambia**

Walter Rodney explores the question of 'how Europe underdeveloped Africa' in his book of the same title. He begins his argument by looking at the supposed benefits of colonizing Africa. When the British colonizers came to Gambia, the hope of building a more civilized continent was very much a priority; however, when the plans came to fruition, it was easy to tell exactly who would benefit from the "development" and "civilizing." Rodney argues, "the limited infrastructure within Africa during colonial period was distributed in manners that reflected the pattern of domination and exploitation. One clear example is the racial distribution of hospitals; in the case of Nigeria in the 1930s, "the 4,000 Europeans in the country had 12 modern hospitals, while the African population of at least 40 million had 52 hospitals" (Rodney, 1972: 207). The lopsided distribution of hospitals in Nigeria was the same pattern the colonialists used in other African countries. The Gambia for instance, had just two hospitals at independence: the Royal Victoria Hospital (R.V.H) and the Bansang Hospital (B.H.). The building of schools proved a similar pattern; however, the goal was not to provide a well-rounded education for the colonized. Rather, "enlightened self-interest made the colonialists realize that more could be gained out of the Gambian worker who maintained basic health and who had some degree of literacy to assist the British actualize their goals. Gambians who did not labour for the colonialists were rarely



afforded the privileges of health care and or education. Education is an incredibly important part of colonial legacy, and will be discussed in much greater detail below. For now, it will suffice to say that the existence of schools was more symbolic of patterns of exploitation than as a means to raise the literacy rates of the masses or teach Gambians anything relevant to their own lives, or teach any skills necessary to be anything more than a low-ranking labourer in colonial and post-colonial Gambia. The low- ranked labourers and the lopsided infrastructural provision by the British is still affecting the post –colonial Gambia’s development.

#### **2:4.2 Non-Industrialization and Technological Development**

In the pre-colonial Gambian communities there were some level of technological and industrial development which met the socio- economic and political needs of the people. This was reflected mainly in the manufacturing of tools, ornaments, jewelries, arms, implements etc used for different purposes as well as the production of artistic materials. Indeed, even in contemporary times, the relevant aspects of traditional technology to modern living continue to be noticed in most urban and rural Gambia. However, in the modern sense of sophisticated technology and industrialization, defined as the scientific study and use of applied sciences, the application of this to practical tasks of industry and the process of producing goods, especially elude The Gambia. Scanty attention was paid to technology and industrial development by the colonial authorities in The Gambia and the result was that at independence Gambia’s technological and industrial levels were abysmally low compared to the middle –income and developed countries of Europe.

However, Gambia’s low technology and industrial development was similar to what obtained in many other colonies in Africa. This was because the colonial powers were generally not committed to high level technological of their respective colonies (Ake, 1981). In the immediate post- independence period, therefore, a major challenge The Gambia had to face was how to promote rapid technological and industrial development. As this has not been realistic, The Gambia continues to depend heavily on imported goods from Europe which are quite exorbitant. This low level of technological and industrial development has played down on Gambia’s economic performance since independence. Furthermore, the changes in agricultural methods

did not yield advancements in farming technology; Gambian farmers started with a hoe in the pre-colonial period, and still left colonial farms with a hoe after independence.

### **2:4. 3 Dependency Syndrome**

The implication of British colonial agricultural programmes, which emphasized production of cash crops for export and nothing to promote food crop production needed very much by the natives, can be seen in the economy of post-independence Gambia which continues to rely heavily on foreign goods for survival. This was an aspect of economic dependence which was built up by the colonial authorities to the continued disadvantage of Gambia and her people (Aghahowa and Ukpebor, 1999:150; Falola, et al 2007:39)

It is similarly argued that "the factor of dependency made its impact felt in every aspect of the life of the colonies, and it can be regarded as the crowning vice among the negative social, political, and economic consequences of colonialism in the country as a whole, being primarily responsible for the perpetuation of the colonial relationship into the climax that is contemporarily called neo-colonialism.

At independence, what Gambia needed was a deliberate policy designed to transform the colonial economic structure from external dependence towards an economy that is internally oriented. But, it is evident that till today, Gambia's propensity to import remains high. In other words, there have been significant measures to effectively challenge and alter the raw material export versus end -products import policy of the British colonialist, indicating that colonial economic policies are enjoying continuity, indeed, are being intensified in post-independence Gambia.

### **2:4.4 Resources depletion and violent domination**

The rich natural resources offered by the Gambian environment were exploited and exhausted and transported back to Britain. All Gambian resources such as groundnut, cocoa, timber, beeswax, mineral resources such as Iluminite, precious stones, diamond etc all were directed

towards harbours for shipment overseas. Gambians were robbed of land ownership to propel them economically because the British colonisers initiated the seizure of arable lands. With Gambians left to roam unfertile land, the circumstances they encountered forced some of their livestock to die.

When the colonial masters packed up and left Gambia, they left a country that was heavily underdeveloped and in need of serious capital injections. It was therefore forced to the International Financial Institutions (International Monetary Fund & World Bank) for loans, loans that were conditioned with structural adjustment programmes. Ironically enough, these institutions are a symbol of Western economic power and domination, economic power that is partly based on exploiting Gambia's natural resources.

Indeed, what the Gambia got out of colonialism was an abuse of human rights, discrimination, segregation and the complete destruction of any kind of 'development' that might have come from Europe. Amidst these inhuman treatments, overexploitation of resources, leading to resource degradation, it is certainly impossible for meaningful development to take place in the country.

#### **2:4.5 Education**

Colonialism laid the foundation of Gambia's underdevelopment by introducing non-productive educational system in the country. The colonial educational system in The Gambia was designed mainly for Gambians to learn the master's language, norms and traditions through literature in order to equip them to read, write and take up instructions for work performance. This then led to the production of professional workers, who can only perform best when given instructions. This sort of transformation that took place in The Gambia could not help the country revolutionize and modernise the economy to meet the demands of the growing society. In fact, this type of education was not only aimed at solving the problem of language barrier which posed very serious challenge to the colonial administration. It was not intended to meet the needs and aspirations of Gambians who thirsted for growth and development in their country. Colonial

education has no provision for science and technology education which had helped European countries to leap far ahead of Africa.

Again, the curricula of schools in The Gambia during the colonial era were not in balance with the needs and aspirations of the people as the platform for a “knowledge economy” was not really created. It could not offer opportunities for new and improved way of life, even in the face of breakthroughs in science and technology. In today’s modern world the balance between knowledge and resources has shifted so far that knowledge has become perhaps the most veritable factor determining the standard of living more than land, tools, and labour.

Colonial legacies like boundary disputes, urbanization, missionary activities and western education have not provided an environment for sustainable development as it not address the aspiration of indigenous Gambians. Rather the influence of British education gave rise to what Uche (1980) referred to as the “marginal man”. “A sociological term meaning a minority in a society who share the preferred culture to a significant degree, but are blocked from full participation”. The Colonial Education Policy resulted in cultural, economic and social division in The Gambian society between those who went to school and those who could not.

#### **2:4.6 Financial Bankruptcy**

The British colonial government left empty treasury for the succeeding Gambian government at independence. This meant that that the new government has no financial resources to work with in the development of the country and therefore resorted to borrowing money from international financial institutions such as World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), Paris Club etc for development projects, which has continued till today. The British maintained that The Gambia should be financially self-supporting. This meant that the colonial power was not interested in the economic development of the colony as each colony was to rely on its own resources for its development of agriculture, communications and social services like education and health. In other words, each colony was mandated to generate money with which to run the colony and meet other overhead costs.

The economics of colonialism was responsible for today's economic gap between the average living standard in Britain and in The Gambia. At independence in 1965, the conditions of the Gambian peasantry were roughly the same as they had been 200 years earlier — maybe a little better, maybe a little worse. The colonial era which had enriched thousands of British investors and administrators, left the Gambian peasants stuck in absolute and perennial poverty. Underdevelopment is nothing to do with a lack of talents, skills or energy by the people of a country but like modern industrial development, it is a product of an economic system, capitalism. The story of development and underdevelopment therefore is the story of how capitalism's drive to expand production has worked its way unevenly, creating huge material advances in Britain while simultaneously creating ruin in The Gambia in particular and Africa as a whole.

## **2:5 Prevailing Economic Challenges which hinder Development in The Gambia**

The greatest constraints to Gambian's growth and development can be attributed to both internal influences and external dimensions. The debate on the causes of Gambia's slow growth rate and development has offered many different explanations. Perhaps, the greatest weakness in these explanations is the striking lack of precision with which the reasons for the slow growth of Gambian development were expressed. To anyone who knows the history of Gambia, the question has always been: why has the country grown and developed slowly? What went wrong in Gambia? What are the challenges to Gambia's economic development? The answer to the above questions can best be understood from multidimensional explanations, as presented below:

### **2: 5.1 Colonial Heritage**

Colonization of Africa in general by Europeans was a critical factor in its development. Virtually, everything that has gone wrong in The Gambia since the advent of independence has been blamed on the legacies of colonialism. Undoubtedly, there was massive exploitation of Gambia's resources, labour, unfair taxation, lack of industrialization, the prohibition of inter-Gambian trade and the introduction of fragile and monoculture economy. The emphases on cash crops production as against industrial goods have continued to have lingering effects on the post-independence Gambia. Gambia's economy at independence were centred on the production and export of a single commodity, be it agricultural or mineral resources, could hardly go a long way in meeting the county's financial obligations and development challenges.

Colonialism itself was a means of exploiting the resources of the colonized. The British purchased Gambia's raw materials at little or no price, exported it to Europe, transformed into finished goods and exported it back to the country and sold at exorbitant prices. Again, colonies were not to sell their raw materials offering higher prices and conversely, Gambians were not allowed to buy European goods offering lower prices. This was an unfavourable trade terms that smacks of despicable exploitation.

No doubt, the riches of Gambia and her raw materials fuelled the economy of imperialist British. The British Prime Minister, Sir Winston Churchill bore testimony to this fact when he said:

*“Our possession of the West Indies gave us the strength, the support, but especially the capital, the wealth, at the time when no other European nations possessed such reserve, which enabled us to come through the great struggles of the Napoleonic Wars”. The keen competition of commerce in the 18th and 19th centuries enabled us not only to acquire this appendage of possessions which we have, but also to lay the foundations of that commercial and financial leadership which when the world was young,...enabled us to make our great position in the world". Coblentz, 1959).*

If the British laid the foundation of their economic wealth during the possession of West Indies, then the colonization of the massive African territories could have consolidated such gains and strongly facilitated growth, but also diminished African economic development which had continued to hunt it.

### **2:5.2 Lack of Skilled Manpower and Brain Drain**

One of the foremost factors that account for the economic underdevelopment of The Gambia is the apparent lack of skilled and educated manpower. The percentage of Gambians who can read and write at independence is awfully low. According to UNESCO, one of the most important factors of economic production and economic growth is people. All production depends on human labour. Specialized production is also dependent on a skilled and educated workforce. However, most colonial governments spent very little money on schooling. Consequently, at independence, The Gambia faced a severe shortage of skilled people, an absolute necessity for economic growth and development. To give just one example, at independence in 1965, The Gambia as a country had fewer College graduates. This was ostensibly due to the fact that there was no University education in the country until in 1999; when the University of The Gambia was established. Skill shortages affect growth through their adverse effects on labour productivity.

The movement of skilled human capital from The Gambia to Europe and Americas – known as ‘brain drain’– has increased in the last four decades developments and strikingly affecting economic development. This exodus has affected the capacity of The Gambia government to deliver quality public services effectively and efficiently and contribute to the skill-pool-

requirements of the private sector. The exact number of skilled human capital leaving Gambia has not been carefully monitored and documented. However, the African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF) has estimated that Africa loses an average of 20 000 skilled personnel a year to developed countries, excluding students who leave to study abroad (CFA 2005).

The failure of the tertiary sector to produce the requisite skills for a growing modern economy is fuelled by the poor quality of matriculants, weak management and poor academic performance at senior levels, and weak linkages between tertiary institutions and the private sector. There is a general malaise in producing the skills essential to a modern competitive economy.

### **2:5.3 Unemployment**

Despite the reduction of unemployment from 31% in 1989 to 23% in 1992, unemployment is still unacceptably high in The Gambia. Nearly a quarter of the working-age population looking for work is unsuccessful. Unemployment is further exacerbated by the global economic crisis, which has led to a drop in demand for primary exports in the resources sector and also due to the fact the country has few industries that can employ many job seekers. The problem is particularly concentrated among the young, among women, and among the unskilled. There is a very high association between poverty and unemployment; most of the unemployed are concentrated in the poorest households. Unemployment in the lowest-income quintile (fifth) is 72%, compared with just 7% in the top quintile.

Unemployment is closely linked to a lack of skills and education. The unemployment rate among those with university degrees is only 3%, for those with matric it is 28%, but for those without matric it is over 60%. Overall, there is an extremely high rate of unemployment among the

youth. Over 50% in the 20 - 24 age categories are unemployed. The demographic "youth bulge" indicates that it will pose even more severe problems later on, in terms of labour market supply and social cohesion, as the generation of unskilled, unemployed youth grows older. One of the most undesirable outcomes of youth unemployment is the rapid rise of petty crime and drug abuse in The Gambia. There is a linkage between youth unemployment and an increase in crime in the country.



### **2:5.4 Hostile Global Economic System**

The Gambia as a developing country is also caught up in the harsh global economic system which affects its development efforts. The main elements of the hostile global order include, first, the fact that Gambian economies are integrated into the global economy as exporters of primary commodities and importers of manufactured products, leading to terms of trade losses. Reinforcing this, secondly, have been the policies of liberalisation, privatization and deregulation as well as an unsound package of macro-economic policies imposed through structural adjustment conditionalities by the World Bank and the IMF. These have now been institutionalised within the World Trade Organization (WTO) through rules, agreements and procedures, which are biased against developing countries. The external and internal policies and structures have combined to generate unsustainable and unjustifiable debt burden which have crippled Gambia's economy and undermined the capacity of Gambia's ownership of strategies for development.

The external difficulties have exacerbated the internal structural imbalances of economies, and, together with neo-liberal structural adjustment policies, inequitable socio-economic and political structures, have led to the disintegration of Gambia's economy and increased social and gender inequity. In particular, the manufacturing industries have not been there at the outset; agricultural production for food and other domestic needs is in crisis; public services have been severely weakened; and the capacity of states and governments in Africa to make and implement policies in support of balanced and equitable national development emasculated.

### **2:5.5 Leadership Challenge**

Just like many African countries are enmeshed in leadership failure, The Gambia is no exception. Given Jawara's prolonged political survival under difficult circumstances, one might expect the Gambian leader to have possessed exceptional political qualities. Jawara did possess three advantages; the same advantages which had prompted his selection as party leader in 1959. First was his protectorate birth and Mandinka ethnic identity; Jawara personified the PPP's early electoral appeal to protectorate, and specifically Mandingo, sensibilities. His personal connections in the rural areas cultivated during his travels as a senior veterinary officer during

the second half of the 1950s were seen as an additional electoral asset. Eclipsing both these attributes, however, was Jawara's graduate status. Whereas most PPP members shared the same ethnic background, few could claim to have been educated beyond high school. Jawara's university education both distinguished him from his colleagues and outweighed the fact that it was others who had initiated political activities within the protectorate

Good economic performance in any given country is a function of leadership. The real bane of Gambia's economic challenges is leadership. The country lacks visionary and pragmatic leaders who have astute qualities to turn around the economy and the social lives of the people for the better. For instance, in the First Republic Gambia, the president D.K. Jawara was so myopic that he could not see the crying need to build infrastructure and a University for the country. During his regime which lasted for 29 years, it was only the capital and its adjoining towns which had basic social facilities. The rest of the country was in darkness. The Gambia's First Republic was marked by backwardness, ineptitude, indecision and lack. Equally, the government was an elitist democracy that favoured unscrupulously only the inner caucus of his government.

The Second Republic Gambia under Yahya AJJ Jammeh has aptly been described as the last vestige of military dictatorship in West Africa. He is one of the ruling presidents in West Africa who came to power through Military Coup D'état. Since then his government whether as a military or civilian leader has been marked with high-handedness. According to United States Annual Country Reports on Human Rights Practices for 1994, The Gambian government has been characterized with the most serious human rights problem in the country such as the government's harassment and abuse of its critics; torture, arrest and detention.

## **2: 5.6 Corruption**

For many years observers viewed corruption in The Gambia as significantly less prevalent than in many other African states. In retrospect this view appears overstated, though it is true that corruption did not reach the heights seen elsewhere. Jawara himself refrained from excessive self-enrichment and many of his lieutenants followed suit. Conflicting survival imperatives—in particular, the need for foreign aid and popular support, both of which were unlikely to be forthcoming under a thoroughly corrupt regime, persuaded Jawara to set some limits on

“allowable” corruption. The possibility of exposure in parliament or by the press provided a further constraint. Nevertheless, events during the closing years of the People’s Progressive Party rule together with post-coup revelations and inquiries suggest that corruption was both a significant phenomenon and one which played an important role in the People’s Progressive Party’s survival.

Corruption has become a threatening issue in The Gambia’s economic development. The little resources that the country could be endowed with are misappropriated by the power- brokers and bureaucrats. With respect to corruption in the country, public office- holders operate within two contexts: the first is that of the general view to corruption, which condemns it. The other is the private domain, the ethnic groups or the extended family, which benefits from the fruits of corruption and therefore encourages it. In those circles, an office holder who does not deliver by partaking in looting the national treasury (‘national cake’ as often described), is often thought to be weak, foolish, and at best naïve.

Initially, then, corruption played a significant part in the survival of the People’s Progressive Party, uniting political, bureaucratic and business interests in a series of mutually beneficial and supportive relationships. In the longer term, however, it served to undermine the regime. Perhaps the first indication of this occurred in 1981 when, during the coup attempt of that year, Kukoi Samba Sanyang cited “corruption and the squandering of public funds” as a primary motive of intervention. No doubt there was a strong element of opportunism in Sanyang’s actions, yet the fact that he seized upon corruption as a suitable justification for his actions reflected increasing public awareness of the problem. The increased public awareness of corruption weakened the People’s Progressive Party regime and furnished the 1994 Military conspirators with a suitable pretext for intervention.

## **2: 6 Strategies for Improving the Economy of The Gambia**

Undoubtedly, colonialism has come and gone in The Gambia but its landmarks and legacies continue to hunt the country. Colonialism in Africa as a whole is very enigmatic due to the fact that it is a time past and time present hybrid event. The end of British hegemony in The Gambia and the decolonization of the continent enjoy a paradoxical dual attraction: by definition a past event, it nevertheless remains a matter of recent experience; current interest and contemporary debate, however incomplete in the record, and ambivalent in its interpretation. It is therefore on the basis of these consequences that colonialism has become an easy explanation for Gambia's underdevelopment. As a result, the following steps could be taken to put The Gambia's economy on as sound footing:

### **2:6.1 Diversifications of the Economy**

The Gambia as a country has mono-crop production structures, particularly for the export of groundnut as a major earner of foreign exchange. This single product accounts for about 70 per cent of the country's total export, followed by tourism. In most cases, export earnings from one single commodity are as high as 70 per cent of GDP. Statistical evidence on economic activities in the 1960s and 1970s and beyond shows that Gambia's growth has been largely dependent on the growth of primary commodity production and exports. Also, since the bulk of Gambia's trade has been with developed market economies, Gambia's past growth performance was clearly linked to growth in these countries. Such a pattern of primary commodity export-led growth was the major structural cause of the Gambian crisis of the early 1980s. This was the direct consequence of the declining growth performance in developed countries from about 8 per cent in the early 1970s to about 5 per cent or less recently which has led to a declining demand for these primary commodities as well as a decline in their real prices. The overall result was a steady decline in primary commodity production and exports as the engine of growth in the country; a trend that is likely to prevail over a long period. A basic requirement for economic recovery and long-term development is therefore for The Gambia to seek an alternative growth pattern, such as the diversification of the economy. The production of other crops like cotton, palm oil, cashews, sesame, maize, Timber, expansion of the fisheries etc can go a long way to improving the economy of the country. With the global food prices on the rise and The Gambia

being a net importer of food, the country will be better served by reviving its agricultural sector by introducing mechanized and commercial agriculture as against the subsistence farming that is currently in the country.

### **2:6.2 Boosting Education and Training**

Education and training are clearly connected to economic performance, development and growth. Regardless of the particular method used to measure this contribution, education and its effects on labour quality are generally found to be among the most important contributors of economic growth. Economists have tried to measure the sources of economic growth by analyzing changes in the quality of labour and capital, changes in the economic and policy environment and technical progress. This approach, known as growth accounting was spurred by the realization that the growth of real income per capita over the last century cannot be explained by capital accumulation or more labour input alone. It has provided some of the most cited estimates of education's role in economic growth.

Apparently, education is a high impact factor on economic growth and development. Workforce with high tech skills can transform the economy to a veritable level. The education and training of a country's work force is a major factor in determining just how well the country's economy will do. For instance, as the labour supply increases, more pressure is placed on the wage rate. In general, educated and well-trained workers tend to be more productive and earn more money than workers with poorer training and education. A successful economy has a workforce capable of operating industries at a level where it holds a competitive advantage over the economies of other countries. To achieve this, The Gambia government may try incentivizing training and encourage qualitative education. Against this backdrop, if The Gambia would boost of more educated workforce it will translate into a more efficient economy. This includes boosting tertiary and technical education and supporting research and development in high-growth sectors in The Gambia.

### **2:6 .3 Industrializing Gambia's Economy**

An important step that could be taken to build the economy of The Gambia is through the industrialization of the economy. The failure of the industrial sector in the country to become a complementary or alternative engine of growth to agriculture, manufacturing, and mining is another major challenge for the economic recovery of the country. The sector is comparatively small and enclave. The Gambia apparently lacks basic industries that could produce consumable goods. Virtually, all products, as insignificant as candles, tooth picks, eggs, matches, etc are imported. To worsen it, it is made mostly of import substitution industries for goods that are consumed mainly by urban minorities, and of export promotion industries for semi-processed raw materials. A major structural weakness of the industrial sector has been the neglect of intermediate and capital goods industries and of industries for large consumption. While the first category is essential to increased agricultural production and productivity, the second is necessary for satisfying the potential demand resulting from the increase of rural incomes. The Agricultural revolution – ‘Back to Land’ and ‘Operation Feed Yourself’, as envisioned by the President, Yahya AJJ Jammeh ; with its two components (i.e. increased yields and productivity, and improved living standards of rural people) requires an inward-looking industrial development strategy for the country.

### **2:6.4 Corruption Free Gambia**

Corruption is now widely recognized as one of the greatest barriers to prosperity, economic competitiveness and development, and political and social stability of The Gambia. The key question now is not whether we should combat it or whether it is important—but how it can effectively be combated? With the advent of new tools like the UN Convention Against Corruption (UNCAC), reinforced by the recent efforts of the G8, the World Bank and civil society groups such as Transparency International and CIPE, a successful battle against corruption will entail strong public-private partnerships to sustain efforts on all fronts.

With respect to the Gambian Government, manifesting political will by enforcing anti-corruption laws, prosecuting corruption, and denying safe haven to corrupt officials, those who corrupt them, and their illicitly-acquired assets, will be indispensable. The G8 Leaders’ recent attention

to fighting high-level corruption, coupled by the newly-announced U.S. National Strategy to internationalize Efforts Against Kleptocracy, underscores the importance of involving international partners, including multilateral financial institutions. Civil society organizations will need to remain vigilant in testing the resolve of governments, exposing kleptocratic activities and building awareness on the costs of corruption to communities. The private sector must also play an important role in actively bringing about more honest governance and transparency reforms. Free markets and broad prosperity cannot be achieved without eliminating corruption. In The Gambia, the private sector can have a positive impact to help safeguard market integrity.

### **2:6.5 Generating Capital for Development**

As indicated earlier, The Gambia is a poor country with little or no money to spend on capital intensive projects and other meaningful programmes which can benefit the poor masses. In this regard, government can generate income through increase in export commodities as to attract the much needed foreign exchange. Similarly, the idea of importing everything that is needed in the country should be discontinued, and in place of it, more industries should be built to manufacture those basic goods and services consumed locally. This will conserve the hard earned foreign exchange in the country. Again, if capital is generated, it should be properly utilized. Equally, there is the need for proper economic planning at government level. Such planning should take cognizance of the nation's priorities, avoiding white elephant projects for mere prestige and patronage. Only projects that aim at raising the living standard of the population and consolidating the country's development efforts should be continued.

The idea of soliciting for foreign loans should be discontinued or minimized. This is because foreign loans usually impose on the recipient country certain stringent conditions and obligations such as the devaluation of the local currency, reduction of the country's work force, removal of petroleum subsidy and to toe certain political lines or ideologies etc. In that case, surely, it would be difficult for a receiver nation to oppose the stand taken by its benefactor (s) on major world issue or in international diplomacy and politics. This definitely compromises its sovereignty and

independent status. All these conditionalities play down on the country's economic growth in the long run.

## **2:7 Conclusion**

This chapter has examined related literature on British colonial economic activities from The Gambian and African perspectives. The past forty nine years have seen The Gambia struggle to break out of a colonial economic system never designed to foster state growth. This system is based on resource extraction and creating imperial wealth. Once The Gambian independence era began in earnest during the second half of the twentieth century then began the issue of adjusting to their new status outside the colonial economic system. This has not been an easy task to accomplish due to the fact that economic independence by nature takes longer to establish itself than political independence. The post independence reconstruction of Gambia's economy has been one of many challenges which many attribute to colonialism. Specifically, this section assessed the impact of the British colonial economic activities in The Gambia, the post colonial economic under-performance of The Gambia's economy, how colonialism affected economic development, the prevailing economic challenges that hinder economic development in The Gambia and strategies for improving the economy of The Gambia.



## **Chapter Three**

### **3. 0 Data Collection and Presentation**

#### **3. 1 Introduction**

This chapter discusses the procedures and strategies by which this research was conducted with a justification for the chosen approach. It addresses the research methods adopted for capturing the data required to achieve the research objectives. The methodology of the research is basically diverse and robust; which combines both qualitative and quantitative studies. The study employs the use of structured questionnaires, personal interviews, and secondary data to obtain data from the population sample in support of the research. The qualitative research method was used in this study to identify strategies that would assist in identifying the actual impact of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia. Based on the discussions in the previous chapters, the interpretive philosophical paradigm within a qualitative methodology was selected as the most appropriate for this study. Klein and Myers (1999) noted that interpretive research can help colonial economic activities researchers to understand human thoughts and actions in colonial contexts. Also, the research is investigative and descriptive in nature and will assist in understanding emerging issues that are related to the subject. It is also designed to establish the correlation, if any, between colonialism and economic development in The Gambia.

Impact assessments are at the core of intervention aiming at achieving particular goals. Indeed, the entire justification of a research of this nature depends largely on whether it is able to achieve positive impacts. The major challenge of impact assessments –and that is one of the major reasons for a lack of proper impact assessments with many researchers is to link the major thrust of the research activities to specific outcomes. Too often, the reasons for change are due to external (and thus un-observable) factors and not the intervention per se. The conduct of proper impact assessments thus remains a difficult but nonetheless manageable task.

In recent years, colonialism has been included in a number of empirical studies, often from an economic perspective. While many of these studies discuss the effects of colonialism on long-term post-colonial developments, but there has been less efforts to measure the impact of colonialism during the colonial period. More often, the impact of colonialism is described rather

than measured. A literature overview nevertheless offered a broad variety of suggestions for important variables. We hereafter present just the most central facts and arguments for adopting the methods and methodologies that were used in this thesis.

The purpose of this background note is to present the major challenges involved with assessing the impact research and to present some practical steps taken to address the challenges. The central challenge of any research intervention is the problem of attribution, namely the challenge to establish (and assess) the causality between issues of research and the observed outcomes. The impact of an intervention is the difference between the observed outcomes with the intervention and the outcomes without the intervention. Again, the results obtained cannot be generalized and not all studies are susceptible to case study as well as time involved. The major difficulty is to separate internal factors from external factors. In other words, a precise causality needs to be established between the issue of research and potential outcomes/ impacts. Normally, the causality links are underlying in every research endeavour and are established during such a causality link in most researches. Among the reasons is that causality chains are seldom linear; often, contextual factors influence outcomes to a large extent, which makes it also difficult to compare.

Based on the above serious drawbacks, I had to choose and utilize the survey method as the basic approach of the study. The method attempts to be fairly representative of the population of interest in its selection of its sample of study. A survey according to Ezejule and Ogwo (1990:72) “simply consists of collecting data or information about a large number of people by interviewing or contacting a representative sample of them.” They further attested to its popularity amongst researchers that “the survey as pointed out is so popular amongst researchers, that it is often mistaken as being synonymous with all descriptive research.” Its major attractions are its relatively low cost considering the fact that useful information was collected about a large number of people from a relatively small number (representative sample); it was easy to generalize the findings to larger populations once representativeness of the sample was assured; and the flexibility of surveys meant that a variety of data collection instruments – observation, interviews, questionnaires, could be used. This allowed one instrument to serve as a check on the other.

In fact, research in itself is a means by which difficult problems are solved in the attempt to push back the frontiers of human ignorance and expand the frontiers of knowledge. It is simply a systematic quest for undiscovered truth and a search for answers to many questions. In pursuit of this undiscovered truth, a researcher needs facts, published documents from primary and secondary sources.

It is of utmost importance that the researcher takes proper care of the sources of his data, knowing very well that it reflects on the final result of the work and if the data is faulty, certainly, the result will also be faulty (Osuola, 1991). Therefore, in carrying out this study, two kinds of data collection methods were employed. These are primary and secondary. The nature of each of these will be discussed in the subsequent section.

From the preceding literature review, it was found that despite the extensive research on colonialism, very little is known about the actual impact of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia. Therefore, there are pertinent questions that require answers in assessing the impact of British economic colonialism to development. Some of which include the following:

- What are the impacts of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia?
- What are the challenges in the economic development of The Gambia?
- Would the post- colonial economic challenges of The Gambia be attributed to Colonialism?
- What considerable remedies would be practically appropriate for putting the economy of The Gambia on a sound footing in the short or long run, as the case may be,

Impact study can also explore unintended consequences whether positive or negative on beneficiaries. In planning for this study, cognizance was given to the main output and impact indicators. Furthermore, attempt was made to establish a hierarchy of indicators ranging from

short-term impact indicators to longer term indicators. The research method adopted aimed at reviewing the various strategies and techniques of achieving the objectives of the study as earlier stated. Also, attempt was made to explain in clear terms the various methods adopted in obtaining information and data from the target respondents. The information and data generated were subjected to statistical analysis for effective interpretation. Simple statistical methods were adopted in addition to qualitative analysis.

For the purpose of understanding properly the impact of the British colonial economic activities in The Gambia's economy at large; it is important to explain in detail colonialism as it concerns The Gambia. Colonialism is a form of temporary extension of domination by a stronger people over other weak people and as such part of the historical universe of forms of intergroup domination, subjugation, oppression, and exploitation (cf. Horvath 1972). From a world -systems perspective, much of the history of the capitalist world -economy is a history of colonialism, consisting of repeated and more or less successful attempts by the core to create a periphery, to control it politically in order to exploit it economically (cf. Sanderson 2005: 186f). Both the capitalist and recapitalist world-systems have had colonial empires (Chase-Dunn/Hall 1997: 210). However, we are more specifically interested in the impact of British colonialism in its heydays between mid-19<sup>th</sup> and mid-20<sup>th</sup> century, what Bergesen and Schoenberg (1980) have identified as the second wave of colonial expansion and contraction (1826-1969). This is the period of extension and intensification of colonial domination during which "colonial economic development took a new direction. The extensive penetration of Western commodities, organization, and control ushered in the era of the export economy, during which colonialism reached its peak. Our sample is broadly defined as the parts of the modern world-system which were under colonial control in the 19th/20th century.

It relates to the British activities in Africa during the period under review. Colonialism involves the establishment and maintenance of foreign rule over a set of people for the purpose of getting maximum economic benefit by the colonizing power (Fadeyiye, 2005:161). To Aderibigbe (2006:164), colonialism is the extension of political control by one powerful nation over a weaker nation. These foreign immigrants dominated the countries where they have settled not only politically, but also socially and economically. In order to sustain their domination, they

seized the lands of people, settled there and imposed various forms of taxes and administration. In another way, colonialism referred to as the rule of a group of people by a foreign power. Giving that situation, the people and their lands make up a Colony (for coastal/ urban areas) and or Protectorate (for rural or provinces). The foreign power sends people to live in the colony to govern it and to use the colony as a source of wealth (Word Book Encyclopaedia, 1992). In the view of Akorede (2010: 158), colonialism can be seen as one country's domination of another country or people. This is often achieved through aggressive military actions. Colonialism also involves the control or domination of the political, social, economic and cultural aspects of one group of the people or nation by another. This is manifested in colonial rule which is guided by the colonial policy of the colonizing nation (Akpan 2003:40). It is of great importance to identify the point that colonialism implies formal political control involving territorial annexation and loss of pre-existing independence and sovereignty.

It is the establishment and maintenance, for an extended time, of rule over an alien people that is separate from and subordinate to the ruling power. One can argue here that colonialism is no longer closely associated with the term "colonization," which involves the massive settlement abroad of people from a mother country, as in the case of the ancient Greek colonies or the Americas and in the modern Africa, British settlements in South Africa, Southern Rhodesia(now Zimbabwe), Kenya etc. Colonialism has now come to be identified with rule over peoples of different race inhabiting lands separated by salt water from the imperial centre; more particularly, it signifies direct political control by European states or states settled by Europeans, as the United States or Australia, over peoples of other races, notably over Asians and Africans. To this category should be added Japan's rule over her dependent territories, lost after World War II.

Some further features of the "colonial situation" are: domination by an alien minority, asserting racial and cultural superiority, over a materially inferior native majority; contact between a machine-oriented civilization with Christian origins, a powerful economy, and a rapid rhythm of life and a non-Christian civilization that lacks machines and is marked by a backward economy and a slow rhythm of life; and the imposition of the first civilization upon the second (Balandier 1951, p. 75).

Colonialism is generally used to describe European imperialists' policy practice whose primary aims and focus are the acquisition of colonies for its economic exploitation and manipulation. One of the difficulties in defining colonialism is the fact that it is difficult to differentiate it from imperialism. Like colonialism, imperialism also involves political and economic control over a dependent territory (Kohn, 2012). According to Kohn, the practice of colonialism usually involves the transfer of population to a new territory, where the new arrivals live as permanent settlers while maintaining political allegiance to their country of origin. Imperialism, on the other hand draws attention to the way that one country exercises power over another, whether through settlement, sovereignty, or indirect mechanisms of control. However, for the purposes of this dissertation, colonialism is the extension of a nation's sovereignty over territories beyond its borders by the establishment of either settler colonies or administrative dependencies in which indigenous populations are directly ruled or displaced. In this case, colonizers generally dominate the resources, labour and markets of the colonial territory and may also impose socio-cultural, religious and linguistic structures on the conquered population. It is also seen as the management, exploitation, preservation, acquisition, and expansion of colonies in one territory by stronger people from other territories, especially from Europe. It could be seen as a practice of domination, which involves the exploitation and subjugation of group of people found within a geographical location. The relationship between the colonized and the colonizing powers is usually unequal and unparallel. For instance, the relationship between African countries and the colonizing European powers during the colonial period was a case of master- servant relationship. Colonialism could also exist when a powerful country takes over a less powerful country and begins to rule that country as a subordinate; all the resources of the colonized country are controlled by its colonial superior. (Available at <http://answers.yahoo.com/question/index?qid=20080803195217>).

The imposition of colonial rule might explain why most Gambians have adopted western models and values, to the detriment of their native values. It altered the pre-existing political, economic, social, religious and cultural practices in The Gambia and exposed it to the exploitative and capitalist gimmicks of the western world. As a result, the country was made vulnerable to the power-play of the British (United Kingdom) to this day.

In broad terms, colonialism is Western ideology with a political-economic phenomenon whereby various European nations explored, conquered, settled, and exploited large areas of the world. The age of modern colonialism began about 1500, following the European discoveries of a sea route around Africa's southern coast (1488) and of America (1492). With these events, sea power shifted from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic and to the emerging nation-states of Portugal, Spain, the Dutch Republic, France, and England. By discovery, conquest, and settlement, these nations expanded and colonized throughout the world, spreading European institutions and culture (Webster, 2003 (Available at <http://www.britannica.com/EBchecked/topic/126237/colonialism-Western> A notable example was in Africa during the scramble and partition for Africa in which these world super powers divided massive Africa into regions that they could colonize. At first, the countries followed mercantilist policies designed to strengthen the home economy at the expense of rivals, so the colonies were usually allowed to trade only with the mother country. By the mid-19th century, however, the powerful British Empire gave up mercantilism and trade restrictions and introduced the principle of free trade, with few restrictions or tariffs here and there.

Overall, colonialism lasted as much as it did in The Gambia but the actual impact (positive or negative) has not been harnessed through an empirical research that adopts multi-dimensional approach to investigation. Multimethodology or multimethod research includes the use of more than one method of data collection or research in a research study or set of related studies and mixed methods research is more specific in that it includes the mixing of qualitative and quantitative data, methods, methodologies, and/or paradigms in a research study or set of related studies. One could argue that mixed methods research is a special case of multimethod research. Another applicable, but less often used label, for multi or mixed research is methodological pluralism. All of these approaches to professional and academic research emphasize that monomethod research can be improved through the use of multiple data, methods, methodologies, perspectives, standpoints, and paradigms. It is therefore a synthesis of styles (methods) that has become more popular for research movement in the behavioural, human social, business, and health sciences.

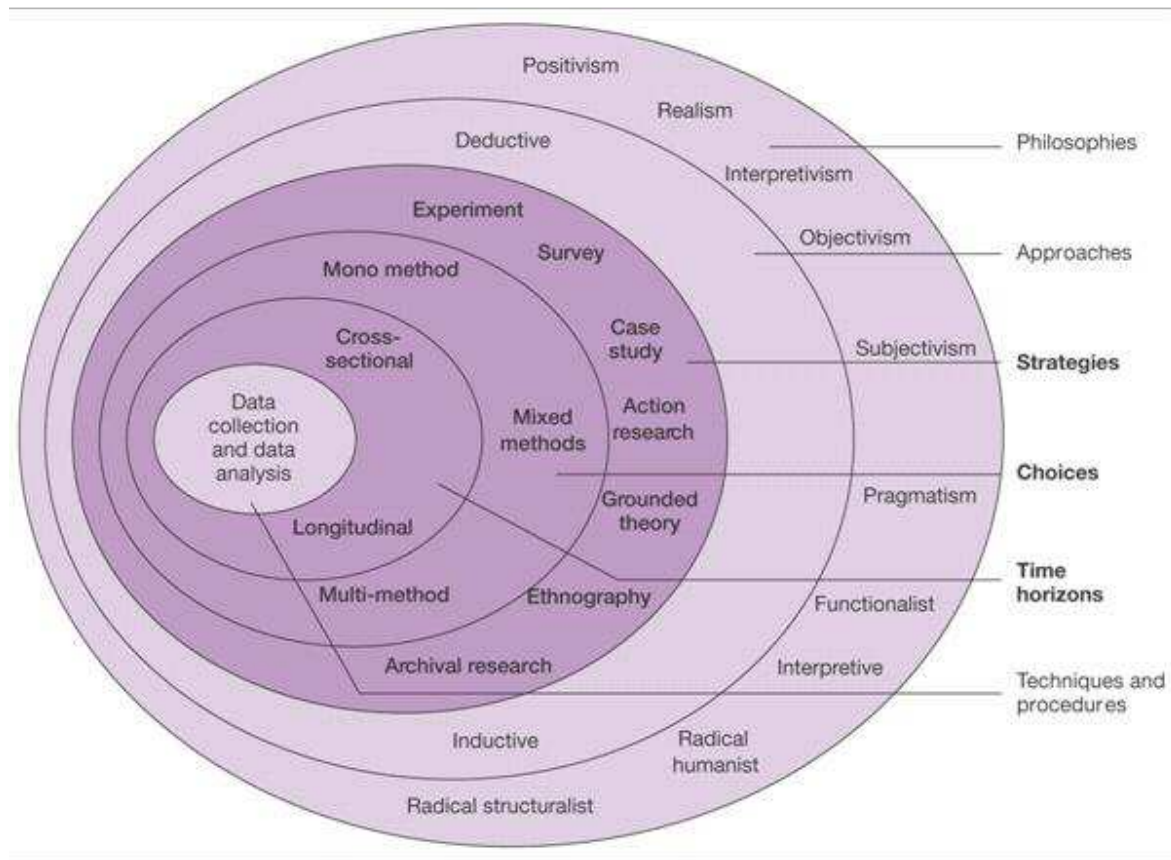
### **3:1.2 Styles of Research and Methods**

Saunders et al. (2003) describe research as “something that people undertake in order to find out things in a systematic way thereby increasing their knowledge”. They further identified the characteristics of a good research which include: ensuring data are collected systematically, data are interpreted systematically and there is a clear purpose to find things out.

### **3:1.3 Research Paradigm**

A philosophical paradigm is sometimes referred to as a research paradigm and is known as the philosophy of a particular research. The research paradigm/philosophy offers a framework, consisting of theories, methods and ways of defining data which explains the relationship between data and theory (Collis and Hussey, 2003; Easterby Smith et al. 1991). One of the most challenging issues about understanding research design is the fact that scholars use various terms to describe research approaches and strategies. However, this research adopts Saunders et al.’s (2009) description of the different research terms as shown below:





The research “onion” (Adapted from Saunders et al., 2007)

Saunders et al. (2003) defines Philosophical Paradigm philosophy as the belief and thinking that an individual has about knowledge and how it is created and developed. Saunders et al. (2009) explain that research philosophy is influenced by the manner in which a researcher reasons about the development of knowledge and will affect the way the researcher conducts the research itself. Oates (2006) defines a paradigm as a set of shared assumptions or ways of thinking about some aspect of the world. Philosophical paradigm is also regarded as the epistemology which guides a research (Myers, 2009). Easterby -Smith et al. (1991) give three reasons that underline the need to understand philosophical paradigms in a research study. Firstly, it helps to define the research design, the type of evidence that is required, how it will be gathered and interpreted, and how this will provide answers to the research questions. Secondly, it helps the researcher to identify which research design will work for a particular study. Thirdly, it can help the researcher to

create designs that may not be related to the researcher's experience. A wide range of research strategies with different philosophical paradigms are used in information systems. For example, Basden (2008) has provided an intensive literature review on philosophy, particularly as it relates to colonial studies. According to Holden and Lynch (2004), two central concepts of philosophy have to be considered to match the research approach and underlying philosophy; these are ontology and epistemology

### **3:1.4 Ontology**

Ontology is concerned with the nature of reality (Saunders et al., 2009). It is the science or study of being and is often used synonymously with metaphysics, one of the oldest branches of philosophy (Holden and Lynch, 2004). Crotty (2003) defines ontology as what is known or what constitutes social reality. Grix (2002) describes ontology as the starting point of all research, after which one's epistemological and methodological positions logically follow. There are two aspects of ontology, objectivism (also referred to as critical view, evaluatism, empiricism, logical positivism, and dualism) and constructivism (also referred to as subjectivism, interpretivism, absolutism, relativism, postpositivism, and constructionism) (Huglin, 2003).

In objectivism, knowledge is out there waiting to be discovered and it is used mainly by scientists. Therefore, scientific observation and experimentation are used to generate new knowledge. Collis and Hussey (2003) also highlight that positivism focuses on using natural science methods for gathering knowledge. The authors state that a positivist approach believes that "the study of human behaviour should be conducted in the same way as studies conducted in natural sciences". According to Myers (2009), positivism or objectivism, is often referred to as the natural science model of social research, whilst constructivism is of the opinion that knowledge is socially constructed by our interaction with our environment. Constructivism is mainly used by social scientists to study human behaviour, thus it is also referred to as social constructivism (Saunders et al., 2009). The main difference between the two positions is usually based on how a researcher believes knowledge is created.

### **3:1.5 Epistemology**

Epistemology concerns what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study (Saunders et al., 2009). According to Grix (2002), epistemology is one of the core branches of philosophy that is concerned with the theory of knowledge, especially with regard to its methods, validation and the possible ways of gaining knowledge of social reality, or whatever it is understood to be. Epistemology, derived from the Greek words *episteme* (knowledge) and *logos* (reason), focuses on the knowledge-gathering process and is concerned with developing new models or theories that are better than competing models and theories (Grix, 2002). Epistemology (also referred to as postpositivism) is difficult sometimes to differentiate from ontology as they are both concerned with knowledge. The epistemological assumption can be separated into either positivistic or interpretivist paradigms (Collis and Hussey, 2003). However, Crotty (2003) identifies that in recent times, other stances have emerged such as feminism, critical inquiry and so on. Interpretivism is a paradigm that is growing in acceptance in the field of information systems (Walsham, 2006).

### **3:1.6 Interpretivism**

Interpretivism is also referred to as social constructionism and is described by Orange (2010) as a research philosophy that views the social world as socially constructed. According to Bryman (2001), interpretivist seeks to understand human behaviour and the social world whereas a positivist would seek to explain the situation. Bryman and Bell (2007) describe constructionism as an ontological position that describes social phenomena and their meaning that are constantly being accomplished by social actors and are “socially constructed” giving meaning from people. Easterby-Smith et al. (2008) state that social constructionism focuses on the way people make sense of the world, especially through sharing experiences with others. Bryman and Bell (2007) argue that the principal aim of interpretivism should be to explain why people have different experiences through social interaction and to understand that they are continually changing.

Interpretive research in colonial legacies and colonialism studies is concerned with understanding the economic context of colonial legacies; this means the economic processes by

which it is developed and constructed by the colonialists and through which it influences, and is influenced by, its economic underpinnings (Oates, 2006). It is an approach that enables researchers to consider, the economic context of colonialism and how these contexts are influenced and can influence the setting (Galliers, 1991; Klein and Myers, 1999; Oates, 2006).

Williamson et al. (2002) further argue that the interpretive approach is often (although not exclusively) associated with qualitative research techniques, whereas the positivist approach is usually (again, not exclusively) aligned with quantitative techniques. Bryman (2008) states that the interpretivist philosophy is based on the belief that a strategy is needed to differentiate between people and objects in the natural sciences; therefore, this philosophy requires the researcher to understand the subjective meaning of social action. According to Saunders et al. (2009) interpretivism advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand the differences between humans in our role as social actors. Also, Taylor and Bogdan (1998) state that interpretivist think it is necessary to capture the process of human interpretation, where qualitative research is a better method. Moreover, Collis and Hussey (2003) indicate that interpretivism requires a qualitative approach, which refers back to 'how' and 'what' research questions. In addition, Walsham (1995) states that interpretive research methods in colonial studies are aimed at producing an understanding of both the context of colonial legacy and the process. Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991) have identified another philosophical paradigm, i.e. critical research that applies to colonialism.

### **3: 1.7 Critical Research**

Critical research, often portrayed as a third alternative to the first set of paradigms (positivism and interpretivism), is a philosophy that accepts social reality as interpretivism does, but claims that social reality has objective properties that can dominate the way we perceive the world (Orlikowski and Baroudi, 1991; Myers, 1997; Oates, 2006). The central issue of critical research is that it aims to change social reality and promote emancipation (Niehaves and Stahl, 2006). According to Myers (2009), critical research is less common, but similar to that of interpretive research.

### **3:1.8 The Current Research Philosophical Paradigm**

The epistemological position taken for this research is that of interpretivism. The interpretivist approach is adopted since more surveys are required on the research topic, in order to put forward recommendations that will assist in dealing with the impact of British Economic activities in The Gambia. Besides, the research is guided by theories that have to be tested objectively during the research process and further providing recommendations on how the problems could be addressed based on empirical data. The research intends to identify strategies that would assist in improving the economy of The Gambia. The issue of how Colonialism has largely or otherwise impacted on The Gambia is regarded as both an economic and social problem as it pertains to a particular society, therefore cannot be properly investigated by using only the positivistic approach.

Moreover, interpretivist usually performs a literature review to develop a thorough understanding of the topic under investigation, then, based on the literature review, they generate research questions and plan to conduct the study (Williamson et al., 2002), which is the process adopted for this research. The research considers the relationship between colonialism and economic development and the impact of colonialism. According to Creswell (1994), a research problem is linked to a positivist approach if it develops from the literatures where variables and theories may exist that need to be tested and verified. Whereas, a research problem is related to an interpretivist approach when little information exists on the topic and more exploration is needed since the variables are largely unknown, as is the case for this study. Also, the view of an interpretivism paradigm would assist the researcher to gain rich insights into the economic phenomena of how colonialism had affected the development of The Gambia. Having described the main concepts of the philosophical paradigms, the next section describes the different types of research approaches.

### **3:1.9 Research Approaches**

There are two important schools of thoughts with respect to methodology in the area of theory development and knowledge building. These are deductive and inductive research methods (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008). The differences between these alternative approaches to research are explained below.

#### **3:1.10 Deductive Research**

Deductive research develops theories or hypotheses and then tests them out through empirical observation. It is essentially a set of technique for applying theories in the real world in order to test and assess their validity (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008). According to Saunders et al. (2009), deductive research can be quicker to complete, albeit that time must be devoted to setting up the study prior to data collection and analysis. In deductive research, it is possible to predict the time schedules accurately. Deductive research can be regarded as a lower risk strategy, notwithstanding there are risks involved, such as non-return of questionnaires.

#### **3:1.11 Inductive Research**

Inductive research essentially reverses the process found in deductive research. In this case the researcher develops hypotheses and theories with a view to explaining empirical observations of the real world. Empirical observations can be based on many factors; for example, they can be based on personal experience (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008). Alternatively, theories might be developed to explain observed data and information; for example, the researcher might develop theories based on observed patterns of labour turnover. All sorts and types of information and data can be used to develop theories in inductive research (Crowther and Lancaster, 2008).

Crowther and Lancaster (2008) further state that one of the greatest strengths of inductive research is its flexibility. Inductive research enables flexibility in research design including aspects such as sample size and type of data and does not require the establishment of *priori* theories or hypotheses. On the other hand, the authors argue that a researcher can build his theory

based on what is observed, thereby allowing a problem or issue to be studied or approached in several possible different ways with alternative explanations of what is going on. Crowther and Lancaster (2008) also note that inductive research is suitable for studying human behaviour in organisations.

However, Saunders et al (2009) stress that inductive research can be much more protracted. The authors argue that inductive research takes a longer period for data collection and analysis has to emerge gradually. With inductive research, there is the fear that no useful data patterns or theory will emerge (Saunders et al., 2009). Ghauri and Grønhaug (2005) note that “the processes of induction and deduction are not totally exclusive of each other and induction includes elements of deduction and vice versa.” Quinton and Smallbone (2006) also state that there is not such a sharp divide between the two research approaches.

According to Jankowicz (2005), it is important not to confuse the two distinctions; i.e. positivist versus interpretivist, ontology and epistemology on the one hand and between qualitative versus quantitative data analysis on the other. Jankowicz (2005) states that positivist approaches in the past have given primacy to the quantitative methods while interpretivist approaches do argue for the primacy of qualitative methods and techniques. However, both qualitative and quantitative techniques can be used even when a research is based on a purely interpretivist rationale. The present research is an inductive research which studies Colonialism in a particular context and aims not to generalise the research findings.

### **3:1.12 Research Strategy**

The research strategy dictates the major direction of the research and constitutes one of the important decisions made by the researcher (Pathirage et al, 2008). Yin (2003) refers to research strategy as research design and defines it as “a logical plan for getting from here to there, where here may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered, and there is some set of conclusions (answers) about these questions”. In addition, Marshall and Rossman (1999) state that a research strategy consists of the overall rationale; site selection, population selection or both; the researcher’s role; data collection methods; data management; data analysis strategy;

trustworthiness features; and, a management plan. The choice of an appropriate research approach not only reflects the nature of the study but the research objectives as well. There is a wide range of methods for conducting research such as experiments, action research, ethnography, case study, grounded theory and so on; however, Saunders et al. (2007) refer to them as research strategies'. The main research strategies adopted here is survey.

### **3:1.13 Survey**

Survey strategies are most often associated with the positivist paradigm (Oates, 2006) as they seek patterns to try to explain phenomena. Researchers using this method assume that there are patterns that exist; however, surveys cannot confirm cause and effect in the same way as a scientific experiment but do give an opportunity to see if an association exists between variables (Oates, 2006). Avison (1993), states that surveys are useful in obtaining consistent data from a large number of people and patterns are then searched for in the data. Survey research uses questionnaires, interviews, observation, documents and so on. There are two major types of survey, i.e descriptive and analytical. A descriptive survey is concerned with identifying and counting the frequency of a specific population, either at one point in time or at various times for comparison, whilst an analytical survey is concerned with identifying relationships between different variables (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Surveys provide opportunities to analyse large amounts of data and to make generalisations (Kelly et al., 2003).

### **3:1.14 Theoretical Framework**

Theoretical frameworks provide a particular perspective, or lens, through which a topic is examined. While it is not necessary to use a theoretical framework to examine a topic, it can help to focus ones research on a specific aspect of your topic and can direct your analysis of that topic, offering unexpected insights into the past. It is a collection of interrelated concepts which guides a researcher in determining what things he will measure, and what statistical relationships he intends to investigate. Theoretical frameworks are obviously critical in deductive, theory-testing sorts of studies.



In addressing the impact assessment of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia, the researcher adopts the post- colonial theoretical framework of Edward Said. Post-colonialists study the power relations and racist assumptions that made the colonial system possible, as well as the legacy of colonialism for both the colonists and the colonized. Post colonialism or postcolonial studies is an academic discipline featuring methods of intellectual discourse that analyze, explain, and respond to the cultural legacies of colonialism and imperialism, to the human consequences of controlling a country and establishing settlers for the economic exploitation of the native people and their land. Drawing from postmodern schools of thought, postcolonial studies analyses the politics of knowledge (creation, control, and distribution) by analyzing the functional relations of social and political power that sustain colonialism and neo-colonialism : the how and the why of an imperial regime's representations (social, political, cultural) of the imperial colonizer and of the colonized people. Post-colonial research is a broad term of relevance for a range of disciplines in the humanities and the social sciences, such as literature theory, sociology, anthropology, and organization studies. Rather than being an integrated and unified theory or perspective, post-colonial theory denotes a loosely coupled theoretical framework capturing how colonialist, imperialist, neo-colonialist, and post-colonial practices and ideologies are influencing contemporary culture, society, and the economy. Post-colonial theory is complex and syncretic rather than monolithic and unitary. In addition, post-colonial theory does not have a distinct origin but must, as Young (2001) argues, be as old as colonialism itself; with expansion comes the critique of expansion.

As a genre of contemporary, post colonialism questions and reinvents the modes of cultural perception the ways of viewing and of being viewed. As anthropology, post colonialism records human relations among the colonial nations and the subaltern peoples exploited by colonial rule. As critical theory, post colonialism presents, explains, and illustrates the ideology and the praxis of neocolonialism, with examples drawn from the humanities- history and political science, philosophy and Marxist theory, sociology, anthropology, and human geography; the cinema, religion, and theology; feminism, linguistics, and post-colonial literature, of which the anti-conquest narrative genre presents the stories of colonial subjugation of the subaltern man and woman.

Said (1978) theory of "Orientalism" proposes that the West has created a mythologized version of the East (or *Orient*) to reinforce the difference between the two, and the superiority of the West over the East, thus legitimizing Western attitudes towards and treatment of those in the East. Historians use Said's theory to examine past events, even those outside the strict geographic area being considered in Said's original theory. Historians examine how western countries mythologize and exoticize the 'other' in order to reinforce and legitimize their position of power. His groundbreaking work *Orientalism* initiated the development of postcolonial theory, causing a paradigm shift by re-conceptualizing, deconstructing, and re-presenting the 'Orient' as the ultimate 'Other' of the 'Occident.' He believes that the consequences of colonialism are still persisting in the form of chaos, coups, corruption, civil wars, and bloodshed, which permeates many ex-colonies. The powerful colonizer has imposed a language and a culture, whereas those of the Oriental peoples have been ignored or distorted.

In this respect, Said believes that a powerful colonizer has imposed a language and a culture, whereas cultures, histories, values, and languages of the Oriental peoples have been ignored and even distorted by the colonialists in their pursuit to dominate these peoples and exploit their wealth in the name of enlightening, civilizing, and even humanizing them. What seems to be so infuriating to Said is that such peoples, who, in most cases have completely different cultures, have always been stereotyped by the so-called Orientalists, who so simply cross out all the distinctions and national characteristics of these diverse cultures. Consequently, the colonial texts have depicted the Indians, the Egyptians, the Palestinians, the Latin Americans, and many others as almost the same, the Orient, the "Other", in juxtaposition with 'Us', the Occidental.

Though British colonialism in The Gambia has come and gone but its foot prints are still visible in the country. What pervade The Gambia today including economic crisis appears attributable to colonialism. The present is a mirror to the past, and it would be absolutely gullible to study about The Gambia by ignoring the role played by the colonialists in forming this present state of the country. Consequently, one contends here that both histories of the colonizer and the colonized are inextricably interrelated and cannot be studied from a unilateral point of view.

Post-colonial theory is a broad term of relevance for a range of disciplines in the humanities and the social sciences. Rather than being an integrated and unified theory or perspective, post-colonial theory denotes a loosely coupled theoretical framework capturing how colonialist, imperialist, neo-colonialist, and post-colonial practices and ideologies are influencing contemporary culture, society, and the economy. Post-colonial theory is complex and syncretic rather than monolithic and unitary. In addition, post-colonial theory does not have a distinct origin but must, as Young (2001) argues, be as old as colonialism itself; with expansion comes the critique of expansion. (Available at Alexander Styhre: Post Colonial Theory, 2008, <http://srmo.sagepub.com/view/the-sage-dictionary-of-qualitative-management-research/n75.xml>)

Dependency theory is also another theoretical basis of economic neo-colonialism, which proposes that the global economic system comprises wealthy countries at the centre, and poor countries at the periphery. Economic neo-colonialism extracts the human and the natural resources of peripheral (poor) countries to flow to the economies of the wealthy countries at the centre of the global economic system; hence, the poverty of the peripheral countries is the result of how they are integrated in the global economic system. Dependency theory derives from the Marxist analysis of economic inequalities within the world's system of economies, thus, the under-development of the Global South is a direct result of the development in the Global North; the theories of the semi- colony from the late 19th century. The Marxist perspective of the Theory of Colonial Dependency is contrasted with the capitalist economics of the free market, which propose that such poverty is a development stage in the poor country's progress towards full, economic integration to the global economic system.

Post-colonialism in literature includes the study of theory and literature as it relates to the colonizer-colonized experience. Colonialism has been experiential to Africans. Common perspectives on colonialism show colonialism usually works through the use of brutal force employed by a more powerful country to exploit another community and obtain economic wealth through abuse of native people.

The post-colonial perspective emerged as a challenge to this tradition and legacy; it attempts to illegitimize the idea of establishing power through conquest. A relatively new emerging academic concept in relation to postcolonial studies is the Strange King concept. The Strange

King concept gives an outline to comprehend international colonialism. It tries to explain the clear easiness whereby many native peoples subdue themselves to a foreign colonial power and position state formation by colonial powers within the range of earlier, similar but indigenous course. It emphasizes the imposition of colonialism not as a result of the contravention of the spirit of local communities by force or as reflecting ignorant peasants' consent in the lies of its self- fish leaders, but as a people's rational and productive acceptance of an occasion on hand.

What qualifies as postcolonial literature is debatable. The term postcolonial literature has taken on many meanings. The four subjects include:

1. Social and cultural change or erosion: It seems that after independence is achieved, one main question arises; what is the new cultural identity?
2. Misuse of power and exploitation: Even though the large power ceases to control them as a colony, the settlers still seem to continue imposing power over the native. The main question here is who really is in power, why, and how does an Independence Day really mean independence?
3. Colonial abandonment and alienation: This topic is generally brought up to examine individuals and not the ex-colony as a whole. The individuals tend to ask themselves; in this new country, where do I fit in and how do I make a living?
4. Use of English language literature: It may be asked if the target of post-colonial studies, i.e. the analysis of post-colonial literature and culture, can be reached neglecting literary works in the original languages of post-colonial nations.

The analysis of the impact assessment of British colonialism in The Gambia is built around a more general theoretical framework. This framework distinguishes two ideal-typical economic models that could characterize colonizing powers: mercantilist and liberal. A *mercantilist model* organizes productive activity to obtain national economic self-sufficiency and short-term gains through favourable trade balances and the accumulation of precious metals (Heckscher, 1935). Under this model, political authorities use the state to establish trade restrictions and support extra market institutions that provide rents to certain groups and deny privileges to others (Ekelund and Tollison 1981). As such, mercantilism aligns economic and state elites,

concentrating resources in few hands. A mercantilist economic model therefore fosters a rigidly hierarchical society in which the majority of the population is dependent on small elites.

By contrast, a *liberal model* organizes productive activity toward maximizing profit through exchange in free markets (cf. Wallerstein 1974; Roemer 1982). Unlike the mercantilist model, the liberal model is not associated with a state that privileges status groups and explicitly imposes hierarchical relations of dependence. Instead, political authorities use the state to uphold private property, encourage commercial production, and enforce the rule of law. Though the state is not directly involved in economic production, it is vital for the provision of the basic infrastructure necessary to sustain a market economy (Smith [1776], 2000).

In this research, one uses this distinction between mercantilist and liberal models to develop two overarching hypotheses. One concerns the relationship between pre-colonial development and level of colonialism, and the other concerns the relationship between level of colonialism and post-colonial development. The first hypothesis is that mercantilist and liberal powers impose different levels of colonialism in territories with similar levels of pre-colonial development. For mercantilist powers, we argue that they are more likely to pursue extensive institutional establishment in comparatively more complex (i.e., more economically and politically developed) pre-colonial regions; mercantilist powers are less likely to pursue a high level of colonialism in comparatively less complex regions. This reasoning grows out of the fact that complex pre-colonial regions exhibit densely settled populations, state like political organizations, and hierarchical economies that often rely on coercive labour systems. These conditions facilitate the mercantilist goal of extracting resources through the use of a dependent labour force without having to alter radically pre-existing economic structures.

By contrast, less complex pre-colonial regions feature hunter-gatherer and simple agricultural societies and thus provide mercantilists with fewer opportunities to build on established economic networks for exploiting indigenous labour. When mercantilist powers colonize less complex societies, therefore, they generally do so without imposing a broad range of institutional arrangements and without encouraging large-scale settlement. On the other, one can argue that liberal economic powers are likely to pursue low levels of colonialism in more complex pre-colonial regions, and they are likely to pursue high levels of colonialism in less complex pre-

colonial regions. More complex pre-colonial regions usually exhibit entrenched pre-capitalist institutions, and these institutions make it difficult for liberal colonizing powers to alter existing economic networks in ways necessary to achieve market-based accumulation. Thus, when confronted with a complex civilization that cannot easily be dislodged, liberal colonizers tend to implant only a limited range of institutions and a small number of settlers. By contrast, less complex pre-colonial regions marked by hunter gathering or simple agricultural societies can be more readily displaced to make way for the introduction of a broad range of new market institutions and state organizations. One can infer that liberal powers prefer to colonize heavily these less complex societies because they allow authorities and settlers to pursue institutional establishment without having to build on top of or work through pre-existing arrangements.

The second overall hypothesis concerns the effect of level of colonialism on postcolonial development. Because level of colonialism describes a broad range of institutions implanted by colonial occupiers, it is useful to disaggregate this concept into more specific institutions that operate as key mechanisms in shaping postcolonial development. This focuses on those institutions that regulate (1) commerce and markets (e.g., the extent of free trade), (2) political authority (e.g., the degree to which a rule of law is present), and (3) race and ethnicity (e.g., the degree to which all groups have the same rights). The first is especially important for long run economic development, the third is especially important for long-run social development, and the second is highly consequential for both. One argues that the content of these institutions varies across particular levels of mercantilists and liberals' colonialism, with major implications for postcolonial development.

For mercantilist colonies, a high level of colonialism greatly inhibits post-colonial development. More extensive mercantilist colonialism shapes economic development through the establishment of trade restrictions, protected merchant guilds, and entrenched actors who benefit from state privileges. In a capitalist world economy, these mercantilist institutions are a serious disadvantage and or a threat. In terms of social development, a high level of mercantilist colonialism has the additional consequence of establishing labour institutions and socio- cultural conventions that transform the indigenous population (or an imported worker population) into an exploited ethno-racial group that often lacks access to health care and education.

In as much as this exploited ethno-racial group represents a large percentage of the total population, overall social performance will be greatly compromised. Finally, mercantilism breeds patrimonial states whose leaders are unable—and usually unwilling—to provide competitive markets, education, a rule of law, health care, and other public good to non-elite groups. For its part, limited mercantilist's colonialism does not allow a territory to fully escape these calamities. But it does mean that the territory will be characterized by weaker and less entrenched mercantilist obstacles, thereby having a higher probability of experiencing socio-economic development in the post-colonial epoch. For liberal colonies, conversely, level of colonialism is positively related to socio-economic development. More extensive liberal colonialism tends to direct production towards international trade, which encourages competitiveness within a capitalist world economy and may also benefit human well-being by providing greater resources to state and societal actors. In addition, higher levels of liberal colonialism can lead to the establishment of coherent administrative, juridical, and police institutions that provide the basic infrastructure for functioning markets. These institutions enhance socio-economic development because broad societal groups often benefit from a state's ability to enforce a rule of law, administrate effectively, and provide public goods such as clean water and education.

By way of comparison, low levels of liberal colonialism have very negative effects on development. When liberal colonizers do not implant extensive institutions, they generally rule through colonial intermediaries who are granted authority over the local population in exchange for their collaboration. In turn, by empowering indigenous elites, limited liberal colonialism creates patron-client systems characterized by hierarchy, dependence, and the absence of a rule of law. Moreover, a low level of liberal colonialism does not introduce state institutions that provide the necessary infrastructure for coherent markets and social development. Rather, colonial authorities impose a constrained and highly selective set of market-like institutions that channel resources to individuals in strategic political positions.

The overall relationships that inform this theory can be summarized in a three-step model. In the model, the association between pre-colonial level of development (step 1) and post-colonial level

of development (step 3) is negative for both mercantilist and liberal colonizers. However, the directions of the causal processes that mediate this relationship are inverted. Thus, for the mercantilist colonies, initial backwardness is an advantage because it leads to *less extensive* colonialism, which in turn has comparatively positive effects on long-run development. By contrast, for the liberal colonies, a low level of pre-colonial development is an advantage because it produces more extensive colonization, which has comparatively positive effects on postcolonial development.

It is worth noting that colonial powers generally became more liberal over time as global capitalism gained momentum. Likewise, pre-colonial regions generally have become more complex as global interconnectedness stimulated the decline of hunter-gatherer and semi sedentary societies (Wallerstein 1974; Wolf 1982). Thus, increasingly liberal powers colonize increasingly developed societies. In this context, one would expect colonialism to be accompanied by low levels of institutional transfer, given that liberal colonizers prefer to pursue only limited institutional establishment in complex societies. In turn, this theory suggests that these low levels of transfer will have negative effects on post-colonial development.

In the late 19th century, the Scramble for Africa (1884 –1885) proved to be the tail end of mercantilist colonialism of the European imperial powers, yet, for the Africans, the consequences were greater than elsewhere in the colonised non-Western world. To facilitate the colonisation—the European empires laid railroads where the rivers and the land proved impassable. To wit, the Imperial British railroad effort proved overambitious in the effort of traversing continental Africa, yet succeeded only in connecting colonial North Africa (Cairo) with the colonial south of Africa (Cape Town).

For instance:

*“Upon arriving to Africa, the Europeans encountered the native African civilisations of the Ashanti Empire, the Benin Empire, the Kingdom of Dahomey , the Buganda Kingdom (Uganda), and the kingdom of Kongo, all of which annexed by imperial powers under the belief that they required European stewardship, as proposed and justified in the essay "The African Character" (1830), by G.W.F Hegel, in keeping with his philosophic opinion that cultures were stages in the course of the historical unfolding of The Absolute. Nigeria was the homeland of the Hausa people, the Yoruba people and the*



*[Igbo people]; which last were among the first people to develop their history in constructing a postcolonial identity” cf Things fall Apart 1958. (Kumaraswamy, 2006).*

About East Africa, the Kenyan writer Ngũgĩ wa Thiong'o wrote *Weep Not, Child* (1964), the first postcolonial novel about the East African experience of colonial imperialism; in *The River Between* (1965), as James Ngugi, with the Mau Mau uprising (1952–60) as political background, he addressed the postcolonial matters of native religious culture, and the consequences of the imposition of Christianity, a religion culturally foreign to Kenya and to Africa; and the essay *Decolonizing the Mind: The Politics of Language in African Literature* (1986).

African countries started gaining independence from European colonial powers in 1951 with Libya setting the pace and apparently ending with the transition to majority rule in South Africa in 1994. Regardless of how and when African countries gained their independence, most countries were economically underdeveloped. Although each independent African country had unique economic features, most countries inherited similar economic structures from their colonial experience. African countries started gaining independence from European colonial powers in 1951 with Libya setting the pace and apparently ending with the transition to majority rule in South Africa in 1994. Regardless of how and when African countries gained their independence, most countries were economically underdeveloped. Although each independent African country had unique economic features, most countries inherited similar economic structures from their colonial experience.

Issues of colonialism in Africa are very interesting for the fact that it is a time past and time present hybrid event. The end of British hegemony in Africa and the decolonization of the continent enjoy a paradoxical dual attraction: by definition a past event, it nevertheless remains a matter of recent experience; current interest and contemporary debate, however incomplete in the record, and ambivalent in its interpretation. Decolonization excites our interest by manifesting the past in the present (Greene, 1992). Africa's historical trajectory is marked by three inter-related epochs – pre-colonial, colonial and post –colonial; with the existence of the colonial epoch having far-reaching implications for the others. First, the colonial epoch placed colonizing nations above the colonized through exploitation and subjugation (Rodney, 1976) while distorting pre-colonial socio-economic and even political arrangements (Ake, 1981; Ekeh, 1983). Second, and a consequent of the first, is the disarticulation of the post –colonial era as

captured in an ongoing, and increasingly, complicated socio-economic and political relations in contemporary Africa. It is therefore on the basis of these consequences that colonialism has become an easy explanation for Africa's underdevelopment.

To understand the economic situation in contemporary post-colonial Africa, it is important to remember the economic structures inherited from the colonial era:

1. Most African economies at independence were centred on the production and export of a single commodity, be it agricultural or mineral. Economists label economies that are dependent on a single commodity as *mono-economies*. It is a known fact that for economies to develop, *specialization* and *diversification* are required. Independent African governments had to develop strategies for economic diversification and specialization. This was not an easy task given that the colonial economic systems were not oriented towards diversification.
2. Most African countries inherited under-developed commercial, transportation, and communication infrastructures. Economic diversification and growth are dependent in part, on developed networks of communication and transportation that facilitate the easy movement of goods, services, capital and labour.
3. It is well known from factors of production that one of the most important factors of economic production and economic growth is people. All production depends on human resource. Specialized production is dependent on skillful and learned workforce. However, most colonial governments spent very little money on this. As a result, at independence, African countries were constrained with acute challenge of skilled manpower, a prerequisite for economic growth and development.

These are some of the economic realities confronting African governments at independence. In addition to these harsh realities, African countries wanted desperately to address legitimate needs and aspirations of their citizens. As is known, the central concerns of the nationalist movements were the lack of economic opportunity and social justice. Pro-independence nationalist leaders, responding to the aspirations of the people, demanded greater access to education, more adequate health care and housing, safe drinking water, and economic opportunities, just to list the most important ones. Having championed these demands, the first post-colonial governments had to

make an attempt to deliver on these aspirations. However, meeting these aspirations would necessitate huge government expenditures, which in turn would be dependent on government revenues. Government revenues come primarily from taxing the productive sectors of the national economy. So, it comes back to economic growth and development. To meet the legitimate aspirations of the people, economic growth and development are essential. On achieving political independence, African governments clearly had to develop and enact policies that would stimulate economic growth and which would help citizens meet their social and economic aspirations.

Following the advice of international economic experts, including professionals from the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund, leaders of African countries established policies aimed at strengthening their economies through diversification. However, there were a number of different strategies which several African governments took in an attempt to promote economic development. In the 1960s and 1970s, international economists promoted two competing strategies for generating economic growth and development.

#### Strategy One:

- Economic growth and diversification through import substitution. Economists promoting this plan pointed out that most African countries were *mono-economies*, and, as such, these countries were dependent on importing almost all of the non-food items they consumed. An import substitution policy promoted diversification and growth through a strategy that would lessen dependence on expensive imports. An added benefit to this strategy, according to its proponents, was the emphasis on *industrialization*. They pointed out that economic development occurred in Europe, Japan and North America through industrialization. Import substitution, proponents asserted, would promote diversification through industrialization.

#### Strategy Two:

- Economic growth and diversification through *diversification of exports*. Economists promoting this perspective argue that the development of import substitution industries was very expensive, noting that postcolonial African governments did not have the

financial resources to finance industries. Moreover, these economists argued that there would not be sufficient interest on the part of international business to invest in new industries in Africa. As an alternative strategy, they promoted the diversification of the exports through the development of new exports of goods that could be inexpensively produced in Africa. These economists believed that through the export of agricultural and mineral products, African economies would build up a surplus of profits, called *foreign reserves*, which could be used to invest in further economic diversification and growth.

Proponents of an import-substitution plan disagreed with this approach. They asserted that dependence on the export of raw materials would perpetuate the economic dependency of African countries on an unstable and unfair international system, which buys raw materials cheaply and sells industrial goods at high prices which in a way appears like a re-enactment of colonial economic policy in place. African governments were not faced with easy choices.

Once African governments made the decision on which model of economic growth to follow, they were confronted with an additional economic dilemma of how to fund/finance their development plan. Large infusions of capital would be needed for either the development of import substitution or export generating industries. The question of funding economic projects was closely tied to the issue of ownership of economic resources. Whoever owned economic resources would have primary responsibility for raising money to finance the project under consideration. By the same token, those who owned productive resources would control the profits generated by the industry.

The question of funding economic projects was closely tied to the issue of ownership of economic resources. Whoever owned economic resources would have primary responsibility for raising money to finance the project under consideration. By the same token, those who owned productive resources would control the profits generated by the industry.

In the 1960s, African governments had a number of different options for raising capital to fund development that were directly connected to issues of ownership:

1. **Private Enterprise:** Private enterprise (capitalism) is a system in which economic resources, such as land, natural resources, commerce, and industry, are privately owned

by individuals or groups of individuals. If African countries at independence were to follow a private enterprise strategy, resources such as land and minerals would belong to individuals or privately owned companies. In private enterprise, companies or individuals owning resources are responsible for raising capital (funds) necessary to begin or expand production. Colonialism, of course, left most African countries with little local capital. Consequently, if a free-enterprise strategy were to be implemented, African governments and local businesses would have to raise capital from outside the country, primarily from international businesses located in Europe, Japan, China, North America etc. To attract international investments, African governments would need to have policies attractive to potential investors. For example, property rights would guarantee companies the right to do whatever they wished with their profits, including sending them out of the country. This approach raised some concerns. Would international businesses be willing to re-invest some of their profits within the country, or would they send most of their profits out of the country? Would these businesses be willing to invest in their workforce by supporting education, health care, and housing? Or would their primary concern be the making of profit? How different would this system be from the colonial economic system that was primarily interested in the export of raw materials and not in diversified development?

2. **State Directed/Controlled:** A second option available to African leaders at independence was that of state control. A system of state control would give the state ownership of a country's natural resources. This system would allow the new government to develop an economic plan that was in line with what it felt was in the best interest of the country. In this system, the government would be responsible for raising the capital necessary for the development of new, or expansion of existing, businesses. How would the government raise capital? There were four potential sources of revenues. First, the governments could try to raise funds for investment through taxation. However, since African economies at independence were underdeveloped, there was little potential for raising necessary funds through taxation. Second, governments could borrow money from international lenders, either private banks or from non-private institutions like the *World Bank*. However, given that banks are a product of the free enterprise system, banks might be reluctant to loan large sums of monies to fund state controlled projects or

businesses. Third, African governments could appeal to richer countries to provide them with grants (gifts of money targeted at a specific project) to help fund economic projects. While a number of Asian, European, and North American governments were willing to provide some development assistance, would these countries be willing to supply the amount of monies needed to stimulate economic development? Fourth, African governments could encourage international businesses to undertake joint business ventures in which the business would provide capital and expertise, while governments would provide natural resources and labour.

3. **Mixed Economy:** A third option open to African governments at independence was the development of a mixed economic plan, which combined elements of private ownership and control with elements of state ownership and control. Under such a plan, the government would identify certain areas of the economy in which private ownership and enterprise would be encouraged. Similarly, certain areas of the economy would be set aside for state control. This option would allow the government to attempt to attract capital from a wide variety of sources: international businesses, bank loans, direct grants from richer countries.

Looking back over the past fifty years since the end of colonialism, it is clear that African governments took many different approaches to promoting economic development. Most of the governments of Africa's 56 countries followed a mixed approach to development. That is, they tried a combination of import substitution and diversification of exports. To fund these endeavours most governments did not follow either a strict free enterprise or state directed approach to funding development, but used a combination of strategies to foster economic development and growth. (Available at <https://exploringafrica.matrix.msu.edu/students/curriculum/m9/active>)

Over the last few decades, Africa's failure to achieve rapid growth has puzzled economists. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) statistics clearly show that African economies have failed to converge with Europe's since the Second World War. While GDP per capita in constant terms almost quintupled in Western Europe between 1950 and 2008, it only doubled in Africa in the same period. Most African countries have not simply failed to catch up with Europe but have

fallen behind in absolute terms. GDP per capita in countries like the Central African Republic, Liberia and the Democratic Republic of the Congo have fallen over this same period.

Many scholars still blame the continent's economic woes on the legacy of western colonialism. But a new paper by Broadberry and Gardner (2013), both at the London School of Economics, seeks to find a new answer to this old question by comparing trends in contemporary Africa to Europe's development experience over the last 800 years.

Africa's failure to develop, they argue, should not be seen as the exception, but as the historical norm. Africa's growth trends since 1950 - overall stagnation with periods of growth and decline - appear incredibly similar, both in terms of patterns and level, to those of pre-modern Europe. It took European countries until the 1800s to exceed Africa's current per capita output. Humanity all over the world, for the vast majority of its history, has experienced periods of growth followed by reversals which have limited increases in per capita income.

Although, Africa went through periods of economic growth in the 1950s, 1960s, late-1980s and the 2000s, these growth spurts were off-set by "growth reversals" in the 1970s, early-1980s and the 1990s, when GDP fell. Similar patterns can be seen in pre-modern economic history, when falling per capita GDP figures in the 15<sup>th</sup> and 17<sup>th</sup> centuries wiped out earlier gains. The question that Broadberry and Gardner then ask is how Europe escaped from these growth reversals. They see institutional factors—most notably the introduction of democracy and the development of state capacity for growth—as the threshold conditions met in Europe, but that have generally not been in Africa.

For instance, as Douglass North and Barry Weingast have argued, constitutional reforms after the Glorious Revolution of 1689 enabled these conditions to be met in Britain, producing growth in the eighteenth century that was never reversed. Increased parliamentary control over the executive and a "credible commitment" to pay back the public debt encouraged public and private investment which, they say, produced sustainable growth.

Europe's wider economic "take-off" in the 19<sup>th</sup> century can be seen in a similar light. The creation of strong and stable states in nineteenth-century Europe enabled investment in canals and railways, which increased growth rates there. The development of professional civil services

and judiciaries, where promotion was based on merit rather than corruption, also helped too. These types of reforms contributed towards creating “open access” societies where all groups of the population have equal opportunity to access state services, such as the courts system to enforce property rights.

Broadberry and Gardner (2013) argue that failure to fulfill these threshold conditions in most African countries have resulted in them being trapped in the cyclical pattern of growth reversals seen over the last 60 years. They argue, policy makers should encourage both democratization as well as the expansion of "state capacity" in order to escape from the growth reversals still posing a threat to Africa's current phase of growth.

But perhaps other lessons could be learned from this sort of economic history as well, aside from the importance of good institutions for growth. Social conditions could also be important in explaining development. Both modern Africa and medieval Europe suffered growth reversals after long-lasting epidemics: after HIV/AIDS hit Africa and after bubonic plague spread into Europe. Perhaps higher expenditure on healthcare and preventative measures against future epidemics could boost growth. And as growth took off in Europe after the invention of the printing press and the spread of mass literacy, higher spending on education may matter too.

New explanations of underdevelopment are putting increasing stress on sociological factors as well. “Pro-poor policies”, which boost economic aspirations, might also be an effective way of kick starting economic growth in third-world countries. Theories like these may go some of the way to explaining why growth took off fastest in north-west Europe where the destruction of feudal structures that prevented social mobility occurred first. How far institutions were involved in these complex processes is a debatable point. What is clear is that Europe's pre-modern economic history has much to say about development in third world countries today—but institutions may only prove to be one part of a bigger picture.

Perhaps Africa and Africans learning from the Singapore way could help in the process of development and growth. Singapore, the island city-state, has achieved staggering economic success in the past 50 years. With little natural resources of its own, its food requirements almost entirely imported, with no fresh water resources to write home about, this small nation of



5.3 million people (the third highest population density in the world) started life as an independent country on par economically with most African countries. Today it has left Africa behind by a good country mile. So where, and why, did Singapore get it right? Lee Kuan Yew stayed as Prime Minister of Singapore for 31 years, from 1959 to 1990 when he stepped down for Goh Chok Tong to take his place. In 2004, Tong was succeeded by Lee Kuan Yew's eldest son, Lee Hsien Loong, as the country's third prime minister. Lee Hsien is now in his ninth year in office. The result is a planned, modern economy with efficient public services, an educated population and a per capita share of gross domestic product of more than \$60,000 (U.S.), the highest in Southeast Asia. Singapore ranks No.2 on the World Economic Forum's global competitiveness rankings (WEF, 2014)

The effects of colonialism past and present are visible all over Africa. The imposition of colonialism on the continent of Africa occurred for many reasons, not the least of which was economic. Prior to this development, Africa was advancing and progressing economically and politically. Colonialism encouraged this development in some areas, but in many others severely retarded the natural progress of the continent. Had colonialism never been imposed on Africa, its development would be significantly different and many of the problems that plagued it today probably would not have existed. But then African countries should forget their colonial past; work on their present with a vision and mission that will shape their future. Colonialism is just an episode in their developmental efforts; they should therefore remember where they have fallen and rise to their peculiar challenges.

### 3.2 Methods of Data Collection

Data will be collected from several sources using different methodologies. According to Blaxter et al (1996), the data required can be classified as qualitative if it comes in word form, while they are regarded as quantitative if they come in the form of statistics. The proper selection of quantitative and qualitative methods and the understanding of their application to the research context are vital to the success of a research in terms of presenting the phenomenon being studied. However, Boaduo, (2005) regards the choice of a methodology or multiplicity of methods for a research as a major problem, especially to beginning researchers. Some researchers prefer to use either a single method or a multiplicity (multi-method), usually referred to as triangulation.

Given the fact that the research questions and objectives of study imply the need to explain, explore and assess the impact of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia, the thesis adopted a mixed methods approach, involving both qualitative and quantitative methods. It also involves a correlational research work using a quantitative survey method, and an administered structured questionnaire to gather data. It is designed in part to investigate the correlation between colonialism and economic development.

Some writers regard mixed methods as a methodology with underlying philosophical assumptions (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). Others like (Onwuegbuzie and Teddlie, 2003; Creswell, Plano Clark, et al., 2003) focus on methods of collecting and analyzing data and thus consider it basically as a 'method'. Creswell, (2007:21) defined a mixed methods approach to inquiry as;

*one in which the researcher tends to base knowledge claims on pragmatic grounds (e.g., consequence-oriented, problem-centered, and pluralistic). It employs strategies of inquiry that involve collecting data either simultaneously or sequentially to best understand research problem. The data collection also involves gathering both numeric information (e.g., on instruments) as well as text information (e.g., on interviews) so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information.*

Mixed methods may be considered a research design embedded in some philosophical assumptions or world views, which provide the framework or direct the methods of collecting and analyzing data and involving mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study or multiple studies. It involves collecting and analyzing qualitative and quantitative data. Using the criteria established by Creswell et al., (2003) for choosing a mixed methods strategy, the study design is sequential exploratory, which means that first qualitative data were collected and analyzed, followed thereafter by collection and analysis of quantitative data, and both phases are given equal priority or weight in the processes. Qualitative and quantitative data and findings are incorporated at the point of data interpretation in the thesis, which implies that data and findings from the qualitative phase were compared and supported with data, findings and conclusions from the quantitative phase. This exploratory sequential strategy is useful not only for exploration, but also for expanding the qualitative findings (Ozor, 2012 in Creswell, 2009).

This mixed methods research involved a quantitative phase and a qualitative phase in an overall research study. The rationale for combining qualitative and quantitative research is to better understand the phenomenon under investigation by triangulating both broad numeric trends from quantitative research and the detail of qualitative research and to explore participant views for the purpose of using these views to develop and test survey instrument with a sample from the study population. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, (2004:17) define mixed methods research as:

*the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study...it is inclusive, pluralistic, and complementary and it suggests that researchers take an eclectic approach to method selection and the thinking about and conduct of research*

The essential goal of mixed methods research is to tackle a given research question from any relevant angle, making use where appropriate of previous research and/or more than one type of investigative perspective. Sometimes referred to as mixed methodology, multiple methodology or multi-methodology research, mixed methods research offers you the best of both worlds: the in-depth, contextualized, and natural but more time-consuming insights of qualitative research

coupled with the more-efficient but less rich or compelling predictive power of quantitative research. These approaches are far more comprehensive than attacking a problem from only one point of view and, with the emergence of strategies and tools for blending these different types of data, allow for the crossing of disciplinary boundaries, which the researcher considers relevant to the topic under consideration, given the fact that colonialism is cross-cutting.

This thesis is also correlational in nature. A correlation study is a quantitative method of research in which you have two or more quantitative variables from the same group of subjects, and you are trying to determine if there is a relationship (or covariation) between the 2 variables (a similarity between them, not a difference between their means). For instance, how colonialism has affected economic development in The Gambia. Theoretically, any 2 quantitative variables can be correlated (for example, midterm scores & number of body piercings!) as long as you have scores on these variables from the same participants.

### **3: 2.1 Research Design**

This describes the procedures and strategies adopted in the conduct of this study. The following outlines present the steps involved in the conduct of this research:

#### **3:2.2 Sample Populations**

The sample population for this research political/ nationalist leaders, Educationists, Government Departments, Civil Servants and all the administrative/ political regions of The Gambia where colonialism equally touched. At the moment there are six administrative regions in the country, visa vis; Kombo St. Marry Region (KSMR); which is made up of Banjul and Kanifing Municipalities, North Bank Region (NB), Lower River Region (LRR), Central River Region (CRR), West Coast Region (WCR) and Upper River Region (URR). Given these groups of people, a total number of 300 questionnaires were distributed among them.

### **3: 2.3 Sampling and Sampling Procedure**

Under this section, political/ nationalist leaders, Educationists, Government Departments, Civil Servants and all the administrative/ political regions of the country will be selected based on stratified random sampling and a sum total of 300 questionnaires distributed among them as follows: political/nationalist leaders – 30, educationists - 30, Government departments – 30, civil servants – 30 and the six administrative regions – 30 for each region, totalling 300. The researcher expects 100 % response from the respondents. The Researcher will pay visits to all the administrative regions of The Gambia and to all the groups mentioned in the sample population.

### **3:2.4 Data Collection Instruments**

The method of data collection deployed in this thesis included primary data; using semi-structured and in-depth interviews were undertaken. Interviews were formalized and semi-structured using standardized questions for the respondents. Questionnaire was used for structured interviews based on a predetermined and standardized or identical set of questions and responses were recorded after the questions were attended to by the respondents. The essence of adopting this approach is to hasten the process of retrieval of questionnaire which is the major limiting factor to its use in a study of this nature. Moreover, semi-structured interviews were carried out during which a list of questions to be answered were drawn and response documented through note taking. The semi-structured interviews assisted in explaining core issues that emerged from the respondent to the questionnaire.

Research data will be obtained through the use of the following instruments: Structured interviews and Questionnaires structured in into three parts. Part ‘A’ Biographic Data of respondents, visa -viz: position in office, Administrative region, Institutional affiliation, Occupation and Position in Office. Part ‘B’ specifically presents questions on the impact of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia, the challenges of economic development in the country and how the under- performance of The Gambia’s economy is attributable to colonialism. Part ‘C’ which is dichotomous in nature, asks questions on the remedies for putting the economy of The Gambia into a good shape in the short and long run respectively.

The questionnaire will be designed according to the 5-point Likert-type Scale of responses which are which are classified into (Strongly Agree (SA) =5, Agree (A) =4, Strongly Disagree (SD) =3, Disagree (D) = 2, Undecided (U) = 1 and finally the Dichotomous Part of Yes and No responses. Respondents were required to choose from any of the responses. The results obtained were analysed using Measures of Central Tendency, descriptives (statistical charts, histograms, and tables) and the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Co-efficient statistical tool.

### **3:2.5 Types of Data Collection Procedures Applied:**

#### **(i) Primary Data:**

Primary sources used in this study provided first-hand testimony or direct evidence concerning the topic under investigation. They are created by witnesses or recorders who experienced the events or conditions being documented. Often these sources are created at the time when the events or conditions are occurring. It included autobiographies, memoirs, and oral histories recorded later. Primary sources are characterized by their content, regardless of whether they are available in original format, in microfilm/microfiche, in digital format, or in published format.

A primary source provides direct or firsthand evidence about an event, object, person, or work of art. Primary sources include also historical and legal documents, eyewitness accounts, and results of experiments, statistical data, pieces of creative writing, audio and video recordings, speeches, and art objects. Interviews, surveys, fieldwork, and Internet communications via email, blogs, and newsgroups are also primary sources. In the natural and social sciences, primary sources are often empirical studies—research where an experiment was performed or a direct observation was made. This consists of original information from the specific purpose at hand (*Fraund and Williams, 1989*). It is also first-hand information from the primary index. The answers given by respondents to the questionnaires administered will constitute one type of primary data. Personal observations will be another type of Primary data. Each of the primary data is discussed briefly as thus;

**a) Questionnaires:** This serves as one of the major research instruments adopted by the researcher to retrieve information needed from the stakeholders. It has been expedient for the researcher to use questionnaire because of the large sample size and the type of data needed. The questionnaires contain multiple choice questions with possible answers which are designed to reflect different shades of opinions. Simple alternative questions having various options to be chosen from based on individual stake holder's perspective. This helps achieve unbiased and immediate answers. Also, open-ended questions which allow respondents to express views more precisely were included.

**b) Interviews:** An interview is a conversation between two or more people where questions are asked by the interviewer to elicit facts or statements from the interviewee. The qualitative research interview seeks to describe and the meanings of central themes in the life world of the subjects. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the interviewees say. Interviewing, as a method for conducting this research, is a technique used to understand the experiences of others who may be connected or have a stake in the research being conducted.

**(ii) Secondary Data:**

A secondary source interprets and analyzes primary sources. These sources are one or more steps removed from the event. Secondary sources may have pictures, quotes or graphics of primary sources in them. The secondary data consist of information that already exists somewhere, having been collected for another purpose (*Kotler, 1997*). It consists of published articles, textbooks, magazines, newspapers, project and materials on the related subject from the internet etc. Secondary data generally in this research was also significant for this nature of work. It helps to affirm and or proffer answers to research questions. It is therefore, important to consider re-analyzing existing data on the subject matter of the impact of British colonial economic activities in the course of this study. The secondary data consulted include raw data and published data. In choosing the secondary data to use, constant attention was paid to the research objectives, research questions and issues considered under the literature review on the subject matter of investigation. Existing literatures on Colonialism and its impact were downloaded via the internet using search engines or tools such as Google, MSN etc, which assisted significantly in locating studies, carried out previously and considered relevant to the research focus. In order to

collect information, visits will be made to the following places: National Archives, Banjul, National Council for Arts and Culture (NCAC), Gambia, the National Library, Gambia Groundnut Corporation (G.G.C), Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Agriculture, Gambia Chamber of Commerce and Industries, etc. As well, both published and unpublished information from Journals, Magazines, Handouts, and Projects were also used. In all cases, consideration was given to the possibility that some secondary data might lack the desired comprehensiveness and as such, most secondary data consulted were therefore, viewed with caution and its relevance related to meeting the objectives of the study and also in answering the research questions.

### **3:2.6 Validity and Reliability of Instrument Used:**

The items in the research instrument were validated by a specialist in Measurement and Evaluation in the School of Education, the University of The Gambia and the reliability of the instrument will be established using split- half method.

### **3:2.7 Justifications for Sample Selection Procedure/Sample Size.**

The justification for sample selection procedure/sample size and the justification for using a particular sample may entail the limitations, which herein represent those external elements which constrain the researcher from achieving the objectives of the study Ajala (1996 p.22) opines the distinctions between delimitation and limitations as portrayed thus:

*“While determination is imposed by the researcher in order to capture accurately the focus of the problem, limitations are restrictions imposed by the environment of the study area. Such restrictions could be experienced in course of data collection”.*

Therefore, the justification for this sample selection procedure / sample size and the jurisdiction for using this particular sample are as a result of these factors:



(a) **Time:** The time to prepare the questionnaires to be administered and collected from the respondents who are always very busy and lack the time to go through the questionnaires and answering same due to busy schedule and official engagement.

(b) **Finance:** The cost of producing the questionnaires, the research materials which are difficult to get. More especially, the typing and binding of the work are all cost challenging.

(c) **Indifference:** It is true that some of the respondents actually cooperated with the researcher in filling out the questionnaires; however, some were indifferent and could not return the questionnaire. .

### **3: 2.8 Definition of Variables**

The **impact of colonialism** (usually called Colonial legacies) is generally used to refer to the overarching effect of European countries activities in Africa, Asia and the Americas. The European colonial period was the era from the 16<sup>th</sup> century to the mid 20<sup>th</sup> century when several European powers particularly, but not exclusively, Portugal, Spain, Britain, the Netherlands, Russia and France established colonies in Africa, Asia and the Americas. At first the countries followed mercantilist policies designed to strengthen the home economy at the expense of rivals, so the colonies were usually allowed to trade only with the mother country. By the mid -19<sup>th</sup> century, however, the powerful British Empires gave up mercantilism and trade restrictions and introduced the principle of free trade, with few restrictions. In the 1960s most African countries had their independence but colonialism did bring misery and exploitation of huge resources in all the areas it was applied. The main arguments regarding the economic impact of colonialism are the ‘drain of wealth,’ expropriation (mainly of land), the control over production and trade, the exploitation of natural resources, and the improvement of infrastructure of the colonised. Very few, if anyone, can argue that Africa’s connection and relationship with the West is an asymmetrical one which cost the continent positive and sustainable developments in the political, economic and social areas. However, what is known and sometimes usually argued is that the foundation for failure was laid in Africa during colonialism and is sustained through colonial legacies with the accomplice of African elite leaders.

The **challenges of colonialism** in the context of this research are widely used to refer to the aftermath challenges (constraints) of colonialism during the decolonization period in Africa. In the 1960s when most African countries had independence, independence came with its constraints and problems, most of which are still insurmountable. It is believed in most quarters that the consequences of colonialism are still subsisting in the variety of political instability, military intervention in politics, perennial economic crisis, corruption, civil wars, and bloodshed, poor standard of life, low literacy level which pervades many ex-colonies. The powerful colonizers have imposed a language and a culture, whereas those of the Oriental peoples have been ignored or distorted.

Through the process of decolonization that began, in most African territories, at the close of World War II, African leaders gained greater political power under European rule. In the decades that followed independence, they worked to shape the cultural, political, and economic character of the postcolonial state. Some worked against the challenges of continued European cultural and political hegemony, while others worked with European powers in order to protect their interests and maintain control over economic and political resources. Decolonization, then, was a process as well as a historical period.

Yet the nations and regions of Africa experienced it with varying degrees of success. By 1990, formal European political control had given way to African self-rule—except in South Africa. Culturally and politically, however, the legacy of European dominance remained evident in the national borders, political infrastructures, education systems, national languages, economies, and trade networks of each nation. Ultimately, decolonization produced moments of inspiration and promise, yet failed to transform African economies and political structures to bring about true autonomy and development.

**Colonialism/economic underdevelopment** are two of the explanatory variables used in the Quantitative analysis. These variables are used to investigate whether colonialism has led to economic underdevelopment in The Gambia. In other words, if the present state of The Gambia's economy is attributable to colonialism. Colonialism, which involves the planned exploitation of the resources of the less powerful countries by the most powerful ones especially from Europe, has always been adduced the major factor of economic underdevelopment in The

Gambia. Economic development refers to the problems of under-developed countries and economic growth of the developed countries (Jhingan 2005:4). Maddison (1970) made a distinction between the two terms viz: “The raising of income levels is generally called economic growth in rich countries and in poor ones it is termed economic development.” But this view does not specify the underlying forces which raises income levels in the two economies. Hicks (1939) pointed out in this connection, that the problems of underdeveloped countries are concerned with the development of unused resources, even though their uses are well-known, while those of advanced countries are related to growth as most of their resources are already known and developed to a considerable extent.

Schumpeter (1934) clarified this subject when he defined economic development as “a discontinuous and spontaneous change in the stationary state which forever alters and displaces the equilibrium state previously existing”. This definition is widely accepted and used by Economists. Economic development implies both more output and change in the technical and institutional arrangement by which it is produced and distributed. Economic development is related to qualitative changes in economic wants, goods, incentives, institutions, productivity and knowledge or the upward movement of the entire social system” Jhingan (2005:5).

**Strategies for improving the economy of The Gambia** refers to those indicators which help to improve the economy. These indicators generally signal changes before changes actually occur in the economy. Economic indicators were first published for government leaders who needed a better understanding of the country's current economic condition. Today, those indicators are useful across a wide variety of professions. For the purpose of this research they include: diversification of the economy, boosting education and training, industrializing the Gambia's economy, corruption free Gambia, generating capital for development as postulate in the review of related literature but not limited to these. These indicators (variables) would help to identify the key actions under each of the pillars that underpin the economic framework, both in terms of the rebalancing and rebuilding the economy. It also helps to point out the main actions that need to be taken to achieve sustainable growth and prosperity in the short and long run.

### 3.3 Descriptive Data

The descriptive data applied here involves the identification of specific concepts and themes in the interview transcripts, questionnaires, as well as interview responses that explained and revealed meanings to the topic of research. The microanalysis process labelled these concepts and grouped like concepts into categories, which emerged from informants' responses. These were **impact of colonialism, challenges of colonialism, colonialism and economic underdevelopment and strategies for improving the economy of The Gambia.**

Detailed descriptive analysis of the relevant variables involved and examined in this research work has been graphically presented clearly in this section, in addition to measures of central tendency of all the relevant variables.

The data collected and collated in the course of the study, especially those in form of responses from questionnaires were presented in Tables, histograms using absolute figures and the comparative percentages capable of self explanation and further analyses. The tables were structured in line with the particular items(s) or group of items relevant to the issue being tested or highlighted towards the proving or disproving of the hypotheses. Issues to further confirm findings, reinforce conclusions and assist in the recommendations were also tabulated from the questionnaires responded to accordingly.

### **3:4 Quantitative Data**

The Quantitative data generated from the study was processed and analyzed to enable the researcher answer the research questions and achieve the objectives of the study. The data that were generated from the sample of 300 subjects were analyzed by testing the four hypotheses formulated for the study. The statistical methods that will be employed for the analysis were Measures of Central Tendency for hypotheses 1, 2, &3 and the Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient for hypothesis 4. The hypotheses, research questions and interviews were analysed and discussed. It specifically looked at the impact of colonialism, challenges of colonialism, colonialism economic underdevelopment and remedies for improving the economy of The Gambia. The alpha level of significance of 0.05 will be used as the standard for the rejection or retention of hypotheses.

The thesis analyzed quantitative data at multilevel, which includes the macro and (shop floor or individual researcher) levels. The purpose of this multi-level analysis was to explain the responses of the respondents (stakeholders) in relation to the topic of research. Under this, they (respondents) explained how and locate where colonialism affected The Gambia. In this context, the thesis assumed that colonial policies could influence or impact on a country and therefore economic development. According to Morris, (2004) examining the within and across level effects and mediating mechanisms can provide valuable information about systemic effects on behaviour. Therefore, in this case the multilevel analysis might be useful in understanding the system wide effect(s) of colonialism. However, the individual researcher remained the basic unit of analysis and the central focus of the thesis. Having completed quantitative data collection, it became necessary to develop statistical measures of association as well as measurement models, which is a process marked by the language of variables (Jean Lee, 1992). The quantitative data analysis and interpretation that followed was basically deductive, a matter of proving or disproving the hypothesis. Hypotheses developed around themes and issues considered important to the research experiences of impact of colonialism were tested and interpreted through hypotheses testing and statistical analysis.

### **3:4.3 Statistical Techniques used in analyzing the Data**

Data analysis means categorizing, ordering, manipulating and summarizing of answers to research questions. The purpose of analysis is to reduce data into interpretable form so that the relationship of the research problem can be studied or tested. Tables and histograms, charts have been used for presentation of data.

### **3:4.4 Quality of Research Data**

The content of the questionnaire was comprehensive and specific in order to address fully the research questions and hypotheses. Research design may be said to be valid if it enables a researcher elicit the correct responses from the sample subjects (Asika, 2001). Considering that the desired responses were gotten from sample population implies that the research design was valid. In preparing the report of the survey's findings, two objectives were considered:

- Presenting the findings in a manner to minimize the possibility of erroneous or unwarranted interpretations;
- Preparing the report so as to maximize the use of its findings.

### **3:4.5 Justifications for the Research Methodology**

It is vital to describe a research method as specifically as possible (Crotty, 1998). The choice of a qualitative research mode for this study is consistent with the research's aim to ascertain a complex phenomenon by considering the context of its settings (Yin, 2009). Reasons for the choice of qualitative research method for this research were based on the research problem as identified in Chapter One, the researcher's epistemological stance and the level of uncertainty surrounding the phenomenon under consideration. Often, "what, how and why" questions are more appropriately examined using a qualitative research approach as highlighted below.

On the one hand, a qualitative research approach is able to accept complexity and subjectivity and enables the researcher to use his/her observations and interpretations of the phenomenon to

gain insights and discover meaning about a particular experience, situation, cultural element or historical event (Myers, 2009). On the other hand, the quantitative research mode is suitable for exploring or explaining such complexities and more appropriate for confirming what is already known about a phenomenon (Morse and Mitcham, 2002; Rolfe, 2006). Moreover, quantitative research allows the researcher to familiarise himself/herself with the problem or concept to be studied, and perhaps generate hypotheses to be tested (Golafshani, 2003).

Another reason for the choice of a qualitative research approach is based on the researcher's epistemology. According to Darlaston-Jones (2007), the ability to identify the relationship between the epistemological foundation of a research and the methods employed in conducting the study is critical in order for research to be truly meaningful. Therefore, the researcher adopted an interpretivist epistemological stance that aimed to identify impact of colonialism and how it has continued to play down on the economy of The Gambia, which is also consistent with a qualitative research mode.

Furthermore, an interpretivist paradigm is suitable for this research as it recognises the recurring nature of colonialism and its role in the Gambian economy (Saunders et al., 2009). Although the interpretivist approach raises questions on the generalisability of findings, Saunders et al. (2009) point out that generalisability is not of crucial importance as the aim of the research is to capture the rich complexities of the situation. Also, this research adopts an inductive rather than a deductive approach since it aims to understand in-depth meanings of the phenomena (Miles and Huberman, 1994), and theory building takes place after data collection and these are subsequently related to the literature (Saunders et al., 2009).

### **3:4.6 Qualitative Research**

Qualitative research is based on words rather than numbers (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Its designs are those that are connected with interpretative approaches from the informants rather than measuring discrete, observable behaviour (Minichiello et al., 1995). It is used to answer questions about the nature of phenomena with the purpose of describing and understanding those phenomena from the informant's point-of-view (Leedy, 1997). According to Cornford and Smithson (1996), qualitative research hesitates to adopt the scientific model of a generalisable objective product from the research endeavour, thus it is probably wrong to make the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research simply on the use or absence of numbers. Sykes (1990) ascertained that the strength of qualitative research lies in the flexible and responsive interaction between interviewer and respondents. Yin (2009), notes that qualitative research helps to explain complex issues, within the natural settings of the research phenomenon, in detail. It mostly means "any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification" (Strauss and Corbin, 1990). In qualitative research, meaning can be probed and topics can be covered easily from a number of angles. Questions are made clear for respondents; therefore Myers (2001) considers it to be an advantage for exploring concepts (construct or theoretical validity) and the relationships between them (internal validity). Similarly, Hakim (1987) states that the greatest strength of qualitative research is the validity of data obtained because individuals are interviewed in sufficient details for the results to be taken as true, correct and believable reports of their views and experiences. The qualitative research paradigm is also referred to as a "constructivist", "naturalistic", "interpretative", "post-positivist" or "post-modern perspective" approach (Lincoln and Guba, 1985).

In a research context, where a certain topic has been little written about (like in this case), the qualitative method is usually used to provide an in-depth insight into the phenomena being investigated (Bryman, 1995; Myers 2009; Yin, 2009). Myers (2009) argues that qualitative research methods are designed to help researchers to understand people and what they say and do. According to Patton (2001), qualitative research uses a naturalistic approach that seeks to understand phenomena in context-specific settings, such as a "real world setting where the



researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomenon of interest". It is designed to help researchers understand the social and cultural contexts within which people live. Qualitative researchers contend that it is virtually impossible to understand why someone did something or why something happened in an organisation without talking to people about it. For example, "*if the police were restricted to using only quantitative data, almost no crimes would be solved. Also, if lawyers and judges were not allowed to question or cross-examine witnesses in court, the validity and reliability of any court decision would be thrown into serious doubt*"(Myers, 2009). Myers (2009) further advocates that if a researcher wants to understand people's motivations, their reasons, their actions and context of their beliefs and actions in an in-depth way, then qualitative research is best.

Qualitative research does not depend on the researcher knowing all the characteristics and categories of a subject ahead of time (Morse, 2003) but rather, allows concepts to be developed and refined as the research progresses. Myers (1997) and Oates (2006) further ascertain that qualitative research can be synonymous with positivist, interpretative or critical research paradigms. Zikmund (2003) states that there is no best research methodology but rather that the approach adopted depends on the research questions and research objectives that the research seeks to answer. In addition, the decision to adopt any research methodology is always a compromise between options and choices. Jenkins (1985) states that the key to selecting the best methodology consists of two factors: (1) awareness of the research aims and (2) recognition of the available methodologies and understanding their relative strengths and weaknesses.

Galliers and Land (1987) suggest that before deciding on an appropriate research approach in the field of colonialism, a researcher should first consider the nature of colonialism itself and then look at what is expected to be gained from undertaking research in the chosen area. The authors further explain that colonialism is a cross –cutting subject that spans many disciplines in humanities, business, and social sciences. As a result, selecting an appropriate research approach is not usually a straightforward task. Similarly, Orlikowski and Baroudi (1991) highlight the difficulties faced by researchers. It may include scarcity of information, distance and none co-operation attitude of most respondents in giving out the needed information. According to Gill and Johnson (1997), various factors influence the choice of different approaches as well as the

nature and content of the research problem and the available resources. Hence, Crotty (1998) suggests it is vital to have a plan of action in every research. It is important not only to describe the methodology, but also give an account of the rationale it provides for the choice of methods and the particular forms in which the methods are employed (Crotty, 1998).

Given the fact that qualitative research involves interpretative and humanistic approach to the study of social phenomena, its methods emphasize a first place value on total understandings and interpretation of peoples' experiences, actions and beliefs in specific contexts, which are dynamic (Ozor, 2012). It means therefore that the qualitative researcher regularly attempts to understand, interpret meanings, or make sense out of social phenomena in terms of how the participants view, understand or experience the issue, object or processes/interactions under study. For this reason, the qualitative researcher studies things in their natural settings. Closeness to the site/home/business premise of the respondent enables the researcher to obtain indebt information about the person, object or situation under study and immersion in the actual experiences of participants. The qualitative researcher further acknowledges his personal involvement, bias, values and interest in the research process. This concentration and introspection represent the researcher's attempt to be open and honest, thus recognizing that all research is value laden (Mertens, 2003). The qualitative researcher filters through data and examines patterns of meanings emerging from close observations. The findings of qualitative research are placed in a particular context. Qualitative research cuts across disciplines, fields and subject matter, and is multi methods in focus. Multiple methods enable the qualitative researcher to secure in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question. Conventionally, data collection methods in qualitative research include interviews with individuals, observations of people, places and actions/interactions including immersions in settings (Ozor, 2012). However, in addition to these traditional data collection methods, new methods are emerging such as sounds, e-mails and scrapbooks (Creswell, 2009). Researcher engagement in the research setting is necessary in order to fully understand the issue, object, situation, and social interactions under study (Tewksbury, 2009). The qualitative researcher further attempts to involve participants in data collection process and to respond to their sensibilities. As far as possible the research site is not disturbed as the researcher attempts to build rapport and credibility with respondents.

Qualitative research is emergent as constructs, categories, theory and other aspects emerge during the study. Research questions may change as the inquirer is informed by the evolving research process and data collection may be expanded as the process of constant comparison of data and categories continues until data saturation is attained. This unfolding nature of qualitative research makes it impossible to predetermine or tightly set the initial research proposal (Ozor, 2012). In addition, qualitative research makes use of several models of logic, though it is largely inductive. This means that the qualitative researcher uses both inductive and deductive reasoning, but the use of logical systems is also repetitive and simultaneous. This is because the thinking process involving both induction and deduction slides back and forward during data collection and analysis; from data analysis to problem formulation and reformulation and back. Besides, since qualitative research process involves simultaneous data collection and analysis ending with writing up results, the reasoning process simultaneously involves both inductive and deductive logics. In brief, (Ozor, 2012 in Creswell, 2009:29) described qualitative approach as,

*one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist perspectives (i.e., the multiple meanings of individual experiences meanings socially and historically constructed, with an intent of developing a theory or pattern) or advocacy/participatory perspectives (i.e., political, issue-oriented, collaborative, or change oriented) or both. It also uses strategies of inquiry such as narratives, phenomenologies, ethnographies, grounded theory studies, or case studies. The researcher collects open-ended, emerging data with the primary intent of developing themes from the data.*

Qualitative research is multidisciplinary cutting across the humanities, social sciences as well as physical sciences, and it is multi-paradigmatic in focus. Qualitative researchers recognize the value of multi-methods approach to research and take a humanistic perspective to the study of phenomena. They are committed to the interpretative analysis of individual experiences from the perspectives of the objects of study. Qualitative research is characterized by exploratory and descriptive focus, emergent design, data collection in the natural setting, immersion in the study site, acknowledgment of researcher involvement, emphasis on human as instrument, multiple data collection methods, iterative and simultaneous reasoning, though largely inductive analysis in nature.

It aims to understand how people think about the world and how they act and behave in it. This approach requires researchers to understand phenomena based on discourse, actions and documents, and how and why individuals interpret and ascribe meaning to what they say and do, and to other aspects of the world (including other people) they encounter.

Some qualitative studies extend beyond individuals' personal experiences to explore interactions and processes within organizations or other environments. Knowledge at both an individual and a cultural level is treated as socially constructed. This implies that all knowledge is, at least to some degree, interpretive, and hence, dependent on social context. It is also shaped by the personal perspective of the researcher as an observer and analyst. As a result, qualitative researchers devote a great deal of attention to demonstrating the trustworthiness of their findings using a range of methodological strategies.

### **3: 4.7 Quantitative Research**

Quantitative research relies on developing metrics (numbers) that can be used to describe the phenomena (objects and relationships) under study. It involves the application of a numerical approach to the issue under study as well as the data analysis. Such data can subsequently be analysed using the techniques of statistical analysis (Cornford and Smithson, 1996). Quantitative methodologies are suitable to measure behaviours and descriptive aspects, allowing comparison and replication. Jayaratne (1993) argues that quantitative research allows large scale data collection and analysis at a reasonable cost and effort and also gives statistical proof. It is characterized by the assumption that human behaviour can be explained by what may be termed “social facts” which can be investigated by methodologies that utilize “the deductive logic of the natural sciences” (Amaratunga et al., 2002). Quantitative research designs have always been concerned with defining an epistemological methodology for determining the truth/value and are usually flexible in terms of dealing with data and allowing researchers to conduct comparative analysis, statistical analysis and repeatability of data collection in order to verify reliability (Amaratunga et al., 2002).

Creswell (2003) identifies some characteristics of quantitative research as follows: it views truthfulness or reality to exist in the world, which can be objectively and quantitatively measured, in terms of the relationship between the investigator and what is being investigated. The quantitative research paradigm suggests that the researcher should remain distant and independent of what is being researched to ensure an objective assessment of the situation.

Easterby-Smith (1991) and Amaratunga et al. (2002) identify some strengths of quantitative methodologies which include: allowing comparison and replication; reliability and validity may

be determined more objectively than qualitative techniques; emphasising the need to formulate hypotheses for subsequent verification; helping to search for causal explanations and fundamental laws; and, generally reducing the whole to the simplest possible elements in order to facilitate analysis. Creswell (2003) further states that in quantitative research, concepts, variables and hypotheses are selected prior to the study and remain fixed all through the study as the aim of the study is to develop generalisations that contribute to the theory and enable a researcher to better predict and explain some phenomena.

However, Myer (2009), argues that a major disadvantage of quantitative research is that, as a general rule, most of the social and economic aspects of the topics are lost or are treated in a superficial manner. According to Saunders et al. (2009), quantitative data convey very little meaning to most people before they are processed and analysed. Quantitative analysis techniques, such as graphs, charts and statistics, allow researchers to explore, present, describe and examine relationships and trends within data. Quantitative data can range from simple counts such as the frequency of occurrences to more complex data such as test scores, prices or rental costs. In contrast to quantitative approaches, qualitative methods look at ways of increasing the richness of the data about the social process in a research problem and tend to be subjective (Bryman 1995).

Quantitative and Qualitative research have stimulated some debates among scholars amidst competing claims of superiority of one approach over the other as a more scientific approach to doing social research. Tewksbury, (2009) argued for the superiority of qualitative research over quantitative inquiry. (Ozor, 2012) in Mahoney and Goertz, 2006:227-228), describing the tension and debates arising from the distinction between quantitative and qualitative research, stated,

*“We prefer to think of the two traditions as alternative cultures. Each has its own values, beliefs, and norms. Each is sometimes privately suspicious or skeptical of the other though usually more publicly polite. Communication across traditions tends to be difficult and marked by misunderstanding. When members of one tradition offer their insights to members of the other community, the advice is likely to be viewed (rightly or wrongly) as unhelpful and even belittling”*

Nevertheless, Grimmer and Hanson, (2007:58-59) argues that the difference between the two is only “approximate“, merely imprecise and also blurred since a good number of research clearly focusing on one approach, “nevertheless uses several techniques, often mixing the quantitative and the qualitative“. The authors suggested that rather than see each research approach as exclusive entities, the organizing notion of a continuum, with core positivism at one end and constructivism at the other, can be used to resolve the argument. Both research traditions are descriptive categories that cover many different actual methods (Gummesson, 2005; Long et al., 2000; Wilson and Natale, 2001). Though qualitative and quantitative researchers pursue different specific purposes that produce different set of values and norms shaping research practices, both research traditions share the common objective of producing valid descriptions and causal inferences (Grimmer and Hanson, 2006; Brady and Collier, 2004).

Nevertheless, some noticeable differences can be found between quantitative and qualitative inquiries based on their distinctive research purposes and practices/methods. Adopting a criteria approach (Brady and Collier, 2004), Mahoney and Goertz, (2006) identified ten areas across which quantitative and qualitative research can be contrasted. These areas include approaches to explanation, conceptions of causation, multivariate explanations, equifinality, scope and causal generalization, case selection practices, weighting observations, substantively important cases, lack of fit, and concepts and measurement. As well, some scholars describe each position with reference to ontology, epistemology, and research purpose (Carson et al., 2001; Jean Lee, 1992; Healy and Perry, 2000; Kidd, 2002; Guba and Lincoln, 2000).

However, this research work makes a distinction between the two research traditions based on their method of investigation. The criteria for this purpose include purpose of research, assumptions, approaches, and researcher’s role in research. In the first instance, quantitative research seeks to generalize results of research, prediction, and causal explanations for relationships established. Worrall (2000) underscores the predictive advantage that quantitative method of inquiry possesses, that is, its ability to make correct predictions about what will be. Quantitative inquiry seeks to achieve numeric description of things and prediction of relationships whereas qualitative research focuses on interpretation of “the meanings, traits and

defining characteristics of events, people, interactions, settings/cultures and experience“(Tewksbury, 2009:38-39) from the perspectives of informants. Results of qualitative research are in contrast essentially contextualized. Second, the ontological and epistemological assumptions of both research traditions differ. Quantitative research assumes that objective reality exists outside the individual and this reality can be discovered with predictable degree of certainty using objectively appropriate scientific methods. Quantitative research is concerned primarily with methods, standardized methods of inquiry and focuses on specific definitions and deliberately operationalized meanings of particular concepts and variables. On the other hand, the ontological assumption of qualitative research is that reality is socially constructed, and epistemologically, the focus is on the subject of inquiry as it places primary value on full understandings and on how people interact, experience and understand in given social situations that are dynamic (Ozor, 2012). Quantitative research assumes that variables can be identified and relationships accurately measured, whereas qualitative researcher assumes that variables are complex and interwoven, and as such difficult to measure. Contrasting quantitative and qualitative inquiry, (Ozor, 2012 in Denzin and Lincoln (2007:10) stated:

*“Qualitative researchers stress the socially constructed nature of reality, the intimate relationship between researcher and what is studied, and the situational constraints that shape inquiry. Such researchers emphasize the value-laden nature of inquiry. They stress answers to questions about how social experience is created and given meaning. In contrast, quantitative studies emphasize measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables, not processes. Proponents of such studies claim that their work is done from a value free framework”*

Third, the methodological orientation and procedures of the two research traditions also differ. Traditionally, a quantitative research begins with hypotheses and theories. Its methods involve manipulation and control of data, use of formal instruments and experimentation, deductive logical system or mathematical logic, and analysis of abstract data. The approach seeks to conform to acceptable norms of doing research within the positivist research community. It is committed to quantification of data, and axiologically uses abstract language in writing up results of research. On the other hand, qualitative research process ends with hypothesis and theory



grounded on data. Qualitative research method is characterized by exploratory and descriptive focus, emergent design, data collection in the natural setting, immersion in the study site, acknowledgment of researcher involvement, emphasis on researcher as instrument, and multiple data collection methods. In the search for patterns in the observed phenomena, it uses iterative and simultaneous reasoning, though largely inductive reasoning and analysis.

Quantitative research is value free, and the researcher and object of research are considered independent of each other as the researcher remains detached from the research process. The quantitative researcher is committed to objective pursuit and portrayal of what can be known. In contrast, qualitative research acknowledges the researcher's personal involvement, bias, values and interest in the research process. Overall, the strength of qualitative research seems to derive from the ability of its methods to produce quantifiable and reliable data that are generalizable to some larger population. However, its weakness appears to lie on the assumption that variables can be identified and relationships measured with some degree of precision. Besides, since a major purpose of quantitative inquiry is generalizability of results, it tends to de-contextualize social behaviour in ways that rob it of its real world setting (Ozor, 2012). Since quantitative research design is static, not emergent, it tends to ignore the consideration of factors not accounted for at the beginning of the research. Weinreich, (2006) observed that quantitative approach to inquiry breaks down when the phenomenon under study is difficult to measure, when data cannot be reduced to numerical indices.

Quantitative research is typically considered to be the more "scientific" approach to doing social science. The focus is on using specific definitions and carefully operationalizing what particular concepts and variables mean. Qualitative research methods provide more emphasis on interpretation and providing consumers with complete views, looking at contexts, environmental immersions and a depth of understanding of concepts

So, why should social scientists use qualitative methods? What is the benefit of such an approach to the study of this nature? In simple terms, qualitative methods are about gaining true understandings of the economic aspects of how colonialism was applied and how the agents, structures and processes of responding to its economically-grounded contexts. Qualitative

methods provide a depth of understanding of issues that is not possible through the use of quantitative, statistically-based investigations. Qualitative methods are the approach that centralizes and places primary value on complete understandings, and how people (the social aspect of our discipline) understand, experience and operate within milieus that are dynamic, and social in their foundation and structure.

This is not to say that all social scientists recognize and value qualitative research, nor do all social scientists believe that what qualitative methods offer is superior to quantitative methods, or even contributing to the foundations that establish a body of knowledge. For many scholars, qualitative research is inferior to what can be gained from quantitative methods, and provides only anecdotal, non-scientific examples of marginally interesting and valuable insights. For most researchers, qualitative research is the realm of pseudo-science, and provides little or no value for addressing social problems.

Qualitative research is not only the “weak” stepchild of the scientific community in the eyes of many scholars, but is also numerically the rare method behind published scholarship in most fields. As reviews of published research articles show, less than 11% of articles in top tier journals employ qualitative methods (Buckler, Tewksbury, DeMichele and Miller, 2005), and less than 15% of articles in non-top-tier journals utilize and report results from quantitative studies (Buckler, Tewksbury, DeMichele and Miller, 2005).

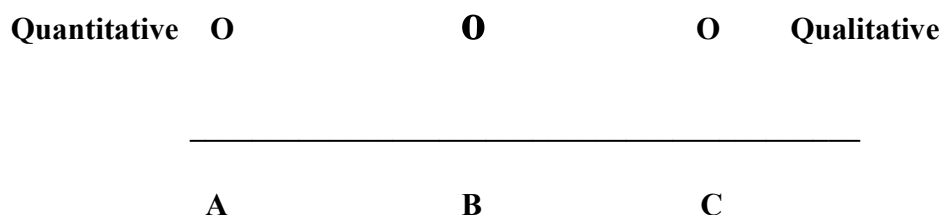
Although qualitative research is less common than quantitative research in most fields, it is recognized for the value and unique contributions it can make. Most researchers acknowledge that qualitative research is less common, but they also acknowledge the importance of qualitative research.

As Worrall (2000: 354) contends, one reason that quantitative research enjoys wide-spread heightened respect in most disciplines “lies in the predictive advantages its method of inquiry possesses. Indeed, the ability to make correct predictions is one of the more outstanding characteristics of quantitative methodology.” Of course, to make such a claim, Worrall (and other like-minded scholars) have to work from the assumption that prediction is necessarily a

quantitative task. While one certainly can measure past and current events in the social world, and use what is and has been as a basis for predicting what will be, to do so does not require statistical analysis. After all, we all predict what our days and futures will be like, based on our own qualitative understanding of the settings and interactional networks we find ourselves enmeshed in on a daily basis. But, for our predictions to carry “weight”, it would be the contention of Worrall and others that we need to specify strengths of relationships so as to know “how likely” things are to be predicted accurately. Clearly, this is but one way of achieving such a goal, and not necessarily a superior means for achieving such a goal.

Quantitative research options have been predetermined and a large number of respondents are involved. By definition, measurement must be objective, quantitative and statistically valid. Simply put, it’s about numbers, objective hard data. The sample size for a survey is calculated by statisticians using formulas to determine how large a sample size will be needed from a given population in order to achieve findings with an acceptable degree of accuracy. Generally, researchers seek sample sizes which yield findings with at least a 95% confidence interval (which means that if you repeat the survey 100 times, 95 times out of a hundred, you would get the same response), plus/minus a margin error of 5 percentage points. Many surveys are designed to produce a smaller margin of error.

## Research



*Research Position along the Quantitative – Qualitative ‘Continuum’ in Research Methodology*  
*Source: Adapted from (Sutrisna, 2009, pg 9).*

### **3: 4.8 An Evaluation of the Credibility of the Research**

It is important to evaluate the quality of data interpretation by examining the reliability and validity of the research findings. Whatever research methodology is adopted for a research, reliability and validity issues have to be considered as they are tests of the trustworthiness of the measurement instruments used in research (Golafshani, 2003). Validity and reliability are also regarded as concepts central to the credibility of a research (Miles and Huberman, 1994), while, according to Saunders et al. (2009), they reduce the possibility of obtaining a wrong answer. A research study is reliable if consistent results are obtained by different researchers undertaking the study under the same conditions.

### **3:4.9 Validity**

Validity is concerned with whether the measure used is actually measuring the concepts it is supposed to be measuring (Hardy and Bryman, 2004). Validation involves taking the research findings back to the participants and determining whether or not those findings conform to the experiences of the participants (Silverman, 2001). The researcher ensured that after every interview, data were transcribed and given back to each participant to review in order to ensure validity. Stake (1995) emphasises that a good, qualitative study must always have the data collected, validated and it is one of the ethical obligations of the researcher to minimise any misrepresentation and misunderstanding. According to Voss et al. (2002), the issue of validity is whether findings can be generalised beyond the immediate case study.

Wainer and Braun (1988) describe validity in quantitative research as “construct validity”. The construct is the initial concept, notion, question or hypothesis that determines which data are to be gathered and how they are to be gathered. Wainer and Braun (1988) also assert that quantitative researchers actively cause or affect the interplay between construct and data in order to validate their investigation, usually by the application of a test or other process. In this sense, the involvement of the researchers in the research process would greatly reduce the validity of a test. However, Maxwell (2005) identifies two issues in qualitative studies that can impact on validity. The first is ‘researcher bias’ and the other is ‘reactivity’. Researcher bias occurs when a

researcher selects data that fits the researcher's existing theory, while, reactivity is concerned with the influence of the researcher on the setting or people studied and it is a problem often raised about qualitative studies. However, Lubbe (2003) stresses that it is naive to assert that any form of research, or perhaps human activity generally, is without bias. Even in the physical and life sciences, bias is reflected in the subject researched, the experiments chosen, as well as the way the experiment is conducted. Thus bias cannot be totally eliminated but should be recognised and its implications acknowledged and accepted (i.e. lived with). According to Lubbe (2003), bias is everywhere but can be minimised. It is the primary function of the researcher to minimise the level of bias in which he is working. Approaches used to counteract biases in this research include:

- Considering Colonialism from different perspectives rather than concentrating on one particular perspective.
- Probing for further explanation when faced with inconsistencies in the interview.
- Using multiple case studies to develop stronger evidence rather than a single case.
- Using literature to back up the research findings.

The use of multiple sources of evidence also substantially assisted in improving the reliability of the research:

### **3: 4.10 Reliability**

Although the term 'reliability' is a concept used for testing or evaluating quantitative research, the idea is most often used in all kinds of research. Reliability refers to consistency where the characteristics include that of the instrument and the conditions under which it is administered (Cooper and Schindler, 2001). Reliability focuses on whether the process of the study is consistent and reasonably stable over time and across researchers and methods (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Thus, reliability is the extent to which a questionnaire and an interview produce similar results within a constant environment on all occasions (Bell, 1993). It is essential that the information give trustworthy and stable results in order to be reliable. Yin (2009) further

states that reliability means to allow the study to be repeated in the same way and yielding the same results. Nevertheless, Merriam (1998) advocates that reliability is problematic in social sciences simply because human behaviour is dynamic. The problem of reliability in qualitative research is that differences between replicated studies using different researchers are to be expected. Similarly, Myer (2001) states that it may not be surprising that many researchers generate different findings and reach different conclusions. Nevertheless, controlling for reliability may still be relevant. To ensure reliability in qualitative research, examination of trustworthiness is crucial (Seale, 1999). In contrast, Stenbacka (2001) argues that since the reliability issue concerns measurements then it has no relevance in qualitative research. Stenbacka (2001) adds that the issue of reliability is an irrelevant matter in the judgment of quality in qualitative research. However, Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that: “Since there can be no validity without reliability, a demonstration of the former (validity) is sufficient to establish the latter (reliability)”. Patton (2001) agrees that reliability is a consequence of the validity in a study.

Reliability was strengthened in this research in several ways. First, the questionnaire and the interview guide were pre-tested (pilot study) (Silverman, 2001). Pre-testing involved carrying out a pilot study with two government Parastatals in Banjul prior to the main data collection period. Furthermore, in order to minimise inferences, all interviews were recorded and transcribed. According to Peräkylä (2004), the ‘quality’ of the recordings and the interview transcripts are important when the aim is to establish the reliability of research findings stemming from social interaction. Also, the use of a case study protocol was another strategy. Lubbe (2003) indicates that using a protocol is a primary tactic in increasing the reliability of the case study. The reliability of this research will be further tested through the following methods:

### **3: 4.11 a) Test Re-test:**

This method is sometimes called the coefficient of stability. It is a method whereby a test is applied to same sample twice on two different occasions, and the scores derived from each of the test are then correlated ( Igharo, 2011). This kind of scores or methods gives information the stability of the Rank orders of the individual over a period of time.

### **3: 4: 12 Split – Half Method:**

In this method, the test items are divided into two equal halves , and each half of the test is administered separately to the same group of individuals and the scores from either half is then correlated with the other. There are two different ways a test can be split into two equal halves: The Odd and Even Method. In this method, all the odd numbers test items are grouped together of all the other items that are even numbers, are also grouped together. Another method for equal half splitting is to take the first set of numbers of items that exactly divide the entire length of test items into two equal halves since correlations are half of a test is not exactly equal to establishing the reliability of the entire test (Igharo, 2011).

### **3: 4: 13 Triangulation**

Triangulation is typically a strategy for improving the validity and reliability of a research or evaluation of findings (Golafshani, 2003). Patton (2001) advocates that the use of triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. Triangulation refers to the use of more than one approach for the investigation of a research question in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings (Bryman, 2006). According to Webb et al. (1996), “Once a proposition has been confirmed by two or more independent measurement processes, the uncertainty of its interpretation is greatly reduced. The most persuasive evidence comes through a triangulation of measurement processes”. Thus, it might be used to refer to multi method research in which a quantitative and a qualitative research method are combined to provide a more complete set of findings than could be arrived at through the administration of one of the methods alone. Triangulation is a device for enhancing the credibility and persuasiveness of a research account (Bryman, 2006). Triangulation is also known as convergent methodology (Creswell, 2003) as illustrated below:





#### **4.14 Generalisation**

Generalisation is used to establish the quality of empirical social research. This is the degree to which findings are generalisable to different people, settings or times. Positivist research seeks high generalisability. It is concerned with searching for general laws or patterns rather than findings that are unique to one particular case and can also be referred to as “external validity”. Generalisation can only be performed if the case study design has been appropriately informed by theory, and can therefore be seen to add to the established theory. The method of generalisation for case studies is not statistical generalisation but analytical generalisation. In other words, a complete presentation of the results or a previously developed theory is used as a template to compare the empirical results of the case study (Yin, 2009). Yin (2009) further states that if two or more cases are shown to support the same theory, replication can be claimed whereas, in analytical generalisation, each case is viewed as an experiment, and not a case within an experiment.

Yin (2003) states that the greater the number of case studies that show replication, the greater the rigour with which the theory has to be established. Yin (2003) further notes that case studies are generalisable to theoretical propositions, not to populations as in survey research. A case study has lower generalisation ability, whereas a survey study can provide higher generalisation. The results of this research are valid for Colonial Studies in The Gambia, in terms of generalisation. This is because colonialism issues are homogeneous, i.e. they share common characteristics; therefore, what is applicable to colonialism in The Gambia could be applied elsewhere. However, Yin (2003) argues that generalisations involving others in other countries can be made but suggests that they should be made with caution. In addition, internal validity is also used in this research. It is a matter of establishing causal relationships. This implies that a research should be able to explain how certain conditions lead to other conditions, such as how does A influence B (Yin, 2003). In this research, pattern matching and explanation building was used to ensure internal validity. Pattern matching is possible when multiple cases are included in the analysis.

Tellis (1997) describes “pattern-matching” as a useful technique for linking data to the propositions. Tellis (1997) also asserts that pattern-matching is a situation where several pieces of information from the same case may be related to some theoretical proposition. It allows the comparison of different perspectives of respondents regarding the same research phenomenon. In this research, after the pattern matching phase, findings were combined to form an overall explanation regarding the research topic. Also, the role of the researcher was examined with respect to evaluating the credibility of the research.

### **3: 4.15 Limitations of the Methodology**

The researcher was very mindful of some limitations beyond his control as it relates to discrepancies in some responses of respondents from the same organization or ministry on same questions. Errors noticed were corrected from either the manual or handbook of the organization and or from the websites on general information of the concerned stakeholders. This is to ensure mistakes are minimized. However, little can be done about respondents’ error in areas of ‘halo-effect’ but they are noteworthy. Halo-Effect is commonly experienced in many surveys a situation whereby respondents are biased towards giving favourable or positive answers and compared with giving unfavourable or negative answers.

This research is about impact assessment of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia. The chapter indicates where data were collected and subsequently analyzed. These included The University of The Gambia, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Ministry of Agriculture, Gambia Groundnut Co-operation (G.G.C), Ministry of Education of Higher Education Research and Science and Technology (MOHERST), Ministry of Labour, Employment and Productivity, National Council for Arts and Culture (NCAC), Ministry of Internal Affairs, National Archives, and the Educational Research Network for West and Central Africa (ERNWACA, all Administrative Education Regions in The Gambia etc, the key stakeholders in research of this nature, were further study points.

It outlines the methodology and research design employed in this research. The establishment of a robust research methodology was the primary focus of this chapter. Specifically, this chapter has addressed the methods of data collection, description data and quantitative data of this chapter. The research combined both quantitative and qualitative research methods with a greater dominance on the qualitative method. There was an in-depth explanation of the research method and methodology used for the purpose of this research and a justification for the choice of the qualitative and qualitative research approaches. Also, the chapter has identified the various data sources that were used in the research. The choice of the research strategy was based on the nature of the data. A survey was used in the first phase of the research while in the second phase, interviews, and documents were used to complement the results of the survey. This chapter also discussed the approaches adopted in the research as well as the criteria employed in the research. Also, ethical concerns with regard to data collection were emphasised as well as the method of data analysis, highlighting the various steps that were involved.

Suffice it to say that, the need to enhance understanding of the impact of British colonial Economic activities in The Gambia informed the choice of the study area. The strategies and styles, research paradigm and approaches and the organizations as a whole in order to handle the complex organizational processes were also relevant considerations. In addition, the ease of access to research colleagues and surviving nationalist personalities interviewed, who readily

responded to the study questionnaires provided further justification for the selection of the study area. The research design outlined the use of mixed methods research involving both qualitative and quantitative methods.

The explorative sequential mixed methods began with a qualitative and inductive phase and ended with a quantitative and deductive phase. The deductive part of the research was designed to give details and enlarge findings from the qualitative phase. Primary data for both phases of the study came mainly from survey questionnaires, semi-structured interviews. Secondary data were also taken from research data already published works on colonialism as well as materials from government institutions/Ministries in the country. The survey questionnaire was developed around the given variables, which specified variable indicators and their measures. Though, other variables were expected to be discovered from the participants' point of view as the first qualitative phase progressed. While the study population was drawn from relevant staff list of all public institutions/Ministries in The Gambia (including the University of the Gambia), the sample size set at 300 drawn from stratified sampling frames obtained from the population sample in the entire Gambia. The quantitative survey adopted both non-probability and random systematic sampling techniques. Data collection procedure in respect of Study 1 involved joint systematic data collection, coding, and analysis with theoretical sampling to develop a post-modernism theory in colonial science. The process involved data coding and summary, reassembling emerging variables and making prepositions about them, and through selective coding process (by which core variables are identified), establishing the basis for formal theory. Quantitative data collection and analysis involved the use of simple statistical tools (frequency distributions, means or modes, standards deviation/standard error of a sampling distribution, percentage tables and a 5 -point Likert scale) to test predetermined hypotheses developed around themes and issues considered important to colonial experiences of participants. Research findings from the mixed methods approach were integrated in a postmodern framework to produce deeper insights and more comprehensive analysis of the impact of British colonial economic on The Gambia.

## **Chapter Four**

### **4:0 ANALYSIS OF DATA AND TEST OF HYPOTHESES**

#### **4: 1 Introduction**

This chapter analyzed both the quantitative and qualitative data derived from the study. The analysis took into consideration responses from Questionnaires distributed and Semi-structured Interviews organized and retrieved from government institutions/Ministries/organizations across the Administrative/Educational regions of the country, nationalist leaders and politicians. The questionnaires and semi structured interviews were designed to capture as much information as possible on issues concerning Impact Assessment of British Colonial Economic activities in The Gambia. Also, the respondents' willingness and strengths to respond to the questionnaires were also indicated. The general issues of this study were summed up by determining whether British colonial economic activities actually had impact on The Gambia. These issues formed the background that elicited responses from the questionnaires and interviews relating to the topic of research.

The responses of the participants were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.5 software, which generated the frequency distributions, means, standard deviations, variances, standard errors, correlations, etc of the responses. The main hypotheses of this research were confirmed and were tested at 0.05 level of significance using Measures of Central Tendency for hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 and Pearson's Product –Moment Correlation Coefficient ( $r$ ), for hypothesis 4. The statistical tool adopted was opted for because it allows for effective understanding and interpretation of results. Also relative percentage and correlations among independence items (variables) were also computed. In order to reduce the bulkiness of data, the data presented and analysed were those that were considered relevant to the problems of research, objectives and hypotheses of this research work.

Several questions were asked in relation to the impact of British colonial economic activities on The Gambia (positive and negative), the relationship between colonialism and underdevelopment in The Gambia and on what could be done to put the economy of the country on a sound footing in the short and long run. The impact of colonialism being carried out was elucidated through the

questionnaire and semi structured interviews randomly selected. The analysis of the data and the testing of the hypotheses postulated for the study through the application of various statistical tools were also presented. It describes the frameworks of analyses as well as details of analyses of both quantitative and quantitative data. It further discusses results obtained separately from the quantitative and qualitative phases of this mixed methods research. Qualitative data were generated from interviews concerning the opinions and views of respondents and stakeholders in The Gambia. The chapter is structured in two parts. Part I deals with quantitative analysis while Part II provides details of qualitative analysis and discussions of results from interviews. The quantitative and qualitative data were then integrated and harmonised for expanded result. Data in itself does not convey any significant meaning or information unless it is subjected to statistical applications and analysis. In this chapter, attempts were made to analyze the information collected through both primary and secondary sources and relating it to the hypotheses of the research.

Given the detailed descriptive analysis of the relevant variables, four (4) hypotheses stated in null form were tested in order to find out possible impact of British Economic Activities in The Gambia and its relatedness to the present underdevelopment of the country and proffer solutions to the problem under investigation. Detailed descriptive analysis of the relevant variables involved and examined in this research work has been graphically presented clearly in this chapter. For this dissertation, a total of three hundred (**300**) Questionnaires were distributed in all the administrative /Education regions of the country, out of which two hundred and eighteen (**218**) questionnaires were returned, representing 72.7%. Thus, these were considered as significant responses.

## 4.2: QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

This section was undertaken to assess the impact of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia with its interrelatedness with underdevelopment of the country; covering the five educational/administration regions of the country comprising - Greater Banjul Areas, West Coast Region, Lower River Region, Upper River Region, North Bank Region and Central River Region. These regions have covered all the geographical expressions of the country. Within this research context, the word 'impact' is used in the sense to denote effect (influence). No doubt, the British colonialism economic activities has had marked influence on The Gambia. The main feature of colonialism was exploitation and the quantitative data analysis is used to chat the performance of colonial economy in The Gambia between 1816 and 1994. With the statistical testing of the impacts of colonialism in The Gambia, one would realize that it had profound impact on the Gambia's past, present and the future as the length of colonial domination had interrelations with other variables. It is discovered that the length of colonial domination is related to some economic and social indicators of colonial transformation: the level of colonial suffering, investment in more infrastructure; for the welfare of British personnel stationed in the country, employment migration, and probably, the success of missionary activities. This, they hope to perpetuate and consolidate their colonial exploits at the expense of the natives.

Colonialism has aptly been described as the extension of a nation's sovereignty over territory and people outside its own boundaries, often to facilitate economic domination over their resources, labour, and markets. The term also refers to a set of beliefs used to legitimize or promote this system, especially the belief that the mores of the colonizer are superior to those of the colonized. Advocates of colonialism argue that colonial rule benefits the colonized by developing the economic and political infrastructure necessary for modernization and democracy. They point to such former colonies as the United States of America, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Hong Kong and Singapore as examples of post-colonial success. These nations do not, however, represent the normal course of colonialism in that they are either settler societies, or trade post cities. African experience of colonialism is quite unique, different and therefore cannot be equated with those. More so the dusts raised by it are yet to settle.

Dependency theorists such as Andre Gunder Frank, on the other hand, argue that colonialism actually leads to the net transfer of wealth from the colonized to the colonizer, and inhibits

successful economic development. Critics of colonialism such as Frantz Fanon and Aime Cesaire argue that colonialism caused political, psychological, and moral damages to the colonized as well. More critically, Indian writer and political activist Arundhati Roy said that debating the pros and cons of colonialism/imperialism "is a bit like debating the pros and cons of rape". (Retrieved at <http://forums.canadiancontent.net/hot-topics/42590-colonialism-good-bad.html>) What this statement on colonialism portends is that there is no way to begin to imagine that colonialism has done Africans or other colonies well.

The work took a hard and critical look on the impact of colonialism and its concomitant ally, imperialism on the Gambian state. The analysis revealed that the present primary role of The Gambia in particular and Africa in general in the international world economy as the dominant sources of raw materials and major consumers of manufactured European, American and Asia products are the results of long years of colonial dominance, exploitation and imperialism. Consequently, on attainment of independence by most African states from their colonial overlords, it was extremely very difficult to disentangle from the colonial perfected role for the state because of the systematic disarticulation of the indigenous economy and the intrinsic tying of same with the external economy of the colonizers (Western economy). The work also made a startling stark revelation by discovering through analysis that the deep-seated corruption in The Gambia and in most African states and the selfish behaviour of some of the political leaders to sit tight in office even when they have obviously outlived their usefulness in the eyes of their people are attributable to the effects of colonialism and imperialism.

The major impact of colonialism in The Gambia is that it brought about the under-development of the country in many different ways. It is usually argued in favour of colonialism that it brought western education and hence western civilization to the shores of Africa which by implication is a positive contribution towards Gambian development. This argument will appear to be true on the surface value or superficially, but if it is subjected to critical analysis and scrutiny, it will reveal the hollowness or emptiness of colonial education which is partially responsible for the present Gambian underdevelopment. The colonial education was not rooted on African culture and therefore could not foster any meaningful development within the African environment because it had no organic linkage. Furthermore, colonial education was essentially literary; it had no technological touch and therefore antithetical to real or industrial development.



The poor technological base of most of the present day African states, including The Gambia which has been responsible for their underdevelopment stems from their poor foundation of education laid by the colonialists. Colonial education essentially aimed at training clerks, interpreters, produce inspectors, artisans, etc., which would help them in the exploitation of the Africa's rich resources. Colonial education did not aim at industrialization of African territories or at stimulating technological development within the African environment. Colonial education brought about distortion and disarticulation in African indigenous pattern of education which was rooted in African technology. Before fully embracing colonial education, Africans were good technologists, advancing at their own rates (pace) with the resources within their environment. For example, Africans were good sculptors, carvers, cloth weavers, miners, blacksmiths, producers, had industries etc. They were able to provide and satisfy the technological, political, social and economic needs of the various their various societies. The introduction of colonial education made Africans to abandon their indigenous technological skills and education in preference to one which mainly emphasizes reading, writing and arithmetic. This was the prelude or foundation for the present poor technological base of African states which has perpetuated their underdevelopment. As we know, education that is not deeply rooted in a people's culture and environmental condition cannot bring about any meaningful technological advancement. This has aptly been shown in the unsuccessful attempt at the so-called technological transfer, which is more of a myth than reality. Again, the West would not like Africa to be developed economically and technologically as they will not find already made markets for their products. To worsen the situation, the goods imported to Africa are sub-standard ones which cannot even be consumed in the western countries.

Another important impact of colonialism in The Gambia is the disarticulation of their economy. Colonialism distorted Gambian pattern of economic development in many different ways. There was disarticulation in production of goods, markets, traders, transport, provision of social amenities and pattern of urbanization etc. The colonialists introduced a new pattern of international division of labour which was to the disadvantage of Africans. They assigned to Africa and Africans the role of production of raw materials and primary products for use by their industries at home. Africans were not allowed nor encouraged to go into manufacturing. The only industries Gambians were encouraged to build were those that would facilitate in the processing of the raw materials for export. The Gambian raw materials were bought at a very

low price while manufactured goods from abroad were sold at expensive price. This situation accounted for the impoverishment of most Africans.

There was also displacement in the type of goods produced by Africans. The colonialists compelled Africans to concentrate in the production of goods meant for export. Africans were not encouraged to produce those goods required by the local population. This made many Africans to abandon the production of food items required to feed the teeming and growing population. The effect of this was food shortage and escalation in food prices and dependence on foreign (Europeans) goods. The present day situation where Gambians now import their foods is a carry-over from colonialism. This was because when the British introduced colonialism in the country they stopped the cultivation of rice and other locally consumed foods and encouraged the production of cash crops. The point being stressed here is that colonialism distorted the satisfaction of local needs in terms of food production and other requirements in preference to production and satisfaction of foreign needs especially the industries.

Colonialism also disarticulated Gambian markets and trades. The traditional or original marketing centres were distorted by colonialism. Most of the traditional African marketing centres or routes were formed based on local needs. When colonialism came and introduced different needs, this changed the original or traditional marketing centres to new marketing centres because it rendered them irrelevant or obsolete. Colonialists created new marketing centres and routes where their required raw materials could be easily accessed and evacuated back home. This led to the gradual decay or even death of most of the original or traditional marketing centres thereby distorting African pattern of development and urbanization. As we know, most of these traditional African market centres constituted the traditional or original African centres. Colonialism also made African trade to be mainly export- import oriented. It integrated African trade and economy prematurely into the world market and international trade. It is a known fact that before a local economy could fully integrates itself into the world economy or trade; it must have developed adequately its internal dynamics and forces of production. The consequences of premature integration is that such economy will be hijacked by the more advanced ones; and the vagaries in international trade will make the country concerned a perpetual debtor. This has been the dilemma of most Africa countries till date. Furthermore, premature and unwilling integration cannot absorb shock from the international market system

and will never enjoy trade balance or comparative advantage. As it is in most Africa countries, the balance of trade, terms of trade and balance of payments are never synchronized. For instance, The Gambia as a country since independence has continued to experience trade deficit and unfavourable balance of payments. Most African countries import more goods than they can export. This means continual unfavourable balance of payment; as they spend more money to import goods and receive less from exporting their products.

The export-import orientation pattern of African economy introduced by colonialism does not allow for accelerator and multiplier effects necessary for economy advancement and development. The raw materials produced by Africans were not used by industries located in Africa but abroad. Therefore, there was no organic linkage between the agricultural sector and the industrial sector in Africa. Consequently, the African economy could not move forward because the surplus profit appropriated from the economy by the colonialists are not ploughed back or spent within the economy. This is where the accelerator and multiplier effects necessary for economy advancement and development come in. As we know, goods and services are sold for profit and income generation. But if for example, United Kingdom, an industrialized nation sells her car to an African state which could be for instance, The Gambia, the money paid for the product serves as profit and income for the car manufacturing company located in United Kingdom. If the company uses the money paid to it to buy something in U.K., it helps to accelerate the economy of U.K. This accelerator effect was totally absent in African territories during the period of colonialism. The absence of the accelerator factor/effect, created the propensity for Africans to keep importing continuously from outside without depending on their own made goods.

Furthermore, the multiplier effect concerns the reinvestment of profit appropriate from an economy. For example, under a normal economy and circumstance, when a profit is made from an economy, it is re-invested to stimulate and generate new profit. The profit can be reinvested into new enterprises within the economy and or embark upon programmes and projects that will improve the welfare of the citizens. The re-investment of accumulated profit into an economy helps the economy to move very fast and to generate new profits. The ability of re-invested profit to bring out new profit is referred to as multiplier effect. This was absent in the African economy during colonialism. This is because the colonialists did not re-invest profits appropriated from

the African economy; rather they transferred the profits abroad for the development of their home economy. This greatly accounted for the present underdevelopment of most African economies.

The colonialists distorted and dislodged the development of a comprehensive transport system in Africa. The transport network developed was not to link different towns and rural areas for purpose of effective communication and development. Transport routes were built by the colonialists to enable them to evacuate easily the raw materials from their sources or base to the destination point where they could be effectively exported abroad. The transport network developed was essentially rails and seaports. There was no good effort to develop an organized road network which would help to improve the lives of the African people and their interaction with their relations in the different parts of the territories. The distorted, disjointed, and disarticulated transport system developed by the colonialists did not allow for effective agricultural and economic integration within the different parts of the African enclaves and territories. There was therefore absence of economic integration and cooperation among the African territories during the period of colonialism. It also brought about disarticulation in the provision of social amenities and the urbanization pattern in Africa. Most of the little social amenities provided during the colonial period were concentrated at a place. This made most people to migrate from the rural areas where these amenities were virtually non-existent to colonial urban centres where they could be found. The consequence of this was the struggle and over-use of these amenities and the attendant overcrowding of the areas (cities) and the problems of urbanization. The consequent problems of disarticulation of provision of amenities and urbanization include rural urban migration, overcrowding, filthy and slum environment, poor hygienic condition, spread of epidemic disease, social vices, tribal and ethnic problems etc. The management of the above problems created by colonial distortion and disarticulation of amenities and urbanization on Africa has remained a single most important problem confronting African states today.

Another important impact of colonialism in The Gambia was the emergence and institutionalization of classes and class struggle in the socio-economic and political life of the people. Colonialism aided a clear emergence and development of classes in the country. These classes include comprador bourgeoisie, petty bourgeoisie, proletariat and the peasant. The

African petty bourgeoisie serve as the conveyor belt through which the colonialists exploited and siphoned the economy of African countries. There is a great harmony of interest between the African petty bourgeoisie and the European comprador bourgeois. This was why during the period of political independence; it was the African petty bourgeois that got the mantle of leadership. The African petty bourgeois maintained the same relationship with the erstwhile colonial masters and this is why they run the economy and political administration of their states in the same manner as the colonialists did. Most of the African leaders or petty bourgeois maintain strong link with their erstwhile colonial masters. The African petty bourgeoisie maintained the long exploitation of the proletariat and the peasant classes. There has been no exception to this since independence was won. The rampant and complex nature of political instability and socio-economic malaise being experienced in most African states today has recourse to the nature and character of classes introduced in Africa by colonialism. The economic and other resources of Africa are shared between the petty bourgeoisie and their European/colonial counterparts, even in this contemporary time. For instance, the nature of political power struggle and distribution of wealth as well as economic resources in the contemporary African states are reflections of the understanding and harmony of interest between the African petty bourgeoisie and their colonial partners/friends. The severe impoverishment of most Africans by their petty bourgeois leaders and marginalization as well as oppression of the masses by those who have access to state power are offshoot of colonialism or colonial hang-over among African states.

Different mechanisms have been suggested as to how colonialism reduced development in Africa. An earlier generation of scholars like Rodney, emphasized the sheer looting of African societies by the colonial powers which undoubtedly took place, particularly in the Congo. More recently scholars point to the perverse effects of particular colonial institutions, such as agricultural marketing boards (Bates, 1981). Marketing boards during the colonial period was one of the strongest instruments used by the Europeans to determine and fix the prices of African agricultural produce. They also argue that the arbitrary state system created and defended by European powers has led to political conflicts, instability and dictatorship (Engelbert, 2000). Another argument is that the colonial authorities created "gate-keeper states" which were only interested in ruling rather than in developing the countries and these have left a path dependent legacy in the state structures of post colonial Africa (Cooper, 2002). Most African leaders have

always freely opened the economic doors of their countries to manipulate, exploit and siphon our resources even after independence as a way of appeasing them. Others scholars have opined that the political authoritarianism of the colonial state is a direct source of the authoritarianism that has plagued and characterized Africa since independence. Put in another way, it is impossible to conceive of how African leaders have ruled their respective countries with highhandedness without thinking how the colonialist operated then.

Monetization of The Gambia's economy was another effective instrument or strategy used by the colonialists to take direct control of the economic and political administration of the country. Prior to colonization, Gambia economy was essentially based on barter system. Furthermore, even where a sort of currency was introduced these currencies lacked general acceptability, were too heavy or bulky and hardly divisible into smaller units of exchange. In fact, the currencies lacked the good qualities of a modern medium of exchange. It was necessary for the colonialists to monetize Gambian economy in order to integrate it into the world market and international trade for their own interest. The currencies introduced in the African territories were those used by the colonialists back home. It was therefore easy for them to regulate the use and value of the currency as a means of maintaining effective control of the African economy and their administration.

Colonialism in all had devastating effects or impacts on the African colonies. It is responsible for the present situation explained by Walter Rodney in his book, *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*. Also, this fact was vividly articulated in Chinweizu, *The West and the Rest of Us*. Colonialism introduced a dichotomy between the centre and the periphery nations. The periphery nations are exploited by the centre nations. The periphery nations produce raw materials which are expropriated by the centre nations. Africa is a periphery nation as a result of her colonization experience. African colonies produced raw materials which were expropriated by the colonialists (centre nations) (Ocheni, etal 2012)

Colonial policies contributed immensely to indigenous deaths from diseases during the period of colonialization. Historians such as John Milloy and Roland Chrisjohn have documented evidence of how diseases that spread through the colonialists were concealed in order to cover real origins of how indigenous population were infected with these white man's diseases. Colonial government policies showed how those medical professionals were aware that

government policies were result in a high death rate among indigenous people. This could be true when one takes a critical look at the nature of hospitals and clinics built by the colonial masters which were ill- equipped and few; considering the teeming population of Africans. There has been deliberate policy of non-intervention in preventing the spread of diseases such as tuberculosis, cholera and small pox that were devastating native population.

In The Gambia, there was an instance where the colonial government was adopting policies that had the inevitable result of encouraging the rapid spread of deadly diseases among the native population. For instance, in 1869 in Bathurst (now Banjul), the capital of The Gambia there was a devastating cholera outbreak that killed about 1,100 Africans in Bathurst alone (Hughes et al, 2006 p.66) The Merchants blamed Governor Patey for failing to take precautionary measures against the spread of the disease, arguing that this was due to his 'parsimonious economy'. Some historians argue that some European colonists, having discovered that indigenous populations of Africa were not immune to certain diseases, deliberately spread diseases to gain military advantages and subjugate local people. Anything that could reduce the population of the local people was seen as an added advantage by the colonialists.

It should be noted that the colonial government did not make appreciable effort to modernize the traditional system of agriculture in The Gambia because their view was that the peasant farmers were backward, unchanging, and conservative; and was fearful of abandoning the methods of their forefathers (Mbakwe, 2015 in Philip, 1981). Recent studies in agricultural history have shown that African farmers are never unchangeable, stagnant and unthinking traditionalists. But the truth of the matter was that Africans were usually willing to change, and even anxious to change in so far as the incentives and appropriate methods and techniques were made available sincerely by the colonial masters, who had hitherto claimed to have modernized Africa. The most convincing evidence as to the superficiality of the much talked about colonialism being responsible for the "modernization" of Africa is the fact that the vast majority of Africans went into colonialism with their traditional hoes hoe and came out also with a hoe (Rodney,239). What this proved was that colonial masters made use of Africa's basic farm instruments in exploiting their resources and refused to teach the mechanized agriculture that would transform the economy and bring about industrial economy. As it is today, most Africa countries are still operating agricultural economy as against industrial economy of the West.

Some authors emphasize more general effects of colonial domination, such as alienation. Frantz Fanon, for example, writes “colonialism is not satisfied merely with holding a people in its grip and emptying the native’s brains of all forms and contents. By a kind of perverted logic, it turns to the past of the oppressed people, and distorts, disfigures and destroys it. This work of a devaluing pre-colonial history takes on a dialectical significance today” (Fanon (1963[1961]: 170). However, such notions can hardly be measured in a comparative way. According to other authors, the social impact of colonialism depended on the number settlers of European origin, colonially induced labour migration and the level of colonial investment in the health and education sector. Related to that were different practices of ethnic and/or religious discrimination, ethnic cleavages or privileges.

Furthermore, colonialism introduced a dual economic structure within the African economy. It also brought about disarticulation of African economy, education, trade, market, transport and currency institution. Colonialism made African colonies dependent by introducing a monoculture economy for the territories. It also dehumanized African labour force and trader by making second class citizens; and creating perennial feeling of inferiority complex at a sight of a white man. It forced Gambians to work in colonial Public Works Department (PWD), Railway junctions/ stations, civil service, ports and harbours as loaders and off loaders etc at very low wages and displaced them from their lands. Similarly, the business of African traders or middlemen were taken over from them and controlled by the colonialists. Colonialism did not allow for industrialization of Africa. It assigned Africa the role of production of primary goods or raw materials in the international division of labour. Colonialism encouraged and intensified class struggle, tribalism and ethnicity within the African colonies. These were strategies introduced by the colonialists in order to perpetuate or prolong their rule and domination of African territories. An example is the British colonial policy of “Divide and Rule” in Nigeria.

Perhaps the worst impact of European colonization was that a culture of violence which was created among Africans. The Europeans solved their problems in Africa through violence and threats of it. For instance, most Africa states and kingdoms were colonised by force of arms and also won their independence through wars. This was particularly so in French colonised African territories like Algeria and others. When the Europeans left Africa, the only way that Africans knew and used to as par solving problems was by violence. This explains why shortly after



independence there were several military Coup d'état in the 1960s in many parts of Africa. Today, there is virtually no African country that has not experienced military coup, probably with the exception of Senegal; which is an apt example of a democratic country in Africa. In African countries, there was only one way they knew how to remove their leaders from power. That would be to force him or her out of power. Most of the first leaders were forced out of power. Some of them were killed in the process, but nobody knew any other way. There really wasn't any other way because there wasn't any voting. If there was conflict between countries, they wouldn't just talk it out. It would not end well at all. The seed of violence was sown during the colonial period and has continued to grow and germinate and is now bearing dangerous seeds which are difficult to bear.

Similarly, Europeans also created conflicts among ethnic groups that had not existed before. On arrival to Africa, western countries disregarded ethnic composition and separated Africans from their kiths and kin. The problem of cleavages Africa is traceable to the process of colonization in which it is argued that the institutions and systems bequeathed by colonialism are ill-suited to accommodate or address the diverse nature of the emerging post-colonial societies. Thus, no sooner had the colonialists departed than these societies started to confront the challenges of ethnic division, which today fifty years after decolonization, are probably the greatest threats to their stability and progress.

The process of decolonization also contributed to political ethnicity. To begin with, the nationalist movement had mobilized ethnic groups into politics. Politicians changed to political ethnicity when the nationalist movement, which was united mainly by common grievances and colonial experience, started to disintegrate on the verge of independence as its leaders manoeuvred to inherit power. In a situation in which class consciousness was rudimentary, those leaders who came from numerically large ethnic groups could not resist the temptation of using an ethnic ideology to consolidate a substantial political base. For instance, in 1959 when the Protectorate Peoples Party was formed in The Gambia under the leadership of Sir Dawda Jawara, he mobilized his own ethnic group – the Mandinka, which incidentally constituted 40% of the entire Gambian population to clinch to power for over a period of 29 years. The seed of ethnic politics was sowed during the colonial period when the colonial masters showed inclination towards one ethnic group or the other on the basis of their educational backwardness and or for

their conservative nature. A suitable example was in Nigeria, where the British were favourably disposed to handing over power to the educationally disadvantaged/conservative North, which would probably protect their interest on liquidation of colonialism. Other similar cases abound in various parts of African countries.

Around the world today, intractable conflict is found in many areas that were once colonized or controlled by Western European or Soviet powers (i.e., Africa, the Balkans, Southeast Asia, the Middle East, and South America). The source of many of these protracted conflicts, in large part, lies in past colonial or Soviet policies, and especially those regarding territorial boundaries, the treatment of indigenous populations, the privileging of some groups over others, the uneven distribution of wealth, local governmental infrastructures, and the formation of non-democratic or non-participatory governmental systems. It is therefore essential, if one wants to understand intractable conflict and its causes, to examine not only the issues and problems of the moment, but also influential historical factors -- most notably, past colonial and their lingering effects.

Europe's arbitrary colonial borders left Africans bunched into countries that don't represent their heritage, a contradiction that still troubles them today. When two countries of Africa want to settle a border dispute in which both countries claim an area ostensibly rich in certain minerals, they don't cite ancient cultural claims or heritage to the land, nor the preferences of its inhabitants, nor even their own national interests. Rather, in taking their case to the International Court of Justice, they cited a pile of century-old European paperwork or boundary demarcation as their evidence. The point being made here highlights Africa's commitment to colonial borders drawn without consideration for those actually living there. African borders, in this thinking, are whatever Europeans happened to have marked down during the 19th and 20th centuries, which is a surprising way to do things given how little these outsider-drawn borders have to do with actual Africans.

In much of the world, national borders have shifted over time to reflect ethnic, linguistic, and sometimes religious divisions. Spain's borders generally enclose the Spanish-speakers of Europe; Slovenia and Croatia roughly encompass ethnic Slovenes and Croats. Thailand is exactly what its name suggests. Africa is different; its nations are largely defined not by its peoples heritage but by the follies of European colonialism. But as the continent becomes more democratic and

Africans assert desires for national self-determination, the African insistence on maintaining colonial-era borders is facing more popular challenges, further exposing the contradictions engineered into African societies half a century ago.

When European colonialism collapsed in the years after World War Two and Africans resumed control of their own continent, sub-Saharan leaders agreed to respect the colonial borders. Not because those borders made any sense -- they are widely considered the arbitrary creations of colonial happenstance and European agreements- but because "new rulers in Africa made the decision to keep the borders drawn by former colonizers to avoid disruptive conflict amongst. Although, conflicts in Africa has reduced appreciably since the turbulent 1960s and '70s, and though the continent still has some deeply troubled hotspots which makes boarder in Africa a recurring issue.

When one examines the long-run consequences of the scramble for Africa among European powers in the late 19th century you will uncover the following empirical regularities. First, using information on the spatial distribution of African ethnicities before colonization, it shows that borders were arbitrarily drawn. Apart from the land mass and water area of an ethnicity's historical homeland, no other geographic, ecological, historical, and ethnic-specific traits predict which ethnic groups have been partitioned by the national border. Second, using data on the location of civil conflicts after independence, it shows that partitioned ethnic groups have suffered significantly more warfare; moreover, partitioned ethnicities have experienced more prolonged and more devastating civil wars. Third, it identifies sizeable spill-overs; civil conflict spreads from the homeland of partitioned ethnicities to nearby ethnic regions. Examples of divided (and conflicted) groups are the Maasai of Kenya and Tanzania, and the Anyi of Ghana and the Ivory Coast. The conflict rate is also higher for people living in areas close to ethnic-partitioned hot-spots. These results are robust to a rich set of controls at a fine level and the inclusion of country fixed effects and ethnic-family fixed effects. The uncovered evidence thus identifies a sizable causal impact of the scramble for Africa on warfare.

Colonialism did everything to Africans in their own native soil. The white man has always believed that they are superior to the black races and did everything humanly possible to dehumanize and keep them aloof. They often enacted discriminatory laws against the local

people. For example, in many parts of Africa, colonialists built special hospitals, Government Reservation Areas (GRA) and schools for their officials scattered all over the areas they have colonised. In some parts of Africa where they colonialists settled permanently like in Zimbabwe, South Africa etc, native people were constrained to move around with a Pass; this kind of restricted their freedom of movement. In some extreme cases could not travel in the railway compartment in which the Europeans were travelling. This policy of racial segregation greatly undermined the moral tone of the local population as long as colonialism lasted.

Again, the colonialists disregarded all norms of morality to keep their hold on the colonial people. They tried to divide the local people and made them fight among themselves to retain power. The policy of 'divide and rule' followed by the British in Nigeria best exemplifies this policy of the imperialist powers. It is well known that this policy of 'divide and rule' ultimately led to the ethnic cleavages that characterized the Nigeria polity today and already shaking the foundation of that country. For instance in Nigeria the country is bipolarized into North and South, which has determined and shaped their politics. The foundation of this was led by the British when they created two different administrative regions – the Southern and Northern Protectorate.

To sum up the obvious adverse effects of colonialism, the former president of Mozambique, Joachim Chissano has aptly said:

*"Over many and many years, in international fora, such as the United Nations, the African Union, in churches and other platforms, colonialism has been denounced as a cruel system, largely responsible for an untold degree of suffering of the Africans and for their social and economic underdevelopment." -Joachim Chissano*

According to him, while African countries had recognized that bad governance and corruption were to some extent responsible for slowing down growth in the continent, Europeans on the other hand refused to own up to the negative consequences of colonialism on Africa. A cursory look and reflections on colonialism reveals brutalities and wrongdoings perpetrated in Africa during the period under review. Thinking of the evils of colonialism, what comes to mind are

pillages, slavery, apartheid, the partition of Africa, untold suffering and the plundering of Africa's wealth among other wrong doings.

In our modern world today, knowledge is a factor of production and an economic asset, and where Gambia and Africa stand today in relation to its knowledge resources are a multi-billion dollar question. It is no secret that Africa's mostly undocumented traditional knowledge systems are fast fading away. A range of internal factors like poverty, rigid and discriminatory access and application of knowledge, decline in the practitioner base, lack of codification, erosion of institutions that traditionally helped in the socialization of tacit knowledge and many others play a great role. However, these have been fuelled by colonialism, neo-colonization commercialization, globalization and modernization, which have granted cheap, if not free, access to the rich European researchers. These greedy Westerners now own copyrights and patents for merely repackaging Africa's knowledge base, denying Africans access to their wealth of knowledge. In the ongoing debates, developing countries are known to be losers, yet they are endowed with abundant talent in music, medicine, software, textile designs and plant cultivation and conservation. The revitalization of these knowledge systems has been a major challenge facing African governments, which are largely incompetent, ignorant or unwilling.

However, the impact of colonialism should not be overestimated. As demonstrated in many analyses, it is one important determinant of the socio-economic development of Africa/Asia in the 19th-20<sup>th</sup> century, but not the only one and in many cases not the most important one. On the Arab Peninsula, for instance, the decline of the demand for pearls in the 1920s and the large - scale production of petroleum are considered to have changed societies much more than British indirect rule and related investment, which was promoted by indigenous elites (Owen and Pamuk 1999: 76ff). Most of the solid and liquid minerals that African countries are endowed with are explored and mined by western countries who determine what percentage they will take from the proceeds. In most cases, their share of the proceeds outweighs that of Africans, the owners of those resources. The outcome is obvious, abundant resources but lean resources. The remnants are shared and siphoned by African leaders and some powerful elites. What exist today are the colonization, exploitation and oppression of Africans by African leaders who rule with impunity and subvert the rule and principles of democratic games. For instance, during The Gambia's First Republic under Dawda Jawara, critics expressed mounting concern over the growth in his

personal power, both within the ruling party and in government which he developed to an astute and determined executive president, displaying the leadership style of a 'prince' with overwhelming power.

But in many cases, colonies were annexed before their geopolitical or economic value to the Imperial Empire was even assessed: "One consequence was that, once colonies were seized, the imperialist powers were frequently content to permit local economic activities to stagnate rather than to allow a rival metropolitan state administration to assume either formal or informal control. This 'benign neglect' in addition to the discovery and subsequent exploitation of natural resources in other colonies—produced a heterogeneous pattern of capitalist economic development throughout the colonial world (Ziltener et al, 2013 in Murray 1980: 13). We therefore conclude that caution is justified regarding the supposedly transformatory effects of colonialism. While for some areas, it is obvious that profound changes in economy and social structure can be traced back to colonial measures, others remained almost untouched, sometimes even conserved. To deal with the impact of colonialism by dummy-variables ("colonized/not-colonized," French/British, etc.) is clearly inadequate. The challenge is to identify the main dimensions of colonial transformation and to find indicators to measure the factual, real levels of impact.

Colonialism has shaped both the economic and political structure of African colonies to be in line with the need of the metropolis. It ensured that African economic and political structures both in form and content served the interest of their home government (European powers). Colonialism therefore, in all intents and purposes was a very big disservice to the entire Africa.

#### **4:2.1 QUANTITATIVE DESCRIPTION OF HYPOTHESIS WITH TABLES SHOWN BELOW:**

##### **HYPOTHESIS 1**

**(H<sub>0</sub> ≠1):** British colonial economic activities have not had impact on The Gambia. From the results generated by the analysis, this null hypothesis is **REJECTED**.

Table 1 below showed very high mean agreements (24.3= 39% and 32.8 =52% for strongly agree and agree respectively) with the fact that the British colonial economic activities had very deep impact on The Gambia as a nation-state. Whereas, looking at the results presented on the Table below, not more than 4% which is equal to 2.7 mean response score of the observed responses, either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the fact that the British colonial activity did not have impact on the Gambia. This mean agreement is statistically significant to draw inference on this hypothesis one.

The graphical figures that follow every table clearly further emphasize the fact of the responses that validates the rejection of this null hypothesis.

**TABLE 1:** Descriptive Statistics of Responses on the impact of British Colonial Economic Activity on The Gambia.

		IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (AGREE)	IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA(S TRONGLY AGREE)	IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (STRONGLY DISAGREE)	IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (DISAGREE )
N	Valid	218	218	218	218
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		32.899 (52%)	24.317(39%)	2.7211(4%)	2.280(3.6%)
Median		32.000	20.000	.000	.000
Mode		28.0	.0	.0	.0
Std. Deviation		15.5892	21.0373	3.6938	3.6342
Skewness		.043	.540	1.202	2.117
Std. Error of Skewness		.165	.165	.165	.165
Range		64.0	80.0	15.0	16.0
Minimum		.0	.0	.0	.0
Maximum		64.0	80.0	15.0	16.0
Sum		7172.0	5301.0	591.0	497.0

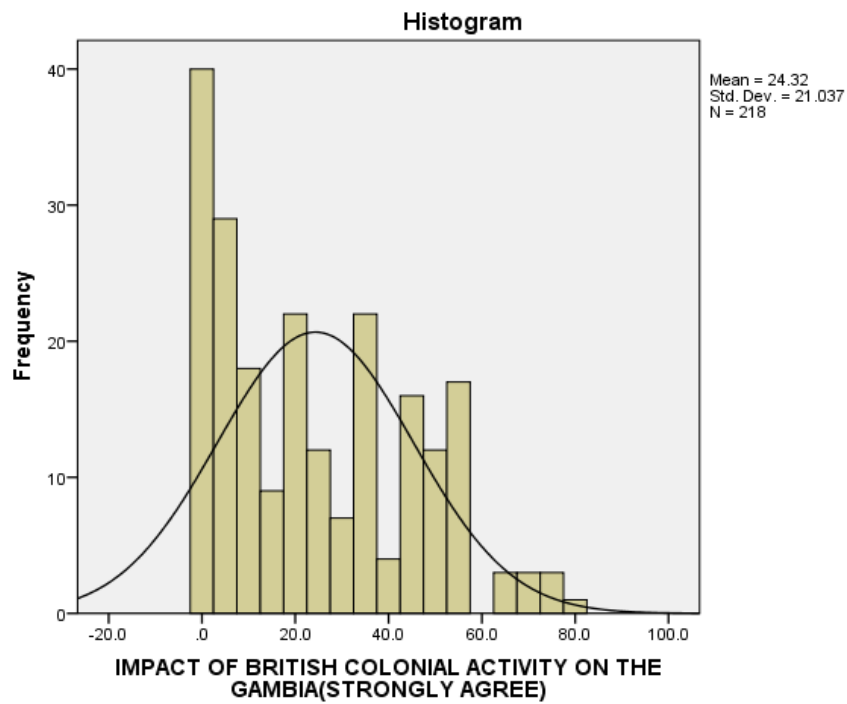
**Statistics continues :**



		IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (UNDECIDED)
N	Valid	218
	Missing	0
Mean		.578(0.9%)
Median		.000
Mode		.0
Std. Deviation		1.4451
Skewness		3.089
Std. Error of Skewness		.165
Range		7.0
Minimum		.0
Maximum		7.0
Sum		126.0

**Table 2: IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA(STRONGLY AGREE RESPONSES)**

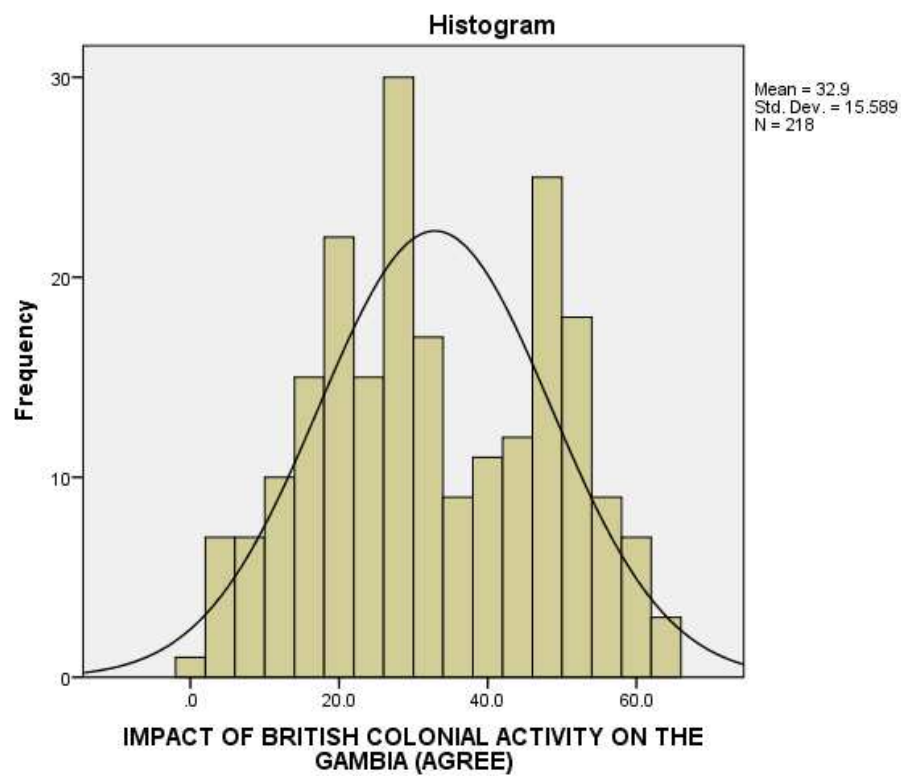
Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	24.317
Median	20.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	21.0373
Variance	442.568
Skewness	.540
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	80.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	80.0
Sum	5301.0



**Figure 1. HISTOGRAM OF IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (STRONGLY AGREE RESPONSES)**

**Table3: IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (AGREE RESPONSES)**

Valid	218
N	
Missing	0
Mean	32.899
Median	32.000
Mode	28.0
Std. Deviation	15.5892
Variance	243.022
Skewness	.043
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	64.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	64.0
Sum	7172.0

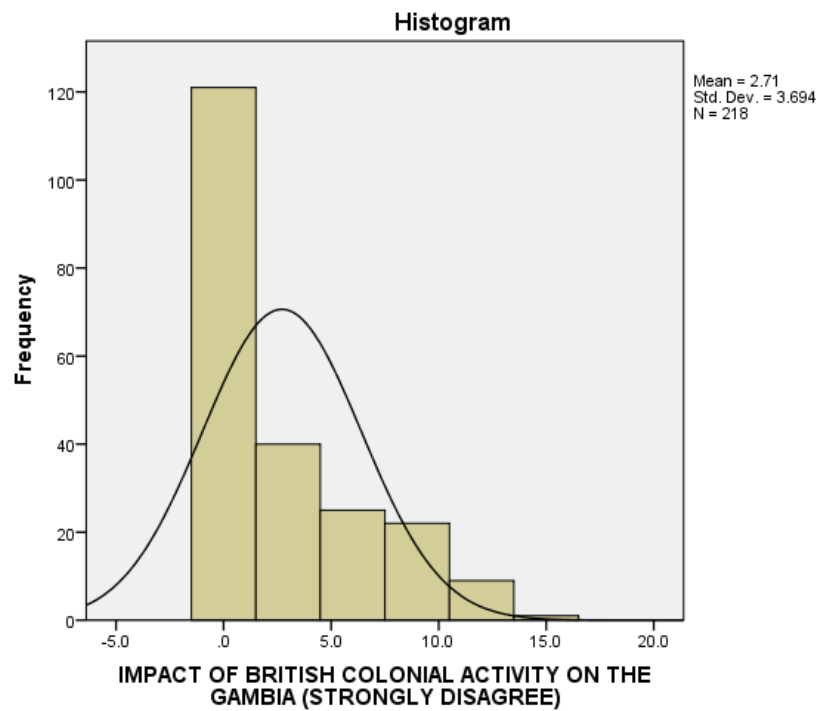


**Figure 2.**

**HISTOGRAM OF IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (AGREE RESPONSES)**

**Table 4: IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA  
(STRONGLY DISAGREE RESPONSES)**

Valid	218
N	
Missing	0
Mean	2.711
Median	.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	3.6938
Variance	13.644
Skewness	1.202
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	15.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	15.0
Sum	591.0



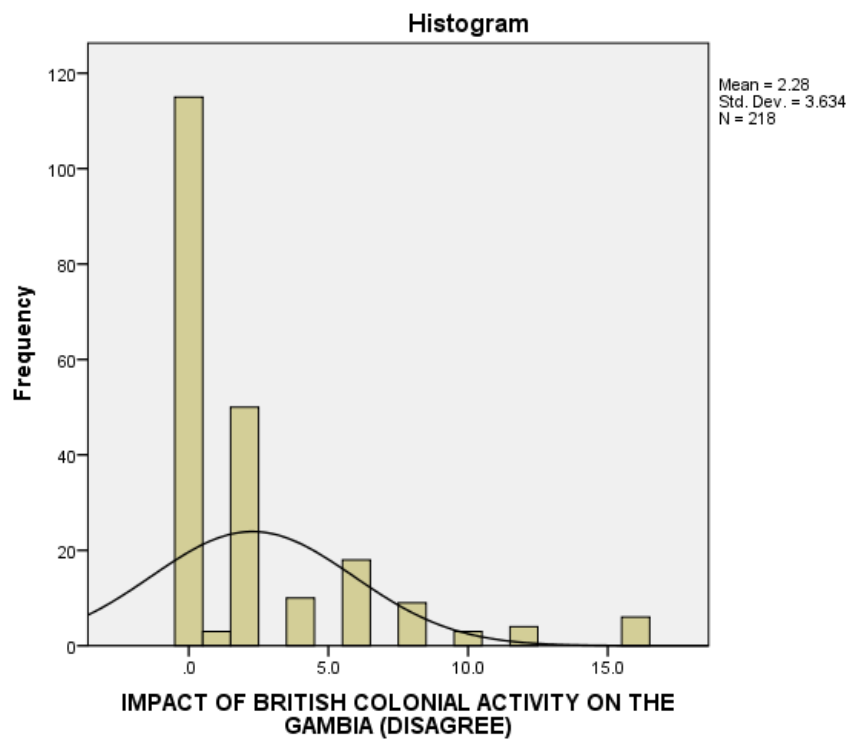
**Figure 3.**

**HISTOGRAM OF IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (STRONGLY DIS AGREE RESPONSES)**

**Table 5: IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (DISAGREE RESPONSES)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	2.280
Median	.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	3.6342
Variance	13.207
Skewness	2.117
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	16.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	16.0
Sum	497.0

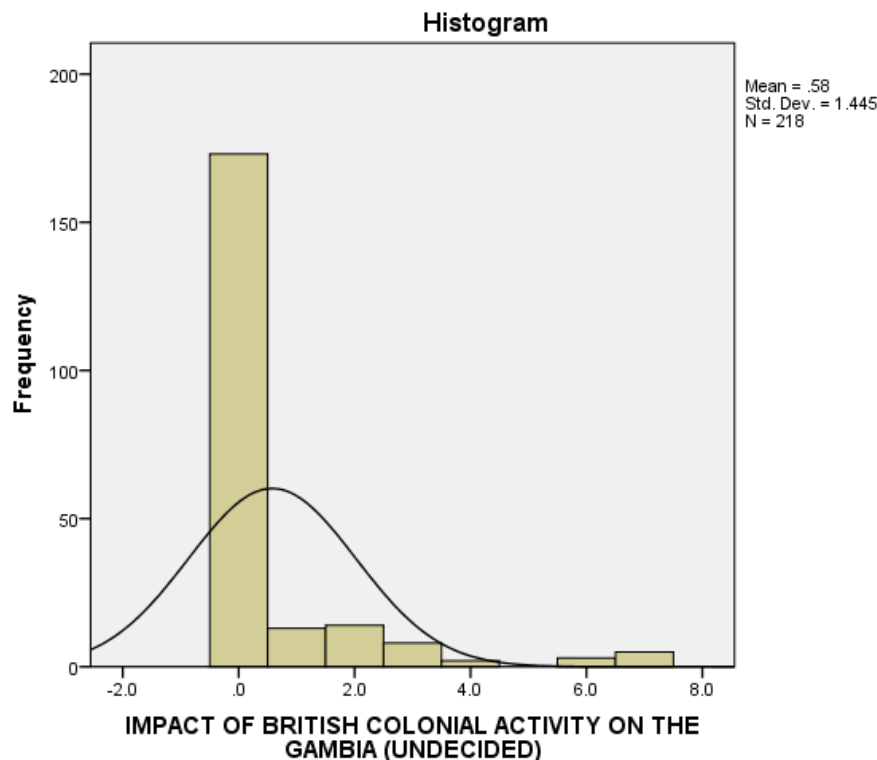




**Figure 4. HISTOGRAM OF IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (DIS AGREE RESPONSES)**

**Table 6: IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA  
(UNDECIDED RESPONSES)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	.578
Median	.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	1.4451
Variance	2.088
Skewness	3.089
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	7.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	7.0
Sum	126.0



**Figure 5. HISTOGRAM OF IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (UNDECIDED RESPONSES)**

**HYPOTHESIS TWO:  $H_0 \neq 2$ ): The present economic challenges of The Gambia are not attributable to colonialism.**

This hypothesis was tested by applying the measures of central tendency. The high mean responses shown in table 7, illustrated in figure 6 and 7 indicate a strong and convergent opinion of about 38% & 53% respective “agree and strongly agree” by the respondents that the present economic challenges of The Gambia are attributable to colonialism, also the standard deviation obtained from this analysis which is very near to the mean responses, further emphasises an appreciable convergent views of the respondents. Therefore the hypothesis 2, which states, that the present economic challenges of The Gambia are not attributable to colonialism is also **rejected**, leading to the conclusion that indeed, the present economic challenges of The Gambia are attributable to colonialism.

		PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM (STRONGLY AGREE)	PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM (AGREE)	PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM (STRONGLY DISAGREE)	PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM (DISAGREE)
N	Valid	218	218	218	218
	Missing	0	0	0	0
Mean		23.188(38%)	32.339(53%)	3.606(6%)	2.780(4.6%)
Median		20.000	32.000	3.000	.000
Mode		.0	16.0	.0	.0
Std. Deviation		19.8739	16.7817	4.4855	4.2802
Variance		394.974	281.626	20.120	18.320
Skewness		.838	.002	1.478	1.994
Std. Error of Skewness		.165	.165	.165	.165
Range		80.0	64.0	24.0	22.0
Minimum		.0	.0	.0	.0
Maximum		80.0	64.0	24.0	22.0
Sum		5055.0	7050.0	786.0	606.0

**Table 8: PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM(STRONLY AGREE RESPONSES)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	23.188
Median	20.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	19.8739
Variance	394.974
Skewness	.838
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	80.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	80.0
Sum	5055.0

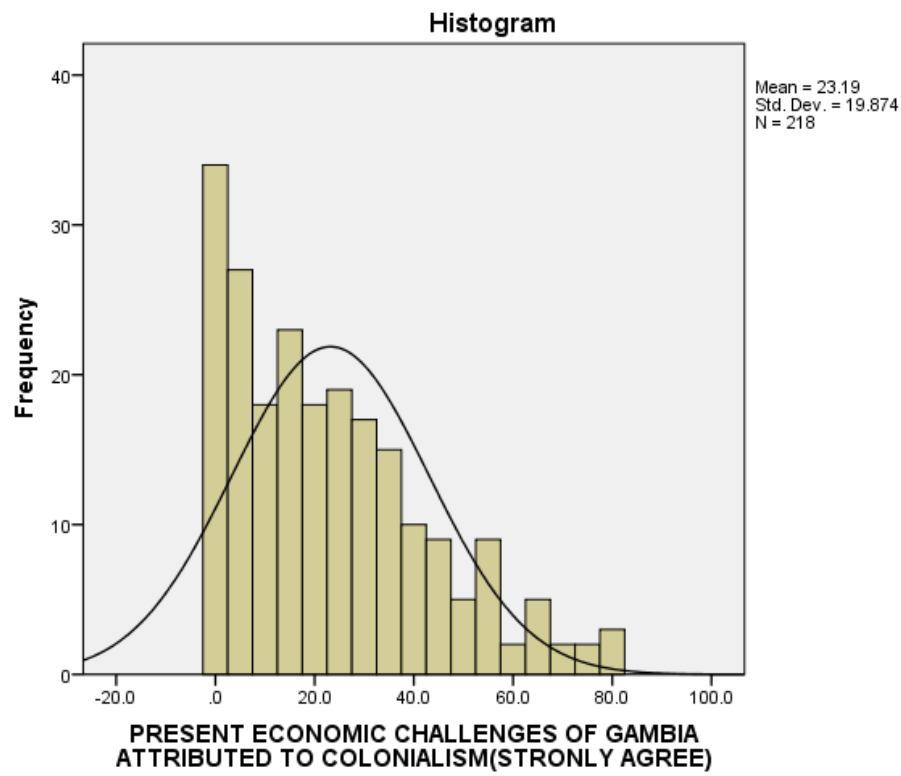


Figure 6: Histogram Of Present Economic Challenges Of Gambia Attributed To Colonialism (Strongly Agree Responses)

**Table 7: PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM (AGREE)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	32.339
Median	32.000
Mode	16.0
Std. Deviation	16.7817
Variance	281.626
Skewness	.002
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	64.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	64.0
Sum	7050.0

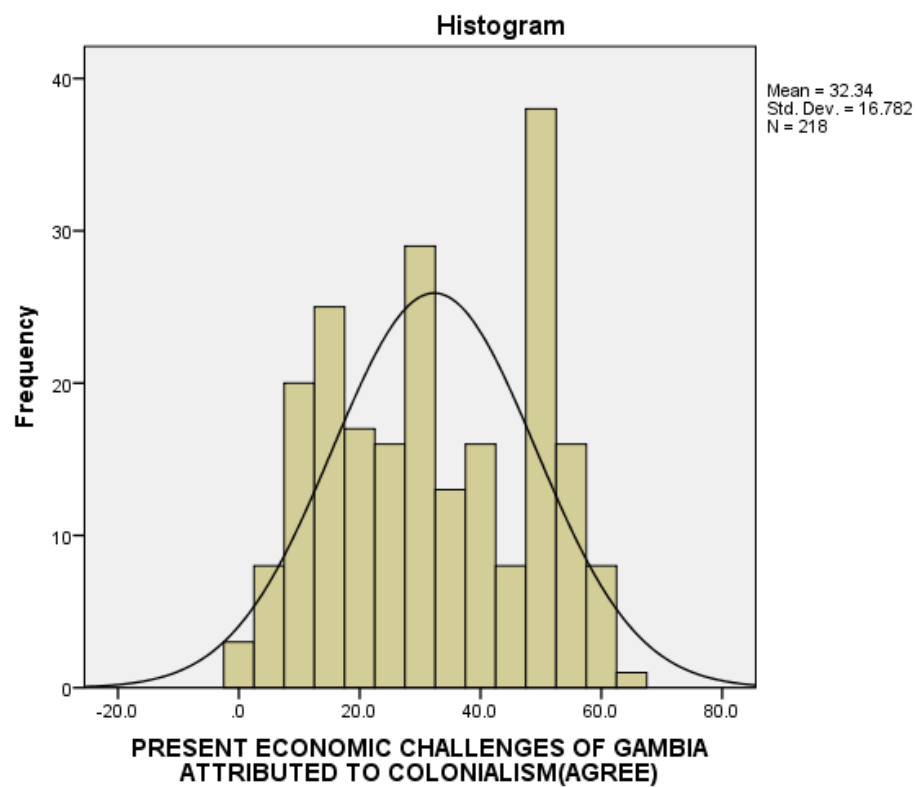


Figure 7: Histogram of Present Economic Challenges of Gambia Attributed To Colonialism (Agree)



**Table 8: PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM (STRONGLY DISAGREE)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	3.606
Median	3.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	4.4855
Variance	20.120
Skewness	1.478
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	24.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	24.0
Sum	786.0

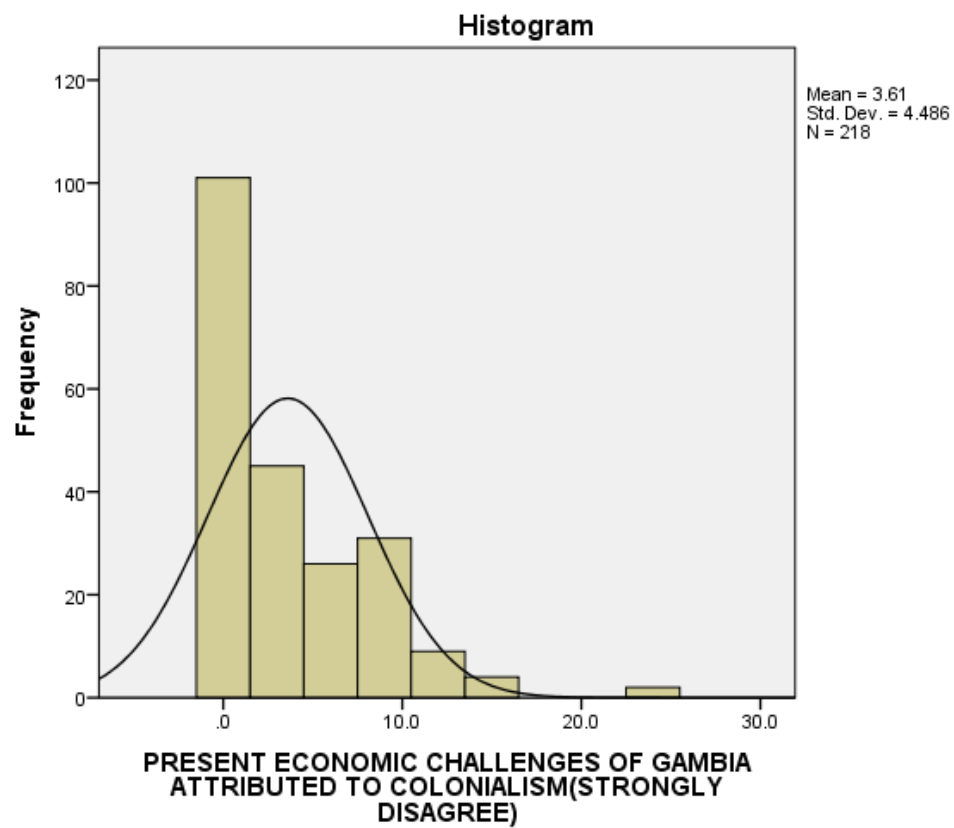


Figure 8. Histogram of Present Economic Challenges Of Gambia Attributed To Colonialism (Strongly Disagree responses)

**Table 9: PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM (DISAGREE)**

Valid	218
Missing	0
Mean	2.780
Median	.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	4.2802
Variance	18.320
Skewness	1.994
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	22.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	22.0
Sum	606.0

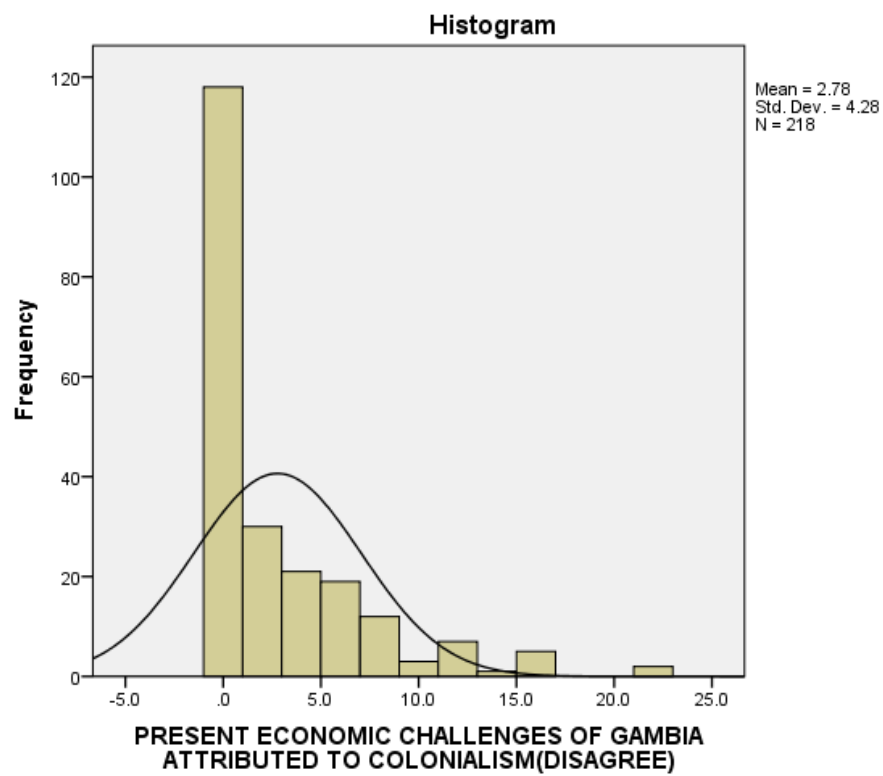


Figure 9. Histogram Of Present Economic Challenges Of Gambia Attributed To Colonialism (Disagree Responses)

**Table 10: PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM (UNDECIDED)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	.564
Median	.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	1.3156
Variance	1.731
Skewness	3.199
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	7.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	7.0
Sum	123.0

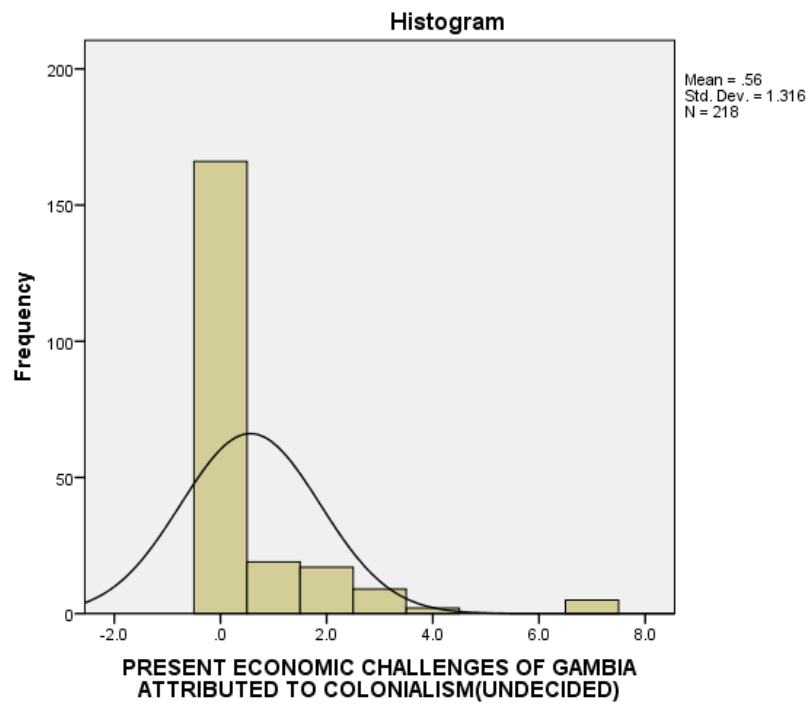


Figure 10. Histogram of Present Economic Challenges Of Gambia Attributed To Colonialism (Undecided Responses)

**HYPOTHESIS 3: Null ( $H_0 \neq 1$ ):** The Gambia would not have developed better but for colonialism.

This hypothesis was tested by applying the measures of central tendency. The high mean responses of 20.4 and 34.2 shown in tables 11 and 12 respectively, illustrated in figures 11 and 12 indicate a strong convergent and representative opinions of about 33.4% & 56.2% respective “agree and strongly agree” by the respondents, that The Gambia would have had better development without the great influence of colonialism, also the standard deviation obtained from this analysis which is very near to the mean responses further emphasising an appreciable convergent views of the respondents. Therefore the hypothesis 3, which states, The Gambia would not have developed better but for colonialism is thereby **rejected**, leading to the conclusion that indeed, Colonialism inhibited the pace and rate of development of The Gambia for so many years.

**Table 11: BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM  
(STRONGLY AGREE)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	20.367(33.4%)
Median	15.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	18.9616
Variance	359.542
Skewness	.922
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	80.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	80.0
Sum	4440.0



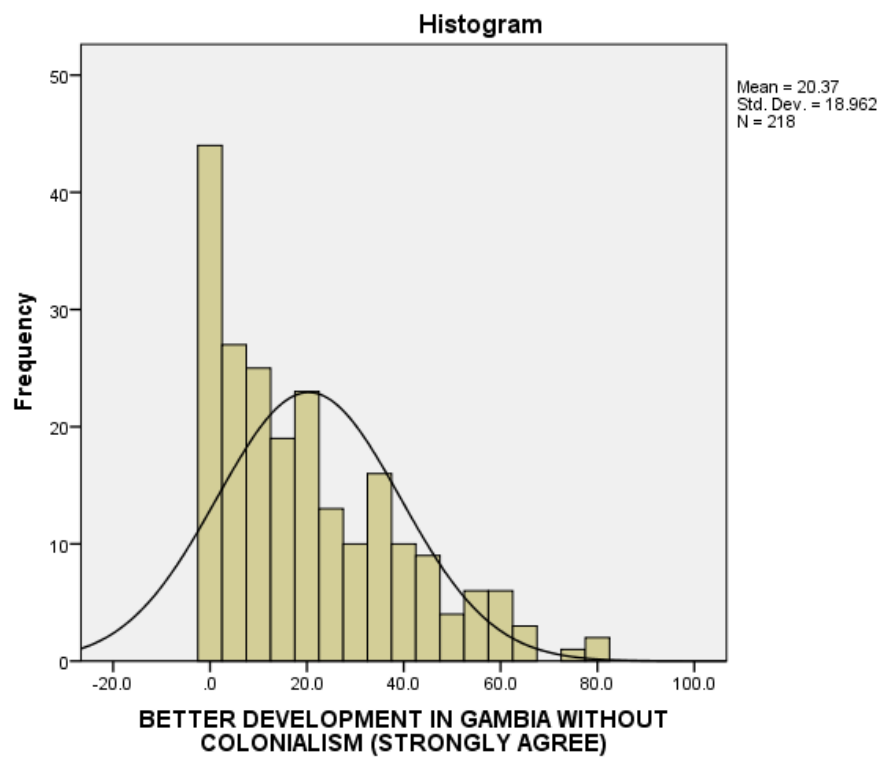


Figure 11: Histogram of response on whether there is Better Development in Gambia without Colonialism (Strongly Agree)

**Table 12: BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM (AGREE)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	34.298 (56.2%)
Median	36.000
Mode	52.0
Std. Deviation	17.3927
Variance	302.505
Skewness	-.130
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	64.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	64.0
Sum	7477.0

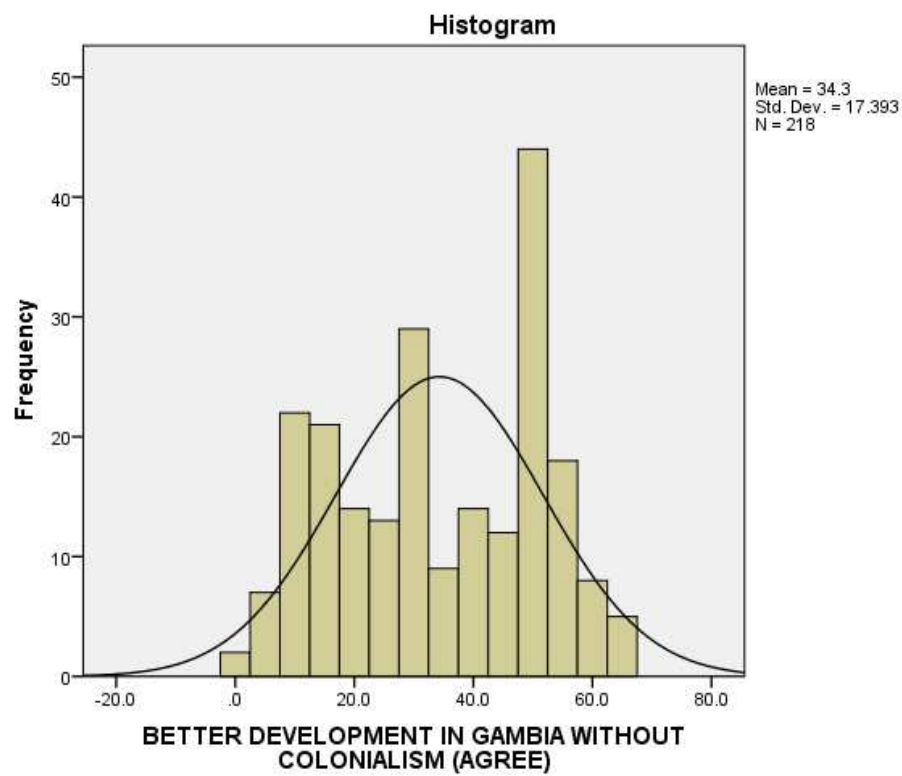


Figure 12: Histogram of response on whether there is Better Development In Gambia Without Colonialism ( Agree)

**Table 13: BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN THE GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM  
(STRONGLY DISAGREE)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	3.867 (6%)
Median	3.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	4.6654
Variance	21.766
Skewness	2.002
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	27.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	27.0
Sum	843.0

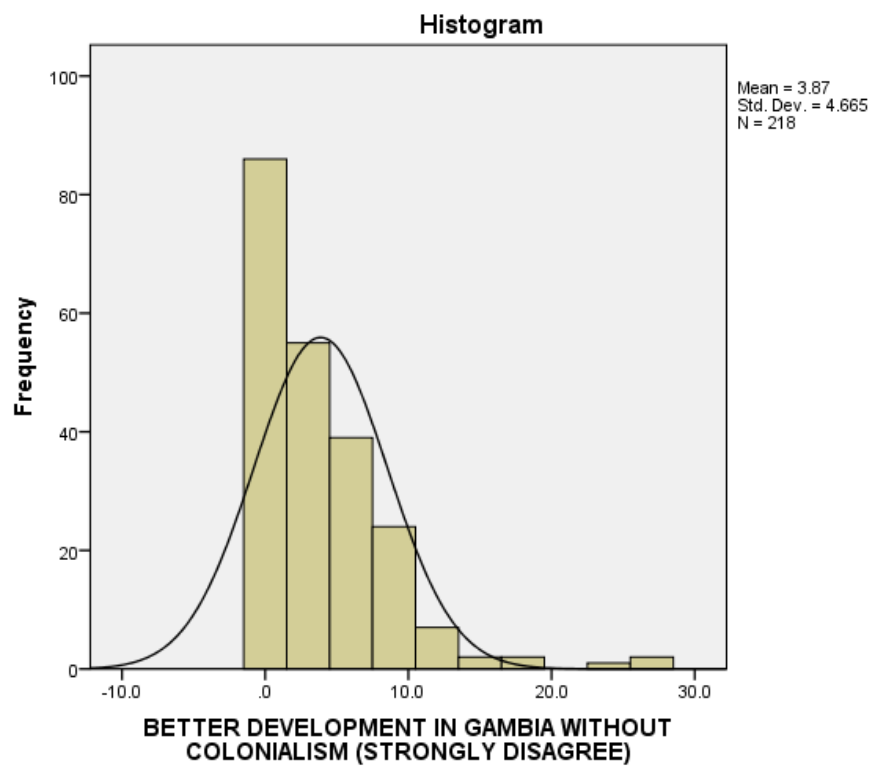


Figure 13: Histogram of response on whether there is Better Development in The Gambia without Colonialism (Strongly disagree)

**Table 14: BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN THE GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM (DISAGREE)**

**Statistics**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	2.505 (4.1%)
Median	.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	3.7799
Variance	14.288
Skewness	1.975
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	22.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	22.0
Sum	546.0

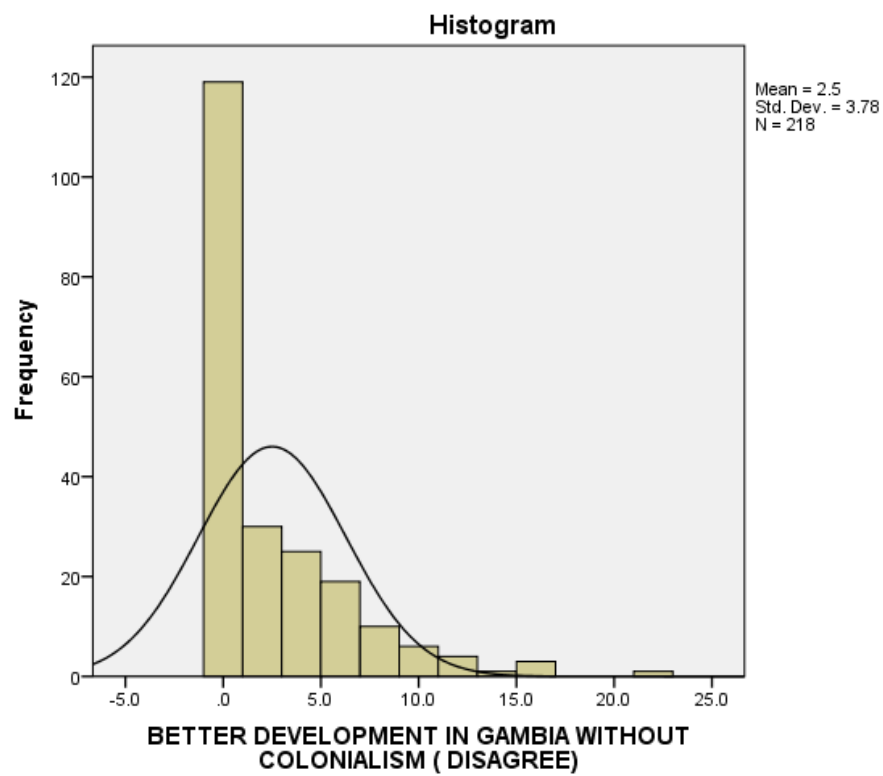


Figure 14. Histogram of response on whether there is Better Development in The Gambia without Colonialism (Disagree)

**Table 15: BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM (UNDECIDED)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	.491(0.8%)
Median	.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	1.1689
Variance	1.366
Skewness	3.159
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	7.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	7.0
Sum	107.0



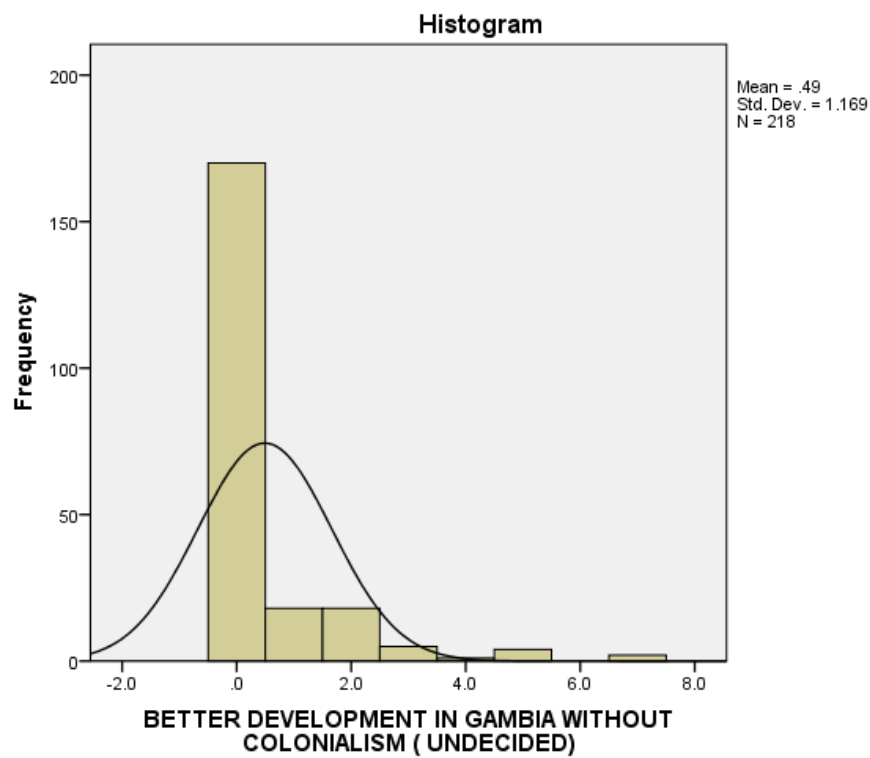


Figure 15: Histogram of response on whether there is Better Development in The Gambia without Colonialism (Undecided)

**RESEARCH QUESTION FOUR (RQ4): What considerable remedies would be practically appropriate for putting the economy of The Gambia on a sound footing in the short or long run, as the case may be?**

The results obtained from the survey shown in tables 16 and 17, indicated clearly that the respondents supported the following strategies postulated by the researcher, that will help improve the Gambian economy as a workable way forward. For instance:

- Diversifications of The Gambia's economy would go a long way in improving the country's economy.
- Improving educational standards and training of more skilled manpower will help advance the economy of The Gambia.
- An important step that can be taken to rebuild the economy of The Gambia is through the industrialization of the economy.
- Eradicating corruption in The Gambia's economic system would help improve the economy in the long run.
- Generating more capital from natural resources in The Gambia is one of the most important steps to improving the economy of the country.

This conclusion is drawn because 4.8 "Yes" mean score of responses in a scale of 5.0 range was recorded which represents 96% of the respondents agrees with the researcher strategies for improvement. Observably, the "Yes" histogram is positively skewed compared with the "No" responses which is very negatively skewed, showing that a negligible number of respondents showed no support for these strategies.

**RESEARCH QUESTION 4 ANALYSIS : What considerable remedies would be practically appropriate for putting the economy of The Gambia on a sound footing in the short or long run, as the case may be?**

Economic development does not occur concurrently with the process of political independence. When a former colonial possession achieves political independence, their economy is still engaged in a colonial economic system and model; this is apparent nowhere more so than in sub-Saharan Africa. The ability of the new state to transit from the colonial system to the current global capitalist organization is a process of establishing institutions within the state to foster

domestic growth and create economic sustainability for the state. In an effort to assist developing states transition from colonial to the global capitalist system, developed western nations have aptly used foreign aid to help feed the people, build infrastructure and prop up the governments of emerging democracies. This kind of dependency perpetuation is no better for developing states than the colonial system they are attempting to extricate themselves from.

When assessing key economic, social, and political indicators in The Gambia, the last fifty years signal general disappointment. Persistent problems facing The Gambia could be summed under political, economic, social and cultural, which undermine reforms of all sorts and stifles economic development across sectors. While political and economic challenges are the main factors that account for the underdevelopment of the country, the unsympathetic capitalist system is the root of all problems. However, some practical steps can be suggested in this dissertation to move The Gambia in particular and Africa forward.

On the issue of how Gambia in particular and Africa in general can reclaim its development scheme snatched away by the European powers will depend if its development process is rooted in African systems of thought and adopting people-centred rather than western capitalist models transplanted by apostles of external agencies. Because agriculture is the backbone of Africa's economy, it is appropriate that cooperative agrarian development strategies, rooted in local culture, would not only achieve growth with equity but also could collectively empower the African people to fully participate in the design and management of long-lasting development paradigms in harmony with the objective conditions of Africa. The Gambia has large expanse of arable lands that are under-utilized at this moment and making adequate and good use of it will revolutionize agriculture; especially when it is mechanized. In this case, the country will have more to export and less to import. This will no doubt put the country's economy on a strong footing.

There is a crying need for Gambian social and agricultural reformers to design viable agrarian strategies of development to solve some of the mounting economic problems facing the country's economy, in an era of rapid globalization and integration. This need is necessitated by the fact that all previous models have failed to transform The Gambian economy on a path of sustained rising per capita incomes. It is believed that the agrarian's strategy of development will take us away from a strategy that is being forced on the Gambia by Western powers and

international organisations. This strategy has been implemented since the colonial period and even after the colonial period and yet has not solved Gambia's economic challenges. This strategy has been dubbed as "Industrialization by Invitation" (IBI). As far as the Caribbean and the African countries are concerned, IBI as a strategy was developed by Sir Arthur Lewis and implemented in the British colonial countries.

Arthur Lewis had argued that the Caribbean countries had a very small internal market, did not have capital, did not have skills and as a result, it was in the interest of these countries to invite industrialists in America and the West to come with their capital and their know-how. To develop the commodities that would be sold in the advanced countries where the markets are. This strategy made sense in the colonial setting and in small states. But one does not think that it makes sense in the African situation, taking Africa as a whole. Industrialization by Development models and strategies have been taken out of the university classrooms and handed over to international agencies including the IMF and the World Bank. NEPAD presents a strategy to obtain funds or loans from industrialized countries (G8) to finance African development efforts. Our approach is based on developing a strategy to transform the Agrarian economies of Africa, which we believe is the right approach. (Available at <http://www.macua.org/kofi.pdf>)

One important strategy for the development and recovery of Gambian image is through the re-discovery who they are. The die-hard prejudices in the Western world that are hampering efforts at a committed inter-national support for the sustainable development of Africa, requires an internal building and an external marketing of Africa's image. This cannot be effective if there is no attempt by the Africans, the ruling elite and the oppressed masses alike, to overcome their internal contradictions using effective dialogue, communication and negotiations on a horizontal basis to give peace a chance. The case in Africa concerning the manipulation of the constitution for either third term or to suit the whims and caprices of the presidency left many calling on the country's former colonial master to intervene in such critical situation. Since it is not inimical to the interest of the former colonial master, there continued to be reluctance on the part of such European power to intervene in such situation from the hands of dubious politicians. However, the member states of the Economic Community of West African States should not heed to the obstacles presented by European powers. Africa also needs to form a meaningful grouping not

only for trade, but also on political and cultural grounds. The ridiculous trade barriers existing between African states soil her image and frighten investors.

Also, given that the international community has a vital role to play in Africa's sustainable development drive, permanent dialogue, communication and negotiation with the developed world as a united continent is essential if Africa is to succeed in accessing its share of the world's resources for financing its sustainable development efforts. Conservation efforts made by Africans over generations have deprived the poor who require compensation from the Western polluters as acknowledgement of their great sacrifice. It is no begging matter. Sub-Saharan Africa needs to be seen as the continent of a new sustainable development paradigm, which needs to integrate the forgotten or neglected impulses such as social cohesion and solidarity. Reviving traditional knowledge systems that provide life-security without discriminatory relations is vital. That is, moving towards a knowledge society, where knowledge is free and there is room for critical thought and free enquiry. According to (Eyong et al, 2006) people of a society should have control over the knowledge resources, knowledge products and knowledge processes (knowledge creation, knowledge sharing, knowledge application and enabling the environment) to be able to sell a good image abroad. African intellectuals as well as diplomats should play a greater role in building and marketing Africa's image abroad through their works and display of real commitment to the African course. Africans also need to critically explore their behaviours, attitudes and actions. It is important to establish avenues and mechanisms for sharing sensitivities, resources, research findings, discoveries, information and experiences on SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT issues (Eyong et al, 2006). These require active and committed involvement of all stakeholders who think Africa and act as Africans. The region has human resources that must be given the opportunity and support at all levels.

Again, international policy documents like the Dakar framework on 'Education in Africa' urge member states to ensure that the learning needs of all young people and adults are met through equitable access to appropriate learning and life skills programmes [42]. The Ubuntu Declaration on 'Education, Science and Technology for Sustainable Development' identifies a global need to integrate a sustainable development focus into the curriculum at every level of education [43]. The declaration emphasizes curriculum development; North-South networking; strategic educational planning and policy-making; and capacity building in scientific research and

learning. All these are warning signals that the development relevance of education in the region is highly questionable. Multi and interdisciplinarity should be central in every aspect of curriculum development and delivery. There is a need for learning for work, citizenship and sustainability for all sexes and genuine commitments to assure equity for all ethnic groups. This will reduce the problems of early childbirth, overpopulation, intellectual capital flight and lack of participation. A great advantage is in environmental awareness and capacity building for NGOs, consumer groups, industry, local governments and others.

In terms of natural resources, Africa is the world's richest continent. It has 50% of the world's gold, most of the world's diamonds and chromium, 90% of the cobalt, 40% of the world's potential hydroelectric power, 65% of the manganese, millions of acres of untitled farmlands, as well as other natural resources. (Available at [http://www.africanholocaust.net/news\\_ah/africanleadership.html](http://www.africanholocaust.net/news_ah/africanleadership.html)). Yet, despite this vast resource the bulk of African people live as if they were citizens of deserts. Despite being home to millions of skilled and talented innovators, African leadership struggles to stimulate and retain its strongest resource — the people: They live in unnecessary frustration, hopelessness and poverty, die of preventable diseases, or run to the West to gain appreciation. The greatest crisis in Africa is not due to HIV, religion, or famine, or even war. Due to the fact that all those things are tied to leadership in some capacity. The failure to produce an African brand from the billions of tons of raw material Africa exports to the West is primarily due to the Faustian, myopic, selfish, backward type of non-progressive leaders who are planted as candidates in post-colonial empires. Top traits are either naivety, vision-less, proxy implants, opportunistic/parasitic and totally compromised. So for The Gambia and other African countries to move forward, they need pragmatic, visionary and purposeful leaders who will turn the situation around for the better. A situation whereby a leader is manipulated and remote controlled from outside, does not augur well for the country. African leaders are elected to lead but they choose to follow. The Gambia has abundant national resources that are yet to be explored. Think of the abundant arable lands, biomass and bio-fuels potential, fisheries, solid minerals like Iluminite, black stones, etc that have not been fully tapped.

Our moral duty, as citizens of this Earth, is to hold leadership accountable -and **no one** is beyond critique. Failure to critique leadership is far more than a lively fun opinion on a social platform.

We can ill afford to let nostalgia, hero worship, cultism, good PR and media charisma cover our ability to review all leaders in all their capacities. Without a sharp critical assessment of leadership and the duties of leadership, we will select entertainers, sweet faced teddy bears, orators, cool cats, as opposed to strong visionaries. So in place of redressing ownership of our resources and empowering our people, we become better workers for the White oligarch, as opposed to being rich citizens in our rich African land, we are consumers of Chinese and European junks. It is not a laughing matter, because millions of people are suffering/dying for no reason other than the terrible choices of these so-called leaders. African leaders it is said, have caused the continent to lose between \$1.4 trillion from 1980 to 2010 (Available at [http://www.africanholocaust.net/news\\_ah/africanleadership.html](http://www.africanholocaust.net/news_ah/africanleadership.html)) .

No doubt that The Gambia, like the rest of Africa is in dire need of industrialisation is universally acknowledged. The structural transformation of The Gambia's economy to suit her situation must be an essential component of any long-term strategy to ensure the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) in the country to eradicate poverty and underpin sustainable growth and development even across our continent. The key issue, however, is in the formulation and implementation of workable industrialisation strategies based on our continent's unique strengths, rather than the emulation of strategies that may have been effective in other contexts. A resource-based African industrialisation and development strategy must be rooted in the utilisation of Africa's significant resource assets to catalyse diversified industrial development, as was successfully implemented by several erstwhile resource-based economies in the developed world such as in Finland, Sweden, Germany and the US over a century ago and to some extent in more recently in middle income countries like Malaysia, Brazil and South Africa.

Corruption is a pervasive problem in both the developed and developing world. In recent years, the problem has gained much interest due primarily to a series of high level corruption cases in industrialised countries, an increasing awareness of the cost of corruption throughout the world and the practical and economic challenges many countries are undergoing. In The Gambia, however, corruption is a development issue which is also tied to poverty and ethnicity. As stated in the literature review, one main challenging issue in the Development of The Gambia is endemic corruption which affects all sectors of the economy. One of the striking steps to take in

addressing Gambia's economic crunch is getting rid of corruption in the system. It has been widely reported that corruption is most prevalent in countries where:

- institutions such as the legislature and judiciary are weak;
- the rule of law is not strictly enforced;
- political patronage is the norm;
- the independence and professionalism of the public and private sectors have been eroded;
- and
- civil society lacks the means to hold perpetrators to account (Furphy, 2010).

In effect, one marked step to take in tackling corruption is to make government institutions strong and accountable to the civil society. Transparency International calls on all Governments, donors and non-Governmental organisations to adopt anti-corruption measures in all their development strategies. The Gambian government should take practical steps in addressing petty theft, corruption in high places and the society in Nigeria. Since corruption is tied to poverty, poverty related issues should be addressed. However, the problem of corruption can better be addressed through the combined and concerted efforts of the government and individuals in all spheres of society.

Across board, corruption is a serious problem that weakens societies, ruins lives, and impedes development. As one of the world's most corrupt regions (Africa), it is vital that Africa tackles the problem with increased vigour and resilience. Effectively addressing corruption on the continent must become a development imperative as African countries cannot bear the costs of corruption.

As ever, it is the poor and marginalized who suffer most from corruption, but as a threat to the development of The Gambia, fighting corruption becomes the shared responsibility of every Gambian. In addition to anti-corruption measures being made an integral part, all development strategies at the State level, the private sector and civil society must assist Government in fighting the scourge. Only then will Gambia be able to achieve the development, growth and prosperity required for the country to reach its full potentials.



The private sector can also play a role in boosting the economy of the country by driving innovations and economic activity in under-exploited sectors. It can, for instance, invest in Research and Development for new activities. Moreover, private companies often stand at the frontier of new sectors and bring innovations to the economy. But many enterprises in The Gambia are informal, small-scale, and lack access to capital, thereby making it difficult for them to fully exploit business opportunities. In this case, the Government should find ways to boost entrepreneurship, by creating favourable industrial and trade policies and eliminating bureaucratic obstacles to starting businesses in the country. Governments should be sensitive to the needs of the private sector, such as improving the business climate through “outreach” for constructive partnerships with the private sector. Conversely, the private sector should reciprocate by engaging with government initiatives and should take the lead in driving the agenda for diversifying the economy. There is no shortage of business opportunities in The Gambia only that the private sector is not best placed to exploit them.

Similarly, empowering Gambians to alleviate poverty can go a long way in resuscitating the economy. Empowerment has multiple meanings relating to power, participation, capability, autonomy, choice and freedom. For the purposes of this dissertation, empowerment happens when people, individually or collectively, conceive of, define and pursue better lives for themselves (Csaszar, 2005; Stern et al.; Rowland, 1997). From a pro-poor growth perspective, poor women and men need to change existing power relations and gain and exert influence over the political, economic and social processes that determine and, all too often, constrain their livelihood opportunities.

Empowerment and pro-poor growth form a virtuous cycle. Mutually reinforcing economic, social and political aspects of empowerment allows people to move out of poverty through participating in, contributing to and benefitting from growth processes on terms which recognise the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible for them to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth.

There is also strong evidence to show that sustained economic growth is necessary for poverty reduction. However, whilst the main ingredients of growth are relatively well understood, the strength of the link varies between countries and there is no one-size-fits-all growth policy. Poverty is multidimensional and pro-poor growth depends on a mix of policies that address both

growth and distributional objectives, promote equity and empowerment and deal with gender, ethnicity and other biases. Empowerment is an important component of pro-poor growth, both as a driver and a consequence. Many economic theories demonstrate that equality of access to, influence over or ownership of economic resources is necessary for sustainable, long-term growth (Rawls, 1971; Besley, 2002). Only when individuals are able to acquire or dispose of assets freely and equitably can their value be fully realised and used optimally to meet society's different needs, and incentivize investment in the future. Inequality of assets and opportunity hinders the ability of poor people to participate in and contribute to growth. High levels of income inequality lower the poverty reduction impact of growth and can reduce the political stability and social cohesion needed for sustainable growth (OECD, 2006a) {Available at (<http://www.oecd.org/dac/povertyreduction/50157608.pdf>) }

In addressing the problems of Gambia's economic development, the issue of energy as an infrastructure should be addressed. The Gambia does not have high power generating system like the hydro electric system or the thermal system. When The Gambian government can improvise are big generating sets to generate electricity for the country. In this regard, the government should either build a hydro power system or join hands with a neighbouring country like Senegal; which has a comparatively better generating system. However, the challenge of energy accessibility needs to be understood in terms of availability as well as affordability for individuals and communities. Sound national and regional policies that spur the energy transition and development is therefore needed for making progress in the country. Internationally, feed-in tariffs have proven to be an effective means to rapidly increase the generation of renewable electricity. Feed-in tariffs give small power producers the option of being paid for feeding their electricity into a regional or national electricity grid. These payments have been shown to be more effective than other renewable energy policies such as quota trading systems, tender programmes or direct investment subsidies, in terms of pricing, innovation and job growth. When tailored to the local context of a country or region, feed-in tariffs can successfully increase overall energy production, boost economic development and improve access. Moreover, the decentralized approach provides an opportunity for community-owned energy production. However, creating a reliable environment for investments in renewable energy in The Gambia would be a ground breaking achievement in addressing energy issue in the country.

**Table 16: STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING GAMBIA ECONOMY (YES)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	4.807
Median	5.000
Mode	5.0
Std. Deviation	.5427
Variance	.295
Skewness	-4.467
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	5.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	5.0
Sum	1048.0

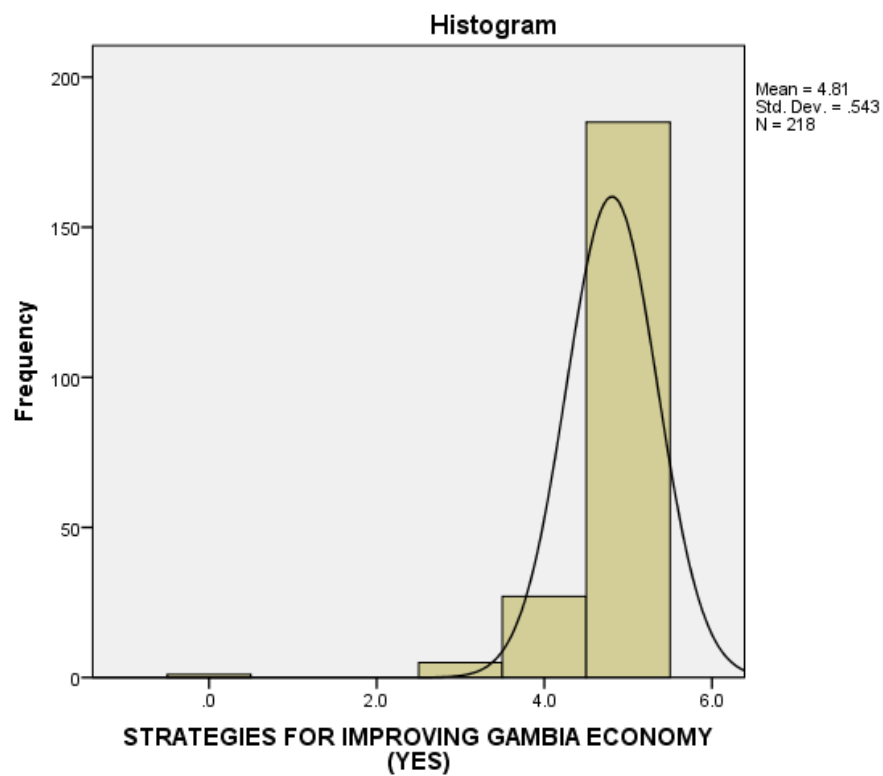


Figure 16: Histogram of the “YES” responses in support of the strategies to improve the Gambia economy.

**Table 17: STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING GAMBIA ECONOMY (NO)**

Valid N	218
Missing	0
Mean	.161
Median	.000
Mode	.0
Std. Deviation	.4260
Variance	.181
Skewness	2.715
Std. Error of Skewness	.165
Range	2.0
Minimum	.0
Maximum	2.0
Sum	35.0

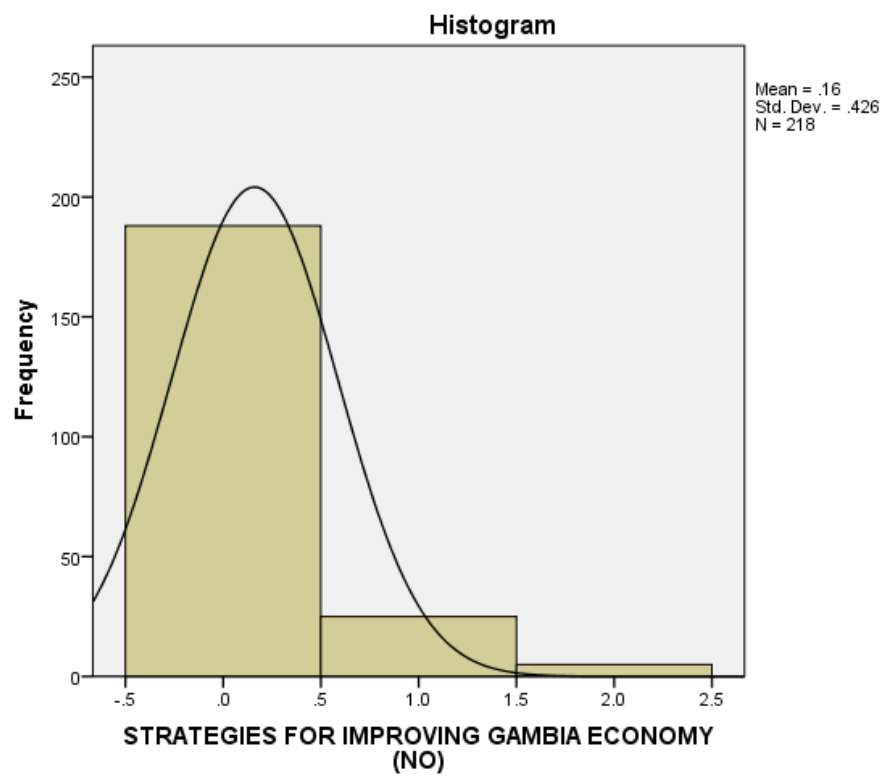


Figure 17: Histogram of “NO” responses not in support of the strategies to improve the Gambia economy.

Table 18: Descriptives

**Descriptive Statistics**

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Sum	Mean	Std. Deviation
1. IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA(STONGLY AGREE)	218	.0	80.0	5301.0	24.317	21.0373
2. IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (AGREE)	218	.0	64.0	7172.0	32.899	15.5892
3. IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (STRONGLY DISAGREE)	218	.0	15.0	591.0	2.711	3.6938
4. IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (DISAGREE)	218	.0	16.0	497.0	2.280	3.6342

5. IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA (UNDECIDE D)	218	.0	7.0	126.0	.578	1.4451
6. PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENG ES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTE D TO COLONIALI SM(STRONL Y AGREE)	218	.0	80.0	5055. 0	23.18 8	19.8739
7.PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM( AGREE)	218	.0	64.0	7050. 0	32.33 9	16.7817
8 .PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM( STRONGLY DISAGREE)	218	.0	24.0	786.0	3.606	4.4855



9. PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM( DISAGREE)	218	.0	22.0	606.0	2.780	4.2802
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**Descriptive Statistics (continued) BELOW**

<b>10. PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM(UND ECIDED)</b>	218	.0	7.0	123.0	.564	1.31 56
<b>11. BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM (STRONGLY AGREE)</b>	218	.0	80.0	4440.0	20.367	18.9 616
<b>12. BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM (AGREE)</b>	218	.0	64.0	7477.0	34.298	17.3 927
<b>13. BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM (STRONGLY DISAGREE)</b>	218	.0	27.0	843.0	3.867	4.66 54
<b>14. BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM (DISAGREE)</b>	218	.0	22.0	546.0	2.505	3.77 99

<b>15. BETTER DEVELOPMENT IN GAMBIA WITHOUT COLONIALISM ( UNDECIDED)</b>	218	.0	7.0	107.0	.491	1.1689
<b>16. STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING GAMBIA ECONOMY (YES)</b>	218	.0	5.0	1048.0	4.807	.5427
<b>17. STRATEGIES FOR IMPROVING GAMBIA ECONOMY (NO)</b>	218	.0	2.0	35.0	.161	.4260
Valid N (list wise)	218					

**HYPOTHESIS 4:** Null (Correlation Analysis (Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (r). ( $H_0: P = 0, \alpha = 0.05$ ): There is no significant relationship between the economic challenges (or development) in The Gambia and colonialism in the country.

This hypothesis was tested by applying Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient(r), The result obtained, shown below clearly indicates that there is a significant correlation of 0.158 at 95%  $\alpha$  (alpha) test level. Therefore the hypothesis 4, which states that there is no significant relationship between the economic challenges(or development) in The Gambia and colonialism in the country is **rejected**, leading to the conclusion that there is a indeed a correlation between the economic development in the Gambia and colonialism in the country.

Table 19: Correlation between the economic challenges (or development) in The Gambia and impact of colonialism in the country.

		IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA	PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA
IMPACT OF BRITISH COLONIAL ACTIVITY ON THE GAMBIA	Pearson Correlation	1	.158*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.020
	N	218	218
PRESENT ECONOMIC CHALLENGES OF GAMBIA ATTRIBUTED TO COLONIALISM	Pearson Correlation	.158*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.020	
	N	218	218

\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

#### **4:2.1 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS REPORT ON SEMI STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS.**

This second phase presents findings of the qualitative study amongst the five participants chosen for the survey which were identified as nationalist leaders, politicians, renowned historians and educationists. The experiences of the selected and dignified participants with respect to their astute knowledge of colonialism in The Gambia are quite loaded as all of them have well informed knowledge of the British colonialism. Information and the main tools used for data collection in this second phase were structured personal interviews. The semi-structured personal interviews were used in conjunction with the questionnaire to aid better interpretation of results. The interviews created an avenue for the interviewer to ask for further clarifications on certain issues and assisted in gathering additional information that were not captured by the survey and related literature.

##### **Interview Question 1: What impact did the British colonial economic activities have on The Gambia?**

On the above interview question, these were the summary of the responses of those interviewed:

- It brought about British development model in The Gambia which was align to the country.
- Colonialism improved indigenous Gambia's business outlook
- The British contributed immensely in the development of agriculture by promoting the production of cash-crops such as peanuts, palm oil, cotton, cocoa etc.
- Opened up the export sector of the Gambia's economy
- Colonialism made Gambia's economy vulnerable to European capitalism
- Introduced new trade policies which adversely affected native Gambians.
- The colonialists exploited Gambia's meagre resources like ivory, timber, hides and skin, bees wax etc
- It introduced cash crop based economy as against root crops which were mostly needed by every Gambian.
- It monetized The Gambia's economy as well introduced the European banking credit system

- The foundation of 'modern government' system in the country was laid by colonialism.
- Colonialism made The Gambia a monoculture economy that is dependent on one type of crop as earner of foreign exchange.

From the responses of those interviewed with regard to the above question, most participants agreed that the British colonial economic activities in The Gambia had adversely affected post-colonial Gambia as there were massive depletion and exploitation of its natural and human resources. According to the participants' responses, the negative effects of colonialism largely outweigh its good effects. These results (responses) by the participants in the qualitative phase are also corroborated in HYPOTHESIS ONE ( $H_0 \neq 1$ ), which stipulates that: British colonial economic activities have not had impact on The Gambia. From the result generated by the analysis, this null hypothesis is REJECTED, as was also confirmed in this interview session. This is also supported in the Review of Related Literature (Chapter Two), which captured that colonialism led to economic and peasant labour exploitations. For example, the statement of the former U.S. President, Franklin D. Roosevelt when he visited The Gambia on Jan 13, 1943 dismayed the condition under which the country's labour force was made to work (Adusei, 2009). In this regard, one can deduce that colonialism has largely affected The Gambia in many respects. The positive effects of it were merely coincidental as they were not intended to benefit native Gambians.

### **Interview Question 2: Challenges of Economic Development in The Gambia**

The respondents are of the view that the Challenges of Economic Development in the Gambia are attributable to the following factors:

- Poor leadership
- Non- proper utilization of limited resources
- Poor market economy.
- Poor level of Education
- Lack of necessary skilled manpower.
- No transformative industries to create jobs and produce goods for local consumptions.
- Apparent lack of accountability on the side of The Gambian government
- Gambia has a tax based economy

- Gambia has a mono cultural economy i.e. dependent on one crop as earner of foreign exchange.
- Corruption in the public sector impinges on economic development
- Lack of natural resources.

Of all the people interviewed, the participants have unanimously concurred that the challenges of economic development in The Gambia were mainly poor leadership, lack of qualitative education, apparent lack of natural resources, corruption in the public sector and sparse industries. These strong and convergent views are overwhelming. The challenges of economic development in The Gambia are both man- made and a natural phenomenon. For instance, while the challenges of poor leadership, lack of skilled manpower, lack of accountability and corruption in the public sector Gambia are man- made, the issue of lack of natural resources is beyond human capacity; as nature has not endowed humanity with the same quantity of natural resources. However, literatures in chapter two confirm that one of the mitigating factors against the economic development of The Gambia is insufficient skilled manpower. At independence, the Gambia had abysmally low literacy level of 8% (Hughes, 2006) which affected the process of economic development. It has been widely argued somewhere in chapter two that one of the most imperative factors of economic production and growth is the labour force. People eat what they produce and produce what they eat. On the whole, the challenges of economic development of The Gambia have largely affected it.

**Interview Question 3: Would you attribute the post-colonial economic under performance of The Gambia's Economy to the British exploitation of its resources?**

When the above question was posed to the respondents, they generally responded as follows:

- The post –colonial economic under –performance of The Gambia's economy is largely attributable to colonialism as it led to resources depletion.
- Colonialism also led to misappropriation Gambia's resources.
- Gambia inherited a colonial system of education that was not productive.
- Monetary economic policies were designed to enrich the British and not the colonised country.
- Mono economy still affect The Gambia

- Colonial structures such as economic system, judicial system, police, constitution, and army still hurt the country unfavourably
- Unfair Global economic system
- Dependency on European goods is attributable to colonialism

The respondents agreed that the post -colonial economic under performance of The Gambia's Economy is attributable to the British exploitation of its resources. They mostly agreed that colonialism brought unfair economic system (capitalism) as against communalism, which The Gambia is known for, unproductive educational system that was not science and technical oriented. They generally argued that colonialism left a permanent imprint in the sands of time which will take donkey centuries to overcome. They specifically pointed out the issue of dependence on European made goods and the making of Gambia in particular and Africa in general a permanent supplier of raw materials to European manufacturers a consumer of European goods. To collaborate this, hypothesis 2 ( $H_0 \neq 2$ ), which states, that the present economic challenges of The Gambia are not attributable to colonialism is also **rejected**, therefore leading to the conclusion that indeed, the present economic challenges of the country has a remarkable trace to colonialism.

**Interview Question 4: What considerable remedies would be practically appropriate for putting the economy of The Gambia on a very good condition in the short or long runs, as the case may be?**

When this question was addressed to the participants, they had these responses to make:

- In order to revive Gambia's economy, the country needs proper utilization of her meagre resources.
- The government needs to identify the priority economic needs of the people
- Creation of conducive business environment in the country.
- Pragmatic education that would improve the economy.
- Eradication of corruption in the Gambia's economic system
- Gambia's economy needs diversification
- The economy should shift from subsistence to industrialized economy.
- The Gambian government should be accountable to the people.
- There should be human discipline in the polity to give way for economic development.



- Micro economic policies should be structured to meet local needs.

When interview question four (4) was asked to the respondents, they unanimously suggested that for the economy of the country to improve in the short and long runs it needs pragmatic actions. They opinionated that there should be accountable and transparency in the economic system of the country, that the country's economy needs massive diversification as the dependence on peanuts and tourism as earner of foreign exchange cannot move the country forward. Again, they were of the view that The Gambia needs proper utilization of its lean resources and eradication of corruption in the polity. Equally, they suggested that micro economic policies/statistics which do not translate into economic realities on the ground and therefore should be discarded as they are mere **hypocrisy of statistics**. The respondents' opinions were also collaborated by the researcher's suggestions in his questionnaire as the way forward for the revamping of the economy. To this end, diversification of the economy, improving education standard, industrialization of the economy and eradication of corruption will go a long way to improving Gambia's economy. Therefore the respondents supported the following strategies postulated by the researcher as a way forward for improving the economy. In the same vein, these strategies for improving the economy put forward by the researcher were also collaborated in his chapter two.

**Interview Question 5: Would you agree that the British exhausted the financial resources of The Gambia before handing over to the succeeding indigenous government.**

As this question was asked to the respondents (participants), they made the following submissions:

- One of the respondents is of the dissenting views that the meagre resources of The Gambia were judiciously managed by the British during the colonial period.
- It is also submitted believed that the British government grappled with a lot of financial challenges in the administration of The Gambia as they had to borrow money from Sierra- Leone and from the Colonial government in Britain to cushion the cost of administration.
- A respondent is of the view that during the nascent days of colonialism natural resources that could have yield financial resources were hugely siphoned. As a result, financial

resources that would have been used for economic development were not available at independence.

- As in other African countries with abundant natural resources it could be said the British had something to exploit but for the case of The Gambia, the British had no resources to exploit. The Gambia, according to the respondents was colonised for prestige and to check- mate the activities of their colonial rival – The French stationed in Dakar, Senegal.
- The purpose of British colonialism of The Gambia, they argued was not for economic exploitations but for national honour, prestige and international diplomacy among world powers.

From these responses, one can deduce that the participants had dissenting views on the issue of leaving empty treasury at independence to the succeeding Gambian Government. They argue that The Gambia has no meaningful natural resources like oil, gold, diamond, bauxite etc that would be exploited. According to them, what they British did was to augment the little resources generated locally with grants and remittances from the Colonial Office in London to cushion the cost of local administration of the country. To collaborate this, it has been suggested elsewhere that the British occupation of the country was principally humanitarian as they were more interested in the abolition of slave trade and monitoring of French activities in Senegal (Onwubiko, 1972). This probably may explain why the country is a narrow strip of land of 4,361 square miles (Hughes et al, 2006). However, the respondents' views go against the generally held beliefs that the British left empty treasuries at independence in many African countries.

### 4:3 TEST OF HYPOTHESES

This part evaluates the impact of British economic activities on The Gambia by testing the four hypotheses postulated during the foundational stage of this research. The approach here was to throw these hypotheses in form of questions to the respondents and their different views were identified and subjected to statistical evaluation. In order to avoid bias/prejudice this study overall used the Null hypotheses ( $H_0 \neq$ ) to determine the respondents views. In testing the hypothesis, the following were found:

#### Hypothesis 1

**Null ( $H_0$ ): British colonial economic activities have not had impact on The Gambia.**

**Alternative ( $H_1$ ): Null ( $H_0$ ): British colonial economic activities have had impact on The Gambia.**

When hypothesis 1 was tested, the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) was rejected and the alternative hypothesis was accepted as shown below: With the results generated from the data, this null hypothesis is **REJECTED**. Table 1 showed very high mean agreements (24.3= 39% and 32.8=52% for strongly agree and agree respectively) with the fact that the British colonial economic activities had very deep impact on the Gambia as a nation-state. Whereas, looking at the results presented in Table 1, not more than 4% which is equal to 2.7 mean response score of the observed responses, either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the fact that the British colonial activity did not have impact on the Gambia. The graphical figures that follow every table clearly further emphasizes the fact of the responses that validates the rejection of this null hypothesis

**Conclusion-** The null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) is rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted based on the following assumptions.

Based on this finding, it is concluded that the British colonial economic activities on The Gambia have had great impact on the country. Although, these impacts were both positive and negative, but when weighed with even hands, the adverse effects are more than the good effects. It is believed that if there were benefits derived from British colonialism in The Gambia they were not meant for Gambians ordinarily but rather Gambia and Gambians benefitted from the crumbs that fell from the white man's table. The feeling in many quarters was that colonialism hugely

affected the country negatively. They argue that the British colonial rule in The Gambia was not generous political, humanitarian and economic activities aimed at developing the country but was exploitative. For example colonies were not allowed to sell their produce offering higher prices and were not equally allowed to buy British goods offering lower prices. Given this condition of unfavourable business transactions, the resources such as palm oil, groundnuts, bees wax, cotton, timber, ivory, hides and skins that nature had endowed the country with were siphon abroad for centuries. The obvious outcome was the impoverishment of the country.

The British colonial agricultural and industrial policies in the country have implications for the country's economic development. For instance, the colonial economic policies in The Gambia apparently discouraged native industrialization, but promoted export crops production at the detriment of the widely needed rice and root crops (the staple foods of the country) to feed the British factories, thereby making the economy vulnerable at independence. As it was within the period under study, The Gambia does not produce what it consumed and neither could she consume what she produced. Almost all the food items consumed in the country are imported. What this signifies is that the hard earned foreign exchanges are used to import consumable goods.

Colonialism has led to reckless exploitation of Gambian labour and other resources for the benefit of imperial Britain. Exploitation colonialism is the national economic policy of conquering a country to exploit its natural resources and its native population. The practice of exploitation colonialism still persists into today's Africa using different guises. It has been popularly held that the wealth of the West was built on African exploitation and labour. Profits from slave trading and from groundnut (peanuts), cocoa, sugar, palm oil, cocoa, coffee, cotton and tobacco are only a small part of the story. What mattered was how the pull and push from these industries transformed Western Europe's economies. English banking, insurance, shipbuilding, wool and cotton manufacture, copper and iron smelting, and the cities of Bristol, Manchester, Liverpool and Glasgow, multiplied in response to the direct and indirect stimulus of the slave plantations helped to develop these cities.

Opinions are high that colonialism had left The Gambia tottering as a failed state. Its economy was so small that it could hardly earn enough revenue to run the administration. For instance, in 1926, The Gambian government had to borrow £1,000 from Sierra- Leone, under Governor

Charles McCarthy and also in 1902, Gambia's total revenue amounted to only £50,000, an amount considered too paltry for a country. The argument here is that if the Gambia has been left intact as it were within the Senegambia region during the pre-colonial era, it would have had better assets- larger population, larger resources, larger markets, probably good soil and economies of large scale.

In the development of any country, the availability of natural resources is used to satisfy the basic human needs such as food, shelter and clothes. A theory that is utilized in studying the economics of natural resources is **the Dutch Disease**. This theory holds that increases in revenues from natural resources will de-industrialize a nation's economy by raising the exchange rate, which consequently makes the manufacturing sector less competitive and lowers the output of the sector (Salisu, 2001). According to this theory, two effects are often created in an economy when there is a resource boom: the resource movement effect and the spending effect. A shift of labour force from a non-booming sector to the booming sector is regarded as the resource movement effect. As a result of this effect, significant units of factors of production shift away from the non-booming sector to the booming sector. The spending effect occurs when some part of extra revenue generated by the booming sector is spent either directly by the employer or indirectly by the government through getting extra tax revenue collected from the booming sector (Salisu, 2001).

Although, the British established some level of infrastructure such as pipe borne water, hospitals, electricity, roads, schools, communication network etc in the urban areas of The Gambia where British officials were resident excluding the majority of the Gambian rural dwellers. If Gambians (Africans) benefitted at all from it, it was purely coincidental. However, these infrastructures laid the foundation upon which the succeeding post-colonial Gambian government was built. But, the lopsided nature of colonial infrastructure installations has continued to be adopted in the country. The result is, why the urban (coastal) areas are adorned with skeletal infrastructure, none exists in the rural areas.

Over time, Gambian people and its economy have been subject to many external changes that left a trace in the way they think and transact businesses. Conquests, colonization, the slave trade, Arabic and European cultural elements, Islam and Christianity and recently the spread of consumerist society have all transformed Gambia for more than one hundred and forty nine years

(1816-1965). Colonialism used the denial of Gambia traditional economy to establish the necessity of white men to bring innovation and technologies in the colonies (Tangie, 2006). Undoubtedly, colonization has obstructed the internal process of state formation and economic development in The Gambia and left scars of corruption, capitalism economic dependence and perennial economic crisis.

The economic effects of colonialism can be viewed as a progressive integration of The Gambia into the world capitalist system within which the country functioned primarily as a source of raw materials for western industrial production. The colonial economy also caused agriculture to be diverted towards the production of primary products and cash crops, a situation that contributed to hunger and starvation in Africa. Africa concentrated on producing more of what was needed less and produced less of what was needed most. Africa was perpetually turned to the production of raw materials, a situation that caused unequal exchange and imbalance of trade. Rodney suggests that the plundering and systemic corrupt enterprises established in the colonies to expropriate natural resources in Africa to Europe have facilitated under-development of Africa, while it engendered the development of Europe. Alkali argues that colonization demanded a total re-organization of the African economy. Even in its current situation, life as an economic plan altered the way people produce, create and consume.

Neo-liberalism has also cropped up into Gambia and other African societies which was just an economic process that distrusts the state as a factor in development. It can be seen just as a philosophy that can be re-packaged over the years with the aim being to make people believe that the market mechanism is the most efficient allocator of production resources and therefore to have an efficient and effective economy, forces of demand and supply must be allowed to play a leading role. This has also changed economies of African countries from communalism to capitalism and then to neo-liberalism. This competitiveness created by the western countries has caused many damages to the Gambia. Today, the country is asymmetrically divided into two: the rich and the poor. Even out of the little the poor has, the rich exploit for their self aggrandizement. This has created petty jealousy, robbery and burglary in the country

Colonialism transformed Gambian society and led it to many challenges that included individualism of families in an otherwise close knit-family structures, fragmentation of family/social relations and 'urbanization' that has resulted into rural exodus and displacement of

large segments of the population. Most Gambians today are largely residing in the so – called British created urban area of the country, thereby leaving the rural areas fallow in terms of agricultural and other economic activities. Proficiency in African languages is declining in the continent because people are compelled to embrace western culture and civilization. This has caused alienation for people who cannot speak foreign languages as language has been used as a vehicle of culture which has literally created a dichotomy between the elite and the masses

The social implications of the imposition of colonial rule is that it led to individualism of families in an otherwise close knit-family structures, fragmentation of family/social relations that has resulted to the displacement of large segments of the population in The Gambia. Proficiency in Gambian languages is declining in the country because people are compelled to speak western language; especially English, embrace western culture and civilization. This has caused alienation for people who cannot speak foreign languages as language has been used as a vehicle of culture which has literally created a dichotomy between the elite and the masses. The Gambian culture has become a hybrid of local and foreign influences, with a new class of beneficiaries emerging.

The inter-independence of nations makes it imperative for the granting of aid to needy and poor countries, especially Africa. Neo-Marxists have argued that the advancement of developed countries' economies have also facilitated the same measure as the under-development of the third world through colonialism, slave trade and unequal exchange of international trade. The third world has acquired substantial amount of both internal and external debt, partly induced by foreign aid from countries in the West. The aid relationship has created a condition of economic subservience and a master -servant relationship that could generate persistent seeking and lobbying for foreign aid through borrowing. Most foreign loans have stringent conditionalities attached to them, such as the devaluation of national currency, removal of oil subsidy, retrenchment of workers and privatization of public corporations. At the long run, when these conditionalities are implemented by the government the masses suffer the most. Records have shown that aid does not work in Africa because it is not always channeled into good use by African leaders as the money always ended up in the hands of a small chosen few, making aid a form of taxing the poor in the west to enrich the new elites in former colonies. Through these loans European countries manipulate and control African economies.

It is quite known that most African societies fought fiercely and bravely to retain control over their kingdoms, states, and empires against European imperialist designs and military invasions. However, the African societies eventually lost out to the more powerful. This was due to partly for political and technological reasons. The nineteenth century was a period of profound and even revolutionary changes in the political geography of Africa, characterized by the demise of old African kingdoms and empires and their reconfiguration into different political entities, called nation-states. Some of the old societies were reconstructed and new African societies were founded on different ideological and social premises. Consequently, African societies were in a state of flux, and many were organizationally weak and politically unstable when the colonialist left. It is noticeable today that most African conflicts and crisis are caused by multiplicity of ungovernable ethnic groups who owe allegiance first to their ethnic group before the central state. The effects of colonialism past and present are visible all over Africa. It is not an overstatement when Kodjo (1987), author of 'Africa Tomorrow' describes the condition of African as "torn away from his past, propelled into a universe fashioned from outside that suppresses his values, and dumbfounded by a cultural invasion that marginalises him. The African... is today the deformed image of others." This is an apt description of the dilemma of Africa and Africans. African identity and image have been corrupted so much so that they are no longer black in thinking and orientation.

The wealth made from colonial drive enriched Europe and today the communities in Africa, Asia and, Latin America that are now impoverished and pauperized were as a result of imperialism. The gap between the so-called developed countries and the underdeveloped countries is very wide. Dependency is the order of the day in which the countries of the third world depend on the industrialized nations for almost everything ranging from goods to services. The third world countries have been relegated to the background and only made relevant in the area of supply of Raw Materials in the international division of labour. Backwardness in science and technology is also another major area where the third-world lags behind in the balanced of world economy. Major projects that require the employment of advanced science and technology are now being contracted out to European multinational and transnational companies.

There can be no doubt that there is still a widening gap between the central and peripheral states in world economy and politics. This is because the imperialist nations have seized control of five



monopolies, which are (1) technological monopoly (2) monopolistic control of worldwide financial markets (3) media and communications monopolies and (4) monopoly of weapons of mass destruction and other advanced means of destruction. The above situation puts the third world countries in a competitive disadvantage when it comes to trade and investment (2011).

One of the major outcomes of colonialism/imperialism was the setting up of legal and property rights related to a market economy and the administrative institutions to enforce these new laws. The colonial state was the machinery of administrative domination established to facilitate effective control and exploitation of the colonized societies. Partly as a result of their origins in military conquest and partly because of the racist ideology of the imperialist enterprise, the colonial states were authoritarian, bureaucratic systems. What this means was that a way of life that once functioned tolerably well, although it was primarily agrarian, was replaced by parasitic landlords, loan sharks, petty businessmen, speculators, and slums of diseased and starved millions. In other words new classes, tied to the imperialist's rule and system, were created.

Land alienation was very visible in The Gambia during the colonial period. The British encroachment on native Gambian lands was very rampant. Except during the nascent days of colonialism when lands (Ceded Miles) were acquired from the king of Niumi, Brunai Sonko for some bars of iron, the British took over all lands within the colony and tagged those crowned lands. What this meant was that any person having a need of land has to apply to the Crown through the resident Governor in Bathurst. For instance, the Imperial Act of 1917 provided that no alien shall acquire any interest in land from an African except under an instrument approved by the colonial Governor. This made Gambians squatters in their homelands as they could not make maximum use of land as needed. Public lands which were lands in the hinterland or protectorate were controlled by local Chiefs (such like the Alkalos- head of a village) under the customary laws. These lands were exclusively preserved for the natives for agricultural production and no European firms were allowed to invest in agricultural production in those lands. The outcome of land alienation in the colony was that the native communal ownership of lands gave rise to individual ownership, which was rather the exception.

By the time of independence in 1965, these inequities in land possession could be seen as follows: top government officials, business class and the Aku (descendants of ex-slaves who settled in Bathurst) occupied the larger chunk of arable and living lands in the capital and the

Kombos (adjoining towns outside the capital). The rest of the poor populace were pushed to the outskirts of the cities and towns. The Gambian government has not developed a comprehensive national land policy that guarantees access and responds to current development needs of citizens in a sustainable manner. The land tenure system has visibly changed from communal tenure to Free Markets; where land acquisition is now a luxury, especially in the urban areas of the country. The politics of contemporary land reforms have been based on bringing specific interests of significant groups into the laws and these have been rooted in the post independence period (Manji 2006:9).

The effects of the British fiscal policy in The Gambia were paramount. In the first place, colonies in Africa were regarded as British outpost that should be exploited and the British fiscal policy stipulated that colonies should be financially self-sufficient in meeting up with the overhead cost of administration and other expenditures. It was from these fiscal policies that the British based their exploitative mandate. From this policy statement, the British imposed all kinds of taxation on the native people. This subjected them to more abject poverty, as some, in some cases sold their important personal effects to pay their tax. Others who could not afford it dodged the tax collectors as much as possible. In some cases ran into the bushes for fear of being captured and imprisoned.

In the colonial period, the general fiscal policy was directed towards the manipulations of the fiscal operations of the government with the aim of achieving certain colonial economic objectives. For instance, the Native Tax Ordinance of 1924 generally imposed a poll tax on all male adults of 18 years and above. To buttress their colonial economic objectives, Lugard insinuated that ‘no system of rule can be effective unless it enjoys some measure of financial independence’ (Lugard, 1929).

Trade unions in Africa have a long tradition of political engagement, beginning with their involvement in the anti-colonial movements through to present day struggles for democracy. Trade or labour unions can be described as organised groupings of wage and salary earners with the purpose of bringing to bear the economic, social and political interests of their members in labour relations and the political system. As a new type of organisation trade unions emerged during industrialisation in Europe in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century. From trade organisations of highly qualified skilled workers (e.g. printers) they later developed into more

comprehensive organisations of the rapidly growing industrial proletariat, mainly in the big industry.

But this was not so in colonial Africa. Apart from a few exceptions (e.g. Tunisia, South Africa and the British colonies of Sierra Leone and The Gambia), the formation of trade unions of indigenous African workers only started during and especially after the second world war, when the colonial administrations both in British and French Africa put in place the legal prerequisites for the creation of indigenous labour organizations. In the absence of a significant manufacturing sector, African trade unions emerged mainly in the public service and the public transport sector, mostly for teachers, railway workers and port workers. Trade unions were also formed in the export enclaves.

Trade Unionism in the colonial Gambia (TU) was a veritable instrument towards the agitation of workers interest in the country. As the cost of living increased in the colony, with incidence of higher taxes and with the slogan of 'no representation, no taxation and open exploitation of the working class, The Gambia workers group formed themselves into alliance against what they perceived as injustice against them by their imposed colonial masters. As the most important mass organization during the colonial period, unions very often had a decisive share in the national liberation struggle. Only very rarely, however, did they represent a real autonomous political factor in this struggle. Trade unions have become important agent of socio-economic transformation and class struggle (Aremu, 1996). It has played significant role in the emancipation and the overall improvement in the condition of the working class. A harsh political climate such as was provided by colonial oppression and suppression led workers to realize the need to effectively mobilize against their common enemy, thereby leading to high working class consciousness required for their emancipation.

It can be argued that if all Gambian surplus leaves the country to go to another country already industrialized and wealthy, and little or none is left to the underdeveloped country, the wealthy become richer and the poor at best stay poor. The results would surely be different if the underdeveloped country were left with their own resources for its own use and benefit, to harness energy and abilities for the advancement of its own society and at its own pace and direction. Instead, the rich imperialists, with all their brilliant technology and machine industry, not only do not help these countries to develop but support everything backward, medieval and totalitarian.

They try to prevent social revolutions whenever possible and to obstruct progress wherever such revolutions have taken place.

## **Hypothesis 2**

**Null (Ho): The present economic challenges of The Gambia are not attributable to colonialism.**

**Alternative (H1): The present economic challenges of The Gambia are attributable to colonialism.**

This hypothesis was tested by applying the measures of central tendency. The high mean responses shown in table 7, illustrated in figure 6 and 7 indicate a strong and convergent opinion of about 38% & 53% respective “agree and strongly agree” by the respondents that the present economic challenges of The Gambia are attributable to colonialism. Also, the standard deviation obtained from this analysis which is very near to the mean responses further emphasises an appreciable convergent views of the respondents. Therefore the hypothesis 2, which states, that the present economic challenges of The Gambia are not attributable to colonialism is also **rejected**, leading to the conclusion that indeed, the present economic challenges of The Gambia are attributable to colonialism.

**Conclusion** - The null hypothesis (Ho) is rejected and the alternative accepted ostensibly because there are still traces of colonial legacies that have continued to impinge on Gambia’s economic development. Development theorists point out that colonial experiences have a significant impact on subsequent economic growth. During the years mid 1800 to mid 1900s, colonialism was most prevalent in Africa, with only Ethiopia and Liberia not facing direct colonial conquest. Africans were optimistic of the post-colonial prospects, with several new nations establishing themselves as democratic countries and embarking on opening their domestic markets to the capitalist forces. Austin (2010) points out that, there was significant economic growth in Africa during 1950s and 1960s. As Blanton, Mason & Athow (2001) put it, during the 1960s, the future of Africa looked bright. During the 1<sup>st</sup> half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, it is evident that economic growth and development in Africa outpaced Asia. However, during 1960s and 1970s, researchers had to change their prospects regarding Africa’s economic development; a time which the continent began struggling with huge debt burdens, elevated inflation rates, and negative economic growth rates. The situation worsened during the 1980s following economic

stagnation and severe recessions. Following the democratization of 1990s in most Africa countries, researchers were compelled to alter their understanding of economic development in Africa, particularly for the case of Least Developed Countries (LDC).

What caused Gambian's underdevelopment is a complex issue. Europe's past (and present) exploitation of her resources played a significant part. Before the Europeans arrived in Africa, Africa had vibrant economic, social and political structures. These were severely disrupted by Europeans in a bid to create wealth for themselves.

Colonialism in Africa is enigmatic due to the fact that it is a time past and time present hybrid event. The end of British hegemony in Africa and the decolonization of the continent enjoy a paradoxical dual attraction: by definition a past event, it nevertheless remains a matter of recent experience; current interest and contemporary debate, however incomplete in the record, and ambivalent in its interpretation. Decolonization excites our interest by manifesting the past in the present (Greene, 1992). Africa's historical trajectory is marked by three inter-related epochs – pre-colonial, colonial and post –colonial; with the existence of the colonial epoch having far-reaching implications for the others. First, the colonial epoch placed colonizing nations above the colonized through exploitation and subjugation (Rodney, 1976) while distorting pre-colonial socio-economic and even political arrangements (Ake, 1981; Ekeh, 1983). Second, and a consequent of the first, is the disarticulation of the post –colonial era as captured in an ongoing, and increasingly, complicated socio-economic and political relations in contemporary Africa. It is therefore on the basis of these consequences that colonialism has become an easy explanation for Gambia's underdevelopment.

For at least 8 decades, The Gambia and other African countries were under the rule of European powers that were pursuing their own prerogatives. Collier & Gunning (1999) argues that colonialism played an integral role in laying the foundation for the contemporary African state of affairs. Before Europe colonized Africa, there were no contemporary states; instead, there were city states and loosely organized kingdoms (Jarett 1996). Therefore, it is relatively easy to believe that these years of foreign power and colonial domination had a substantial impact on the post-colonial performance and development of the country. Nevertheless, the casual mechanisms that link post-colonial development of The Gambia to its colonial past are still a subject of

debate. There are some theorists who believe that colonialism and its ensuing legacy has a positive effect on The Gambia's development, on account that it helped in modernizing and developing Gambia. On the contrary, other scholars such as Jarett (1996) have argued that colonialism and its ensuing legacy had lasting impacts on the Africa's development. It is imperative to note that Africa's colonialism is significantly different from the experiences of other regions' colonial experiences. According to Austin (2010), the specific aspects of Africa's colonialism are substantially different from colonialism in other regions and periods because of the rapid colonial scramble during the 1870s and 1880s and that survival largely depended on resource extraction, use of forced labor, and "welfare colonialism", which was followed by decolonization that resulted in high expectations regarding the role of the state. Several researchers have adopted different approaches when examining the lasting impacts of colonialism in African countries (Collier & Gunning 1999). Most scholars explore the impacts that colonialism and the ensuing colonial legacy have had on cultural development, economic development and political development. In most cases, scholars have examined the independent impacts of colonial legacy on the combination of the aspects of development (Blanton, Mason & Athow 2001).

Early theorists argued in favor of colonialism by posing that the positive impacts of colonialism outweigh the negative impacts. For instance, they argue that the lasting impacts of colonialism include the introduction of Christianity, capitalism and democracy in Africa (Blanton, Mason & Athow 2001). However, the difficulties that are currently facing Africa including staggering debts, economic recession, conflict and war among others has discredited the positive impacts of colonialism.

Current political instability, social disorder and economic crisis in Africa have their roots in colonization era. During colonization period, political, economic, and social structure of African societies were completely changed. European powers viewed Africans as "primitive people" so they assigned themselves a duty to civilize or teach them, the Africans the "proper civilization" of which they meant colonization, imposition of European civilization and exploitation of Africans (World History, pp.158) . In this regard, European colonials divided Africa continent into colonies among themselves. They used persuasion and bribery of traditional leaders at best and force at worse to acquire these divisions and other programs of interests to them.

Governments of colonies were formed either under a direct or indirect rule of countries colonizing the colonies. Under a direct rule, all levels of governments were controlled by the colonial masters, while where an indirect rule was applied, only governors and council advisors were appointed from colonials countries, and traditional leaders loyal to governors were allowed to retain their leadership or appointed in case of some leaders who resisted the colonization.

One approach to assess the ways in which colonial legacies hamper development is to explore the impacts of colonial rule on the political and economic institutions. Austin (2010) when evaluating economic institutions, asserted that colonialism ruined the established traditional economic system typified by community level development and mutual aid and replaced it with capitalist economies that are based on mutual relationships and individual exchanges. Blanton, Mason & Athow (2001) point out that colonialism made Gambia economy to be overly reliant on primary products, which are mostly particular products that were of benefit to the home economies of their colonial powers. Primary products are the agricultural products and raw materials utilized in the production of other commodities. It is important to note that agricultural-based economies depend significantly on climatic variables, which render economic growth and development unstable and unpredictable. Examples include Nigeria's reliance on palm, cocoa and peanuts, Ghana's over reliance on Cocoa; Gambia and Senegal's over reliance on ground nuts; Ivory Coast over reliance on coffee and cocoa. In addition, colonial masters in Africa placed emphasis on monoculture (specialization in only cash crops that would benefit the colonial masters), which would soon be a norm for agricultural industries and farmers in the Africa continent. Blanton, Mason & Athow (2001) point out that before colonization, rice farming was prevalent in Gambia; however, their colonial masters prioritized the groundnuts production, resulting in the clearing of rice farms. The fundamental argument is that colonial masters changed the production patterns of their respective colonies in accordance with their needs. In this regard, it can be argued that the economies of the least developed countries have since remained to be a function of the needs of the developed nation's needs. Austin (2010) considers this relationship as path dependent, which implies that they are difficult to change irrespective of how long the economic arrangement has been in existence. Colonial imperials created the single product dependent economy in Africa, which has hampered economic



development in LDCs in Africa. The single-crop economies created by colonists in Africa have made African economies to rely significantly on market-based fluctuations (Jarett 1996).

Underdeveloped in The Gambia can also be attributed to poor economic policy stemming from the lack of state legitimacy, something that was inherited after African countries gained independence from their imperial rulers. According to Collier & Gunning (1999), Africa's colonialism experience is different from the experiences of other regions in terms of post-colonial state-making. Contrary to former colonies such as Middle East, which had sovereign states before colonization, Africa lacked a history of statehood before being colonized by European imperial powers. Furthermore, Jarett (1996) points out that the post colonial independence in Africa is significantly different from post colonial independence in America, whereby the pre-existing indigenous societies and institutions played no role in the establishment of the new state system. Jarett (1996) argues that African countries lack social control and legitimacy. Basing the chaotic and unruly nature of post colonial African country, policy makers often have restrained alternatives as did the colonialists.

Another approach to examine how colonial legacy hampers development efforts by LDCs is to evaluate the cultural impacts of colonialism on economic growth and development. Blanton, Mason & Athow (2001) uses a society-based argument and links colonialism to the surfacing of bi-cephalic societies having a flawed state structure; this enhanced patrimonial politics and corruption. Within the ruling structures, imperial rules put Africans in leadership positions and lured them with wealth and status. African elites were beneficiaries of economic rewards, which created a dominant at the expense of the natural resources found in the continent. Regardless of colonialism coming to an end, African elites have continued to maintain their relationship with their former imperial rules. Through this contact, African elites are being constantly rewarded while the natural resources in their countries are being drained. According to Blanton, Mason & Athow (2001), colonial rule establish two different publics in Africa. The first was a prehistoric realism that was based on primitive grouping having moral ties embodied through kinship and community. The second was the civic public, which draws upon the civic structures established by the colonial rulers such as the police and the military and has no moral ties. The latter has played an integral in resulting in the current under development in Africa. In the light of this

view, Blanton, Mason & Athow (2001) argues that under development in LDCs in Africa can be explained in terms of the cultural colonial legacy.

Collier & Gunning (1999) characterizes colonial legacy in Africa in terms of patrimonial autocracy and points out the colonial state in Africa existed for less than a century but it changed a number of societal aspects such as modes of economic production, societal hierarchies and the political space. In the views of Collier & Gunning (1999), post colonial states in Africa inherited the command nature of the state, probably because of the interventionist characteristic of their imperial rulers. This command role has played an instrumental role in the establishment of autocratic political institutions contrary to democratic institutions. Austin (2010) and Jarett (1996) caution that autocratic political institutions hamper the incentives for economic development.

Several economists have argued that cross-country differences in economic development today have their roots in the colonial era. For example, Engerman and Sokoloff (1997, 2002), argue that different types of economic activities that the colonizers engaged in led to different growth paths. They claim that the link between colonial activities and current-day levels of economic development is as follows. In many areas, colonial society was very unequal, giving political rights only to a few landowners, while repressing most of the population through forced labour. Consequently, institutions that developed during colonial times were designed to protect the rights of only a few. These institutions persist until today and constrain economic development.

Capitalism that was imposed on Gambia and Gambians by the West had not worked out very well and successfully to our benefits. Rather, it has made unnecessary accumulation of wealth by the highly placed against the down trodden in the society. With its shortcomings, capitalism has continued to hurt Gambian's economic development. According to Williams (2013), "We (referring to western world) have failed as regulators, we failed as supervisors, we failed as corporate governance managers, we failed as risk managers, and we also failed in the allocation of roles and responsibilities for international economic organisations." If this could be the words of failure coming from a highly placed Secretary of the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), what then could be the fate of Africans who suffer directly the harsh

effects of capitalism? This has raised serious questions about the viability of western styled of free market capitalism that was imposed on Africans.

Colonialism also affected political institutions by destabilizing the legitimacy of the state and placing powerful state apparatus to African elites, this resulted in the development of flawed state structures. In addition, colonialism had an impact on social groupings, with regard to the state and social and ethnic groups. Several modern day scholars link poor economic performance in LDCs in Africa to colonial legacy. This explanation can be used in accounting for the differential development between other regions and Africa. Colonialism also affected political institutions by destabilizing the legitimacy of the state and placing powerful state apparatus to African elites, this resulted in the development of flawed state structures. In addition, colonialism had an impact on social groupings, with regard to the state and social and ethnic groups. Several modern day scholars link poor economic performance in LDCs in Africa to colonial legacy. This explanation can be used in accounting for the differential development between other regions and Africa.

To understand the economic situation in contemporary post-colonial Gambia, it is important to remember the economic structures inherited from the colonial era:

4. Most African economies at independence were centred on the production and export of a single commodity, be it agricultural or mineral. Economists label economies that are dependent on a single commodity as *mono-economies*. It is a known fact that for economies to develop, *specialization* and *diversification* are required. Independent African governments had to develop strategies for economic diversification and specialization. This was not an easy task given that the colonial economic systems were not oriented towards diversification.
5. Most African countries inherited under-developed commercial, transportation, and communication infrastructures as compared with the Western powers. Economic diversification and growth is dependent in part, on developed networks of communication and transportation that facilitate the easy movement of goods, services, capital and labour.

6. It is well known from factors of production that one of the most important factors of economic production and economic growth is people. All production depends on human resource. Specialized production is dependent on skilful and learned workforce. However, most colonial governments spent very little money on this. As a result, at independence, African countries were constrained with acute challenge of skilled manpower, a prerequisite for economic growth and development.

In the light of the above, one could see a striking link between the present economic underdevelopment of The Gambia with exploitative colonialism of the British which has deteriorated the economy of the country. The present has always been a function of the past. Had colonialism never been imposed on Africa, its development would be significantly different and many of the problems that plagued it today, probably, would not have existed.

### **Hypothesis 3**

**Null (Ho): The Gambia would not have developed better but for colonialism**

**Alternative (H1): The Gambia would have developed better but for colonialism.**

This hypothesis was tested by applying the measures of central tendency. The high mean responses of 20.4 and 34.2 shown in tables 11 and 12 respectively, illustrated in figures 11 and 12 indicate a strong convergent and representative opinions of about 33.4% & 56.2% respective “agree and strongly agree” by the respondents, that The Gambia would have had better development without the great influence of colonialism, also the standard deviation obtained from this analysis which is very near to the mean responses further emphasising an appreciable convergent views of the respondents. Therefore the hypothesis 3, which states, The Gambia would not have developed better but for colonialism is thereby **rejected**, leading to the conclusion that indeed, Colonialism inhibited the pace and rate of development of The Gambia for so many years.

**Conclusion** – This assessment has concluded through this hypothesis that The Gambia would have developed better without colonialism. This column argues that, contrary to commentaries highlighting the benefits of colonialism, it is this intense experience (colonialism) that has significantly retarded economic development across the continent. Relative to any plausible counterfactual, Gambia is poorer today than it would have been had colonialism not occurred. For instance, the resources of the pre – colonial Gambian society including but not limited to land, minerals, rice cultivation, timber, ivory, bees wax, hides and skin, wide animals, cotton, cash nuts etc would have remained intact, properly harnessed, distributed according to communal pattern of distribution. Exposing the Gambia to external exports meant that economic activities and distributions were no longer in their direct control.

The views of the respondents are further elaborated in this section with a view to proving that the Gambia would have developed better if not the introduction of colonialism. The neo-colonialism of today represents imperialism in its final and perhaps its most dangerous stage. In the past it was possible to convert a country upon which a neo-colonial regime had been imposed. Egypt in the nineteenth century is a suitable example. Today this process is no longer feasible. Old-fashioned colonialism is by no means entirely abolished. Yet, it still constitutes an African

problem, but it is everywhere on the retreat. Once a territory has become nominally independent it is no longer possible, as it was in the last century, to reverse the process. Existing colonies may linger on, but no new colonies will be created. In place of colonialism as the main instrument of imperialism we have today neo-colonialism. The essence of neo-colonialism is that the State which is subject to it is, in theory, independent and has all the outward trappings of international sovereignty. In reality its economic system and thus its political policy is directed from outside; especially former colonial masters.

The emergence of colonialism on The Gambia altered its history forever. Gambia's ways of thinking, patterns of economic development, and ways of life were forever impacted by the change in political structure brought about by colonialism. The Gambian economy was significantly changed by the Atlantic slave trade through the process of imperialism and the economic policies that accompanied colonization. Prior to the "Scramble for Africa" or the official partition of Africa by the major European powers, African economies in general were advancing in every area, particularly in the area of domestic and international trade. The aim of colonialism is to exploit the physical, human, and economic resources of an area to benefit the colonizing nation. European powers pursued this goal by encouraging the development of a commodity based trading system, a cash crop agriculture system, and by building a trade network linking the total economic output of a region to the demands of the colonizing state. The development of colonialism and the partition of Africa by the European colonial powers arrested the natural development of the Gambia's economic system.

Pre-colonial Gambian economy was well organized. While some pre-colonial African societies were hunting-gathering economies, other societies had agricultural-based economies. Whether hunting-gathering or agricultural economies, in most cases pre-colonial Africans carried out their agricultural work and production collectively or communally in which ideally all able-bodied adults participated. Depending on location, pre-colonial Africans engaged in crafts-level (not industrial-level) hand-tool manufacturing. They produced agricultural tools, clothes, iron or copper implements, pottery, jewelry, weapons for hunting or warfare, and other products. As the colonialists landed these economic structures which served African interests were discarded and replaced with western model.

The Gambia pre-colonial economy was mainly subsistence-oriented with trade routes and markets for the exchange of surplus goods for commodities that cannot be produced locally. These subsistence economies were not oriented to the mass accumulation of wealth or attainment of profits. Sometimes money in the form of beads, cowries shell, manilas, cattle, iron coins, and other portable items was used for the exchange of goods. Markets existed for trade of a wide array of goods from foodstuffs, clothing, and footwear to luxury products.

Before The Gambia was colonised, the country was characterized by a large degree of pluralism and flexibility. The pre-colonial society consisted not of closed reproducing entities, equipped with unique unchanging cultures, but of more fluid units that would readily incorporate outsiders (even whites) into the community as long as they accepted its customs, and where the sense of obligation and solidarity went beyond that of the nuclear family. Pre-colonial Gambia society was of a highly varied nature. They could be either stateless, state run or kingdoms, but most were founded on the principles of communalism in that they were self-governing, autonomous entities, and in that all members took part, directly or indirectly, in the daily running of the kingdoms/states. Land was held commonly and could not be bought or sold, although other things, such as cattle, were owned individually. In those societies that were not stateless, the chiefs ran the daily affairs of the ethnic together with one or more councils. These councils simultaneously informed the chief, checked his powers and made policy by reaching unanimous decisions. If unanimity was not reached, a village assembly would be called to debate the issue and majority ruling would now apply.

The role of the chief during such meetings was to sum up what had been said and attempt to form some consensus among the diverse opinions. Hence the chief did not rule or dictate but led by consensus. Many tribes, especially those that were stateless, had no central authority and no class system, and many of those that did could depose a chief that was thought to have abused his power.

In terms of political institutions, state formation and development that had taken place prior to colonialism would have continued. The evidence clearly suggests that states such as the Fulladu and Kaabu empires of the pre- colonial Senegambia region, the Asante state in Ghana, or the Rwanda state were becoming more centralized and consolidated. Nevertheless, political

centralization was a prerequisite for order and public good provision and though states also collapse, once started there are strong forces leading political centralization to intensify. Therefore, political institutions would have continued on the path they had in the pre-colonial society.

The decisiveness of the short period of colonialism and its negative consequences for Africa spring mainly from the fact that Africa lost its power. Power is the ultimate determinant in human society, being basic to the relations within any group and between groups. It implies the ability to defend one's interests and if necessary to impose one's will by any means available. In relations between peoples, the question of power determines manoeuvrability in bargaining, the extent to which one people respect the interests of another, and eventually the extent to which a people survive as a physical and cultural entity. When one society finds itself forced to relinquish power entirely to another society that in itself is a form of underdevelopment (Rodney, 1973).

During the centuries of pre-colonial trade, some control over social, political and economic lives were retained in The Gambia, in spite of the disadvantageous commerce with Europeans. It could be stated here that control over internal matters; economy, tariffs, customs etc disappeared under colonialism. Colonialism went much further than trade. It meant a tendency towards direct appropriation by Europeans of the social institutions within Africa. Africans ceased to set indigenous cultural goals and standards, and lost full command of training young members of the society. Those were undoubtedly major steps backwards.

An overarching feature of pre-colonial Africa was that its societies were not designed to be the all-powerful entities that they are today, hence the abundance of confederation -type societies. One reason for this was that the villages and Ethnic groups commonly owned the land, a fact that undermined the basis for a market economy and a landed aristocracy of the British, another that there was an abundance of available land to which dissatisfied individuals or groups could move. Colonialism alienated Africans from their native lands and in its place created individual and state ownership of lands; which persists till date.

To judge the impact of colonialism on development in The Gambia simply by looking at outcomes during the colonial period is a conceptual mistake. Post-independence Africa looked



nothing like it would have done in the absence of colonialism. Indeed, in most cases post-independence economic decline in Africa can be explicitly attributed to colonialism because the types of mechanisms that led to this decline were creations of colonial society. It seems reasonable to assume that the pre-colonial Gambia with the absent colonialism would have had the same contacts with the rest of the world, even on equal terms. This implies humanitarian agencies, Christian Missionaries would have gone to convert people and built schools, the League of Nations would have tried to abolish coerced labour, and the WHO would have tried to disseminate medical technology to all the nooks and crannies of Africa. Moreover, it implies that African countries would have continued to export, as many had prior to 1885.

Colonization of The Gambia by the British country was a monumental milestone in the underdevelopment of the country. The Gambia and Gambians consider the impact of colonization on their economy to be perhaps the most important factor in understanding the present condition of their country and of the rest of African people. Therefore, a close scrutiny of the phenomenon of colonialism is necessary to appreciate the degree to which it influenced not only the economic and political development of Africa but also the African people's perception of themselves. If one has to think of how colonialism underdeveloped The Gambia, one has to reflect on long term racism, exploitation, oppression, alienation, subordination, obnoxious policies, deprivations, and a created dependency (not to mention brutal violence and even in some cases murder). Ultimately, the 'development' of Africa as a whole is one of Europeans history's greatest scams, as much of the wealth of American and European colonial countries was derived from the exploitation of African labour and the depletion of Africa's resources. Through inherently racist policies that completely destroyed and restructured the continent's diverse socio-economic, political and cultural traditions, European colonialists and the social structures they imposed underdeveloped and continues to under develop Africa.

The argument so far has been aimed at showing that the benefits from colonialism were small and that they were not humanitarian gifts from the colonialists but rather fruits of African labour and resources for the most part. Indeed, what was called 'the development of Africa' by the colonialists was a cynical short-hand expression for 'the intensification of colonial exploitation in Africa to develop capitalist Europe'. The analysis has gone beyond that to demonstrate that numerous false claims are made purporting to show that Europe developed Africa in the sense of

bringing about social order, nationalism and economic modernisation. However, all of that would still not permit the conclusion that colonialism had a negative impact on Africa's development. In offering the view that colonialism was negative, the aim is to draw attention to the way that previous African development was blunted, halted and turned back. In place of that interruption and blockade, nothing of compensatory value was introduced. This may explain probably why some African countries and well- sons and daughters of the continent are clamouring for reparations.

#### **Hypothesis 4**

**Null (Ho):** There is no significant relationship between the economic development in The Gambia and colonialism in the country.

**Alternative (H1):**

**There is a significant relationship between the economic development in the Gambia and colonialism in the country.**

**(Correlation Analysis (Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient (r). (H<sub>0</sub>: P = 0,  $\alpha$  = 0.05):** There is no significant relationship between the economic development in The Gambia and colonialism in the country.

This hypothesis was tested by applying Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient(r). The result obtained clearly indicates that there is a significant correlation of 0.158 at 95%  $\alpha$  - (alpha) test level. Therefore, hypothesis 4, which states that there is no significant relationship between the economic development in The Gambia and colonialism in the country is **rejected**, leading to the conclusion that there is a indeed a correlation between the economic development in The Gambia and colonialism in the country.

**Conclusion** – The null hypothesis (Ho) is rejected and the alternative accepted. The assessment concluded that the present economic development vis-à-vis economic challenges of The Gambia have significant connection with the obnoxious economic activities of the British in the country. No doubt, colonialism retarded development in The Gambia. British colonialism caused a great reversal in levels of development throughout much of the areas they have colonised. Those

territories that were the most economically prosperous before colonialism often became the least economically developed after colonialism. Because colonialism invariably consists of two-way relations between colonizer and colonized (Robinson 1972; Stoler and Cooper 1997), the characteristics of the former as well as those of the latter are relevant for understanding the effect of colonialism on development. Indeed, a rich literature is concerned with differences in the orientation of the European colonial powers and finds that the identity of the colonizing nation explains variation in postcolonial development. For example, while the British regarded their African territories as outposts to be exploited, the French saw their African territories as extension of France overseas and did everything colonially possible to develop such areas. The British perception of the colonized affected the level of development in such areas. This explains the disparity in development between the French Senegal and Gambia British. It can be pointed out here that the differences in the economic models of Britain and France had large consequences for the kinds of areas they preferred to settle, the extent of colonial institutional building they pursued, and, ultimately, the developmental legacies they left behind. Level of colonialism is seen as the extent to which a colonizing power installs economic, political, and socio-cultural institutions in a colonized territory. In this regard, colonialism and development are intertwined. Colonialism could bring about actual and positive development whilst also it could retard development depending on its application.

Colonialism and development are interwoven and how they relate to one another is important in understanding the current level of development in The Gambia in particular and Africa in general, such as why some countries are developed and some underdeveloped. In this regard, it is pertinent to prove how colonialism is related to underdevelopment and how countries are affected by it. The whole gamut of colonial enterprise was economic exploitation at its highest order. Colonial exploitation runs counter with development of any kind; hence there was absence of development during the colonial period. For more than 400 years of colonial enterprise in Africa, European countries could not development African countries to meet European standards. The north - south dichotomy and disparity in development express this. The colonizing nations (powers) have used the resources of the colonised to develop their respective countries and have continued to maintain their development standards using African resources and manpower. What are left over in Africa are over-used and exhausted countries gasping for economic survival in the comity of nations after independence. The British Empire was aptly

said to be one in which the "sun never set." It covered a fifth of the world's land surface and ruled a fourth of its population.

The British generally colonized and concentrated colonial institutions in those areas that were the most populous and most politically and economically developed at the beginning of the colonial epoch. While in those areas where there were no abundant natural resources like The Gambia, colonial institutions were hardly built and this had continued to plague the country till date. In contrast, the British pursued comparatively limited settlement and institutional transformation in the more populous and more politically and economically developed pre-colonial areas. Hence, colonial level of development is positively or negatively associated with the level of already subsisting pre-colonial development.

In colonial exploitation campaign, areas that were not endowed with natural resources for grab could not have infrastructural facilities as it was considered unnecessary expenditure. In this regard, the British laid the foundation of disparity in development in most African countries. The apparent gap in the level of development between the rural areas and urban areas are attributable to this. The outcome was that the few available facilities in the towns and cities are scrambled for by both the rural and urban dwellers. This had made most African towns and cities crowded with its attendant social vices like crime, armed robbery, theft, housebreak etc.

Underdevelopment implies a relationship of economic exploitation between two or more countries, the exploiter becoming developed and the exploited becoming underdeveloped. No doubt, the riches of Africa and her raw materials fuelled the economies of imperialist countries. The British Prime Minister, Sir Winston Churchill bore testimony to this fact when he said: Our possession of the West Indies gave us the strength, the support, but especially the capital, the wealth, at the time when no other European nations possessed such reserve, which enabled us to come through the great struggles of the Napoleonic Wars". The keen competition of commerce in the 18th and 19th centuries enabled us not only to acquire this appendage of possessions which we have, but also to lay the foundations of that commercial and financial leadership which when the world was young,...enabled us to make our great position in the world." (Coblentz, 1959). If the British laid the foundation of their economic wealth during the possession of West Indies, then the colonization of the massive African territories could have consolidated such gains and strongly facilitated growth in their country.

This analysis is part of the ongoing scholarly quest to understand the ways in which colonial institutions had shaped long-run human well-being. Much of this literature is animated by the question of whether colonialism in general has positive or negative consequences for development. The pertinent question is what happened to development during colonial interceptions and interruptions? Did the colonialists continue with the process of development as set out by Africans themselves or were they busy exploiting and milking Africans of their resources to develop their home countries. No doubt, the British had not run their colonies at a deficit but as a profitable venture. One of the principal policies of the British colonial enterprise in Africa was that colonies should be financially self-supporting, i.e. colonies should generally generate financial resources with which to run their countries.

Domination means lack of autonomy. A continent without the autonomy to act on its own cannot be in a position to act in the best interest of its own people. On the contrary, it must act in the interest of “the master” who must be pleased even at the expense of the people. Thus, externally generated policies are prepared by these dominant actors and forced down the throat of the people by their leaders. The outcome has always been counter-productive as the people and the leadership move on parallel lines. The State is left as a contested terrain where various groups struggle outside the law to appropriate power and resources. This is the picture we have virtually in all African states – a situation which is reinforcing dependency, underdevelopment, and insecurity. In fact the impact of domination can be summed under the rubric of underdevelopment.

The thinking of any options out of the present forms of domination requires understanding the real forces behind the problem. The conclusions point to the role of Africans in the domination project. Some have however argued that this is consequent upon the inbuilt mechanisms by external forces that make it difficult for Africans to disentangle from the colonial perfected role for them. Ocheni and Nwankwo (2012) noted the systematic disarticulation in the indigenous economy and the intrinsic tying of same with the external economy of the colonizers as example and this has hindered economic development. They opined that the deep-seated corruption in most African states and the selfish behavior of some of the political leaders to sit tight in office even when they have obviously outlived their usefulness in the eyes of their people are attributable to the effects and support of colonialism and imperialism. Boaduo (2012) certainly

also agreed with Ocheni and Nwankwo with emphasis on conspiracy theory when he noted the common knowledge that billions of Africa's wealth have been stolen and deposited in European and American banks by African leaders. The financial institutions where these bounties are deposited are aware that individuals cannot amass such wealth taking into account the combined income from their businesses and other sources.... The conclusion that can be drawn is that African leaders' corruption is another plot by the Colonialists to stagnate the industrial and economic development of African states. Stolen monies by corrupt African leaders deposited in the financial institutions in the West help them to finance their plans to keep Africa in perpetual poverty.

## **Merging Quantitative and Qualitative Results**

At this point of this research, it is germane to integrate both quantitative and qualitative results in order to understand the observable fact under investigation by triangulating both the figures from quantitative research and the details of qualitative result. As a result, triangulation is necessary to give the research a critical assessment by harmonizing the results of both.

We use the term mixed methods research here to refer to all procedures collecting and analyzing both quantitative and qualitative data in the context of a single study (Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003). The objectives are to describe how and why one conducted two mixed methods research designs, and to discuss some of the benefits and challenges of mixed method research. It is hoped that it will inspire further investigation and informed application of such designs.

Researchers have been conducting mixed methods research for several decades, and referring to it by an array of names. Early articles on the application of such designs have referred to them as multi-method, integrated, hybrid, combined, and mixed methodology research (Creswell and Plano Clark 2007: 6). The basis for employing these designs are likewise varied, but they can be generally described as methods to expand the scope or breadth of research to offset the weaknesses of either approach alone (Blake 1989; Greene, Caracelli, and Graham 1989, Rossman and Wilson 1991).

The prospective mixed methods researcher will find a variety of classificatory metrics by which mixed methods research designs can be described. The designs have been differentiated by the level of prioritization of one form of data over the other, by the combination of data forms in the research process (such as during the collection or analysis phases), and by the timing of data collection, such as whether the quantitative and qualitative phases take place concurrently or sequentially, and if so, in what order (Creswell, Fetters, and Ivankova 2004; Datta 2001; Johnson and Christensen 2004; Tashakkori and Teddlie 2003). Some researchers have integrated several different metrics to create mixed methods classificatory systems.

The term quantitizing has been coined to describe the process of transforming coded qualitative data into quantitative data and qualitzing to describe the process of converting quantitative data to qualitative data (Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998: 126). While some recent studies have explored the utility of research that integrates qualitative and quantitative data (e.g., Adamson et al. 2004; Sandelowski 2000; Weisner 2005), there remains a need for systematic information on how to actually carry out such transformative analytic designs.

However, it is argued that triangulation becomes more difficult due to its subjectivity nature. Integration of results from different methods could mean that ‘harmony exists on how reality is viewed, or that a common reality is shared and a lack of convergence may reflect legitimate and different views of reality or the habituation of different social world’(Ozor, 2012). More so, qualitative and quantitative analyses differ. The method of analyzing a quantitative study is based on ones’ conceptual frame of orientation, while qualitative inquiry aims at understanding the participants ‘frame of mind. Based on these irreconcilable differences, the results of each may or may not converge. However, the postmodern approach is assumed to display ‘increased sensibility to both context and content’ of research results by harmonization. Where findings conflict, however, the postmodern researcher would regard diverging results as alternative explanations to research. For this research the use of multiple data collection methods, mixed methods and multiple analyses produced the much needed research findings, given the dual nature of the research instruments.

It should be noted that quantitative results expands qualitative findings thereby given way for indebt understanding of the problem under investigation. The diverse approach, which underpins the overall postmodern methodology employed, meant that both the quantitative study and qualitative study produced separate results, which seemingly are similar in some way. In integrating these results using the postmodern approach, the process transcended beyond mere corroboration of the results obtained separately from qualitative and quantitative studies. Rather results were presented as complementary in which the results of quantitative study expanded understanding and enriched interpretation of research findings produced from the quantitative phase.



How can these findings be integrated and presented as a singular conclusion in this study? In the search for a common ground in face of conflicting understandings from disparate theoretical and epistemological perspectives, some authors have suggested the application of ‘multiple paradigms to explore their disparity and interplay and, thereby, arrive at an enlarged and enlightened understanding of the phenomena of interest, as well as the paradigms employed’ (Lewis and Grimes, 1999: 676 in Ozor, 2012). However, the aim of mixed method approach is not simply a search for corroboration, but rather achieving expanded understanding of the phenomenon under study. Greater confidence can be held in a singular conclusion where findings are corroborated across the different approaches but if findings conflict, then greater knowledge can be gained; as interpretations and conclusions may be modified appropriately. The findings from both phases of the thesis were integrated at point of interpretation/discussions of results, though the qualitative phase is basically designed to explore while the quantitative phase offered explanations complementing and expanding qualitative results in an explorative sequential model (QUAL- QUAN) Ozor, (2012). Squaring or comparing results therefore involved exploring and harmonizing the differences and similarities as well as interfacing findings from one approach to the other within the theoretical and paradigmatic framework of the two approaches. In the search for a common ground, the thesis used what Lewis and Grimes, (1999: 675) called in (Ozor, 2012) ‘*meta-theorizing*’ in order to ‘explore patterns that span conflicting understandings’.

Mixed methods designs can provide pragmatic advantages when exploring complex research questions. The qualitative data provide a deep understanding of survey responses, and statistical analysis can provide detailed assessment of patterns of responses. However, the analytic process of combining qualitative and survey data by quantizing qualitative data can be time consuming and expensive and thus may lead researchers working under tight budgetary or time constraints to reduce sample sizes or limit the time spent interviewing. Ultimately, these designs seem most appropriate for research that does not require either extensive, deep analysis of qualitative data or multivariate analysis of quantitative data.

This study demonstrates some techniques for and outcomes from mixed methods research designs involving quantizing qualitative data. The strategies employed had some commonalities. For example, open-ended survey responses and in-depth interview data were

coded using an analytic software package. The data collected for each task were integrated using a data management software package. These combined data could then be assessed using simple measures of frequency to explain apparent discrepancies by providing contextual data on what survey responses actually meant (i.e., stakeholders' disagreement with guidelines) and reveal determinants of various responses (i.e., key informants' conceptions of the major audience for guidelines).

#### **4:4 Chapter Conclusion**

This chapter has described the framework of analyses as well as details of analyses of both the qualitative and quantitative data. It also discussed results obtained separately from the qualitative and quantitative phases of this mixed methods research. Qualitative data were generated concerning the opinions, beliefs and experiences of individuals in The Gambia. The chapter is structured in two parts. Part I deals with quantitative analysis while Part II provides details of qualitative analysis and discussions of results from both phases.

It has also analyzed both the quantitative and qualitative data derived from the study and has also considered responses from Questionnaires distributed and Semi structured Interviews granted to respondents from government institutions/Ministries/organisation and across the Administrative/Educational regions of The Gambia and astute politicians, statesmen and great historians whose opinions are widely respected in the country. The questionnaire and structured interviews were designed to capture the problems of research as stipulated in the research questions and hypothesis. The issue that generated this study was to find out empirically if British colonial economic activities in The Gambia actually affected the country.

In analysing the data for this research, the statistical tools used were the application of Measure of Central Tendency and Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient ( $r$ ). It further discusses results obtained separately from the qualitative and quantitative phases of this mixed methods research. The chapter was structured in two parts. Part I deals with quantitative analysis, while Part II provides details of qualitative and discussions of results from both phases. Data in itself does not convey any significant meaning or information unless it is subjected to statistical applications and analysis. In this sense, attempt was made to discuss and analyse the results generated.

As well, both quantitative and qualitative results were integrated in order to understand the observable facts under investigation by triangulating both the figures from quantitative research and the details of qualitative result. The integration of both the quantitative and the qualitative result is appropriate in research as it assist in achieving expanded understanding of the phenomenon under research and also gives room collaboration of results. In integrating both the quantitative and qualitative results better confidence can be built in a singular conclusion where

findings are corroborated across the different approaches but if findings conflict, then greater knowledge can be gained; as interpretations and conclusions may be modified accordingly.

Quantitative data collection and analysis involved the use of simple statistical tools (frequency distributions, means or modes, standards deviation/standard error of a sampling distribution, percentage tables and a 5-point Likert scale) to test predetermined hypotheses developed around themes and issues considered important to research experiences of participants as well as themes deriving from the investment, principal-agent, and stakeholder theories. Research findings from the mixed methods approach were integrated in a postmodern framework to produce deeper insights and more comprehensive analysis of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia with its relatedness with underdevelopment.

## **Chapter Five**

### **Findings, Conclusion and Recommendations**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The Gambia Government (GG) over the years has emphasized and re-emphasized that the British during the colonial period had unscrupulously exploited the resources of the country and has been the main architect of Gambia's present underdevelopment and many woes. In many national policy statements, the British has always been accused of being responsible for this debilitating state of the economy and has expressed its desire to redress the colonial anomaly set by the British in order to enhance the welfare of the citizenry.

Based on this recognition, as well as the fundamental aspiration for national development, the idea of this research was hashed. Within this framework, therefore, this research was intended to give an empirical assessment of the actual impact of Colonialism in The Gambia within the period it lasted (1816-1965).

The principal reason for this research work therefore was to examine the impact of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia and also partly to find out if the post -colonial economic under performance of the country is attributable to colonialism. It was also the intention of this study to make appropriate recommendations on the ways forward for putting the economy on a sound footing. As a guide in this research, four hypotheses were derived directly from the statement of problems which were formulated and tested as stated as followed below:

#### **Hypothesis 1**

Null (Ho): British colonial economic activities have not had impact on The Gambia.

Alternative (HI): Null (Ho): British colonial economic activities have had impact on The Gambia.

## **Hypothesis 2**

Null (Ho): The present economic challenges of The Gambia are not attributable to colonialism.

Alternative (HI): The present economic challenges of The Gambia are attributable to colonialism.

## **Hypothesis 3**

Null (Ho): The Gambia would not have developed better but for colonialism

Alternative (HI): The Gambia would have developed better but for colonialism

## **Hypothesis 4**

Null (Ho): There is no significant relationship between the economic development in The Gambia and colonialism in the country.

Alternative (HI):

There is a significant relationship between the economic development in the Gambia and colonialism in the country.

As The Gambia faces challenges of developing its economy, it is the aim of this study to identify the subsisting economic challenges that hinder the viability of the country's economy. Specifically, this research was set to find out:

- What are the impacts of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia?
- What are the challenges in the economic development of The Gambia?

- If the post- colonial economic challenges of The Gambia be attributed to colonialism.
- What considerable steps would be practically appropriate for improving the economy of The Gambia in the short or long run, as the case may be.

Given this build up, task efforts included the development of a research paradigm that was aimed at addressing the statement of research problem. To this effect, the researcher went round the nooks and crannies of the country; covering the five administrative regions of The Gambia, distributing questionnaires to elicit responses and also to interview nationalist leaders, eminent politicians and great historians of repute during the semi structured interview session.

During the course of this research, a total of three hundred questionnaires (300) were distributed, while 218 were returned; which represents 72% of the relevant population sample actually responded to the research instrument. The data collected was analysed using a combination of both descriptive and quantitative statistical analysis, Measures of Central Tendency for hypothesis 1, 2, 3 and Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation coefficient ( $r$ ), for Hypothesis 4 and one- way ANOVA, using the SPSS Version 20.5 soft ware.

Detailed descriptive analyses of the relevant variables involved and examined in this research work were graphically presented clearly in Chapter 4. The alpha level of 0.05 level of significance was used as the standard for rejecting or retaining hypotheses. The one-way ANOVA with two independent samples from the same population was also applied.

Equally, this research adopted the multiple research method and the post modernism approach in breaking the iceberg of this research. This mixed methods research consisted of the quantitative phase and a qualitative phase in the overall research study. The justification for combining both the quantitative and qualitative research was for a better understanding of the trend under investigation by triangulating both broad numeric trends from quantitative research and the details of qualitative research and to explore participant views for the reason of using these views to develop and test survey instrument with a sample from the study population.

The Qualitative and quantitative data and findings were integrated at the point of data interpretation in this thesis, which means that data and findings from the qualitative phase were compared and supported with data, findings and conclusions from the quantitative phase. This investigative chronological strategy was useful not only for exploration, but also for expanding the overall results of the research.

In order to determine the actual impact of colonialism in The Gambia, one sourced information from secondary sources such as from books, academic journals, magazines, archives, articles etc which were analysed and integrated into the main body of the research. There are some conflicting views on the impact of colonialism in The Gambia in particularly and Africa in general. For instance, the apologists were of the view that colonialism was of immense benefits to Africa, as it provided infrastructure such as good roads and bridges, electricity, railways, ports and harbours, clinics and hospital and opened the eyes of Africa for better tomorrow. For the antagonists, they believed that Colonialization and colonialism reaped Africans of its human and material resources which still affect it till date. However, based on my data and findings in the course of this research, my conclusions were drawn. This study is therefore predicated on the need to assess the impact of British colonial economic activities on The Gambia.

This chapter is organized into three sections namely: **Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations:**



## 5.2 FINDINGS

The findings of this study show that:

**1) British colonial economic activities in The Gambia have had immense impact on the country.**

Colonial activities have reaped The Gambia of its natural and human resources such as hide and skin, bees wax, timber, ivory, groundnut (peanuts), wild animals, biomass, cotton, land, affected local industries and subjected the natives to in-human forced labour and underpayment. Current political instability, social disorder and economic crisis in Africa have their roots in colonization era. During colonization period, political, economic, and social structure of Gambian societies were completely shut changed. The aim of colonialism is to exploit the physical, human, and economic resources of an area to benefit the colonizing nation. European powers pursued this goal by encouraging the development of a commodity based trading system, a cash crop agriculture system, and by building a trade network linking the total economic output of a region to the demands of the colonizing state. Local populations were forced out of their fertile lands which they used for food crops cultivations and their lands were then used for the cultivation of cash crops newly introduced. As a result The Gambian economy was significantly changed by the Atlantic slave trade through the process of imperialism and the economic policies that accompanied colonization which in turn made the economy vulnerable.

**2) The present economic challenges of The Gambia are attributable to colonialism.**

The types of mechanisms that led to the present economic challenges in the country were creations of colonial society. For example, the patterns of unbalanced trade continued into the period of colonialism still remains today. At its strongest, colonial legacy takes the form of “path determination”, implying that colonial choices determined post-colonial ones, or at least conditioned them, such that departure from the colonial pattern was, and perhaps remains, difficult and costly.

The “extraversion” and “monoculture” of African economies is widely lamented and condemned as a victory of colonial interests over African interests. The analysis revealed that the present primary role of Gambia in the international world economy as the dominant sources of raw materials and major consumers of manufactured products are the results of long years of colonial dominance, exploitation and imperialism. Consequently, on attainment of independence by most African states from their colonial overlords, it was extremely very difficult to disentangle from the colonial perfected role for the state because of the systematic disarticulation in the indigenous economy and the intrinsic tying of same with the external economy of the colonizers. The work also made a startling stark revelation by discovering through analysis that the deep-seated corruption in most African states and the selfish behaviour of some of the political leaders to sit tight in office even when they have obviously outlived their usefulness in the eyes of their people are attributable to the effects of colonialism and imperialism.

During the colonial era, a number of factors coalesced and led to the creation of distinct economic zones in sub-Saharan Africa. Bearing in mind the overall economic goals of the colonial undertaking, colonial economic policies were carefully constructed to meet the interests and objectives of the European stakeholders. Specifically, the extraction of natural resources from Africa for European industries and the establishment of new markets for European manufactured goods were guiding the formulation and execution of economic policies. Additionally, the geographic and geological features of localities throughout the continent were decisive elements in the European pursuit of economic goals. Here, such factors as soil quality, climate, and mineral reserves played important roles. What emerged was a general pattern of four discrete economic zones —peasant zone, settler zone, concession zone, and mining/industrial zone—throughout the continent. Naturally there was significant overlap; nonetheless, these economic zones assist us in our understanding of the ways in which colonialism influenced and shaped the economic structures of sub-Saharan Africa. As such, it also becomes apparent that African post colonial economies were not diversified. Mixed economies were the

exception; only South Africa and Nigeria managed to create economies that displayed elements of diversification and mono-culture has continued till date.

### **3) The Gambia would have developed better but for colonialism.**

What seems believable in this research is that The Gambia would have developed better if not the imposition of colonialism. Development as a state of growth and advancement is a continuous process and as such, any interruption in the course of it would affect it. It seems reasonable to assume that The Gambia in the absence of colonialism would have had the same contacts with the rest of the world if she was allowed to operate at her own pace. Moreover, it implies that African countries would have continued to export, as much as it had done prior to 1885.

In terms of political institutions, in the first set of countries the type of state formation and development that had taken place in the 19th century would have continued. The evidence clearly suggests that states/empires and kingdoms that make up present Gambia would have become more centralized and consolidated and would have been politically stable and stronger too. Nevertheless, political centralisation is a prerequisite for order and public good provision, order and good governance.

Colonialism not only blocked further political development, but indirect rule made local elites less accountable to their citizens. After independence, even if these states had a coherence others lacked, they had far more predatory rulers. These polities also suffered from the uniform colonial legacies of racism, stereotypes and misconceptions that Africans may not have had and which have since caused immense political and economic problems, most notably in different parts of Africa. For instance, when the British left in 1960s in most parts of Africa they sowed a seed of discord in Nigeria, Uganda, Burundi and so many other places in Africa and bequeathed a polity with no workable social contract and harmony resulting in 50 years of political instability, perennial economic crisis, military dictatorships and civil wars. All these retard development.

Though colonialism was a short interlude, it nevertheless was of great significance for Africa as a whole and left an indelible mark on The Gambia. As R. Oliver and N. Atmore contend, “Measured on the time-scale of history, the colonial period was but an interlude of comparatively short duration that should be done with. However, it was an interlude that radically changed the direction and momentum of African history”. There is no doubt that in the economic field, the colonial impact was by and large decisive and fundamental and affected both the rural and urban areas of the continent.

Another outcome of the artificiality and arbitrariness of colonial dimension was that the States that emerged were of different sizes with unequal natural resources and economic potentialities. While some of these states are giants such as Nigeria, Angola, Sudan, Congo Zaire, others are midgets like The Gambia, Lesotho, Swaziland, Togo, Cape Verde, Burundi etc. Secondly and worse still, some states have very long stretches of sea coast, others such as Mali, Burkina Faso, Niger, Chad, Zambia, Uganda and Malawi are landlocked. Thirdly, while some states have very rich natural resources such as Ghana, Zambia, Zaire, Cote d’Ivoire and Nigeria (though mismanaged), others such Chad, Niger and Burkina Faso are not so fortunate and are grappling with economic survival. Finally, some, such as The Gambia, have single borders to police, others have four or more and Zaire as many as ten, which poses serious problems of ensuring national security and containing smuggling. The problem of development posed by lack of or limited natural resources and lack of access to the sea for those independent African states which inherited these unfortunate colonial legacies can be readily imagined.

All in all, it is difficult to bring the available evidence together with plausible counterfactuals to argue that there is any country today in Sub-Saharan Africa that is more developed because it was colonised by Europeans. Quite the contrary!

#### **4) There is a significant relationship between the economic development in The Gambia and colonialism in the country.**

Although The Gambia as a country is independent of colonialism, but it remains heavily dependent and exploited under the effects of colonialism, neo colonialism and neo

liberalism. This dependency and exploitation particularly through the activities of World Trade Systems (WTS) and Trans National Corporations adversely affect the living conditions of millions of Gambian people, creating economic hardship, deprivation and in some cases encouraging political repression.

There is a significant relationship between the economic development in The Gambia and colonialism in the country largely because of the world capitalist system and the so-called international division of labour which sees Africa only as producers of primary commodities, most African nations have no viable integrated industries which can diversify their economies and supply the rest of the world with finished goods. Mining production for example is destined principally for exportation. What stays in Africa is the wages paid for the mineworkers. A majority of money spent on salaries goes to Western directors, experts and much of the profit goes to Western Trans-national corporations.

A suitable example is the Shell Exploration Company in Nigeria has encouraged crisis in this region with and impoverished the natives by destroying their ancestral environment without compensation. The high point of the Niger Delta crisis was the Ogoni crisis which led to the state execution of the environmental right activist Ken Saro Wiwa. For example a recent UN report implicated a Western firm and countries including Belgium in the illegal diamond trade. Due to centuries of slavery and imperialism, Africa does not have very much capital with which to begin industrialization. Although agriculture is important, industrialization is more important in today's industrial world.

African states often do not get fair prices for their primary export commodities, which are usually their only source of income. This is because they have little control over the international money market. The prices of groundnut, cocoa, timber, oil, rubber have all collapsed. Recently, the price of oil which is the main source of revenue for some developing African and Arab countries increased but the big financial powers in the West rallied to make sure that it came down within days because it affected them. But for many years, such inflation in the prices of imported consumer good has affected Africans

without anyone coming to their assistance or rescue. This in turn has multiplier effects on the economies of African countries as a whole.

The global outcry and opposition over the inequitable trade regulations being put in place by the World Trade Organization (WTO) has drawn attention to the inequities in the global economic system. The demonstrations in Seattle against the WTO meeting are an example of this growing awareness. At no other time in history has there been greater disparity between very rich nations and very poor nations. Nations in the west are forming coalitions to integrate and protect their economies (NAFTA in North America and the European Union in Europe). Yet at the same time, poor developing countries in Africa, Asia and Latin America are continually told by the World Bank and the IMF to liberalize and remove protectionist policies from their economic programmes. For Africa, redressing this is an urgent challenge.

There are other extra-economic implications of colonialism: it is necessarily a violent conquest and violently maintained system for the over-exploration of the conquered people. It is an inhuman system in itself, destroying any attempt at real development of the colony. Economically, it confiscates and reserves productive lands for the use of the colonizer. At a psychological level, it de-humanizes the colonized, forcefully imposing a foreign culture. It is a system sustained by a racist ideology where cultural space is developed exclusively for relations of domination. This allows for suppression and subjugation of the colonized and with this they cannot develop.

To establish the nexus between colonialism and underdevelopment one has to look at; 1) the existence of vast non-utilized areas which permitted new extensive occupations of land instead of establishing a modern and intensive agriculture; 2. The profits accumulated by the local elites were wasted in the consumption of superfluous and luxurious goods for pure ostentation, rather than saving and investing in productive sectors of the national and nascent economy; 3. As consequence of the agrarian structure which extremely centralized power and wealth, a harsh situation of inequality, poverty and all sorts of privation for the majority of the society resulted. This excluded a major part of the population from the basic means of subsistence.

All these points, maintained a vicious cycle of lower productivity in colonized regions and the flow of wealth to the dominant economies. The fate of the least developed countries were determined in this dialectical relation where internal factors (the role of the dominant classes based in a semi-feudal order) interacted with external causes (the colonial power and its thirst for resources and labor force).

In this historic trap colonized regions were lately incorporated in the world-market as a result of the dissolution of the direct control of metropolitan capital over the colonies and had to be accommodated according to the needs of the previous. The (historical and contemporary) massive poverty in those specified regions saw its genealogy in the original privation of access to land and housing and currently also determines the economic performance of those countries where large majorities of the working classes are unable to consume the products made in a society scarred by inequality.

Strict laws and other measures of social control were also established in the colonized countries. Even the manufacture of minimal technological products such as nails, modern farm tools, cements were forbidden, artificially increasing the dependence of the colonies. This is an important element of the colonial system, and it cannot be understood if its inherent contradictions are ignored: the development of the colonial country comes at the expense of the underdevelopment of the colonized. The markets and actual economies must be looked as historically constituted. In this sense, production in the colony was determined by the colonial power's demands. The establishment of a monopolistic relation between the colonial power and the colony not only asphyxiated the nascent industrialization, but also strangled the benefits of competition.

##### **5) The economy of The Gambia needs massive diversifications**

The development of The Gambian and African economies lies at diversifications. Economic diversification is essential for African economies to build buffers against vulnerability in a volatile world. Creating a savings culture and increased tax base to help fund intra-African trade and investment and reduce African countries' dependence on customs revenues are other factors that could provide buffers against volatility and

improve trade flows by lessening the incentive for countries to impose non-tariff barriers, participants said. The sectors being important for the future include agriculture, financial services, natural resource extraction, and investment in IT infrastructure, housing, power supply and regional trading of electricity. Other important areas of diversification include tourism and healthcare as important sectors for Africa's development and job creation.

Africa's major export sectors have been hard hit by the ongoing economic crisis. Demand collapsed in the major markets and prices of major staple commodities recorded dramatic declines. This crisis shows how important it is for African countries to diversify their production and exports; they can do this by increasing the added value of their goods and by strengthening regional markets.

In this context, the WTO's Aid for Trade (AfT) initiative and all other budgets for cooperation in Africa should explicitly seek to promote the diversification of economies and exports. This article focuses on diversification as a necessary condition to benefit from more open economies; it also considers how AfT can play a role in this regard.

To boost their contribution to international trade, African countries must protect their current market shares and seek to conquer others by increasing and diversifying the exports they offer. It is clear that increasing production capacities can help countries reduce poverty and ensure economic growth. One need only look to the example of the emerging economies like Brazil, China and India; these countries have managed to significantly and durably cut poverty levels over the past 30 years while working hard to integrate into the global market. They did so by crafting policies that had the explicit aim of promoting international trade; to that end, they implemented measures to develop domestic productive capacities. To do this, governments must strive to both strengthen their current production and develop new ones. AfT should aim first and foremost to achieve these two objectives.

Industrial agglomerations in Africa remain a rare phenomenon, and at most a handful of manufacturing clusters south of the Sahara rose above artisanal levels into modern industrial production. As far as the diversification process is concerned, most African



countries are still at a very early stage of industrial development where specialization is not a valid strategy but the expression of low levels of development, as depicted in Figure 2. African countries should strive for diversification in higher-valued products, while later on in their developmental trajectory, they may again specialise in a more limited range of products, which will mostly need to be highly sophisticated in nature. Sub-Saharan Africa, in the stylised pattern of (1) initial specialisation, (2) broad diversification, (3) new intra-industrial specialisation, lags not only by one stage (of broad industrialisation) but by two full stages of economic development. All the more remarkable is how much sustained growth Africa achieved over the last decade; and one easily foresees the future growth potential if next stage benefits are reaped.

**6) Colonialism brought about a new development model in The Gambia which made her economy vulnerable.**

Colonialism has opened up The Gambia to a new economic paradigm alien to it. The entrenchment of capitalism and free market economy are possible lee ways by which the country's economy is made vulnerable. What this meant is that the economy of The Gambia is subjected to whims and caprices and vicissitudes of market mechanism, mostly regulated by the Western countries.

For some time now, Gambia and the rest of Africa has been hit by the global financial crisis and a steep rise in food and fuel prices in the latter part of the last decade. Africa quickly recovered with a growth rate of 4.6 percent in 2010. The continent's growth slipped in 2011 because of political unrest in North Africa, but rebounded strongly to 5 percent in 2012. What has made the economy so vulnerable is that it is mainly commodity driven, which a foundation was laid during the colonial period. It is suggested here that for the economy to be put on a strong footing it needs strengthening domestic demands, rising incomes and urbanization, along with increased public spending and foreign investment.

**7) The Gambia as a country is saddled with poor leadership and non-proper utilization of its meagre resources.**

In the course of this research it has been found that The Gambia as a country has challenges of leadership and utilization of its meagre resources. As reported in the literature review, the corruption index of The Gambia despite its size is very high. Africa is still home to majority of the world's poor, irrespective of the availability of abundant human and material resources. The continent is unarguably one of the most endowed and fertile regions of the world and the richest continent on earth in terms of natural resources, but today, the image of the world's most resource rich continent has been damaged by corruption, mismanagement and bad/inept leadership. The corruption level of many African leaders is beyond imagination. The continent's resources are personalized at the expense of the people. Using The Gambia as an example, we see that abject poverty, inadequate health facilities and unemployment pervade the land and these are borne out of the failure on the part of leadership, mismanagement and corruption.

Mismanagement of resources in Africa is one of the major factors that made African continent the poorest among all the continents in the World. Lack of improved governance and the absence of transparency, as well as taxation issues; have been identified as key factors of underdevelopment. Proceeds from natural resources in Africa are not transparent; therefore it's uncountable, because the people have no idea of how much money that was derived from whatever transactions carried out by their government on their behalf.

**8) The post –colonial economic under –performance of The Gambia's economy is largely attributable to colonialism**

The apparent underdevelopment of The Gambia's is largely due to the introduction of colonial rule. The British re-structured the economy to suit their own interest and by so doing made it a cash crop based economy as against the multifarious economic activities that the Gambia basin was known for during the pre-colonial period. Reliance on the groundnut became so strong that it made up almost the entirety of exports and this has

been difficult to reverse in the post –colonial era. The homelands, economic and natural resources of Gambia were expropriated and transferred to Europe. For almost five centuries, European empire builders employed different strategies and tactics in Africa to make wealth through the ownership of human beings, exploration, evangelization, colonization, commercialization, terrorism, banditry, robbery, and theft. The processes of merchandizing some young Africans, dominating and controlling trade, destroying African institutions, cultures and religions, imposing Christianity, destroying African leadership and sovereignties through establishing colonial governments, dispossessing lands and other economic resources, and transforming Africans into slaves or coerced labourers for the purpose of advancing profit caused public disasters for Africans and peoples of African origins (Lonsdale, (1985). The impact of these disarticulations is still very much around Africa as new strategies of exploitation and unscrupulous means of maintaining underdevelopment in Africa are still continuing.

Overall, the cumulative consequences of colonial capitalism, state terrorism, and racism have been under-development and poverty in Africa, despite the fact that most of African peoples achieved “flag” independence since the mid-20<sup>th</sup> century. Most African peoples still lack freedom to determine their destiny because they are still controlled by neo-colonial African state elites that are supported by Western powers and their financial institutions (Asafa, 2015). Most African states mainly depend on external legitimacy rather than internal one because of the absence of genuine democracy.

### **Evaluation of the Findings from the Results of the Data Analysis**

The result of the data analysis in Chapters 4 adopted a mixed methods analysis employing qualitative and quantitative research analysis. The results from the survey data analysis transformed into quantitative data using percentages, tables and charts to identify open coding and selective coding categories. The analysis of the data from the semi-structured adopted the axial coding analysis of the grounded theory methods to identify core categories relation to the impact assessment of British colonial economic activities on The Gambia. The categories emerged from the theoretical coding system of the grounded theory analysis evaluated below to draw conclusions for the thesis.

The Results from the open coding analysis: As demonstrated in chapter four, open coding is the vital first step of the grounded theory analysis. In many ways, open coding is the primary strength of the grounded theory methodology – from a detailed and ‘open coding’ analysis of the survey questionnaire data is unique and give insights on the development of a substantive theory for impact assessment of British colonial economic activities on The Gambia. The emerging results from the mixed methods analysis using the theoretical open coding method helped the investigator to develop the dimensions of the research questions and problems. The categories that emerged from the open coding method of analysis based on Likert - scale methods of strongly agreed to strongly disagree presented as percentages (see tables 1-15).

The Results of Selective Coding: For the selective coding analysis the survey data was grouped into strongly agree and agree (as positives) and strongly disagree and disagree (as negatives) answers using a mixed method analysis that further transformed the results into mean, mode, standard deviation, range, histogram, skewness etc represented in figures and converted into histograms in chapter four (see tables 1-15). They are also alternatively, a combination of percentages and their terms that have a negative impact on impact assessment of British economic activities on The Gambia.

### 5.3 CONCLUSIONS

The main thrust of this study apart from assessing the impact of British economic activities on The Gambia's national development, is also to emphasize on the need to move the country's economy on a better footing to the current and future realities. Colonialism and issues surrounding it are today more important than ever for The Gambia, if it is to raise the standards of living of its people, consolidate a modern economy and participates as a significant partner in the global arena. This implies that the economy must be modernized and made competitive in aligning with current realities of our time.

Colonialism has various dimensional effects in The Gambia such as the exploitation of its human and material resources, exposure to vulnerable capitalism and modernism, lack of industrialization, poorly laid educational foundation, weak institutions, alienation from ancestral lands and economic disarticulation and deprivations and dependence on cash crop based economy and political entanglement of ethnic groups. Until the adequate understanding of all the multi-dimensional nature of colonialism is put into place and brought into play, all strategies may end up addressing only one dimension or, at best, some dimensions of Colonialism.

The consistent and thorough plundering of indigenous resources for the parent nation's gain was one way in which the underdevelopment of Gambia was present. Once The Gambia gained independence, she discovered that there were very little resources upon which to establish strong economic footing and a sense of economic autonomy. There came a point where all of the parent nations had done a very good job of essentially robbing many of the nations in Africa of their economic livelihood based on natural resources. Another way in which colonialism did a number of harm on The Gambia was in the lack of establishing a consistent and effective economic infrastructure. For over 149 years, the British had controlled Gambia and had not allowed Gambians to control their own economic interests and resources. Kept in subjugation in physical, economic and political terms, when the country was given independence, it them realized that fighting for freedom and economically managing it were two different realms entirely. The chaos that resulted from this realization helped to further the economic underdevelopment of The Gambia. Along these lines, the lack of a mandated and successful

economic infrastructure plan of development was painfully evident in the country. When independence was gained, the British simply left, having taken what they wanted and doing little to ensure a dependable future from an economic and political standpoint. It is regrettable to note that the British did little to economically support the new and fledgling Gambia.

Essentially, one had the situation where one new nation was in economic competition with a nation that had formerly dominated her from a material standpoint for over 149 years. It was no contest, and helped to contribute the economic underdevelopment of the country. Just a quick addition concerning how colonialism contributed to the economic underdevelopment of The Gambia. The borders of Gambia as a country today were drawn by European colonial powers long ago. When these borders were drawn, there was no consideration concerning ethnic and cultural similarities and differences. So today there are African nations with populations that contain different ethnic and tribal groups that have long histories of conflict. These ethnic conflicts continue today, causing many African nations to become politically unstable and difficult to govern. The political chaos caused by these ethnic differences has helped contribute to the economic chaos and underdevelopment experienced by these African countries.

It could be recalled that one of the objectives of colonialism was to find market for the European manufactured goods and raw materials for the industries and there was also a need for a natural linkage between the Gambia's economy and market with that of the international system controlled and directed by the colonizers. Through direct control of Gambia's economy and political administration made possible by the introduction of the indirect rule system. Gambia had no option than to accept the international division of labour which assigned her the mandatory role of production of groundnut (peanuts), timber, bees wax cotton, ivory, Iluminite, etc and other agricultural raw materials required by the industries in Europe. This explains why up till today, the role of Gambia as a country is the production of primary goods and agricultural products. Since the Gambian economy was essentially based on barter system, there was the need to monetize the economy to be in line with the European market and the international trade standard. This money was introduced as the only officially acceptable medium of exchange and to enforce this, there was need for the colonialist to take direct control of the administration of the Gambia.

Furthermore, there was also the need for the colonialist to take full control of the African economy and administration to ensure that Gambia was made a consumer nation for European goods. If this situation was not guaranteed, it would affect the development and progress of the new industrialization in Europe, because most of the industries would be compelled to close down if there are not ready market and consumers for their products. Also direct control of the African economy and political administration enabled the colonialist to ensure that African colonies or states did not take to manufacturing. It helped to restrict Africans and their technology to the confines or role of producing only primary goods or agricultural raw materials. This is the main reason why today Gambian find it very difficult to industrialize and to go into full manufacturing. This also explains why Africa is a consumer nation for foreign made goods. The situation equally accounts for the present underdevelopment of The Gambia and her technology.

Colonialism represents an important episode in the history of The Gambia. It marked the end of an era and the beginning of another episode. Though, its trajectory in the sands of time will ever live with us. Colonialism in Africa as a whole is very topical and a recurring issue due to the fact that it is a time past and time present hybrid event. The end of British hegemony in The Gambia and the decolonization of the continent, enjoy a paradoxical dual attraction: by definition a past event, it nevertheless remains a matter of recent experience; current interest and contemporary debate, however incomplete in the record, and ambivalent in its interpretation. Decolonization excites our interest by manifesting the past in the present (Greene, 1992). Africa's historical trajectory is marked by three inter-related epochs – pre-colonial, colonial and post –colonial; with the existence of the colonial epoch having far-reaching implications for the others. First, the colonial epoch placed colonizing nations above the colonized through exploitation and subjugation (Rodney, 1976) while distorting pre-colonial socio-economic and even political arrangements (Ake, 1981; Ekeh, 1983). Second, and a consequent of the first, is the disarticulation of the post –colonial era as captured in an ongoing, and increasingly, complicated socio-economic and political relations in contemporary Africa. It is therefore on the basis of these consequences that colonialism has become an easy explanation for Africa's underdevelopment.

During the colonial period in The Gambia (from about 1816 to 1965), the British, like any other colonial power, asserted their dominance through a variety of media. The colonial experience of The Gambia and Britain, and Gambia's early post-colonial history can be described, roughly chronologically, in three phases or periods: the formation of a 'captured' colony (Bathurst and the rest of the protectorate), the education and inculcation of 'proper,' British ways (i.e., the 'taming' of the colony), and the immediate aftermath of colonialism i.e., the 'independence' of the colony). Gambia's colonial relationship with Britain, in general, reflects Marx's theory of the dichotomy between the oppressor and the oppressed, Gellner's theory that domination and oppression is disseminated through educational means, and Snyder's theory on the risks and dangers that young, 'immature' ... countries face when they gamble on Western democracy. This unequal relationship between The Gambia and her former colonial master- The British has estranged her away from the past and landed her into uncertain present and a bleak future.

For colonialism, many questions remain unanswered; many others remain subject to dispute. In The Gambia, trade and investment in the colonial period benefitted only the British as the Gambians were not allowed to sell their agricultural produce offering higher prices and as well, were not allowed to buy European goods offering lower prices. British mining in The Gambia took the resources or wealth from Gambian soil without contributing to the country's economic development, save in a few enclaves such as infrastructure. Agriculture as practised in the pre-colonial period remained basically the same and unaltered, same traditional hoe and cutlass.

In the colonial Gambia, there was growth without development as the country's living standard remained stagnant or rose slightly. As the population continued to rise, more pressure was put on land acquisition and this made its affordability unreachable to an average Gambian, especially the urban areas. The tale of colonialism has all been woes from every angle in The Gambia. The country has predominantly remained rural and underdeveloped as the resources meant for its well-being and development was siphoned overseas.

No doubt, colonialism has affected The Gambia in so many ways and is still affecting the country. This study has revealed that the present primary role of Gambian nation-state in the international world economy as one of the sources of raw materials and major consumers of manufactured products from Europe and Americas are the results of long years of colonial



domination, marginalization, exploitation and imperialism which were fashioned against the country. As a result, on attainment of independence in 1965 from their British colonial overlords, it was extremely and humanly very difficult to disengage herself from the colonial perfected role for the state because of the systematic displacement in the indigenous (traditional) economy and the intrinsic tying of same with the external economy of the Europeans. It can also be concluded that the deep-seated corruption in Gambia's First Republic (covering the period under investigation) the selfish behaviour of some of the political leader to sit tight in office for 29 good years even when he had obviously outlived his usefulness in the eyes of their people, are attributable to the effects of colonialism and imperialism. The politicians in The Gambia's have over the years 'become more desperate and daring in taking and retaining power: more reckless and greed in their use and abuse of power; and more intolerant of opposition, criticism and efforts at replacing them. This could be one of the main reasons why the military struck on July 22, 1994 to overthrow a democratically elected Gambian government under Dawda K. Jawara. To achieve their inordinate interest, these politicians manipulate the illiterate masses and use state machinery and institutions to make good their ambition.

Looking back over the past thirty years since the end of colonialism in The Gambia, it is clear that governments took many different approaches to promoting economic development. The government it could recall followed a mixed approach to development. That is, they tried a combination of import substitution and diversification of exports. For instance, cotton and tourism. To fund these endeavours the Gambian governments could not follow either a strict free enterprise or state directed approach to funding development, but rather used a combination of strategies to foster economic development and growth which were most often unworkable.

History is a clock that tells a people their historical time of the day. It is the compass that wise people use to locate themselves on the map of the world. A peoples' history tells them who they are. What they have been, where they have been, where they are now, but most importantly, where they still must go. The imposition of colonialism on the continent of Africa occurred for many reasons, not the least of which was economic. Prior to this development, Africa was advancing and progressing economically and politically. Colonialism encouraged this development in some areas, but in many others severely retarded the natural progress of the continent. Had colonialism never been imposed on Africa, its development would be

significantly different and many of the problems that plagued it today probably would not have existed. But then African countries should forget their colonial past; work on their present with a vision and mission that will shape their future. Colonialism is just an episode in their developmental efforts; they should therefore remember where they have fallen and rise to their peculiar challenges.

This study has investigated the impact of British colonial economic activities in The Gambia with the purpose of identifying the impacts, development challenges and proffering remedies which may give The Gambia's economy a new face-lift. It has by its nature contributed in appreciable measure; as an additional repertoire to the stock of knowledge concerning the country's economy. However, since a study of this nature cannot claim to have exhausted the contextual relevance of the impact of British economic activities in the country, it is envisaged that it will provoke the hunger for further research on other missing links; especially, looking further at the resource endowment of The Gambia. Notwithstanding the theoretical findings, no empirical work formally links the country's colonial economic activities with its current low level of development. More importantly, this study is also expected to be of immense benefits and value to a number of stakeholders such as government and its agencies, global stakeholders of poverty reduction efforts such as public and private sectors strategists, NGOs, planners, managers, coordinators, UNDP etc.

Undeniably, colonialism has played a critical role in the underdevelopment and downfall of The Gambia. The contention asserting that the economic implications of colonialism were a decisive feature in shaping the lesser-developed standing of the country in the contemporary milieu appears to be realistic.

However, it is not so much the evil effects of colonialism or neo-colonialism or a regime of artificial borders that keep Gambia and sub-Saharan Africa in general, impoverished till now. It is true that colonialism did not hand down much to The Gambia or sub-Saharan Africa that the leadership could not preserve, let alone increase, the little that it inherited. Colonialism planted the seeds of the intellectual and material development in the country. It passed on enlightenment where there was traditional knowledge. It also subdued slavery and other barbaric practices such as pagan worship and cannibalism. It introduced formal education and modern medicine to Gambian indigenous people who had narrow understanding or control of their physical

environment. The establishment of modern communications, exportable agricultural crops and some new industries became the keystone for economic development. Moreover, The Gambia was introduced to new and more effective forms of political and economic institutions. As a result, militaristic societies were amalgamated into modern nation-states with greater prospect of survival in a competitive world than the numerous small units that existed prior to the arrival of colonial powers. Based on this argument, the African continent is experiencing political and economic mayhem nowadays mainly because of its failure to take advantage of its colonial legacy.

Colonialism made the potential for economic change worse because in many cases it led to economic re-organisation which made economic growth impossible after independence than it had been before colonialism took place. The forces which influenced economic growth during colonialism were the same ones that shaped what happened after colonial rule. As matter of fact, colonialism and its forces have continued to play out the smart games of exploitation even after independence. This could be seen in the various ways and methods being devised to impoverish Africa, even when it is apparently known that most African countries are in utter economic coma and quagmire.

Finally, it can be concluded here that the findings of this research work will serve as a sources of information regarding the Gambia's economic science and also can serve as a useful guide in the decision making process, thereby providing a profound background for the development and improvement of sound economic policies and for the overall development of the country. It would as well help the policy makers to understand the rates at which colonialism has affected the country and to know the appropriate strategies to take in redressing the wrong steps taken by the British colonialists.

## **5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The Gambia has passed through the excruciating and painful experience of colonial exploitation that had robbed her of ancestral and God's given natural resources that would have been channelled into proper use to benefit her citizenry. Though, colonialism had come and gone but its trails are still very much around the nooks and crannies of The Gambia. However, we cannot wish colonialism and its concomitant effects (aftermath) away but have to devise our own indigenous means of living with the former colonial virus of exploitation and its multiplier effects (neo-colonialism) which have refused to be flushed out from the Africa's blood stream.

Against this background and in view of the reviews, surveys conducted, and findings drawn from it, suggestions made by respondents and interview panel, the above conclusions and the need to move The Gambia forward in its development efforts, the following recommendations are put forward:

This study recommends that for The Gambia to overcome her present social, economic, political, health, education woes, etc., there is the urgent need for the people and the leadership of this country to create their own indigenous identity based on their own language, culture, technology, politics, economy, education, religion, craft, etc. that would be interwoven in good governance and transparency. This multi-dimensional approach to tackling the problems of the country would help give the country a new face-lift. Development studies have demonstrated that there is not a model or "recipe" for progress and modernization. A diversity of development policies are needed in order to face these structural problems of colonialism. Any real attempt at development must focus on the rupture of the old colonial legacy. Otherwise, social, political and economic change will purely constitute a perpetuation of actual unequal conditions that were set up during the colonial period.

The 'Dual Economic' paradigm inherent in African economies, originally proposed by Lewis (1954) still shapes the way that many economists think of economic problems of less developed countries. According to Lewis many less developed countries (including The Gambia under investigation) have dual structure economies; which are divided into modern and traditional sectors. The modern sector which corresponds to the more developed part of the economy is

associated with urban life, modern infrastructure, modern industry and the use of advanced technologies. On the other hand, traditional sector is associated with rural life pattern, subsistent agriculture and backward institutions and crude technologies. For instance, backward institutions such as communal ownership of land, which implies absence of private property rights on land, subsist. Low productivity results because workers in the traditional sector are inefficiently used, to such an extent that they might be completely unproductive. For generations of modern development economists, building on Lewis insights, the problem of development has come to mean moving people and resources out of the traditional sector, agriculture and countryside, into the modern sector, industry and cities. This, it is hoped will re-build most African countries economies.

Establishment of a strong agricultural industry, capable of providing food to Gambia's entire population is the first and most important step in economic stability for the country. Agriculture is a strong key to economic development and so, for the Gambia to further develop economically, it has to shift from current subsistence agriculture to industrial agriculture. Therefore, there is need to empower small-scale farmers, who produce the bulk of the nation's staple foods. The agenda would include the application of micro-credit as an instrument of economic empowerment aimed at providing resources to small-scale farmers to purchase critical inputs, including improved seeds and seedlings, fertilizers, agro-processing machinery, etc. This process is expected to spur agricultural output and boost farmer's income with a resultant promotion of economic development.

Profitability in the agricultural industry will allow for taxable property and income which the state can use to increase revenues and invest in education for what will be an increasingly unemployed labour force as a move is made from subsistence agriculture being a large part of GDP to a more manageable amount which will enable other sectors of the economy to develop.

Resource trade and manufacturing will also need to be grown in order to break from the colonial system. Recent research on colonialism opines that states need to use their resources to their own advantage and not perpetuate extravagance, despotism, opportunism, personal advancement and enrichment at the expense of the masses. The idea of enjoying the same economic and social life-

styles and privileges which the former colonial/imperial administrators enjoyed should be discontinued.

Government institutions as evidenced from the review of related literature will also need reorganization and empowerment. Lack of power is a universal and basic characteristic of poverty. Poverty is not solely a lack of income, but rather it is also characterized by a vicious cycle of powerlessness, stigmatization, discrimination, exclusion and material deprivation, which all mutually reinforce each other. Developing an inter-linkages approach can improve opportunities for more effective national cooperation, inclusive policies, poverty alleviation, improved national synergies, and stronger and more sustainable partnerships with even the private sector. The main driver of empowerment is economic: Governments' main role should be to deliver inclusive, pro-poor growth. In this approach, both the quantity and quality of a country's growth are decisive in empowering poor people, both directly, in terms of liberating them from hunger and want, and indirectly, by providing them with the means to acquire education, voice and agency.

Colonial legacies must be outgrown in favour of national interest. The Gambian government must work for the interest of the state and its citizens, not for the simple hold on to power and wealth which has permeated the country since independence began. It has to be noted that good governance which ensures decent living and employment is the best form of social security and is more effective in addressing poverty. It is also recognised that all workers whether in the formal or informal sector need to be protected as the security of their jobs and future needs to be safeguarded and guaranteed.

The development efforts of The Gambian government are hampered by inadequate transport, communication, water and power infrastructure and good roads across the nooks and crannies of the country. As a matter of fact, for the country to develop meaningfully and achieve the Millennium Goals (MGs), it needs adequate infrastructure. Inadequate infrastructure remains a major obstacle towards the country achieving its full economic growth potential. The idea of depriving rural dwellers of the country of basic infrastructure should be discontinued.

Human capital development is an absolute necessity for The Gambia's economic development. The increase in infrastructure investment will require more engineers, technicians and artisans to

implement new infrastructure projects and maintain the existing infrastructure. The availability of skills is one of the elements that investors wanting to invest in a country consider with the level of skills determining the country's productivity and competitiveness. There are a number of concerns regarding human capital development in the country and these require unique programmes focused on addressing them. These concerns must be addressed as a minimum: Poor quality of basic education including Mathematics and Science; Youth unemployed and unemployable; re-structure of the education system; Youth with qualifications but without experience.

Similarly, in order to improve on Science and Technology (S&T) literacy, the foundation has to be laid and this must begin from the schools. Pupils and students must be provided with early and regular contact with technology. Exposing these groups to technological concepts and hands-on design-related activities is the most likely way to help them acquire the desired knowledge, skills, ways of thinking and acting and capabilities consistent with S&T literacy.

The Gambia's economy needs robust diversification in many areas of production such as cotton, palm oil, fishing, sesame, cashew, cassava, biomass, rice, timber, hide and skin, yam, maize, poultry, livestock etc Economic diversification holds great potential to increasing Gambia's resilience and would contribute to achieving and sustaining long term economic growth and development in the country. Broadly-based economies, active in a wide range of sectors, and firmly integrated into the sub- region, are better able to generate healthy and sustainable growth. However, the expansion of activities in underdeveloped sectors, or indeed the development of new activities, is a significant challenge and requires a combined effort of Gambian government and the private sector and with the assistance of African countries' stronger economies. In addition, and in light of the small size of the country's economy, a regional approach to economic diversification is imperative to reap the benefits of larger domestic markets and economies of scale.

Transparency and accountability should be the watch dog of the Gambian Government in their development efforts. Gambia's natural and human resources have for many decades been a source of power and wealth for the country's ruling elites, and less often for Gambians

themselves. The government should be transparent and accountable to the people who elected them. Transparency and accountability are critical for the efficient functioning of a modern economy and for fostering social well-being of the people. Transparency ensures that information is available that can be used to measure the authorities' performance and to guard against any possible misuse of powers. In that sense, transparency serves to achieve accountability, which means that authorities can be held responsible for their actions and inactions. Without transparency and accountability, trust will be lacking between the government and those whom it governs. The result would be social instability and an environment that is less than conducive for economic growth.

A lack of transparency, integrity and accountability is related to economic under-performance and fetters progress toward poverty eradication in many developing nations, including The Gambia. As one of the world's most under-developed countries, the barriers to development and poverty eradication that corruption imposes are costs that The Gambia and other sub-Saharan African countries can ill afford.

Cutting down wasteful spending and eradicating corruption in The Gambia will go a long way in improving the economy of the country. As small as the Gambia is, its government's structures and Ministries are too many and this means the government would be spending a lot of money on these structures and ministries/departments. Money that would have been channelled into other important sectors of the economy is used to maintain these structures. As much as possible budget deficits that characterize Gambian government budgeting system since independence should be done away with. The Gambia government spends a lot of money on the citizens' behalf, on its staff, offices, vehicles, fuels and the like, and NONE of this goes to build more power plants, roads, housing schemes, hospitals and welfare projects. Each ministry has at least one minister, with a Permanent Secretary, and on average 3 directors. The Ministers and Permanent Secretaries have personal assistants, special assistants and special advisers. Each of these expects to drive an official car to work, complete with police orderlies and other file carriers. Then they will need houses, furniture and running costs of the vehicles and utilities. The costs of all these somehow find their way into the overhead budgets of the ministries at the expense of tax payers' money.



Corruption is rampant in The Gambia and currently predictable as one of the greatest hindrances to economic growth and development in the country. With respect to government, manifesting strong political will by enforcing anti corruption laws, prosecuting corruption, and denying safe haven to corrupt officials (especially Cabinet Ministers), those who corrupt them, and their illicitly-acquired assets, will be indispensable in The Gambia. For the country to grow economically and embark upon meaningful projects, corruption in both high and low places in the country should be totally eradicated and done away with.

In The Gambia as well as in other parts of Africa, leadership has posed a serious challenge to economic growth and development. What Gambia needs now is a resourceful, charismatic and visionary leader who will turn around the economy. The Gambian government in the First Republic was characterized with inefficiency; conservatism and ineptitude that it took a number of wrong decisions that have continued to hurt the country. For instance, what was the rationale for not establishing a University in the country at independence? The importance of a University education cannot be over-emphasized. Almost three decades after independence, it appears the government has produced more negative than positive benefits to the country. Even though it is more propitious to hold accountable the country's litany of problems on colonial legacy, the heartbreaking veracity lingers that the country, particularly their post-independence leader, is the focal source of their misery.

The central government of The Gambia should as a matter of necessity set up Natural Resources Search Committee (N.R.S.C.) to explore the nooks and crannies of the country to search for untapped natural resources in the land. This committee should be made up of Gambian engineers, scientists, geologists, environmental specialists etc. The massive expanse of lands in the country still harbours some unidentified, untapped natural resources. Probably, who knows, one day, The Gambia may have solid and or liquid minerals to explore. There is need to maximize the available lands in the country to attain better economic growth and development.

The Gambia is a relatively poor country with little or no natural resources for now to boost with and also no money to spend on capital projects and in other essential areas which can benefit the poor masses. In this respect, the government can generate income through increasing export commodities as to raise the much needed foreign exchange. In like manner, the idea of importing everything consumed in the country should be discontinued and in place of it, industries should

be built to manufacture those basic goods and services consumed locally. This will conserve the hard earned foreign exchange in the country. Again, if capital is obtained, it should be properly utilized. Equally, there is the need for proper economic planning at government level. Such planning should take cognizance of the nation's priorities, avoiding white elephant projects for mere prestige and patronage. Only projects that aim at raising the living standard of the population and consolidating the country's development efforts should be targeted.

Empowering Gambians to alleviate poverty can go a long way in resuscitating the economy. Empowerment has multiple meanings relating to power, participation, capability, autonomy, choice and freedom. For the purposes of this dissertation, empowerment happens when people, individually or collectively, conceive of, define and pursue better lives for themselves (Csaszar, 2005; Stern et al.; Rowland, 1997). From a pro-poor growth perspective, poor women and men need to change existing power relations and gain and exert influence over the political, economic and social processes that determine and, all too often, constrain their livelihood opportunities.

Empowerment and pro-poor growth form a virtuous cycle. Mutually reinforcing economic, social and political aspects of empowerment allows people to move out of poverty through participating in, contributing to and benefitting from growth processes on terms which recognise the value of their contributions, respect their dignity and make it possible for them to negotiate a fairer distribution of the benefits of growth.

The development of The Gambia majorly lies in its industrialization. At the moment the country has no industries that can produce basic commodities. Virtually, all products, as insignificant as candles, tooth picks, eggs, matches, soap, rice, butter, etc are all imported. This is made worse by the fact that the country has no industrial policy. A major structural weakness of the industrial sector has been the neglect of intermediate and capital goods industries and of industries for large consumption. While the first category is essential to increased agricultural production and productivity, the second is necessary for satisfying the potential demand resulting from the increase of rural income. Indeed, Agro Industry for Food Security is appropriate for the economy of The Gambia. In order to enhance food security, it is essential that investments in agriculture go beyond improvements of on-farm productivity. Greater efforts and investments need to be

devoted to development of post-production segments of agriculture value chains. Accelerated development of agro-industries will be an indispensable part of such a strategy.

The private sector can also play a role in boosting the economy of the country by driving innovations and economic activity in under-exploited sectors. It can, for instance, invest in Research and Development (R&D) for new activities. Moreover, private companies often stand at the frontier of new sectors and bring innovations to the economy. But many enterprises in The Gambia are informal, small-scale, and lack access to capital, thereby making it difficult for them to fully exploit business opportunities. In this case, the Government should find ways of boosting entrepreneurship, by creating favourable industrial and trade policies and eliminating bureaucratic obstacles to starting businesses in the country. Governments should be sensitive to the needs of the private sector, such as improving the business climate through “outreach” for constructive partnerships with the private sector. Conversely, the private sector should reciprocate by engaging with government initiatives and take the lead in driving the agenda for diversifying the economy. There is no shortage of business opportunities in The Gambia but there are bureaucratic and policy barriers. The private sector is best placed to exploit them if the barriers are eliminated.

Intensive Research and Development (R&D) are apparently lacking in The Gambia and there could be no meaningful economic development without emphasis on R&D. Therefore, it is necessary to develop a three-pronged policy for Science and Technology (S&T) development with clearly distinguished support mechanisms for basic science, applied science, extension services and education. Basic science has the fundamental role to play in enhancing the quality of higher education for scientists, engineers and the society at large. The universities must be empowered to develop explicit links between their graduate and undergraduate programmes, support intellectual and financial investments for the development of materials for science teaching as well as research work. Fellowship and Scholarship programmes abroad should be revitalized and strengthened. Fellowships should be awarded with a clear perspective of returning to productive work in The Gambia and not to stay overseas after graduation, as it does not help the country in manpower development.

On the other hand, applied research should be strongly supported and evaluated in terms of its short-term scientific and medium or long-term practical results. Lack of appropriate evaluation procedures and strategies makes applied R&D runs the risk of being expensive and of doubtful technical and commercial viability.

This study recommends that the Gambian government establishes an **Institute of Colonial Studies**. This would be a “programme of policy studies on Colonialism within the institutional operating framework of the Ministry of Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology (MOHERST) with the primary objectives of developing a policy research capability within the Ministry. The *study on colonialism* represents one of the most *important* ways of understanding the roots of the contemporary national and global political and economic processes and challenges. Some of the most pressing issues that affect the world today, including political conflicts and economic crises in Africa, the rise of North – South dichotomy are the historical legacies of colonialism. It is argued in some quarters that the persistence of vast global economic disparities between and within nations can be traced back to both the effects of past forms of colonialism and the emergence of new forms of economic colonialism in the current World Order in which we live. For instance, neo-colonialism, liberalism and World trade politics.

As much as it lies with the powers of The Gambian government, it should as a matter of necessity develop a harmonious and good working relationship with its neighbouring sister country, Senegal. This is because the two countries are one and have many things in common (within the former pre- colonial Senegambia Region): traditions, customs, languages, religion and ethnic groups but as an accident of colonial history and anomaly, they were colonised by two different European countries – the British and the French; which had different policies and approaches to colonialism and its administrative structures.

The collapse of the political and economic union between Senegal and Gambia, otherwise called the Senegambia Confederation of 1982 is highly regrettable! What is being suggested here is that there should be a re-enactment of that Union to foster formal cooperation between the two countries. It is hoped that the new Confederation, if formed, will accelerate the political and social-economic growth and development of the two countries and create a harmonious and

symbiotic relationship which will be mutually benefitting to both countries. The ‘cat and dog’ relationship between The Gambia and Senegal does not create room for synergy in development. In our contemporary period of economic crisis and food insecurity, working in synergy will greatly assist the two countries as they will symbiotically benefit from each other.

The Gambian government should not be an island in its development efforts and programmes. Working in collegiality with other stronger economies like Nigeria, Ivory Coast, Ghana etc within the sub-region will accelerate her economic growth and development and consequently, improve the lives of its citizenry. Knowledge sharing should be more actively promoted in all the priority sectors of the economy to promote best practices and scaling up of successful demonstration projects. Capacity development and policy advisory technical assistance can be complemented by an Analytical Advisory Committee that would be charged with the responsibility of finding out areas of collaboration with other countries of the world in order to augment government’s efforts in the country.

The idea of no term limit for the President of the Republic of The Gambia as enshrined in the country’s constitution smacks of odious aberration to the principles of democracy. Most often the President wins elections on his own terms of democracy. Since democracy has become the political fashion of our modern time, the term limit of any would- be President of The Gambia should not be more than two terms if the country would have political redemption. If any President stays in power for too long he will begin to face diminishing returns as he loses touch and focus with realities of economic growth and development. This research recommends that timely and responsible departure from power is a central feature of a democratic polity and constitutes an integral component of responsible leadership. In fledgling democracies, the main importance of term limits stems from its positive impact on power alternation which, in turn, contributes to democratic consolidation. Prolonged time in office allows for greater centralisation and personalization of power and deeper entrenchment of informal patronage networks. Prolonged tenure also creates an accountability deficit that allows for an increase in corruption. It has also been suggested that power alternation is important for the consolidation of democracy.

Finally, the Gambian government should have a ‘New Growth Path and a National Development Plan’ to support its long-term goal of building a harmonious and prosperous society through

livelihood improvement and regionally balanced and environmentally sustainable growth. Reforms should be carried out to stem rising income inequality, address structural imbalances and further open up the economy for further development. Public expenditure should be geared towards livelihood improvement, and strong support should be provided to education, healthcare, social security and public housing. Infrastructure should remain a high priority with an emphasis on promoting rural development and emerging strategic industries, in particular modern clean energy and environment-friendly technologies, while piloting development of green and low-carbon cities. Resource conservation to combat climate change and improve natural resource management should also be a priority.

## **5.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

This work has been carried out to investigate the ‘Impact of British Colonial Economic Activities on The Gambia’ and in the course of writing this treatise, there were limited time scale and limited financial resources at the researcher’s disposal to embark upon this robust study. Due to poor transport facilities and inaccessibility of some of the rural areas of the country, it became apparent that those areas could not be covered. In the near future, potential areas of research could be in ‘assessing the natural resources endowment of the country and finding out whether they are properly or poorly utilised. Also some of the respondents/interviewees were not responsive and as such, either outrightly refused to fill the questionnaire or refused to return it for fear of victimization from the ruling class. Equally, some highly placed politicians and social critics alike could not feel comfortable granting interview to the investigator.

However, the researcher was able to overcome all these limitations and went ahead to complete the work successfully. I am suggesting that in the near future Gambians (respondents) should try to be research friendly; as the outcomes of research works can be useful in policy enactment and implementation. This research has been indeed a highly rewarding one, as my vista has widely opened.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A - St. Clements Letter of Introduction



Reg. No. E 14905

Web Site: [www.stclements.edu](http://www.stclements.edu) Email: - [admin@stclements.edu](mailto:admin@stclements.edu)  
Registered Office: 2<sup>nd</sup> Floor, Yellowman & Sons Building, Off Old Airport Road, Grand Turk  
Turks & Caicos Islands - British West Indies

To Whom it May Concern



IPFM



IMS



AMS



LMANF



PBTM



Cajetan Nnaocha is a Doctor of Philosophy candidate writing a dissertation provisionally titled "*Impact Assessment of British Colonial Economic Activities in The Gambia (1816-1994)*".

Any assistance you can give him to research this title would be greatly appreciated.

For more information on his project, please do not hesitate to email [admin@stclements.edu](mailto:admin@stclements.edu)

Yours faithfully

Dr. David Le Cornu  
President

Dated: 25<sup>th</sup> February 2015

## APPENDIX B – COVER LETTER

### A Cover Letter for the Survey

**PhD Colonial Economic Studies (St. Clements University, British West Indies)**  
Survey Questionnaire on Impact Assessment of British Economic Activities in The  
Gambia (1816 – 1994)

Dear Sir/ Madam

I am a PhD student at St. Clements University, British West Indies, under the supervision of Professor Yasmin Yusof. I am currently undertaking a research on African History that considers **Impact Assessment of British Economic Activities in The Gambia (1816-1994)**.

This questionnaire is required to generate primary data for analysis on the subject of study. It is important to know your views regarding the impact of British Economic Activities in The Gambia. Results from this research will yield valuable information for sustainable development in The Gambia.

I am therefore writing to request for your co-operation as I would be grateful if you could complete the questionnaire and return it to me.

I assure you that the data and information provided will remain strictly confidential and will be used only for the purpose of this research. Please turn overleaf for the main survey questionnaire questions.

Thank you for your time and co-operation.

Yours faithfully,

**Cajetan Nnaocha**  
(Research Student)  
Email: [cnaocha@utg.edu.gm/cajestel@hotmail.com](mailto:cnaocha@utg.edu.gm/cajestel@hotmail.com)  
St. Clements University  
220/7978771

## APPENDIX C – Questionnaire

### GIAS SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

**Part A: Biographic data of Respondent** (Your response is strictly for this research and will be treated anonymously)

**Please, fill in as appropriate**

Administrative Region: (circle the one applicable to you) 1    2    3    4    5

Institutional Affiliation (Department/Ministry): .....

Occupation: .....

Position Held: .....

#### **Part B**

**Please respond to these questions as you deem appropriate. (Please tick [✓] as applicable.**

Scale	5	=	Strongly Agree
	4	=	Agree
	3	=	Strongly Disagree
	2	=	Disagree
	1	=	Undecided

1. British Colonialism has led to the exploitation of Gambia's economic resources.

- (a) Strongly Agree                      (   )
- (b) Agree                                      (   )
- (c) Strongly Disagree                      (   )
- (d) Disagree                                      (   )
- (e) Undecided                                      (   )

2. Colonialism introduced modern currency system in The Gambia's economy.

- (a) Strongly Agree                      (   )
- (b) Agree                                      (   )
- (c) Strongly Disagree                      (   )
- (d) Disagree                                      (   )
- (e) Undecided                                      (   )

3. Gambia's labour force was exploited during the colonial period?

- (a) Strongly Agree                      (   )
- (b) Agree                                      (   )
- (c) Strongly Disagree                      (   )
- (d) Disagree                                      (   )
- (e) Undecided                                      (   )

4. The British Colonialists established poor infrastructure in The Gambia
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
5. The banking system we have today in The Gambia owes its origin to the Colonial period?
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
6. The establishment of Marketing Boards was one of the instruments through which Gambian resources and peasants were exploited?
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
7. Colonial heritage has continued to have adverse effects on the economic development of The Gambia.
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
8. Lack of skilled manpower and brain drain remains the main challenges of economic development in The Gambia.
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
9. The hostile global economic system is a serious challenge to the economic development of The Gambia.
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )

10. Poor leadership in the Gambia's First Republic adversely affected the economic development of the country.
- a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
11. Corruption in The Gambia First Republic was a critical factor in the development of The Gambia.
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
12. None industrialization and technological development of The Gambia was one way colonialism affected The Gambia and has continued to present day.
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
13. The dependency on European made goods (foreign goods) in The Gambia is attributable to Colonialism.
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
14. The misuse of both natural and financial resources was one way colonialism affected The Gambia.
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )
  - (e) Undecided ( )
15. The socio-economic restructuring of the pre-colonial Gambian society by the British affected post –colonial economic development of the country.
- (a) Strongly Agree ( )
  - (b) Agree ( )
  - (c) Strongly Disagree ( )
  - (d) Disagree ( )

(e) Undecided ( )

16. The introduction of non-productive educational system in the country during the colonial period laid the foundation for Gambia's economic underdevelopment.

(a) Strongly Agree ( )

(b) Agree ( )

(c) Strongly Disagree ( )

(d) Disagree ( )

(e) Undecided ( )

### **Part C**

**(Please tick [✓] only Yes or No in this section)**

17. Diversifications of The Gambia's economy would go a long way in improving the country's economy. [ ] Yes [ ] No

18. Improving educational standards and training of more skilled manpower will help advance the economy of The Gambia. [ ] Yes [ ] No

19. An important step that can be taken to rebuild the economy of The Gambia is through the industrialization of the economy. [ ] Yes [ ] No

20. Eradicating corruption in The Gambian economic system would help improve the economy in the long run. [ ] Yes [ ] No

21. Generating more capital from natural resources in The Gambia is one of the most important steps to take to improve the economy of the country.  
[ ] Yes [ ] No

**Thank you for filling this Questionnaire**

## **APPENDIX D - Interview Cover Letter**

### **PhD Colonial Economic History (St. Clements University, British West Indies)**

Semi- Structured interview on Impact Assessment of British Colonial Economic Activities in The Gambia (1816 – 1994)

To: Prof./Dr/Rev./Mr./Mrs.....

Date .....

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a PhD student at St. Clements University, British West Indies, under the supervision of Professor Yasmin Yusof. I am currently undertaking a research on Economic History that considers **Impact Assessment of British Colonial Economic Activities in The Gambia (1816-1994)**.

I would be very grateful if you could participate in an interview session regarding this research. These questions are required to generate primary data for analysis on the subject of study and it is important to know your views/thoughts regarding the impact of British Colonial Economic Activities in The Gambia (1816 – 1994). Results from this research will be of great assistance to policy makers and stakeholders toward the economic development of The Gambia.

The date, time and venue of the interview could be arranged at your convenience.

Thank you for your time and cooperation

Yours sincerely

**Cajetan Nnaocha**

PhD Research Student, Matriculation No. 10659

St. Clements University, British West Indies.

Tel: (+220) 7978771

Email : cajestel@hotmail.com

## **APPENDIX E Interview Questions**

**Please feel free to answer these questions as they are mainly for research purposes)**

1. What impact did the British colonial economic activities have on The Gambia?
2. What in your own views are the challenges of economic development in the country?
3. Would you attribute the post -colonial economic under performance of The Gambia's Economy to the British exploitation of its resources?
4. What considerable remedies would be practically appropriate for putting the economy of The Gambia on a very good condition in the short or long run, as the case may be?
5. Would you agree to the view that the British exhausted the financial resources of The Gambia before handing over to the succeeding indigenous government?



#### **APPENDIX F      List of Interviewees, Place of interview and Dates Interviewed**

1. Lamin Yabo- National Council for Arts and Culture (NCAC), Banjul 11/05/2015
2. Professor Samba Diop – Mahatma Ghandi University, Kairaba Ave. 12/05/2015
3. Felix Omotosho- University of The Gambia, Brikama Campus, 15/06/2015
4. Mr. Sulayman Cham- Sukuta Village, Kombo North, West Coast Region, 26/05/2015
5. Ousman Bojang - Sukuta Village, Kombo North, West Coast Region, 26/05/2015
6. Hassoum Ceesay- National Council for Arts and Culture (NCAC), Banjul, 11/05/2015
7. Eugene Duru E. Sibec International School, The Gambia 14/04/2015
8. Godson Egbujor - West African International School, Kanifing, The Gambia 12/05/2015
9. Kausu Drammeh – University of The Gambia, Brikama Campus, Brikama, 25/04/2015
10. Momodou Ceesay – Ministry of Foreign and Economic Affairs, Banjul 09/05/2015
11. Lamin Fatty – Region 4 Education Directorate, Mansankoko Central River Region, The Gambia 05/05/2015
12. Lamin Cham – Gambia Groundnut Corporation (GGC), Banjul 03/04/2015

