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**AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF PLANNING FOR A UNIVERSITY AS A
NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVE: A CASE STUDY OF THE GAMBIA**

By

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International Development Studies

Saint Mary's University

Halifax - Canada

1999



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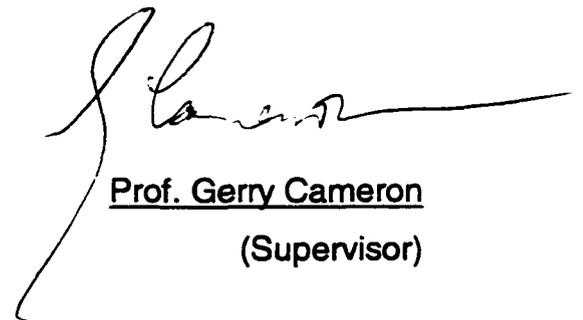
**AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF PLANNING FOR A UNIVERSITY AS A
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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts in International Development Studies at Saint Mary's University,
Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada

March 18, 1999

This thesis is approved by:



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ABSTRACT

AN ANALYSIS OF THE PROCESS OF PLANNING FOR A UNIVERSITY AS A NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT OBJECTIVE: A CASE STUDY OF THE GAMBIA

In exploring the relationship between physical planning and national development objectives, the thesis of this study is formulated upon the premise that planning decisions must be factored into the development process in a participatory and sustainable manner. Looking at the proposed University of The Gambia as a case study, and the approach currently being taken therein, the creation of a university is put forward as a vehicle in the development process while the process of its planning is seen as a developmental tool. Through the derivation of a planning model and the exploration of tools to assist in the planning process, it is argued that there is a fundamental need to re-conceptualize our ideas of planning, and consequently, our notions of who plans.

Jennifer Guralnick

March 18, 1999

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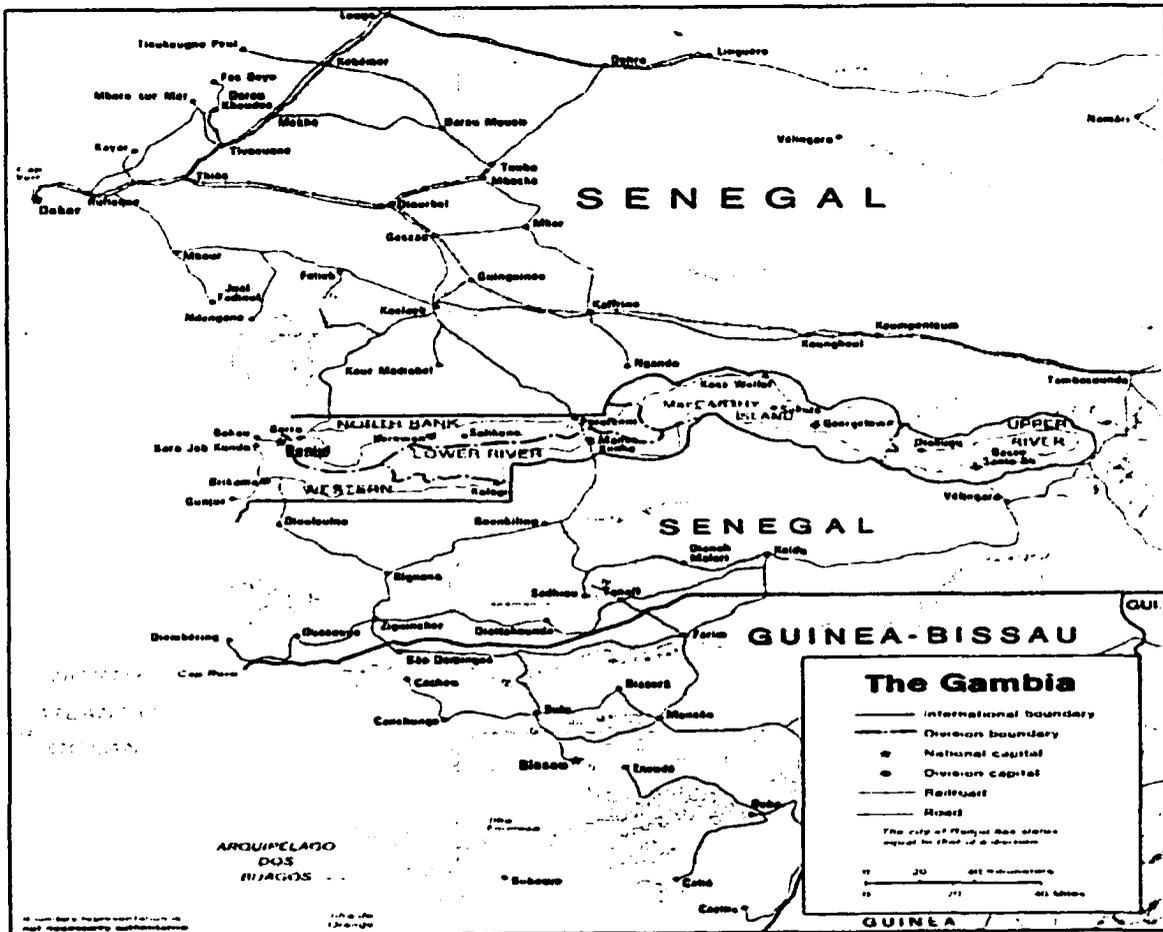
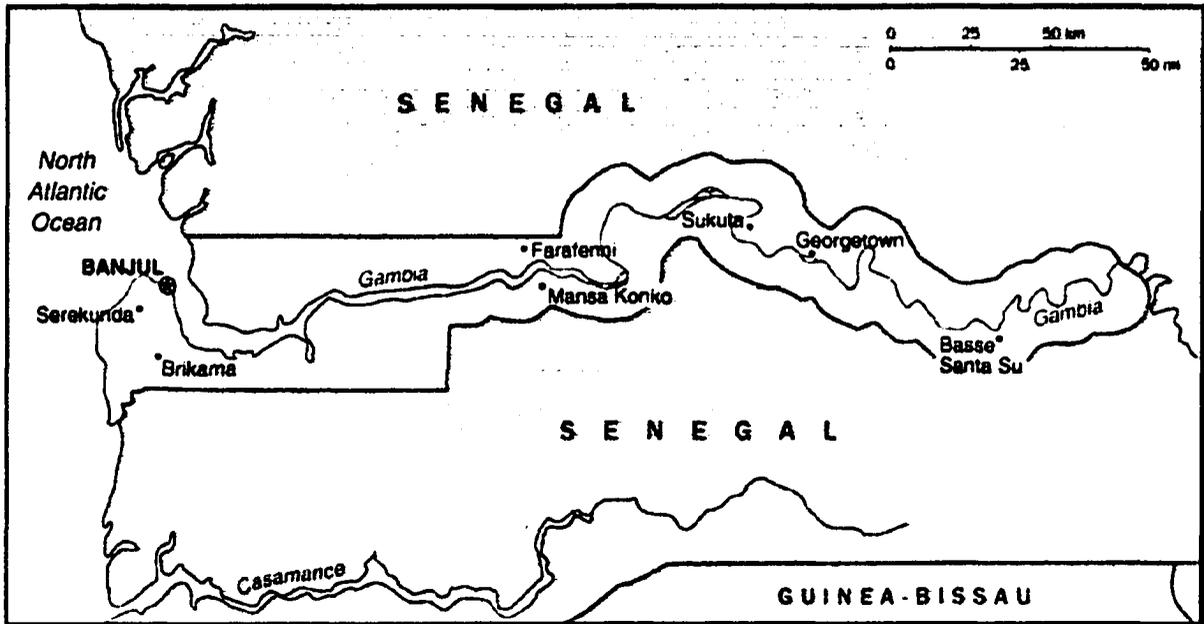
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION



1.1. QUESTION

How can the process of planning contribute to the creation and development of a university in such a way as to ensure that the university lends support to the nation's overall development objectives?

1.2. BACKGROUND

In May of 1996, Captain Yahya A.J.J. Jammeh, Head of State of The Republic of The Gambia, put forward a mission statement of development under the heading of Vision 2020, a vision of the country for the year 2020. His statement was as follows:

To transform The Gambia into a financial centre, tourist paradise, a trading, export oriented agricultural and manufacturing nation, thriving on free market policies and a vibrant private sector, sustained by a well educated, trained, skilled, healthy, self-reliant and enterprising population and guaranteeing a well-balanced ecosystem and a decent standard of living for one and all, under a system of government based on the consent of the citizenry.¹

Although seemingly contradictory, one thing emerges clearly from the above statement: that The Gambia is to be propelled into the coming millennium with a population that is well educated, highly skilled and intellectually motivated to support the nation's development process. The question thus becomes: how is this goal to be realised for The Gambia.

According to the Human Development Report published by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in 1998, The Gambia is ranked 165th out of 174 countries worldwide in terms of the Human Development Index (HDI)

¹ Jammeh, Yahya A.J.J. (May 1996). The Gambia Inc....Vision 2020, National Mission Statement. See Appendix A.

for 1995. This means that The Gambia is only rated above nine other countries in terms of overall human development. While the HDI value for The Gambia has increased from 0.215 in 1992 to 0.291 in 1995, the country is still severely lagging in terms of its citizenry's quality of life.

With 64.0 percent of the population classified as living below the national poverty line, the adult literacy rate for 1995 was 38.6 percent (or 61.4% illiteracy rate). Gross enrolment in primary education was 73% and 22% for secondary. Education accounted for 5.5 percent of Gambian GNP, 16.0 percent of total government expenditure, of which 70% was devoted to primary and secondary levels of education and only 11% for tertiary.

In 1973, Van den Berghe *et al.* noted that "(o)ne of the vicious circles which poor countries face is that without enough trained personnel they cannot develop, but without development their capacity to absorb university graduates becomes quickly saturated."² Implied in this statement is that universities produce not only the necessary human resources for guiding a nation along its development path, but also serve to absorb the fruits of their labour through the provision of placements and trained personnel along with their knowledge of how to promote their nation's own development goals and in turn alleviate the need to leave the country in order to seek a livelihood. In this way, the university serves as both the means and as an end to a developmental problem.

In the context of a history of colonialism and post-colonialism, the justification for African university education is said to have grown out of the philosophical justification of British and French conceptions of intellectual

liberalism. "The main, if not the sole, justification... was that society required a broad infusion of well-educated minds."³ For African and other developing countries where the costs of establishing a university are ill afforded due to scarcity of capital resources, the rationale for recommending the creation of a university stems from the demonstrated ability of a university to assist or direct the effort towards national development. Therefore, the creation of the university should be based upon a clear delineation of the benefits to be derived from its conception.⁴

The Association of African Universities (AAU) was formally inaugurated in Rabat, Morocco in 1967, "in the hope of evolving institutions that are not only built, owned and sited in Africa, but are of Africa, drawing their inspiration from Africa, and intelligibly dedicated to her ideals and aspirations."⁵ In 1972, The AAU met at a workshop in Accra, Ghana to discuss issues facing universities in Africa in the 1970s. From this workshop came the notion that while certain universities in Africa date as far back as the early 1900s, "the development of universities in Africa has essentially been contemporaneous with the continental evolution towards emancipation from colonial rule".⁶

What emerged from the Accra conference was the view that the traditional or colonial conception of the university as a citadel of learning could not be adhered to by universities in Africa in the 1970s. Rather, it was put forward at the conference that universities in Africa must not forsake the needs and

² Van den Berghe, Pierre L. et al. (1973). *Power and privilege at an African university*. P.64-65.

³ K.B. Dickson. (1973). In Pierre L. Van den Berghe (ed.) *Power and privilege at an African university*. P.104.

⁴ Dickson, K.B. (1973).

⁵ Yesufu, T.M. (1973). *Creating the African university: emerging issues in the 1970s*. P.5.

priorities of their respective countries for the sake of academic freedom. As such, what was sought was a new working definition of the university, one that would

"signify its commitment, not just to knowledge for its own sake, but to the pursuit of knowledge for the sake of, and for the amelioration of the conditions of, the common man and woman in Africa... The truly African university must be one that draws its inspiration from its environment, not (as) a transplanted tree, but growing from a seed that is planted and nurtured in the African soil."⁷

1.3. POSING THE PROBLEM

For a country small in geographic size and relatively lacking in natural resources, development options are restricted by the lack of resource availability for production and export. Looking at The Gambia as a case study, the government's own articulated goals defined in the vision statement coupled with the lack of viable development alternatives⁶ have led the nation to look towards the creation of a university to meet its development priorities.

The problem analyzed is the planning which goes into such an initiative. If the university is planned carefully and in a sustainable manner it then can assist the nation in meeting its development objectives. Through the provision of teaching positions and spin-off employment, the university can simultaneously serve as both a means and an end in itself to the development process.

Essentially, a university is more than just an institute of higher learning; it is also a locus of human activity. The physical setting for people will affect the perceptions and thereby the actions of its users as much as the people will in

⁶ Ibid. P.37.

⁷ Ibid. P.40.

turn affect the physical space. In this sense, a university is a nodal point for large numbers of people with a multitude of needs. It is a means of employment, a centre of activity and trade, a place of convergence for the local communities, a place where cultural and social activities are played out, and an overall focal point in the human geography of a region's growth. Thus the university contributes significantly to the face of human settlements. Precisely how and where these loci of human activity are situated will affect not only how these institutions are perceived and experienced, but also the broader environment within which they are situated. In a country such as The Gambia where natural resources are severely limited and overcrowding is already a major obstacle facing the nation's urban future, a university emerges not only as a means for training its population, but as a major development initiative which could serve multiple functions for the general public.

In response to the perceived need for a well educated and highly skilled population, the Gambian government in 1995 joined efforts with Saint Mary's University in the creation of the University Extension Programme (UEP) to oversee the Gambian educational goals. A 1997 report by Saint Mary's University Office of International Activities established "a fundamental need for university education in The Gambia which is of a recognised international standing". The report further established that "(t)he contextual analysis of the economy and demography of The Gambia together with the evaluation of existing tertiary education at Gambia College, GTTI and MDI (the three existing

⁸ as associated with such a small land mass having little comparative advantage in terms of productive resources available for export

higher level education facilities) has confirmed that a firm foundation exists from which the proposed university of The Gambia can be developed."⁹ Within this report, it is proposed that the university be developed from the existing tertiary level facilities to allow for maximum benefit from existing infrastructural provision with respect to the capital and recurrent costs of the university. Among the principal recommendations outlined in the report, it is stated:¹⁰

- "The University should be developed from a combination of existing provision and the assistance provided by the franchising institutions"; (point 2)
- "The main campus should be constructed on land adjoining MDI, but out laying campuses will be retained at Brikama (Agriculture), Banjul (Health Sciences) and Kanifing (Engineering)"; (point 4)
- "Courses not designated to the university will be retained at Gambia College, GTTI and MDI and will form a separate further education sector which will retain close links with the University"; (point 5)
- "Research in a development oriented University such as the proposed University of the Gambia can play an important role in the social and economic advancement of the country." (point 6)

It is the intention of all those concerned that through this project the foundations will be laid for the creation of an emergent sustainable institution, the University of The Gambia. Of particular interest within this project is the incremental approach that is being adopted by the government. The incremental

⁹ International Activities, Saint Mary's University. (1997). *Report: The national commission for the establishment of the University of The Gambia*. Executive summary. P.2. See Appendix B.

nature of hiring outside staff on a short-term basis as well as the use of existing tertiary facilities for the university's establishment allows for reduced costs without lowering academic standards. It is the objective of this project to facilitate the emergence of a university which will in time employ Gambian professors and staff and will remain true to the Gambian character.

It is vital that the tertiary-level education system in The Gambia be developed strategically and rationalised to ensure quality and non-duplication of services, and to take account of the experience of other countries. The Gambian model will incorporate principles of sustainability, operation at affordable cost, and credibility.¹¹

1.4. THESIS STATEMENT

In this context, the creation of a university is seen as a vehicle in the development process while the process of its planning is seen as a developmental tool. In exploring the relationship between physical planning and the development process, the thesis of this study is formulated upon the premise that planning decisions must be factored into the development process. However well-intended and seemingly viable a university may be to the future of The Gambia, if it is not established in a sustainable and participatory manner from the very onset, it will then create unnecessary obstacles in the development process. It is further argued that the location and siting of the university as a centre of human activity within a developing nation are just as important to the outcomes of the establishment of the university as a vehicle of national development as the decision in itself to adopt such a project.

¹⁰ Ibid., pp.4-5.

¹¹ International Activities, Saint Mary's University. (199?). *Capacity building for higher education in The Gambia. Attachment A: project plan.* UPCD Project #098/S47074-137.

The university can serve to enhance the quality of life for Gambian citizens by providing a place of convergence, a centre for religious, cultural and social events, as well as a source of livelihood and economic growth. Inversely, however, if ill-situated, a university may also be to the detriment of the community if the land on which it is situated is in discord with the needs of the community.¹² If potentially arable or fallow land is taken up, or if the physical layout is imposing and threatening¹³, then the university will be a source of antagonism and create a rift with the community which in turn will constitute a major obstacle to the development process. In keeping with cultural ideals, the land and the structures therein must adhere to the sense of communalism which is a specific feature of the Gambian culture which should be preserved. The people must be made to feel that the university is a positive development for the community as a whole and one which they may embrace as their own. Only then can the university truly function for the good of Gambian society and a vehicle for the nation's development.

It is hypothesized that for a truly sustainable project, the creation of a university that services the people of The Gambia, what is needed is a process of planning that is truly participatory and incorporates the views of all local communities. What is required in this context is the use of innovative and cost-effective techniques to facilitate the planning process in a participatory manner so that the university may flourish in an environment that is not only supported by

¹² Adams, 1995-96; Freeman, 1992; Hight and Lincourt, 1996; Kark, 1986; Turner, 1987-88.

¹³ As an illustration of this, Christopher Adams in his 1995-96 article points to such site considerations as slopes, prevailing winds, vegetation types, and drainage courses for the potential of flooding. P.31.

the citizenry but may also contribute to the improvement of social life in The Gambia.

1.5. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

To facilitate this analysis, and as a means of grounding the derived planning model; the establishment of a university in The Gambia is explored. The purpose of this is to provide some actual data to assist in the location decisions and to allow for a hands-on analysis of the site selection process. Within the available literature, there is a lack of sources dealing with issues of siting. Given the particular nature of precise needs of tertiary institutions and the unique character of settings for which such development projects are conceived, no blueprint exists for planning such institutions. So, while the exercise will focus on the creation of a university within The Gambia, a generic model is formulated to the purpose of providing guiding principles for other developing nations looking to plan such tertiary institutions.

As a means of deriving a model for use in determining the optimal location criteria and process of site selection for a tertiary institutional setting, the University of The Gambia provides the opportunity to observe the impacts of planning decisions on a nation's development in two ways. Firstly, in the absence of a university within the country's borders, it allows for the assessment of this type of development scheme. While three higher level educational institutions do currently exist within The Gambia, there has been no university prior to the UEP. Secondly, given that a project is currently underway to establish such a university, an opportunity is presented for assessing the impact

of the location decisions within the planning process. In this context, this thesis is intended to serve as an analysis of the relation between the processes of physical planning and development, as well as providing for a more generic model and tools to facilitate the planning decisions being faced in The Gambia and elsewhere.

1.6. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Prior to the UEP, there existed three institutions that formed the tertiary educational system within the country. These three facilities are The Gambian College, Gambia Technical Training Institute (GTTI), and The Management Development Institute (MDI). All of these institutions offer programs geared towards specific training and vocational courses. GTTI, a vocational training centre, offers courses in mechanics, electricity, building, carpentry, and commercial/secretarial practices. MDI focuses its programmes on the training of middle and senior-level managers, consistent with the goals set out by the World Bank and the UNDP. Finally, the Gambian College, the nation's only current post-secondary institution, offers four fields of study: agriculture, education, public health, and nursing.¹⁴ The proposed university is not intended to replace these institutions, but rather to work in concert with them leading to the credentials of Gambian post-secondary and higher-level education.

While these three facilities certainly provide much in the way of necessary vocational courses for people in The Gambia in terms of job training, they

¹⁴ These brief descriptions are based on a source unknown to me but received by Jean Hill of the Nova Scotia Gambia Association (NSGA).

nonetheless fall short of meeting certain key educational and social needs of the populace. Gambian students seeking a university education in the past have had to look outside the country to obtain such an education. Not only has this translated into a loss of revenue and international prestige for The Gambia through the direct loss of the academic population, it has led to an absence of research grants and international linkages to other universities.

The most basic shortcomings of the existing educational facilities in The Gambia are identified by Douglas Myers, former Dean of Henson College, Dalhousie University, in a paper written as a response to the 1992 Proposals for the development of Tertiary Education in the Gambia submitted by a Commonwealth Consultancy Team.¹⁵ Myers identifies the following strategies:

- "the absence of a 'general studies' program at the undergraduate level,
- inadequate advanced training and professional development opportunities for the staffs of existing institutions and programs,
- inadequate provision for mathematics and science education, at all levels and particularly for girls and women,
- the lack of adequate labour market data and analysis,
- (and) the lack of overall planning and co-ordination of tertiary-level education policy, institutions and programs".¹⁶

¹⁵ Myers, Douglas. (1995). *Revisiting the 1992 proposals for the development of tertiary education in The Gambia: a commentary*. Henson College of Public Affairs and Continuing Education, Dalhousie University.

¹⁶ Myers, D. (1995). P.8

Myers goes on to point out the argument put forth in the Commonwealth Consultancy Team's Proposals, of which he is in agreement, that it is "essential for The Gambia to take steps to further develop and extend its tertiary level education provision".¹⁷ Such a stance is based on the economic and social needs of the Gambian nation in promoting economic growth and for competing in the international market. Based on such arguments Myers projects in his paper, the view consistent with the findings of the 1992 Proposals that a University of The Gambia is indeed a worthwhile and, in fact, an essential step in Gambian development. An internationally recognised university would not only deter would-be Gambian students from leaving the country in pursuit of a university education, but would also lead to an influx of students and visitors from outside the country attracted by the education and research projects which a university extends. This would in turn lead to tremendous spin-off economic and employment opportunities, the sustainable creation of a highly skilled labour pool and source of employment, and thereby to economic growth.

Although the precise form that such an institution should take both in terms of physical planning and curriculum is a point of disagreement between Myers and the Commonwealth Consultancy Team, the two agree that such an endeavour is not only desirable for the Gambian nation, but is important to the future development of The Gambia. This perceived need has been further adhered to by agencies such as the Commonwealth Secretariat, Gambian officials, as well as personnel of Saint Mary's University's Office of International

¹⁷ Myers, D. (1995).

Activities.¹⁸ In terms of these various views and reports, the establishment of a University of The Gambia is an essential component to the social and economic development of the Gambian nation within the world economy and for its own internal development.

In addition, by utilising staff and faculty from within the nation, the education received will be based on Gambian priorities, and as such, in keeping with the particular needs and ideological views of Gambian culture and social character. For reasons of economic and social development, international competition, and human resource development, the University of The Gambia is deemed an essential step in the nation's progress.

1.7. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.7.1. Assumptions

With reference to the rationale outlined above, it is necessary to identify from the outset some inherent assumptions which shape our analysis and establish the scope of this thesis. Central to this thesis project is the question of how best to plan for the siting of a tertiary institution within the context of present day Gambia. This implies that the focus is one of physical planning for a University of The Gambia in a manner which will most benefit the Gambian nation and its people.

While the focus is largely on the considerations of physical planning, the concern is with the physical planning as a development issue. The inherent

¹⁸ Commonwealth Consultancy Team (1992); Myers, D. (1995); International Activities, Saint Mary's University (1998).

value of such an analysis lies in its contribution to the creation of a university for the future of The Gambia as a nation as well in the guiding principles brought about for improvements in the process of planning as a tool for development. Physical planning is not conventionally looked upon within the academic discipline of international studies as a central issue to a nation's economic and social development. However, it remains a central concern to practitioners within the field and can tremendously impact the outcomes of a project. Looking at the long-run impacts that development projects may have, physical infrastructural planning is imperative to any successful evaluation of a project's goals.

For the purposes of this analysis, it is assumed that a university is indeed a lucrative endeavour within The Gambia, both for its own sake and in the absence of alternative possibilities for development or economic growth such as large-scale industry. For economic reasons, it is further assumed that the university will include only an undergraduate curriculum. Also, for reasons of economic and social progress, it is assumed that the form which this university should take is one which fosters the well being of the entire nation. Specifically, this implies that the creation of a university should benefit all Gambian people, whether involved in the university curriculum directly or not. Indeed, it is believed that for a nation of The Gambia's size and composition, such a project will have both direct and indirect consequences on all inhabitants and future generations. Whether in terms of job creation, economic spin-offs, an influx of residents pursuing an education and the affiliated demands on infrastructure; the resulting alterations of the physical landscape, increased population densities and overall human and social wellbeing will be considerable. Such an undertaking must be

conceived of and maintained as an institutional undertaking and its should be measured both in quantitative and qualitative terms with reference to the long term impacts upon the nation as a whole.

Given the current pressing issues within The Gambia such as the lack of financial and fiscal resources, overcrowding in various regions, the unique character of the nation's landscape and architecture, as well as the existence of the training facilities mentioned above, emulation of foreign models is deemed economically unfeasible and in conflict with the stated goals.

To construct an entirely new edifice would entail the expropriation of lands which would be much better suited to meeting the agricultural and/or housing needs of the nation's population. It would also be contradictory to Gambian cultural norms of communal land sharing.¹⁹ Furthermore, it would involve considerable infrastructural costs in terms of service provision and transportation accessibility, it would necessitate a large residence and would inherently limit the university's accessibility to only those most able to afford the considerable costs necessarily incurred. The net result would be a segregation and increased gap between the rich and the poor, with the provision of a university education afforded only by the elite and foreign students with sufficient income or source of funding. An immense debt would result in financing this type of structure, as well as the creation of an institution from which the majority of the population is excluded. In fact, the only parties which would benefit from such an approach would be non-Gambians who would be able to avoid the financial burden entailed

¹⁹ Hill, Jean M. (1997). *Gambian compounds: their role, significance and influence on planning*. Department of Urban and Rural Planning, Technical University of Nova Scotia.

by a user-pays approach to university education. Such an approach is reminiscent of imperialist or bourgeois initiatives throughout Africa during colonial rule which sought in the past to promote their own well being at the expense of the surrounding environment and the African people. It is imperative that any such reminiscence be avoided.

1.7.2. Definitions of Terms

University: In addition to being an educational institution of higher learning, a university is also a physical place where people come together to share ideas and promote knowledge. It is a locus of human activity where services are exchanged, as well as a nodal point requiring transport accessibility, infrastructure, and secondary economic activities.

Physical Planning: The arrangement of physical objects and human activities which make up the environment. This includes the analysis of existing space as well as a concern for the relationship of new developments to the existing physical form. Encompassed within this concept are concerns for transportation needs and accessibility, the connection between the physical and social environments, the formal aesthetic environment, ecology, and economics. The focus of physical planning is on the efficient arrangement of functions, the correct balance among these functions, as well as consideration for the aesthetic and practical operation of various land functions.

Site Selection: Spatial decisions surrounding the establishment of new developments and the integration between on/off site land uses as well as linkages with surrounding areas. Coherence is sought with respect to the socio-economic aspects of land use functions as well as the cultural composition in a manner that facilitates the preservation of heritage value with practical feasibility.

Location Criteria: A set of guidelines allowing for planning decisions to be made that involve determining the precise needs of an intended land use function with respect to related land uses; and accounting for transportation and accessibility, services and amenities, as well as the physical needs of space for the intended land use function. The implication here is for the fit of planning decisions with the character of existing spaces.

Spin-Off Effects: The secondary economic activity which occurs as a result of some other form of economic activity and consequently lends support to the primary source of economic activity.

Multiplier Process: An economic concept that refers to the continuation of money being regenerated through the economy thereby leading to increased fiscal spending. As Dr. Andrew Harvey *et al.* construct it, it designates the process which "represents the continued re-spending, and therefore the increased value to the (region) of each dollar originally spent".²⁰

²⁰ Harvey et al. (1995). *Beyond the campus: an assessment of the economic, social, and cultural impacts of Nova Scotia universities*. P. 20.

1.7.3. Working Ideas

1.7.3.1. The Relationship Between Physical Planning as Urban Planning and Development

The relationship between land use and the overall urban development process invokes the role of physical planning as a tool for achieving desired objectives. The inter-sectoral and spatial implications of planning involves planning at different geographical scales from the local community or street level, to the regional or national. As a practitioner, the role of the planner is as a facilitator, to mediate between the needs of policy-makers, private interests and the general public. Knowing for whom a planner feels allegiance is often a good indication of that individual's deep-seated values. In this way, the discipline of urban planning, or rather the planner as both professional and academic, is rooted in the individual's own epistemological views and ideological perspectives which serve to define how the process of planning is approached and for whom the end results are to serve. In this context, to look at the theory of planning and therefore to understand the approach being taken, it becomes necessary to first take a step back and look at what development objectives are being pursued through planning and why. In other words, in conceiving of urban planning as a tool or a vehicle for enhancing the development process, and of urban planners as agents for change, it is necessary to look at the underlying assumptions and linkages within development thought to understand the ideological and theoretical frameworks of individual planners, and thereby to comprehend the various approaches to planning as methodological tools for national development.

The discipline of urban planning, rooted in growth and modernization theory, by its orientation towards infrastructural provision can also be thought of as in keeping with the basic needs approach.²¹ Those that feel that politicians are the ultimate clients of urban developments can be said to fall within a conservative camp. Those working primarily for the private sector can be thought of as adhering to a liberal -capitalist or a laissez-faire approach to development in which profit maximization is the rule of thumb. Finally, those that feel that their ultimate commitment is to the communities in which they work, can be said to fall within a populist or people-led approach to development, otherwise known as an alternative development theoretical perspective.²²

While cities themselves are not a recent phenomena in our history, as both a profession and a discipline of academic study the field of urban planning had its inception in the industrial revolution around the turn of the twentieth century.²³ At that time, and still very much today, questions of urban life, such as housing and sanitation needs, centered around making the worker more productive. Given that the field of urban planning began at a time when growth and modernization was at the forefront of development thought, it is hardly surprising that the discipline's heritage is deeply rooted in associated ideologies. The ideas and ideals of growth and modernization are still an integral part of planning for urban developments. Even in cities of the South, where planning decisions focus largely on problem-solving and urban management, the context for most planning debates is on exponential growth in urban-centred populations

²¹ Chenery *et al.*, 1974; ILO, 1976; Hunt, D. 1989; Escobar, A. 1992; Martinussen, J. 1997.

²² Escobar, A. 1992.; and Martinussen, J. 1997.

²³ Mumford, 1961; Gosselin and McKellar, 1994.

and the growth of cities in the post-world war period. However, analyses relate more to how to deal with these problems, rather than seeking to overcome mounting population numbers.

Up until the mid-1980s, the planning focus within international development studies lay largely upon rural issues, such as the provision of financial assistance, so that people would not feel compelled to migrate to the cities or urban areas. Today, practitioners have seen the unsuccessful results of trying to curb urban growth. Although the rates of increase have diminished, the urbanization process and the growth of cities in terms of size continue to be quite overwhelming.

While many present day scholars and practitioners might reveal their dislike for the existing social systems, urban planners are not generally concerned with an overthrow of the systems; rather, the issue is to make life livable in cities as they exist. As such, urban planning can not be considered to fall neatly within the structuralist school of thought, precisely because it does not seek to transform or even reform existing social structures; rather, it seeks out solutions to problems within the system.

1.7.3.2. An Alternative Framework

The ideas promoted in this study, and as such the approach being adopted, are based on a participatory or people-led approach to development, in which the 'public' is to be the intended project beneficiary, with the needs of all Gambian people as the central concern. This implies a belief in a populist approach to development, one in which improvements to all levels of society are

thought to lead to the nation's overall economic growth through improvements in the quality of life and overall human development. This necessitates planning for sustainability, long term partnerships based on sharing of ideas, experiences and strategies; flexibility, responsiveness, capacity building and full participation of all members of society.

1.8. METHODOLOGY

The first stage in analysis is to define the role of planning a university within the development process; secondly the literature surrounding the process of campus and physical planning is reviewed and analyzed; and thirdly, planning tools used within The Gambia and the African region are assessed as a means of understanding better the planning process in relation to the establishment of universities in developing countries as well as their impact upon a nation's development path.

Through the use of library sources such as books, journals and government documents, it will be revealed that universities in Africa do in fact have a very long and rich history and that their planning has been, in various instances, both *ad hoc* and carefully drawn out. These two approaches, often associated with colonial rule in the former case and an independent national form of development in the latter, will be assessed with reference to the creation of various universities within Africa. The approach currently adopted within The Gambia will also be analyzed, partly so as to better understand the process and partly as a case study of how the planning process in general may be improved.

To this end we will review proposals and reports that have addressed the planning of the Gambian University through the creation of the University Extension Programme (UEP), such as those put out by the Commonwealth Consultancy Team, Douglas Myers of Dalhousie University and International Activities at Saint Mary's University. Government documents will also be reviewed to assess the extent to which the planning process is meeting with Gambian national objectives. Lastly, a questionnaire has been devised to assess the perceptions of Canadian university professors who have returned from teaching in The Gambia. The objective here is to better understand the perceptions and cognition of these faculties of the various facilities currently being utilized by the UEP, given that the literature suggests that this is an important factor in an assessment of the impact of the establishment of universities.

The study draws upon both primary and secondary sources of qualitative and quantitative data. Primary sources include government statistical data as well as information gathered through the distribution of questionnaires to professors who have first-hand teaching experience in The Gambia through the University Extension Programme. The questionnaire (Appendix C) was sent out to thirty-three individuals who have returned from teaching in The Gambia. The purpose of the questionnaire is to obtain first-hand accounts of the perceptions of the existing facilities, both in terms of the deficiencies and benefits of each facility, as well as to obtain some overall insight into the broader needs and concerns for the university. Secondary sources include books that relate to

concerns for the university. Secondary sources include books that relate to existing models and schools of thought, journals, electronic sources - URLs and government documents.

1.9. STRUCTURE OF THE ARGUMENT

The thesis consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 raises the central questions addressed, provides some background information for the analysis, poses the problem of the study, includes the thesis statement, and provides the rationale for looking at the physical planning of a university in The Gambia as an important element in the development process. The chapter also outlines the theoretical framework of the study; provides definitions of the relevant terms; and makes explicit the limitations as to scope, the methodology, and an outline of analysis for the thesis.

Chapter 2 serves as a review of the relevant literature. It looks at models for planning a university, assesses the divergent approaches to issues of siting such an institution, and serves as the theoretical justification for the approach taken within this work. It subsequently looks at existing university models within the context of Africa and derives some lessons from the various literary sources consulted in this study.

Chapter 3 extrapolates from lessons derived from the existing literature to construct a general planning model and to suggest a set of techniques for the locational decisions of tertiary institutes within developing countries.

Chapter 4 serves as a country situation assessment for determining the needs of The Gambian university as well as to assess the feasibility of several select sites with consideration to the relevant criteria to be outlined in chapter 3.

Chapter 5 serves as an application of the planning model to the University of the Gambia. It calls upon the perceptions of questionnaire respondents to support the argument being made, provides a brief summary of findings, and puts forth some recommendations.

Chapter 6 serves as a data analysis by summarising the findings of previous chapters and draws a number of conclusions relating to the thesis question.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW AND ANALYSIS

2.1. URBAN AND NATIONAL PLANNING

In 1975, Lauchlin Currie pointed out that "urban planning should form an integral element of national planning, yet almost nowhere is this a reality."²⁴

According to Currie, urban planning has generally been considered a local matter not thought to have a strong impact on national planning; while national planning is most often characterized by macroeconomic policies of pricing and employment.

Observing some of the problems which cities in developing countries face, Currie points to problems of segregation, dichotomous centre-periphery models of city life and urban decay not as the preordained characteristics of urbanization, but from the lack of planning as the reason for many urban ills. For cities in developing countries and indeed for development at the national level, Currie illustrates how urbanization appears both necessary and desirable, while at the same time extravagant and unsatisfactory. He looks at British and American planning models as being inequitable and entirely unfeasible for planning initiatives in the south. What is needed in developing countries, in his view, is urban design for growth that will avoid the problems associated with foreign models and look instead towards local planning "as the basis for the development of a new design for urban growth."²⁵

²⁴ Currie, Lauchlin (1975). *The interrelations of urban and national economic planning*. P.37.

²⁵ Currie, Lauchlin (1975). P.41.

In this way, Currie calls for a clustering of activities in what he refers to as a 'cities-within-cities' approach to urban development. This implies an alternative conception to national planning as conventionally conceived by looking instead towards problem-solving and planning at a smaller or local scale which is in keeping with the broader national objectives. Although his work is primarily geared towards large metropolitan cities, the principles of local actions with consideration for more wider reaching general guidelines to direct this growth are applicable for any area undergoing a process of urbanization and is a view that is adhered to by many authors on the subject.

In response to Currie's work, M.A. Tribe calls for the need to "consider the interrelationships between urban and national economic planning more systematically."²⁶ In this way, Tribe is pointing to the fact that sectoral planning, if not considered under more comprehensive economic national planning, could lead to a misallocation of resources; and therefore necessitates the integration of urban and national economic planning as an important objective.

From debates such as these we see that urban planning does not have a fixed role in national agendas, but that its contributions to project outcomes and national development initiatives have often been either overlooked or underestimated.

2.2. PHYSICAL PLANNING

Turning now to the more physical needs of the necessary infrastructure for the creation of a university, there are several possible alternatives with which to

approach such a project. On the one hand, the Gambian government could seek to continue on its recent path of large-scale infrastructure developments, incurring a large debt for foreign-funded or multi-laterally borrowed capital investments; or the government of The Gambia could pursue more strategic and sustainable alternatives to founding its first university. Given the creation of a University Extension Programme (UEP) in partnership with Canadian institutions as an affordable first step through the provision of short-term university personnel in an effort to establish its own base of skilled professionals; it is assumed that the latter approach is that which is being adopted. It is deemed important that the principles behind the university's creation through the UEP embrace the ideals of sustainability, affordability, and credibility.²⁷ In this vein, for the university to initiate its institutional development through an incremental approach to the academic goals of the institution, then the same inherent logic should also be fostered in its physical development so as to ensure cohesion and uniformity of ideals.²⁸ For, as will now be explored, the physical form and planning that a university takes are interconnected with the academic goals and values it seeks to promote. Such integration of values is what allows for a holistic approach to the development of an institution and enables a more sustainable vision through comprehensive aims. This also implies the provision of appropriate spaces for the maintenance of cultural norms associated with

²⁶ Tribe, M.A. (1976). *The interrelations of urban and national planning - a comment*. P.201.

²⁷ as stated in UPCD Project #098/S47074-137. *Capacity Building for Higher Education in The Gambia*.

²⁸ This is also in keeping with the approach adopted by Jean Hill in her 1997 work which sought to find solutions for flexible and sustainable ways of managing and providing for the demands of a growing (urban) Gambian population in keeping with traditional methods.

Gambian traditions such as those of face-to-face and 'hand-to-hand' contacts.²⁹ In this way, the rightness of a particular land form³⁰ depends on the degree to which it fits with the wider context. Individuals continually define and redefine the needs imposed upon the land through their own evolving conceptions of space while simultaneously responding to the physical context that in turn serves to influence these same needs.

2.3. CAMPUS PLANNING

Within the current literature on campus planning, one thing that emerges as important to a university's success is the maintenance of an institution's architectural heritage and commitment to the legacy by which that institution has developed. In fact, it has been pointed out by numerous authors on the subject that one of the gravest mistakes that planners make in the physical planning of a university, is to neglect the history in physical form by which an institution grows.³¹ In a 1986 article by American university architect, Warren R. Kark, it was stated that incremental planning offers a cost-effective and efficient means of providing functional, environmental, and fiscal benefits. In this way, consideration should be given to the multidisciplinary needs of campus life, the provision of discretionary spaces, and the 'fit' with off-campus surrounding spaces. Kark calls for the complement of utilities to economically and effectively meet campus-building needs and the preservation of historical campus layout and architecture. The development of multi-use and shared use of space for

²⁹ Hill, J. (1997). P.23.

³⁰ Alexander, C. (1964). Notes of the synthesis of form.

meeting budgetary and spatial constraints may be achieved through innovative scheduling adjustments, modification of teaching and research methods, consolidation of activities, elimination of marginal functions and programs, as well as the introduction of innovative landscape concepts and information systems.³²

Paul Turner, in 1987-88 added to this with his contribution of the pitfalls in seeking to emulate foreign institutions which grew out of very different circumstances.³³ Instead, Turner calls for a more introspective analysis of an individual university's own academic goals and cultural and historical legacy.³⁴ Although at this point it may be thought that perhaps the University of The Gambia is without such a heritage, given its inception as a new university, this could not be further from the truth. The very legacy of the Gambian university is that it is grown out of Gambian institutions as they have come to exist. The existing institutions, which will be discussed in Chapter 4, have a very deep-seated foundation in the nation's marked period of recent transition, and serve as a reminder of the struggles and tribulations which the people of The Gambia will have overcome. Turner also points to the susceptibility which university planners have been inclined to succumb with respect to styles. Timely changes in fashions and tastes have served to influence the physical forms of institutions, very much to the detriment of historical preservation. He cautions planners that although these changes in tastes may very well be appealing at the time, they nonetheless can severely retard the continuing evolution of physical form in

³¹ Kark, Warren 1986; Turner, Paul V. 1987-88; Freeman, Allan Charles 1992; and Adams, Christopher 1995-95.

³² Kark, Warren R. (1986). *Incremental Master Planning: Concepts and implementation at Virginia Tech.*

³³ This relates also to the discussion in chapter 1 of the British and North American models as discussed by Myers.

fostering a sense of institutional identity. It may then be extended from this line of thought that a sense of affiliation and pride supported by consistency in all facets of institutional development may be fostered and thus planned into the university's development. In this vein, Turner states that the historical process involves the process of identifying those qualities of a campus that are most significant, most expressive of the school's traditions, and most potentially useful to the future development of the university campus or campuses.

To this was added in 1992 by Allan Charles Freeman, that alternatives for preserving human scale and useable open spaces which solicit the support and approval of the city and private interests are essential to the sustainable process of university development. Even in the face of financial constraints and shortage of physical space, Freeman argues, innovative planning strategies can overcome barriers to a university's growth and promote support from the university's population and the community at large.³⁵ In this way, Freeman argues that the futures of higher education institutions are bound up with the physical, economic, and social futures of their cities or towns for ensuring their own functionability and continued success. Communities that think positively about their institutions will be more inclined to participate in fund-raising efforts, in industry-sponsored research, and in mutually beneficial projects; partnerships which are even more vital to a university facing constraints in fiscal resources, infrastructure and physical space.

³⁴ Turner, Paul V. (1987-88). *Some thoughts on History and Campus Planning*.

³⁵ Freeman, Allan Charles. (1992). *New town-gown planning*.

Through two case studies of Californian university campus master planning, the Irvine and Santa Cruz campuses, author Christopher Adams contributes to this discussion with aspects he feels lend to the success or failure of a campus master plan. Adams points to the need to outline implementation phases in ensuring a plan's success, the need to account for topographical and environmental factors, to ensure cohesion with off-campus land uses, and that careful site analysis should precede planning. In this way, attention is called to the need for awareness of the necessities and opportunities presented by the land; to the necessary spatial connectors, both human and physical, for fostering interactions and integration; and of the need to consult technical expertise and ensure continuity of leadership. In so doing, the population's diverse demands on space, connections and buildings must be weighed. Likewise, the master plan should be balanced upon topographical site considerations, the university's academic mission, and its own institutional strategies.³⁶

In November of 1993, the Washington State Higher Education Coordinating Board (HECB) published a document entitled 'Campus Planning Study: Staff Recommendations' based on considerations faced in the site selection process of planning University of Washington campuses. Among other things, the report highlighted the need to ensure compatibility of land uses through the coordination of policies and regulating bodies. This involved the consolidation of environmental concerns and seasonal variations in the land, such as those between wet and dry seasons,³⁷ the need for community support,

³⁶ Adams, C. (1995-96); Taylor, B.B. et al. (1986)

³⁷ a significant factor in countries subject to climatic variations which might be overlooked if feasibility studies do not account for seasonal changes.

as well as the need for clearly defined and adhered to local development policies for regulating land use management and growth. The evaluative criteria in the site feasibility assessment for the University of Washington campuses included location, transportation, access and size; as well as community support, financial costs of acquisition for each respective site, and adherence to land use regulations. "The assessment was designed as a threshold analysis using criteria limited to program suitability and general development potential."³⁸ The purpose of the assessment was to determine the degree of adequate support of alternative organizational models of available select sites.

In 1996, Charles Hight and John Lincourt teamed up in an analysis of alternative processes of campus master planning based on different methodologies.³⁹ Their findings again pointed to the need for greater communication between academics and planners and for cohesion between physical and academic ideals in creating a positive university environment. The creation of an in-house master plan taskforce, in their view, with members from a variety of faculties and open to criticism and approval from both within the university and from outside community groups contributed immensely to the planning process. Greater communication was revealed to facilitate compatibility and consolidation of interests both on campus as well as beyond. Numerous benefits were found to be derived from community support. Inversely, excessive reliance upon outside planning and architectural expertise as the primary

³⁸ HECB (1993). *Campus planning study: staff recommendations*. P.24.

³⁹ Hight, Charles and Lincourt, John. (1996). *In-house master planning*.

decision-makers often leads to the neglect of the university's own vision, values, preferences, and needs.

The lessons which emerge from this are twofold. On the one hand, dependence on outside knowledge can be very much to the detriment of a project's success and therefore to the objectives for national development. This is because foreign or outside technical experts, while knowledgeable about various technical tools and mechanisms for planning are still largely unacquainted with the university's more precise local needs and specific ideals. Also, as individuals, planners cannot help but bring with them their own preconceived ideological notions adopted abroad. On the other hand, however, the full participation of all members of society and all the diverse interests and familiarities with local circumstances that they bring will serve as its own form of expertise and contribute to the meeting of a variety of divergent interests. By their very nature as those whom changes in land use will affect and will therefore impact upon how these changes are received, the voices of all members of the region's communities are essential to the creation of a sustainable environment. If not consulted in a full and meaningful way, then the various user groups may regard the project with animosity which will in turn be to the detriment of both the communities and the project itself. In this way, through the invocation of the precise needs associated with that region, it is the members of society who should be recognized as the true experts in a project's design. For without their support, unnecessary obstacles are sure to be created. As such, what is required is the combining of local knowledges with the relevant technical tools for applying these knowledges to the planning process.

2.4. PLANNING IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES

With these considerations in mind, it must be remembered that the University of The Gambia is to be situated in the Western African region of the developing world. Both the immediate and regional environments must be enhanced throughout the planning of this institution, coupled with the precise goals of the university itself and national goals for international economic and intellectual integration. Urban planning can be a very effective tool for the promotion of both urban and regional development, if it used in a realistic way with clearly defined goals and obtainable objectives. However, it must be remembered that it is still merely a tool and not a blueprint for successful national development.

Alan Turner in his 1992 article entitled 'Urban planning in the Developing World: Lessons from Experience', illustrates from his own experience as an urban planner in the developing world the need for co-ordination of policies and development agencies, awareness and participation of all concerned parties. He outlines some guidelines for planning in developing countries of which include the following:

- incremental urban planning and/or management,
- improved effectiveness of existing institutions and co-ordination among agencies,
- emphasis of international funding bodies on institutional development,
- viable policies that are not overly preoccupied with 'resource-draining minute details',
- wider urban strategic focus for land use control,

- increase in all levels of public awareness and participation in decision-making to ensure project sustainability,
- effective and systematic monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes,
- flexibility,
- trained professionals and technical labour force.⁴⁰

Added to this is the insight put forward in 1989 by Pietro Garau of the need to account for the different perspectives of user groups in the assessment and evaluation of urban functions and priorities.⁴¹ Of these groups and perspectives, Garau identifies those of the poor, the affluent, visitors and tourists, and business residents. These perspectives must all be accounted for if the planning of the university is, in fact, to be a viable and sustainable development objective supported by the community, politicians, and academics alike. For, as Remy Prud'Homme pointed out in 1989, the comparative advantage of cities and city centres is changing with increased globalisation and international integration, and to remain viable areas of investment and growth cities must adapt to changes in growth, function, structure, and quality to meet the evolving needs of their communities.⁴² In the case of The Gambia, this implies ensuring that the planning of the university is in keeping with wider national objectives. It also implies cohesion with respect to the diverse institutional and infrastructural needs of the nation's people.

⁴⁰ Turner, Alan. (1992). *Urban planning in the developing world: Lessons from experience.*

⁴¹ Garau, Pietro. (1989). *Third world cities in a global society viewed from a developing nation.*

2.5. ENCOURAGING PARTICIPATION

As will be seen in chapter 4, the physical demands surrounding the university's creation are quite precise. What is needed as such, is to ensure that these demands are met and that communication and support are promoted right from the onset. Methods of soliciting community involvement are explored in chapter 3. Among other things, the techniques put forward by Robert Chambers in his model of Rapid Rural Appraisal are utilized for increasing the input from less vocal groups of society. While Chambers' work was initially geared towards the rural poor, it is evident that such a development technique can and should be applied in other settings as well, namely the urban environment. Through often informal listening and 'cognitive respect',⁴³ such techniques serve to promote various points of view that would otherwise likely be left unheard. Chambers also cautions against the pitfalls that all too often result from appraisals which are hurried for the sake of expediency on the part of practitioners.⁴⁴ In this way, the planning for the University of The Gambia presents the opportunity to avoid such pitfalls through the incremental nature already adopted through the UEP.

It follows that the methods of analysis explored in chapter 3 should be in keeping with ongoing methods of planning for sustainability and continuous evaluations of progress. The Rapid Rural Appraisal (RRA) approach advocated by Chambers questions in this way the usefulness of 'academic purity' while seeking alternative cost-effective techniques; such as reversals of learning and

⁴² Prud'Homme, Remy. (1989). *New trends in the cities of the world*.

⁴³ A term coined by Peter Berger, 1977. Referring to respect for those less educated and less influential

⁴⁴ Chambers, R. (1983). P.198. shortage of time in appraisals can result in misleading investigations.

numerous innovative techniques for data collection which seek to invoke various points of view.

2.6. UNIVERSITY SITE PLANNING

Limited literature exists in the way of precise tools or guiding principles surrounding the issue of siting for universities in developing regions. Most likely, this is due to the nature of locational decisions as being very place and time specific. However, it is also due to the fact that planning for such institutions is in itself a relatively new field. In Britain, with a legacy of higher education dating back close to a thousand years, universities founded prior to the Second World War are said to have been located almost entirely by accident rather than design.⁴⁵

The university as a tertiary institute is largely concerned with the flow of people rather than with a flow of goods and services. In this way, decisional factors are based on sociological concerns of personal interactions. In siting a university, the decisions pertaining to the location or locations of facilities express not only the practical and functional needs of the populace, but the inherent ideologies of those involved in the decision-making process. As such, some preliminary decisions about the nature and character of the intended institute must first be established. Whether the university should foster an environment of 'openness' or 'closedness'⁴⁶ will determine whether the aim is to provide a relatively introspective and contemplative environment of internal focus in the

⁴⁵ Abercrombie et al. (1974). *The university in an urban environment: a study of activity patterns from a planning viewpoint.*

⁴⁶ Abercrombie et al. (1974).

case of the latter, or external integration with the wider community in the case of the former open university.⁴⁷

Given the focus on Gambian national development objectives as a major starting point for university activity, the objective of community integration, as well as the largely vocational motivations of higher education in The Gambia; an open environment to the local community and communities is the approach adopted here. This implies a desire for intensive use of university facilities for the benefit of students, staff, and the greater community; as well as the promotion of existing facilities provision for the purpose of cost effectiveness.

The criteria which must be factored into any location decisions of this scale must be inherently geared towards the target populations and the precise environment in which such institutions are to be situated. Data collection should involve differentiating between primary and secondary considerations, or what Dews and Ragusa refer to in their 1990 work as 'essential' and 'discretionary' groups of data.⁴⁸ In other words, each project of this nature is based on its own unique set of criteria and decisional factors. For this reason, the voices of all local user groups can provide invaluable insight into the planning process precisely because these are often the very people for whom changes to the built environment will be most largely felt. Consideration must be given to ensuring that the voices of those less vocal are also consulted in a meaningful way. For this end, techniques of 'reversals of learning' as put forward by Robert Chambers provide a theoretical backing to the methods of data collection such as invoked in

⁴⁷ It should be noted here that the open university is a reference to its relationship to the wider community and not to the open university conception invoked in the South African context of the admission criteria with respect to race and colour.

the model put forward in the following chapter. Such an approach can be said to fall within the paradigm of participatory development planning. According to Chambers,

reversals in learning can take many forms, including sitting, asking and listening; learning from the poorest; learning indigenous technical knowledge; joint R and D... learning by working; and simulation games. Reversals in management entails changes from authoritarian to participatory communication... To achieve reversals, it is best to start by acting and learn by doing.⁴⁹

It follows that not only is it important to involve community participation right from the onset, but to continue to do so at all stages of project implementation and life.

2.7. AFRICAN UNIVERSITY OBJECTIVES

The year 1960 has been referred to as 'the Year of Africa', in which most former African colonies achieved, or were about to achieve, political independence.⁵⁰ It was at this time that education was becoming a priority in Africa. Indeed, a marked change in the process of planning can be seen at this time as African countries moved away from the former colonial methods of planning towards a more indigenous approach promoting the university as the embodiment of national values and identities as newly independent nations seeking to promote economic growth and national development objectives. Universities, in this way, were becoming increasingly seen as vehicles in the development process rather than merely as centres of intellectual elitism as they had been conceived under colonial rule. From 1960 to 1962 three conferences

⁴⁸ Dews, T. and Ragusa, S. (1990). *Site planning and management: an international review*. P.153.

⁴⁹ Chambers, R. (1983). P.190.

⁵⁰ Yesufu, T.M. (1973). *Creating the African university: emerging issues in the 1970s*. P.3.

were held in Africa in which education was given high priority, including a 1962 conference organised by UNESCO in Tananarive, Madagascar. Much of the focus at this conference was on the determining of policy guidelines and the setting of concrete statistical goals for universities in Africa including, among other things, optimum institutional size and costs of buildings.⁵¹ In 1963, in response to a working paper by Dr. R. Weeks, president of the University of Liberia, heads of African institutions of higher education began working on the mechanisms for establishing regular means of co-operation and joint action. The Association of African Universities (AAU) included in their mandate the proclaimed strategy: "(to be) conscious of the role of African universities to maintain an adherence and loyalty to world academic standards, and to evolve over the years a pattern of higher education in the service of Africa and its peoples, yet promoting a bond of kinship to the larger human society".⁵² In 1969, an AAU conference, 'The Role of African Universities in Development Today', was held in Kinshasa under the theme of the university and development. The focus of this conference was "the challenges posed by the problems of poverty, and of the need for social rebirth, cultural rediscovery and political identity, which confront African countries individually and collectively".⁵³ Out of this conference came the affirmation that universities in Africa were now sufficiently developed to depart from the A.A.U.

By 1970, over 50 university institutions were in existence in Africa, expressing confidence in their ability to deal with their own problems and

⁵¹ Yesufu, T.M. (1973). P.6.

⁵² Yesufu, T.M. (1973). P.5

⁵³ Yesufu, T.M., 1973.

concerns. At the AAU workshop in Accra, Ghana in 1972, issues facing African universities in the 1970s were discussed. What emerged from this conference was the need to overcome the traditional intellectual dependence on outside African academics initiated during colonial rule. The focus of this conference was on five main issues:

- Priorities and the role of the university in development,
- Programme development and curriculum,
- Localisation and staff development,
- Developing research, and
- Continuing education, extra-mural work, non-traditional functions.⁵⁴

From these discussions came the view that it was imperative for African universities in the 1970s onward to be "committed to active participation in social transformation, economic modernization, and the training and upgrading of the total human resources of the nation, not just of a small elite."⁵⁵ This was in direct contrast to the earlier role of the African university conceived of under colonial rule. "In the traditional view, a university was a citadel of learning, an institution for the pursuit of knowledge, very often for its own sake... guided principally, if not entirely, by its own light and in its own wisdom".⁵⁶ The emergent role of the university, as envisioned at this workshop, that was truly African, as such, centred upon:

⁵⁴ Ibid.

⁵⁵ Ibid. P.42

⁵⁶ Ibid. P. 40

- The pursuit, promotion and dissemination of knowledge - emphasizing practical knowledge, useful to the generality of the people and therefore locally oriented and motivated;
- Research - with emphasis placed upon research into local problems;
- provision of intellectual leadership - with knowledge being diffused and disseminated to the masses - "the university must see itself as the servant, not master of the people."⁵⁷
- manpower development;
- promoting social and economic modernization;
- Promoting inter-continental unity and international understanding.

The priority given to each of the above broad functions was to be determined nationally by the needs of that country. Each country's government was to play a central role in prioritizing these functions. Despite a general air of mistrust of governing officials, this task was assigned to government bodies partly because of the costs incurred by governments and the initiatives taken therein, and partly because of their leadership roles. Governments were believed to be in tune with the social and economic objectives of their nations' people. Essentially then, what emerged from the Accra Workshop was the notion that each university was to play a considerable role in the development of their respective countries in adherence with African ideals. Universities, in this way, were viewed as vehicles for national and regional development.

⁵⁷ Ibid. P.43

2.8. AFRICAN UNIVERSITY MODELS

African universities are said to have derived from two historical traditions, the Islamic and the Christian-European traditions.⁵⁸ In reference to the European or colonial process of selecting the site for a university on the African continent prior to 1960, Van den Berghe depicts a largely arbitrary decision making process which did not account for the local environment but instead regarded the African landscape as essentially unchartered, uncultivated and unused land.

The following examples are of universities in various African countries. Although these examples have been selected for their relevance to the analysis of observing different types of physical settings for universities in Africa, their selection has been somewhat arbitrary, intended for illustrative purposes of verification of the literature involved. The main objective in looking at the following examples is to gain insight into the correlation between national development objectives and the manner in which universities have been both planned and maintained. Among other things, these examples reveal that universities in Africa indeed have a long history and as such have much to lend to the planning of African universities today⁵⁹.

2.8.1. Makerere University, Uganda

Makerere University was founded as a technical school in 1922, became a University College in 1949 and attained full University status in 1970.⁶⁰ The main campus, Makerere Hill, is situated in Kampala and had been dubbed an ivory

⁵⁸ Van den Berghe, P.L. et al. (1973).

⁵⁹ For a list of universities in Africa and their years of establishment, please see Appendix D.

tower during Uganda's first decade of independence. This connotation was due to its isolation from the social, economic and political climates of the Ugandan nation; not surprising given its origins under British colonial rule.

Initially a small technical school, this institution grew to become a constituent college of the University of East Africa, thereupon becoming its own full-fledged university. It's academic persona being referred to as late as the 1970s as "freedom from government control, ... creat(ing) a vacuum which has been quickly filled by foreign control of staff, syllabus, and research".⁶¹ Although the inference here is largely directed towards the academic curriculum offered at the university, such a focus was reinforced by the physical layout of the university campus. For a university invoking feelings of exclusion and segregation from the local community, the physical features of its landscape necessarily contribute to its imposing persona. The Makerere Main Building, considered to be quite imposing in size, was designed in 1939 while Uganda was still under colonial rule.⁶² With two chapels on either side of the Main Building, it's religious ties are very strongly felt, thus contributing to the perpetuation of religious ideologies adhered to by the university. Construction of the main building was funded primarily by the Ugandan Government, as well as by the Local Governments. With housing provided on-site and no adequate transportation network to accommodate the needs of a commuting student population, the university is physically and therefore also cognitively set apart from the rest of the community.

⁶⁰ source: <http://escher.arch.adelaide.edu.au/~molweny/Uganda/univ.html>

⁶¹ Atwoki, K. (1973). *Makerere University: the crisis of identity*. In T.M. Yesufu (ed.). P.93.

⁶² source: <http://escher.arch.adelaide.edu.au/~molweny/Uganda/mukpict.html>

Indeed, the physical form of the university is very much in keeping with the academic goals and institutional ideologies promoted therein. In a speech delivered on October 9, 1971, the vice-chancellor of Makerere University put forward the view that African universities and, by extension, the nature and demands of African intellectual life, could be judged and assessed based on international criteria. While indeed this is surely the case, what was neglected in this vision is that universities in Africa must also be held first and foremost to their own ideals, values and beliefs. The vice-chancellor's view of the role of the African university is in keeping with what has been called the classical or traditional approach by academics often supported by foreign academics working in Africa and Africanists based elsewhere. "It fails to see that the African university, to date (1973), has been basically dominated, intellectually, by western-oriented intellectuals, and that the university cannot, therefore, play the role (of promoting national development) until it becomes an institution of the society, operated by people sympathetic to the problems of the society and, finally, enjoying the confidence of the other sectors of the society."⁶³

Expressed is the view that African universities were still the vested interests of colonialists and grounded in colonial intellect. Not only was this evident in the curriculum and intellectual philosophies of the Makerere University personnel, but also in the physical layout of a segregated and imposing university form.

Most African universities are modelled after their European counterparts. In East Africa, the models were British. They were

⁶³ Mutiso, G.C.M. (1973). *The future university: towards a multi-disciplinary research and teaching approach*. In T.M. Yesufu (ed.). P.150.

institutions of the elite, cutting them off from society, stuck on top of mountains, to look down on society, or hidden in far away places... African universities are basically closed systems⁶⁴.

Just as the university provides for the transfer of knowledge from faculty to students, so too the inherent ideologies and values fostered by the university serve to shape the values and ideologies of the university populace and will be carried forth by the students as future figures in the nation's development path. If those ideologies are conceived of as separate or distinct from the wider society, then those same ideologies will be those guiding the nation's future.

The author also points to foreign donors as a source of fragmentation within the internal dynamics of the African university. However, made evident in this study is the ability of research to invoke indigenous knowledge and societal priorities through interaction with all the various levels of society. Such local knowledge should be sought instead of looking towards imported ideals, as was the norm in universities established by colonial interests prior to independence. In sum, the author points to ideology as the central problem facing African universities in the 1970s. His prognosis is that policy research should be used to guide the university towards a re-orientation focusing on national society and that country's own academic and developmental objectives. Another important point which emerges from the example of Makerere University is that the physical layout of the academic setting will contribute tremendously to the cognitions of its users. In this case, the physical setting is imposing and intimidating and therefore serves to advance a sense of 'closedness' from the surrounding communities, fostering an environment that promotes international prestige at the

⁶⁴ Ibid. P.153-154.

expense of regional cohesion and Ugandan concerns. To adopt objectives of national development, the university must first be perceived as an integral part of the local region and servicing the people of that region, physically and socially. Given that Makerere University does not meet with or even seek to promote local needs but instead is posited against the regional land use norms and concerns; this example serves to illustrate the negative effects of forsaking regional integration representing instead the negative effects of 'lack of fit'. In this way, the university does little to promote Ugandan development objectives.

2.8.2. University of Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania

Created in 1961 as a constituent college of the University of East Africa, and changing locations in 1964, the university was inaugurated as the University of Dar-es-Salaam in August of 1970.⁶⁵ The University of Dar-es-Salaam serves as an example of a university environment created by an independent nation after the demise of colonial rule thereby seeking to promote Tanzanian development objectives.

The central issue here is said to have been the establishment of a two-way communications link between the society, represented by the government, the political party and the public, on the one hand, and the university on the other. The university must be, and feel that it is, part of that society, and the society must regard and accept that the university is an integral part of it.⁶⁶

In questioning whether a university that makes itself relevant to society can meet international standards; author A.M. Nhonoli, through his analysis of

⁶⁵Nhonoli, A.M., 1973. *The University of Dar-es-Salaam: emerging issues of the 1970s*. In T.M. Yesufu (ed.).

⁶⁶ Nhonoli, A.M. (1973). P.175-176.

the University of Dar-es-Salaam, points to the need to amend the legacy of African universities of emulating European or American models. What he calls for is a system that will allow African universities to benefit from knowledge gained abroad, while accommodating and adhering to local and indigenous social priorities. "African universities should have definite roles to play in development, and to do this effectively, they must be in, and of, the community that they have been established to serve."⁶⁷ This philosophy was seen to be lacking in the articulated visions discussed above with respect to Makerere University in 1971.

Nhonoli states that the "traditional concept of university autonomy developed in Western Europe in the middle ages, when universities were being founded for a select privileged class, which was conservative and a powerful force against social change."⁶⁸ Through independence and the sharing of knowledge gained by African collaborative academic efforts, the University of Dar-es-Salaam as well as other universities in Africa were emerging as agencies of socio-economic change, while the traditional role of the university was redefined in a number of ways. Modifications, in this way, were to be determined by local, national and regional agendas and government policy orientation; as intimate relations with government were fostered.

In this way, the University of Dar-es-Salaam serves as a positive example of the post-colonial African university. Created by an independent nation, priority

⁶⁷ Ibid. P.176.

⁶⁸ Ibid. P.177.

was given to national development objectives, recognizing the tremendous role that universities play as vehicles in the development process.

2.8.3. University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria

The University of Nigeria is made up of two campuses. The larger of the two campuses is situated in Nsukka, approximately forty miles from Enugu, where the smaller campus is located.⁶⁹ The university was established in 1960, the same year that the nation was granted independence. Much hope has been placed in the hands of the university to lead the nation towards a new path from an agrarian based economy towards an industrial one. The university has been assigned a role in the national planning of the government., thereby fostering the promotion of Nigerian and African concerns. Extension work is called upon at the University for the dissemination and diffusion of knowledge and research to the general public of Nigeria. This focus has in turn been adopted by the populace who carry it with them in their professional and social lives. In this way, the university is seen as a vehicle for the nation's development and the agents for change are viewed as all members of the Nigerian population, with participation and public advocacy viewed as integral components of the development process.

Here again we see the post-colonial university as a vehicle in the development process whereby national objectives and improvements to the lives of its citizenry are given priority. In this case, both the physical form and the academic curriculum are seen as integral components of Nigerian society. Such

notions are thereby transmitted within the university and beyond, lending to an environment in which national and overall human development are promoted.

2.8.4. University of Ibadan, Nigeria

The University of Ibadan was founded prior to national independence in 1948 as an external College of the University of London and gained autonomy in 1962. In a discussion on the University of Ibadan⁷⁰, author Pierre L. Van den Berghe illustrates the European process of selecting the site for a university on the African continent by citing a passage from L. B. Macaulay. Although the passage itself is fictitious, it nonetheless portrays a vivid illustration of the colonial manner of deciding upon African affairs:

"At 5:30 p.m. on 28 December 1946 Sir William Hamilton Fife, vice-chancellor of the University of Aberdeen and leader of a delegation sent by the Inter-University Council for Higher Education in the Colonies, pushed his way through the undergrowth into the 'bush' a few miles north of the town of (Ibadan) in Nigeria until he reached a clearing where it was possible to see a few yards ahead. He planted his walking-stick firmly into the ground and said: 'Here shall be the University of Nigeria'."⁷¹

In such a way, the permanent site for the University College of Ibadan was selected. In so doing, the 1600 acres of cultivated farmland, which was presumed by colonial interests to be fallow, was expropriated from the 345 farmers and their families who had formerly depended on the land for their source of livelihood.⁷²

⁶⁹ Okafor, N. (1973). *The University of Nigeria, Nsukka*. In T.M. Yesufu (ed.).

⁷⁰ Please note that although the author disguises the name of the university, it is quite clear that the university in question is plainly the University of Ibadan.

⁷¹ Van den Berghe, Pierre L. et al. (1973). P.16.

⁷² Ibid.

The university model was British, and the type of physical layout was residential, in that accommodation was provided on campus so that students could both live and learn within the campus. "Nigeria's University was Nigerian only by geographical location and in the composition of its student body. In every other respect, it was British."⁷³ However, Van den Berghe is quick to point out that such an approach to the planning of the physical layout and the British content of the university was not opposed by Nigerian interests at the time. Rather, he goes on to say, such an undertaking was likely seen by Nigerian interests at the time as a form of progress. Van den Berghe does, however, mention that contributing to this was the lack of experience in undertakings of this sort by the Nigerian people, as well as a lack of channels by which the people may have had to express their views. In short, the approach to the physical siting was elitist and foreign.

The physical setting of the University of Ibadan reflects that it is both an important part of the country as well as an exotic import. Situated approximately 4.5 miles to the north of Yoruba city along one of the most important road and railway lines in Nigeria, connecting Lagos with Kano; the 4.5 square mile campus, or 'compound' as it is also referred to locally, is located within the nation's tropical rain forest. "The campus is surrounded by a wire mesh fence, but from the main road few of the buildings are visible behind the lush green curtain of vegetation. Until the main gate is reached the campus looks very much like any of the surrounding forest, and indeed well over half of the

⁷³ Ibid. P.19.

University land is still undeveloped.⁷⁴ From such statements it is indeed evident that the university, rather than intended to serve as a common structure in keeping with the indigenous character and a symbol of the Nigerian people, is set quite in opposition as a type of reprieve from the perceived drudgery and hardship which exist just beyond its grounds. In fact, this portrayal is set in contrast to the everyday functionings of the surrounding environment with its very high density levels, congestion and hardships associated with the Yoruba metropolis; precisely that which depicts the local communities.

The buildings themselves are four-storeys and, in stark contrast to the town, density ratio is low. The campus itself is described as having an air of 'manicured serenity'... For all its magnificence, the campus is not built for human convenience. More precisely, it is only built for the convenience of the affluent Senior Staff who can afford private motorcars.⁷⁵

The spaciousness provided by the campus layout, considered in its planning to be so aesthetically pleasing and reminiscent of 'successful' British models of campus landscapes, has evidently been achieved by scattering low-rise buildings over a wide area of space. This has resulted in the impediment of pedestrian movement and loss of practicality in physical layout for those crossing the grounds in an effort to get from one facility to the next in the course of their academic days. On this point, Van der Berghe points out that with an acreage of 2,800 and a student population of 3,000; student density ratios equalled little over one student per acre at the time of his publication in 1973. Although according to the University's own internet website student population has today reached

⁷⁴ Ibid. P.49.

⁷⁵ Ibid. P.50.

12,645 in number,⁷⁶ this still translates into only about four and a half students per acre. In a country plagued with overcrowding and squalid conditions of living, clearly such an imposing structure was never intended to stand as a symbol of the nation's people nor as a respite to their tribulations. As such, the university of Ibadan serves as an example of planning implemented without communication of local and regional needs, therefore not reflecting the values, priorities and norms of the nation's people.

So much is the university campus set apart from its immediate surroundings, that through the provision of goods and services for daily use available on campus, the campus population is considered to have hardly any need for leaving the site. Within the campus itself there is said to be at least a dozen small open-air markets with hundreds of peddlers providing a variety of goods such as fruits and vegetables, leather goods, textiles, and wood carvings; as well as services including barbers and tailors.⁷⁷

What emerges from this example is that the type of environment provided to the university community very much affects the type of interactions that the university population will have with the larger community. From this illustration we see that the University of Ibadan, established as a colonial institution, does not serve as a bridge for healthy community liaisons between the university population and the communities beyond. Through the provision of a closed environment, such a physical setting lends to an environment of antagonism and hostility; as the needs of one group, the university, are posited against the needs

⁷⁶ URL: <http://www.nyu.edu/rectors/ibad.html>.

⁷⁷ Van den Berghe, P.L. et al. (1973). P.53.

of the non-university communities. Where the planning of such an institution situates the university populace in a cognitive environment apart from the community at large, then such segregation will be maintained in the daily lives and interactions (or lack of) with the local communities. However, if the university was set as an integral part of the community, then such affiliations would in the same way also be carried over to the perceptions of individuals. In the case of the University of Ibadan, ties between the university and the society have been negligible in terms of social interaction, political ties and even the physical environment. The two communities were conceived of and developed in isolation both in terms of geographic space as well as cognitive space.

"The relative lack of adaptability of the University to the country has been coupled by a considerable adaptation of the country to the kind of social system that the University helped create... The end product, however, is not a 'modern' society or a 'western' society, but a colonial society externally dependent and internally rent by conflict and disequilibrium... Steeped in the Western tradition, the neo-colonial (elite) is, not surprisingly, a creditable intellectual replica of its mentors. In the political and economic context of Nigeria, however, the University became an island of privilege and a hotbed of ethnic and other political conflicts wrapped in the deceptively serene-looking shell of a palm-shaded Oxbridge. So far, the greatest discontinuity in Nigeria, and more broadly in tropical African history, has been the inception of European rule, not its formal political demise."⁷⁸

No matter the criteria used to judge the university's success for a national agenda, it seems futile to even entertain the notion that such an estranged affiliation is in keeping with societal objectives and the good of a nation's people. The University of Ibadan, in this way, serves as an example of a university established under colonial rule and embedded in foreign values.

2.9. A UNIVERSITY IN THE GAMBIAN CONTEXT

In a study submitted by Jean Hill to the department of urban and regional planning, Dalhousie University as a master's thesis, Gambian Compounds: Their Role, Significance and Influence on Planning sets out to find solutions for sensible, flexible and long-term ways of managing and providing for the demands of a growing population in The Gambia through traditional Gambian methods.

What emerges from this work of particular relevance is the evaluation criteria set out for assessing an area's potential for further development and planning initiatives. Four factors are utilized in her work and can be reasonably applied to other planning initiatives for physical development projects in The Gambia. These four criteria include: the availability of land, the existence of necessary infrastructure, population numbers and densities, and the environment. These four variables are put forward in her work as a means of measuring the degree of 'fit' or 'mis-fit' of a given area for development initiatives. While in her work these variables are used as a means of determining the fit or mis-fit of a particular planning unit, the compound; these same variables may be applied to other planning units as well, in this case university facilities.

In keeping with the findings of other physical planning initiatives throughout Africa, what emerges through Hill's work is that there is a fundamental need to ensure integration and cohesion of land uses and buildings to maintain the ideals and norms of the people involved in such endeavours. In this way, the process of planning is seen as a vital component to a project's success by its very ability to incite either conflict or support. For The Gambia in particular, this

⁷⁸ Ibid. P.268.

work reveals an inherent value system based on the communal sharing of land and the multiple uses of land plots which serve as the arena for a variety of social, cultural, religious and commercial activities that in turn function through the support of all members of society. Given the increasing scarcity of land and the increasing complexity of demands placed upon the land; the multiple use of plots and the sharing of infrastructural provisions are vital to goals of efficiency and integration with existing land functions. In this way, the planning unit, be it a domestic compound or a national university, is the direct and symbolic result of its use, while its maintenance and sustainability are the results of community support.

2.10. LESSONS LEARNED

Through these various examples we see a very distinct break between African universities established prior to 1960 under colonial rule and those established after 1960 when independence was largely achieved. In the case of the former colonially established institutions, we see that universities were positioned against the broader societal needs as foreign implants and in stark contrast to the needs of the nations' population. This is evident in the academic goals as well as in the physical layouts which have served to divide the universities from their surrounding environments. In the case of the latter, however, where universities were established by independent nations seeking to enhance national and African ideals, these universities have sought cohesion with development objectives both in curriculum as well as in physical form. The result of such cohesion has been the promotion of national ideals and the

creation of a prosperous and healthy university environment, supported by various community groups.

What emerges through this dichotomous portrayal of the colonial and post-colonial university is that the inherent ideologies upon which a university is established will be carried forward in its functions and lend to the ideals it serves to promote. The physical form which a university adopts will tremendously affect the perceptions of its users by creating the environment or setting in which these cognitions are played out. If the physical form that the university takes is perceived of as closed or merely at odds with the surrounding communities, then such perceptions will be maintained throughout daily life. The university is not only the concrete manifestation of those who have contributed to its creation and development, it is also a symbolic representation of the values embraced therein. If the university and thereby the physical form that the university takes are in keeping with regional values, beliefs and norms, as seen in the examples of post-colonial universities such as the University of Dar-es-Salaam in Tanzania and the University of Nigeria in Nigeria; then that university will serve to represent and promote those same ideals. As such, the full integration of all members of society at every stage of implementation is essential to the creation of a healthy and vibrant environment, whereby the continued adherence to the evolving needs and concerns will allow for the project's ability to adapt. This necessitates the full involvement of public participation and integration in the creation of a university as a national institution servicing the people of that region as a vehicle in the process of a nation's development.

Inversely, the examples of colonial universities which grew out of foreign interests, as seen in the illustrations of Makerere University in Uganda and the University of Ibadan in Nigeria, reveal the role of the university as juxtaposed against the interests of the nation's people, posited against societal values, needs and norms. In this way, the university emerged as a segregated and closed environment servicing only a privileged few. The resulting institutions were clearly to the detriment of the broader population through the creation of an environment of exclusion and segregation, antagonism and hostility.

In both cases, the university is an academic, physical and symbolic manifestation of those who contribute to its existence. The creation of a supportive environment is vital to the university's success as a national development project, and the full participation of all user groups is a determining factor in creating this support. As such, the full participation of all members of society is vital at every stage of the process given that it is all members of society being affected by the university's existence and will in turn determine its success. Seen as a vehicle in the development process of a nation and of the African region, then the needs of all members of that nation's society must contribute to its growth just as the university itself must contribute to the healthy development of the nation.

By definition, a university is conceived of here as that which constitutes its most fundamental objectives. These objectives, as they relate to the University of The Gambia, are twofold. On the one hand, a university is an academic institution which allows for the exchange and promotion of knowledge. In this sense, a university is a place of higher learning where the exchange of ideas

facilitates the extension of knowledge and allows for the pursuit of ideas and the dialectics of academic thought.

The second objective of the Gambian university is to promote community-based development that will adhere to the goals and aspirations of the nation as prioritized from within. Universities in Africa are a vital component of each nation's development and therefore must focus on the indigenous character of each country's own needs, priorities and values.⁷⁹ In the case of The Gambia, this involves the promotion of the nation's population as a whole, as well as fostering the articulated goals of the Gambian government as they relate to economic growth, international development, and social, political and cultural well being. Such goals can not be assessed strictly by quantitative short-term fiscal measures but must be conceived of in a manner to account for the nation's more long term qualitative needs and objectives. This implies the promotion of human resource development for the creation of viable employment skills and employment opportunities that the university will create. Furthermore, it involves sensitivity to the environment in which it is to be situated, in terms of the surrounding physical and human impacts. The needs of transportation, residence, and human exchange are all factors which must be accounted for within the planning criteria. If the university is ill situated, transportation problems, housing issues, a place to merely sit down and do one's course work could lead to the inability of the university's population of accessing the education to be provided. For these reasons, the issues of transportation and housing are important to the analysis. In addition, the commercial needs that a university

inevitably brings should be borne in a manner which might fully benefit individuals of The Gambia as local merchants, rather than working to the detriment of the Gambian people. This implies a rejection of the provision of such commercial needs through foreign invested housing and daily needs initiatives but calls instead for the provision of services by local area residents.

In sum, aside from being a place of academic learning, a university so defined is seen as a locus of human activity, acting as both a means and an end to development objectives. It provides for a multitude of social, cultural, political and economic direct and spin-off effects. It provides for social and political exchanges, and it serves to dramatically impact a nation's environment and landscape with far reaching implications. The precise shape that such an institution takes will, as such, significantly affect a multitude of aspects of the nation's future. As such, the underlying goal is the creation of a university which is academically and socially supported and sustainable and which serves to meet the needs of The Gambian people by acting as a vehicle in the development process.

⁷⁹ Yesufu, T.M. (1973).

CHAPTER 3

DERIVING TOOLS FOR A PLANNING MODEL

What emerges from the literature on the planning of universities and universities in Africa in particular, is that such institutions indeed have a long history in terms of their physical planning, but these histories are often overlooked. It becomes clear that what is needed in such endeavours is to be aware that a university is a long-term planning project and therefore must be mapped out with careful consideration of issues of sustainability. This implies the encouragement of full and meaningful communication and partnership with the university population, government officials, planners and architects, and the local communities.⁸⁰ It entails a comprehensive analysis of that particular university's academic goals, values, preferences and needs. It involves well informed decision-making based on the local site considerations of geology, topography, climate and existing natural resources. It must invoke the full support of community groups that will contribute to the life and vitality of the institution for years to come, co-operation among policies and planning departments, and it must account for necessary constraints on the land and existing infrastructure. In short, the process of planning a university requires participation, collaboration, realistic and incremental goals, cost efficiency and effectiveness, a clear view of what may be achieved at every step as well as a broad view of the long-term objectives. It must also be flexible and continually assessed, monitored and evaluated. This implies the commitment of dedicated personnel and continued

⁸⁰ Brammer, H. (1977); Chambers, R. (1981, 1983); Freeman, A.C. (1992); Hight, C. and Lincourt, J. (1996).

leadership, but it also involves careful consideration of certain key factors right from the onset and built-in adaptation mechanisms to accommodate changes which might arise throughout the university's ongoing development.

3.1. PRELIMINARY CONCERNS

In light of the literary deficiency on siting, or perhaps even because of it, this chapter serves to derive a more general model as a tool to facilitate the planning of tertiary institutes within the context of developing nations. More specifically, it is intended to facilitate in determining the most practical approach to site planning for the University of The Gambia. Another reason for deriving such a model for the use in the university physical planning process is that often in such endeavours, no matter how well-intended, various groups to be affected remain un-consulted. As such, the planning tools put forward in this chapter are intended to facilitate a participatory approach to the process of planning by making the technical planning mechanisms more easily communicable and therefore more widely accessible.

One aspect of assessing site feasibility that is not incorporated into the model presented here is that of the financial costs of site acquisition. As seen in chapter 2 through the work of the HECB in their study on site feasibility, the costs of acquiring appropriate land is indeed a major concern within the process of selecting sites for institutional or public buildings.⁸¹ The reason, however, that this consideration is not built into the present model is that the case of The Gambia provides the opportunity to avoid this financial hurdle. Through the

provision of existing infrastructure, the fiscal costs typically associated with the expropriation of land are avoided by the sheer nature of Gambian communal land sharing and perhaps more importantly through the existence of appropriate educational facilities available for the university's creation. As such, while the social costs of assessing each prospective site are factored into the model by way of assessments of public support; the financial considerations of land expropriation are overcome through the incremental approach already adopted by the UEP.

The purpose of this chapter is to assist planners, policy-makers and the general public in the decision-making process of planning for a university. Its aim is to facilitate the planning process through the consideration of variables for observing the degree of 'fit' or 'mis-fit' of the respective sites in relation to the needs of the university's creation. While it does not take the place of careful on-site investigations, it does serve as a tool to facilitate in such investigations. This implies a realization that for the planning a university in a developing country, often the hiring of a specialised consultancy team is not a viable option. Such consultancy services are expensive and the knowledge gained is most often founded upon foreign epistemologies pertaining to the university's role. Furthermore, outside consultants often have little hands-on knowledge of the area in question prior to the rendering of such consultancy services. Even when such consultancy teams are initially called upon, their work is often short lived, usually no more than several weeks. The model and its respective tools are therefore intended to facilitate the initial as well as the on-going analysis in an

⁸¹ HECB. (1993).

appropriate and flexible manner to ensure that certain basic criteria are being met.

The model is intended for use by all levels of society, from planners trained in such investigations to local concerned citizens. As such, it is void of overtly technical terminology, but instead is formatted in a way to be easily understood as well as general enough to be applicable to various settings with differing concerns. It is built around the view that the true 'experts' in planning are not those most apt in technical and formal training, but rather they are those most aware of the problems and workings of the particular areas under investigation. In this way, the model seeks to use these local knowledges. While recognizing the key role of planning in the process of establishing a university, the role of planner is relegated to that of facilitator for assisting in bringing out these local knowledges. The central concern here is not so much with the outcomes of planning, albeit these are essential; but rather, with the actual process itself involved in the planning. This implies assuring that the process itself is based upon the full cooperation of everyone concerned, which will inevitably lead to collaborative support, and therefore in turn will result in sustainable outcomes. In so doing, the model is comprised of primary and secondary considerations,⁸² which may be modified as the university evolves and consequently as needs change.

Ideally, whenever possible, this model should be applied in conjunction with informed decision-making. In order to facilitate this, a list of inputs is presented with the optimal criteria as well as some alternative options in the

absence of more precise data or other technical tools.¹ The ordering of input variables is intended to allow for greater comprehensibility and does not reflect any hierarchy of importance, nor does it reflect phases of implementation.

3.2. INITIAL INVESTIGATIONS

Before looking at the necessary input variables, it should be noted that some initial investigations of possible sites should be made beforehand. As seen in the literature, aspects of consideration within the initial investigation period include factors of site accessibility, compliance with land use policy objectives, compatibility of land uses, proximity to the service area population, and transit access. As well, some basic topographical and geological factors should be assessed. To this end, "the site evaluation criteria (should include) the development capacity or potential of the site with respect to soil conditions, flood plain determination, and wetlands protection."⁸³

Although most sites will presumably meet with complications respecting threshold capacity, innovative techniques do exist for dealing with such problems as they arise.⁸⁴ It is, however, still important to be forward-looking even at this initial stage and to keep in mind the site's potential for meeting the needs of a growing population as the university continue to develop and expand. This also means being sensitive to the fact that the university will in turn play a large role in

⁸² Also referred to by Dews, T. and Ragusa, S. (1990) as 'essential' and 'discretionary'.

¹ It will be remembered here that from the work of Alan Turner it was seen that the benefits of second-best solutions are too often discounted. In the absence of more precise and perhaps unobtainable ideal solutions, such second-best options are more than just make-shift compromises in that they can provide invaluable services and often lead to the most optimal of outcomes precisely because they are more comprehensive to all levels of society and derived at through collaboration and public support.

⁸³ HECB. (1993). P.26.

influencing that area's future growth. In this sense, it is important to bear in mind the overall objectives in physical form as directed by both academic and regional social concerns.

The physical structure of the university is accordingly and basically a facilitating framework for the distinctive human activity patterns relating to higher education. But, issues such as image and identity are ultimately measured in more fundamental terms; notably that of university policy and the contribution of that policy to the furtherance of the interest and well-being of society.⁸⁵

This, according to John Muller, Dean of the Faculty of Architecture, professor of town and regional planning and physical planning consultant at the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, South Africa, is what places the purpose of the university in perspective.

3.3. INFORMAL OBSERVATIONS

The initial process of selection involves walking around potential sites to get an idea of the benefits and downfalls that are easily noted through informal observation. It implies keeping a keen eye open to both positive and negative attributes of each respective site, while making note of these qualities for discussion at meetings at a later time. These notes should not be technical, but simply based on one's immediate perceptions as simply people traversing the site, very much like the intended university population will do. Too often, planners get so caught up in the technical elements of planning that they forget that the target population is comprised quite simply of ordinary people with the same travelling needs as anybody else. After all, if a certain area is perceived as

⁸⁴ Freeman, A.C. (1992).

either appealing or threatening in the initial observation period, chances are that these same qualities or drawbacks will only be heightened with time.

In so doing, it is often instrumental to carry a sketch book or sheets of paper and draw schematic maps or diagrams of the areas as they are perceived. These maps need not be detailed, nor do they require any kind of remarkable artistic skill. They are simply intended to convey an image or a certain feeling associated with that spot.⁸⁶ Sometimes even just the identification of landmarks or vistas⁸⁷ can provide a good indication of how an area or site is perceived. This tool is referred to in planning as cognitive mapping and is a very effective tool for informal observations. By having walking tours of prospective sites and then having participants draw up their own maps, much insight can be gained as to people's perceptions of the area which might otherwise have been overlooked through verbal discussions only. As social and cognitive beings, every individual has a sense of how they feel in different settings. These perceptions are not easily vocalised but nonetheless are a vital part of planning for a site's success and can be illustrated in a drawing somewhat easily. An example of such a cognitive or schematic map is given as Appendix F.

Another useful tool is simply to talk to local residents and people who frequent the areas, perhaps even occasionally. Those most capable of making

⁸⁵ Muller, J. (1985). *The expanded campus: integrating the elements*. P.13.

⁸⁶ Thumbnail sketches which serve to magnify a particular component within a sketch are a good means of illustration. For an example of this see Appendix E.

⁸⁷ A vista serves as a visual tool or a focal point for the eyes. These are sometimes planned for or often may result from no intentional means but simply by where the eyes will tend to focus. Examples might include the end of a long street lined with buildings, a break in the landscape or building fabric, or even a monument. The basic idea is that it serves as a visual guide and is often perceived of as an orientation point for the individual's sense of direction.

informed locational decisions are often those very people that spend time in these areas. All physical planning, regardless of how technical the planning tools may be, is essentially concerned, or at least should be, with providing the most pleasant environment possible for the intended users of the site. Regardless of other considerations, perhaps the most effective planning is that which is met with support and is appealing to its users. This simple but vital tool is often overlooked yet is imperative to any plan's success.

3.4. INPUTS

3.4.1. Primary considerations

3.4.1.1. **Accessibility** - This implies verifying that there are no major obstacles blocking entrance to the site, natural or man-made. Although seemingly evident, it involves making sure that there are no physical barriers such as waterways or imposing land contrasts or uncomfortable inclinations to deter entry to and from the site. Man-made barriers might include buildings or private property with which traffic flows and pedestrian movement might prove to be a source of conflict; imposing thoroughfares which could present safety hazards; and anything else which might impede the flow of pedestrian or vehicular traffic. This also implies ensuring that entry points are strategically placed to facilitate all means of travel; be it motorized, pedestrian or bicycle, as well as positioning access-ways to support the natural flows of movement.

Optimal evaluations of site accessibility should include first-hand observations of pedestrian flows to determine the best possible pedestrian paths. Such an analysis is inexpensive yet involves a lengthy process of observing

people's behaviours such as shortcuts and the directions of travel flows. It is an effective and cost-efficient means of determining optimal entry points and circulation paths as well as allowing for the identification of possible problem areas.⁸⁸ This method of observation can be done by video camera(s) where available, positioned at strategic points, or simply by standing back and observing. While the video camera method is perhaps attractive for its convenience, first-hand observation is less expensive and does not entail technical equipment which may not be readily available. It is also more accurate and qualitatively more informative.

3.4.1.1.a. Observing Pedestrian Flows

There are two complimentary methods of first-hand pedestrian flow observation and both should be employed to ensure informed observations. Both methods are important and should be used in combination, since the observations of each reveal somewhat different findings, although perhaps similar in nature. The first method involves positioning oneself in a strategic location, such as an intersection, and observing either vehicular or pedestrian counts. For illustrative purposes we will invoke the example of pedestrian flows, although the methodology is the same in both instances. Once the observer has chosen a precise spot which has revealed multi-directional movements, the task involves standing back and counting the number of people that pass by some

⁸⁸ This type of analysis, referred to as the squatter method (Hight and Lincourt, 1996), is a conventional tool used by planners for observing circulation movements and unsafe travel points. It is a method of analysis that has been employed by this author in several planning projects including an alternative land use study in Paris, France as well as in an appraisal of a commercial planning project in Parc Extension, Quebec. It has proven quite effective and provided for detailed observations.

predetermined point. In other words, it involves drawing an imaginary line on the sidewalk, grass, or gravel; and jotting down a marker for every person that crosses that line from each of the four directions. It can be done simply by dividing a sheet of paper into four, representing north, south, west, and east; and writing down in the respective boxes each time the line is traversed from that direction (Appendix G). It is best done in five minute intervals, five minutes recording followed by five minutes of rest, to ensure that the exercise does not become too taxing. This process should be done for twenty to twenty-five consecutive minutes of five minutes on and five minutes off several times throughout the day to allow for observing different patterns at various times of day. These twenty to twenty-five minute exercises should be timed to include high traffic periods as people make their way to and from work; lunch or other work breaks; as well as low volume periods when traffic is least congested. This process should also be repeated over several days to observe different days of the week such as week days, week-ends and perhaps holidays. Although the duration of this process should be decided upon by those involved in the data collection and aware of customary travel behaviours, a period of two weeks is usually deemed sufficient.

This planning tool will allow for determining travel directions, traffic densities, and heavy transit times. Findings may then be deployed to facilitate compatibility between the university's projected travel flows and those of the surrounding area. It allows for the determining of possible problem areas *a priori* so that conflicts may be avoided; either by avoiding certain key spots or through

strategic scheduling. It will also facilitate the strategic placement of access points.

A second means of pedestrian observation involves the delineation of that area's 'zone of influence'.⁸⁹ In this method, a walking tour of the area is first employed to observe points where the cognitive boundaries of the site's wider area are perceived to exist. Such cut off points are somewhat arbitrary and will differ from one area to the next. However, the process of delineation involves seeing where travel habits are consistent with those in closer proximity to the selected site. These cut-off points might include transit nodes such as bus depots or subway stations, shopping areas, commercial or industrial sites, or areas of major residence. Essentially, the zone of influence usually extends to areas of pedestrian travel origin. The precise distances and cut-off points are not in themselves terribly important, the main thing is to have a visual conception of the area being investigated.

Once the area has been designated and the cognitive map has been defined, the process involves walking at a brisk yet comfortable pace around the area so defined. In other words, after first drawing out the map on a sheet of paper, suggested for means of re-iteration and explanation at meetings at later times, the participant should then traverse the path as outlined in the map all the while counting the number of persons passed along the way from the point of departure until their return to that same starting point. The area should be wide enough to provide a comprehensive picture of movement, yet small enough so that it may be traversed in a matter of perhaps no more than fifteen minutes for

an area of high congestion. Once the tour has been completed, the number of people passed should be recorded. As with the first method, this process should again be repeated at several intervals throughout the day and on different days of the week to determine pedestrian flow densities. This method of analysis allows for the identification of high travel timely intervals as well as to define where people are most likely to walk. Planners often make the assumption that people will necessarily follow the paths designated for their use. However, it has often been revealed that people's travel behaviours do not always follow the paths for which travel was intended. By utilising this knowledge, more realistic paths can be planned from actual observation rather than through reliance upon idealised notions formulated by outside 'expertise'. Such complimentary consolidation between planning and actual use will allow for compatibility of uses, will promote safety, and will enable the organisation of scheduling so as to avoid potential conflicts.

Both these approaches should be employed at the initial stages in the planning process, as well as in follow up evaluations in the ongoing life of the university to allow for appraisals and modifications when need be.

3.4.1.1.b. Observing Vehicular Flows

In the case of vehicular traffic, modifications are not always as easily achieved as in the case of pedestrian flows. However, this need not deter problem-solving, merely it implies the use of innovative and informed planning options. Once potential problem areas have been defined, such as congested

⁸⁹ An area where certain consistency in patterns is observed.

areas or intersections, several options are available to enhance safety and deter conflict. Some very effective yet somewhat costly measures include the widening of sidewalks, the addition of turning lanes to allow for a freer flow of traffic, street lights to facilitate expediency at traffic junctures, and the strategic positioning of parking spaces. While these options are highly effective, there are others that can be just as efficient and yet do not require major renovations to the existing infrastructure nor large investments of capital.

For instance, instead of providing traffic lights, stop signs can yield the same desired results. Sometimes the widening of sidewalks for pedestrian crossings will not be viable, perhaps because of a lack of money or even the absence of sidewalks. In such cases, where pedestrian-vehicular intersections are seen as potentially problematic, a pedestrian-crossing sign or other marking for indicating crossing areas can serve to slow down automobiles and thereby reduce the threat of accidents. When land is deemed too scarce or expensive to be devoted to on-site parking, then land in neighbouring areas can be employed to allow motorists to traverse the remainder of the distance by foot or even by some alternative mode of transport not requiring large plots of land. Such alternative transport might include shuttle buses or taxis, rickshaws or bicycles equipped to carry passengers for those unable to travel the remaining distance by foot. The provision of bicycle stands or even just clearly defined pedestrian paths can also often be enough to encourage alternative modes of travel. Or, when appropriate and available, the extension of an existing bus route and addition of a bus stop close by, can lead to the same results. Scheduling of

classes can also facilitate the compatibility of traffic flows by scheduling classes at times of either high or low travel, depending on the intended results.

3.4.1.1.c. Assessing Regional Travel Capacities

Promoting accessibility on a wider scale involves knowledge of the broader area and where the university population is likely to be coming from. Where such planning tools are readily available, this might imply the use of statistical data such as government tabulations based on demographic criteria of target age, educational attainment, household size, and residential areas. Depending on the region and government methods of data collection, such statistics may be compiled by municipality or community, postal codes where applicable, streets, electoral districts, or employment figures. Other means of obtaining this data may include social clubs or other group affiliations, community groups, religious centres, or neighbourhood membership. In the absence of such neatly compiled data or perhaps even when the accuracy of such sources is questionable, a visit to the various neighbourhoods can provide a good indication of the inhabitants. If a road map is available, then it is often useful in estimating the approximate traffic capacities to differentiate between types of roads and their respective carrying capacities. Although this is not a vital step in the planning process, it is nonetheless a useful way of obtaining more information and can often be done simply by calling upon the intimate knowledge of those participants in the planning process who are familiar with the areas. The exercise itself can be done by tracing the roads in different colours to represent variations in carrying capacity. One method of so doing is as follows:

- primary distributor roads - that carry long distance through traffic for a large area or perhaps even the region, and hence have the highest capacity threshold;
- district distributor roads - which also carry through-traffic but serve as a link between main districts of the same area or town;
- local distributor roads - which serve as a link for local traffic; and
- access roads - which provide direct access to buildings or sites and hence carry the lowest volumes of traffic.⁹⁰

Once the above indicators are made clear, the drawing of concentric circles on an area-wide map will facilitate the breaking down of major points of origin. Bearing in mind any major barriers to travel, such as river ways, forests, aqueducts or anything else which serves as a break in the landscape; the circles should be drawn to determine areas of necessary travel modes by way of distance. The use of concentric circles⁹¹ allows the observer to determine the radius in which commuters will be most likely to walk, say for example from within a thirty minute walking distance; and for further areas, which traffic routes are most likely to become increasingly congested with the establishment of a university.

⁹⁰ Bentley, I. *et al.* (1985). *Responsive environments: a manual for designers*. P.16.

⁹¹ Concentric or circular zones have been accredited to the economic model put forward by Burgess, that of 'concentric zones' in his analysis of the relationship between urban spatial and class structures in Chicago, as well as to the German economist Von Thunen who used this notion of concentric circles in his vision of the ideal city, as invoked in the planning of the Irvine campus in California (Adams, C. 1995-96).

3.4.1.2. Population Densities

This relates largely to the above criteria of accessibility in terms of target populations, but it involves more in-depth analysis into population distributions on a wider scale. The first step involves knowing whether the university is intended as a local institution, a city-wide, national, or even regional facility. In the case of the national university, it is assumed that people will be attending from various parts of the country. As such, the physical planning should account for where the largest numbers of people⁹² will likely be travelling from. Again it involves statistical analyses but this time with more attention to the overall demographic make-up as an indication of possible university population numbers.

3.4.1.3. Infrastructure

Central to this element is the need to account for local scarcity of land and capital. On the one hand, the university should be planned in the most sustainable possible way; but at the same time, plans need to be realistic about what can and cannot be achieved. In countries where the objective is to build up certain key areas targeted for growth, then newly constructed buildings and new nodal points of activity might be a desired end in itself. However, for areas where densities are already high and land already filled to capacity, then planning initiatives must take these factors into account. Through human agglomeration, economic spin-off effects, and the multiplier process; a university can be a very effective way of enhancing an area's growth. However, for reasons of fiscal

⁹² This includes students, faculty, staff, entrepreneurs, and facility users such as community members.

restraints and land use policies, often the best approach is to utilize existing buildings and already developed plots of land. This will depend on the local situation and should be followed by an in-depth assessment of the region's particular needs and objectives as well as with the university's own visions for the future.

3.4.1.4. Availability of land

Not only is this an important element in the initial planning process of a university, it is also important to the long-term planning considerations such as the possible need to expand as the university increases in enrolment. Some possible alternatives were seen in chapter 2 such as those of joint university-community ventures on public or private land, or of intensifying the use of existing facilities. Such considerations do not require the availability of large plots of unused land. The expropriation of land perceived to be unused or underused would not only deter compatibility of land uses and public support, it is also quite unfeasible in most developing countries where urban land is already extremely scarce. The availability of land as a site consideration does, however, require looking ahead to possible options down the road. These might include the incorporation of a neighbouring or other accessible site, allowing for the natural expansion of the university, or when possible the preservation of open space which might support eventual university growth.

3.4.1.5. Environment

This relates to consideration of on-site factors such as the appropriate use of land. The aim here is to avoid unnecessary detrimental effects such as building on arable land which might be more appropriately designated for agricultural use; consideration of topographical qualities and their level of 'fit' with the intended land use, in this case the university; awareness of neighbouring sites and possible noise and air pollutants from both within and off the site;⁹³ as well as the existence of natural resources for preservation or even for academic purposes of studying plant and wild life, or simply as recreational spots.

3.4.2. Secondary Needs

Considerations for the selection of possible sites which are deemed important to the planning of a university but are considered secondary to those discussed above include but are not limited to: the adequate provision of classroom space, institutional space, auxiliary service provision, technical support, library resources, and informal meeting spaces. While these aspects are important to the success of a given site, they are relegated to secondary consideration either because they may be worked into the physical layout

⁹³ This is referred to as the good neighbour policy and it involves the compatibility of neighbouring land uses.

incrementally or after the site has been chosen, or because they may be added on at a later time and therefore are not the motivational factors for initial consideration within the selection process. This is not to say that they are not important, but rather that they are aspects which may be worked into a selected site if they are given consideration throughout implementation, even though they are not inherently deterministic in the selection of a successful site.

3.5. CONSTRUCTING THE MODEL

With all the aforementioned considerations in mind, the emergent model for criteria evaluation is as follows:

Figure 1: Planning Matrix

	Site 1	Site 2	Site 3
Primary Considerations:			
Accessibility			
Population Densities			
Infrastructure			
Availability of Land			
Environment			
Secondary Considerations:			
Classroom Space			
Institutional Space			
Auxiliary Service Provision			
Technical Support			
Library Resources			
Informal meeting spaces			
1 = very good 2 = fair 3 = adequate 4 = poor 5 = completely inadequate			

The above table is an example of how to determine the level of 'fit' for each prospective site and should be adapted to the particular needs of the university and its selection of possible sites. The secondary needs will differ

depending on the objectives of the university itself, as well as those of the surrounding communities.

CHAPTER 4

COUNTRY ASSESSMENT

4.1. NATIONAL PLANNING

In determining how best to plan for a university, it is necessary to first of all assess such a project as a national development initiative. In other words, it is important to establish the development objectives which the planning of such an institution is to fulfil. As such, this chapter is intended to highlight the concerns facing the Gambian nation and its developmental objectives.

From 1965, when The Gambia gained independence from the United Kingdom, until 1994; the country was led by Sir Dawda Jawara, as head of the People's Progressive Party (PPP). These thirty years were characterized by economic stagnation, political lethargy, and increased poverty as the nation was thrown into a period of social collapse and infrastructure decay.⁹⁴ In 1994, following the peaceful overthrow of the PPP, the Armed Forces Provisional Ruling Council (AFPRC) headed by Yahya A.J.J. Jammeh came into power and would lead the Gambia through a transition period which subsequently served as the basis for the creation of the second Republic under the leadership of Jammeh and the National Consultative Committee (NCC). "The goal of these officers was to establish a responsive, responsible government which would provide effective leadership and stimulate the development of the Gambia."⁹⁵

The culmination of these new, forward-looking strategies of economic growth and development came in the form of The Gambia's Vision 2020. What

⁹⁴ URL: Gambian official homepage.

⁹⁵ Ibid.

emerges from this statement is the hope that the nation would be propelled into the twenty-first century under a truly democratic rule whereby social development could flourish and infrastructure would would successfully overcome the thirty year period of decay. The results of this were the launching of multi-million dollar projects aimed at renewing the Gambian economy and infrastructure in partnership with other nations and multilateral agencies such as the World Bank.

So we see that the notion of creating the nation's first ever university came with an ideology that sought international linkages, partnership with country's across the globe, and visions of economic growth. This was to be achieved through increased foreign investment, a widening economic base, and goals of overall social development for all members of Gambian society. The economic goals of The Gambia as envisioned by the NCC are today being realised through state-led planning and an open-door policy from which to propel an international profile. The development objectives are also mindful of the environmental planning policy objectives of preserving and improving the nation's overall environmental quality in an attempt to reverse or at least slow down the process of rapid and extreme environmental degradation outlined in the Physical Planning and Development Control Act of 1991.⁹⁶

Such goals can be seen from a theoretical standpoint to reside within the framework of a European Structuralist vision of growth and modernization. Accepting this as the theoretical heritage of such development initiatives, it is possible to reveal the many layers of ideological thought and assess such an initiative from a theoretical standpoint within the development paradigm. In an

attempt to break out of a downward spiral of poverty, or a self-perpetuating poverty cycle, as the nation had begun under Jawara's Progressive Political Party; the Republic of The Gambia has adopted strategies of integration into the international economy. Recognizing that the nation is quite small and remains largely insignificant to world trade in terms of geographic location and land mass it therefore has little comparative advantage in terms of natural resources. With a population of approximately 1,200,000,⁹⁷ it is deemed vital that the Gambian nation develop its human resource base. The creation of a university will not only provide for a trained labour force and, hence, skilled professionals capable of contributing to the nation's development, but will also serve as a major source of employment through teaching, research, and spin-off opportunities for a nation where employment opportunities are currently quite limited.

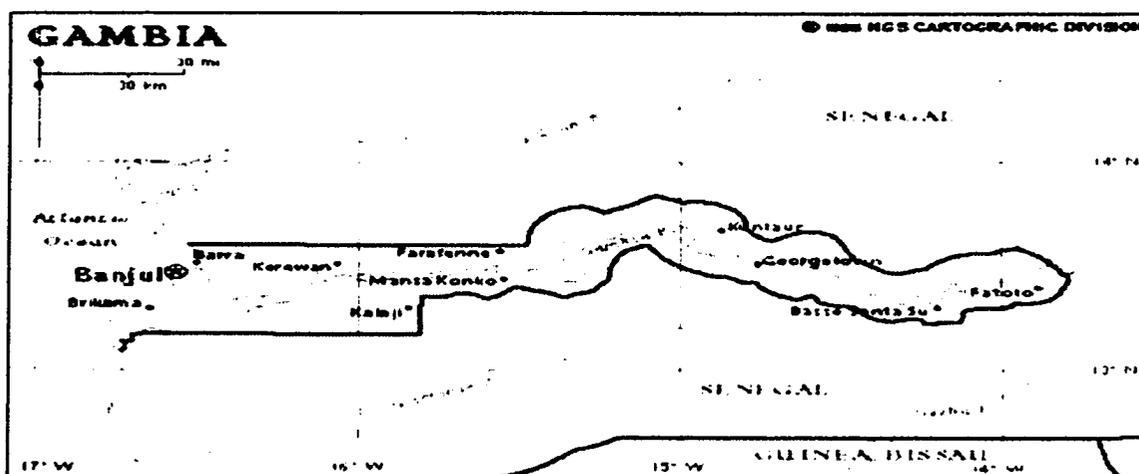
4.2. COUNTRY ASSESSMENT

The Gambia, the smallest country on the continent of Africa and one of the smallest countries in the world, spans a land area of 11,295 sq. km.⁹⁸ and has a population of approximately 1.5 million. Situated in West Africa, The Gambia is bordered by the North Atlantic Ocean and exists almost as a geographical enclave of Senegal, as seen in the map below.

⁹⁶ Part II, section 11, sub-section 2 as referred to by Jean Hill (1997), p.75.

⁹⁷ Ibid.

⁹⁸ Hill, Jean. (1997). P.1.



According to a report put out by the Central Statistics Department of The Gambia entitled *State of The Gambian Children and Women* in November of 1995 by UNICEF, the urban proportion of Gambian population had jumped from 22.8% in 1973 to 37.1% in 1993, an increase of 14.3% in only two decades. In the same time period, the ratio of persons per household had also shown a marked increase of 0.6 from the 1973 figure of 8.3; of which the number of persons per household was lower in the areas of Banjul and Kanifiing.

In recent years, the Greater Banjul Area (GBA) has seen a marked shift in density ratios as the population from within the capital city of Banjul continues to move towards the urban fringes. A breakdown of population numbers and density ratios per Local Government Area (LGA) is listed as Appendix H, revealing the highest densities in Banjul and Kanifiing, with ratios of 3,461 per sq. km and 3,021 respectively.⁹⁹ Given that these are the same areas in which persons per household was found to be low, such density ratios appear all the

⁹⁹ Central Statistics Department. *State of the environment report - The Gambia, 1997.*

more remarkable and further illustrate the process of urbanization taking place in The Gambia.

In an increasingly urbanized land, the number of foreign migrants into the country has been steadily growing to about 20-30,000 foreign nationals per year.¹⁰⁰ Thus accounting for an estimated 70% of the annual growth for the Greater Banjul Area.¹⁰¹ According to the 1993 Household Economic Survey Report, approximately 33% of the rural population were said to be residing in urban households. Still, international in-migration, accounting for about 14 per cent of the total population and about 1.2% of the nation's annual population growth, is said to be one of the most influential factors contributing to population growth.¹⁰² Thus with an annual growth rate of 4.1% in 1997 and 4.2% in 1998, the Gambian nation is faced with the dilemma of how to deal with an increasing population and the demands therein, while seeking to retain its traditional and cultural character.

4.2.1. Planning in The Gambia

It has been noted that until recently, there has been an absence of appropriate and functional legislation as well as the dedication of human resources allotted to the preparation and implementation of plans with regards to land use and urban planning.¹⁰³ In a country that is increasingly urban with

¹⁰⁰ Hill, Jean. (1997). P.5.

¹⁰¹ Ibid.

¹⁰² State of the environment report. (1997). P.14.

¹⁰³ The National Environmental Agency (1997). P.109.

existing infrastructure in urban areas increasingly stressed,¹⁰⁴ this has led the government and various planning bodies to recognize the need for accurate and up-to-date information pertaining to the state of urban development. It has also led to increased coordination planning efforts, as well as recognition of the need for effective public participation in the planning process.¹⁰⁵

4.2.2. Legislation and Land Tenure

At present, two types of land tenure are affecting the nature of urbanization in The Gambia. These are the Lands (Provinces) Act which reflects the customary communal tradition of land tenure, and the Lands (Banjul and Kombo St. Mary) Act which is subject to government control.¹⁰⁶ In addition to these, there is also a third type of land assignment called 'freehold' which refers to the land which had been given to individuals during times of colonial rule. In an effort to re-organize land tenureship and thereby provide for a more cohesive means of regulating land, the State Lands Act was enacted in 1991 in an effort to consolidate and systematize methods of land acquisition. According to the State Lands Act, areas are designated by the Ministry of Local Government and Lands as State Land areas and fall under the direction of Land Administration Boards.¹⁰⁷ Since the enactment of the State Lands Act in 1991, people holding customary tenure of year to year leases now must apply to the Boards for a ninety-nine year lease. Although this simplifies matters relating to planning

¹⁰⁴ especially within the capital city of Banjul, which has led to the relocation of individuals and government officials and practitioners beyond the city limits to the outlying areas of the GBA.

¹⁰⁵ National Environmental Agency. (1997).

¹⁰⁶ Hill, Jean. (1997). P.41.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid. p.43.

necessary public infrastructure such as water systems, transportation networks, and sanitation, as well as facilitating the settling of potential land disputes; the power of acquisition ultimately rests in the hands of the government.

While certain benefits are surely gained by this sort of systematization, it nonetheless does pose an eminent danger of corruption or misappropriation of funds if the proper mechanisms for ensuring accountability and equity are not put into place. As such, it seems reasonable to expect that such policies must be directed towards Gambian objectives and the good of its citizenry, with the proper mechanisms for ensuring transparency and accountability. In the face of increased growth and rising land scarcity, the government must also recognize and react accordingly to the inevitable political favouring of certain key areas as the nation's development objectives are realized and the envisaged university facilities lead to the increased demand for housing and services in close proximity to these key areas. This implies not only making sure that adequate services are provided to these key areas, but it also entails ensuring that other areas do not become impoverished or neglected as a result.

4.2.3. Housing

The nature of housing in The Gambia reflects the traditional and cultural values and norms of the Gambian people. The traditional collective approach to housing originated in the rural areas and remains the predominant form of residence throughout the nation. The 'compound', a term derived from the Malay word 'Kampung' referring to a village, collection or gathering; reflects an area enclosed or partially enclosed by walls and including one-storey housing

structures, open and enclosed private space, as well as public or communal space.¹⁰⁸ The compound is said to play a significant role in the daily lives of Gambian people. This is because it serves not only as a place of residence for the extended family; but also as a meeting place for ceremonial, religious, community and social functions and events. While several types of compounds do exist, for the purposes of this study suffice it to say that a compound can range from 250m² to 1900m² and typically houses several families. This type of living arrangement has proven not only useful for the cultural and social needs of Gambian people, but by using indigenous materials in their construction, have proven quite practical and affordable at the same time. Compounds, in addition to providing for the reproductive needs of family life, also allow for the reproduction of societal norms and often even some small-scale food production for domestic use.

4.2.4. Urban Compounds

Within the urban areas of the country, compounds have become increasingly commercialized as families have turned towards renting out rooms as a means of supplementing household incomes. This is an interesting concept for the study at hand because according to Gambian custom, land is communal, based upon membership to the community. It is the village chief, or 'alkalo', who has traditionally overseen the leasing out of land in the case of strangers seeking housing within the village. Despite the fact that urban compounds are increasingly being utilized for meeting the housing need of a transient population,

¹⁰⁸ Hill, Jean. (1997). P.6.

their instrumentality and importance in the cultural and social life of Gambian citizens remain very strong.

What is interesting here is that the compound strongly reflects West African and Gambian ideals and societal norms and allows for the smooth functioning of day-to-day contacts which, according to custom, require face-to-face and hand-to-hand interactions.¹⁰⁹ While such living arrangements should be maintained, it is important to realize their worth as not only a possible solution to the housing needs of individuals seeking an abode in one area or another, but also as a source of income for the families which occupy these plots.

Compounds provide not only a social service through meeting family and community needs, they also serve as a place of employment as individuals often set up small businesses within the compound grounds. Furthermore, compounds provide for security and privacy, as well as the sharing of space which in turn allows for personal interactions. Their preservation and maximum utilization will indeed be a challenge to the people of The Gambia and their government as the population continues to grow. This challenge must be kept in mind right from the onset in the planning of development projects such as the one being envisioned in this thesis.

4.3. GAMBIAN TERTIARY LEVEL EDUCATION NEEDS ASSESSMENT

In 1991, a Commonwealth Consultancy Team was drawn up by the Gambian government for the purposes of examining and assessing the immediate and long-term Gambian tertiary education needs. The consultancy

team was also asked to recommend practical options for developing and improving tertiary level educational provision.¹¹⁰ Out of this report came the justification for pursuing the creation of a university institution in The Gambia, as well as several recommendations on how this should be done. The report also served as the impetus for other works of this nature, inevitably providing the rationale for the government's collaboration in a joint project with Saint Mary's University, the UEP, as the first step in the creation of a University of The Gambia.

Among other things, the Consultancy team found that The Gambia offered a context of political stability and democracy. It revealed an economy dominated by agriculture and re-export trade, tourism and foreign aid; where debt-servicing was about 40% of public expenditure, and unemployment and underemployment were becoming problems of increasing concern.

In terms of the existing tertiary education provision at the time of its publication in 1992, the report showed that The Gambia had a "record of considerable achievement in developing its post-secondary education provision in the last decade... (and had already) taken some basic steps at creating a coordinated system".¹¹¹ Despite the major steps taken in its development, it was felt that "(t)he overall cost-effectiveness of (tertiary education) provision would be improved if there was more sharing of resources and avoidance of duplication within the system".¹¹² Also recommended was the "exploitation of possibilities for

¹⁰⁹ Ibid. p.23.

¹¹⁰ Commonwealth Consultancy Team, 1992. P.xiii.

¹¹¹ Ibid. P.xiv.

¹¹² Ibid. p.xiv

partnership"¹¹³ with other institutions. What was said to be lacking in the Gambian provision of higher education was an apex institution to provide for intellectual leadership and a focus on the country's development as a basis for scholarly work in an otherwise largely vocational educational system.

4.3.1. Existing Facilities

Among the existing provision are two principal tertiary level institutions, Gambia College with sites in Brikama and Banjul and GTTI in Kanifing; as well as three other post-secondary institutes, namely, MDI in Kanifing, the Gambia Hotel School and the Rural Development Institute at Mansakonko. Although looked at more in-depth in the following chapter, three of the institutions mentioned above appear most applicable as facilities for the physical setting of the university. These three are MDI, GTTI, and Gambia College. However, all institutions play an important role in the academic component of the nation's tertiary education system.

4.3.2. Educational Goals

According to a report by the National Commission for the Establishment of the University of The Gambia; April 1997:

The University of The Gambia will provide relevant, sustainable and high quality tertiary education and research in support of socio-economic, scientific and technical advance and development. It will be a centre of excellence which will accommodate national, regional and international requirements... The University will utilize the concept of incremental improvement to maintain high standards, (thereby empowering students with the opportunity to fulfill national

¹¹³ Ibid.

needs) and to provide students with the facility to realize their full potential, both personally and in employment.¹¹⁴

Within this same report, the guiding principles for the National Education Policy & Systems of 1988-2003 are as follows:

1. The Gambia will strive to provide educational opportunities for all its citizens,
2. Education must be closely related to the actual life and working circumstances of Gambians,
3. The aims and objectives of the policy must be in harmony with the overall national development aims,
4. The education system must instill national self reliance, good citizenship, dignity of labour and social responsibility,
5. The education policy will be implemented in a sustainable, adaptable and realistic manner,
6. Educational programmes and activities will be decentralized and properly coordinated to ensure effective dialogue and community participation in actions and choices.¹¹⁵

It will be remembered here that these principles were conceived of under the auspices of a national mission statement, noted in chapter 1, that seeks to promote a "well educated, trained, skilled, self-reliant and enterprising population"¹¹⁶ for realizing its goals.

¹¹⁴ National Commission for the Establishment of the University of The Gambia; April 1997. Pp.8-9.

¹¹⁵ Ibid. Pp.26-27.

¹¹⁶ The Gambia Inc.....Vision 2020; National Mission Statement. May, 1996.

In 1992, it was estimated that approximately 700 Gambian tertiary level students were thought to be studying abroad.¹¹⁷ Given the harsh economic conditions facing a country as small in size and indistinct in terms of natural resources, these estimated 700 students abroad represent a fortunate few able to obtain a university degree. These same students, however, have proven unlikely to return to The Gambia, given the scarcity of employment opportunity when compared with prospects abroad. This dilemma is further compounded with the realisation that the population of The Gambia will likely continue to increase, especially in the urban areas of the country. Added to this is the dichotomous character of the existing Gambian workforce, outlined by the World Bank in 1990 as follows:

there are great variations in terms of occupational capability within the existing workforce. At the lower levels older workers frequently have little formal education, can often be functionally illiterate, can only absorb limited amounts of training, yet have some degree of practical capability due to their long years of service. At the upper occupational levels, younger educated workers are gradually filling managerial positions for which they have a good degree of theoretical background, but for which they lack sufficient experience.¹¹⁸

These factors are culminated in the realisation that there is a dire need for The Gambia to develop cost effective strategies for maximum technical/vocational manpower development,¹¹⁹ while providing for an apex institution to enable intellectual leadership and a focus on national objectives in scholarly works.

¹¹⁷ Commonwealth Consultancy Team, 1992.

¹¹⁸ Ibid. P.20.

¹¹⁹ Commonwealth Consultancy Team, 1992. p.28.

4.4. THE EMERGING UNIVERSITY FORM

Given that the fiscal resources of the nation are restricted by a somewhat meagre economic base, it seems only feasible that the approach taken in the creation of the university be one that is most cost effective and maximizes the utility of the existing provision of facilities and infrastructure. Furthermore, the adoption of an entirely new university setting which would require students to take up residence within a designated student village, would not only lead to unnecessary and undesirable costs on the part of the government, but would require the acquisition of a vast plot of land and would imply an inherent elitism in the student population, as most Gambian students would be unable to afford these costs. Besides the economic reasons for not creating a new residential university, are the cultural and social reasons for retaining the existing housing provisions of the intended student population.

From the discussion above on the traditional and still dominant compound living arrangements, it will be recalled that such a residential form met not only the housing needs of the population, but the social and cultural needs as well. It may therefore be deduced that the presence of each member of the compound is in some way instrumental to the overall functioning of the lot. Also, it is here that values and norms are passed on from one member to the other. Furthermore, the highly vocational character of the education system in The Gambia reveals the fundamental reason for pursuing an education, namely, to increase the likelihood of more profitable employability. From this it can be presumed that the underlying goals of university students is to assist in the betterment of their families quality of life. Clearly, a university promoting internal cohesion amongst

its population at the expense of ties with the larger community is not only undesirable, but entirely contradicts these objectives. For the most part, students tend to hold outside jobs throughout the duration of their studies or even when this is not the case, their contributions to the household are still considerable. Whether married or not, male or female, the presence of students in the household is likely a vital asset to the family, as a source of income and assistance in family life.

It will also be recalled that two approaches to the university setting were outlined in chapter 2. On the one hand, a university community which fosters internal linkages set apart from the external community was put forward. The second approach put forward a model promoting regional linkages and cohesion and partnership with the society at large. The former, an approach adopted by numerous universities in Africa, reminiscent of colonial university ideals, requires a sizeable plot of land dedicated entirely to university functions. It also seeks to shut out the communities which exist beyond its walls fostering autonomy in every sense. For reasons of vocational pursuits, communication with businesses and other institutions are hereby deemed necessary to the University of The Gambia. For the purposes of promoting national objectives, these said ties are further reinforced, and through familial, cultural and societal obligations, such ties are indeed solidified.

For all these reasons, the approach being adopted here is that of an outward-looking, open university environment, where the communities of the university and the wider society are in fact one and the same. Because of the increasing scarcity of land and the desire to preserve the indigenous form of

habitation and land use, the university facilities must be conceived of in a manner which will maximize their utility to all Gambian people, while seeking to minimize costs. As such, the discussion now turns to an in-depth look at the existing tertiary level educational facilities for what these may contribute to the new university.

4.5. THE PLANNING FOR A UNIVERSITY OF THE GAMBIA

In response to the perceived needs of their existing post-secondary educational system; the Gambian government, in 1995, began a partnership with Saint Mary's University in Halifax, Nova Scotia, Canada as the first step towards establishing a Gambian university. With the primary aim of the project being to act as an interim solution to short-term employment needs in the establishment of an internationally recognized university degree program, the University Extension Programme has continued to flourish with a current student population of approximately 250.¹²⁰ Central to this project has been the facilitation of change which will lay the foundations for a Gambian University. As such, particular project activities have focused on policy formation, fostering partnerships, providing short-term technical skills, and the laying of structural foundations for administration and management. Within the administration of this project, it is outlined that of great importance is that priorities and administrative and governing functions remain in keeping with Gambian national objectives and internal mechanisms for its creation and maintenance. Of the goals put forward

¹²⁰ International Activities, Saint Mary's University. (199?). Capacity building for higher education in The Gambia. Attachment A: project plan. UPCD Project #098/S47074-137.

in the project plan, the UPCD Project put forward by CIDA, entitled Capacity Building for Higher Education in The Gambia, states the following:

It is vital that the tertiary-level education system in The Gambia be developed strategically and rationalized to ensure quality and non-duplication of services, and to take account of the experience of other countries. The Gambian model will incorporate principles of sustainability, operation at affordable cost, and credibility.¹²¹

In pursuing the latter of these goals, the curriculum and evaluation process has been put into place through a five year partnership with Saint Mary's University and the Gambian government in which degrees are issued based on the same evaluative criteria as that of Saint Mary's University itself.

Based on the studies done both within The Gambia and abroad, three existing institutions emerge as a solid base for the physical establishment of the University of The Gambia; these are the Gambia College, MDI, and GTTI.¹²² In the following chapter, the model constructed in chapter three will be applied to each of these three institutions.

¹²¹ Project Plan.

¹²² Commonwealth Consultancy Team, 1992; Myers, Douglas, 1995; National Commission, 1997; International Activities, 1997.

CHAPTER 5

APPLYING THE MODEL TO THE UNIVERSITY OF THE GAMBIA

It will be recalled that the criteria for measuring the degree of 'fit' of a planning unit, in this case the existing tertiary level educational facilities, included five main variables: availability of land, appropriateness of the immediate environment, infrastructure, population numbers and densities, and accessibility.¹²³ Although these variables are of central concern to the creation of a university, the discussion surrounding both the primary and secondary variables was kept somewhat brief because this model is based upon a participatory approach to development in keeping with an alternative development paradigm. As such, it is the people of the Gambia themselves who must be called upon to define the primary and secondary needs as they know them to be. "In the final assessment, the primary component and principal integrating element of the university system are the people who constitute its community."¹²⁴ With this in mind, each of the three most appropriate existing facilities will now be looked at in turn.

5.1. QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSES

As a means of assessing the findings put forth in the literature surrounding the creation of a university in The Gambia such as those by the Commonwealth Consultancy Team and Douglas Myers; a questionnaire was distributed in December of 1998 to thirty-three Nova Scotia university professors who had

¹²³ Derived in consultation with Jean Hill, NSGA and graduate of Dalhousie's Master's of urban and regional planning department.

¹²⁴ Muller, J. (1985). P.13.

returned from teaching UEP courses in The Gambia. The questionnaire, listed as Appendix C, was designed to understand the personal perceptions associated with each of the respective facilities as well as any insight that they felt may be of relevance from their own personal experiences of teaching in The Gambia. It was not, as such, based on any pretext of scientific rigour. Although for illustrative purposes, some of the findings have been compiled into tables, it should be noted that findings are based entirely on personal opinions and recollections over the past several years.¹²⁵

Of the thirty-three questionnaires originally distributed, twenty-one were responded to. One of these was not filled out because of the respondent's "unwillingness to offer written opinions on these subjects except to persons and organizations authorized to help establish the University of The Gambia."¹²⁶ This left twenty out of thirty-three, or 60.6 percent of the questionnaires completed and returned for analysis. Of these twenty professors, four had taught at GTTI, thirteen at MDI, one at Gambia College, and 2 at both GTTI and MDI. Thus making the facility distribution as follows:

Table 1
Gambian facility

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	GTTI	4	20.0
	MDI	13	65.0
	Gambia College	1	5.0
	GTTI & MDI	2	10.0
	Total	20	100.0

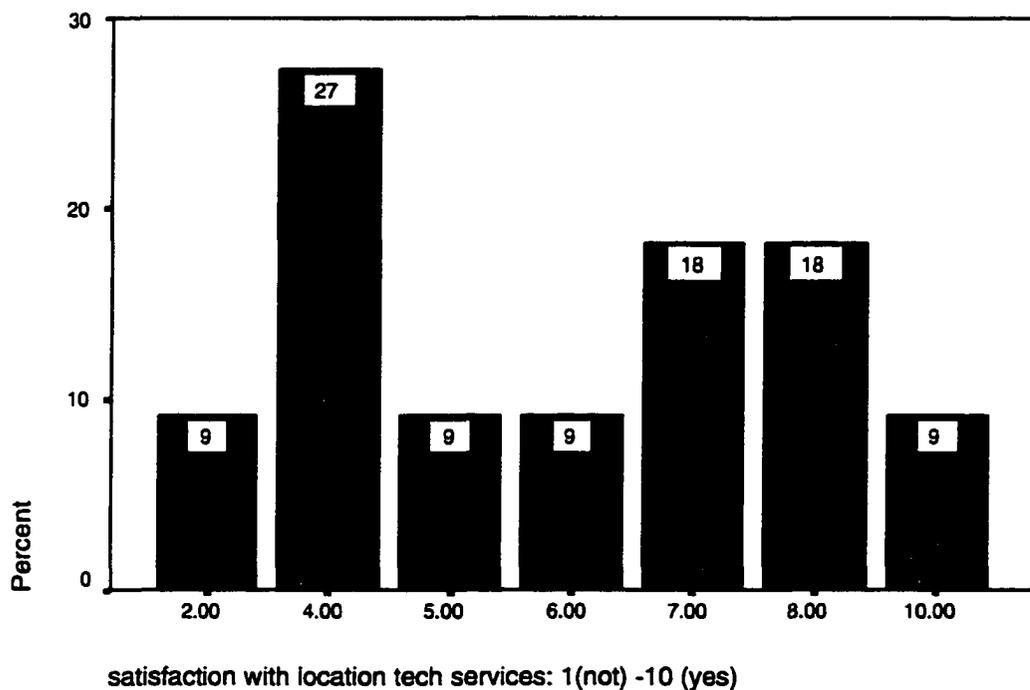
¹²⁵ Although many authors caution against relying too heavily on questionnaires as a singular source of data, their usefulness for understanding various points of view lies in their ability to support other data sources.

¹²⁶ Response received by e-mail January 10, 1999.

From these completed and returned questionnaires, some valuable insight is gained as to the views of the UEP teaching staff.¹²⁷

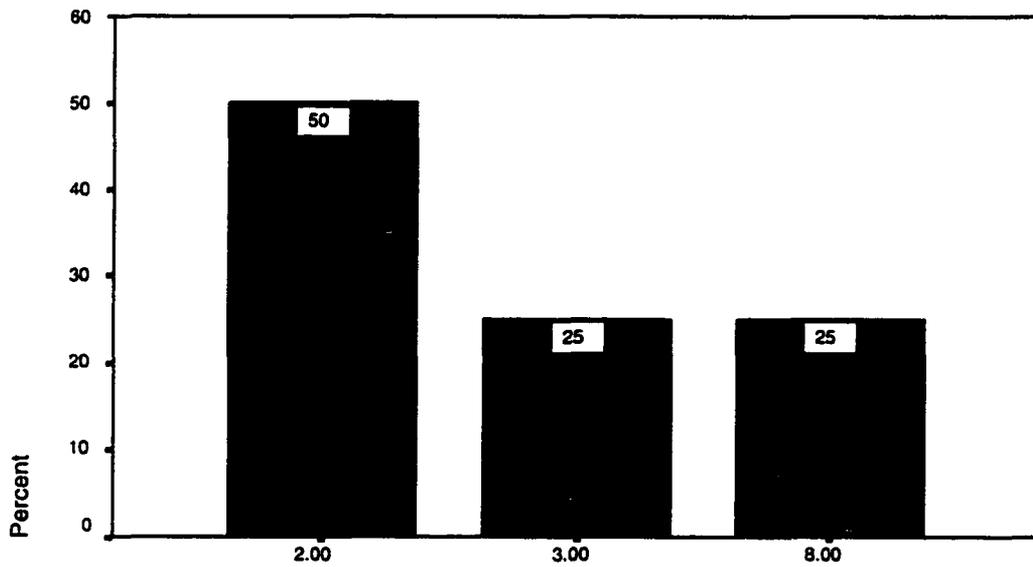
What emerges from the questionnaire is that the overall level of satisfaction among the UEP facilities was highest at MDI. In terms of technical services, accessibility, existing infrastructure, provision of space and proximity to off-site services; MDI was perceived to be the most appealing. This was followed by GTTI, with Gambia College inciting the least amount of overall satisfaction from any of the respondents.

Graph 1: Level of Satisfaction with MDI



¹²⁷ Please note, however, that for reasons of statistical unreliability or by the sheer lack of response by several respondents to various questions, certain findings are not inclusive of all twenty participating professors.

Graph 2: Level of Satisfaction with GTTI



satisfaction with location tech services: 1 (not) -10 (yes)

In addition, MDI also has some additional land which might be useful for expansion at a later time as the university continues to develop and grow.

For all the reasons discussed in chapters 2 and 3, the choice to maintain a non-residential academic environment is also supported by the relatively central location of MDI.

Table 2¹²⁸

Gambian facility * convenience of location Crosstabulation

Count		Gambian facility			Total
		Gambia College	MDI	GTTI	
convenience of location	2.00			1	1
	6.00		2	1	3
	7.00		3		3
	8.00		2		2
	10.00	1	2		3
Total		1	9	2	12

Gambia College, although only responded to in one questionnaire, is deemed too far and difficult to reach, as well as lacking the necessary

infrastructure. GTTI rated an overall second to MDI in terms of the various criteria, and given its close proximity to MDI, should likely be maintained as a sister campus for those departments to be determined by concerned parties in terms of the level of 'fit'. Although this does not rule out the use of the Gambian College, programmes geared towards this site should be mindful of the problem of accessibility.

Of central importance are the comments that accompanied the questionnaires regarding the three facilities. While it is true that no amount of second-hand data can take the place of first-hand observations¹²⁹; as explored in chapter 3, information pertaining to people's perceptions of the possible sites is extremely useful. Some of these comments include both general observations as well as facility specific observations based on the facilities in which they had taught during their placements in the UEP in The Gambia.

From the more general comments provided by the respondents, we see that inadequate home conditions were not perceived to be conducive to doing school work. This supports the literary findings of the domestic socio-cultural norms of the compound as the place of residence where all facets of daily life are played out and the needs of the family are plenty. Another reason cited for the home as an unviable study place was the absence of electric light. As a result, respondents stated that students often remained after class to do their studies. This provides further justification of the need to include both classroom space and institutional space as secondary concerns in the application of the planning

¹²⁸ 10 being the highest level of convenience and 1 being the least convenient.

matrix, to assist in providing a pleasant work environment and room for both formal and informal meetings. Not only does this imply the need for accessible work space beyond the formal class times, but it also implies a need for comfortable leisure spaces where discussions may be pursued and the sharing of ideas may flourish. In this regard, Table 3 reveals MDI to be the most adequately prepared for this purpose.

Table 3
Gambian facility * student meeting places Crosstabulation

Count		student meeting places				Total
		unknown	classroom	NSGA	trees	
Gambian facility	GTTI		4			4
	MDI	1	9	2		12
	Gambia College				1	1
	GTTI & MDI		1			1
Total		1	14	2	1	18

In terms of the overall accessibility of the sites, Table 4 reveals that it was relatively convenient to get from MDI to GTTI, but MDI to Gambia College was perceived as inconvenient (rating 2 on the same scale).¹³⁰

¹²⁹ Even with first-hand observation, academics and practitioners dispute the effectiveness in terms of duration of visits and by the sheer nature of observation on the part of an outsider, as well as in terms of the

Table 4

convenience of this site to other sites * Gambian facility Crosstabulation

Count		Gambian facility			Total
		GTTI	MDI	Gambia College	
convenience of this site to other sites	10.00		2		2
	8.00		2		2
	7.00	1	1		2
	4.00	1			1
	3.00		1		1
	2.00		1		1
	1.00	1	2	1	4
	no response	1	4		5
Total		4	13	1	18

In terms of auxiliary services and informal meeting places within close proximity but outside the facility grounds, MDI again faired the most appealing. The importance of accessibility, stressed throughout this work, is supported by the questionnaire responses. In this respect, one comment is worth noting *in verbatim* in that it captures the sentiments being expressed in the findings from the numerous sources invoked in this work.

I think the issue of centrality to students is crucial. The most central location in Greater Banjul, having regard both to travel by foot and bush-taxi, is the Westfield corner. Both MDI and GTTI are approximately 2 km from the corner, and thus both are equally accessible. They are also only about 2 km from each other, and thus can support each other to some extent. A decision to locate the new university at Gambia College would almost necessitate that students be in residence, since daily commuting from/to Brikama would be very time-consuming (particularly from Banjul City); but I doubt that the students or the government could afford to house students in residences.¹³¹

subjectivity of such observations.

¹³⁰ Here again being rated on a scale of 1 to 10, with 10 being convenient and 1 being inconvenient.

5.2. SELECT SITES

5.2.1. Gambia Technical Training Institute (GTTI)

Of the more specific comments, what emerges on the cognitive realities of GTTI as a potential university site is that GTTI's strengths include a fairly central location thus making this site appear accessible, at least in relation to MDI. Although this was a point of disagreement among respondents with some feeling that the GTTI site was indeed not a convenient location, it appears that for the most part the site was tolerably accessible, especially in relation to MDI. Other strengths associated with GTTI include the availability of large classroom sizes, proximity to shopping and other services (only minutes by bicycle), as well as a perceived adequacy of on-site facilities. The weaknesses notably associated with the GTTI site include a lack of technical aides, such as photocopiers for students, as well as a weakness associated with all three sites, namely the absence of library resources. With all this in mind, it has been noted that given the relative proximity of the GTTI facility to the capital city of Banjul, perhaps it's inclusion in the university system might best be devoted to housing those departments requiring interactions with government departments and other professional agencies.¹³²

5.2.2. Gambia College

With respect to Gambia College, the comments are entirely keeping with the findings from the relevant literature surrounding The Gambia and the various

¹³¹ Respondent #8.

¹³² This finding is based on personal discussions with Jean Hill in reference to academic departments such as political science and international development studies.

theoretical standpoints of university campus planning; namely, that this location is one suited to a secluded and closed introverted academic environment intended to be inward-looking and reflective. Although on the positive side, such isolation was noted as providing encouragement of "dedicated study for whole day, less distraction by nearby friends, family, activities", it was also noted that this site would be inconvenient and would necessarily require the provision of residences¹³³ to overcome the difficult commute and the overall inaccessibility of the site.

Given that the inward-oriented and closed environment approach has been entirely rejected throughout this analysis, the Gambia College site is considered not a viable choice. Although this does not imply its entire dismissal within the university plans, it does caution against too heavy a reliance upon the faculties to be housed at this location. Rather, if the Gambian College is in fact to be incorporated into the university system, then it should be done as a constituent college providing for auxiliary services not requiring constant interaction with faculties at other sites. It should also be noted, however, that Gambia College¹³⁴ is in close proximity to the agricultural and ecological sites of the Nyambai, Kabafita, and Furuya Forest Parks which could serve as a great asset to university faculties relying on such resources. Furthermore, the usefulness of this campus might also increase down the road as the university

¹³³ It will be remembered that for cultural, social and financial reasons, the provision of residence is strongly rejected.

¹³⁴ Indicated by the number 3 in the map listed as Appendix I.

expands and the physical and academic needs of the university evolve accordingly.¹³⁵

5.2.3. Management Development Institute (MDI)

This brings the discussion to the third and most responded to site, MDI. Also supportive of the findings from the literature, respondents from MDI reveal much less ambiguity about the practicality of adopting this site than was the case with GTTI. Among the most notable strengths, MDI invoked positive comments such as student familiarity with the location, an atmosphere conducive to learning, a lunch room and park benches nearby, spare classrooms on-site, proximity to the NSGA office where much of the administrative tasks for the UEP occur, the observed enjoyment of students of use of the campus for casual and informal chat, a convenient location which is near services and amenities,¹³⁶ a reasonably well maintained institute with adequate (although minimal) facilities, pleasant classrooms and campus spaces, the availability of computer labs, and importantly, room for expansion.

Of the weaknesses discussed in relation to MDI, the majority of comments were largely in keeping with the observed weaknesses of all three locations; namely, dissatisfaction with technical service provision and the need for lounges or informal meeting places. Such shortcomings, although important, may be overcome through innovative uses of space and the provision of better services as would be needed regardless of where the university is to be established.

¹³⁵ It should also be remembered that the proximity of the Gambian College to agricultural and park lands make this site an attractive location for environmental studies and other programmes that involve studying the land and other natural resources.

Another noteworthy comment reflected the location of MDI as being off the track from the main bus routes. This can also be relatively easily overcome through the placement of additional bus stops and other means of connections discussed in chapter 3 such as pedestrian paths and bicycle stands.

Although the lack of library resources was a problem cited for all three sites, this may be overcome through the careful consideration for service provision in the most cost-effective way through the sharing of resources. According to Rashid Tayyeb, librarian at Saint Mary's University from his own observations of the sites, the university library should be based around MDI, with locations networked to the various sites by a central database.¹³⁷

5.3. FINDINGS

In sum, the specific comments in reference to the three sites appear to support the findings in the literature and therefore add to the validity of the more formal and empirical observations. This does not imply that subsequently such findings should be used as a blueprint for planning the university, but rather that the validity of such observations is, at present, supported by personal observations from first-hand accounts and supports the view that technical planning tools are essentially devised to call upon the feelings of the intended user groups. As such, the use of less costly innovative techniques can work well in evoking the same observations.

¹³⁶ on Kairaba Ave.

¹³⁷ January 12, 1999 - personal interview with Rashid Tayyeb, librarian at SMU: Recommended that the 3 UEP institutions form a committee with 3 librarians and an ex-official from the national library.

A university, and consequently the university's location, are said to have symbolic relevance as well as functional relevance. The location will therefore not only serve a functional purpose but will contribute to the perceptions and affiliations that it incites by its relation to surrounding land use functions. For a country such as The Gambia where scarcity of urban land and the multiple use of space necessitate cohesion of land uses and where infrastructural improvements are called upon as a national objective; the image and the use of university facilities must be supported by neighbouring land uses. Coupled with a lack of accessibility to transportation options in The Gambia, the proximity of university facilities to related land uses supports the recommendations being put forward for the various facilities. In this way, although MDI emerges as the most probable facility for the university's primary location, all three facilities can contribute to the university by their very locations. Gambia College is situated in close proximity to agricultural resources, GTTI is closest to the nation's capital of Banjul where many government and professional offices are found, and MDI is situated between the two and in close proximity to residential areas and transportation hubs.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

This study has looked at the process of planning for the creation of a university as a national development objective. With The Gambia as a case study, it has addressed the question of how the process of planning can contribute to the creation and development of a university in such a way as to ensure that the university lends support to the nation's overall development objectives. In answering this question, it has stated that it is the process itself and the framework for planning rather than the actual outcomes that are the key contributions which planning can make to the creation of sustainable projects for national development.

What emerged from chapter 1 was that the Gambia's national development path is to be directed by a well-educated and healthy population that may guide the development process. Through the articulation of the Gambian government's own goals and through the observations of others consulted upon for this endeavour, the creation of a sustainable University of The Gambia emerges as both a worthwhile and vital component to overseeing such developmental goals. In this way, the creation of a university is seen as a vehicle in the development process, whereby the process of planning for its establishment and therefore techniques for dealing with issues of location and siting emerge as tools for such development.

From chapter 2 we saw that the heritage of African universities is indeed quite rich and that their establishment can be traced to two divergent approaches. Universities established prior to 1960 were the outcomes of colonial

interests and were posited against the interests of the African people, serving as ivory towers for a privileged elite and juxtaposed against the needs of the region's people. In contrast, universities established after 1960 under an independent national rule have sought to foster national growth and development and have embraced participation and integration as both the physical and symbolic manifestations of national ideologies. Such universities have shown to contribute greatly to the nation's development objectives through the support of all members of society contributing to its creation and continued success.

From the examples of other African universities we saw that the process of planning is just as vital to a university's success as is the creation of the university itself. The degree of 'fit' between the university and the surrounding communities emerged as an integral component to the sustainable university, whereby full participation from all members of society was seen as an essential ingredient in determining project success. The university is indeed a worthwhile development project, however, its ability to promote the wellbeing of a nation is contingent upon the process of its planning.

Chapter 3 served to illustrate some guiding tools and techniques that might lend to the process of planning for a university and was based on the lessons derived from the literature invoked in chapter 2. What emerged from this was that the tools themselves are only as instrumental as the methods employed for their use. Although some variables, namely the primary ones, were suggested for inclusion in the process, it was found that ultimately it is the people themselves who will determine the criteria based on the needs of the project. The purpose of this chapter was to provide some basic tools for the participatory

implementation of conventional planning techniques while reducing the costs necessarily involved in the hiring of outside consultants. Furthermore, they provide the opportunity to truly meet the needs of the university community and neighbouring communities through their ability to be used by local residents with the most intimate knowledge of that area's particular needs, values and norms. In this way, the role of planner is relegated to that of facilitator, while the notion of 'expert' is re-conceptualized. In this way, participation is seen as perhaps the most important tool for predicting project success when applied at every stage and continued throughout.

Chapter 4 served as a country assessment for the purposes of identifying the particular needs and issues surrounding the establishment of a university in The Gambia. It identified social and cultural ideologies and norms as essential components in the planning process as well as the physical condition of land and land use in The Gambia; thereby indicating the existing facility options for the university's establishment and sustainable development.

Chapter 5 has built upon the findings of its preceding four chapters. The purpose of this was to apply the derived tools and techniques to the case study of the University of The Gambia. This was done by combining the analyses of the country-specific needs and infrastructure provisions and attributes with the lessons learned from the literature and from the examples of other African universities. The findings of this chapter, as the culmination of those that preceded it and supported by the perceptions of Canadian university professors involved in teaching in The Gambia through the UEP, are in agreement with the findings put forward by the Commonwealth Consultancy Team and Douglas

Myers of Dalhousie University. It was found that the university is indeed a lucrative and much needed endeavour as a vehicle in the process of Gambian national development. These findings also supports the view that MDI should serve as the primary location for the university, while GTTI and Gambia College should be retained as satellite campuses for departments most suited to their particular use.

Finally, this concluding chapter, chapter 6, provides a brief summary of what each preceding chapter has contributed to the study in relation to the thesis question of how the process of planning can best contribute to the creation of a university as a national development objective.

6.2. CLOSING REMARKS

In exploring the relationship between physical planning and national development objectives, the thesis of this study is formulated upon the premise that planning decisions must be factored into the development process in a participatory and sustainable manner. Through the examples of other universities in Africa, it was seen that the values embraced by the university and the physical form which such settings take are interconnected. In the case of Makerere University, Uganda and the University of Ibadan, Nigeria where these institutions were established in a colonial approach to planning and the university was not seen as an integral component of society, the outcomes were the creation of university settings set apart from the wider society at odds with the interests of the local communities. On the other hand, the University of Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania and the University of Nigeria, Nsukka, Nigeria were

established by independent nations seeking to promote the universities as representative of their nations' people. Through a process of planning involving their nations' own development objectives with academic values reflecting the values of the African region and their nations' people, the emergent universities are seen as integral components of their nations' physical landscape. These universities have shown to be supported by the local communities, lending to the development objectives of their respective nations. Specifically, these examples reveal that the physical form that a university takes is inherently tied to the values and ideals which lend to its creation.

What emerges from this is that the process of planning must be inherently participatory, involving the full participation and collaboration of the various local communities, politicians as well as practitioners as those for whom such projects are intended to serve. It is also found that these same parties are to implement the tools in the decision-making process as planners in the university's creation, based on their knowledge of their country's needs, values and objectives. In this way, participation implies the full collaboration of all members of society at every stage in the creation and maintenance of the university as a national development objective. Furthermore, it implies that the process of planning is not simply the application of tools involved in the initial establishment of the project, but that to ensure the sustainability of a project, planning is a development tool which must be incorporated into the very life of a project for dealing with the physical space as the project and as the needs of the communities evolve.

With specific reference to the establishment of the University of The Gambia, the findings which emerge throughout this work do reveal some specific

recommendations in terms of the precise locations and siting selection. Namely, that MDI appears to be the most suitable existing facility for the primary location of the university, with GTTI and Gambia College also lending to its creation. However, perhaps more importantly than this, what is found is that it is the people of The Gambia themselves who should determine the optimal locations based on the application of planning tools such as those put forward in this work. In planning for the sustainable creation of a university environment that is supported by the local communities and serves as a vehicle for Gambian national development, it is the nature of the process of planning that is seen as the most instrumental factor in its establishment. This implies the participation of all Gambian people in a process which embraces the traditional and cultural values of the nation while recognizing the legacy of Gambian land use and planning techniques.

The creation of a university as a vehicle in the development process must be planned. The process of its planning is a developmental tool which will greatly affect the outcomes of the university's creation. If it is planned in a participatory and sustainable manner, the university can serve to enhance the quality of life for a nation's citizenry by providing for a multitude of uses. Inversely, if it is not planned with full cooperation or if it is in discord with the needs of the community, then it can be a major obstacle to the development process.

Planning, whether under the rhetoric of development thought or planning as a field in itself, in theory or in practice, is a vital tool in the development process. The techniques involved in the creation of sustainable projects and for

enabling the meeting of long-term objectives are necessarily those inherently grounded in a participation approach. What is important is to be aware of the intended goals of the development projects and for whom such projects are fundamentally intended to serve.

In the case of the University of The Gambia, the intended recipients are the people of The Gambia and the nation as a whole. As such, the values and priorities adopted by the university are those of the Gambian nation, with a focus on national development for the improvement in quality of life for all Gambian society. So, while some basic guidelines have emerged throughout this work to facilitate the planning process of a university, perhaps even more importantly it is hoped that the processes of participation and collaboration have been further reinforced.

There are no blueprints for successful planning per se. However, it is often the underlying ideologies of those in positions of authority which will influence a project's outcomes through the ability to truly promote participation and cooperation. All too often, participation is invoked somewhat half-heartedly on the part of policy-makers and practitioners concerned with its inclusion for the sake of obtaining funds or meeting some predetermined regulations for its inclusion in development projects. This is not participation but rather a false gesture aimed at fulfilling certain preordained project requirements. The techniques and planning tools put forward in this work are simply tools for bringing about people's observations of actual usages of space. This is based on the view that it is the local communities with the most intimate knowledge of

the precise planning needs who are to be regarded as the true experts in the planning process.

What is essential to the planning process and to the university as both a locus of human activity and a development project is that the priority remain with the goals of development; that is, with the improvement in the living conditions of the nation's citizenry. In this way, the University of The Gambia can truly ascribe to be a university servicing the people of The Gambia.

Based upon the review of recent literature surrounding the debates on the process of planning a university as a national development objective, it is argued that there is a fundamental need to re-conceptualize our ideas of planning, and consequently, our notions of who plans. This calls for a need to redefine our conception of 'experts' as those most familiar with the problems and the areas under investigation. Rather than thinking of this in terms of technical expertise, often at the hands of outsiders with little comprehension of the actual conditions, it is the local communities with the most practical knowledge who should be recognized as the true experts and those most capable of informed decision-making. The role of planner should therefore be relegated to that of technical facilitator. Mediating between the communities and policy-makers and serving to extrapolate from technical mechanisms the relevant enabling tools communicably to those seeking their use; planners as facilitators should assist in transforming these local understandings into plans of action. Full and meaningful participation is quite possibly the most effective planning tool at our disposal and, in planning for sustainability, its value must be recognized as such. Used in this way, the

process of planning can truly contribute to the creation and development of a university as a national development objective.

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The Gambia Inc.....Vision 2020

[A Highly Developed Model Country]

National Mission Statement

To transform The Gambia into a financial centre, tourist paradise, a trading, export oriented agricultural and manufacturing nation, thriving on free market policies and a vibrant private sector, sustained by a well educated, trained, skilled, healthy, self-reliant and enterprising population and guaranteeing a well-balanced ecosystem and a decent standard of living for one and all, under a system of government based on the consent of the citizenry.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Yahya A.J.J. Jammeh".

Captain Yahya A.J.J. Jammeh
Chairman, AFPRC and
Head of State of The Republic of
The Gambia

May 1996

REPORT

THE NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR THE
ESTABLISHMENT OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF THE GAMBIA

April 1997

Executive Summary

The report has established a fundamental need for university education in the Gambia which is of a recognised international standing in terms of the content and quality of relevant courses. The contextual analysis of the economy and demography of The Gambia together with the evaluation of existing tertiary education at Gambia College, GTTI and MDI has confirmed that a firm foundation exists from which the proposed university of The Gambia can be developed. Further, it has been demonstrated that a University of approximately 1200 students (in full operation) can be sustained from internal demand alone and will grow to approximately 2000 students by 2008. The report has not taken into account the possibility of the university providing education for foreign students in the Subregion. However, this matter should be kept under review as the University develops.

It is proposed that the University will be developed from the existing provision at tertiary level as a staged basis and will in future provide courses which meet the priority national needs for skilled human resources to promote the social, economic and technological development of the Gambia. The proposed programme of courses will be designed to fit within the system of education at Secondary level and will provide for entry at an intermediate course for those students with industrial experience and appropriate qualifications.

The programmes offered will provide for maximum flexibility in terms of entry and exit points and delivery systems. The concept will facilitate a progressive development of learning stages from higher certificates to diplomas and finally to degrees.

The academic infrastructure of the University has been developed and includes the institutional framework and the terms of reference for the principal governing body (The Council) and the Senate. Policies have also been proposed for the control of quality, funding and the development of research.

The capital and recurrent costs of the university have been estimated taking into account maximum benefit from existing provision. The capital and recurrent cost over a phase period is as follows:

<u>Stage 1</u>	<u>Inauguration 1997-2000</u>	
	<u>Recurrent</u>	<u>Capital</u>
1997	D11,049,000	D63,500,000
1998	24,339,000	62,050,000
1999/2000	24,871,000	6,400,000

NB If dormitories are deleted D30,000,000 will be deducted across 1997/98 and 1998/99

Phase II

2000 - 2004

Year

Recurrent

2001 - 2002	1024,743,000
2002 - 2003	25,463,000
2003 - 2004	25,463,000

Phase III

2004/5 - 2007/8

Year

Recurrent

2004 - 2005	1025,463,000
2005 - 2006	25,463,000
2006 - 2007/8	25,463,000

The details of capital and recurrent costs appear in Fig. 6.1, 6.2 and 6.3. Conclusions are also provided for each chapter.

Principal Recommendations.

- (1) Immediate actions should be taken as specified in this report to inaugurate the University of The Gambia in October 1997.
- (2) The University should be developed from a combination of existing provision and the assistance provided by the franchising institutions.
- (3) The phased development plan should be implemented over the next ten years to provide the identified education programmes directly associated with national need such as Agriculture, Education, Health Sciences, Civil Engineering, Construction, Technology, Hotel and Tourism Management, Business Studies, General Arts, Management and Public Administration.
- (4) The main University campus should be constructed on land adjoining MDI, but out lying campuses will be retained at Brikama (Agriculture) Banjul (Health Sciences) and Kanifing (Engineering).
- (5) Courses not designated to the university will be retained at Gambia College, GTTI and MDI and will form a separate further education sector which will retain close links with the University. The respective heads of schools will therefore be answerable to the Rector for the University programmes at their institutions and their respective Board of Governors for non university programmes.
- (6) Research in a development oriented University such as the proposed University of the Gambia can play an important role in the social and economic advancement of the country. It would therefore be necessary to give priority and adequate funding to research activities in search for solutions to the problems faced by industry, commerce, the public service and the community at large, but initially these should not be detrimental to excellence in teaching and learning.
- (7) The failure of most higher education systems in the sub-region and the continent is primarily due to the absence of rigid quality control and assurance practice. It would therefore be necessary to relate the funding of the university to quality input and output and relevant research activities.
- (8) Having regard to the deteriorating standards in higher education over the last 20 years in the sub-region, due primarily to a decrease in funding grants from Governments, there is a serious need to encourage institutions to diversify their funding sources. Institutions must aim to at least generate 20-25% of their annual budgetary requirements.

- (9) The Commission recommends the establishment of trust funds with initial support from external aid and lending agencies which may provide a useful form of endowment. In this regard. The Government of the Gambia should approach agencies like the ADB, World Bank, IDB, ODA, EU and other agencies for the initial financing of this project. The University authorities must also endeavour to build up an investment fund that would generate enough revenue to support any debt, grant or assistance beyond the end of the third Phase of the project.
- (10) The situational report by the three institutions reflected a major concern for staff recruitment and retention. In order to attract and retain high level professors and Gambian academics, the Commission believes that a package of incentives should be developed and offered. The incentives should include among other things attractive salary scales, the raising of the retirement age to 65 and the protection of academic freedom.
- (11) The Government should appoint a national Task Force to advise on the formulation of a strategic policy for establishing and developing an efficient and effective national Labour Market Information System. (LMI) and to assist in drafting the necessary legislation.

THE NATIONAL COMMISSION

Membership

In August 1996 The Gambia Government inaugurated the above mentioned Commission by the President and Head of State retired, Colonel Yaya A.J.J. Jammeh at Cabinet Room. The Chairman of the Commission is Dr Sedat Jobe United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation regional adviser on culture now based in Dakar. The other members of the Commission are.

- 2) Dr Lamin Marenah. formerly Director of Agriculture and retired officer. Food and Agricultural Organisations of the United Nations (FAO) -
Vice Chairman
- 3) Mr Badara A Joof - Permanent Secretary Ministry of Education
- 4) Mr James George - Private Engineer
- 5) Mr Matthew N'dure - Head of National Office at the West African Examinations Council. Banjul
- 6) Mr Makaireh A N'Jie - Principal. GTTI
- 7) Mr J Manneh - Principal . Gambia College
- 8) Mrs Juka Fatou Jabang- Director General. MDI
- 9) Dr Aliou G. Gaye - Director of Medical Services
- 10) Mrs Therese Drammeh Permanent Secretary.
Personnel Management Office
- 11) Mr E T Dondoh Secretary to the Commission. Director. Technical Education and Vocational Training.

Terms of reference

Congruous with the task of designing, creating and maintaining the University of the Gambia in a manner corresponding to relevant guiding principles, the NCEUG will be mandated to set itself to act thus:

Appendix C

**QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ASSESSING EXISTING FACILITIES OF THE
UNIVERSITY OF THE GAMBIA**

**THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IS FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES FOR USE IN A
MASTER'S THESIS AND, IT IS HOPED, WILL BE OF USE IN THE DECISION-
MAKING PROCESS FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A LONG-TERM
UNIVERSITY SETTING WITHIN THE GAMBIA**

**YOUR COOPERATION IS GREATLY APPRECIATED AND ALL INFORMATION
WILL REMAIN ANONYMOUS.**

This survey is intended for academic purposes. It is to assist in writing a master's thesis for the department of international development studies, Saint Mary's University. All information provided will remain anonymous and your input is greatly valued. For more information or if you have any questions relating to this questionnaire please feel free to contact me: Jennifer Guralnick (902) 425-6262; e-mail: jguralnick@sprint.ca.

The purpose of the study is to determine the optimal location for a long-term University of The Gambia. As such, questionnaires are being distributed to all faculty who have been to The Gambia to teach in the University Extension Programme between St. Mary's University, Halifax and the government of The Gambia. The goal of the study is to determine the optimal location(s) for facilities and academic departments of the proposed university. As such, of great consideration are issues of on-campus needs such as the adequate provision of space and services, as well as off-campus sites relating to the needs of both the university population - i.e. students, faculty and staff; as well as the impact of such facilities upon the local communities within The Gambia. Beyond assisting me in completing my thesis, it is hoped that findings might serve to assist in the decision-making process for a sustainable university setting in a way that might also facilitate social and economic well-being for the local communities affected by this institution. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

The questionnaire consists of two parts. The first part deals with background information such as your gender (optional but deemed relevant for analyzing gender effects of various location decisions), what courses you taught, the approximate dates of your arrival and departure, the duration of your visit, where you resided during your stay, the facility or facilities in which you taught, the modes of travel utilized for getting around, and the estimated times of your commute. The second part addresses your views and opinions regarding the existing facilities and possible alternatives or suggestions for what may be done in planning for a more long-term setting. If precise answers are not known, please approximate as closely as possible, in that all information you may provide is deemed useful.

PART 1: GENERAL INFORMATION

1. What is your gender? Please circle: Male Female
2. At which institution do you teach in Nova Scotia?
3. Which educational department are your courses offered in? e.g. environmental studies, international development studies
4. What courses have you taught in Nova Scotia over the past two years prior to your teaching in The Gambia? (optional)
5. What course(s) did you teach in The Gambia? Please provide a brief description of the course objectives and any necessary tools or technical instruments needed for this course (e.g. computers, walking trips, outings).
6. At which facility/facilities were your courses offered in The Gambia? If more than one course, please specify which location for each course. (MDI, GTTI, Gambia College)
7. In which district / area were you residing during your stay? What was the approximate distance from your place of residence to the educational location.

8. When were you there? (e.g. April 15 to June 30, 1997) if the exact dates are not known please estimate as nearly as possibly (e.g. mid-April until the end of June 1997)

9. What modes of transportation did you use for getting from your place of residence to the educational facility and back? Please list these in the order of frequency of use (e.g. the first being the mode most frequently used and subsequent modes in descending order in relation to frequency of use)

10. In your opinion, which districts were the majority of the students coming from?

11. At what times was your course(s) scheduled and on which days of the week? If more than one course, please specify the course for each schedule.

12. How many students were in your class?

Please provide any further information you feel might be relevant in the space provided or on a separate sheet of paper. Any insight or opinions you may have is of great value for the purpose of this study.

PART 2: FACILITIES & LOCATION CONSIDERATIONS

Some of the following questions are geared towards measuring your satisfaction and assessing your views as to the current buildings in use for the university project in The Gambia. For these questions, answers should be marked by circling the appropriate response on a scale of 1 to 10 with 10 representing great satisfaction, 5 being mediocre, and 1 being unsatisfactory.

1. How would you rate your satisfaction with the technical services provided at the location where you taught? Please indicate which educational building.

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

2. Were computers and photocopiers accessible to students at this location? Please specify 1 to 10 the level of availability (1 being not available, 5 being adequate, 10 being very accessible).

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

3. Was there enough classroom space? 1 - no, 5 - moderately, 10 - ample space

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

4. Was there space outside of the classroom in the building for students and faculty to meet and discuss class work?

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

5. What meeting places were within 5 minutes from campus? Please indicate what these were (e.g. pub, restaurant, park benches, etc.)

6. **What meeting places were within a 15 minute walk?**

7. **What services would you like to see within walking distance of the campus? E.g. restaurants, lounges, copy centers, etc.**

8. **Approximately how long did the commute take getting to class and at what point in the day (morning, afternoon, evening, night)? Again, please specify by mode of travel (e.g. bus - 40 minutes, walk - 90 minutes, car - 15 minutes).**

9. **Approximately how long did it take to return to your place of residence after the class? Again, please specify morning, afternoon, evening, or night and the mode of travel.**

10. **Which mode of travel did you prefer and why?**

11. How would you rate the accessibility of this location to necessary off-campus sites with respect to the needs of your course? E.g. for environmental courses if walking tours were deemed important to class work, were nature sites close by? E.g. for social science courses was it easy to reach government and other offices? Please specify what off-site amenities would be most useful.

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Please specify the nature-amenities:

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Please specify the nature-amenities:

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Please specify the nature-amenities:

12. Were late arrivals of students a recurring occurrence?

13. Approximately how late were students arriving?

14. In your opinion, what were the reasons for late arrivals? (e.g. waiting for a bus, work or family obligations, traffic) Please feel free to elaborate.

15. Did you tend to go elsewhere before class? If so what was the purpose of these activities? (e.g. go shopping before class, go for a coffee, meal, *etc.* after class with colleagues and/or students)

16. Did you tend to go elsewhere after class? If so what was the purpose.

17. How far from the teaching facility were the areas in which you visited before and after class? (e.g. a 5 minute walk to the coffee shop, 10 minutes to the vegetable market)

18. In your opinion, where were students most likely to meet up outside of class? In the facility in an empty classroom, *etc.* or off-campus at a nearby restaurant? Someone's home? If off-campus, in which area or district?

19. In your opinion was this location convenient for most students? 1 - no, 5 - somewhat, 10 - yes

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

20. On a scale of one to ten, was it easy to get between this site and other educational facilities in which Saint Mary's courses were offered? MTTI, Gambia College, MDI

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Facility:

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Please specify any weaknesses that you feel are associated with this particular location and why. If more than one location was taught at, please respond for each one specifying which location you are responding to. E.g. Gambia college - inadequate electricity. Gambia Technical Training Institute - too far from bus route.

Please specify the strengths of this location(s) and why you feel these qualities are beneficial to the university.

Please provide any other information or comments you may have which were not sufficiently addressed above or that you feel might be useful to this study.

Descriptive Statistics: All Questionnaire Variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std.
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
respondent number	20	1.00	20.00	10.5000	1.3229	5.9161
gender	20	1.00	2.00	1.2000	9.177E-02	.4104
Nova Scotia Institute	20	1.00	5.00	1.7500	.2702	1.2085
department - N.S.	20	1.00	14.00	6.8500	.8500	3.8013
courses taught in N.S.	18	1.00	14.00	6.8333	.9227	3.9145
courses taught in The Gambia	20	1.00	14.00	6.9000	.8383	3.7403
number of courses taught in Gambia	20	1.00	3.00	1.7500	.1230	.5501
Gambian facility	20	1.00	4.00	2.0500	.1846	.8256
area of residence	18	.00	4.00	2.2778	.3111	1.3198
number of trips to teach	20	1.00	2.00	1.2500	9.934E-02	.4443
YEAR	17	1996	9798	2455.88	458.88	1892.02
second year teaching in Gambia	4	1997	1998	1997.50	.29	.58
mode of transit	20	1.00	5.00	2.2000	.2675	1.1965
second mode of travel	12	1.00	5.00	3.0000	.4082	1.4142
opinion on students' residence	15	.00	4.00	1.2667	.3003	1.1629
students residence, other	1	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.	.
number of days/week taught	19	3	5	4.16	.12	.50
Sunday courses	18	.00	.00	.0000	.0000	.0000
Monday courses	18	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.0000	.0000
Tuesday courses	18	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.0000	.0000
Wednesday courses	18	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.0000	.0000
Thursday courses	18	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.0000	.0000
Friday courses	17	.00	1.00	.2353	.1060	.4372
Saturday courses	18	.00	.00	.0000	.0000	.0000
start class time	18	8.00	830.00	100.0889	62.5894	265.5444
end time	17	12.00	13.00	12.2000	6.183E-02	.2550
second start time	4	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.0000	.0000
second end time - after break	4	3.30	5.30	4.1500	.4173	.8347
number of students in the class	20	25	89	45.30	3.78	16.89
number of students in second course	12	28	80	44.25	3.90	13.51
satisfaction with location tech services: 1(not) -10 (yes)	16	1.00	10.00	5.0625	.6799	2.7195
if more than 1	1	1.00	1.00	1.0000	.	.
second location's satisfaction level	1	3.00	3.00	3.0000	.	.
other teaching institute	1	2.00	2.00	2.0000	.	.
access to computers & photocopiers on-site: 1(no)-10(yes)	19	1.00	7.00	2.1579	.4276	1.8638
classroom space: 1(inadequate)-10(ample)	19	1.00	10.00	3.5789	.6980	3.0426

Descriptive Statistics: All Questionnaire Variables

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std.
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic
on-site space in building:1(no)-10(yes)	19	.00	88.00	8.5263	4.4730	19.4975
outside class space at other institution	1	5.00	5.00	5.0000	.	.
meeting places within a 5 minute walk	11	1.00	3.00	1.8182	.2264	.7508
other meeting places w/in 5 min. walk	6	3.00	6.00	4.0000	.5164	1.2649
meeting places within a 15 minute walk	9	.00	9.00	3.1111	1.0467	3.1402
services wanted within walking distance	14	1.00	5.00	2.2143	.3947	1.4769
mode of transport getting to class	20	1.00	5.00	2.2500	.2603	1.1642
duration of commute to class - in minutes	20	5.00	45.00	19.2500	2.1544	9.6348
duration of return home commute after class - in minutes	20	10.00	45.00	20.5000	1.9500	8.7208
preferred mode of travel	19	1.00	4.00	2.2105	.2367	1.0317
reason for mode preference	18	1.00	7.00	2.5000	.5000	2.1213
accessibility to off-campus course needs:1(bad)-10(excellent)	15	.00	8.00	4.0000	.8047	3.1168
amenities off_site	5	1.00	5.00	3.0000	.7071	1.5811
late arrival of students	20	.00	1.00	.4500	.1141	.5104
reasons for late arrivals - opinion	14	.00	4.00	1.5000	.3273	1.2247
tended to go where before class	20	.00	1.00	1.000E-01	6.882E-02	.3078
tended to go where after class	20	.00	5.00	2.2000	.3524	1.5761
student meeting places	20	.00	3.00	1.0500	.1535	.6863
other meeting places	3	1.00	4.00	2.6667	.8819	1.5275
convenience of location	13	1.00	10.00	6.7692	.7692	2.7735
convenience of other institute	1	9.00	9.00	9.0000	.	.
convenience of this site to other sites	20	.00	10.00	3.8000	.8385	3.7501
rated accessibility based on convenience	13	1.00	5.00	2.4615	.3689	1.3301
location >= 1 & location <= 3 (FILTER)	20	0	1	.90	6.88E-02	.31
level of technical needs met	19	2.00	5.00	4.5263	.2076	.9048
level of access from this site to others	15	1.00	5.00	3.2000	.4276	1.6562
level of classroom space provision	15	1.00	5.00	3.2000	.4276	1.6562
Valid N (listwise)	0					

Appendix D: African Universities

	African Universities:		
University:	Country:	Founded:	
Universite d'Alger	Algeria	1879	reorganized 1909
Universite des Sceinces et de la Technologie Houari Boumedienne	Algeria	1974	
Universite de Annaba	Algeria	1975	
Universite de Batna	Algeria	1977	as Centre Universitaire de Batna
Universite de Blida	Algeria	1981	as Centre Universitaire de Blida
Universite de Boumerdes	Algeria	1981	
Universite de Constantine	Algeria	1969	
Universite d'Oran Es-Senia	Algeria	1965	
Universite des Sceinces et de la Technologie d'Oran	Algeria	1975	
Universite Ferhat Abbas-Setif	Algeria	1978	
Universite Abou Bekr Belkaid Tlamcen	Algeria	1974	As Centre Universitaire de Tlamcen
Universite Nationale du Benin	Benin	1970	
University of Botswana	Botswana	1976	
Universite de Kinshasa	Democratic Republic of The Congo	1954	
Universite de Kisangani	Democratic Republic of The Congo	1963	present name 1981
Universite de Lubumbashi	Democratic Republic of The Congo	1955	re-organized 1971 and 1981
Universite Marien-Ngouabi	Republic of Congo	1961	as Centre d'Enseignement Superieur, University status 1971
Universite de Cocody	Cote d'Ivoire	1958	as Centre d'Enseignement Superieur d'Abidjan; Universite Nationale de Cote d'Ivoire 1964, renamed 1996
Ain Shams University	Egypt	1950	
Alexandria University	Egypt	1942	
Al-Azhar University	Egypt	970	modernized and expanded 1961
American University in Cairo	Egypt	1919	
Assiut University	Egypt	1957	
Cairo University	Egypt	1908	
Helwan University	Egypt	1975	incorporating existing institutions of higher education
Mansoura University	Egypt	1973	from the Mansoura branch of Cairo University

Menia University	Egypt	1976	incorporating existing faculties of Assiut University
Menoufia University	Egypt	1976	
Suez Canal University	Egypt	1976	
Tanta University	Egypt	1972	
Zagazig University	Egypt	1974	incorporating existing faculties of Ain-Shams University
Addis Ababa University	Ethiopia	1950	as University College, renamed 1961
Alemaya University of Agriculture	Ethiopia	1952	university status 1985
Universite Omar Bongo	Gabon	1970	renamed 1978
Abkhazian A.M. Gorkii State University	Georgia	1985	
Georgian Technical University	Georgia	1990	1922 as Georgia Polytechnic Institute
Ivan Dzhavahiladze University of Tbilisi	Georgia	1918	
University for Development Studies	Ghana	1992	
University of Cape Coast	Ghana	1962	
University of Ghana	Ghana	1948	as University College of Ghana, university status 1961
University of Science and Technology, Kumasi, Ghana	Ghana		
	Ghana	1951	as College of Technology, university status 1961
Universite Gamal Abdel Nasser de Conakry	Guinea	1962	
Universite de Kankan	Guinea	1963	university status 1987
University of Guyana	Guyana	1963	
Universite D'Etat D'Haiti	Haiti	1920	
Universite Quisqueya	Haiti	1988	
Universite Roi Henri Christophe	Haiti	n.a.	
Egerton University	Kenya	1939	university status 1987
Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology	Kenya	1981	
Kenyatta University	Kenya	1972	as constituent college of University of Nairobi, present status 1985
Moi University	Kenya	1984	
University of Nairobi	Kenya	1956	as Royal Technical College of East Africa, renamed 1970
Al-Fateh University	Libya	1957	
Al-Arab Medical University	Libya	1984	
Bright Star University of Technology	Libya	1981	
University of Garyounis	Libya	1955	as University of Libya, renamed 1973 and 1976
Sebha University	Libya	1983	
University of Liberia	Liberia	1862	as Liberia College, university

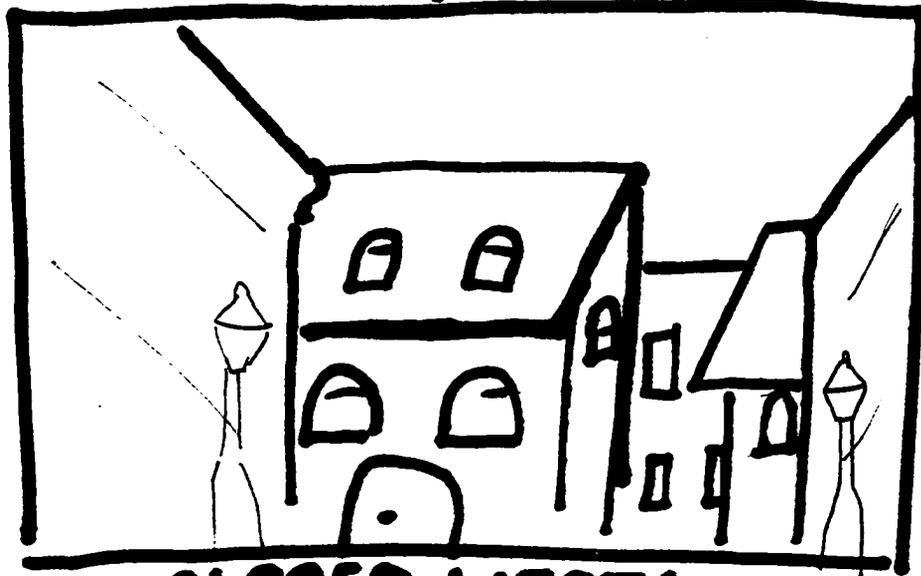
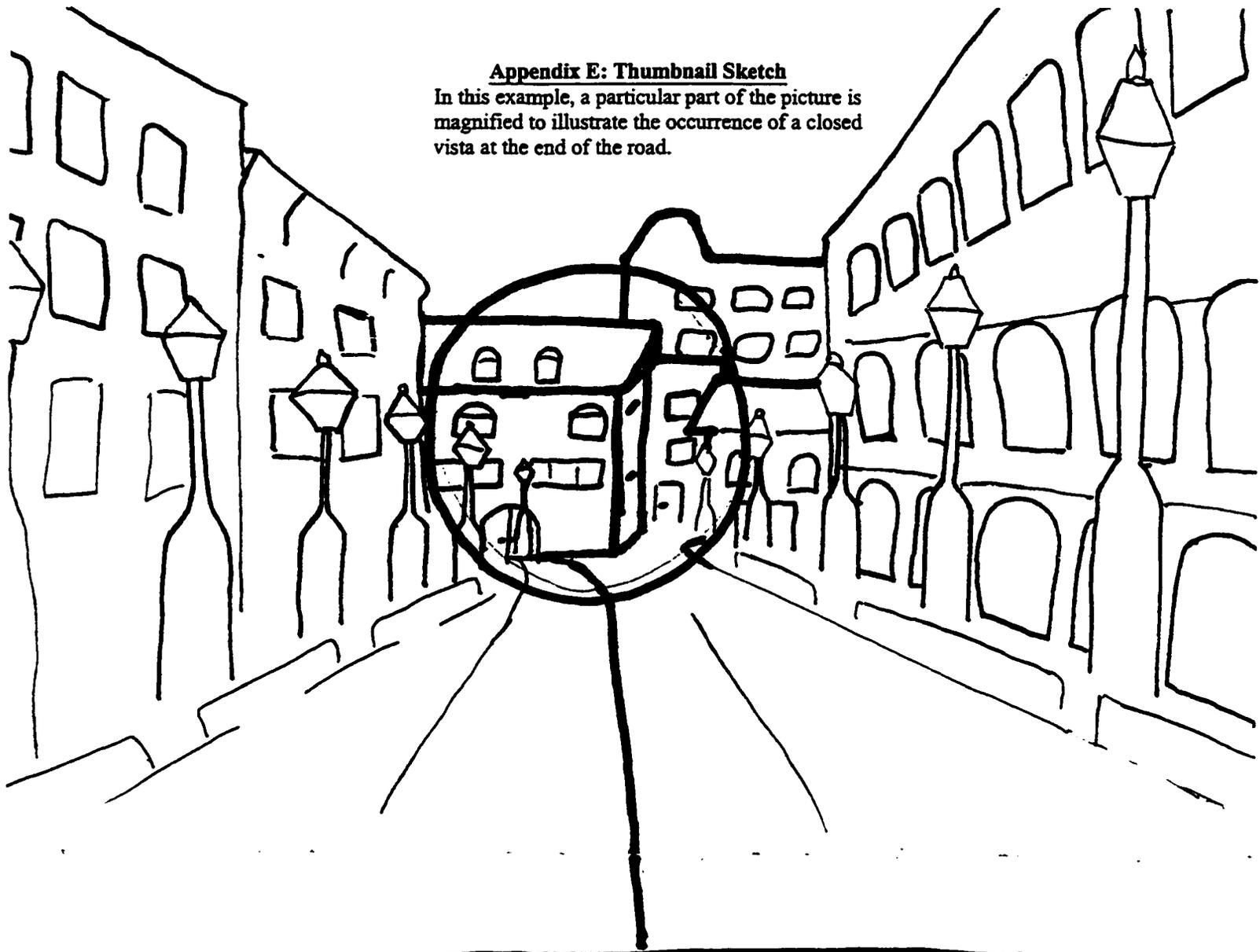
			status 1951
University of Malawi	Malawi	1964	
Mongolian State University of Agriculture	Mongolia	1958	as Institute of Agriculture, university status 1991, renamed 1996
Mongolian State University	Mongolia	1942	
Mongolian Technical University	Mongolia	1969	
Mongolian University of Arts and Culture	Mongolia	1990	
National Medical University of Mongolia	Mongolia	1942	
Universite Cadi Ayyad	Morocco	1978	
Universite Hassan II Ain Chock	Morocco	1975	
Universite Ibnou Zohr	Morocco	1989	
Universite Mohammed I	Morocco	1978	
Universite Mohammed V	Morocco	1957	
Universite Quaraouyine	Morocco	859	enlarged in the 11th century, re-organized 1963
Universite Sidi Mohamed Ben Abdellah	Morocco	1975	
Universidade Eduardo Mondlane	Mozambique	1962	
University of Namibia	Namibia	1992	
Universite de Niamey	Nigeria	1971	university status 1973
Abia State University	Nigeria	1981	as Imo State University, renamed 1993
Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University	Nigeria	1988	
University of Agriculture	Nigeria	1988	Previously a College of the University of Lagos
Ahmadu Bello University	Nigeria	1962	
Federal University of Technology, Akure	Nigeria	1981	
Bayero University	Nigeria	1977	
University of Benin	Nigeria	1970	
University of Calabar	Nigeria	1975	previously a campus of University of Nigeria
Edo State University	Nigeria	1981	
Enugu State University of Science and Technology	Nigeria	1980	
University of Ibadan	Nigeria	1962	previously University College, Ibadan; 1948
University of Ilorin	Nigeria	1975	
University of Jos	Nigeria	1975	
University of Lagos	Nigeria	1962	
University of Maiduguri	Nigeria	1975	
University of Agriculture, Makurdi	Nigeria	1988	previous campus of University of Jos
Federal University of Technology, Minna	Nigeria	1983	

National Open University	Nigeria	1980	
University of Nigeria	Nigeria	1960	
Ogun State University	Nigeria	1982	
Ondo State University	Nigeria	1982	
Federal University of Technology, Owerri	Nigeria	1980	
University of Port Harcourt	Nigeria	1975	
Rivers State University of Science and Technology	Nigeria	1971	obtained university status 1980
Usmanu Danfodiyo University	Nigeria	1975	
University of Uyo	Nigeria	1983	University of Cross River State, renamed University of Akwa Ibom State
Federal University of Technology, Yola	Nigeria	1981	
University of Papua New Guinea	Papua New Guinea	1965	
Papua New Guinea University of Technology	Papua New Guinea	1965	
Universite Cheikh Anta Diop de Dakar	Senegal	1949	university status 1957
Universite des Mutants	Senegal	1978	
Universite de Saint-louis	Senegal	1990	
University of Sierra Leone	Sierra Leone	1967	
Fourah Bay College	Sierra Leone	1827	started by the Church Missionary Society, affiliated to the University of Durham 1876, constituent college 1966
Njala University College	Sierra Leone	1964	
College of Medicine and Applied Health Sciences	Sierra Leone	1987	
University of Bophuthatswana	South Africa	1979	
University of Cape Town	South Africa	1918	founded as South African College 1829
University of Durban-Westville	South Africa	1961	
University of Fort Hare	South Africa	1916	South African Native College, renamed 1970
Medical University of Southern Africa	South Africa	1976	
University of Natal	South Africa	1910	as constituent college of University of South Africa, gained independence in 1949
University of the North	South Africa	1959	
University of the Orange Free State	South Africa	1855	as constituent college of University of South Africa, gained independence in 1949
University of Port Elizabeth	South Africa	1964	
Potchefstroom University for Christian	South Africa		

Higher Education	South Africa	1869	incorporated into University of South Africa as constituent college 1921, university status 1951
University of Pretoria	South Africa	1908	as Transvaal University College, renamed 1930
Rand Afrikaans University	South Africa	1966	
Rhodes University	South Africa	1904	
University of South Africa	South Africa	1873	
University of Stellenbosch	South Africa	1918	
University of Transkei	South Africa	1976	as branch of Fort Hare University, independence 1977
Vista University	South Africa	1982	
University of the Western Cape	South Africa	1960	
University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg	South Africa	1922	
University of Zululand	South Africa	1960	
Ahfad University for Women	Sudan	1966	university status 1988
University of Gezira	Sudan	1975	
University of Juba	Sudan	1975	
University of Khartoum	Sudan	1956	formerly University College of Khartoum
Nilayn University	Sudan	1955	Cairo University, Khartoum branch until 1993
Omdurman Ahlia University	Sudan	1986	
Omdurman Islamic University	Sudan	1912	university status 1965
Sudan University of Science and Technology	Sudan	1950	
University of Swaziland	Swaziland	1964	as part of University of Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland; renamed 1982
Open University of Tanzania	Tanzania	1992	
Sokoine University of Agriculture	Tanzania	1984	previously part of University of Dar Es Salaam
University of Dar Es Salaam	Tanzania	1961	
Universite du Benin	Togo	1965	as a college, university status 1970
Makerere University	Uganda	1922	as a technical school, University College 1949, university status 1970
Mbarara University of Science and Technology	Uganda	1989	
Uganda Martyrs University	Uganda	1991	
University of Zambia	Zambia	1965	
National University of Science and Technology	Zimbabwe	1990	
University of Zimbabwe	Zimbabwe	1955	as University College of Rhodesia, University of Rhodesia as of 1970, renamed 1980

Appendix E: Thumbnail Sketch

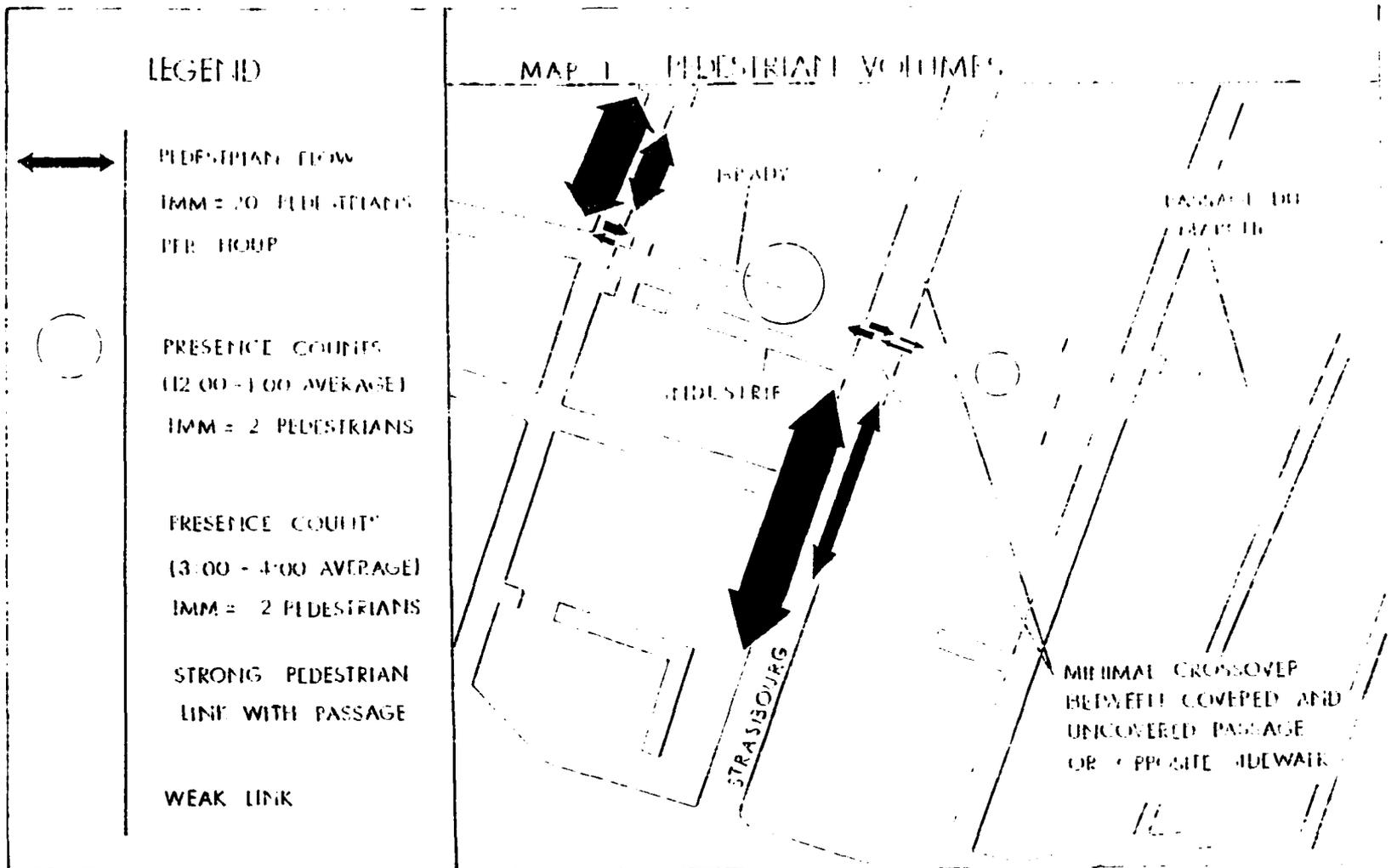
In this example, a particular part of the picture is magnified to illustrate the occurrence of a closed vista at the end of the road.



CLOSED VISTA

Appendix F: Cognitive Map

This diagram serves to illustrate pedestrian volumes for a given area. In this case, the colour yellow has been used to indicate pedestrian travel directly related to the immediate site being investigated; while red is used to illustrate volumes around but not directly traversing through the site. Line widths are also utilized for indicating heavier volumes as wider and narrower lines revealing lighter traffic volumes.



Appendix G: Pedestrian Counts

In the initial stage of observing pedestrian flows, the important thing is that the recordings be understood by the person conducting the observation since these notes can later be compiled more clearly.

In this case, the four directions are indicated as 'os', 'ss', 'in' and 'out'; however this may also be done through any means of indication, such as 'north', 'south', 'east', and 'west'. The times of observation and dates are also recorded for each five minute observation period, as well as any other casual observations (such as the type of day and the general mood of people in the area).

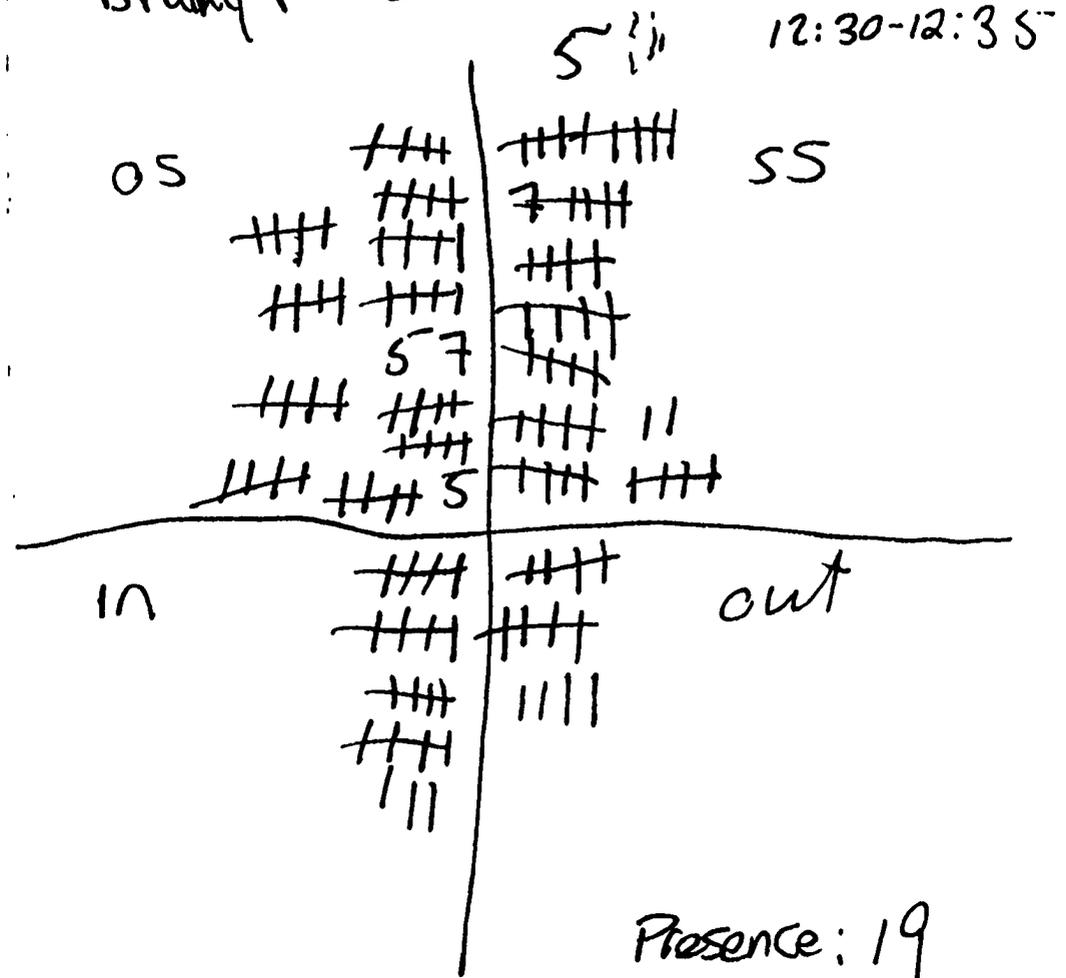
In this example, the observation area was small enough to allow for also noting the total number of people present in the area (indicated by 'presence'), during the five minute intervals of rest. However, this might not always be the case.

When compiling the data for the purposes of re-iteration, some indication should be given as to the precise points where these observations were made (in this case through a diagram), along with the tabulation of findings for each spot.

This example is taken from a study done by this author in Paris, France in May of 1996. As such, the particular references are to specific streets and in and out of a passageway. The important thing is not the precise means of indication but rather that a comprehensive picture of the area is obtained. Therefore, the methodology will differ from one person to the next.

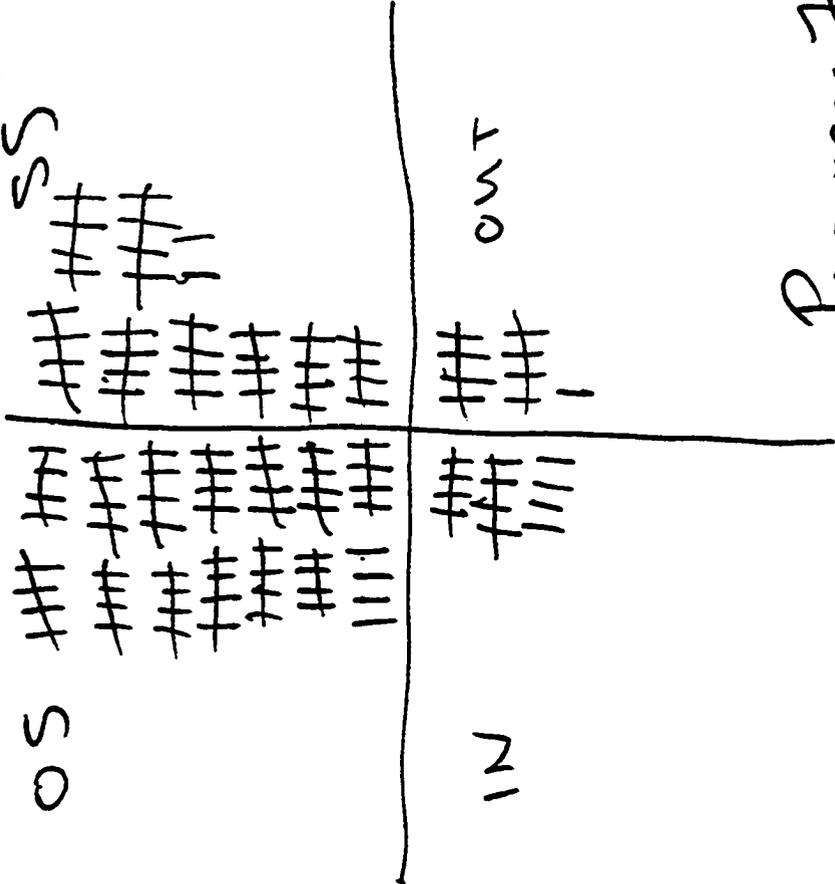
Wed. - Holiday ^{2th May} clothing closed
 most food open
 streets are pretty quiet
 activity seems minimal
 many stores closed

Brady presence: 11



out NN
 in SS SS

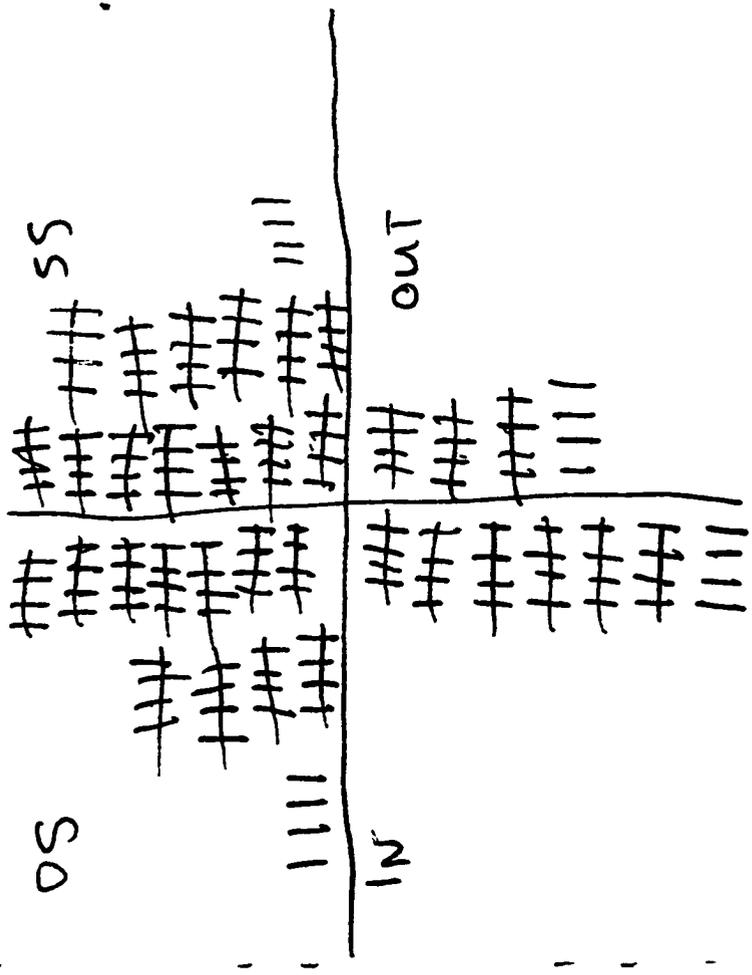
12:40 - 12:45 restos - so so
hair - usual
to bus!



Presence: 7

out N leisurely
walks passage
E-W less rushed
links appear
minimized

12:50 - 12:55



Presence: 10

f. St. Denis - pretty quiet

Brady 2:10-2:45 Industri

IN	OUT
###	#####
##	

Presence: (7)

IN	OUT
###	

2:35-2:40 Sat. 6:00 P.M.

IN	OUT
###	#####
###	###

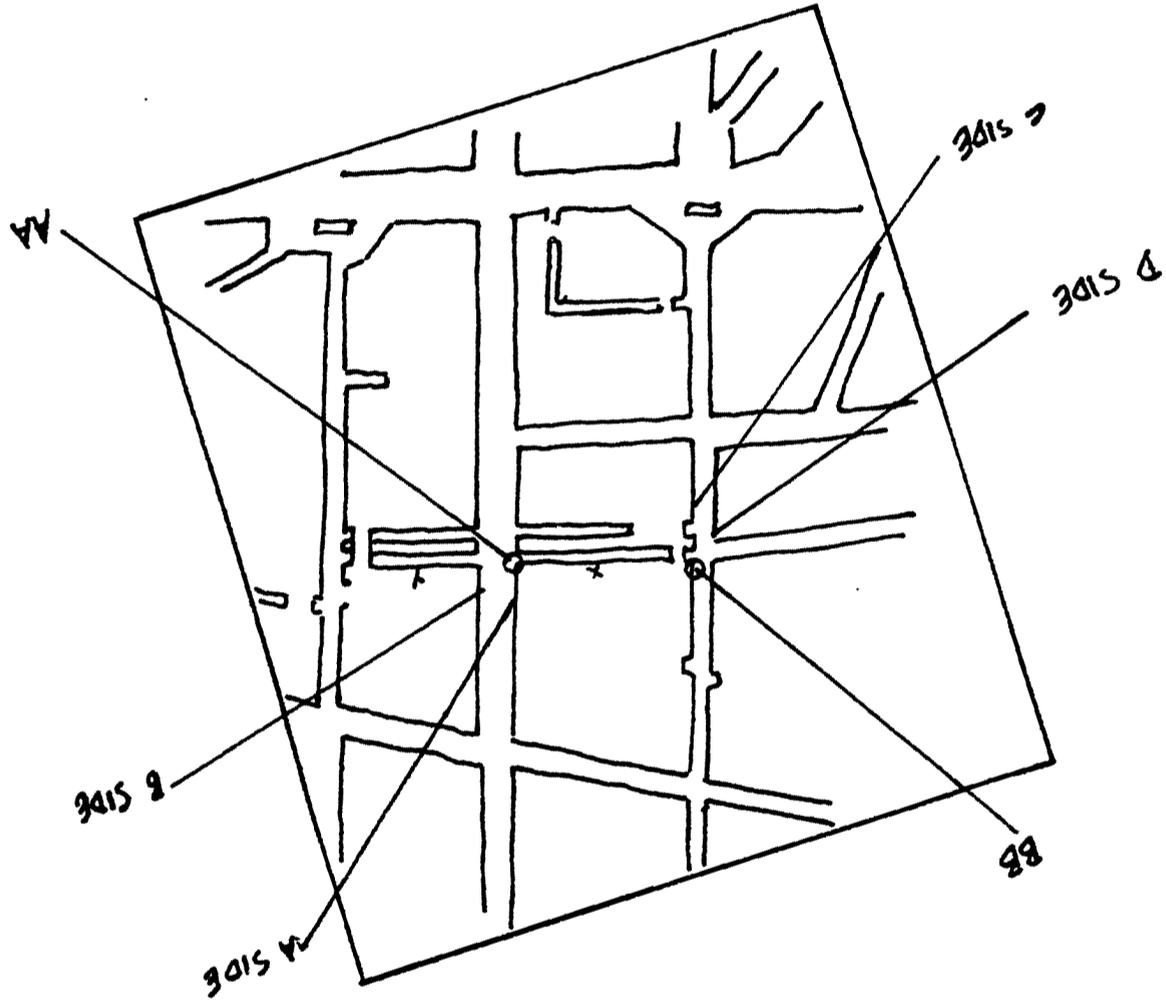
presence: (12)

IN	OUT

2:20-2:25

IN	OUT

Saturday 6:00 p.m. f. St. Denis
Saad Salman Brady



SURVEY LOCATIONS

APPENDIX

POSITION AA

TIME	A SIDE	B SIDE	A INTO	A OUT	B INTO	B OUT	Y PRES- -ENCE	CROSS - OVER
12:00								
-								
12:05	63	24	6	10	7	7	8	∅
12:10								
-								
12:15	62	30	16	16	3	2	7	∅
12:20								
-								
12:25	96	28	16	15	12	8	9	3
12:30								
-								
12:35	55	18	19	17	6	12	7	4
12:40								
-								
12:45	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
12:50								
-								
12:55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

POSITION BB

TIME	C SIDE TRAFFIC	D SIDE TRAFFIC	INTO PASSAGE	OUT OF PASSAGE	PRESENCE COUNT X
12:00					
-					
12:05	56	68	13	11	6
12:10					
-					
12:15	46	91	18	8	10
12:20					
-					
12:25	41	80	19	20	9
12:30					
-					
12:35	70	92	20	11	11
12:40					
-					
12:45	-	-	-	-	-
12:50					
-					
12:55	-	-	-	-	-

POSITION AA

TIME	A SIDE	B SIDE	A INTO	A OUT	B INTO	B OUT	Y PRES- -ENCE	CROSS - OVER
12:00								
-								
12:05	68	14	9	6	2	6	12	2
12:10								
-								
12:15	69	43	13	17	7	10	5	1
12:20								
-								
12:25	72	22	4	14	10	1	5	3
12:30								
-								
12:35	85	19	11	22	7	7	9	1
12:40								
-								
12:45	76	42	25	11	14	5	9	1
12:50								
-								
12:55	75	22	15	10	7	13	7	1

POSITION BB

TIME	C SIDE TRAFFIC	D SIDE TRAFFIC	INTO PASSAGE	OUT OF PASSAGE	PRESENCE COUNT X
12:00					
-					
12:05	-	-	-	-	-
12:10					
-					
12:15	31	27	18	14	12
12:20					
-					
12:25	33	55	15	11	14
12:30					
-					
12:35	44	82	16	10	8
12:40					
-					
12:45	67	89	18	10	20
12:50					
-					
12:55	-	-	-	-	-

POSITION AA

TIME	A SIDE	B SIDE	A INTO	A OUT	B INTO	B OUT	Y PRES- -ENCE	CROSS - OVER
12:00								
-								
12:05	62	9	13	13	4	2	5	∅
12:10								
-								
12:15	74	10	20	7	1	6	4	∅
12:20								
-								
12:25	102	38	9	19	6	9	6	∅
12:30								
-								
12:35	52	17	18	18	10	16	7	3
12:40								
-								
12:45	74	24	14	14	4	11	6	4
12:50								
-								
12:55	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

POSITION BB

TIME	C SIDE TRAFFIC	D SIDE TRAFFIC	INTO PASSAGE	OUT OF PASSAGE	PRESENCE COUNT X
12:00					
-					
12:05	-	-	-	-	-
12:10					
-					
12:15	-	-	-	-	-
12:20					
-					
12:25	-	-	-	-	-
12:30					
-					
12:35	47	57	23	14	19
12:40					
-					
12:45	42	69	14	11	7
12:50					
-					
12:55	69	59	34	19	10

POSITION AA

TIME	A SIDE	B SIDE	A INTO	A OUT	B INTO	B OUT	Y PRES- -ENCE	CROSS - OVER
12:00								
-								
12:05	59	13	10	8	1	6	7	∅
12:10								
-								
12:15	57	23	11	4	1	7	8	2
12:20								
-								
12:25	67	22	19	15	9	8	6	∅
12:30								
-								
12:35	79	24	14	6	4	6	7	∅
12:40								
-								
12:45	71	26	25	13	11	6	4	1
12:50								
-								
12:55	65	26	10	14	10	8	6	3

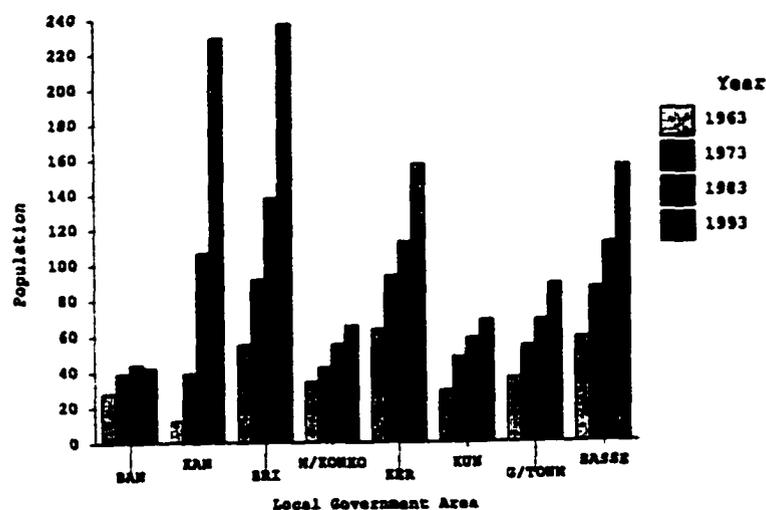
POSITION BB

TIME	C SIDE TRAFFIC	D SIDE TRAFFIC	INTO PASSAGE	OUT OF PASSAGE	PRESENCE COUNT X
12:00					
-					
12:05	45	92	8	11	12
12:10					
-					
12:15	56	82	6	6	16
12:20					
-					
12:25	60	102	15	14	19
12:30					
-					
12:35	59	79	12	12	15
12:40					
-					
12:45	75	97	26	21	27
12:50					
-					
12:55	81	90	29	12	45

Table 1.7: Population Density (Persons Per sq kmn) By LGA

Local Government Area	Year			
	1963	1973	1983	1993
The Gambia	30	47	64	97
Banjul	2,142	3,077	3,613	3,461
Kanifing	162	522	1,344	3,021
Brikama	32	52	78	133
Mansakonko	22	27	34	40
Kerewan	29	43	50	69
Kuntaur	20	33	39	46
Georgetown	26	49	48	62
Basse	29	43	76	75

Figure 1.6: Population (in '000) by Local Government Area



Source: Population Censuses, 1963-1993, CSD

Source : Population Censuses, 1963-1993, CSD

Appendix I

