

TABLE OF CONTENTS

- ❖ **Relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality in the tourism Industry of Rwanda**

By

DR RUTUNGWA EUGÈNE

- ❖ **Effect of globalization on human rights protection in Africa**

By

DR ZIKAMABAHARI JEAN DE DIEU

- ❖ **The nature of citizens' participation within decentralisation framework for community development in Rwanda. A case study of Rubavu district.**

By

Mr. RWABUTOGO ZOGEYE Marcel, Associate Professor Micheal MAWA and Dr BOGERE Mohammed

EDITORIAL

On behalf of the scientific editorial board, I extend my deep appreciation to the contribution made by lecturers and researchers that has led to the successful compilation of this publication. The completion of this volume stemmed from their will, initiative and performance as lecturers and researchers. KIGALI INDEPENDENT UNIVERSITY ULK has always paid regards to promoting education and impacting the complete development of Rwanda through coupling teaching and research. In the same context, the 34th volume of ULK Scientific Journal is now out with 3 papers which tackle issues of national and regional concern. The authors of articles in this issue suggest scores of recommendations worth consideration to both policy makers and practitioners.

The first article by Dr RUTUNGWA Eugene is entitled *Relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality of tourism Industry in Rwanda*. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda. The results from the study revealed that tourists not only have a high level of satisfaction with the tourism industry in Rwanda but they are also satisfied with the service quality of tourist

guides of the tourism industry in Rwanda and they are fairly satisfied with service quality of hotels in Rwanda. Tourists who are contented with the reliability of service, responsiveness, assurance and empathy of hotel staff and tourist guides and with the tangibles of hotels and different trails in protected areas tend to be satisfied with the tourism industry of Rwanda.

The paper by Dr ZIKAMABAHARI Jean de Dieu argues that there is a growing interconnection between globalisation on the one hand, and rule of law and human rights protection on the other hand. There is evidence that globalisation does not only promote economy, but also human rights and democracy. It analyses the various ways by which globalisation impact on human rights protection in Africa. This paper discusses the negative effects posed by globalisation on African societies in its short term. It is argued further that globalisation may be a positive factor of democracy, economic redistribution, the rule of law and promotion of civil and political rights in its medium and long term.

The last paper but not least by Mr. RWABUTOGO ZOGEYE Marcel, Associate Professor Micheal MAWA and Dr Bogere MOHAMMED is entitled "*The nature of citizens' participation within decentralisation framework for community development in Rwanda. A case study of Rubavu district*".

This study attempted to explore the nature of citizens' participation within decentralization framework for community development in Rubavu district, Rwanda. The study was justified by the fact that there exist some studies in this field that have been limited to looking at the linkage between participatory development and the wellbeing of community.

Findings of the study revealed that despite the effort of government of Rwanda to the decentralization process, the nature of citizens' participation is a top-down process and is still at its enfant phase as confirmed by 75.2% of respondents who stated that people are not consulted to give their views on the projects implemented in their areas.

The study recommended that, to improve the nature of citizens' participation for community development will require that Local Government should take into account priorities and needs of local people in formulation of development projects, the mobilization of more resources to finance local development projects, as well as the reinforcement of close relationship between centre Government and local government in supporting local initiatives; this is a must for lasting the nature of people' participation.

Dr SEKIBIBI Ezechiel

Vice Chancellor of ULK

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND SERVICE QUALITY IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY OF RWANDA

By

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda. The specific questions that were researched by this study were: (a) what is the level of satisfaction of customers of tourism industry in Rwanda? (b) What is the rating of service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda in terms of reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy and tangibles? and (c) Is there any relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction?

The researcher adopted descriptive and correlational research design to obtain information concerning the status of customer satisfaction and service quality in Rwanda tourism industry. Quantitative research method was used and it is the most popular research method within the tourism industry

The study was guided by the assumption that there is no significant relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction. Following the quantitative method, the study was conducted countrywide with 400 international tourist respondents using a four point scale questionnaire. The results from the study revealed that tourists have a high level of satisfaction with the tourism industry in Rwanda. The results revealed also that tourists are satisfied with the service quality of tourist guides of the tourism industry in Rwanda and they are

fairly satisfied with service quality of hotels in Rwanda. Tourists who are contented with the reliability of service, responsiveness, assurance and empathy of hotel staff and tourist guides and with the tangibles of hotels and different trails in protected areas tend to be satisfied with the tourism industry of Rwanda.

Keywords: Customer satisfaction; service quality; tourism industry; tangibles; reliability; responsiveness and empathy

INTRODUCTION

The major factor a country or a business company considers for profitability or economic performance is customer satisfaction and quality of service delivery. Statistics from Rwanda tourism industry indicate that tourism income for the year 2014 is US\$304.9m (Rwanda Development Board report, 2014).

Rwanda tourism is a service delivery industry with multifaceted inherent constraints especially marketing and communicating its uniqueness to local and international tourists. According to Morgan and Pritchard (2002) and Williams (2006), tourism has become a global income generator as people travel constantly in search of places to optimize their leisure time. The fundamental factors contributing to this out of residence leisure time relaxation are the quality of service delivered at hotels and tourism attractions which include protected and non protected areas. In this context therefore, the enhancement of opportunities, quality services, and tourists' preferences should be considered as a priority by every service company.

While some have attributed this phenomenon to poor management practices, particularly poor customer care, others have alluded to ineptness in service quality. As the human demand increases, the development and innovative behaviour necessary to meet the demand in service offering should be considered in the Rwanda

tourism industry. Although this is not intentional, a clear understanding of the factors instrumental in the process of quality service is vital. This lack of quality service is often associated with inadequate and unprofessional human capital in the tourism industry.

From theafore mentioned, responsiveness to customer satisfaction has been personalised which seems to affect customers' expectations. Scholars like Armstrong and Kotler (2006) believed that buying behaviour is extensively moderated by both psychographics and the marketing mix utilized in meeting the customer expectations. In this regard, customer satisfaction constitutes a mix of physical and non physical components combined to create and promote services offered to satisfy the customer expectations. To stimulate customers' satisfaction, the psychographic variables of the customer are matched with attractive services which influence perception and stimulate purchasing.

In most cases, as discussed by Kerin, Hartley, Berkowitz, and Rudelius (2006), the consumer cannot (and does not) separate the deliverer of the service from the service itself. This is because the words and behaviours of the service deliverer are tools used to create a positive customer perception of the service deliver and the company he/she works for. Wilson et al. (2008) state that "a complex combination of strategies is needed to ensure that service employees are willing and able to deliver quality services and that they stay motivated to

perform in customer-oriented, service-minded ways". Kandampully et al. (2001) emphasise the role of people associated with the travel and hospitality industry in contributing to tourists' overall perceptions of services.

Attracting, and maintaining tourists appear difficult due to complex behavioural and choice factors due to the destination alternatives. The strategic and operation logistics mixed with delivery values stimulate repeated visit behaviour. The tourists have expectations about values and they act on the basis of these expectations. A value is defined as an enduring belief that a specific mode of conduct or end of state of existence is personally or socially preferable to alternative mode of conduct or end of state of existence (Mühlbacher, Leihs & Dahringer, 2006). These values influence the tourists' perceptions. In this way, the tourists can assess and establish if the expected value is different or not from the perceived value and delivered value.

The expected value depends significantly on the cost, experience, information, income and customer mobility. The perceived value is the customer's overall evaluation of the service offered (Hollensen, 2004). The delivered value is the difference between the perceived value, which provides utility to the tourist, and the total cost for the tourist in terms of money, time, energy and other foregone alternatives. The satisfaction therefore is defined as the customers' evaluation of a product or service in terms of

whether that product or service has met their needs and expectations (Bitner & Zeithaml, 2003). The satisfied and contented tourist becomes a means for services marketing and new customers' attraction.

A. Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality of Rwanda tourism industry. Rwandan income is increasing yearly. Ethnographic observations indicate that the quality of this growth is still questionable, since the private sector is largely characterised by a few entrepreneurs in the formal sector. Similarly, the public sector is gradually making impressive strides, but the challenge is in translating the tourism sector into an economic hub. This problem resides in customer satisfaction and quality of service delivery system of Rwanda tourism industry. The research aims to know the level of customer's satisfaction in tourism industry, the level of service quality offered in the industry and the impact of service offered in the industry to customers' satisfaction.

B. Research questions

1. What is the profile of the respondents?
2. What is the level of satisfaction of customers of tourism industry in Rwanda?
3. What is the rating of service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda?
4. Is there a significant relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction?

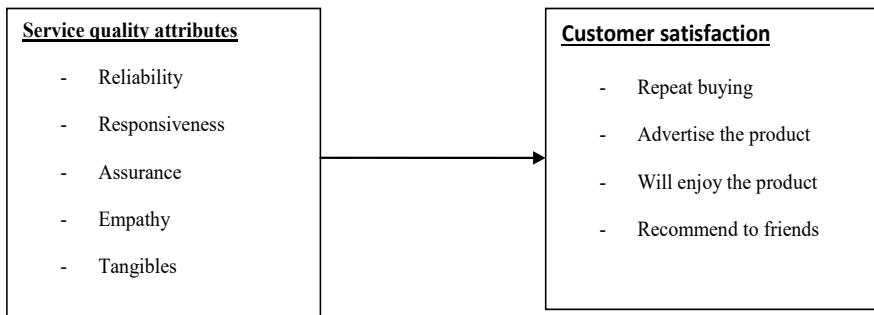
C. Null Hypothesis

Considering questions raised in the statement of the problem, the researcher will test this null hypothesis.

H01: There is no significant relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction.

Conceptual Framework

The theoretical framework has been used as a basis for the development of the conceptual framework for this study, with service quality attributes and customer satisfaction as factors upon which the questionnaire for the study is based as shown in figure 1.1 bellow.



Source: Researcher generated model

Figure 1.1. Conceptual Framework

Service Quality and Customer Satisfaction

Many researchers in the service industry point out that there is a strong positive relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction. Service quality will influence customer satisfaction. Sureshchandar et al, (2002) found that service quality and customer satisfaction were highly related. Providing better quality services and have satisfied customers are generally known as fundamental factors to increase the performances of companies in tourism industry in general and hotels in particular. Service Quality is an important subject in both public and private sectors, in business and service industries (Zahari et al., 2008).

In a competitive tourism industry with almost the same service, hotels must be able to satisfy their customers more than their competitors (Choi & Chou, 2001). Naeem and Saif (2009) point out that satisfaction is the outcome of service quality; and Kumar et al. (2009) agree that high quality of service results in high customer satisfaction and increases customer loyalty. In practice, service quality creates customer satisfaction, stimulates intention to repurchase, and encourages recommendations to others. A company with satisfied customers increases profitability, market share, and return on investment and positive word of mouth (Hoyer & MacInnis, 2001). If the service provider is able to meet a customer's needs and expectations, then this will lead to higher customer satisfaction (Walker et al., 2006).

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

The researcher used descriptive and correlational research design to obtain information concerning the status of customer satisfaction and service quality in Rwanda tourism industry. Quantitative research method was used and it is the most popular research method within the tourism industry. It is also given the most credibility because it pertains to data and numbers that can be statistically analyzed (Decrop, 1999). It establishes relations between defined variables. Zuelueta and Costales (2003), noted that descriptive and correlational methods are two of the five basic designs of quantitative methods of research. The descriptive research method describes a given situation as it is. It tells what really exists in terms of activities and conditions. In addition, the descriptive method helps to record, analyse and interpret the current status. Correlation research methods are founded on the assumption that reality is best described as a network of interacting and mutually causal relationships. Everything affects and is affected by everything else.

B. Population and Sampling Techniques

Population

The population for the study is the number of international tourists who visited Rwanda for the year 2015. According to statistics from Rwanda Development Board (RDB) in 2014, the number was 12,293,755

Sampling techniques

Due to time and financial constraints, in addition to the difficulty in dealing with a very large number of tourists visiting Rwanda, a convenience sampling based on the willingness of the tourist to respond to the questionnaire was adopted in order to generate sufficient data pool necessary to assess the image of customer satisfaction and service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda.

For the adequate representation of a larger population of tourists visiting Rwanda, a number of four hundred (400) international tourists was considered from all provinces of Rwanda and responded to the designed questionnaire.

The following formula suggested by Zuelueta and Clostales (2003) shows that 400 respondents are adequate to represent the population:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(\epsilon)^2}$$

Where n is sample size required

N is the size of the target population

e is the margin error which is 0.05

As indicated, the sample size for the population is:

$$n = \frac{12,293,755}{1 + 12,293,755 * (0.05)^2}$$

n= 399.7 respondents which is 400 respondents

As indicated by the above formula, 400 questionnaires were needed. To be able to retrieve the 400 questionnaires the researcher distributed 420 questionnaires.

The response rate was 95.2%.

C. Research Instruments

The researcher used a questionnaire for data collection and respondents responded to items on a four-point scale ranging from 1 - 4, (Disagree to Agree). The distributed questionnaires sought to gather data and check if customer satisfaction and service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda were related. Questionnaires were distributed and collected all over the country especially where tourists were more likely to be.

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

A. Profile of the Respondents

With respect to the respondents' profile, the following aspects were taken into account: age, gender, continent of origin, educational level, the amount they were willing to pay, times they visited Rwanda, purpose of their visit, number of days they planned to spend in Rwanda and number of days they spent in Rwanda.

Table 4.1: Age Distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Under 25 years	63	15.8
25-35 years	106	26.5
36-45 years	92	23.0
46-55 years	72	18.0
56-65 years	44	11.0
65 years and above	23	5.8
Total responses	400	100

Table 4.1 presents' six age groups beginning from under 25 to 65 years of age and above. The study reveals that most of the respondents were between the ages of 25-45 years representing 50% of all the respondents. It shows that most of the tourists were under 45 years old.

Table 4.2: Gender Distribution

	Frequency	Percent
Male	170	42.5
Female	228	57.0
Total responses	398	99.5
No responses	2	.5

Gender frequency shows that the female were 57% and the male were 42.5%. Two respondents did not indicate their sex. Results from this research indicate that most of the tourists visiting Rwanda were female.

Table 4.3: Distribution of Continent of origin

	Frequency	Percent
America	131	32.8
Europe	198	49.5
Asia and Pacific	59	14.8
Africa	12	3.0

Results for the search show that almost 50% of tourists visiting Rwanda came from Europe with a percentage of 49.5. The next is America followed by, Asia and Africa with percentages of 32.8, 14.8 and 3 respectively. This could be due to the reason of the language.

Table 4.4 : Distribution of Education level

	Frequency	Percent
High school	32	8.0
College	64	16.0
University	304	76.0

Concerning the education level of tourists, 76% of them are university graduates, 16% college and only 8% are high school graduates.

Table 4.5: Amount willing to spend per day

	Frequency	Percent
Under \$500	193	48.3
\$501-1000	93	23.3
\$1001-5000	65	16.3
\$5001-10000	30	7.5
Above \$10000	8	2.0
Total responses	389	97.3
No responses	11	2.8

A big percentage of 48.3 represent tourists willing to spend less than \$500, followed by those who are willing to spend between \$501-1000 with a percentage of 23.3. The table shows that 71.6% of them are willing to spend \$1000 or less.

Table 4.6: Number of times visited Rwanda

	Frequency	Percent
Once	325	81.3
Twice	41	10.3
More than two times	28	7.0
Total responses	394	98.5
No responses	6	1.5

The results for table 4.6 show that 81.3% of respondents visited Rwanda for the first time while 10.3% visited Rwanda for the second time and only 7% indicated that their visit was more than two times. There is a need for RDB to find ways for encouraging return visit. There should be built in incentives for such.

Table 4.7: Purpose of visit

	Frequency	Percent
Visit family and relatives	42	10.5
Leisure	284	71.0
Business	33	8.3
Transit	6	1.5
Others	32	8.0
Total responses	397	99.3
No responses	3	.8

The results in table 4.7 show that 71% of respondents have travelled in Rwanda for leisure, a major area of strength to be sustained, while 10.5% of them visited family and relatives and only 8.3% of respondents were for business purpose. As Rwanda calls for local and foreign investors, should put more effort in recruiting foreign investors. Thus, increase this last percentage of business tourists visiting Rwanda.

Table 4.8: Number of days willing to spend in Rwanda

	Frequency	Percent
One day	7	1.8
Two days	39	9.8
Three days	106	26.5
Four days	73	18.3
Five days	42	10.5
More than five days	129	32.3
Total responses	396	99.0
No responses	4	1.0

Table 4.8 shows that 32.3 % of the respondents planned to spend more than five days in Rwanda, 26.5% planned to spend three days and 18.3% planned to spend four days. The reality is that when tourists stay longer they spend more. Hotel industry in Rwanda should look on how to increase the percentage of those who are willing to stay longer in the country and thus be able to earn more. Especially if they will encourage those willing to spend 3-5 days, who make 55.3% , to join the 32.3% willing to stay more than 5 days, making it over 80%.

Table 4.9: Number of days spent in Rwanda

	Frequency	Percent
One day	4	1.0
Two days	46	11.5
Three days	104	26.0
Four days	74	18.5
Five days	40	10.0
More than five days	129	32.3
Total responses	397	99.3
No responses	3	.8

The percentage of tourists who spent more than five days in Rwanda is 32.3, the same as those willing to spend more than five days. The percentage of tourists who spent three days in Rwanda was 26, while that of those who were willing to spend three days was 26.5. This may be due to different reasons such as the way they were treated in Rwanda or what they saw may have differed from what they expected to see. The percentage should have increased instead of decreasing. Hotel managers, all stakeholders in tourism industry must emphasise on increasing.

B. Level of Satisfaction of Customers in the Tourism Industry

The researcher formulated three questions and the following are their detailed analysis.

Research question number 1, what is the level of satisfaction of customers of tourism industry in Rwanda?

To measure whether tourists were satisfied or not with the tourism industry in Rwanda, six items were formulated.

The research subjects were required to respond to items on a Likert scale ranging from 1-4 (Disagree to Agree). The scale of interpretation was as follows:

1. 1 - 1.49 Disagree (Dissatisfied),
2. 1.50 – 2.49 Tend to disagree (tend to be dissatisfied),
3. 2.50 - 3.49 Tend to agree (tend to be satisfied), and
4. 3.50 – 4.00 Agree (satisfied)

The researcher administered six items of the research instrument for this question to 400 tourists. Table 4.10 shows a summary of descriptive statistics of the tourists' rating of Rwanda tourism industry in terms of satisfaction.

Table 4.10: Level of Customer Satisfaction

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation
I will come back again and visit Rwanda	3.6709	.58582
I enjoyed my visit to Rwanda	3.8413	.44666
I will recommend to my friends to come and visit Rwanda	3.8051	.48319
Rwanda has unique tourism attractions	3.7959	.49577
I will advertise Rwanda as a tourism destination country	3.7320	.57088
Tourism attractions in Rwanda are interesting	3.8235	.44383
Average of customer satisfaction	3.7751	.43448

All the six items were confirmed and they had means ranging from 3.6709 to 3.8413. The results yielded a mean of 3.7751 with a standard deviation of 0.43448. The item with the highest mean was “I enjoyed my visit to Rwanda” with a mean of 3.8413. This means that the tourists were satisfied with the service they received in Rwanda. The item with the lowest mean is “I will come back again and visit Rwanda” with a mean of 3.6709.

It is important to recognise that customer satisfaction will let tourists come back again while their dissatisfaction will have a negative impact on the tourism industry performance.

The tourism industry in Rwanda needs to work hard given the high rate of those who come to Rwanda for the first time (see table 4.6).

There is a potential for sustenance of tourism in Rwanda if this area is worked on and tourists are satisfied.

Rating of Service Quality of Tourism Industry

Research question3; what is the rating of service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda?

The researcher administered four items of the research instrument for this question to 400 tourists. Table 4.11 to 4.15 bellow show a summary of descriptive statistics of the tourists' rating of service quality in Rwanda tourism industry in terms the following sections: Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, Empathy, Tangibles

Table 4.11: Mean Rating of Reliability

Items	Reliability of staff at hotels in Rwanda		Reliability of tourist guides in Rwanda	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std.Deviation
Are able to provide service as promised	3.5111	.63324	3.6812	.59307
Are able to provide service at the promised time	3.3771	.72971	3.6649	.57160
Are dependable in handling my service problems	3.3859	.69325	3.6160	.60953
Provide requested service without repetition	3.3824	.68542	3.6658	.58162
Average of reliability	3.4116	.58329	3.6527	.52525

The four items were optimistically confirmed for both hotels and tourist guides with means ranging from 3.3771 to 3.5111 for staff at hotels in Rwanda.

The results yielded a mean of 3.4116 with a standard deviation of 0.58329. The item with the highest mean was staff at hotels “are able to provide service as promised” with a mean of 3.5111. This shows that staff at the hotels are able to provide service as promised. It is important to note that the rating of this item shows that the tourists have been satisfied with the way the service is delivered at hotels even though there is still room for improvement.

The item with the lowest mean is staff at hotels “is able to provide service at the promised time” with a mean of 3.3771, that is, tend to agree. While this may have been rated lowest, it is still rated above average and does not indicate that staffs at hotels are not able to provide service at promised time. However, it indicates that there is a room for improvement. Hotels in Rwanda should pay more attention to reliability, especially the way their staff “provide service as promised”, “are able to handle customers’ problems” and “provide service right the first time”

These factors have a significant implication in satisfying tourists when they are in hotels in Rwanda. The best way to achieve this is to have skilled and motivated staff so that they can provide efficient service as this has an important impact on hotels industry development. A hotel should have a self evaluation form at each service point to be filled by the tourists (customers) as a continuous

means of improvement.

The tourist guides in Rwanda were positively rated with means ranging from 3.6160 to 3.6812. The results yielded a mean of 3.6527 with a standard deviation of 0.52525. The item with the highest mean was tourist guides “are able to provide service as promised” with a mean of 3.6812. This means that the tourists rated their guides as good at providing them service as promised.

The item with the lowest mean was tourist guides are dependable in handling tourist service problems’ with a mean of 3.6160 which shows that they were satisfied even though they rated it lowest. Kerin et al., (2006), point out that in most cases the consumer cannot (and does not) separate the person who deliverers the service from the service itself. The words and behaviours of the service deliverer are tools used to create a positive customer perception of the service deliverer and his or her company. The industry needs to include constant training especially in content area and language plus public relations since staff at hotels and guides interacts with customers face to face.

Table 4.12: Mean Rating of Responsiveness

Item	Responsiveness of staff at hotels in Rwanda		Responsiveness of tourist guides in Rwanda	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Are ready to respond to my requests	3.6040	.56557	3.7358	.52730
Give prompt service to me	3.4086	.71130	3.6727	.60114
Are willing to help me	3.6449	.54593	3.7876	.47422
Average of responsiveness	3.5500	.53832	3.7326	.49410

For the researcher to analyse the responsiveness of staff at hotels, three items were formulated and positively confirmed with means ranging from 3.4086 to 3.6449. The results yielded a mean of 3.5500 with a standard deviation of 0.53832. The item with the highest mean was staff at hotels “are willing to help tourists” with a mean of 3.6449. This means staff at hotels are willing to help tourists and this may be a reason for tourists to deal with the same hotels.

For the responsiveness of tourist guides, all items were positively rated with means ranging from 3.6727 to 3.7876. The results yielded a mean of 3.7326 with a standard deviation of 0.49410. The item with the highest mean was tourist guides “are able to provide service as promised” with a mean of 3.6812.

This means that the tourists rated their guides as good at providing them service as promised. The item with the lowest mean was tourist guides ‘are dependable in handling tourist service problems’ with a mean of 3.6160 which is also good.

As indicated by the results in Table 4.12, tourists are satisfied with the responsiveness of both staff at hotels and tourist guides in Rwanda. It means staff at hotels and tourist guides are ready to respond to tourists’ requests and are willing to help them. The results show that tourists appreciate tourist guides’ responsiveness more than the responsiveness of staff at hotels in Rwanda for all items. For example, for the item “Give prompt service to me” tourists rated the responsiveness of staff at hotels with a mean of 3.4086 which is “tend to agree” while they rated the responsiveness of tourist guides with a mean of 3.6727 which is “agree”. Hotel managers should train their staff on how to give prompt service to their customers, make a follow up and know if really their staff give prompt service as this is an important element in service industry

Table 4.13: Mean Rating of Assurance

Items	Assurance of staff at hotels in Rwanda		Assurance of Tourist guides in Rwanda	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Devia-tion
Instill confidence in me	3.4319	.67049	3.6640	.54586
Make me feel safe in my transactions	3.5287	.58490	3.6579	.55686
Are consistently courteous	3.6098	.57566	3.7249	.51858
Have knowledge to answer my requests	3.3506	.67314	3.6640	.58797
Average of assurance	3.6776	.49138	3.6776	.49138

For the analysis of the service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda in terms of assurance, the researcher formulated four items which were positively confirmed with means ranging from 3.3506 to 3.6098 for staff at hotels. The results yielded a mean of 3.6776 with a standard deviation of 0.49138. The item with the highest mean was the staff at hotels “are consistently courteous” with a mean of 3.6098, indicating that staff at hotels are consistently courteous towards tourists visiting their hotels which may be a reason for tourists to deal with the same hotels. Because staff at hotels are consistently courteous, tourists feel safe and risk is minimised. Gronross (2001) points out that risk is high in service industry because of the unique characteristic of services which is process rather than tangible things.

Hotel managers must put more emphasis on assurance to instil confidence in their customers and have enough knowledge to answer their requests. For mean rating of assurance of tourist guides, all items were positively rated with means ranging from 3.6579 to 3.7249. The results yielded a mean of 3.6776 with a standard deviation of 0.49138.

The item with the highest mean was tourist guides “are consistently courteous” with a mean of 3.7249. This means that the tourists rated their guides as good at being consistently courteous. The item with the lowest mean was tourist guides “have knowledge to answer tourists’ requests” with a mean of 3.6579 which is also good. With respect to the mean rating of assurance, tourists are satisfied with tourist guides more than the staff at hotels even though they are appreciated.

Hotel managers should put more emphasis on the way their staff instil confidence in their customers, an item which they rated with a mean of 3.4319, “tend to be satisfied”, lower than the way they rated assurance of tourist guides in Rwanda with a mean of 3.6640, “satisfied”. Hotel managers should give knowledge to their staff so that they can answer customers’ requests. While tourists rated ‘satisfied’ with the way tourist guides “have knowledge to answer their requests”, they rated “tend to be satisfied” with staff at hotels.

Table 4.14: Mean Rating of Empathy

Items	Empathy of staff at hotels in Rwanda		Empathy of tourists guide in Rwanda	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Give me individual attention	3.4487	.62392	3.6144	.56823
Deal with me in a caring fashion	3.4971	.58700	3.6373	.55854
Have my best interest in heart	3.4487	.63790	3.6053	.60211
Understand my needs	3.3363	.68996	3.5714	.61063
Average of empathy	3.4321	.55204	3.6082	.53746

The items had means ranging from 3.3363 – 3.4971 for staff empathy at hotels with a standard deviation of 0.52204. The item with the highest mean was staff at hotels “deal with tourists in a caring fashion.” It had a mean of 3.4971 which was tend to agree. The item with the lowest mean was staff at hotels “understand needs of tourists” with a mean of 3.3363.

Tourists rated the empathy of tourist guides in Rwanda means ranging from 3.5714 – 3.6373. The overall results yielded a mean of 3.6082 and a standard deviation of 0.73746. The item with the highest mean of 3.6373 was “deal with me in a caring fashion.” It was in the scale of satisfied. This item with the highest mean is higher than the item with the highest mean of tourists’ rating of staff in hotels in terms of dealing with tourists in a caring fashion

with a mean of 3.4971. The results confirmed that tourists are satisfied with service offered by tourist guides in Rwanda contrary to what they experience in hotels. Hotel managers should seriously think about staff empathy in hotels because tourists have not been fully satisfied with any of the items because they rated them with means less than 3.50 which is “tend to agree”. Hotel managers should learn how to deal with customers in a caring fashion and have customer interest in their heart, understand their needs and give them individual attention.

Table 4.15: Mean Rating of Tangibles

Items	Tangibles of hotels in Rwanda		Tangibles of different trails in protected areas	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Have modern equipments	3.0203	.79398	3.5457	.63633
Have Physical facilities that are visually appealing	3.1163	.77751	3.5474	.64987
Have employees with a neat, professional appearance	3.4477	.65032	3.6882	.54902
Have visually appealing facilities that are associated with their service	3.2669	.70024	3.5952	.55583
Have service hours that are convenient to customers	3.4825	.62545	3.5457	.63633
Average of tangibles	3.2617	.60446	3.5474	.64987

The items had means ranging from 3.0203 – 3.4825 which are “tend to agree” for the tangibles of hotels in Rwanda. The overall results yielded a mean of 3.2617 and a standard deviation of 0.60446. The item with the highest mean of 3.4825 was “have service hours that are convenient to me.” It was in the scale of tend to agree. The item with lowest mean of 3.0203 was ‘have modern equipments’. This item has the lowest mean and yet it is a crucial element for a hotel to be able to satisfy its customers.

Tangibles of hotels in Rwanda should be one of the important items to be ameliorated because it is considered as a core service component. Owners and hotel managers should think about modern equipments because a tourist visiting Rwanda will have experienced different modern equipments in different countries. They should also have physical facilities that are visually appealing, and employees with a neat and professional appearance. Facilities in hotels should have visually appealing facilities that are associated with their service and have service hours that are convenient to their customers.

While the study results show that tourists are not satisfied with tangibles of hotels in Rwanda, they are satisfied with tangibles of different trails in protected areas where all items had means ranging from 3.5457 to 3.6883. The results yielded a mean of 3.5952 with a standard deviation of 0.5583. The item with the highest

mean was tourist “have guides with a neat, professional appearance” with a mean of 3.6882 which is “satisfied”.

This indicates that the tourists rated tourist guides as good at having a neat, professional appearance. The item with the lowest item was tourism attractions have needed equipments with a mean of 3.5457 which also indicate full satisfaction. Based on the results, the tourists are satisfied with tangibles of different trails in protected areas and tend to be satisfied with tangibles of hotels. Tangibles represent appearance of physical facilities, equipment, personnel and communication materials used (Zeithaml et.al., 2006).

C. Relationship between Customer Satisfaction and Service Quality

Question 4: Is there a significant relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality in terms of:

Reliability, Responsiveness, Assurance, Empathy and Tangibles?

The analysis of the research questions above called for the testing of the null hypothesis which was stated as follows: There is no significant relationship between service quality and customer satisfaction. The research question wanted to establish the degree of relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality in terms of reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy

and tangibles. To determine the relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality, a simple linear correlation was performed. Table 4.16 presents the correlation coefficients.

Table 4.16: Correlation Coefficient between Customer Satisfaction and Service Quality

Customer satisfaction		Reli-ability	Respon-siveness	Assur-ance	Empathy	Tangibles
Hotels	Pearson r	.423**	.374**	.421**	.391**	.433**
	P- Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	398	359	352	350	344
Tourism attractions	Pearson r	.532**	.575**	.627**	.605**	.620**
	P- Value	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	398	388	386	380	379

***. Correlation is significant at the 0.001 level (2-tailed).

The correlation coefficient between customer satisfaction and reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy and tangibles of tourist guides in Rwanda is between 0.532 – 0.627 with a p-value of 0.000 which is less than the significance level of 0.05. The correlation coefficients are less than 0.80 but greater than 0.30.

This means that there is a significant moderate and positive relationship between customer satisfaction and reliability, responsiveness, assurance, empathy of staff at hotels and tourist guides and tangibles of hotels and tourism attractions in Rwanda. This implies that customer satisfaction is determined by service quality in terms of

reliability, responsiveness, empathy and tangibles of staff at hotels and tourist guides in Rwanda.

In view of the fact that service quality can be measured in terms of customer perception, customer expectation, customer satisfaction, and customer attitude (Sachdev and Verma, 2004), every service provider should increase their customer satisfaction. Ekinci (2003) affirms that the evaluation of service quality leads to customer satisfaction. Many researchers in the service industry point out that there is a strong positive relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality in terms of tangibles, reliability, responsiveness, empathy and assurance (Agus et al., 2007).

Service quality influences customer satisfaction and promotes positive word of mouth without any expense to the company with effect and credibility that are superior to those of conventional advertising (Lee et al., 2006), (Tarn, 2005), and (Villanueva et al., 2008). As a result, the existing customers increase company customers by recommending the product/service to their friends and relatives.

In conclusion, tourists who are contented with the reliability of service, responsiveness, assurance and empathy of hotel staff and tourist guides and with the tangibles of hotels and different trails in protected areas are satisfied with the tourism industry of Rwanda.

CONCLUSION

The researcher drew the following conclusions on the relationship between customer satisfaction and service quality of tourism industry in Rwanda.

1. Tourists have a high level of satisfaction with the tourism industry of Rwanda.
2. Tourists are satisfied with a service quality of the tourism industry of Rwanda in terms of reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy of tourist guides and tangibles of tourist attractions. However, the tourists are fairly satisfied with all dimensions of a service quality of hotels in Rwanda.
3. Tourists who are contented with the reliability of service, responsiveness, assurance and empathy of hotel staff and tourist guides and with the tangibles of hotels and different trails in protected areas tend to be satisfied with the tourism industry of Rwanda.

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EFFECT OF GLOBALIZATION ON HUMAN RIGHTS PROTECTION IN AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

The paper argues that there is a growing interconnection between globalisation on the one hand, and rule of law and human rights protection on the other hand. Globalisation provokes fundamental transformations of economy, legal and political systems. There is evidence that globalisation does not only promote economy, but also human rights and democracy. The paper analyse the various ways by which globalisation impact of on human rights protection in Africa. Today, most of African countries are extremely open to international economy. Numerous questions beg for answers. For example, what has been the impact of globalization on African societies? Is there any reason to believe that globalisation will benefit African societies more than it has done so far? It is argued that many of its short-term effects will be negative.

Nevertheless, along with social changes that global capitalism and industrialism may impel, the medium and long-term consequences of globalisation may be positive on human rights. But globalisation has also generated significant international opposition over concerns that it has increased inequality and environmental degradation. There is a need to study the impact of globalization on African societies from the viewpoint of inward foreign direct investment. This paper discusses the negative effects posed by globalisation on African societies in its short term. It is argued further that globalisation may be a positive factor of democracy, economic redistribution, the rule of law, and promotion of civil and political rights in its medium and long term.

I. INTRODUCTION

Globalisation is not a new phenomenon in international system, although its forms and the technology that spurs it have changed.² Although no consensus exists, social scientists and historians have proposed three starting historical events: the industrial Revolution about 1800, Western maritime expansion around 1500, or the integration of Asian around 1000, or earlier. In Africa, globalisation began in the early 16th century triggered by the slave trade.³ The evolution of the modern World is characterized by three megatrends: Globalisation, regionalism and nationalism.⁴ All of them have various implications for human rights but effects of globalisation are the strongest as they affect all countries. Globalisation is a pervasive phenomenon of our times,⁵ and it cannot be stopped.⁶ It is changing the conditions under which countries and societies integrate into world

2 Zubair Iqbal, Mohsin S Khan "Trade Reform and Regional Integration in Africa" available at <http://books.google.co.za/books?hl=en&lr=&id=jvQlFSxkjR EC&oi=fnd&pg=PA147&dq=globalisation+Africa> [accessed on 2015-09-15].

3 Globalisation – or the ability of many people, ideas and technology to move from country to country – is not new. In Africa, it was initiated not only by the sense of community, but also the slave trade and given impetus by colonialism and Christian missionaries. See Frederic Cooper "What is the concept of globalisation good for? An African historian's perspective" (2001) Royal African Societies .

4 Janusz Symonides *Human Rights: New Dimensions and Challenges* UNESCO Publishing (1998) p 28.

5 The IMF describes globalization as "the growing economic interdependence of countries worldwide through the increasing volume and variety of cross-border transactions in goods and services and of international capital flows, and also through the more rapid and widespread diffusion of technology." See generally, Uche U. Ewelukwut "Centuries of Globalization; Centuries of Exclusion: African Women, Human Rights, and the New International Trade Regime" (2005) 20 Berkeley Journal of Gender, Law & Justice p 78.

6 *Ibid.*

politics and the world economy.⁷ There is a devised debate among human rights activists and several human rights scholars about whether globalisation is good or bad for human rights.⁸

The term globalisation is used to characterise the process of growing interconnections and interdependence in the modern world.⁹ It is generated by growing international economic, cultural and political cooperation and links, as well as by the need to respond together to global problems which can be solved only on a planetary scale.¹⁰ The apparent universal market and demand for a product, which is created and presented by the use of new communication technologies and produced by a transnational corporation, could be seen as a manifestation of new opportunities provided by globalisation for all people.¹¹

Even though the economic dimension of globalisation is the most evident it may have positive and negative impacts because of the widening and deepening of the international flow of trade, finance and information in a single and integrated market.¹²

⁷ Rhoda E. Howard- Hassmann "The second great transformation: human rights leapfrogging in the era of globalization 2005 Human Rights Quarterly p 3.

⁸ *Ibid.*

⁹ The concept of globalisation is essentially a product of the 1990s. For further readings see, David Held "Democracy and globalisation" available at: <http://scholar.google.co.za/scholar?q=info:eRiDofJrumEJ:scholar.google.com&output=viewport&pg=1&hl=en> [accessed on 2015-09-15]; See also Collier P "Globalisation : Implications for African economic management" cited in Edwin O Ijeoma *Globalisation and National Building in Africa* (2008) p 47.

¹⁰ Janusz Symonides *Op cit* p 28.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

¹² Janusz and Symonides, *Op. Cit.*, p. 29.

These opportunities and dangers arise because globalisation is an economic, political, social, and ideological phenomenon which carries with it unanticipated, often contradictory and polarising consequences.¹³

The concept of globalisation and the question of how its current trend effects the protection of human rights have been the subject of notable debate. Does globalisation bring democracy, development, human rights protection, and social justice in the African countries? Or has globalization lead to the deterioration of individual rights? In this regard, Howard-Hassman presents globalisation as “the second great transformation spreading capitalism over the world.”¹⁴ In other words, capitalism is viewed as an essential variable that may lead to a democratic State, which in turn may result in a society in which human rights are an essential part of the same.¹⁵

While democracy is “the best political system to protect human rights”, it is also argued that although globalisation may negatively impact a country in the short-term, its medium to long-term effects will be positive and will result in greater moves to democracy, economic distribution, the rule of law, and the promotion of social and civil rights.¹⁶

13 R Mc Corquodale and R Fairbrother “Globalisation and Human Rights” (1999) 21 *Human Rights Quarterly* p 735.

14 Rhoda E. Howard-Hassman *Op cit* p 1.

15 Havidán Rodríguez “A ‘Long Walk to Freedom’ and Democracy: Human Rights, Globalization, and Social Injustice” (2004) 83 (1) *Social Forces* p 392.

16 Rhoda E. Howard-Hassman *Op cit* p 1.

However, the question is how this may apply to African countries. The way globalisation can affect rule of law, democracy and human rights protection in the African countries is discussed in this article.

The impact of globalisation on human right in Africa will be analysed from the short term as well as medium and long-term perspectives. The article discusses the concept of globalisation and considers its general impact on human rights in African. Furthermore, it examines the processes of globalization and human rights, and argues that globalisation and human rights need not be in conflict, as long as the globalisation regime is applied and evolved in a manner that respects the hierarchy of norms in international law.

It is further argued that trade laws must be interpreted in a way that advances human rights, transparency, accountability and representivity. The article concludes that human rights and globalisation are fundamentally linked and must be seen as complementary, and compatible with the effective protection of human rights.

II. CONCEPTUALISATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS

Gaius pointed out that it is inappropriate to deal with legal subjects by starting with the subject matter and without tracing their history and origins, not even giving one's hands a preliminary wash.¹⁷ In this perspective, , one cannot expect to understand the concept 'human rights' in the 21st century if he/ she does not trace its antecedents from the beginning. In order to gain a full understanding of the dramatic implications brought about by the incorporation of the concept of "human rights" within international law, it is necessary to wash one's hands in the waters of history.¹⁸

The global concept of 'human rights' transcends any known period in history. History itself is full of event and struggles for rights by people all over the

*17Gaius was born, probably in Rome, somewhere circa 110 AD. He studied law in the Sabinian school under Aburnius Valero, and possibly Tuscianus. From 130 until his death, Gaius taught the law to Roman students. Gaius was a second-century jurist and the most influential of classical jurists. He developed the "first system in the history of law," dividing the law into persons, things, and actions (*ad personas, res, actiones*), thus distinguishing between substantive law and procedural law. Gaius was also father to the classic division between contract and tort (*delict*), although he recognised that that there were cases that appeared to share in features of both (i.e. quasi-contract, quasi-delict, or what we call *contorts*). It is Gaius who first distinguished between corporeal or tangible and incorporeal or intangible property. He was the true architect of Justinian's collection and the model for many later constructions as well, including national codes like the *Siete Partidas* and the *Code Napoléon*, legal treatises like Antoine Loisel's *Institutes of Customary Law*, Savigny's own *System of Modern Roman Law*, and a variety of more tangential philosophical ventures. Gaius' pedagogical role was almost as various and substantial as that of Aristotle. See Kelley 1979 American Historical Review pp 619-648; Harris and Greenwell 2006 <http://www.harrisgreenwell.com>.*

18 Harris and Greenwell 2006 <http://www.harrisgreenwell.com> [Accessed on 12 January 2016].

world at all times. The struggles for rights are rooted in the Enlightenment and the emergence of civilisation of the past.¹⁹ From Biblical history, it is reported that the ancient Israelites made efforts, at one time in Egypt, at another time in Babylon, to free themselves from slavery and bondage. Essentially, the concept 'human right' is an evolution of revolt against authoritarianism, tyranny, slavery, discrimination and all other ways by which rights, which are innate to all human beings have been suppressed. According to the scholars of human rights, the settled fact is that a human being, without any regard to time and space, is entitled to the exercise of some freedoms.²⁰ These freedoms are not granted by any authority but they are paradoxically claimed and exercised by every human being as of right. These include freedoms of worship, speech, association, opinion and of the pursuit of happiness and worthwhile vocations and professions.

At present, human rights are an established part of international law with an institutional structure, including substantive definitions of human rights²¹ and mechanisms to enforce these rights.²²

¹⁹ G Mohan and J Holland "Human Rights & Development in Africa: Moral Instruction or empowering opportunity" 2001 Review of African Political Economy, p. 179.

²⁰ J Donnelly "The Relative Universality of Human Rights" (2007) *Human Rights Quarterly* 281-283.

²¹ Human rights are commonly defined as being those rights which are inherent to the human being. The concept of human rights acknowledges that every human being is entitled to enjoy his or her human rights without distinction as to race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin. United Nations Human Rights: A Basic Handbook for UN Staff 3.

²² R McCorquodale and R Fairbrother "Globalization and Human Rights" 1999 *Human Rights Quarterly* p 739.

The creation of the United Nations provided an ideal forum for the development and adoption of international human rights instruments. The Preamble to the UN Charter reaffirms “faith in fundamental human rights, in the dignity and worth of the human person, in the equal rights of men and women and of nations large and small.”²³ The purposes of the UN includes, in article 1(3), the promotion and encouragement of human rights and fundamental freedoms. Under articles 55 and 56 of the UN Charter, UN member states are committed to joint their action in solving international problems of an economic, social, cultural, or humanitarian character; and in promoting and encouraging respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms for all without distinction of any kind.²⁴ Even though the term “human rights” appears in scattered places in the UN Charter, it is terse and even cryptic, and there is no argument that it is mentioned in vital contexts.²⁵

The doctrine of human rights has been highly influential within international law, especially, in the “International bill of Human rights (Universal Declaration of Human Rights, International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, and International Covenant on Social and Economic Rights)”.²⁶

23 Paragraph 2 of the Preamble to the UN Charter, 1945.

24 Article 1(3) of the UN Charter, 1945

25 The term “human rights” appears in the UN Charter in the following key important provisions: paragraph 2 of the Preamble, Article 1(3), Article 13(1) (b), Articles 55 and 56, Article 62(2), and Article 68. UN Charter, 1945.

26 The International Bill of Human Rights is composed by Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948; International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights,

Henry Steiner, a leading academic, has described the Universal Declaration of Human Rights as the “spiritual parent” of other human rights treaties and human rights law.²⁷ The most “fundamental human rights” were proclaimed within the 1948 UN Declaration of Universal Human Rights. This Declaration provides for the principles of universality, inalienability and indivisibility of human rights. Since 1948 subsequent international and regional conventions extended these principles into more areas of social, political, cultural and economic life.²⁸ In line with this, most states have adopted constitutions and other laws which formally protect basic human rights.

The concept of “human rights” has not only evolved in international instruments, but also in international customary law. Customary international law “results from a general and consistent practice of states followed by them out of a sense of legal obligation (*opinio juris*).”²⁹ Hence, customary international law binds all states

1966; and International Covenant on Social and Economic Rights, 1966.

27 Henry J Steiner “Political Participation as a Human Right” 1988 Harvard Human Rights Year-Book p 77-79.

28 African Charter on Human and Peoples’ Rights (1981); African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (1990); American Convention on Human Rights, 1969, and its Protocols of 1988 and 1990; Inter-American Convention to Prevent and Punish Torture, 1985; Inter-American Convention on Forced Disappearance of Persons, 1994; Inter-American Convention on the Prevention, Punishment and Eradication of Violence against Women, 1994; European Convention on Human Rights, 1950, and its Protocols Nos. 1, 4, 6 and 7; European Social Charter, 1961, and its Protocols of 1988, 1991 and 1995; European Social Charter (revised), 1996; European Convention for the Prevention of Torture and Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment, 1987; Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities, 1995.

29 See Art. 38 (1) (b) of Statute of the International Court of Justice listing sources of international law. See also Restatement (Third) of Foreign Relations Law of the United States, 102 (1986).

without exception and irrespective of their consent. The fact that human rights are protected in all major human rights treaties and customary international law lead to the conclusion that human rights obligations are beyond the mere fact of acceptance of treaty law, but rather, they are non-derogable, and enjoy *erga omnes* character.³⁰

III. THE MEANING OF GLOBALISATION

Globalisation is the subject of intense debate among scholars with regard to its meaning and consequences. It is viewed by some as predominantly economic process or even synonym for global capitalism.³¹ Others perceive it as purely economic phenomenon that evolves the spatial reorganisation of production and expansion of trans-border financial flows and, to a very limited extent, labour, technology, transport, communication and information technology.³²

In this respect, globalization reflects a widespread perception that the world is rapidly being moulded into a shared social space by economic and technological forces and that development in one region of the world can have profound consequences on the life changes of individuals or communities on the other side of the

30 Article 4 of ICCPR stipulates: “[N]o derogation from articles 6, 7, 8 (paragraphs 1 and 2), 11, 15, 16 and 18 may be made under this provision.”

31 W Greider One World , Ready or Not cited in A Brysk (ed) Globalisation and Human Rights, California, University of California Press, 2002 p 6; D Korten When Corporations Rule the World cited in A Brysk (ed) Globalisation and Human Rights, University of California Press, 2002 p 6.

32 “The Challenges of Globalization in Africa What Role for Civil Society and other Stakeholders?”

globe.³³ In the wording of Scholte's, globalization is an ensemble of developments that make the world a single place, changing the meaning and importance of distance and national identity in world affairs.³⁴

While many scholars focus on economic globalisation others emphasize the impact of transnational demographic, environmental, and cultural flows.³⁵

It is submitted that globalisation is a contested concept and there is no universally accepted definition of it. Globalisation could mean whatever the author wants it to mean. In a synthetic way, this article defines globalization as the erosion of the barriers of time and space that constrain human activity across the earth and the increasing social awareness of these changes.

Accordingly, globalization involves an increasing diffusion and penetration of global connections into social life, about which we are becoming more and more self-aware in the "every day of life". Globalisation is not just an "out there" phenomenon, but rather it is an "in here" phenomenon which may have very different logics and impact for human rights as the following sections reflect.

33 Nsongurua J Udombana "How Should we then live? Globalization and the New Partnership Africa's Development" 2002 Boston University International Law Journal p 3

34 Scholte 1996 b: 44.

35 Kearney 1995; Sassen S *Globalisation and Its Discontents: Essay on the New Mobility of People and Money*, New York, New Press 1998; Kearney M "The local and the global: the anthropology of globalization and transnationalism" 1995 Annual Review of Anthropology pp 547–265 cited in A Brysk (ed) *Globalisation and Human Rights*, University of California Press, 2002 p 6.

IV. GLOBALISATION AND ITS GENERAL IMPACT ON HUMAN RIGHTS

As the concept of global village, globalisation has, undoubtedly, influenced not only the content, nature and realisation of human rights but also the mechanism for their enforcement. The question now arises as to what is the nature of globalisation, both as a concept and a process. Has it promoted or impaired the respect of human rights with the African continent? Or is it a neutral phenomenon?³⁶

There is debate whether globalisation is good or bad.³⁷ Leary, for example, presents mixed record of economic globalisation. He points out that globalisation may contribute to alleviation of poverty, calling immediate attention to gross violation of human rights; sometimes it has less beneficial consequences for the rights of workers such as women workers immigrants workers and indigenous peoples.³⁸ For Rhoda, the process of globalisation is causing human rights abuses in the short term. Optimistically, he adds that in long term, globalisation may well create a world of increasing

³⁶ Deva, for example argues that 'the deceptive neutrality of globalisation and its effective use as an ideological tool mask the powerful reality of the domination of the world by few hundred enormously powerful transnational corporations' Surya Deva 'Human rights realisation in an era of globalisation: The Indian Experience (2006) 12 Buffalo Human Law Rights Law Review 99.

³⁷ Rhoda E. Howard-Hassmann Op cit p 3.

³⁸ V.A. Leary and Daniel Warner Social Issues, Globalisation and International Institutions: Labour Rights and the EU, ILO, OECD and WTO available at: <http://books.google.co.za/books?id=wbazhA8ZbfgC&pg=PA152&lpg=PA152&dq=globalisation+and+human+rights> [accessed on 2015-09-15]

prosperity, democracy and protection of human rights.³⁹ In the wording of Rhoda, globalisation is neither pro-nor anti-human rights. It could offer opportunities both for the promotion and abridgment of human rights, at the national as well international levels.

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) assesses globalisation as a complex process and phenomenon of antinomies and dialectics: integrating and fragmenting world work; uniformity and localization; increased material prosperity and deepening misery; homogenisation and hegemonisation.⁴⁰ The critics' views argue that globalisation has set into motion the second phase of neo-colonial domination, plunder, pillage and exploitation in Africa.⁴¹ However, this critique of previous argument is not fair and is too pessimistic. In fact, globalisation allows developing countries and their citizens to develop economically and raise their standards of living.

It is important to note, optimistically, that globalization offers great opportunities.⁴² E. Hassmann argues that globalisation promotes economic rights through investment and job creation, and civil and political rights through the creation of stable and tolerant environment.⁴³

39 Rhoda E. Howard- Hassmann *Op cit p 5.*

40 Kunle Amuwo "Globalisation, NEPAD and the governance question in Africa
"Africa studies Quarterly available at: <http://www.africa.ufl.edu/asq/v6/v6i3a4.htm> [accessed on 2015-09-15].

41 Edwin O Ejiofor *Globalisation and National Building (2008)* p 55.

42 Bar A Andreassen and Stephen P Marks *Development As Human Right (2006)*
p 266

43 Rhoda E Hassmann *Op cit p 3.*

Can this statement reflect the truth particularly in African countries? If so, what are its potential benefits and shortcomings in short run as well as medium and long term? Is there any relationship between globalisation and human rights? Will globalisation law develop a body of rules that advances free trade while at the same time promote and protect human rights in African societies?

V. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GLOBALISATION AND HUMAN RIGHTS IN AFRICAN SOCIETIES

The relationship between globalisation and human rights remains highly controversial in the African context. While neo-liberals argue that globalisation lead to growth and development generating into respect for human rights,⁴⁴ sceptics contend that globalisation process always tends to be 'exclusive of poor' and increases inequality leading to social unrest and economic insecurity.⁴⁵ This leads to domestic violence and conflicts, allowing governments to resort to repressive measures.

Despite the positive aspects of globalization, one has to recognise that it has negative aspects and the fact that its benefits are very unevenly shared and its costs unevenly distributed among, across and within countries.

⁴⁴ Krishna C Vadlamannati '*Testing the effects of economic, social, and political globalisation on human rights in Africa*' (2009) 1 available at http://mpra.ub.unimuenchen.de/15290/1/MPRA_paper_15290.pdf [accessed on 2015-09-21]

⁴⁵ *Ibid.*

This is specifically true in African countries. Both in theory and practice, for every positive aspect of globalisation, there is negative side. While globalization may have positive, innovative, dynamic aspects in the future, it also has negative, disruptive, marginalizing aspects in short-term.⁴⁶ The following section will examine the relationship between globalisation and respect for human rights in African countries.

V.1 Short term effects of globalisation on human rights in Africa

In its May 13-19, 2000 issue, *The Economist* (London), called Africa the “hopeless” continent and further characterized the region’s prospects for development in new millennium as practically non-existent.⁴⁷ In fact, the magazine argued that the new century has brought primarily disaster to the continent. It went on to state that “at least 45% of African now live in poverty”.⁴⁸

Furthermore, the sceptics argue that globalisation hinders economic and social growth in developing countries.⁴⁹ They stress that countries seeking assistance from international financial institutions like World Bank and International Monetary Fund (IMF) in the form of grants / aid / loans are often linked to acceptance of their terms and conditions related to free market initiatives

46 Rhoda E Hassmann *Op cit* p 6.

47 John Mukum Mbaku “The Africa Debt Crisis and the New Globalisation” in George Klay Kieh Africa and the New Globalisation (2008) p 29.

48 John Mukum Mbaku *Op cit* p 36.

49 Krishna C. Vadlamannati *Op cit* p 5.

which could be detrimental to overall development. These initiatives primarily include reduction in expenditure on social sector and development spending.⁵⁰

The findings of Franklin, McLaren and Abouharb show that acceptance of IMF and World Bank programs are sometime associated with decline in government respect for human rights.⁵¹

For instance, in 1986 as a part of economic liberalization policies, the Zambian government increased the prices of certain goods and devalued its local currency against US dollar which led to angry protests and riots. More than fifteen people were killed in an attempt by government to suppress these violent protests.⁵²

There is a growing perception among African intellectuals that basic human rights namely social rights are increasingly being eroded by the momentous disruptions brought about by globalisation.⁵³ Arguably, Multinational Corporations (MNCs) may even be directly pro-active in the maintenance of instability.

50 Meyer W. H "Human Rights & MNCs: Theory versus Quantitative Analysis" (1996)
18 *Human Rights Quarterly*, pp 368-397.

51 Harrigan & Mosley (1991) and Stiglitz (2002) show that this relationship between World Bank & IMF programs and economic growth is not clear. See Franklin J (1997): *IMF Conditionality, Threat Perception & Political Repression: A Cross-National Analysis*, *Comparative Political Studies*, 30, pp. 576 – 606; McLaren L. M (1998): *The Effect of IMF Austerity Programs on Human Rights Violations: An Exploratory Analysis of Peru, Argentina & Brazil*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Midwest Political Science Association, Chicago.

52 Krishna C. Vadlamannati Op cit p 6.

53 Amavilah, Voxi Heinrich 'Globalisation, governance, and the economic performance of Sub-Saharan Africa' (2009) available at <http://mpra.ub.uni-muenchen.de/15600/> [MPRA Paper No 15600 accessed on 2015-09-15].

For instance, Shell Oil has been accused of supporting and funding the dictatorial regime in Nigeria and collaborating in the death of the Ken Saro-Wiwa, a democratic activist.⁵⁴ In a quest to gain control over natural resources, especially oil, MNCs in the name of globalisation either directly or indirectly created unprecedented general instability and human insecurity in resource rich countries like Democratic Republic of Congo, Sudan, Sierra Leone, Nigeria, Ivory Coast, to mention a few.⁵⁵

For Richard Falk, globalisation is characterised by liberalisation, privatisation, minimizing economic regulation, rolling back welfare, reducing expenditure or public goods, tightening fiscal discipline, favouring freer flows of capital, strict control on organized labour, and tax reduction.⁵⁶ Falk's description fits the picture of the conditions often imposed by the IMF on borrowing countries.

Under this requirement, African states are required to end various programs in areas such public education, public housing and public transportation. Alternatively, these social programs have to be privatised. For instance, the Word Bank, one of the major agents of the globalisation, is pressuring African states to end their investment in public higher education.

54 Steve Chan and James R. Scritt *Coping With Globalisation* 1st ed (2002) pp 66 -67

55 Krishna C Vadlamannati *Op cit* p 3.

56 Richard Falk "Predatory Globalisation: A Critique" 141 (1999) cited in Rhoda E. Howard-Hassmann *Op cit* p 18.

Therefore, this kind globalisation is subject to criticism, and hinders the development of African countries.⁵⁷

Similarly, Howard notes that in Africa, schools are closing as government retrench in the face of structural adjustment programmes imposed by the IMF.⁵⁸ Because the government is the largest employer in most African states, not only do thousands of people lose their jobs, but often all services are drastically cut, including health services.⁵⁹ Those who are the worst affected when governments are

forced to change their priorities, are usually the poor, women, and agricultural workers. For example, Zimbabwe used to provide free education for all until adherence to an IMF structural adjustment program caused this to end.⁶⁰ As a result, many Zimbabwean girls are no longer being educated because parents make gender-based financial choices.⁶¹ Thus, human rights (in the case of Zimbabwe, the rights to education and freedom from discrimination) are violated as consequence of the policy of globalisation. The fact that the economic decision-making process is being taken away from governments

57 Geoge K. Kieh '*The new globalisation: Scope, nature and dimensions' in Africa and new globalization* *The new globalization* (2008) p 15.

58 Rhoda E Howard "Civil Conflict in Sub-Saharan Africa: Internally Generated Causes" (1996) *International law Journal* pp 26-32.

59 Robert McCorquodale and Richard Fairbrother "Globalisation and Human Rights" (1999) 21 *Human Rights Quarterly* p 745.

60 Robert McCorquodale and Richard Fairbrother *Op cit* p 746.

61 Bharati Sadasivam "The Impact of Structural Adjustment on Women: A Governance and Human Rights Agenda" (1997) 19 *Human Rights Quarterly* pp 630-641.

and put in the hands of financial experts of globalised economic institutions also means that the people and governments of African states are not effectively involved in decisions affecting their lives.⁶² To my understanding, this has an impact on both state sovereignty and human rights.

Citizens are not able to exercise their right to development because they are not afforded the opportunity to participate in decisions concerning their development.⁶³ In addition, governments, as well as minorities within a state, are marginalized as power is transferred to bureaucrats and special interest groups. This impact is compounded with the increasing privatisation of public functions and public goods.⁶⁴

As a result, the ability of governments to protect human rights, even if guaranteed by a constitution and enforced by an independent judiciary, becomes more restricted.⁶⁵ Of course, many African governments, even when they are in control of economic decision-making, do not take the interests or economic rights of their people into account.⁶⁶ However, globalisation can restrict the choices open to governments and people, particularly in

62 See Lawrence Tshuma "The Impact of IMF/World Bank Dictated Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes on Human Rights: Erosion of Empowerment Rights" in *the institutionalisation of human rights in southern Africa* (1993) (Pearson Nherere & Marina d'Engelbronner-Kolff eds) Vol. 21 pp 219-229.

63 R Fairbrother and R. McCorquodale Op cit p 748.

64 Ibid.

65 See Philip Alston "The Myopia of Handmaidens: International Lawyers and Globalisation" (1997) 8 European Journal of International Law pp 435-443.

66 R. Fairbrother and R. McCorquodale Op cit p 745.

the human rights area, and thus make it more difficult to attribute responsibility for violations of human rights.

Furthermore, as a multifaceted phenomenon, globalisation has various dimensions on culture. The *raison d'être* of culture globalisation is to promote homogenisation.⁶⁷ Cultural globalisation has several major elements. The food aspect involves the spread of Western products throughout the world. For example, Gerber, Coca Cola or Kentucky Fried Chicken are available everywhere.⁶⁸ The export of America and Western consumption habits to all the corner of the world, including the African continent has implications on the African countries.

One of the major consequences is the alteration of the diet of the peoples.⁶⁹ That is, over time, the people abandoned their indigenous food products. The related problem is that the changes in diet adversely impact local businesses that produce and sell indigenous foods. Some of the negative effects include the loss of revenues due to poor sales, the reduction of the labour force and its implications for unemployment and poverty and closure.

According to the United Nations Development Programme, for instance, twenty-two sub-Saharan African countries had lower per capita incomes in 2000 than they did in the period between 1975 and 1985.⁷⁰

⁶⁷ George K. Kieh *Op cit p 15.*

⁶⁸ *Ibid.*

⁶⁹ *Ibid.*

⁷⁰ *Human Development Report (2002) New York and Oxford: Oxford University*

Industries of a number of African countries have also suffered significant losses due to cheap imports.

The textile industries of Nigeria, Mozambique, Malawi and Tanzania, for example, have been devastated by cheap imports triggered by premature and indiscriminate free trade.⁷¹

The 1995 United Nations Human Development Report dealt with the impact of damaging forms of economic growth.⁷² It found that damaging economic growth includes: that which does not translate into jobs, that which is not matched by the spread of democracy, that which snuffs out separate cultural identities, that which despoils the environment, and growth where most of the benefits are seized by the rich.⁷³

An example of damaging economic growth, where growth, as it were, is not growth, is where crops are planted for export to gain foreign exchange revenue while the people are deprived of their staple diet. This has happened in the African countries such as Zimbabwe.⁷⁴ This kind of damaging economic growth is contrary to

Press, 2002; Read more at <http://science.jrank.org/pages/9529/Globalisation-in-Africa-Globalisation-s-Implications-Africa.html#ixzz0QiCVFQyE> [accessed on 2015-09-15].

71 Globalization in Africa - Globalization's Implications For Africa Read more: <http://science.jrank.org/pages/9529/Globalization-in-Africa-Globalization-s-Implications-Africa.html#ixzz0RYfAYGaz> [accessed on 2015-09-21].

72 United Nations Development Programme (1995) human development report 1995.

73 One form of damaging growth can be where governments attempt to attract foreign investment by improving the physical appearances of cities, such as the extermination of street children and the perfunctory cleaning up of slum housing by eviction of low-income tenants [...] Read more in R McCorquodale and R Faibrother Op cit pp 748-749.

74 Ibid.

the right of self-determination which provides that in no case may a people be deprived of its own means of subsistence.⁷⁵

Aside from its social-economic implications, globalisation also exerts pressure on African environment, leading to the induction of migration. In various ways, globalisation hastens environmental degradation, causing proactive, reactive and, in some cases forced migration.

Globalisation and its intrinsic liberalisation policies have led to the impoverishment of many rural inhabitants who come under strong migratory pressures. For example, the pressure to establish large plantations and a tea factory led the government to forcefully evict hundreds of small peasant farmers from traditional homes in Gumaro Abo area, in western Ethiopia.⁷⁶ As the peasant lands were appropriated by the state, the victims were forced to relocate and to overexploit the surrounding lands.

Also, the pressure to repay debts has compelled indebted African countries to increase production of cash crops at the expense of food production for domestic consumption. Cash agriculture, however requires, an intensive utilisation on chemical fertiliser and pesticides which leads to the exhaustion of soil nutrients.⁷⁷

⁷⁵ Article 21 of African Charter on Human and Peoples' Rights, 1981.

⁷⁶ John K Akokpari "Globalisation and migration in Africa" (2000) *African Sociological Review* 72 at 92 available at http://www.codesria.org/Links/Publications/asr4_2full/akokpari.pdf [accessed on 2015 -09-19].

⁷⁷ *Ibid.*

However, it is undisputed that globalisation has some positive attributes on social, political, and economic ground. The eventual outcome of globalisation for the African countries is not only negative, even in short term.

Many millions of individuals benefit from new job opportunities, new markets, and new capacity for mobility, whether from the village to the town or from the countries to another.⁷⁸

Meyer compared levels of direct US foreign investment and foreign aid to levels of civil liberties and political rights in recipient countries, as ranked by Freedom House, and to equality of life indicators, namely the adult illiteracy rate, the infant mortality rate, and expectancy at age one.⁷⁹

He concluded that there was an improvement in human rights in African societies receiving significant foreign investment.⁸⁰ However, Rodham stresses that the consequences for human rights of enormous social, political and civil change cannot be determined in the short term.⁸¹ It is better to look at the medium and long terms in order to ascertain the effects of globalisation.

78 Rhoda E Howard-Hassmann *Op cit* 9.

79 William H Meyer "Human and MNCs: Theories versus Quantitative analysis" (1996)

18 *Human. Rights Quarterly* p 368.

80 *Ibid.*

81 Rhoda E Hassmann *Op cit* p 19.

V.2 Medium and long terms effects of globalisation on human rights in Africa

The focus of this section is to examine the positive relationship between globalisation and human rights in African countries. Liberal theorists argue that countries which are highly engaged in globalisation process are likely to experience higher economic growth, greater affluence, more democracy, and increasingly peaceful conditions in the home country and elsewhere⁸².

Globalisation helps to promote economic development, providing trade and investment opportunities creating much needed employment generation and reduce income inequality and poverty thereby reducing social unrest and economic insecurity.⁸³ Thus, countries with higher levels of globalisation process should suffer lesser degree of political violence and have highest number of peace years, promoting government respect for human rights.⁸⁴ It follows that the globalisation process should not only serve profit-oriented goals but also help create peace and tranquillity environment and thereby decreasing human rights abuses.

⁸²Jacobsen Monika S “Peace and Prosperity, or Democratic Chaos?” (1996)
Internasjonal Politikk pp 237-254.

⁸³Krishna C Vadlamannati *Op cit* 6.

⁸⁴ *Ibid.*

V.3 Relationship between globalisation, democracy and rule of law

The extent to which globalisation has assisted democracy is an issue that generated a lot of debate; whether for social and political thinkers, policy makers, or concerned citizens.⁸⁵ Does globalisation facilitate democratisation? There are different views as to what globalisation entails for democracy in the developing countries. Some scholars argue that economic and political liberalisations undermine democracy governance, with its focus on national self-determination through a territorial state.⁸⁶

Krishna Chaitanya argue that globalisation promotes human rights as promoting foreign trade and investments policies to attract investments which would require strengthening rule of law, promoting good governance, lowering bureaucratic hassles and corruption, allowing greater economic freedom investing heavily in social services and social and physical infrastructure related areas.⁸⁷

Another argument supporting a positive relationship between economic globalisation, democracy and the rule of law suggests that globalised economic institutions,

⁸⁵ Ronald Munck "Globalization and Democracy: A New Great Transformation" available at: <http://www.culturaleconomics.atfreeweb.com/Anno/Munck%20Globalization%20&%20Democracy%20AAPPS%202002.htm> [accessed on 2015-09-19].

⁸⁶ Karl-Heinz Ladeur Public Governance in the Age of Globalisation (2004)

⁸⁷ Krishna C. Vadlamannati *Op cit* p 5.

including transnational corporations, tend to demand that certain conditions exist in a state before they are willing to invest and that these conditions lead to the protection of civil and political rights.⁸⁸ Arguably, these investment conditions ensure that there is a democratic system, including judicial guarantees of human rights and political institutions. The strongest point the present researcher gets from here is that good governance is extremely important for international investors.

That is to say, investors want a predictable investment environment that includes a stable rule of law and competent judicial system to enforce their contract, and their property rights. In Africa, today, where the poor are not legal owners of their houses, land and mini-enterprises, the rule of law will provide the opportunity to legally own property. With legal title, they have warranty to offer banks for loans. And they enjoy economic rights, because they are economically secured.

Since the mid- 1980s, the IMF and the World Bank have become severely involved in economic and political reforms in Africa and in the region's effort to improve its governance system.⁸⁹

The IMF and World Bank have spent a significant part of the last decade preaching the benefits of democratic governance to African countries.⁹⁰ To remind that African

⁸⁸ R McCrorquodale and R Fairbrother *Op cit* p 751.

⁸⁹ George Klay Kieh *Op cit* 32.

⁹⁰ *Ibid.*

debtor-countries, in order to get additional credits from the international financial community, they must agree to implement a basket of institutional reforms that address issues of macroeconomic performance and governance. In the researcher's understanding, good governance ensures greater levels of freedom for its citizens for political participation, right to access information, freedom to form and join trade unions which give scope for increasing labour rights.

In addition, through the so-called structural adjustment programs (SAPs), the IMF has been seriously involved in institutional reform and governance of African countries.⁹¹ The SAPs, as engineered by the IMF and the World Bank, are supposed to prepare the Africa economy to properly respond to positive impact on democracy and good governance. In this respect, it will not be exaggerating to argue that globalisation opens up markets, markets are the basis of liberal economic order, the liberal economic order is the basis of democracy and democracy is the basis of human rights.

Thus, economic development and industrialization driven by globalization are the main indirect guarantors of state respect for human rights. An example of international action linking economic globalisation to democracy can be seen in the decision in 1992 by all of

⁹¹ George Klay Kieh *Op cit* p 31.

the major donor states to stop investment in Malawi until President Banda dealt with the gross breaches of human rights there.⁹² This decision was undoubtedly a catalyst for the move to multi-party elections in Malawi.⁹³

Decisions such as these are used to support arguments that economic globalisation, manifested in the use of the threat of non-investment or disinvestment, can lead to the creation or improvement of political institutions that are responsive to the demands of the people. Furthermore, transnational corporations can greatly assist the effectiveness of international sanctions, such as those previously in force against South Africa, which can lead to improved protection of human rights.⁹⁴ For that reason, it is possible to argue that there is a positive relationship between economic globalisation and the protection of political rights.

Against the above statement, both Jack Donnelly and Michael Freeman have argued that political democracy does not necessarily imply protection of human rights.⁹⁵ In line with this, it is submitted that democracy resulting in majoritarian rule can undermine the rights of minorities and the rights of women.

92 M Robert and F Richard Op cit p 754.

93 See Kevin Brampton, *Making Constitutions: Raising Public Awareness, in human rights and the making of constitutions: Malawi, Kenya, Uganda* 56 at 62 (Joanna Lewis et al (eds) cited in R McCroquodal and Richard F Op cit p 754.

94 See commonwealth committee of foreign ministers on southern Africa, south Africa: the sanctions report (1989).

95 J Donnelly "Democracy and development" (1999) *Human Rights Quarterly* 608; See also M Freeman "The perils of democratisation: Nationalism, markets and human rights" (2000) *Human Rights Quarterly* p 33.

Nevertheless, modern democratic states buttressed by the rule of law and by civic culture of activism and political freedom are more likely than any other type of political system to protect human rights.

And, precisely the argument is that democratic principles, the rule of law and civic culture will be the one of positive effects of globalisation in African societies.

In the Africa context where the process of state building is still underway, and problems of poverty, deprivation and social inequality are widespread, a broader conception of democracy and an actively engaged state are indispensable.⁹⁶ Globalisation could greatly contribute to democratisation struggle that is presently ongoing in the African continent. As long as such a democratic state becomes real or democracy is narrowed to become relevant, Africa's general crisis with all the attendant conflicts and human rights violations cannot be expected to continue with globalisation for the long run.

V.4 Relationship between globalisation, economic redistribution and human rights

Nowadays, development, democracy and human rights have become hegemonic political standards. Regimes that do not at least claim to pursue rapid and

⁹⁶ T Zeleza and P J McConaughay *Human rights, the rule of law, and development in Africa* available:http://books.google.com/books?id=hB9lhwSdo_IC&pg=P_A94&lpg=PA94&dq=Relationship+between+globalisation,+democracy+and+rule+of+law&source=bl&ots=D8kafRIPy5&sig=EHQErz_Y3VIXsCRmlsq0Y [accessed on 2015-09-15].

sustained economic growth (development), popular political participation, and respect for the rights of their citizens (human rights) place their national and international legitimacy at risk.⁹⁷ Here the relationship between globalisation, development and human rights raises policy and legal questions. One such question is whether globalisation of market-oriented economic system is essential for development and protection of human rights in the entire communities and particularly in African countries.

Human rights and sustainable human development are inextricably linked. Indeed, sustainable development simply defines human rights, along with democracy, peace and justice, as subsets of development especially in the context of developing countries.⁹⁸

The right to an adequate standard of living concerns access to the basic essentials for sustaining life such as food, shelter, clothing, and health care.⁹⁹

The right to development means that 'every human person and all peoples are entitled to participate in, contribute to, and enjoy economic, social, cultural and political development, in which all human rights and fundamental freedoms can be fully realized.'¹⁰⁰

⁹⁷ Jack Donnelly *Op cit p 608.*

⁹⁸ Jack Donnelly *Op cit pp 622-626.*

⁹⁹ International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights, adopted 16 Dec. 1966, G.A. Res. 2200 (XXI), U.N. GAOR, 21st Sess., Supp. No. 16, arts. 11 & 12, UN Doc A/6316 (1966), 999 UNTS 171 (entered into force 23 March 1976) [hereinafter ICCPR].

¹⁰⁰ Declaration on the Right to Development, G.A. Res. 41/128 (Annex), adopted 4 Dec. 1986, U.N. GAOR, 41st Sess., Supp. No. 53, art 1.1, U.N. Doc. A/41/53

This statement implies equitable distribution of prosperity, ecologically sound investment (sustainable development), and non exploitative social relationship, such as cooperative rather than profit-oriented production.

In view of the above argument, it may be argued that economic growth, as a result of globalisation, will increase protection of economic rights because economic growth brings increased access to health care, food, and shelter, either directly through employment and increased income or indirectly through the improvement and extension of these facilities to more people. For most developing states, particularly those in Africa, economic growth fostered through large-scale external investment increases the ability of domestic economy to generate the wealth needed to fight poverty and deprivation.¹⁰¹

This argument, therefore, concludes that economic growth through globalisation leads to the protection of economic rights such as the right to an adequate standard of living and the right to development for African countries.

In the area of education, globalisation has occasioned the expansion and increased exchange of scholars and students. Furthermore, various universities around the world have established online degree and non-degree

(1987), reprinted in 3 WESTON III.R.2. The right has been subsequently affirmed by the international community.

101 See Timothy M Shaw & Clement E Adibe "Africa and Global Issues in the Twenty-First Century" (1996) International Law Journal pp 1-12; "They point out that most 'African economies must rely on the World Bank and IMF for external financing since they cannot obtain capital from the world's financial markets."

programs.¹⁰² Thus, African students are receiving foreign degrees without having to leave home.

Finally, global communication network is one of part of economic globalisation which has been integrated in African countries. With the internet and e-mail, it is easy for citizens of Africa to acquire information and to communicate with each other instantaneously. This globalised communications system can provide human rights groups with information, assistance, and support in their resistance to oppression. Non-governmental human rights organisations, such as Amnesty International, flourish in an information-rich environment.

When people know about human rights and are aware of human rights abuses, they are more likely to look for protection. In addition, the globalised communications system reduces the ability of governments to hide their activities, including acts which violate human rights, from public enquiry.¹⁰³

¹⁰² George K Kieh, *Op. cit.*, p. 24.

¹⁰³ R McCorquodale and R Fairbrother, "Globalisation and human rights" (1999) 21 *Human Rights Quarterly* p 759.

VI. CONCLUSION

In a nutshell, it is quite fair to conclude that economic globalisation does have an impact on the protection of human rights in the African countries. It simultaneously creates opportunities and presents challenges for the international legal protection of human rights. Globalisation has led to scaremongering as it has greatly benefited the affluent class ignoring the grievances of the majority poor and deprived sections in the society. It creates uneven development and progress thereby further widening the gap between "haves and have-nots". Nevertheless, globalisation may promote economic rights through investment and job creation, and civil and political rights through the creation of a stable and tolerant environment.

Globalisation promotes economic growth and diversification and by so doing fosters political stability, gender equality, and cultural development in African countries.

Economic diversification, for example, is expected to accelerate the absorption of women into the modern economy, which has a strong positive gender equality effect. Economic prosperity is also expected to promote cultural development by expanding leisure opportunities for the African population.

Globalization may effectively benefit the African countries, especially in medium and long terms. But, it requires vision, appropriate knowledge, skills and

wisdom from Africa's leaders. It requires also sensitivity, willingness, a change of attitude and the right technical assistance from global actors such as the United Nations, especially in supporting the strengthening of Africa's public administration capacity to deal with issues of globalization.

In addition, African states need to enabling people to claim their human rights through the promotion of the rights of all citizens to participation in, and information relating to, the decision-making processes which affect their lives; building socially inclusive societies through development which promotes all human rights for all people and encourages everyone to fulfil their duty to the community; strengthening state policies and institutions to ensure that obligations to protect and promote all human rights are fulfilled.

Finally one of the major positive impacts of globalization on Africa is that it has made available information on how other countries are governed and the freedoms and rights their people enjoy. It will also open African countries to intense external scrutiny and as such exercise pressure for greater transparency, openness, and accountability in Africa.

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**THE NATURE OF CITIZENS'
PARTICIPATION WITHIN
DECENTRALISATION FRAMEWORK
FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT IN
RWANDA.**

A CASE STUDY OF RUBAVU DISTRICT

BY

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ABSTRACT

The current study attempted to explore the nature of citizens' participation within decentralization framework for community development in Rubavu district, Rwanda. The study was justified by the fact that there exist some studies in this field that have been limited to looking at the linkage between participatory development and the wellbeing of community.

The study aimed at examining the nature of citizens' participation within decentralization framework in Rubavu district. The design and methodology adopted by the study were influenced by its objective. The study was conducted in Rubavu district covering twelve sectors, 80 cells and 520 villages. The main methods used in data collection were questionnaires, interviews, observation and review of secondary data. The researcher adopted a cross-sectional survey design, using purposive and convenient sampling, 302 subjects participated in the study as respondents to written questions.

Findings of the study revealed that despite the effort of government of Rwanda to the decentralization process, the nature of citizens' participation is a top-down process

and is still at its enfant phase as confirmed by 75.2% of respondents who stated that people are not consulted to give their views on the projects implemented in their areas.

The study recommended that, to improve the nature of citizens' participation for community development will require that Local Government should take into account priorities and needs of local people in formulation of development projects, the mobilization of more resources to finance local development projects, as well as the reinforcement of close relationship between centre Government and local government in supporting local initiatives; this is a must for lasting the nature of people' participation.

1. INTRODUCTION

Decentralization is often hailed for moving government closer to its citizens and providing opportunities for participation in decision making. Achieving this goal, however, depends on a variety of conditions, including establishing mechanisms to promote broad civic participation and more responsive and accountable local governments. These goals are especially relevant for African countries pursuing large-scale decentralization programs.

Therefore, decentralization advocates argue that decentralized governments are more responsive to the needs of the poor than central governments and thus are more likely to conceive and implement pro-poor policies. It is argued that the degree of responsiveness to the poor and the extent to which there is an impact on poverty are determined primarily by the politics of local-central relations and the general regime context-particularly the ideological commitment of central political authorities to poverty reduction(Crook, R. C, 1999)

In most of the cases, 'elite capture' of local power structures has been facilitated by the desire of ruling elites to create and sustain power bases in the countryside. Popular perceptions of the logic of patronage politics, combined with weak accountability mechanisms, have

reinforced this outcome. The conclusion from African countries is that decentralization has not empowered challenges to local elites who are resistant or indifferent to pro-poor policies. Thus, decentralization is unlikely to lead to more pro-poor outcomes without a serious effort to strengthen and broaden accountability mechanisms at both local and national levels (Crook, R. C, 1999)

From the above, the following question is raised; are decentralized forms of government more responsive to the needs of the poor and hence more likely to conceive and implement pro-poor policies? Decentralization advocates argue that, because decentralization brings government closer to the governed both spatially and institutionally, government will be more knowledgeable about and responsive to the needs of the people.

In so far as the majority of the population in developing countries is both poor and excluded from elite politics, any scheme that appears to offer greater political participation to ordinary citizens seems likely to increase their 'voice' and hence (it is hoped) the relevance and effectiveness of government's policy(Crook, R. C, 1999)

Therefore, with the introduction of decentralization in Rwanda, Community participation is considered to be an acid test for the success of any rural development programme, sponsored either by the government or Non-Government organizations (Narayan, 1998). Prior to this period, the Government of Rwanda was characterized and

dominated by over centralization of almost all services delivery systems which consequently and inevitably led to among others inadequate participation of the majority of the population in the making of decisions that concern their livelihood; and passivity, lack of initiative and dependency syndrome on the part of majority of population caused especially by over centralisation and exclusion from participation (Ministry of local Government and social affairs, 2000).

2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The improvement in the living conditions of the people can be depicted in the meaningful economic growth, reduction of poverty and a wide participation of the people in public life. Thus, Local Communities can and must play a leading role especially in reducing poverty. The other institutions involved in development process should work in partnership with the local communities in order to attain the expected output for development community. (MINALOC 2003).

The history of Rwanda shows that, from the colonial era Rwandan population is willing to work but it has never been sufficiently involved in their own development. Therefore since its independence, Rwanda has inherited a politico-administrative structure which is highly hierarchical, centralised, and authoritarian.

The Community work "umuganda" introduced by the second Republic was directed to political mobilisation rather than community development and thus excluded the participation of the population in the management process of their affairs. The community has therefore, never had an opportunity to exercise its powers in decision making in the affairs concerning their own development. This led to marginalization and conflict among people which led to genocide in 1994.

As a result, the Government that came to power in the aftermath of the genocide has seized on decentralization as a key strategy to help prevent such a tragedy from happening again. Therefore, with the introduction of decentralization in Rwanda, Community participation is considered to be an acid test for the success of any rural development programme, sponsored either by the government or Non-Government organizations or as a weapon of high caliber to fight against poverty (Ministry of Local Government and Social Affairs, 2000).

Despite the effort of Government to promote citizens' participation, rural people in Rwanda are still facing obstacles and poverty still persist as identified in community development policy (2008:5): "*Inadequate food is a particular problem with the majority of poor Rwandans living in rural areas. Poverty still prevails, although at a decreasing rate, and Rwanda remains one of Africa's poorest countries. Per capita income was estimated at \$US 281 in 2006 and 56.9% of*

the Rwandan population are still poor, while 36.9% survive in conditions of extreme poverty. Multiple factors contribute to this situation, including low agricultural productivity, leading to poor yields for major crops, population pressure on arable land, poor agricultural marketing in rural areas, rural unemployment and underemployment, lack of savings and investment in rural households and weak environmental conservation practices”

In Rubavu District, despite the number of projects implemented since the introduction of decentralization, it is assumed that the level of participation is low and poverty still continues. Actually, Rubavu district has 35.8% of the total population living in under poverty line and 19.2% living in extreme poverty rate. 80.2% of households are farmers, employment rate is at 76% and the under employment rate at 5% for all active population with inactivity rate of 19.9% (DDP Rubavu 2013-2018). In this regard, the success or failure of Community development projects can directly be associated with the active (or lack of) community participation. Actually, it is supposed that in Rubavu District people involvement in development activities is not done as it should be. This unfortunate situation which has lasted for long necessitates an investigation so that to examine the nature of Citizens' participation for community development. It is about this background that this study was conducted.

3. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The study sought to investigate the nature of citizens' participation within decentralization framework for community development in Rwanda, considering Rubavu District as a case study within the period of 2012-2014.

4. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In this study, the following research questions were raised:

- What are pressing needs of people in Rubavu District?
- People are they participating in different development activities in Rubavu District?
- Are the projects implemented in local areas solving the needs of community in Rubavu district?
- What is the role of individuals in local development projects in Rubavu District?

5. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This specifies the justification of the study. It also spells out who the probable beneficiaries of the study findings might be and how they might benefit. The study

was justified by the fact that there exist some studies in this field of citizens' participation in Rwanda that have been limited to looking at the linkage between citizens' participation and community development.

An assessment of the contribution of citizens' participation within decentralization framework in supporting community development remained unexplored, an important area this study examined with reference to Rubavu District. The current study therefore, fills the research gap left out by the previous researchers and contributes to knowledge by presenting empirical evidence on the nature of citizens' participation in development programmes and their role in supporting community development.

This study generated useful information that shall benefit a number of stakeholders in the following ways:

- a) The central government have to develop policies geared towards encourage people to participate in different development activities in their staging areas.
- b) Scholars in the field of decentralization and local governments have to appreciate the importance of citizens' participation in development projects and therefore reexamine community development.
- c) The local governments have to appreciate the role they suppose to play by promoting

citizens' participation in identification, planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation processes of development projects in their areas

6. LITERATURE REVIEW

6.1. The concept of citizens' participation in community development

For the last twenty years, the concept of participation has been widely used in the discourse of development. For much of this period, the concept has referred to participation in the social arena, in political and in development projects among others.

According to Vandana and Potter (2002), participation is defined in a United Nations report (1979:225) to mean “sharing by people in the benefits of development, active contribution by people to development and involvement of people in decision-making at all levels of society”.

Clearly, much more information is needed, if we are to know who participates, what participation entails and how it is to be promoted.

The arguments of participation seem to converge on the relationship between three key concepts, namely “taking part”, “influence”, and “power”

in community participation (CP). Moreover, any participation process seems to have two components irrespective of the context, situation or objective: a decision-making process and an action process to realize the objective decided upon.

Thus, Social development can be promoted by increasing local self-reliance. Since people themselves know what they need, what they want and what they can afford, only close co-operation between project implementers and the community can lead to project effectiveness. The project area continues to develop after the withdrawal of development agency staff.

The only meaningful way to let people feel responsible of all decentralized activities and enjoy their results for long is the participatory approach where people themselves participate in identifying, planning, implementing and managing policies and projects of development related to their livelihood. Therefore, programme activities of participatory development must be based on 'bottom-up' as stated by Oakley, P. (1999:162: *"Programme activities must be based upon a 'bottom-up' approach.*

Only through this sort of approach can the programme attain any meaningful and lasting success.

The community's awareness of the necessity and effectiveness of their active participation in their own development will ensure that progress shall continue even after the formalized project ends".

The shift in participative argument is however, towards empowerment of the less powerful. In developing countries, resources for development have always been very scarce, but reassurance for their allocation from various interested groups have progressively increased.

The poor, since they have neither socio-economic nor political power, do not generally gain access to the decision-making processes and hence are unable to influence them. Therefore the poor have not beneficiated from economic growth but in fact have become worse off. Oakley and Marsden, (1984) cited in Vandana and Potter, (2002) state in this regard that:"meaningful participation is concerned with achieving power: that is the poor to influence the decisions that affect one's livelihood".

In essence, citizen engagement in the development and implementation of policy can help to generate a heightened sense of public value for what government does. Listening to citizen preferences, providing citizens with an opportunity to analyze available options and determine a preferred option, and providing feedback through performance measurement and monitoring and

evaluation are all likely to help ensure that the public will value more highly the publicly funded services they receive. In this perspective, Boeninger, (1992) concluded that: " *the involvement of citizens in development planning and implementation enables the formulation of realistic plans that are in line with local circumstances and conditions. Administratively, decentralisation is considered as a key strategy that provides solutions to overloaded and over-centralized agencies.*

6.2. Recognition and use of local capacities and avoids the imposition of priorities from the outside.

Participatory development is driven by a belief in the importance of entrusting citizens with the responsibility to shape their own future. There is less than general agreement over whether participation is appropriate in all relief and development interventions and *disagreement* exists over whether such methods are relevant in all phases of programs, from conception to exit evaluation.

According to Oakley, P. (1999:6), in many ways it could be argued that participation has become an umbrella term for a supposedly new style of development intervention. It is now almost reactionary seriously to propose a development intervention -research, planning, implementation and evaluation -have all been subject to reorientation in order to make them more participatory.

Oakley et al reviewed a whole range of interpretation of participation in development projects and presented them as a continuum to illustrate the direct relationship between interpretation and development analysis.

6.3. The arguments of participation in development.

Despite an apparent widespread recognition of the importance of participation in development, not everybody is convinced either that it is necessarily always a “good thing” or that to date it has clear practical advantages for development projects. Many planners would argue that there are potential risks and costs implicit in greater people’s participation.

Indeed, a World Bank study (Oakley, P., 1999:15) even suggested that “governments might prefer rural people to participate only in projects implementation since their involvement in projects identification and assessment might give rise to increased expectations. In this regard, Uphoff quoted by Oakley, P. (1999) refers to a state of “pseudo participation” and rightly argues that in many projects, the participation is more illusory than real. Current practice suggests that undoubtedly that in many development projects participation is stronger in rhetoric than in practical reality; that there is a good deal of lip-service to

the notion of participation but less commitment to the changes in direction and style that would be required to implement it. It would be wrong however, to assume that the arguments for greater people's participation in development are based purely on idealistic, humanitarian or egalitarian grounds.

6.4. Who participates?

There is little general consensus as to who among the broad category of "rural people" is supposed or expected to participate in development. If we related this question back on the emergence of participation as a major strategy in development, we can link this strategy with such broadly defined groups "the rural poor", "the rural excluded", "small farmers", or "the last". The widespread conviction that previous development strategies had bypassed the majority of rural people has led to a concern that this majority should now "participate" in development.

According to Oakley, P. (1999:19), the more specific answer to the question who participates, is of course linked to both the understanding of participation and the objectives of intervention.

In the first instance there is a strong identification of participation in many countries with the broad mass of poor, oppressed and marginalized urban and rural people, most of whom struggle to eke out an existence with paltry resources. Here the participation concerns a process whereby such people can begin to rise out of their poverty and seek some response to their demands".

6.5. Basic principles of People's Participation Project (PPP)

The basic principle of the PPP approach is in direct contrast to the more conventional top-down rural development where external planners design and implement projects and the rural poor are either passive collaborators or excluded on lookers. At the core of PPP approach is the fact that the rural poor have inevitably been by-passed by previous rural development approaches and have neither benefited from nor been involved in development activities. (Oakley,P,et al 1999:61)

The PPP emphasises direct development initiatives at those who had previously never benefited. In this case, the PPP is a product of the development re-thinking of the mid-1970s in which concern for such issues as people and access in development became just as important as production targets and infrastructural development.

The PPP took as its guiding principle this lack of access of the rural poor to the resources required for development and structured an approach which would establish this access and, as result, develop the basis for poor's sustained participation in development activities.

The following statement summarises the PPP's understanding of participation ;(Oakley, P., 1999; 62):
"People's participation may be defined as the process by which the rural poor are able to organise themselves and through their own organisations are able to identify their own needs and share in the design, implementation and evaluation in the participatory action. Such action is self generated, based on their access to productive resources and services other than their labour and the continued security of that access. It is also based on initial assistance and support to stimulate and sustain the development action programme."

6.6. Important Principles to participatory practice

The principles of any form of development practice are inextricably linked to the development analysis which the practice employs. The majority of development projects see change as inevitably linked to the introduction into rural areas of new technology and ideas; the principles which guide this approach, therefore, will be directly related to this form of intervention and will stress such things as the appropriate packaging of the technology,

the nature and approach of the delivery system, the most efficient use of resources, the quantitative evaluation of results and the need to “understand rural community”. In the first instance, in both the literature and project documentation we can identify three major principles of a strategy of participation.

6.7. The primacy of people

Drawing from development as essentially a humanizing process, participatory development must be consciously based on people, their needs, their analysis of issues and their decisions. It also implies an explicit faith that people, whatever the condition of their poverty and, can progressively transform their environment with the help of, but not dominated by, external agents.

In essence, participatory development demands that rural people move from being objects to become subjects. To this point of view, Sethi, (1987:52) stresses that *“conventional modes of rural development, explicitly or implicitly, treat people as objects of change and the relation between the development agent and the people often takes the form of a subject acting upon an object: (rural) people has been told what to do. The outcome is a delivery approach that is, an attempt to bring development to people through deliveries of*

knowledge and resources from outside".

6.8. People's knowledge

A major corollary to the people-led nature of participatory development is the principle that people's knowledge is as appropriate a basis for development action as that knowledge brought in by professionals. This assertion has given rise to a reorientation of some development practice and the incorporation of local knowledge into development projects.

For too long, it is argued, external forces have not only controlled the means of material production, but also the means of knowledge production and, in particular, and in particular, the power to determine what is valid or useful knowledge. While in certain fields such as health care, artisan production and irrigation control, local knowledge has to a limited extent been recognized, until recently development projects have rarely sought deliberately to incorporate people's knowledge into project design and planning.

6.9. People include women

A third fundamental principle of participatory development emphasizes women's position as an equal partner in the mass of the rural people. This principle is, to a large extent, a reaction to a dominant feature of other development strategies which for so long have been

largely directed at men as the supposed main producers. It is important, however, to understand the basis of this principle. In this respect an ILO study (1982:25) stresses on the struggle for self-reliance among a group of women in the Philippines cogently summarizes the principle in practice: *"It should be realized also that the struggle for total human development and authentic social change, which seeks the liberation of the oppressed from the oppressor's clutches, and the women from the structural and men exploitation, must be waged by both men and women of the oppressed class. It would be valuable for this point of view if the husbands are involved in the struggle of the [women]... so that their consciousness also develops parallel with the women consciousness".*

Possible, should see them as equal constituents of the rural people. Such a principle is, of course, culturally specific and it cannot be dogmatic. It is critical, however, if it is to break the male domination of development practice.

6.10. Factors influencing citizens' participation in community Development

Ryakunze, S. (2008:18), identified important factors for citizens' implication in participatory activities. According to him, the following concepts come under this heading:

Motivation: The population must be informed, competent structures must be put in place and encourage the rural world that is economically weak to search for possible and

adequate solutions. High level of skills and knowledge among the rural population must explain the final results of the promotion campaign.

Sustainable alternatives: The alternative offered to the citizens concerning the developmental activities to be taken, must be long lasting and self sustaining and accessible. Logistical and financial support must be guarantee and all forms of hindrance to participation must be eliminated.

Competence: Citizen must acquire sufficient skills to manipulate different alternatives, in terms of technical assistance and training as well as general instructions.

Benefits: Citizens and communities must have conscientious of benefits which they must get from the actions taken whether direct or indirect incentives and incitements.

7. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

7.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter points out the research design, gives a brief overview about the local description of the research area, population and sampling procedures, as well as, the research instruments. It shows how the research instruments were controlled, and how data were gathered and analyzed.

7.1. RESEARCH DESIGN

This study in question was qualitative assessment on the nature of citizens' participation within decentralization framework for community development in Rubavu .It relied on primary and secondary data. It adopted a triangulation of methods; combining information from different sources of data collection namely unstructured interviews, review of secondary literature, use of questionnaires and observation.

7.2. DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH AREA

This study was conducted in Rwanda; specifically in Rubavu District, in Western Province. Rubavu district is composed by 12 administrative sectors, 80 Cells and 525Villages. Those administrative sectors are: Bugeshi, Busasamana, cyanzarwe, Gisenyi, Kanama, Kanzenze,

Mudende, Nyakiliba, Nyamyumba, Nyundo, Rubavu and Rugerero.

Each sector is divided into cells which are also split in villages, the lowest level of administration in Rwanda. At each sector level, there are 9 permanent workers all of them are bachelor holders under the council of sector, at the cell level there are two permanent workers, in different sectors, some of them are bachelor holders under the council of cell while at the village level no permanent workers; the leader of village is elected by people and is not getting salary from any administrative entity. The level of education of villages leaders is low at such that some of them do not have even the secondary level.

The relief of Rubavu District is dominated by the North Park and South Birunga by massive of Gishwati. Its altitude is 1469 m. Rubavu District has an equatorial climate, altitude average. Average temperatures range from 20 ° C at the edge of Lake Kivu at 15 ° C on the vertices, where nighttime temperatures can drop to 6 ° C. Abundant rainfall and thus under storms. Rainfall in Rubavu District varies between 1200 mm and 1500 mm per year. The Land of North-west District has a very rich soil, but shallow, volcanic ash and lava decomposed, while land southeast have deep soils but poor, often acidic, sandy clay and leached by high erosion (RUBAVU DDP, 2007).

7.3. SAMPLING PROCEDURES

A sample of 302 was arrived at on the basis on mathematic calculation whereby Cyeze, E. (2009: 98) suggests that in social studies, a sample of 20 to 30 % of the population is appropriate for the study. On the other hand, Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) added that 10% of the accessible population is enough and for experimental studies, at least 30 cases are required per group.

The researcher selected thirty percent (30%) of staff from each level of administration as indicated in the table below:

Table 6.1: Sampling size

Category	Target population	Sample size (30%)
Rubavu District	74 workers	22
12 Sectors x9 workers	108 workers	32
80 cellsx2 workers	160 workers	48
520 villages x1person	520 persons	156
Private sector	72 persons	22
Civil society	72 persons	22
Total Respondents for written questions	1,006 persons	302

Source: Field data 2014

Purposive sampling technique was used to select three hundred and two respondents (302 for respondents of written questions. This selection was based on the knowledge-ability of respondents or the best position to provide the information required on the nature of citizens'

participation within decentralization framework for community development.

8. FINDINGS ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The present study utilized qualitative approaches to explore the research questions. This chapter presents data analysis and describes in details the results of surveys conducted using questionnaires, interview and observation. The results are structured according to the research questions that underpin this study. Therefore, this chapter assesses the data concerning the nature of local population's perception on citizens' participation for community development.

8.1. Frequency of respondents based on most pressing needs in their community

People themselves should know their needs and presenting them to decision-makers so that to take appropriate decisions while formulating and implementing development projects. Respondents were asked what are pressing needs in community.

In Rubavu District, most of pressing needs suggested by respondents in this study and their frequencies are in the table 8.1 below.

Table: 8.1. Frequency of respondents based on most pressing needs in their community

Views of respondents		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Access to safe water	124	41.1	41.1	41.1
	Improving feeder road	83	27.5	27.5	68.5
	Health centers	74	24.5	24.5	93.0
	Drainage system	21	7.0	7.0	100.0
	Total	302	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field data 2014

The table above illustrates that the access to safe water is a most pressing need to 41.1%, the improved feeder roads are most pressing need to 27.5%, health centers are most pressing need to 24.5% of respondents, while 7.0% of respondents prefer drainage system.

Within the cumulative percentage, water and feeder roads occupy 68.5%, this indicates that the local population has supreme need of basic infrastructures, which still insufficient in different sectors of Rubavu district.

The problem of access to water is the serious one in Rubavu District. In certain administrative entities (rural sectors) people are still using the average of 2 km to access water at such water is very expensive. One of the respondents from Bugeshi sector points out: "We have a serious problem of fetching water, one jerrican of water is 100rwf and most of people are not able to afford this price, so we are using one jerrican two days; however we are lucky in raining

season because we have the way of water conservation"

Feeder roads are not improved because funds are not available and rehabilitating earth roads is very expensive, apart one of Mahoko sector (Mahoko-Nkomane 15km) which is being rehabilitated to a total cost of 713,200,000Rwf equivalent to 1,026, 187 USD with the support of RLDSF (Rubavu action plan 2013-2014); but other earth roads did not get funds even if there are among people' priorities; thus projects from people's needs are not often implemented simply because funds are insufficient, this issue accelerated poverty in rural areas. Early studies by MININFRA (2008) support this view and indicated that: *However, poverty in rural areas remains persistent and rural areas still lack basic access to services and markets. Income generating potential from private sector investment also remains vastly underutilized, mainly due to the inherent risks in agriculture.*

Therefore both public (facilitating access to services) and private investments (creating employment and sustainable growth) are required for rural development support. Agriculture growth fuelled by public and private investments will allow further poverty reduction.

8.2. Opinions of respondents on projects that have been set up in the Respondent's area

In Rubavu district, different projects have been set up according to different areas. Priorities of those projects are given referring to different needs of people. The table 8.2 shows the detail according to this study.

Table 8.2. Opinions of respondents on projects that have been set up in the Respondents' area

Views of respondents		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Access to energy	56	18.5	18.5	18.5
	Rehabilitating roads	128	42.4	42.4	60.9
	Building schools	85	28.1	28.1	89.1
	Protecting environment	33	10.9	10.9	100.0
	Total	302	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field data 2014

The table 8.2 clarifies the projects that have been set up in respondents' area. Rehabilitating roads comes with a highest percentage of 42.4% and this is done through the monthly community work; the access to energy comes with 18.5% which complies with the EWASA target to spread electricity all over the country. To build schools in respondents' community has a percentage of 28.1% this is justified by the 12YBE program to boost universal basic education. The protection of environment comes last with 10.9%, here the usefulness and concept of sustainable development is not properly captured in the community and need to be strengthen as other projects in the community to ensure future generations get access to country's resources.

One of respondents of Bugeshi Sector precised: "*Roads are hindrance in this district, the Government should give priority to this kind of projects, because without communication, no development and yet we need to be connected to urban areas for the increase of the price of potatoes we are*

producing".

The concept of rural development is understood as the development of the non-urban space in Rwanda. In other words, it refers to the process of improving the quality of life and economic wellbeing of people living in rural areas by opening their access to urban areas. This is in the same view of MININFRA (2008) on its comments: "*However, given the intrinsic rural-urban linkages, if done effectively, rural development will greatly assist the process of urbanization*".

Table: 8.3. Respondent's Opinion on whether projects implemented in their area are solving the needs of the community.

Views of respondents		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	254	84.1	84.1	84.1
	No	48	15.9	15.9	100.0
	Total	302	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field data 2014

The projects established have to respond to the community's need. The table above illustrates that among the 302 respondents, 84.1% approved that the projects implemented in their area solve and respond to the community's needs; while 15.9% negatively responded. It is normal that local development projects solve the community' needs, however few projects are not in this perspective as suggested by 15.9%.

This show that some projects are imposed from the highest level of hierarchy, nevertheless the ideal is that all projects at 100% should come from people initiatives in order to increase local self-reliance to solve the problems which affect their living conditions and for the sustainability of those projects. This is supported by Vandana and Potter (2002) who stated that: *"People have right to participate in decision-making which directly affects their living conditions.*

Social development can be promoted by increasing local self-reliance. Since people themselves know what they need, what they want and what they can afford, only close co-operation between project implementers and the community can lead to project effectiveness. The project area continues to develop after the withdrawal of development agency staff".

8.4. Respondent's Opinion on what should be the role of individuals in local development projects.

Individuals are the most important actors of development among others because are individuals themselves who know their problems and challenges they face in their day to day activities. In this study, Respondents were asked on what should be the role of individuals in local developments projects. Responses were given differently according to items suggested in the table 8.4 below.

Table: 7.4. Respondents' opinion on what should be the role of individuals in local development projects.

Views of respondents		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	To identify their needs and to suggest solutions to their own problems.	94	31.1	31.1	31.1
	To be informed by local Authority projects to be implemented	45	14.9	14.9	46.0
	To sensitize their pairs to participate in community work	46	15.2	15.2	61.3
	To participate in all development activities from their area	117	38.7	38.7	100.0
	Total	302	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field data 2014

As long as individuals have a role to play in local development projects, the table above brings out that 38.7% of respondents mention that the role of individuals should be to participate in all development activities from their areas; 31.4% responded that the role of individuals should be to identify their needs and to suggest solutions to their own problems; 15.2% bring out that their role should only limited at sensitizing their pairs to participate in the community work, the remaining 14.9% suggested that the individuals role should only be to get informed by

local authority on projects to implement.

Considering different aggregating responses, the majority of respondents confirmed the real role of individuals, their participation in all local development activities; this should be the root of development. Few respondents (14.9%) rely on getting information only from local authority, especially in the meeting. They do not know that they are important in their own development. This idea was supported by one of respondents who states that:

We are informed about projects which will be implemented in our village in the meeting with our leaders; those projects are formulated by technicians of District according to national priority based on performance contract.

The idea behind this statement is that according to this study, some people of Rubavu district are still relying on top-down while participatory development is based on bottom-up approach. Thus local leaders do not have the desire to transfer this responsibility of people' involvement in local projects to the lowest level of administration as observed by Oakley (1999:12) who stressed that: "*Most rural development planning takes place in ministries in urban areas and there is rarely any genuine desire to devolve this responsibility effectively to the local level. Planning information and data are often complex in nature and rarely presented or interpreted in a way intelligible to most rural people.*"

Table: 8.5. Respondent's Opinion on whether people are consulted to give views on the project before its implementation

Views of respondents	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Yes	75	24.8	24.8	24.8
No	227	75.2	75.2	100.0
Total	302	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field data 2014

The table above summarizes the respondents' opinion whether they are consulted on the projects before its implementation. It is clear that 24.8% of respondents have agreed that they are consulted, while 75.2% of respondents disagreed.

As the majority of population is not consulted, this stands to clarify that the culture of consulting citizens on projects before their implementation is not yet in the mind and practices of Rubavu District leaders and yet, this should be the priority to sustain real local development in order to avoid lasting problems of the projects as stressed by Rondinelli (1985) "*The failure to include beneficiaries in design and formulation of projects often led to severe management problems later*". Thus, Failure to involve intended beneficiaries often leads to projects that are unrealistic and inappropriate for local conditions.

Thus, findings of the study revealed that the nature of citizens' participation is a top-down way and is still at its enfant phase that needs continual efforts for all partners of

development to improve more participatory development process.

9. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter we summarized the key issues raised in previous chapters and drawn the conclusions based on empirical evidence of the Nature of citizens' participation within decentralization framework in Rubavu district. With references to the study objective, we made suggestions on efforts aimed at supporting participatory development that is fundamental to any development project for the effectiveness of community development.

8.1. SUMMARY

In conceptualizing the study we set out to answer the basic question: "what is the nature of citizens' participation for community development in Rubavu district, Rwanda?" The study was justified by the fact that there exist some studies in this field of citizens' participation in Rwanda that have been limited to looking at the linkage between participatory development and the wellbeing of community.

An assessment of the nature of citizens' participation within decentralization framework in supporting community development remained unexplored, an important area this study examined with reference to Rubavu District. The current study therefore, fills the research gap left out by the previous researchers and contributes to knowledge by presenting empirical evidence on the nature of citizens' participation in development

programmes and its role in supporting community development.

In the chapter of literature review, a wide range of literature was surveyed on the basis of the major themes and sub-themes of the study. The major themes and sub-themes were derived from the objective of the study whereby participation was the main focus of ideas from different authors.

The results of this study were based on a sample of three hundred and two (302) participants for written questionnaires. The sample size for participants for written questionnaires (302) was arrived at on the basis of mathematic calculation whereby the researcher considered 30% of the target population.

Qualitative data was analyzed using summary with verbatim quotation made from selected comments from respondents. Quantitative data were coded and analyzed; frequency tables were generated to show the relationship between variables.

The objective of the study sought to examine *the nature of citizens' participation within decentralization framework in Rubavu District*. Analyzing the nature of citizens' participation within the decentralization framework in Rubavu district, a significant observation in this study is that, results from different responses showed that pressing needs of people are water and feeder roads (68.5%), main projects set in Rubavu district are access to energy and rehabilitating roads as suggested by 60.9%; sanitation and communication and transport were given

as a priority by 73.5% of respondents. Concerning the role individuals should play in development activities few people 38.7 % noted that individuals should participate in all development activities.

This is an indicator which shows that in Rubavu district people do not know their role in socio-economic activities; 84.1% approved that the projects implemented in the area of respondents solve and respond to the community's needs; while 15.9% negatively responded. It is normal that local development projects should solve the community' needs, however few projects are not in this perspective as suggested by 15.9%.

This show that some projects are imposed from the highest level of hierarchy, nevertheless the ideal is that all projects at 100% should come from people initiatives in order to increase local self-reliance to solve the problems which affect their living conditions and for the sustainability of those projects.

For the question whether people actively participate in different development activities, 71.9% accepted that they participated while 28.1% disagree with the assumption of being consulted to give views on the projects before its implementation; these contradicting views gave the image of the nature of citizens' participation in Rubavu district.

For the issue of consulting people to give their views in projects, it is clear that 24.8% of respondents have agreed that they are consulted, while 75.2% of respondents disagreed. As the majority of population is not consulted,

this stands to clarify that the culture of consulting citizens on projects before their implementation is not yet in the mind and practice of Rubavu leaders.

In conclusion, despite the achievements described above, there are still gaps and constraints that need to be addressed in order to achieve sustainable Community Development in Rwanda. Although decentralization established a number of mechanisms such as performance contracts (Imihigo) that offer citizens' engagement in planning, implementation and monitoring of development of government programs at all levels, in practice, the level of civic participation and engagement is still not yet very satisfactory and the government remains the planner, dispenser and evaluator of impact of development and this could jeopardize the citizens' ownership of policies (National strategy for Community Development and Local Economic Development 2013-2018).

8.2. RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations are put forward by the researcher. First to improve the nature of citizens' participation for community development will require that Local Government should take into account priorities and needs of local people in formulation of development projects. Second the mobilization of more resources to finance local development projects is for a paramount importance in raising the awareness of local people in Rubavu district.

Third to ensure the quality of planning/management of decentralized entities development for the effectiveness a good and participatory planning from the grassroots in harmony with national development strategies oriented towards a rapid results achievement and performance. Forth to sensitize partners and donors to increase the budget destined to local initiatives for the reputation and recognition of local authorities by people.

Fifth to enhance capacity building of local people through training and workshop. Sixth to avoid ambitious plans for local entities in order to match available funds and people' needs. Seventh a close relationship between centre Government and local government in supporting local initiatives is a must for lasting the nature of people' participation.

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