

**FOREIGN TRAINING OF ACADEMIC STAFF AND
CAPACITY BUILDING IN HIGHER EDUCATION
INSTITUTIONS IN RWANDA**

BERNARD NARCISSE KAYITANKORE



A Mini-thesis submitted to the School of Government, University of the
Western Cape, in partial fulfilment for the Master's Degree in
Administration

Supervisor: Dr Leon Pretorius

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KEY WORDS

1. Academic staff
2. Capacity Building
3. Educational Funding
4. Foreign training
5. Government of Rwanda
6. Higher Education Institutions
7. Human resource development
8. Institutional capacities
9. Rwandan funded students
10. South African Universities



ABSTRACT

During the 1994 genocide in Rwanda, not only physical assets were eroded but more importantly, human capital were destroyed and left the country living hardly on qualified personnel at almost all levels of the economy to play a meaningful development role. While capacity building is needed in many sectors of the economy, it is especially important in the education sector.

This study focuses on one particular issue namely to what extent sending academic staff for training in foreign countries can effectively contribute to capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions (HEI). Various options exist to improve a strategy to build capacities in higher education institutions; amongst others is the training of human resource which is the most important of all.

In order to investigate the above, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. Techniques such as documentation, semi-structured interview, questionnaire and direct observation were also used in order to reach the research objectives.

With regard to the main question of this study, findings reveal that funding academic staff for foreign training is believed to effectively contribute to capacity building in Rwandan higher education. As respondents explain, academic staff sent for training in foreign countries acquires new knowledge that is needed to build the country. This gained knowledge is spread all over the country through teaching at universities where most sectors of the country find their human resources. Being open minded, trained academic staff will be able to update his knowledge and therefore train in turn his students accordingly.

However, findings inform also that Rwandan HEI are faced with multiple problems amongst others the problem of defining the real institutional needs for appropriate

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that **Foreign training of academic staff and capacity building in higher education institutions in Rwanda** is my own work, that it has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Bernard Narcisse KAYITANKORE

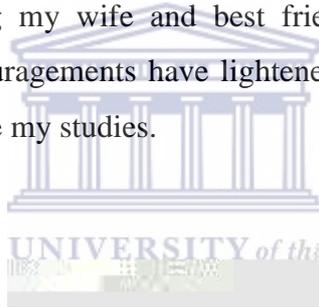
March 2006

SIGNED:



DEDICATION

From the bottom of my heart, I dedicate this Mini-thesis to you my sweetheart Agnes NTIBANYURWA, for being my wife and best friend. Your unconditional love, support and everlasting encouragements have lightened my life and gave me all the strengths I needed to complete my studies.



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ACCRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

ACBF	: African Capacity Building Foundation
CB	: Capacity building
CIDA	: Canadian International Development Agency
e.g.	: Example
ESGI	: Ecole Supérieure de Gestion d'Information
FTB	: Faculté de Théologie de Butare
GDP	: Gross domestic product
GOR	: Government of Rwanda
GTZ	: Gesellschaft für Technische Zusammenarbeit
HE	: Higher Education
HEI	: Higher Education Institutions
HRD	: Human resource development
IAMSEA	: Institut Africain et Mauricien de Statistique et d'Economie Appliquée
IPN	: Institut Pédagogique National
ISAE	: Institut Supérieur d'Agronomie et d'Elevage
ISCPA	: Institut Supérieur Catholique de Pédagogie Appliquée
ISPG	: Institut Supérieur de Pédagogie de Gitwe
KHI	: Kigali Health Institute
KIE	: Kigali Institute of Education
KIST	: Kigali Institute of Science, Technology and Management
MINECOFIN	: Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning
MINEDUC	: Ministry of Education
MSCBP	: Multi-Sector Capacity Building Programme
NGO	: Non Government Organisation
NTB	: National Tender Board
NUR	: National University of Rwanda
OECD	: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
OED	: Operations Evaluation Department
SA	: South Africa
UAAC	: Université Adventiste d'Afrique Centrale
ULK	: Université Libre de Kigali
UN	: United Nations
UNCED	: United Nations Conference on Environment and Development
UNDP	: United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNILAK	: Université Laïque de Kigali
USAID	: United States Agency for International Development
WFP	: World Food Programme

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THESIS

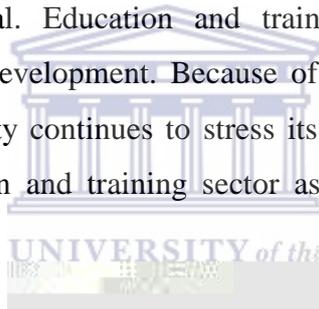
1.1. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Capacity building is a planned and programmed process aimed at re-structuring and re-organising all the country's resources towards a clear vision of how the country should be running in the future (Mukamuhizi, 2004). The development of needed skills that produce quality performance requires a process of strategically designed

and dislocated Rwandan values. After the 1994 genocide, the education sector, as well as other sectors of national life, passed through an emergency situation during which the main objective was to reshape and try to restart the education system which had broken down (Ministry of Education, 2002).

The Rwanda Government of National Unity has elaborated a national reconciliation programme and has committed itself to the task of economic rehabilitation. The country has embarked on a programme of social reconstruction and economic development. Education is expected to play an important role in this endeavour, contributing to the efforts of all national sectors in the socio-economic reconstruction and in the training of human resources (Rwandese Republic, 1998).

According to the Ministry of Education, Rwandese republic (1998), education is a fundamental right of all human beings and helps to ensure the full blossoming of the potential of every individual. Education and training are the main factors in sustainable socio-economic development. Because of this conviction, the Rwandan Government of National Unity continues to stress its commitment to accelerate the development of the education and training sector as one of the priority areas for reconstruction.



With regard to training the professionals that the country requires for its complete development, higher education in Rwanda has had to work with many different partnerships in order to better carry out the immense task of reconstructing the national socio-economic fabric. Emphasis has thus been placed on training those who play a part in this development.

Currently Rwandan higher education institutions (HEI) are relying on expatriate lecturers. However, the Rwandan Government of National Unity is devoted to a staff development programme by sending a number of recent young graduates overseas so that they can pursue and complete their training to Masters or PhD level and replace foreign lecturers/professors once they return back to Rwanda. The Government also intends to initiate postgraduate programmes at Masters and PhD level in order to produce its own university professors and highly qualified executive personnel (Ministry of Education, 2002).

It is against this background that the country embarked on capacity building in almost all sectors with special emphasis on education sector. Sending academic staff for training in foreign countries is given attention as a strategy to build Rwandan higher education's capacities.

1.2. THE CAPACITY BUILDING DEBATE

Capacity building (CB) is an important tool for many developing countries though it is still at low level in African countries. Institutional capacities in these countries are declining and worsened by poor policy as regard to capacity building (Mukandala, 2000). As the author observed, majority of African countries are unable to tap and utilise their rich resources to their own advantage e.g. Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Nigeria where the abundance of economic resources does not impact positively on the economic environment to produce growth.

In Rwandan case, the situation has been worsened by the tragedy that occurred in the country. Over one million of people were killed and others exiled. According to the Government of Rwanda (2002), "genocide left an acute shortage of skilled personnel in the public and private sectors. Capacity building is therefore a fundamental aspect of public policy".

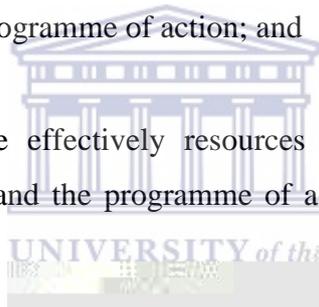
According to the Ministry of Finance and Economic planning (MINECOFIN) (2003), the concept of capacity building is broad and comprehensive. Capacity building is a comprehensive process, which includes the ability to identify constraints and to plan and manage development. It involves both the development of human resources, institutions and supportive policy environment. In this sense, the concept of CB for development encompasses the process by which individuals, groups, organisations, institutions and societies develop their abilities individually and collectively to identify their problems and constraints to development, and achieve the set development objectives.

According to the Capacity Building Agenda of United Nations Conference on Environment and Development (UNCED) (1992, cited in Sung, 2003), capacity building is defined as: "encompassing a country's human, scientific, technological, organizational, and institutional and resource capabilities. A fundamental goal of

capacity building is to enhance the ability to evaluate and address the crucial questions related to policy choices and modes of implementation among development options, based on an understanding of an environmental potentials and limits of needs perceived by the people of the country concerned” (Sung, 2003).

According to ACBF (2001), capacity refers to the ability of a society, a community, an organisation or a sector to accomplish the following:

- Scan and analyse its environment;
- Identify complex problems, issues, needs and/or opportunities;
- Formulate strategies to deal with these problems, issues and needs and seize the relevant opportunities;
- Design a plan, a programme of action; and
- Assemble and use effectively resources and implement, monitor and evaluate the plan and the programme of action, and use the feedback to learn lessons.



The term “capacity building” means different things to different people. To many people, it is more often limited to training or human resource development (HRD). However, it is far beyond training human resource although this is the major component of it. This is due to the fact that education and training lie at the heart of development efforts and that without HRD most development interventions would be ineffective (Sung, 2003).

According to Berg (1993), CB is characterised by three main activities: skill upgrading, both general and job specific; procedural improvements and organisational strengthening. This is also confirmed by other scholars who noted that if decision-makers, managers, professionals and technicians are to operate at full capacity, they will definitely need more than their own capacities. They will need institutional and organisational capacities to support them into their efforts. According to Wakely

(2001) and Sjaak (2003), capacity building must embrace all three aspects (human resource, organisational and institutional development) to be effective.

Human resource development is defined by Wakely (2001) as the process of equipping people with understanding, skills, and the access to information and knowledge to perform effectively. It consists of motivating people to operate helpfully and efficiently through the development of positive attitudes and progressive approaches to responsibility and productivity. Good human resource management gives incentives and rewards; opportunities for skills upgrading; clearly recognisable career opportunities; and competitive pay scales. To achieve these aspects of HRD, the organisational environment must be dynamic and responsive (Wakely, 2001). The development of human resource was not limited to public or private sector, but was needed at all spheres of the economy.

When it comes to academic staffs, the need for training human resource becomes more profound than elsewhere as it is the academic staff that at the end of the day will be responsible for training the whole society. According to Cousin et al. (2003), academic staffs in higher education have a variety of backgrounds and experience and are not generally recruited on the basis of prescribed and standardized pre-service training. The tasks carried out by academic staffs vary enormously, reflecting their different qualifications and interests. Soon after appointment, most academic staffs are expected to achieve independence through the development of areas of responsibility and specialization, depending on their previous experience and training, and on individual preference and motivation (Cousin et al., 2003).

As seen above, capacity building is needed in every sector including the education sector. In higher education, building capacity necessitates a clarified purpose. As O'Hanlon (2003) stated, if universities aim to produce future professionals for improving the economic, political, legal, social and educational life of a nation, then they should focus on how to increase people's ethical and intellectual capabilities.

As Michael (2004) pointed out, higher education worldwide has driven the world into the Information Age, a world in which the only lasting asset of any society is knowledge. The quality of life is also somehow related to the level of education of a

society. It is no surprise then that the most poverty-ridden nations have little or nothing to show in the way of higher education (Michael, 2004).

There are many benefits that higher education offers to individuals and to the society as a whole. However, to maximize benefits derived from higher education investment, Michael suggests that leaders must pay attention to prudent management of resources as well as effective leadership of higher education systems (Michael, 2004).

1.3. RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

1.3.1. Research Problem

Human resources are an important ingredient of any development plan be it public or private. Many institutions including educational institutions are concerned about the development of their core resources especially human resources. The fact of improving institutional resources as seen above is known as capacity building. This is a long and continuous process that requires commitment of all members of the institution.

It is recognised that education is a prerequisite for any sector of the country. Without a proper planning of the education system, many things can deteriorate as a result of failure in education. On the contrary, if capacities within the education system are properly built and sustained (increased number of educated people and quality of education), it follows that the outcome (human resource) that the society will get from the education will serve to achieve expected goals.

However, it is important to think of relying mainly on its own resources from higher education and this needs particular attention when it comes to build strongly its capacities. Rwandan higher education institutions have embarked on building their human capacity by sending many of their academic staff for training in foreign countries.

It is critically important to emphasise that capacity building goes hand in hand with a proper strategic planning. Without such planning, the training that Rwandan academic staffs are receiving may not resolve the problem of insufficient personnel in Rwandan higher education.

The main question of this study is to know to what extent sending academic staff for training in foreign countries can effectively contribute to capacity building in Rwandan higher education. Other related questions are formulated as follows:

- Can academic staff undertaking training in foreign countries contribute effectively to capacity building in Rwandan higher education?
- How do Rwandan students in South Africa perceive their contribution to capacity building of their institutions?
- What are the problems faced by Rwandan sponsored students in South Africa that might hinder their effective contribution to capacity building in their home institutions?

1.3.2. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are formulated for this study:

1. Sending academic staff for training in foreign country is expected to contribute to capacity building in Rwandan higher education.
2. Rwandan students in South Africa recognise their role of contributing to capacity building of their institutions

1.4. OBJECTIVES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The overall purpose of this research is to investigate the sending of academic staff for training in foreign country as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions.

More specifically, the objectives of the study are:

- To identify factors that contribute to capacity building,
- To explore the perceptions of Rwandan funded students of their contribution to capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions,
- To identify problems that Rwandan funded students face during their training that might hinder their contribution to capacity building of their institutions.
- To make recommendations.

The present study is significant in that it investigated the impact of sending academic staff for foreign training as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan HEI. The study is also relevant in that it put forward the benefits for training academic staff as far as capacity building is concerned. This study is also important because it emphasised the relevant role training academic staff will have on higher education institutions in particular, but also on many sectors of the Rwandan economy as a whole. Remember that education is a prerequisite for any sector of the country. Without a proper planning of the education system, many things can deteriorate as a result of failure in education.

1.5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

To approach the study of foreign training and capacity building at Rwandan higher

Firstly, available literature was consulted in order to provide a theoretical framework for the study. This consisted mainly of secondary data collected from books, journals, reports and other materials related to the research study.

Secondly, a questionnaire has been addressed to all Rwandan academic staff sent for foreign training in South Africa in order to get their perceptions regarding the role of training in capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions. The questionnaire consisted essentially of open ended and close ended questions.

Thirdly, a semi structured interview with Rwandan funded students at Western Cape Universities has been organised in order to discuss deeply the funding of academic staff as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan Higher Education Institutions.

Fourthly and lastly, direct observation has been made among Rwandan funded students at Western Cape Universities, in order to get a clear picture of their perceptions on the funding of academic staff and helped to complete information gathered from interview.

1.5.1. Description of the instruments

Besides secondary data obtained from different sources (books, journals and reports), primary data was collected by means of a questionnaire and interview. The questionnaire in this study was the main instrument of primary data collection and was two fold: On one side, there was a questionnaire addressed to the Ministry of Education in Rwanda, and on the other side, there was a questionnaire addressed to the academic staff from higher education institutions in Rwanda currently pursuing postgraduate studies in South Africa.

The questionnaire addressed to the Ministry of Education in Rwanda helped to get information on Rwandan Government sponsored students for foreign training. The questionnaire consisted exclusively of open ended questions. The questionnaire addressed to the academic staff from higher education institutions in Rwanda studying in South Africa, consisted of open ended and close ended questions. The questionnaire comprises three sections. The first section provides the identification of the respondents and consists of close ended questions. The second section is also a

close ended type of questions and helped in this study to get the respondents' perceptions on capacity building and higher education in Rwanda. The third section consists of open ended questions which helped in this study to get the respondents' Perceptions on the foreign training as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan Higher education.

1.5.2. Selection of the sample

Based on statistical database in the Rwandese student forum in South Africa, it appears that Rwandan students in South Africa amounted to 218 for 2005 academic year. These students are enrolled in different universities in South Africa mainly in Gauteng, Western Cape and Kwazulu Natal.

Those in Gauteng are principally in the University of Witwatersrand (WITS) and the University of Pretoria. For the Western Cape Province, Rwandan students are in three main Universities namely University of the Western Cape (UWC), followed by the University of Cape Town (UCT) and University of Stellenbosch. For those in Kwazulu Natal, they are mainly located in Pietermaritzburg and the University of Natal.

Of these students, The Government of Rwanda (GOR) sponsored 115 students while the remaining are self-sponsored students and are mainly undergraduate students pursuing similar courses as offered in Rwanda.

Among those sponsored by the GOR (115), the majority 89 are postgraduate students while 26 students remaining are undergraduates pursuing courses that are not offered by any higher education institution in Rwanda.

These postgraduate students (89) have been recommended by different institutions

As our study is focussing on the foreign training of academic staff and capacity building in higher education institutions in Rwanda, the population study of this research consisted of all 42 academic staff pursuing their postgraduate studies in South Africa. Therefore, a total of 42 questionnaires have been emailed to the above-mentioned students.

For the interview, academic staff from higher institutions in Rwanda studying at the Western Cape Universities was considered. Given the limited time for this research, only 8 students out of 18 at Western Cape Universities were interviewed. Two from each higher education institution in Rwanda. These 8 students were selected according to their availability. The information gathered from the interview helped to complete information received from the questionnaire.

1.5.3. Research limitations

Given that capacity building is a broad concept, it is not possible to study everything at the same time. In that sense, we limited our research to the study of the foreign training of academic staff and capacity building at higher education institutions in Rwanda. In this regard, consideration is given to Rwandan sponsored students for training in South Africa, whereby their views are taken into account vis a vis to capacity building in Rwandan higher Education institutions.

1.6. ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

The study is organised as follows: In the first instance, it starts with an introduction and background chapter whereby the research question is highlighted and the hypotheses along with the objectives of the study are put forward. This first chapter also presents the scope and significance of the study as well as the methodology used to approach the research.

Secondly, a theoretical framework is given in the second chapter. Here, key concepts are explained and literature around capacity building and training human resource in higher education are presented in the international context.

Thirdly, a background on Rwanda as a case study and its higher education institutions programmes is given in the third chapter. Here, the focus is on capacity building and training human resource in Rwandan higher education institutions with special emphasis on academic staff.

Fourthly, the research findings are presented in the fourth chapter and mainly consist of the perceptions of Rwandan students sent for training in South Africa, with regard to the research question.

Lastly, a conclusion is drawn and recommendations are set in the fifth and last chapter.



CHAPTER TWO: THEORISING CAPACITY BUILDING AND TRAINING IN HIGHER EDUCATION

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Many nations in the world are very much concerned with their development. They use whatever means to reach their development goals. In the absence of political chaos, nations focus on the development of their sectors. Several methods are used to

which emphasised that capacity building encompasses “activities, approaches, strategies, and methodologies which help organizations, groups and individuals to improve their performance, generate development benefits, and achieve their objectives over time.”

The emphasis for the above authors is to recognise human resource as the main concern of capacity building. They advocate strengthening human capacities by putting in place strategies that will help individuals achieve their goals. In accordance with these authors, human resource in any organisation should be given special emphasis as far as capacity building is concerned. This is due to the fact that without capable human resource, there is no single activity that could prosper at its own. For the United Nations Development Programme, Capacity is the “process by which individuals, organizations, and societies develop abilities to perform functions, solve problems, and set and achieve goals premised on ownership, choice, and self-esteem.”

The ACBF newsletter (2001) defines capacity building as “the process, methodology, approach and technology whereby societies, communities, institutions, organisation, groups and individuals increasing their abilities to perform their core functions; solve their problems; seize opportunities; and define and achieve their objectives in a sustainable way. It is a totality that includes a number of inter-related dimensions, of which the two most important are:

- (i) institutional capacity, comprising structures, systems, processes and the environment; and
- (ii) Human capacity, comprising knowledge, skills, behaviours as well as utilisation of such knowledge, skills and behaviours”.

Unlike the first authors that emphasised on human resource as a capacity building strategy, UNDP and ACBF went beyond the individual capacities and stated that not only human resource capacities needed to be built, but also institutional and organisational capacities. This dimension brings in the fact that human resource does not operate in isolation, but within an organised institution that set and need to achieve its goals.

There are institutions that specialise in building the capacity to build capacity. In that, the role played by training establishments, agencies and departments is dominant in developing human resource which is the major component of capacity building. However, a major constraint to them is their inability to respond to the current conditions of radical and rapid change.

As Sjaak (2003) observed, “many training establishments are trapped by tradition, inertia and lack of contact with the real and fast moving world of municipal and metropolitan development and management. They tend to offer a fixed menu of training courses of marginal relevance to the changing roles and responsibilities of their clients and unable to respond to demands for training in topics or skills other than those offered by their syllabuses”. Consequently, there is an urgent need to reconsider and redefine the roles and practices of training establishments, which lead to the development of a new generation of training institutions that adapt to a changing world. Such strategies to redesign training systems and institutions will normally require deep changes in approaches to offering training and in the relationships between the suppliers of training and their clients. This, in turn, will necessitate a considerable support system capable of building the capacity of the capacity builders (Sjaak, 2003).

Wakely (2001) confirms that there are intermediary organisations that operate at regional and international levels to provide such support to local authorities and training establishments. In addition to developing and supporting new processes of human resource development, these intermediary organisations are likely able to play a major role in both the organisational and the institutional aspects of capacity building.

In accordance with Sung (2003), there are three essential factors for economic development - human resources, natural resources and capital resources with human resource being at the centre of all. Without capable human resources, development would be very difficult. Human resource development is concerned with issues such as education, health care, and general economic well being. “Human capacity for productivity is a prerequisite for social and economic development. However, factors (social, environmental, political and institutional) affecting development, are very

complex. Therefore, well trained and capable people are needed to handle the changing situations” Sung (2003).

Human resource development in higher education context involves a planned approach to learning that aims at changes in knowledge, skills, understandings, attitudes and values in the behaviour of a learner (Crowder, 1996).

The purpose of human resource development in higher education is to develop a knowledge society and provide the required, skilled and trained work force to increase the country’s competitiveness (performance and build productive capacities). Crowder (1996) suggests that human resource development is not an end in itself, and that the focus should be on developing human potential and individual independence.

With regard to Rwanda, HRD and training means a lot in that all the development efforts of the country are expected from well planned and developed human resource. The importance is even greater when talking of training as a way of upgrading human resource in Rwandan context.

2.2.2.2. Organisational capacity

Organisational capacity is defined by UNDP (1991) as groups of individuals bound by a common purpose, with clear objectives and the internal structures, processes, systems, staffing, and other resources to achieve them. Organisational and/or networking capacity involves the elaboration of management structures, processes and procedures, not only within organizations but also the management of relationships between the different organisations and sectors (public, private and community).

In higher education institutions as elsewhere, building organisational capacity is very important in that it helps well trained individuals achieving their goals by organising themselves with a common objective that bound them. It is recognised that without organisation in any institution, although human resources are developed, they cannot perform well as a result of poor organisation.

Although the focus is on HRD, it is important to note that Rwanda as any country interested in building capacity will not gain the maximum benefit from the students

trained abroad if it does not have organisational capacity. It is always more beneficial to match as far as possible the three dimensions of capacity building (human, institutional and organisational capacity) to achieve efficiency.

2.2.2.3. Institutional capacity

Institutions are defined by Hornby (1995) as organisations established for social, educational, religious, etc purposes. They are about relationships between people and resources and how they are organised into networks around common goals. Institutions are important in that they serve as catalyst where people organise themselves and pursue common objectives. Without institutions, it is difficult for individuals to operate in isolation and expect to achieve common goals.

Institutional capacity is known as the formal “rules of the game” and informal norms that provide the framework of goals and incentives within which organisations and people operate. It encompasses the legal and regulatory changes that have to be made in order to enable organisations, institutions and agencies at all levels and in all sectors to enhance their capacities (UNDP, 1991). According to American Council on Education (2001), all institutions seek to excel at what they do. It is in that sense that in order to perform effectively their day to day jobs, higher education institutions as other institutions focus on building capacities within the organisation. In building institutional capacities, higher education institutions get equipped with what is needed to help individuals perform in a competitive way. In that sense, capacity-building efforts should focus on institutional strengthening, including the design of new organizational structures to improve the "goodness of fit" between the polh

Institutional capacity in Rwandan context and especially in Rwandan HEI is very determining in order to obtain full benefits from human capacity building efforts. In the absence of institutional capacity, benefits from Rwandan trained students abroad will be limited.

2.3. CAPACITY BUILDING AS POLICY CHOICE

Capacity building has many interpretations but is commonly understood as a basic human resource issue. It is a matter of building institutional person-power to the point where there is an adequate skills base to fulfil the task of an organisation (Centre for Higher Education Transformation, 2002). As a policy choice, capacity building in higher education has incorporated broader dimensions and goes beyond the human resource issue. In order to function optimally, higher education institutions have to suitably train their personnel. As regard to capacity building, the Centre for Higher Education Transformation (2002) confers higher education institutions the aims of changing the composition of staff at HEI to make this more representative¹; assuring quality competence: the quality of HEI staff is insufficient and inadequate in a number of skilled areas, therefore, there is a need to increase the quality and quantity of staff by means of training²; and finally resolving structural problems within the HEI sector that result in inequalities between institutions in terms of staff qualifications, staff/student ratios, availability of postgraduate programmes, and availability of research funding, library and information services, information technology, management capacity and infrastructural support.

2.3.1. Objectives of Capacity building

According to Georgiadou and Groot (2002), “capacity building aims at improving the ability of entire organisations to perform agreed tasks, either singly or in cooperation with others”. In addition to this general objective, specific objectives of capacity building have been identified in what follows and they vary differently according to the needs and aspirations of different countries and organisations or institutions.

¹ So that all the staff members could be given equal opportunity to contribute to the development of HEI

² In areas such as in science and technology

According to Ntukamazina as cited in Mukandala (2000), the main objectives of capacity building are three fold: enhancing capability of top civil management in management change; improving the technical skills to be retained in the service; and finally building the capacity of institutions through retooling with modern administrative knowledge.

More specifically Rwanda National Assessment Report (GOR, 1998) indicates that capacity building objectives are to promote the ability of government to attract and retain staff; access the availability of critically high level manpower; achieve high

governance as well as people-centred development in community, district and national settings. If this vision is realised, the Rwanda's HRD would be greatly improved. HRD in Rwandan context is further developed in chapter 3.

2.3.2. Africa's experience with capacity building

In the context of higher education, capacity building is needed for a better education system, thereby providing higher education institutions with well educated staff capable of spreading their knowledge to the benefit of the whole community and by equipping both higher education institutions and staff with necessary tools that will help them achieve their objectives.

Capacity building in higher education needs also to focus on research. According to UNESCO (2003), research has all the time played a crucial role in the mission fixed by African universities. Indeed, it is research that distinguishes universities from higher education institutes. Also, the amount and the standard of research carried out are the main criteria taken into account when considering an application for promotion submitted by a lecturer or a researcher (UNESCO, 2003).

In the education sector, capacity building was not as effective as in other sectors. As illustrated in the case of the subsequent countries by the World Bank (2005), capacity building varied from one country to another with regard to education. The World Bank has supported a variety of efforts to build capacity at the institutional level, with varying degrees of success.

For example, in Mozambique, where education has been a strong priority of the government, significant progress has been reached in developing policies and strategies for different parts of the education system.

In Ethiopia, regardless of strong commitment to a sector development programme, the government has not yet fully identified the institutional capacity constraints and development needs to support its decentralisation force.

In Mali, decentralisation has not progressed as intended, and the regional development plans envisaged are still in preparation.

In Ghana, clear mandates have not been established as planned between the Education

2.3.3. Why capacity building in HEI is important

“Higher education worldwide has catapulted the world into the Information Age, a world in which the only enduring asset of any society is knowledge” (Michael, 2004). As the author observes, the world has become sophisticated in the fight against diseases, but at the same time, has an incredible power to inflict diseases not designed or produced by nature itself. In that, the world of knowledge is capable of spreading constructive or destructive information. That is why capacity building is needed in higher education institutions to produce appropriate information needed to develop nations.

According to Michael (2004), the quality of life is connected with the level of general education of a society. In most poor nations where the level of poverty is high, it is no surprise that these countries have little or nothing to offer in terms of higher education. In many developing countries especially in Africa, a systematic destruction of the higher education infrastructure leads to increasing economic poverty followed by greater starvation of higher education but also greater level of poverty, which constitutes a downward spiral for those countries.

Although higher education confers many benefits on individuals and society, it needs to be managed carefully. To maximise benefits obtained from higher education, there is a need for leaders to pay attention to prudent management of resources as well as effective leadership of higher education systems by means of strongly building capacities within the higher education system.

According to European Commission (World Bank, 2005), capacity building helps “to develop and strengthen structures, institutions and procedures that help to ensure: transparent and accountable governance in all public institutions; improve capacity to analyze, plan, formulate and implement policies in economic, social, environmental, research, science and technology fields; and in critical areas such as international negotiation”. Similarly with European commission, UNCED (1992) recognises that "Capacity building encompasses the country's human, scientific, technological, organizational, institutional, and resource capabilities. A fundamental goal of capacity building is to enhance the ability to evaluate and address the crucial questions related to policy choices and modes of implementation among development options, based on

an understanding of environment potentials and limits and of needs perceived by the people of the country concerned".

It is important to think of building capacities when dealing with issues of evaluating and addressing questions related to policy choice for the sake of effectiveness. As observed the above authors, capacity building is needed in many areas from human capacities to technological capacities. However, in each and every area of intervention, human resource remains at the centre of activities thereby performing the core function.

Although a learning culture may be present in higher education institutions, the creation of a learning organisation is dependent on embedding learning in the management processes of the organisation by extending the focus on learning from the classroom and the research laboratory to the wider organisation, so as to allow creation and dissemination of knowledge that informs the development of the organisation (Jennifer, 1998). Higher education organisations have been concerned to build a learning community in which both staff and students learn through their experience in the teaching and learning environment, together with proper exposure to scholarship and research. As seen above, capacity building in higher education is very important in that it will allow higher education institutions to perform at their full potentials.

“Academic staff in higher education have a variety of backgrounds and experience and are not usually recruited on the basis of prescribed and standardized pre-service training” (Jeffrey, 1993; Cousin et al. 2003). The tasks undertaken by academic staff vary enormously, reflecting their different qualifications and interests. Soon after appointment, most academic staff is expected to attain autonomy through the development of areas of responsibility and specialisation, depending on their previous experience and training, and on individual preference and motivation. Building Capacity for academic staff is needed to keep them updated as their job requires a continuous process of learning. While dealing with their day to day jobs, academic staffs are fulfilling objectives and functions of HE given to them by their institutions.

It is also important to mention that the objectives and functions of higher education as presented below justify the importance of capacity building in higher education as they require human resource strengths which are obtained by means of capacity building. It is worth noting that without capacity building programme in higher education, it would be very hard for HEI to achieve their goals and function properly. Capacity building in HEI focuses mainly on HRD and in order to perform efficiently, HEI allocate their human resources, objectives and functions, which require human CB to achieve assigned tasks.

As a UN organisation in charge of education, UNESCO has written a lot on HE and the following are the objectives with regard to HRD.

1. Objectives of higher education

According to UNESCO (1998), the objectives of higher education include:

Higher education institutions should educate highly qualified graduates and responsible citizens able to meet the needs of all sectors of human activity. This should be done by offering relevant qualifications, including professional training, which brings together high-level knowledge and skills, using courses and content continually tailored to the present and future needs of society.

HEI should also provide opportunities for higher learning and for learning throughout life. In this regard, learners should be given an optimal range of choice and a flexibility of entry and exit points within the system, as well as an opportunity for individual development and social mobility.

Furthermore, HEI should help protect and enhance societal values by training young people. The training should focus on the values which form the basis of democratic citizenship and by providing critical and detached perspectives to assist in the discussion

2. Social relations of higher education

In addition to its mission and objectives of teaching and doing research, HE also offers opportunities to develop social relations as recommended by UNESCO (1998). As soon as we are talking HRD we are also talking about relationships between people learning from each other through social relations. These relations are summarised in the following paragraphs:

Higher education personnel and students as major actors: A dynamic staff development policy is an essential element for higher education institutions. Clear policies should be put in place regarding higher education teachers, who currently need to focus on teaching students how to learn and how to take initiatives rather than being an exclusive source of knowledge. Moreover, in view of the role of higher education for lifelong learning, experience outside the institutions have to be considered as a relevant qualification for higher educational staff.

National and institutional decision-makers should place students and their needs at the centre of their concerns. In this regard, students should be considered as major partners and responsible stakeholders in the renewal of higher education. This should include student involvement in issues that affect that level of education, including evaluation, the renovation of teaching methods and curricula, policy-formulation and institutional management. As students have the right to organize and represent themselves, their involvement in these issues should be guaranteed. Guiding and counselling services should be developed in co-operation with student organisations.³

Students and teachers exchange and share knowledge and know-how across borders and continents.⁴ The principle of solidarity and true partnership amongst higher education institutions worldwide is crucial for education and training in all fields that

³ This is very important since it will help assist students in the transition to higher education and take account of the needs of increasingly diversified categories of learners. In addition to those entering higher education from schools or further education colleges, H.E.I should also take account of the needs of those leaving and returning in a lifelong process. Such support is needed to ensuring a good match between student and course, reducing drop-out. For those students who do drop out, they should have good opportunities to return to higher education if and when suitable.

⁴ These exchanges of experiences are facilitated by international organizations (e.g. student and teacher) networks.

encourage an understanding of global issues, the role of democratic governance and skilled human resources in their resolution, and the need for living together with different cultures and values. The practice of multilingualism, faculty and student exchange programmes and institutional linkage to promote intellectual and scientific co-operation should be an integral part of all higher education systems.

More to that, regional and international normative instruments for the recognition of studies should be ratified and implemented. This should include certification of the skills, competences and abilities of graduates, in order to make it easier for students to change courses, and facilitate mobility within and between national systems.

3. Content of Higher education

According to UNESCO (1998), higher education should focus on the following:

Advancing knowledge through research in science, the arts and humanities and the dissemination of its results. Advancing knowledge through research is a vital function of all systems of H.E, as it helps to promote postgraduate studies. Innovation, interdisciplinarity and transdisciplinarity should be promoted and reinforced in programmes with long-term orientations on social and cultural aims and needs. An appropriate balance should be established between basic and target-oriented research.

Institutions should make sure that all members of the academic community engaged in research are equipped with appropriate training, resources and support. The intellectual and cultural rights on the results of research should be used to the benefit of humanity and should be protected in order to avoid being abused.

Of special significance is the enhancement of research capacities in higher education research institutions, as mutual improvement of quality takes place when higher education and research are conducted at a high level within the same institution. These institutions should be materially and financially supported by both public and private sources.

From 'brain drain' to 'brain gain': The 'brain drain' has yet to be stopped, since it continues to deprive the developing countries and those in transition, of the high-level expertise necessary to speed up their socio-economic progress. International co-

operation schemes should be based on long-term partnerships between institutions in the South and the North, and also promote South-South co-operation. Priority should be given to training programmes in the developing countries, in centres of excellence forming regional and international networks, with short periods of specialized and intensive study abroad. Consideration should be given to creating an environment conducive to attracting and retaining skilled human capital, either through national policies or international arrangements to facilitate the return- permanent or temporary- of highly trained scholars and researchers to their countries of origin. At the same time, efforts must be directed towards a process of 'brain gain' through collaboration programmes that, by virtue of their international dimension, enhance the building and strengthening of institutions and facilitate full use of endogenous capacities.

Capacity building in higher education is assumed to focus primarily on providing knowledge to all. In this sense however, capacity can only be built if concerned individuals complete the programme of study. "Persistence, that is, the behaviour of continuing action despite the presence of obstacles, is an important measure of higher education program effectiveness" (Rovai, 2002).

According to O'Hanlon (2003), a focus on the building of intellectual capacity has global significance. As the author observes, there is a need for new kinds of experts to study local situations with regard to global, national, transnational and international trends with a view to producing and sustaining educators who can deal with the demands of coming decades. Building the capacity of any community means creating productive human relationships and developing skills, knowledge and practices (Rovai, 2002). Since the concept of human capital emerged from the work of Schulz in 1961 it has proved useful in research and policy development (Healey & Sylvain 2001 cited in O'Hanlon, 2003).

Initially, building the capacity in higher education necessitates the clarification of purpose. If the universities aim to generate future professionals to develop the economic, political, legal, social and educational sector of a nation; they should be assessed according to how they expand people's ethical and intellectual capabilities. People's capabilities engage their capacity to recognize the value judgements inherent in the development of the above-mentioned sectors. Yet, to develop the capacity for

critical and self-governing citizenship there is a need for higher education institutions to develop and model their own democratic agencies. The transmission of knowledge from the expert to the learner is one way of teaching, but learning from a wider network and benefiting from the dynamics of its' social relationships is a much more powerful way to learn (Jeffrey, 1993).

It would be not easy to separate the building of intellectual capacity from the value of social networking rising from the creation of such groups as they are interrelated. The intellectual life of the student is made stronger by the application of collaborative scholarship in the research process. This building of scholarship uses peers and/or colleagues to critique relevant literature from books, journals and articles as observed (O'Hanlon, 2003).

2.4. BENEFITS OF TRAINING HUMAN RESOUCES

2.4.1. Benefits of training for individual students

With regard to training human resource, it is relevant to choose where and why people train. This study is interested in training in foreign countries, and in what follows reasons are given for such training.

2.4.1.1. Reasons for training in foreign countries

Studying Abroad has been considered as being one of the most exciting and fulfilling parts of a university education. However, in today's world, it is much more than that. As observed Montana State University (2005), global trends, which have pulled countries and continents together, recognise that the knowledge and experience gained through study abroad is ever more important to success in almost any career.

According to the Educational Directories (2005), "Study abroad can be an enriching and eye-opening adventure, where learning extends to the world beyond the classroom walls. There is no substitute for living and studying in a foreign country if you want to gain in-depth knowledge of another culture's customs, people, and language".

For Buckinghamshire Business School (2005), reasons that stimulate people for pursuing studies in foreign countries are many but some are given below:

Enhance your employability by adding an international dimension to your curriculum vitae; Increase your cultural awareness by opening your mind to new ideas from other cultures; Grow as an individual by mastering new challenges and Stand out from the rest.

As there are many reasons for studying abroad, there are also many benefits derived from the experience gained in foreign countries.

2.4.1.2. Benefits of training for individual students

Researchers have demonstrated how diverse investments in knowledge and skill developments have paid off both for individuals in terms of higher salaries and personal well-being, and more generally for the overall strengthening of the economy and society. They have been able to investigate and study the dynamics and costs of investments in knowledge and skills by different organizations and the role of different factors in shaping government and organizational investment choices (O’Hanlon, 2003).

However, in measuring knowledge and skill investments in terms of societal outcomes, it is mainly labour market opportunities that are taken into consideration. As a result, much is omitted from this point of view. As Rovai (2002) noted, simply measuring the quantity and stock of educational credentials ignores qualitative aspects of education and training, which cannot be assessed. The consideration of social capital is mostly omitted in this point of analysis. According to O’Hanlon (2003), social capital “is the hidden value of the assets held by a group of people or community, their friends, family and colleagues who can be called upon when needed”.⁵

⁵ “Helping to produce educational professionals who can deal with society’s future demands calls for a community of educated intellectuals to discern, not only the social and economic requirements of society, but also the promotions of values like freedom, justice and democracy”. Universities were places where students sought the ‘truth’ through the power of research, learning and debate. Nevertheless, the building of practical reasoning is vital to maintain and understand learning for educational purposes.

In higher education as elsewhere, students join existing social groups and networks which help them expand their educational opportunities thereby contributing to building the group members' capacity. In universities, students form new relationships and groups. They meet new peers either informally e.g., through the sharing of accommodation, or they may join more formal groups like specific student clubs or societies. Social networks grow out of these formal and informal liaisons. The building of social capital as observed Jeffrey (1993), is strengthened through the establishment and building of networks. Networking facilitates individuals to benefit from the potential of particular and diversified connections through social and professional relationships.

Additional benefits of training for individual students and especially overseas training are presented by Educational directories (2005) as follows:

Studying abroad matures students personally and intellectually thereby giving them personal growth, self-confidence and justifiable pride of what they have accomplished.

It can also be beneficial in the world affairs in that it can broaden intellectual horizons and deepen students' knowledge and understanding of international, political and economic issues.

Studying abroad can also enhance students' employment prospects in many fields as they are regarded by many employers as being competent and possessing international knowledge and often second language skills.

Studying abroad should not be considered as a run away route from problems at home or on campus. Adjusting to life and learning in a foreign environment will have its stressful moments, and the more you are able to focus on your goals, the more you are likely to benefit from the experience.

Furthermore, the Northern Kentucky University (2003) give other benefits for studying abroad. These are: broadening your academic scope; experiencing another way of life; gaining a better understanding of international issues and events;

increasing your adaptability to new and uncertain situations; and developing a sense of direction for a future career.

2.4.2. Benefits of training human resources for home institutions

As higher education around the world changes dramatically, the need for well-trained and informed leaders and analysts in the field grows in importance as confirmed the Centre for Higher Education Transformation (2002). By sending students for overseas training, sending institutions expect many benefits as presented by Dill (2000) and the Centre for Higher Education Transformation (2002) as follows:

Knowledge based on global experiences: experience and knowledge gained overseas will help the beneficiary to adapt and transform his home institution. This is achieved by benefiting from an increasing globalisation of higher education marketplace and by getting connected to others who work in the same field.

Other benefits include sharing common challenges and experiences; assuring academic quality that will offer the potential of future returns; improvement in academic outcomes; gaining the communication of information; accessing expertise the sending country does not have; accessing best practice quality training at international level and finally invest in future skill and capacity of institutions

HRD is to maximise people's potential to contribute to development by participating fully in all its activities. Through capacity building, individuals and institutions are empowered to expand their abilities to more fully participate in the development process.

Systematic capacity building in higher education necessitates a supportive and enabling policy environment and a realistic investment in both formal and non-formal education. Policies that build, strengthen and support HRD systems should be a high priority for higher education institutions.

Human resource and institutional capacity building through education and training means enhanced investment, expanded international collaboration, improved quality and relevance of education and broadened access to and participation in educational activities. Although human resource development should be a prior concern of higher education institutions, this does not mean that governments can disengage themselves from human capacity building responsibilities; on the contrary, there is a need to be a strong national commitment to sustained human resource development in higher education institutions and elsewhere.

Although technology, organisation and institutions are important in capacity building efforts, human resources remain central to them. In the next chapter, Rwandan higher education system is presented and capacity building efforts investigated with special emphasis on HRD.

CHAPTER THREE: HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM AND CAPACITY BUILDING INITIATIVES IN RWANDA

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The war and genocide of 1994 did not spare any sphere of the national economy and seriously affected the whole of Rwandan society. These tragic events paralysed the country's socio-economic infrastructure and disrupted Rwandan values. The war resulted in enormous losses in human resources and greatly increased the number of vulnerable groups (Rwandese republic, 1998). The implications of the 1994 genocide are huge⁶ and have impacted on all sectors in Rwanda. However, due to the limitations of this study, these implications could not be discussed in depth.

The higher education system in Rwanda has expanded and branched out rapidly in the post-genocide period. Once dominated by the NUR, the system includes three new public institutions (the KIST, the KIE and the KHI). Given strong demand for higher education, many private institutions were established with the Université Libre de Kigali (ULK) being the leading private University. The system's expansion has been stimulated by a strong demand for higher education, which in turn has been motivated by the widespread insufficiency, in the aftermath of the genocide, of qualified labour in government and in the modern sector of the economy.

Despite all the problems resulted in the aftermath of genocide, efforts are done by the government of Rwanda with a view to build capacities at almost all levels of its sectors in order to expect a bright future. Building capacity in higher education is among Rwandan priorities.

In what follows, a historical background of Rwanda is presented, followed by the understanding of Higher education system in Rwanda as well as capacity building initiatives in Rwanda.

⁶ For those who would like to learn more about the 1994 Rwandan genocide and its implications, the following links could be more informative: “Chukwuma, O. 2003. Rwanda: the search for post-conflict socio-economic change, 1995-2001. African Region working paper series, November, 12, 2003.”

“African Union, 2000. Rwanda: The preventable genocide. Second edition, IPEP, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.”

3.2. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Rwanda is a landlocked country situated a long distance from the nearest ocean port. Located immediately south of the Equator, it is bordered on the north by Uganda, on the south by Burundi, on the east by Tanzania, and on the west by Democratic Republic of Congo (Rugumamu and Gbla, 2003; World Bank, 2004). With an area of 26,338 square kilometres (10,169 square miles) and an estimated 310 inhabitants per square kilometre (based on the results of the August 2002 census), Rwanda is among the most densely settled countries in Africa. According to preliminary results from the 2002 census, Rwanda's population numbered 8.16 million (World Bank, 2004). Three official languages are spoken in Rwanda: Kinyarwanda, French and English.

Often called the "The Land of a Thousand Hills", or "the Switzerland of Africa", Rwanda is characterised by mountain ranges and highland plateaus of the great watershed between the Nile and the Zaire River basins. Cool climates and few tropical diseases make much of Rwanda highly liveable in. High, well-distributed rainfall and good soils, especially in the volcano regions, have allowed the nourishment of large populations (Rugumamu and Gbla, 2003).

With a per capita gross domestic product (GDP) of only US\$242 in 2000, Rwanda is one of the poorest countries in the world. Its agriculture-dominated economy consists mainly of small and increasingly fragmented farms producing for subsistence needs. The country's principal export crops remain coffee and tea. The manufacturing sector accounts for 20 percent of GDP and import-substituting industries dominate the sector. In 1960s and 1970s sensible financial policies, together with generous external aid and favourable terms of trade, advanced sustained growth, but 1980s, when the price of coffee cut down, growth became unpredictable. During the four years of war that culminated in 1994 genocide, GDP declined sharply. In recent years, GDP has again been growing steadily under a programme of improved tax collection, accelerated privatisation of state enterprises, and continued improvements in export crop and food production (World Bank, 2004).

After being a German colony from 1899 to 1918 and a UN-trust territory of Belgium from 1918 to 1961, the country became independent in 1962. The legacy of colonial rule posed challenges of capacity building in post-independence Rwanda. In terms of

capacity building, Rwanda inherited a weak human, institutional and societal capacity to cope with the challenges of development management. Severe capacity constraints in all sectors were present and a shortage of skilled staff, under-utilisation of the available resources, weak institutional environments, inadequate incentive structures, as well as lack of capacity retention strategies characterised the country. Regardless of various efforts to promote the social sector, neither institutional nor human capacity grew fast enough to keep pace with the requirements of rapidly changing social-economic circumstances. The advent of the economic crisis of the mid-1980s, as well as the war and genocide from 1990 on, damaged the limited progress that had been achieved (Rugumamu and Gbla, 2003).

The Rwandan Government of National Unity has put in place a national reconciliation programme and has committed itself to the task of economic rehabilitation. The country has embarked on the road to social reconstruction and economic development. In that sense, education in Rwanda is expected to play an important role of contributing to the efforts of all national sectors in the socio-economic reconstruction and in the training of human resources needed to develop the country. Education and training are the main factors that help achieve sustainable economic and social development. In this regard, the Government of National Unity continues to emphasise on its commitment to invest in the education and training sector as one of the priority areas for reconstruction (Rwandese republic, 1998).

3.3. UNDERSTANDING RWANDAN HIGHER EDUCATION SYSTEM AND FOREIGN TRAINING

3.3.1. The situation in Rwandan education system

According to the Republic of Rwanda, Ministry of finance and economic planning (MINECOFIN) (2003), Rwandan education situation is as follows:

1. Illiteracy in the Rwandan population is 48%. The level of professional skills and capacity is low and there are low numbers of technically qualified people.
2. Although efforts are made to increase primary access, the secondary and tertiary education levels are very low even by sub-Saharan standard: 33% of 15 years

and above had no education in 2000 and 60% of population had only primary education and 7.1% had post-primary and only 0.41% had some tertiary education.

3. The enhancement of the level of education and the capacity of the Rwandan population will be accelerated by the youth. The establishment of new public education institutions and the private Universities play a considerable role in increasing the level of education and training.
4. Conversely, poverty and high levels of ignorance of the parents, the financial limitations of the country, inadequate, inefficient professional and technical schools, and lack of qualified teachers constitute a serious hindrance to the efforts to improve the level of training of the population.
5. In its vision, Rwanda projects that all Rwandans will be literate and that all the youth will have attained basic primary education by 2010. By 2020 the level of school enrolment will at least be equal to 60% in secondary schools and 30% in higher institutions of learning. The country will be endowed with adequate professional human skills and capacity at all levels.

Contextually as reported in World Bank (2004), higher education in Rwanda has expanded rapidly in the post genocide years. There has been improvement in the higher education sector since 1997. Three new public institutions have been created, the number of government-sponsored students has risen up to nearly 250 percent, and the public budget for the sub sector has grown by a massive 340 percent, to a current level of almost Rwandan Francs 12 billion (nearly US\$27 million). Although higher education in Rwanda serves a small population, it absorbs approximately 40 percent of the country's current spending on education.

3.3.2. Structure of the higher education system in Rwanda

Higher education in Rwanda today is made up of a diverse mixture of public and private institutions. As shown in the table 1 below, the number of public and private institutions and the size of their enrolments have changed since 1960. The first institution of higher education, the diploma-granting Grand séminaire de Nyakibanda (GSN), was established in 1936 by the Roman Catholic Church specifically to train

men for the priesthood (World Bank, 2004). For most of the next three decades, the seminary was the only institution of higher education in Rwanda, and students who were not interested in the priesthood pursued their higher education in neighbouring countries mainly in today's known Democratic Republic of Congo or in Belgium. The situation changed in 1963 with the creation of the Université Nationale du Rwanda (UNR; in English, National University of Rwanda, NUR) under a joint agreement between the Rwandan government and the Dominican Fathers from Quebec Province, Canada. In 1966 the Institut Pédagogique National (IPN; in English, National Institute of Education) was established with support from the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). Its mission was to train secondary school teachers and conduct research in education. The private Faculté de théologie de Butare (FTB) was also established in 1969.

In 1970s there was no big change in the creation of institutions. Only in 1976, the Institut Africain et Mauricien de Statistiques et d'Economie Appliquée (IAMSEA) which is a private institution was established. In 1981, the IPN was incorporated into the NUR. In the same decade, two new public institutions were created (the Institut Supérieur de Finances Publiques (ISFP) in 1986-1987, and the Institut Supérieur d'Agronomie et d'Élevage (ISAE), in 1988-89). In the private sector, the number of institutions doubled, from three to six, with the addition of the Université Adventiste d'Afrique Centrale (UAAC) in 1984, the Ecole Supérieure de Gestion et d'Information (ESGI) in 1985, and the Institut Supérieur Catholique de Pédagogie Appliquée de Nkumba (ISCPA) in 1986.

Table 1: Number of Institutions of Higher Education, overall enrolment, and share of students in private sector, Rwanda, 1960s-present

Period	Number of institutions		Enrolments	
	Public	Private	Total (Thousands)	% private
1960s				
Pre- 1963	0	1	–	–
Post-1963	2	2	–	–
1970s	2	3	1	–
1980s	3	6	1-3	8-28
1990s				
Pre- genocide	3	7	3-5	35
Post-genocide	6	6	5-11	6-28
2000-present	6	6-8	12-17	30-38

Source: World Bank (2004)

The biggest change in the structure of higher education took place in the 1990s, a decade marked by explosive growth in the public sector and large-scale replacement of existing private institutions by new ones. The number of public institutions grew from three to six with the creation of the Kigali Health Institute (KHI) in 1996, the Kigali Institute of Science, Technology and Management (KIST) in 1997, and the Kigali Institute of Education (KIE) in 1999. In the private sector the Institut Supérieur de Pédagogie de Gitwe (ISPG) was created in 1993, and disappeared the following year. After the 1994 genocide, three more private institutions (the IAMSEA, the ESGI, and the ISCPA) went out of the existence. The FTB and the UAAC reopened in 1996 and the ISPG in 1997. Two new private sector institutions were established, the ULK in 1996, and the Université Laïque de Kigali (UNILAK) in 1997. On the whole, the number of private institutions decreased from 7 before the genocide to 6 afterward.

3.3.3. Trend in students' enrolment and their distribution

Looking at the number and distribution of students, the whole system enrolled about 100 students with NUR as a leading institution with 50 students in 1960s. In the 1970s total enrolment stood at about 1,000, but by the end of 1980s, it had risen to 3,000. According to the World Bank (2004), growth during the 1980s was stimulated mainly by the establishment of private institutions, and the share of students in the private sector grew during the decade from 8% to 28%. Furthermore, the system expanded in the early 1990s and saw public and private enrolment increasing up to

about 5,000. The private sector's share rose to about 35% just before the 1994 genocide.

The period after war and genocide of 1990s saw an increase in the total enrolments, which more than doubled by the end of the decade, reaching 11,000. The private sector share of enrolments fell in the years immediately following the genocide, when several institutions closed. In the early 2000 enrolments continued to expand throughout the system reaching nearly 17,000 students by 2001-2002. The private sector grew even faster; its share of enrolment in that year was a historical high of 38%.

Available data indicate that in 2000-2002, enrolment in higher education was concentrated in a small number of institutions. In the public sector the NUR accounted for 56 % of total enrolments, followed by the KIST, with 18%, and the KIE, with 11%. The remaining 15% of public sector students was distributed among three other institutions. The degree of concentration was even greater in the private sector: the ULK enrolled 81% of the students, while the UAAC accounted for 11%, the UNILAK for 7%, and the ISPG for only 1% (World Bank, 2004).

The criterion for selection of students into the public institutions is based on the results of national examination board and brightest students tend to rank NUR and KHI as their top choices. However for the case of private institutions, the criterion is less selective and is mainly based on the ability and willingness to pay fees.

3.4. CAPACITY BUILDING INITIATIVES IN RWANDA

3.4.1. People-centred development in Rwanda

The Year 2003 marks an important set of highlights intended to boost people-centred development in Rwanda. In this regard, the World Bank asserted that “the 2004 – 2008 Integrated Strategic Plan (ISP) provides an ambitious and important approach to strengthening the human resources and institutional development capacity of Rwandans to deliver a more democratic, prosperous and healthy society” (World Bank, 2003).

and institutional capacity building as key interventions for reducing risks to poverty and poor economic growth (MINECOFIN, 2003). According to World Bank (2003), “GOR steering committee is currently supervising preparatory activities for development and implementation of a Multi-Sector Capacity Building Program (MSCBP). The portfolio of the Ministry of Public Services expanded from skills development, vocational training and labour to include human resources development and capacity-building initiatives. In April 2003, the MSCBP steering committee was scheduled to officially launch the MSCBP mission, vision and implementation framework. GOR reports noted that MSCBP is “expected to ensure greater coherence, consistency and coordination in the formulation and implementation of capacity building projects” and to facilitate GOR’s control and ownership of these projects.”

3.4.2. Human resources and institutional development

For the 2004-2008 integrated strategic plans, Human Resources and Institutional Development 5gevel5 5geurc

expertise and organisational resources available in contemporary Rwandan society (Twahirwa and Muyango, 2002). Nevertheless the supply of each is limited in scope, quantity and availability. Capacity-strengthening is seen by USAID/Rwanda as a long-term investment and dynamic process that will need to continue past 2008. Structural constraints such as high staff turnover, low salaries and limited opportunities for incentives and promotions will require on-going systematic attention. By the end of this strategy period, these problems may be partly improved on by accepting, effectively planning for and managing the replenishment requirements for human resources (World Bank, 2003).

In a development context, it is critical for capacity strengthening to become a sustainable partnership effort and is best sustained by relying on indigenous human and institutional resources to ultimately carry out human resources and institutional development. It is a long-term partnership that focuses results on improved Rwandan capacity and performance (MINECOFIN, 2003).

3.4.3. Rebuilding the social and human capital in the Rwandan context

The rebuilding of the social and human capital in the Rwandan society that had borne the burden of the trauma was a demanding and long-term task as would be expected. As Rugumamu and Gbla (2003) argued, this is due to the fact that neighbours, teachers, doctors, and religious leaders took part in the genocide. As a result, essential trust in social institutions had been destroyed, and replaced by pervasive fear, hostility and insecurity. This affected interpersonal and community interactions across ethnic, economic, generational and political lines. As in the case of Uganda, capacity-building interventions in Rwanda wasted the opportunity by largely following a traditional route of development, although this was a post-conflict situation.

Since the end of 1994, the GOR has relatively brought stability in most parts of Rwanda. Gradually, the country's economic situation started to pick up and the government of Rwanda embarked on challenging tasks of rehabilitation, reconstruction, reconciliation and development. The international community provided generous support on condition to comply with the standard package of structural adjustment policies involving changes in macro-economic management.

After the first five years, human resource and institutional aspects needed to be considered as capacity building was concerned. The intention was to develop a common framework to guide capacity building initiatives in all sectors. The government of Rwanda was extremely aware of the seriousness of shortage of capacity, especially in the public sector, where only 6.5 percent of the workforce has some university education, and many technical, professional and managerial positions were either vacant, or filled by expatriate or unqualified staff (Rugumamu and Gbla, 2003). This implies that the large agenda of reconstruction, capacity-building and reconciliation was to stretch the thin capacity of the civil service and adversely affect the pace of implementation of reforms.

Since 1998 determined efforts have been made to increase domestic capacities while decreasing the role of the donor agencies and international NGOs. To accomplish this goal, capacity building initiatives have taken various forms. However, as recent studies have shown, a lot of policy clarifications and strategy improvement need to be done (Government of Rwanda, 2002).

3.4.4. From post-conflict reconstruction to development process

Capacity building is part of the development process and should be integrated as fully as possible into the implementing institutions. In any post-conflict reconstruction process, the development objectives must be defined, institutional and human resource development needs clarified, and a capacity building strategy identified. In the case of post-conflict Rwanda, the key issue for donors was to support the new government in the design of long-term, multi-sector capacity building programmes, which were consistent with its peculiar post-conflict situation. As Rugumamu and Gbla, (2003) asserted, donors should be expected to ensure swifter disbursements, more flexible procedures, better knowledge of local actors and a greater capacity to undertake *ad hoc* actions. Furthermore, the authors added that “as was the case in post-conflict Kosovo, the ACBF may want to consider persuading the Bretton Woods institutions to adopt peace-friendly economic reform programs for Africa, including far-reaching debt relief measures, enhanced quality investment and foreign aid, and deliberate capacity building initiatives in support of long-term development efforts and post-conflict recovery” (Rugumamu and Gbla, 2003). In the same line, the ACBF might consider convincing the World Trade Organisation (WTO) to adopt a “special and differential treatment” of post-conflict countries in the world trading system.

Above all, the ACBF should look to convince the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries to provide substantive investment guarantees to any corporations based in their respective home countries that may wish to invest in post-conflict countries in Africa (Twahirwa and Muyango, 2002).

3.4.5. Capacity building initiatives for the period 1995-1998

Capacity building initiatives in Rwanda have taken various forms according to the country's needs. The following are capacity building initiatives for the period 1995-1998:

1. International Emergence and Relief

The aftermath of the 1994 genocide stimulated a number of new donors to pay attention to Rwanda and more resources were brought into the country. Lancaster (1999) argued that “the way in which aid was given in the lead-up to the genocide certainly did nothing to dissipate the likelihood of the violence, and may even have been a contributing factor”. From April 1994 through the end of that year, the focus for the international community was mainly to save people's lives by ways of providing food, shelter, and medical and sanitary services to refugees and internally displaced persons (IDPs). Provided mostly by the United States and European Union through pipelines managed by the World Food Programme (WFP), Catholic Relief Services (CRS) and the International Committee of the Red Cross (ICRC), emergency food aid was and continues to be massive. This undoubtedly prevented large-scale starvation and malnutrition among the affected population (FAO/EU/WFP/MINAGRI, 1996).

In November 1994, donors requested UNDP to establish a second Trust Fund to accelerate the disbursement of rehabilitation funds in addition to the first Secretary-General's Trust Fund for Rwanda, established in July 1994 for emergency aid. It offered a means for adapting aid to the conditions of the country, to reduce the bureaucratic load of donors, and to provide for rapid, flexible disbursement. The Netherlands had encouraged the idea and had confirmed to be its main supporter. In this regard, nearly one year after the end of the war, The Netherlands and the United Kingdom (UK) jointly had provided US\$12.9 million to the UNDP Trust Fund (US\$10.8 million and US\$2.1 million respectively). By November 1995, the contribution of the Netherlands alone amounted to US\$16 million. Basically these

funds were used for providing administrative support to the government, rehabilitating the judicial system, and renovating the city of Kigali (DANIDA, 1997; ICG, 2002 cited in Rugumamu and Gbla, 2003).

In late September 2004, attention began to shift toward rehabilitation and reconstruction, when the international community became conscious of the severity of the damage brought about by the civil war and genocide. Since then, the UN and donor agencies have extended support to a wide range of projects and programmes in different sectors and regions throughout the country.

Prior to 1998 as observed Lancaster (1999), many donors disbursed their funds via the UN-administered UN Trust Fund for Rwanda. This brought about a degree of rationality and a large amount of suppleness. However, the Trust Fund had many critics. As the bilateral donors settled or re-settled themselves in Kigali, they were fast to take on the management and direction of their own development assistance. Finalised in 1999 and launched in 2000, a tentative proposal to adopt a “strategic framework” for coordinating aid in Rwanda was put in place. The strategic framework was supposed to be developed in the same way as in Mozambique, Uganda and Afghanistan, but not much was done in this regard. In the same period of time, the UN’s Common Country Assessment (CCA) leading to a UN Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) for Rwanda was finalised. Its goal was to “provide an in-depth analysis and common vision of the key development challenges facing Rwanda” (Rugumamu and Gbla, 2003).

While the development needs were huge, capacity absorption and administrative efficiency were questioned regarding the large amounts of aid given to Rwanda. While overseas development assistance (ODA) sums have not achieved the considerable levels of 1995, they amounted US\$705 million in the immediate post-genocide humanitarian phase when the world attention was focussed on Rwanda. Bilateral overseas development assistance has significantly declined in the years 1996-98 as donors spent less on emergency and relief efforts and focussed instead toward achieving sustainable development and transformation in agriculture, education, reconciliation, human rights, health and governance. As World Bank (2002) asserted, the Rwandan government often protest that insufficient aid was being

oriented at growing its own capacity. The basic argument was that “some key donors lacked confidence in the government coordination mechanism, CEPEX, which they considered to be very weak and lacking in human and physical resource capacity. Yet, the same donors were unwilling to give the government the necessary resources, time or authority to actually take on this role” (World Bank, 2002).

In September and October 1994, the World Bank Emergency Recovery Programme grew out of two donor meetings held in Paris. For the first meeting, major initiatives were specifically expected to target the reconstruction. It was designed to “(a) help the new government begin the restoration of key economic and social services, rebuild the institutional capacity necessary for sustainable economic recovery, and design a coherent economic policy framework; and (b) provide the private sector with the means to resume operations and create jobs.” The program included US\$200 million in funding for 1995, of which US\$50 million was the World Bank’s own Emergency Recovery Credit to finance reconstruction-related import needs and short-term technical assistance, mostly for private sector needs assessment and rehabilitation (Rugumamu and Gbla, 2003). By the end of 1995, direct financial support to the government under this credit had not yet been paid out. On the side of private sector, assistance had been released, and the terms of the credit allowed some reimbursement of expenses incurred back to November 1994. In contrast to the impasse on the Emergency Recovery Credit, the World Bank had speedily helped funding early rehabilitation and reintegration programmes through a US\$20 million grant to UN agencies in August of 1994 (Government of Rwanda, 1996a).

2. Later cases of Capacity building Initiatives

Recently, other capacity-building programmes in Rwanda took place at four specific levels: the central government level (civil service reforms), local government reforms, assistance to autonomous public institutions, and capacity building in the private sector. In what follows, each case is presented.

a) *Public Service Reform programme:* As observed Twahirwa and Muyango (2002), the civil service reform has been the major capacity-building initiative in the central government. Capacity building was later extended to public service reform

programme as well. The objectives were to enhance efficiency and effectiveness in Rwanda's public administration, as well as to improve the quality of services delivered by public institutions through cost effectiveness. It involves human resource development, requiring putting in place public infrastructure, management systems, legislation, norms, procedures, and professional aptitudes in the public service.

b) Local Government Reform programme: The local government reform programme is expected to address the issue of decentralisation and democratisation through good governance. Surprisingly, the expectation was not met since the local government reform programme has been tackled as a separate programme from the civil service reform. This unfortunate separation has tended to hold back a comprehensive analysis of the capacity building challenge in government. According to the Government of Rwanda (2002), one of the main responsibilities of the recently formed Ministry of Local Government and Social Affairs is to supervise the implementation of capacity building programmes at the local government level. Institutional, human resources and financial aspects of the councils, and community development committees and tender boards were the main challenges for the new Ministry.

c) Autonomous Public Institutions: New institutions were created by the government of Rwanda in order to respond to the specific demands of post-genocide circumstances. These include: the Rwanda Revenue Authority implemented to mobilise government revenue; the National Tender Board (NTB) to ensure good tendering practices; and the Office of the Auditor General (OAG) to ensure financial accountability in government.

The National Tender Board (NTB) was created in November 1997 to respond to the shortcomings in public procurement. Clearly the NTB was intended to contribute to good governance in public procurement, enhance public accountability and keep a modern register of approved suppliers by categories of goods and services. At this board, capacity building initiatives are supported by the World Bank with a prime objective to help put in place a legal framework, including procedures and regulations on public procurement, training of the NTB officers and procurement of equipment.

In January 1998, Rwanda Revenue Authority was created and was planned to maximise the revenue collection at a minimum cost, while offering high quality

service. In this department, capacity building initiatives are supported by the Department for International Development (DFID) in the form of on the job training, technical assistance and the provision of some equipment. Regarding Rwanda

Care International: The focus for this organisation was to contribute towards the rehabilitation and development programmes in Rwanda since 1994 by targeting HIV/AIDS, education and policy advocacy programmes. Care International has also contributed in building the capacity of the NGO in the development, implementation and monitoring poverty reduction initiatives at district and provincial levels.

3.5. CONCLUSION

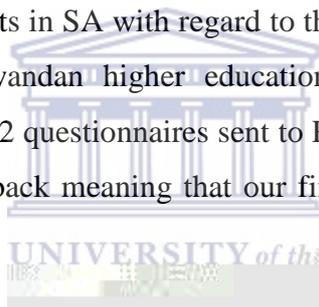
Rwandan higher education system has developed in the recent past years in ways that have strengthened it in several aspects. The increased diversity has created healthy competition across institutions as each tries to adapt its course offerings to respond to labour market needs. The changes are especially manifested at the NUR, where enrolments have shifted dramatically since the 1980s towards fields with an explicit labour market orientation. The use of expatriate and visiting staff to deliver courses has been a pragmatic approach that enabled the education system to respond to the labour market and to contribute to rebuilding of the country's depleted human capital. At the same time, it has given the system the flexibility and suppleness that it will need to remain responsive in an evolving environment (World Bank, 2004).

The route to capacity building in Rwanda is expected to yield tangible results with regard to human and institutional capacities. It has been observed that many initiatives have taken place especially in the post-genocide period. The intent for most capacity building initiatives was to sustain human capacities from food provision to training human resources and supporting institutional development. Although most capacity building initiatives are financially supported by outside donors, the government of Rwanda is more welcoming those initiatives; conscious and committed to strengthen its human and institutional capacities to overcome many of the difficulties brought by the tragedy of 1994 genocide. However, capacity building in education or elsewhere should be planned and established in a way to allow concerned people to participate and have a say on the ongoing process in order to avoid the system of capacity building being disconnected.

CHAPTER FOUR: PERCEPTIONS OF RWANDAN STUDENTS IN SOUTH AFRICA ON CAPACITY BUILDING IN RWANDAN HIGHER EDUCATION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, findings are presented and data were obtained from two sources. Firstly, data were gathered from the Ministry of Education in Rwanda (MINEDUC), and secondly, data were obtained from Rwandan students (academic staff in Rwandan HEI) who are in training in South Africa. This chapter consists of 4 sections: The first section deals with the findings from the Ministry of education in Rwanda with regard to Rwandan government sponsored students for training in foreign countries. Secondly, findings from Rwandan sponsored students in training in South Africa (SA) are presented. This section is divided into three components namely, the identification of respondents, the perceptions of Rwandan sponsored students in SA (respondents) with regard to capacity building and higher education in Rwanda, and the perceptions of Rwandan sponsored students in SA with regard to the foreign training as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions. However, it is important to note that out of 42 questionnaires sent to Rwandan students in training in South Africa, only 35 came back meaning that our findings are related to 83.3% of our study sample.



4.2. FINDINGS FROM THE MINISTRY OF EDUCATION REGARDING RWANDAN GOVERNMENT SPONSORED STUDENTS FOR FOREIGN TRAINING

4.2.1. Funding students for overseas training

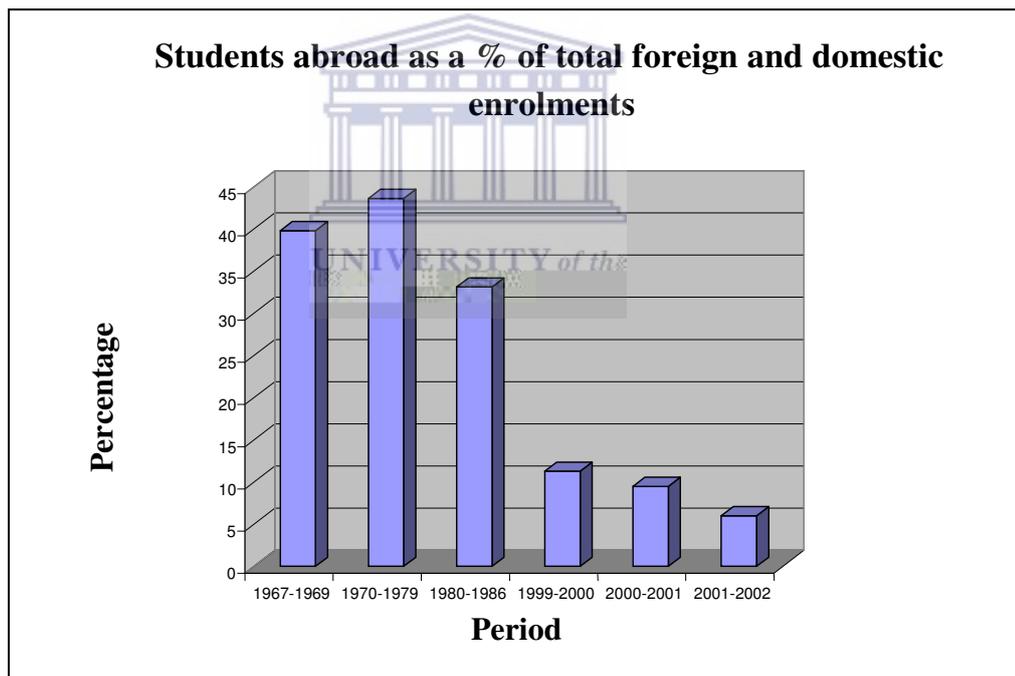
According to findings from the Ministry of Education in Rwanda (MINEDUC), the country has been characterised with a long tradition of sponsoring students for overseas studies. In the past, the main reason was that some types of training were just not available in Rwanda. In recent years however, the situation has changed with the growth of higher education, but yet students continue to be sent abroad.

Findings reveal that the funding of students for overseas training is very costly to the government of Rwanda. Actually, each student on an overseas government

scholarship costs the state nearly three times as much as one studying at a domestic public institution.

Scholarships for studying abroad currently account for about a quarter of the government's current spending on higher education. The trends have been moving in the right direction in recent years. It has been confirmed that fewer students are being sent abroad, and those who are sponsored are mainly sent to lower-cost countries such as India, Uganda and South Africa. Even so, on average, a scholar studying in another country irrespective of the proximity still costs nearly three times as much as one studying at government expense in Rwanda.

Figure 1: Students on overseas government scholarships, as a % of total foreign and domestic enrolments; period 1967-2002



Source: Primary data from MINEDUC

Findings affirm that in the past, when higher education in Rwanda was still growing, there might have been a good reason for sending students (even undergraduates) to other countries. The situation is that whenever feasible, students are channelled to domestic institutions rather than being sent abroad. This move would reduce the burden on the public purse while supporting the development of the domestic system.

4.2.2. Trends in government-financed study abroad since independence

The number of overseas students rose progressively from 220 in the late 1960s to 902 by 1999-2000 before dropping to 646 in 2001-2002. The increase in the early years was accompanied by a slow growth in domestic enrolment, which meant that an average of 33 to 44% of all higher education students were studying overseas in the 2nd decades leading up to 1986. However, after 1999, the share dropped considerably reaching a level of only 6.0% by 2001-2002.

Regarding women's study abroad, available data show significant improvement since 1980s. In the 1980s women accounted for less than 10% of students studying on overseas government scholarships, but during the period 1999-2002, their share increased to an average of almost 30%. This is mainly due to the Rwandan government policy of promoting gender in every public sector, education included. In this regard, the policy stipulates that in every single public activity, women should be represented at least to a 30% of the whole population. In education, girls are encouraged to pursue their studies and no more discrimination is observed as it used to be. For instance, before 1994, a pregnant girl was excluded from school and could not be allowed to reintegrate afterward. Today, if it happens for a girl to fall pregnant, she is encouraged to reintegrate school and she is taught of the important role that education could play into her life.

Figure 2: Number of academic staff from the National University of Rwanda (NUR) studying overseas on government scholarships as of February 2002

Source: Primary data from MINEDUC

Given the low level of adequate qualification of staff in higher education institutions in Rwanda, human resource upgrading came to be an obvious priority in staff development as seen in the figure 2 above for the case of National University of Rwanda.

According to findings, one-third of the national full-time staff at the NUR in 2002 was pursuing additional training in foreign countries on government scholarships (figure 2). Of these, 55% were pursuing a master's degree and 29% were working toward a doctorate. These staff members accounted for 14% of all students studying on overseas government scholarships but constituted more than two-third of those pursuing studies at the postgraduate level.

4.2.3. Host countries for Rwandan students on government scholarship

Rwandan students sponsored by the government for overseas studies are presented in table 2 below. According to findings, 45% of these students were hosted by developed countries (members of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development, OECD) in 1984-1985; while 43% were hosted by non-OECD countries.

outside Sub-Saharan Africa; and only 12% were pursuing their studies in Sub-Saharan African countries. By the late 1990s and early 2000s, the situation had changed considerably: the OECD share of students had dropped up to about 14%, whereas the share of non-OECD countries outside Sub-Saharan Africa had increased up to 49% and that of Sub-Saharan African countries to 37%. These modifications have been accompanied by an increase in the number of host countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, in contrast to decreases in the other two country groups.



Table 2: Number of Rwandan Students on Overseas Government Scholarship and their host countries

Region or Country	1984-1985			1999-2002			Number of host countries	Regional share of students (%)
	Number of students	Number of countries host	Regional share of students (%)	1999-2000	2000-01	2001-02		
Sub-Saharan Africa	89	11	12.6	369	334	244	15-17	37
Congo, Dem. Rep.	23	1		0	0	0	0	
Senegal	25	1		8	10	21	1	
South Africa	0	0		65	87	94	1	
Uganda	0	0		141	138	61	1	
Other	41	9		155	99	68	12-14	
OECD countries	318	11	44.9	151	114	96	8-9	14.1
Belgium	77	1		20	22	15	1	
Canada	38	1		28	28	33	1	
France	48	1		25	15	11	1	
Germany	70	1		6	6	7	1	
United Kingdom	1	1		40	22	17	1	
United States	33	1		18	12	9	1	
Other	51	5		14	9	4	2-3	
Rest of world	301	13	42.5	461	467	326	6-10	48.9
Algeria	42	1		24	31	40	1	
China	25	1		25	32	35	1	
India	0	0		403	373	231	1	
USSR/Russia	207	1		0	22	15	1	
Other	27	10		9	9	5	2-6	
Total	708	35	100	981	915	666	31-32	100

As seen in the above table 3, India did not host any Rwandan government-sponsored student in 1984-1985. However in 1999-2002, it was the largest host country for Rwandan students with between 35-45% of the total. During the same period, South Africa and Uganda also became important host countries and received between 7-15% and between 9-16% respectively. Back to 1984-1985, neither South Africa nor Uganda hosted any Rwandan government-sponsored student. Except Canada, all of the remaining OECD host countries have seen a decline in their shares of Rwandan government-sponsored students. Among the non-OECD countries, the change in Russia's position is especially noticeable: Its share of students hosted fell from 29% in 1984-1985 to a mere 2% in 2001-2002.

The changes in the host countries for Rwandan students are due to many factors, amongst others the cost of education abroad and the cost-sharing arrangement with the host countries which appear to be the key driving factors. In the case of South Africa and Uganda, the recent increase in Rwandan student numbers is partly due to political changes in both countries in addition to low cost of study. The post apartheid regime in South Africa is now more open to host foreigners than the apartheid regime. Around 2002, students studying in Algeria, China, India, Poland, and Russia were on special bilateral programmes under which the host country paid the fees and offered a small grant, while the Rwandan government was responsible to complete the grant and pay for the air ticket. Despite such arrangements, it is always cheaper for the government to send students to neighbouring African countries than to OECD countries. To illustrate this, findings reveal that currently, annual academic fees alone vary from US \$ 11,000 to US \$ 14,000 in OECD countries but are less than US \$ 1,200 in South Africa. In addition, welfare grants for students studying in OECD countries range from US \$ 8,400 to US \$ 14,400, depending on the level of study, while for students sent to South Africa the equivalent range is US \$ 3,400 to US \$ 4,200. These cost differences and the availability in recent years of high-quality programmes in non-OECD countries, including other Sub-Saharan African countries, explain in large part the significant changes in destinations of students departing abroad on government scholarships.

4.2.4. Characteristics of academic staff in Rwandan public and private institutions of higher education

Among the reasons for sending students abroad is the lack of availability of the programme wished to be done and the insufficiency in number and quality of national lecturers. In what follows, the focus is on the situation in Rwandan higher education institutions with regard to staffing patterns.

Table 3 below provides information about the numbers of full-time and part-time academic staff, the share of expatriates among the full-time staff, and the academic composition of the staff members for four public institutions and for the two private institutions with the highest enrolments. Starting with NUR, the number of staff grew by 78% between the mid-1980s and 2000-2001, due to a more than threefold increase in enrolments. The number of expatriate staff members has grown almost as rapidly as the relative stability of their share of the full-time staff members (23% in the mid-1980s and 21% in 2000-2001). The data for the other public institutions relate only to 2000-2001. They show however considerable variation in the dependency on foreign staff, ranging from highs of 40% at the KIE and around 30% at the KIST and the ISAE to 14% at the KHI. In the private sector the share of expatriate staff members was 15% at the ULK while the UAAC uses no foreign lecturers at all. The generally lower shares in the private sector are explained by the fact that foreign teachers are costly and are probably not affordable in large numbers, given the earnings in those private institutions.

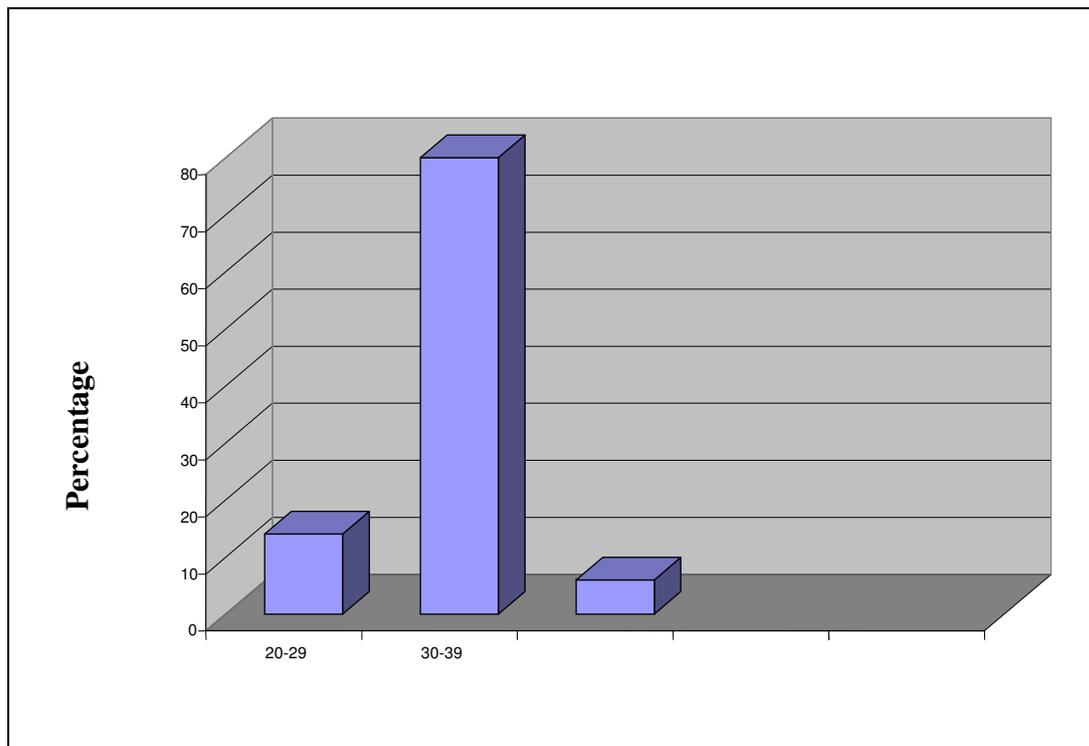
The data collected also reveal wide variations among institutions in the use of part-time and visiting staff. The NUR had 6 visiting or part-time staff for every 10 full-time staff in 2000-2001, a ratio comparable to that in the mid-1980s. At the ISAE the proportion in 2000-2001 was slightly lower than at the NUR, but at the KIST the ratio was considerably lower: only 1 visitor per 10 full-time staff. Private sector institutions in contrast to public institutions rely much more heavily on part-time staff. The situation is that part-timers outnumber full-time staff by 30% at the ULK and by 80% at the UAAC. As with the use of expatriate staff, cost considerations most likely lie behind the pattern. Since many part-timers are in fact full-time staff members at the public institutions, their use does not necessarily compromise the quality of teaching,

qualification range, the situation at the KIST is comparable to that of NUR, but it is much worse at the ISAE. Among the public institutions, only the KIE has a remarkably high stock of doctorate holders among its staff. In the private sector, staff qualifications are generally not much better than at the NUR. Findings reveal that 40% of the ULK's full-time faculty lacks a postgraduate degree, and at the UAAC the share is 25%. Considering both public and private institutions, the overall picture, is that many staff members in higher education are hardly much more advanced than the students they teach. This justifies the urgent need for training and upgrading academic staff with regard to their qualifications.

4.3. FINDINGS FROM RWANDAN SPONSORED STUDENTS IN TRAINING IN SOUTH AFRICA

4.3.1. Identification of respondents

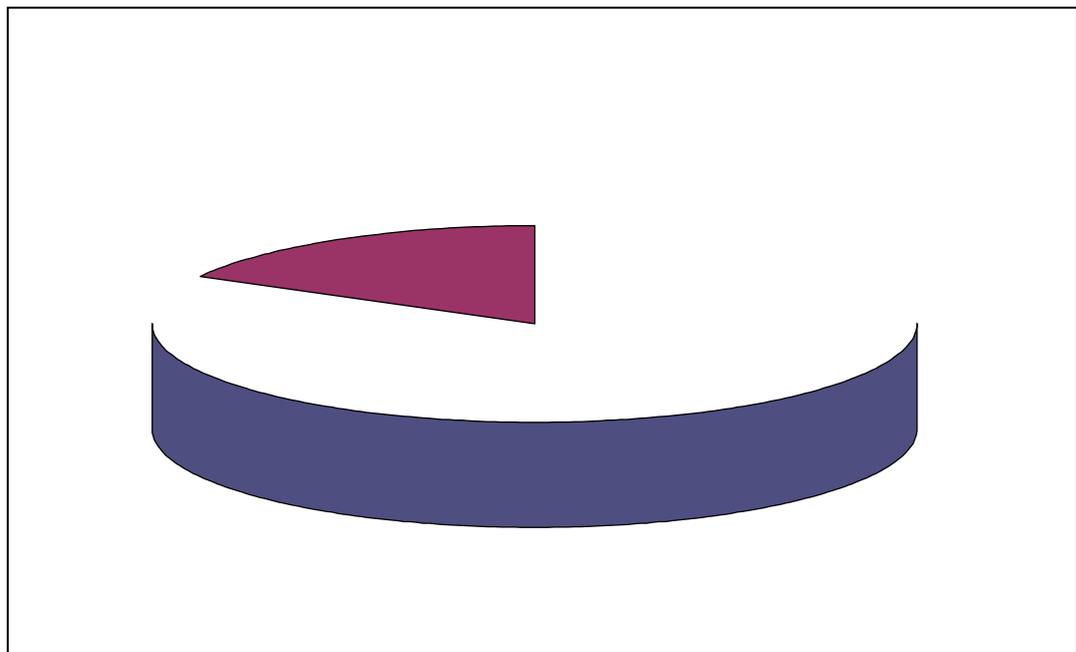
Figure 3: Age group of respondents



Source: Primary data from Rwandan students in SA

The large majority of our respondents (86%) belong to the age group of 30 to 39, while 10% are under 30 years old and only 4% are between 40-49 years old. This informs us that vast majority of our respondents (academic staff sent for training in SA) are still young (less than 40 years old). This is mainly due to the fact that given that human resources were massively destroyed in Rwanda in general and in higher education institutions in particular, the latter have focussed in reconstituting their human resources by employing young graduates from these institutions. These are mainly the ones sent for training in foreign countries to upgrade their skills. Therefore, focussing on building capacity in Rwandan higher education institutions by sending young people for studies can be considered as a good strategy.

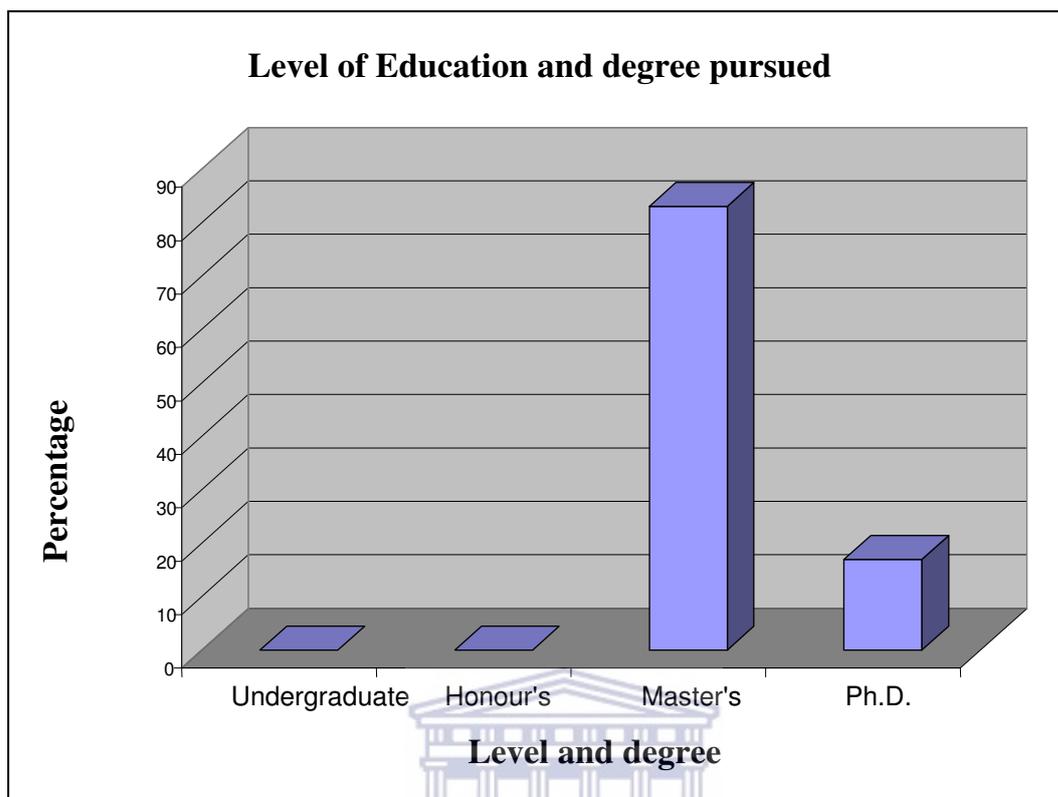
Figure 4: Gender of respondents



Source: Primary data from Rwandan students in SA

Of the 35 respondents, only 6 are female, which corresponds to 17% of the overall number of respondents. This is due to the gender imbalance that characterised Rwandan education for past years where education was not prosperous for girls. As a result, even among the graduates, the gender imbalance persisted.

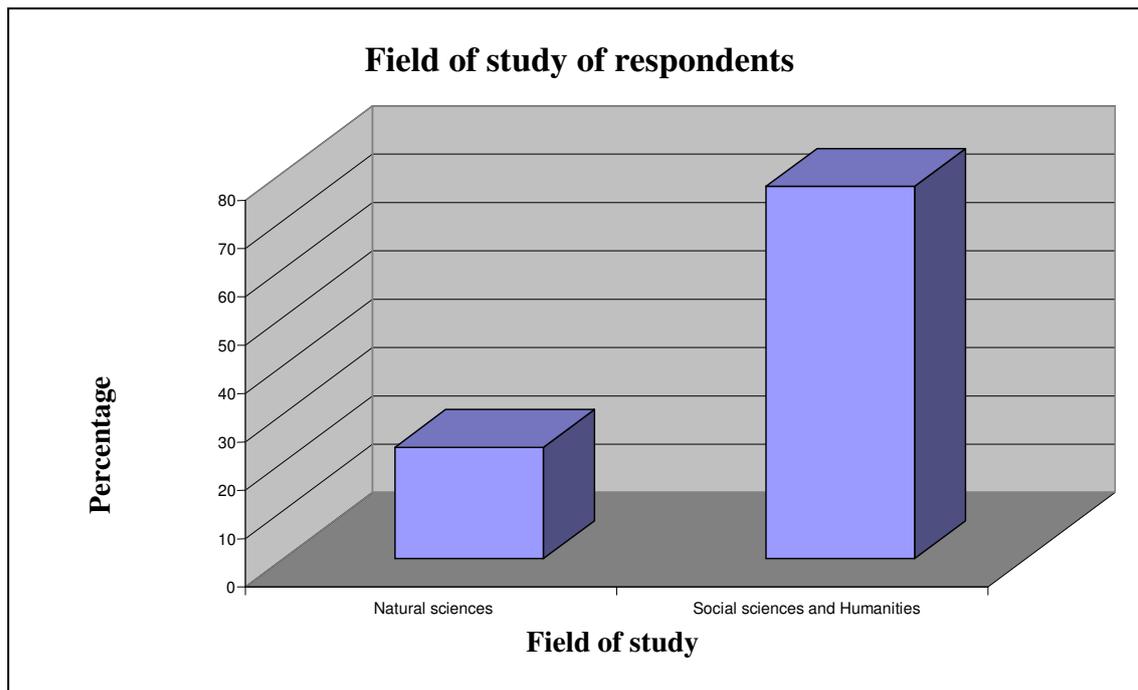
Figure 5: Level of education of respondents and degree pursued



Source: Primary data from Rwandan students in SA

As can be seen in the above figure, 83% of our respondents are pursuing master's degree while 17% are doing their Ph.D. programmes. This is explained by the fact that almost all respondents are still young graduates, candidates for further studies as observed above.

Figure 6: Field of study of respondents



Source: Primary data from Rwandan students in SA

Findings reveal that out of 35 respondents, 27 are doing social sciences and humanities while only 8 are registered in natural sciences. The proportions are 77% and 23% respectively.

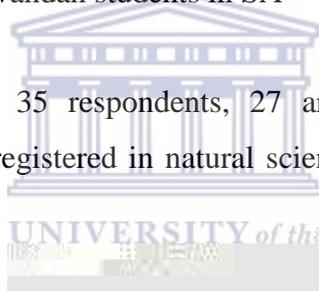
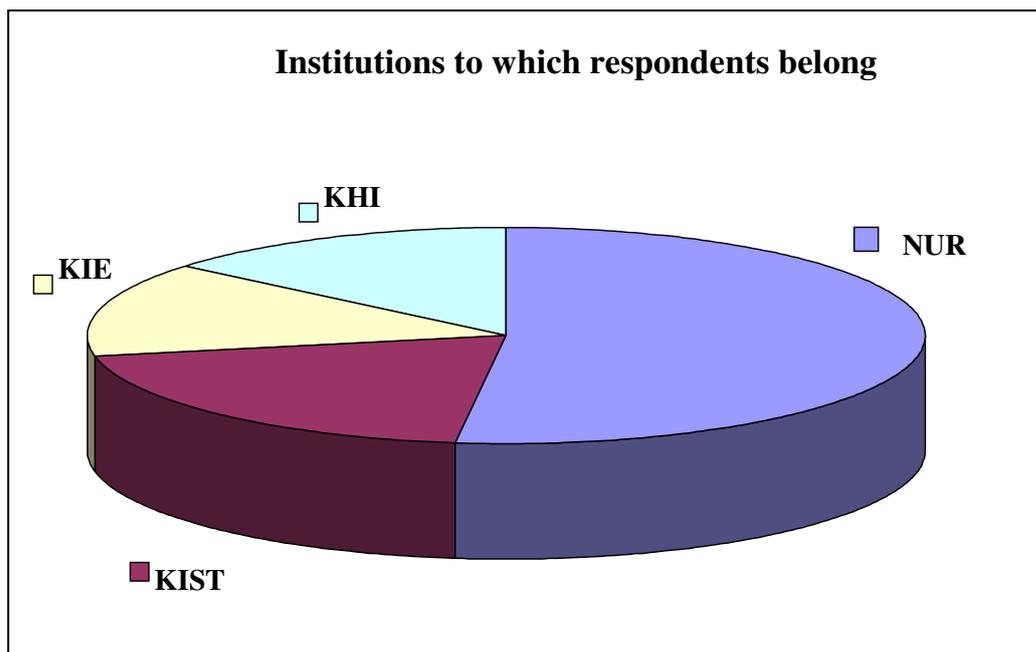


Figure 7: Institutions to which respondents belong



Source: Primary data from Rwandan students in SA

Regarding the institutions to which respondents belong, findings reveal that the majority 52% come from the National University of Rwanda (NUR), followed by Kigali Institute of Science, Technology and Management (KIST) with 20%, while the two remaining Kigali Institute of Education (KIE) and Kigali Health Institute (KHI) are equally represented with a share of 14% each.

4.3.2. Respondents' perceptions on capacity building and higher education in Rwanda

Table 4: Defining capacity building with regard to institutional needs

Defining capacity building	Number of respondents	Percentage of respondents
In relation to institutional goals and objectives	6	17%
In relation to national objectives and goals	29	83%
Defined regardless of the above		
Other (specify)		
Total	35	100%

Source: Primary data from Rwandan students in SA

Findings from Rwandan students in SA reveal that the vast majority of respondents (83%) suggest that capacity building should be defined and interpreted in relation to national objectives and goals. The idea behind is to bring a common national strategy as it has been observed that many institutions in the post-conflict Rwanda tend to work in isolation, therefore missing a common objective of the nation. As the respondents argued, when these institutions work in isolation, the likelihood to duplicate activities is very high and the chances to divert from an overall national goal are also immense. Furthermore, the situation could be worsened by weak information flow and management of information on capacity gaps, and by limited horizontal and vertical connections among institutions, which are supposed to collaborate and coordinate similar activities. Such uncoordinated interventions as well as incompatible systems pose challenge that needs to be urgently addressed.

Additionally, respondents argue that although higher learning institutions should work within the framework of national vision, they should not overlook the global context. This means that academic freedom allows tertiary institutions, if ever they are enjoying it, to fulfil national educational requirements but at the same time to go beyond that and think and work globally.

Table 5: Primary concern of capacity building

Primary concern of capacity building	Number of respondents	Percentage of respondents
Institutional capacity	5	14%
Human capacity	28	80%
Organisational capacity	2	6%

Table 6: Sustaining capacity building

What does capacity building need to be sustained?	Number of respondents	Percentage of respondents
Need to be a continuous process	6	17%
Need to create new capacities	4	11%
Need to utilise existing capacity	3	9%
Need to retain created capacities	2	6%
All the above	20	57%
Total	35	100%

Source: Primary data from Rwandan students in SA

Capacity building appears for many respondents (57%) to be not only a continued process, but they suggest that it should also be sustainable. In this regard, they agree that capacity building should focus on three main processes in order to sustain itself. It has to create new capacities during the process, effectively mobilize and utilize existing capacities and finally should focus on sustaining created capacities over time. In this regard, capacity building as suggested respondents should aim at improving or upgrading existing skills and knowledge to meet current needs. However definition of genuine needs is the key for capacity building process to be successful. This would allow easy retention of acquired capacities as they would be addressing real issues.

Table 7: Factors influencing capacity building in Rwandan HEI

Factors that influence capacity building	Number of the respondents	Percentage of the respondents
Uncoordinated activities within the institution	2	

explain, capacity-building is dependent on the coordinated activities of numerous organisations that are essential to accomplish a given task. The interactions of these organisations within the network can help or limit performance. If there are uncoordinated activities within organisations that are networking with HEI, this is likely to obstruct the effectiveness of HEI since these do not work in isolation but depend on other organisations to perform efficiently. For example if the supply industry for teaching material is not well organised and is having many uncoordinated activities, this will affect the performance of HEI in a sense that there will be a high risk of delaying deliveries to HEI. Furthermore, uncoordinated activities and lack of networking within the same or different institutions may lead to a duplication of activities with the same goal. Therefore, respondents suggest a networking method of working for departments or institutions with similar activities which is hoped to bring satisfactory results as capacity building is concerned.

Institutional environment matters for capacity building to evolve. As respondents put it, the institutional environment whether of public or private sector is a dimension that is likely to affect actors' performance. It comprises laws and regulations that affect the civil service or private sector and the operation of government, for instance hiring, promotion, and remuneration policies, general operating procedures; and standards of performance. It also includes the financial support that permits organisations to carry out particular tasks, as well as the policies that limit or obstruct performance. The institutional context also comprises laws and regulations that define responsibilities and power relationships among actors. The processes of capacity building in that sense are implanted in complex environments that affect their ability to achieve the planned objectives. The environment here refers to the economic, social and political scene (local, national and international) in which individuals, organisations and society try to carry out their activities, and the extent to which conditions in the environment help or limit performance. Within this dimension, a broad set of factors affect the ability of individuals to perform effectively, efficiently and sustainably.

Capacity building development points to the organisational structures, processes, resources, and management styles that influence how individual talents and skills are used to achieve particular tasks. It should be pointed out that institutions set up goals, structure work, define authority relations and provide incentives and disincentives that

form the behaviour of those who work within them. It is therefore sugge

for higher education institutions. Since visiting professors are very expensive given limited resources of Rwandan higher education institutions; it is advisable to think of accelerating relief personnel that will replace existing visiting staff. Higher education institutions in charge of teaching and researching should organise retraining and further training programmes to allow their staffs to upgrade their skills and be upgraded on a regular basis. This will allow higher education institutions staff to be more competitive on international market.

4.3.3. Perceptions of respondents on the foreign training as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan HEI

4.3.3.1. Training staff as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan HEI

Given the recent Rwanda's history, respondents reveal that the highest priority for Rwandese society today is to focus on the reconstitution and capacity building of capable human resources that will fill the deficit worsened by the tragedy of 1994 war and genocide. These people are expected to take up the challenge of reconstructing and developing the country. As in other sub-sectors, the priority in higher education is therefore placed on the training of human resources as well as focussing on the relaunching of research, particularly in areas seen to be priorities for the rapid recovery of the national economy. Although education is generally encouraged in

However for their training to be effective in Rwandan higher education, there is a need to put in place appropriate mechanisms for the following:

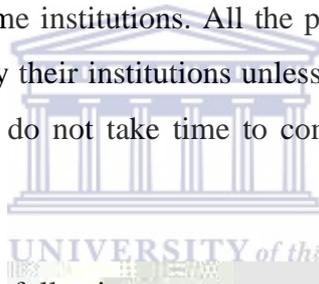
- follow up while on training to avoid cases of change of programmes;
- create conditions for those who finish, to come back home and make sure they are placed in their relevant areas of specialisation;
- encourage those who come back home to stay in academic field.

Once back home, Rwandan academic staff pursuing training in South African universities hope to contribute to capacity building of their institutions by bringing in new knowledge and by filling the gap at their universities caused by the 1994 genocide. According to them, they are pursuing studies in areas where they think will benefit their institutions. In that sense, they are expecting to gain more knowledge and confidence regarding their routinely job of lecturing. The respondents also expect to contribute to capacity building of their institutions by ways of conducting research which is hoped to be beneficial to both academics and society. In addition to their academic work, respondents also expect to contribute financially to their institutions by getting involved in income generating activities (consultancies) that are requested by the society.

4.3.3.2. Constraints faced by Rwandan students in training in SA

During the course of training in South Africa, Rwandan students reveal that they face several problems that might hinder their effective contribution to capacity building in their institutions. Among those problems, the most crucial were insufficient funds allocated to students given the expensive living conditions in South Africa as well as the delay in the disbursement of those funds. The insufficient funds can seriously affect students' academic performance since they will have to struggle to survive with little money in a foreign country. Furthermore, the lack of academic equipments such as books and computer facilities can also negatively influence their academic work. Other problems that they face are related to the language. As the majority of the respondents revealed to be from a French speaking background, meant a struggle to study in English which in some cases lead to a delay in completing their programmes

in due course. The scholarship does not provide fund for language skills, therefore, they adapt themselves to a challenging situation of learning in his or her third language. Rwandan Students with a French background adapt themselves to an English learning environment by attending short courses in English offered by language training centres. Although difficult they also make an effort to socialise with other English speaking students. As stated, the language issue and its consequences impact on capacity building in their institutions in the way that they are not available by the time they are expected to return home, meaning that their institutions will have to continue depending on expatriate personnel, which is very costly to the government. Another consequence revealed is that students facing financial difficulties, might opt to pursue a less demanding programme, sometimes not needed in their institutions, for the sake of completing their degrees on due time. This will impact on their institutions in that the knowledge acquired is not much needed. Another problem faced by Rwandan students in training in South Africa is the lack of communication with their home institutions. All the problems they encounter during their studies are not known by their institutions unless revealed by students and with no effect as their institutions do not take time to communicate with them while in foreign countries.



Given all those problems, the following are recommendations set by respondents to avoid further problems:

- To avoid any future problem in building human capacities, the opinion of funded staff regarding how to sustain their academic and financial lives should be taken into account. In this regard, they should be given sufficient funds that will allow them satisfy their basic needs while permitting them to study with peace of mind.
- The sponsor should avoid any delay in the disbursement of the bursary because this will destroy the limited funds, therefore distracting the students who are troubled by the shortage of livings.

- Higher education institutions in Rwanda should put in place a communication system between the employee on training and the institution to avoid any potential problem that may arise.
- Higher education institutions in Rwanda should ensure that funds and all other arrangements, such as travel costs are adequate and well planned for before releasing someone to go for training.

4.3.3.3. Difficulties experienced in Rwandan higher education institutions

In Rwandan higher education institutions, a serious deficit of teachers in number and quality has been particularly observed. This has serious consequences on the Rwandan society as a whole, but more importantly on the academic life of higher education institutions. Findings suggest that if Rwanda is to reconstruct and develop its human capital (staff and technicians), rapid and energetic action is required at this level. As suggested by the respondents, the consequences of insufficient teachers in Rwandan higher education institutions are reflected as follows:

The inadequacy of teachers in number and/or quality is real hindrance to the enhancement of education in all sub-sectors. Lack of teachers reflects the difficulty to provide basic education for the entire school-age population. The growth of secondary education is compromised and the training of future teachers for basic education is critically affected by the shortage of teachers. They argue that if higher education cannot train the number of teachers needed for secondary education, this will make it difficult to increase the supply of secondary education, which is the level at which teachers for basic education are trained.

The problem of weak qualifications and competencies in higher education brings with it, level by level, the lowering of quality and internal efficiency, thus contributing to increase the costs of education. Finally, without competent trainers, it is impossible to meet the principle concerns of those responsible for education, such as promoting science and technology, and the development of language teaching. After all it is believed that the training and further training of teachers are crucial factors not only in the development of education but also in the recovery and reconstruction of the national economy.

Other constraints faced by Rwandan higher education institutions are the problem of defining the real institutional needs for appropriate training. This is a serious problem

destinations rather than Europe or North America, as the training provided may be better adapted to the Rwandan context.

If training is appropriately done and job advantages are clear, promising students will not hesitate to join the academic staff since it will be beneficial to them. These students must be encouraged to enter the teaching profession through intensive qualifying pedagogical training. This training could take place in higher-education institutions or in separate training structures.

According to findings, respondents suggest that the areas of intervention and support the training of human resources, needs to focus on the improvement of the teaching conditions and management of the higher-education system in all its dimensions (institutional, administrative, academic, and pedagogical), with the intention of increasing the intake capacity and ameliorating its efficiency and importance. The challenge will be to reconstitute a sufficient core of qualified and permanent professors in higher education institutions and research. However, emphasis should be put on improving the quality of training, and supervision as well as the pertinence and efficiency of the teaching provided. It is also essential to reconstitute research teams in research centres. Furthermore, respondents suggest that a well programmed and adequate bursary scheme is needed to support the training of human resources. Needless to say are the mobilisation of more needed resources and an efficient management of available resources allocated to the education sector.

In addition to science, technology and business related subjects that are given first priority; humanities should not be left behind as they touch essential aspects of human lives. There is a risk of having future decision makers that will act like machines by the very time when Rwandans will need a stronger thinking tank given that the country will be operating in more global context. To sum up, assessing institutional needs before training a person and training according to those specific needs will help the process of capacity building become more effective.

4.4. CONCLUSION

Higher education in Rwanda faces many development challenges. Following the explosive growth of the system in the post-genocide years, the system needs to be strengthened in a sustainable manner. From the findings, it has been observed that higher education institutions in Rwanda are challenged by insufficiency in number of qualified national lecturers, therefore forcing to rely on qualified expatriate personnel. At the same time however, capacity building in higher education has been taken seriously, and as a matter of fact, academic staff from those institutions are funded to upgrade their qualifications. These are expected to go back on the completion of their studies and fill the gap and replace expatriate staffs as they are very costly to the government. Concerned staff in training in foreign countries are conscious of their role of effectively contribute to capacity building in their respective institutions. Nevertheless, some constraints have been raised that might hinder their effective contribution to capacity building. As far as capacity building is concerned, human resource has been revealed to play an all important role in the matter.



CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. CONCLUSION

In chapter I the study set out its objectives as investigating the sending of academic staff for training in foreign country as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions. These include:

- identifying factors that contribute to capacity building,
- exploring perceptions of Rwandan funded students of their contribution to capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions,
- identifying problems that Rwandan funded students face during their training that might hinder their contribution to capacity building of their institutions.
- and, to make recommendations based on the above.

Capacity building appears to be an “all in one” approach to bring about development in many sectors in general and in particular in the education sector where almost all resources for all sectors come from. Human resource has been found to be an important ingredient in both capacity building approach and in the education system. Great institutions are the reward of a society that understands the role of higher education in its civilisation, a society that is wise to devote resources that will enable its higher education system rank among the best in the world, and a society that is courageous enough not to interfere unintentionally in the affairs of its higher education.

In recent years, Rwandan higher education system has developed in ways that have strengthened it in several respects. Although the primary concern was to train academic staff from higher education institutions, gender promotion was also encouraged in Rwandan capacity building programme. The increased diversity has created healthy competition across institutions as each tries to adapt its course offerings to respond to labour market needs. The use of expatriate and visiting staff to

deliver courses has been a pragmatic approach that enabled the education system to respond to the labour market and to contribute to rebuilding of the country's depleted human capital. The route to capacity building in Rwanda is expected to yield tangible results with regard to human and institutional capacities. It has been observed that many initiatives have taken place especially in the post-genocide period. The intent for most capacity building initiatives was to sustain human capacities from food provision to training human resources and supporting institutional development. Although most capacity building initiatives are financially supported by outside donors, the government of Rwanda is more welcoming those initiatives; conscious and committed to strengthen its human and institutional capacities to overcome many of the difficulties brought by the tragedy of 1994 genocide.

Higher education in Rwanda faces many development challenges. Following the explosive growth of the system in the post-genocide years, the system needs to be strengthened in a sustainable manner. From the findings, it has been observed that higher education institutions in Rwanda are challenged by insufficiency in qualified national lecturers, therefore forcing to rely on qualified expatriate personnel. At the same time however, capacity building in higher education has been taken seriously and as a matter of fact, academic staff from those institutions are funded to upgrade their qualifications. These are expected to go back on the completion of their studies and fill the gap and replace expatriate staffs as they are very costly to the government. Concerned staff in training in foreign countries are conscious of their role of effectively contribute to capacity building in their respective institutions. Nevertheless, some constraints have been raised that might hinder their effective contribution to capacity building.

With regard to the objectives and the main question of the study, it can be concluded that objectives were achieved and the main question answered. As from the findings, it was put clear that sending academic staff for training in foreign countries can effectively contribute to capacity building in Rwandan higher education. Respondents have demonstrated in different ways their role with regard to capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions.

In what follows, recommendations are set in order to build a sustainable capacity in Rwandan higher education institutions.

- People from training should be given opportunities and conducive working environment to put in practice what they have been trained in.
- Last but not least, students sponsored by the government for overseas training should be faithful to their commitment not to drain gained brain.



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APPENDICES

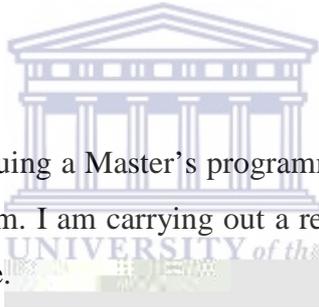
Appendix 1. Letter to respondents

Bernard Narcisse KAYITANKORE
University of the Western Cape
School of Government

12 August 2005

Dear respondent,

I am a university student pursuing a Master's programme in Administration in Public Policy and Management stream. I am carrying out a research in partial fulfilment for the award of a Master's degree.



My research interest is on foreign training and capacity building in higher education institutions in Rwanda.

Therefore, I request your contributions towards successful achievements of this study and your sincere response to the questions will be highly appreciated.

Thank you.

Bernard Narcisse Kayitankore

Appendix 2. Questionnaire to the Ministry of Education in Rwanda

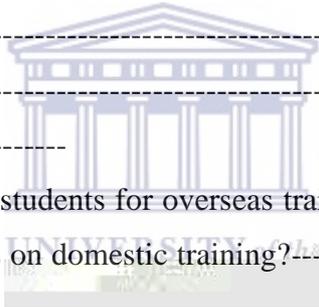
1. What are the trends in government-financed study abroad since the independence?

2. What are the discipline and level of study that have benefited government sponsorship?-----

3. Which countries are hosting Rwandan students on government scholarship and what are the criteria of selection for such countries?-----

4. Among the academic staff, how many are expatriates, how many are nationals, how many are fulltime and how many are part-time? -----

5. How is the cost of funding students for overseas training to Rwandan Government comparing to funding students on domestic training?-----



Appendix 3. Questionnaire to Rwandan students in South Africa

1. Identification

1. Age group

a. 20-29	
b. 30-39	
c. 40-49	
d. 50-59	
e. 60 and above	

2. Sex

a. Male	
b. Female	

3. Level of education and degree pursued

a. Master's	
b. Ph.D.	

4. In which field of study are you?

a. Natural and applied sciences	
b. Humanities and Social sciences	
c. Other (specify)	

5. To which institution do you belong?

a. NUR	
b. KIST	
c. KIE	
d. KHI	
e. Other (please specify)	

2. Perceptions on capacity building and higher education in Rwanda

1. How should capacity building be defined with regard to institutional needs?

a. In relation to institutional goals and objectives	
b. In relation to national objectives and goals	
c. Defined regardless of the above	
d. Other (specify)	

2. What should be the primary concern of capacity building? Please justify your answer.

a. Institutional capacity	
b. Human capacity	
c. Organisational capacity	
d. Other (specify)	

3. What does capacity building need to be sustained? Please justify.

a. Capacity building needs to be a continued process	
b. Capacity building needs to create new capacities	
c. Capacity building needs to utilise existing capacities	
d. Capacity building needs to retain created capacities	
e. All the above	

4. What are the factors that might influence capacity building in Rwandan higher education institutions? Explain

a. Uncoordinated activities within the institution	
a. Institutional environment	
b. Organisational structures	
d. All the above	
e. Other (specify)	

5. What are the components of human capacity building in Rwandan higher education context?

a. Effective management of visiting professors	
b. Acceleration of relief personnel in higher education	
c. Organisation of retraining and further training programmes for practising teachers and researchers	
d. All the above	
e. Other (specify)	

3. Perceptions on the foreign training as a strategy for capacity building in Rwandan Higher education

1. In your opinion, what is the highest priority for Rwandese society today in terms of capacity building?-----

2. What are the problems or difficulties experienced in Rwandan higher education

9. What will you recommend to your institution to avoid future problems in building human capacities by funding staff for foreign training?-----

10. Is the training meeting your perceived needs and expectations? Explain-----



Appendix 4. List of people interviewed

Names	Home institutions	Place	Date
1. Augustin Kimonyo	KIST	University of Cape Town	20/08/2005
2. Bernard Tugume	KIST	University of the Western Cape	21/08/2005
3. Claude Bayingana	NUR	University of the Western Cape	21/08/2005
4. Agnes Ntibanyurwa.	NUR	University of the Western Cape	24/08/2005
5. Egide Kayonga	KHI	University of the Western Cape	23/08/2005
6. Moussa Hakizimana	KHI	University of the Western Cape	23/08/2005
7. Felicien Rugengamanzi	KIE	University of Cape Town	20/08/2005
8. Jeanine Uwimana	KIE	University of the Western Cape	24/08/2005

