

SOCIAL STUDIES

FOR TTCs

STUDENT'S BOOK

YEAR 2

OPTION:

Ealy Childhood and Lower Primary Education (ECLPE)

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FOREWORD

The Rwanda Basic Education Board is honoured to avail the Social Studies student book for teacher training Colleges (TTCs) in ECLPE and it serves as official guide to teaching and learning of Social Studies

The Rwandan education philosophy is to ensure that young people at every level of education achieve their full potential in terms of relevant knowledge, skills and appropriate attitudes that prepare them to be well integrated in society and exploit employment opportunities.

The ambition to develop a knowledge-based society and the growth of regional and global competition in the job market has necessitated the shift to a competence-based curriculum. After a successful shift from knowledge to a competence-based curriculum in general education, TTC curriculum also was revised to align it to the CBC in general education to prepare teachers who are competent and confident to implement CBC in pre-primary and primary education. The rationale of the changes is to ensure that TTC leavers are qualified for job opportunities and further studies in higher education in different programs under education career advancement.

I wish to sincerely express my appreciation to the people who contributed towards the development of this document particularly, REB staff, UR-CE lecturers, TTC Tutors, Teachers from general education.

Dr. MBARUSHIMANA Nelson

Director General REB.

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I wish to sincerely express my special appreciation to the people who played a major role in development of Social Studies for Early Childhood and Lower Primary Education. It would not have been successful without the support from different education stakeholders.

I wish to extend my appreciation REB staff, Lecturers from UR-CE, Tutors and Teachers from General Education for their outstanding contribution to this process of textbook writing.

MURUNGI Joan,

Head of Curriculum Teaching and Learning Resources Department/REB

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General Introduction to Student Book

This text book is part of the reform of the school curriculum in Rwanda: that is changes in what is taught in schools and how it is taught. It is hoped this will make what you learn in school useful to you when you leave school, whatever you do then.

In the past, the main thing in schooling has been to learn knowledge – that is facts and ideas about each subject. Now the main idea is that you should be able to use the knowledge you learn by developing competencies. These competencies include the ability to think for yourself, to be able to communicate with others and explain what you have learnt, and to be creative that is developing your own ideas, not just following those of the tutor and the text book. You should also be able to find out information and ideas for yourself, rather than just relying on what the tutor or text book tells you.

Activity-based learning

This means that this book has a variety of activities for you to do, as well as information for you to read. These activities present you with material or things to do which will help you to learn things and find out things for yourself. You already have a lot of knowledge and ideas based on the experiences you have had and your life within your own community. Some of the activities, therefore, ask you to think about the knowledge and ideas you already have.

In using this book, therefore, it is essential that you do all the activities. You will not learn properly unless you do these activities. They are the most important part of the book.

In some ways this makes learning more of a challenge. It is more difficult to think for yourself than to copy what the tutor tells you. But if you take up this challenge you will become a better person and become more successful in your life.

Group work

You can also learn a lot from other people in your class. If you have a problem, it can often be solved by discussing it with others. Many of the activities in this book, therefore, involve discussion. Your tutor will help to organize these groups and may arrange the classroom so you are always sitting in groups facing each other.

Research

One of the objectives of the new curriculum is to help you find things out for yourself. Some activities, therefore, ask you to do research using books in the library, the internet if your school has it. This, or other sources such as newspapers and magazines. This means you will develop the skills of learning for yourself when you leave school.

Skills lab

Social Studies subject in the option of ECLPE is practical than being theoretical only. That is why it requires time of skills lab which is a regular time on normal time table when student-teacher are required to complete learning activities working in manageable groups.

During skills lab activity student-teachers are given an opportunity to talk more and get more involved in the lesson than tutors. Student-teachers receive constructive feedback on work done (Tutor gives quality feedback on student presentations).

The Skills Lab prepares student-teacher to complete portfolio assignments on their own after classes. So the classroom activity should connect directly to the portfolio assignment and the tutor during the skills lab makes sure that he/she links the unit with the students.

Icons

To guide you, each activity in the book is marked by a symbol or icon to show you what kind of activity it is. The icons are as follows:



Thinking icon/Introductory activity

This indicates thinking for yourself or groups discussion. You are expected to use your own knowledge or experience, or think about what you read in the book, and answer questions individually or as group activity.



Thinking icon/Learning activity

This icon reminds you link your previous knowledge with the topic you are going to learn. As a student feel free to express what you already know about the topic. What is most important is not giving

the right answer but the contribution you are making towards what you are going to learn.



Application activity

Some activities require you to complete them in your exercise books or any other book. It is time for you show if you have understood the lesson by answering the questions provided.



Skills lab

This icon indicates a practical activity, such as a role play to resolve a conflict, participating in a debate and following instructions provided by the teacher. These activities will help you to obtain practical skills which you can use even after school.



End unit Assessment icon

This icon invites you to write down the results from activities including experiments, case studies and other activities which assess the attainment of the competences. Tutors are expected to observe the changes in you as student teacher.



UNIT 1

INTERNAL LANDFORM PROCESSES

By the end of this unit, the student-teacher should be able to examine the internal processes responsible for the evolution of different relief landforms.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

In year 1, you learnt about the formation of relief feature of Rwanda. Using the experience and skills gained:

1. Use internet and text books to find out different landforms that were formed as a result of faulting, folding and warping; and vulcanicity.
2. Using illustrations, describe how each of the features identified in (1) above were formed.

Landforms are natural features on the surface of the earth that change over time due to endogenic (internal) and exogenic (external) processes.

Endogenic processes occur as a result of internal forces within the earth especially due to heat and pressure. They lead to the occurrence of faulting, folding and vulcanicity that result into the formation of different landforms. These landforms are later modified by **exogenic processes** like weathering and mass wasting to form other landforms on the surface of the earth.



1.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. What do you understand by the term faulting?
2. Explain the types of faults and the resultant landforms of faulting.

1.1. Faulting

1.1.1. Meaning of faulting

Faulting is an endogenic process whereby the rocks of the crust are fractured and displaced. This is caused by intense heat and pressure that accumulate within the earth interior leading to formation of compression and tensional forces. These forces may displace the bed rock for a few centimeters or hundreds of kilometers.

1.1.2. Types of faults

Faults are categorized based on the relative movement between the blocks on both sides of the fault plane. This movement can be vertical, horizontal or oblique.

1. **Normal faults** occur when tensional forces act in opposite directions and cause one slab of the rock to be displaced up and the other slab down. The tensional forces pull the earth's crust apart from the central point.

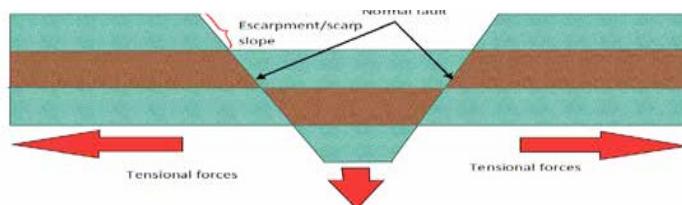


Figure 1. 1: Normal faults

2. **Reverse faults** are created when the rock above the fault plane (hanging block) moves up relative to the rock below the fault plane. This is caused by compression forces

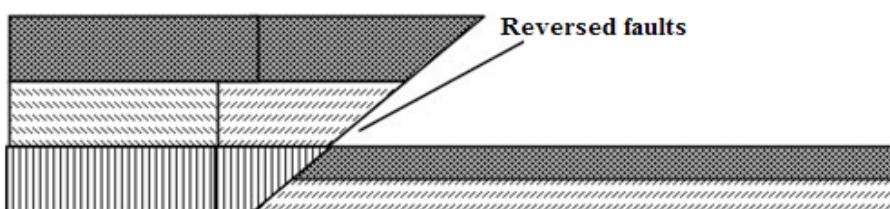


Figure 1. 2: Reverse faults

3. **Strike or tear fault**. These are formed when rocks on either side of the fracture slip past each other. These types of faults produce horizontal displacements. They are usually found along boundaries that are sliding past each other.

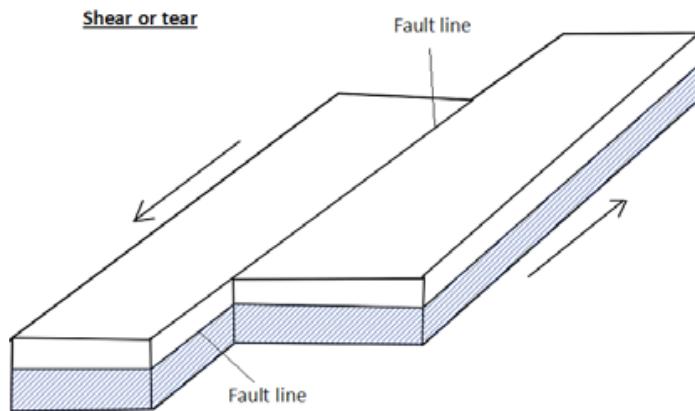


Figure 1. 3: tear fault

1.1.3. Landforms associated with faulting

Faulting has a significant effect on landscape. It has led to the formation of various landforms as explained below.

1. Block mountains

A block mountain is also referred to as a horst mountain. It refers to the upland bordered by faults on two or more sides. A block mountain is formed when a fault block, bounded by normal faults is uplifted high enough to become a fault-block mountain. Examples of Block Mountains include;

Mt.Rwenzori in Uganda, Usambara in Tanzania

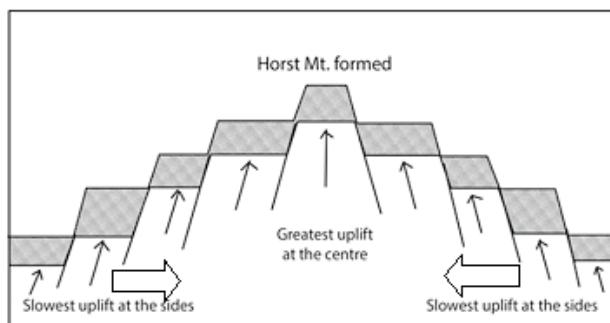


Figure 1. 4: Block Mountains

2. Rift valley

A rift valley is an elongated depression bounded by fault scarps on either sides. It is characterized by a flat floor and steep slopes called escarpments. There are three theories responsible for the formation of a rift valley. They include; Tensional, compressional and differential movement theories.

According to tensional theory, cracks develop and ultimately the central block subsides, leaving the side blocks hanging with steep sides. The cracks are caused by tensional forces that drag the crustal rocks in different directions. The best example of a rift is the great East African rift valley

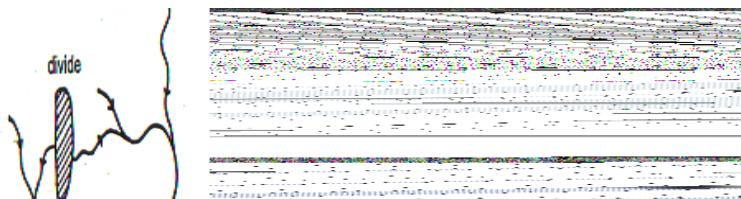


Figure 1.5: Rift valley

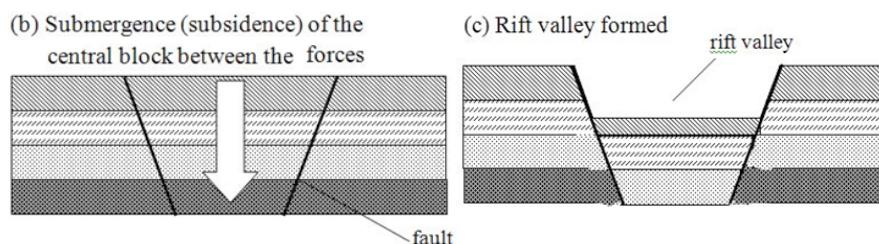


Figure 1.6: Rift valley

3. Grabens or fault basins

These are depressions that are formed on the rift valley floor due to secondary faulting. They are later filled with water to form fault or rift valley lakes. These lakes vary in size, depth and salinity. They tend to be relatively small and deep. Good examples of rift valley lakes include; Lake Tanganyika, Kivu, Edward, Albert, Baringo and Turkana in East Africa.

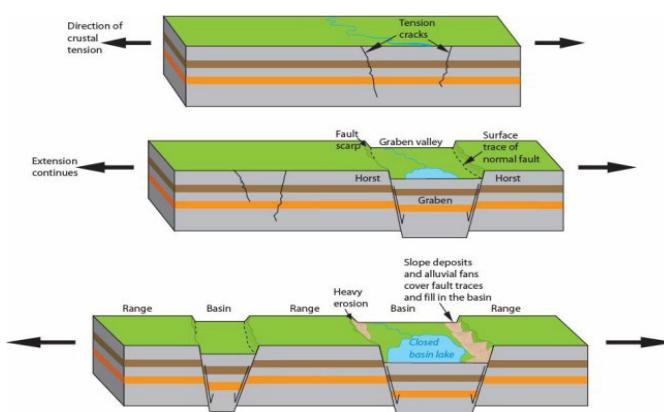


Figure 1.7: Grabens

4. Fault guided valleys

These are valleys or depressions located along a single fault. Tear or strike faulting causes horizontal movement and shattering of rocks along the line of movement. This means that such rocks are easily eroded. Rivers flowing across such a region take advantage of the weak rocks and erode them hence forming fault guided river valleys.

Examples are River Aswa in Uganda and Kerio in Kenya

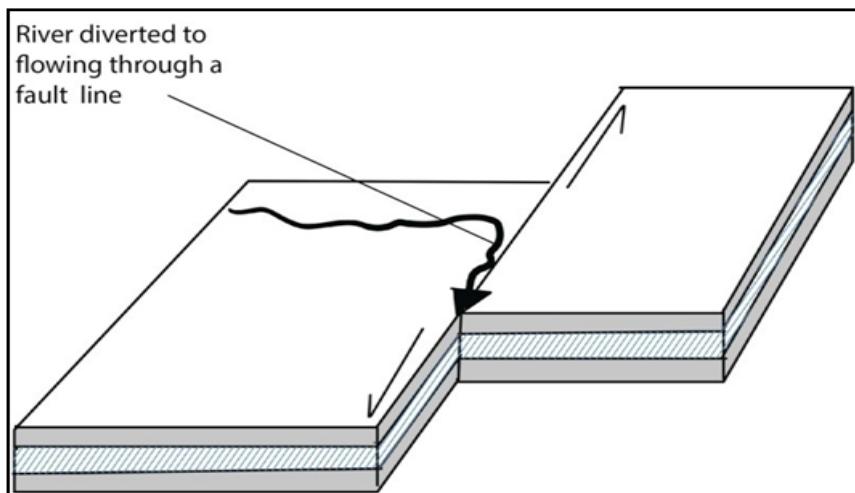


Figure 1. 8: Fault guided valleys

Fault scarps

A fault scarp is a steep slope which develops when the earth's crust is subjected to faulting. When one slab slips down relative to the other. These scarps are later subjected to denudation processes. Examples include; Butiaba in Uganda, Chunya and Manyara in Tanzania, Mau and Nandi in Kenya.

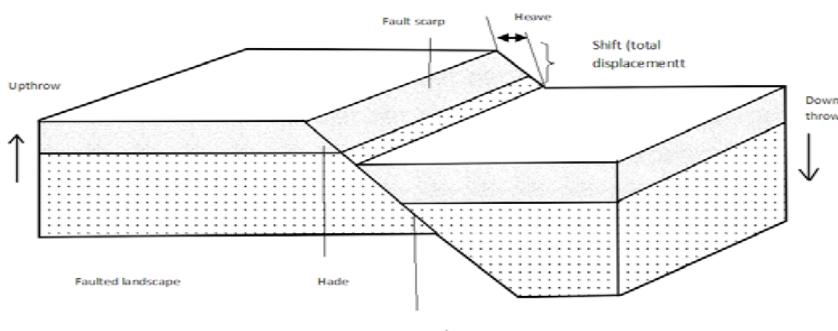


Figure 1. 9: Fault Scraps

1.1.4. The impact of faulting on human activities

- Faulting has led to creation of attractive scenery which attracts tourists. These attractions range from Block Mountains, rift valley lakes, escarpments and many others. These tourist bring foreign exchange which is important to stimulate economic development.
- Faults have also led to the formation of waterfalls and rapids. These form potential sites for Hydropower generation that is instrumental for industrial development.
- Faulting resulted into the formation of rift valley lakes like Tanganyika, Edward, Kivu etc. These act as fishing grounds that provide fish rich in proteins. Besides, these lakes help in climate modification around the area where they are found.
- Rift valley floor is extensively flat. This facilitates a number of land use activities like settlement and mechanized agriculture. This common around Towns like Nakuru, Naivasha, and Kasese. It has also promoted urbanization of Gisenyi in Rwanda.
- Faulting has also promoted mining as some rift valley lakes contain minerals like salt like Magadi and Katwe. There are also huge deposits of soda ash in Lake Magadi in Kenya. The presence of these mineral deposits has stimulated industrial activities in these areas.

1.1.5. Main fault areas

Fault areas are mainly located in the following regions of the world:

- East Africa: Faulted areas in East Africa extend from Mozambique in the South to the Red Sea in the North and from Malawi through Tanzania and Burundi, then Rwanda to Uganda and Kenya.
- Western Europe: Many faulted areas are in deep oceanic parts of the Atlantic Ocean in Western Europe.
- The Rhine Rift Valley extends along the border of North East France and South West Germany.
- The Western Coast of North America, which includes the San Andreas Fault of California.
- The Alpine fault region in New Zealand in the Far East
- The North Western highlands of Scotland and the Guadalquivir valley of Spa.



1.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Use the knowledge acquired from the previous lesson and research from the text books and internet to find the distribution of faulting in the world. Record the findings.

Explain the impact of faulting on the landscape and human activities.

1.2. Folding and warping



1.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use relevant geographical skills and experiences acquired the Relief of Rwanda to answer the following questions

1. What is folding?
2. Distinguish between an anticline and a syncline
3. Explain the features associated with warping
4. Use a range of different geographical sources and the materials like internet, text books to research on the types and distribution of folding and warping landforms

1.2.1. *Folding*

When a body of rock, especially sedimentary rock, is squeezed from the sides by tectonic forces, it is likely to fracture and/or become faulted if it is cold and brittle, or become folded if it is warm enough to behave in a plastic manner.

The nomenclature and geometry of folds are summarized on the diagram below. An upward fold is called an **anticline**, while a downward fold is called a **syncline**. In many areas it's common to find a series of anticlines and synclines, although some sequences of rocks are folded into a single anticline or syncline. A plane drawn through the crest of a fold in a series of beds is called the **axial plane** of the fold. The sloping beds on either side of an axial plane are **limbs**. An anticline or syncline is described as **symmetrical** if the angles between each of limb and the axial plane are generally similar, and **asymmetrical** if they are

not. If the axial plane is sufficiently tilted that the beds on one side have been tilted past vertical, the fold is known as an **overturned** anticline or syncline.

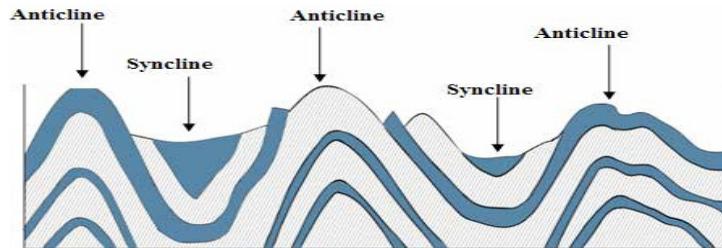


Figure 1. 10: Overturned anticline or syncline

1.2.2. Types of folds

Folds appear in different shapes and sizes. Some are large and others are small. There are many types of folds. They are characterized according to their shape and angle.

Symmetrical folds

If the axial plane along which a fold occurs is vertical, the resulting fold is a symmetrical fold. The crests of the fold are called anticlines and the troughs are called synclines.

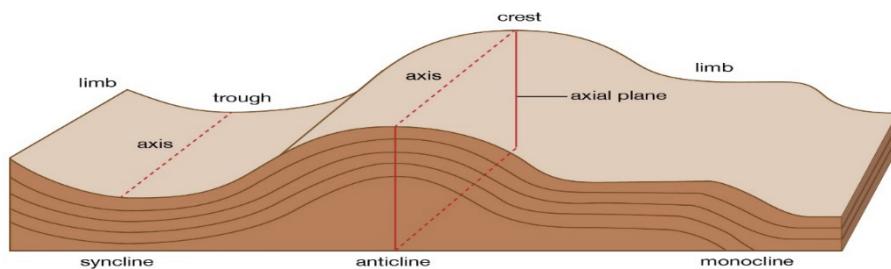


Figure 1. 11: Symmetrical folds

Asymmetrical folds

This is a type of fold where one side is steeper than the other and tilted. It is called asymmetrical because the force causing the bend was stronger one side than the other.

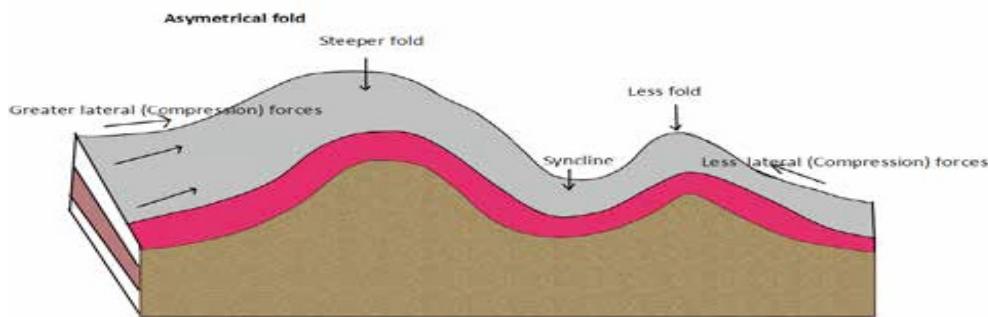


Figure 1.12: Asymmetrical folds.

Overfold or overturn fold forms where there is intense compression and the limbs dip in the same direction. Compression forces cause upper part to override the lower part.



Figure 1.13: Overfold or overturn

Recumbent fold. This is associated with very high degree of folding. The layers are overturned to the extent that the limbs are horizontal.

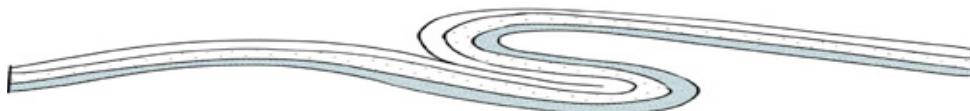


Figure 1.14: Recumbent fold

1.2.3. Warping:



2.2. ACTIVITY

1. Define warping and explain the internal processes that resulted into warping
2. Describe the features that were formed as a result of warping
3. Use internet and other Geographical resources and research about the type of warping

1.2.3.1. Definition, types and causes of warping.

Warping involves a gentle deformation of the crust affecting a considerable area. This is caused by sinking conventional currents which pull the earth's crust towards the core leading to a saucer shaped depression in the center.

There are two types of warping namely; down warping and upwarping.

- i. **Down warping** occurs where the sinking currents drag down part of the lower crust. Therefore, the crustal layers bend inwardly to form a basin. This created East African major basins of Victoria, Kyoga and Muhazi in Rwanda.
- ii. **Upwarping**: during down warping, the outer part of the crust layers tends to move upwards. This is commonly caused by isostatic movements associated with upward movement. It produced the upland regions and other uplands elsewhere in the world

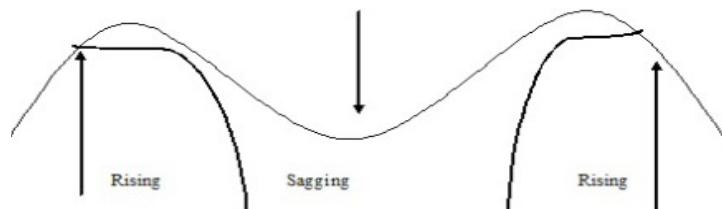


Figure 1. 15: Up warping

When an area is affected by both down warping and up warping, the combined effect is called **Broad warping**.

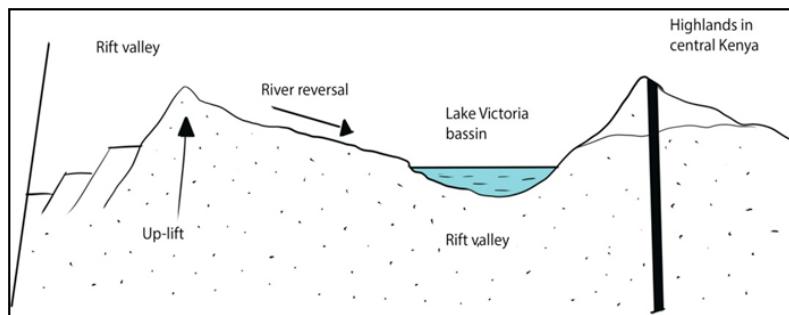


Figure 1. 16: Broad warping

1.2.3.2. Landforms associated with warping.

The process of warping led to the formation of the following landforms

Plateaus. This is an extensive upland part of the earth crust which is almost flat at the top. Most areas in Rwanda were affected warping. Other examples of plateaus include Jos plateau, Guinea highlands and Ahagger.

Bain. A basin is a large and extensive depression on the surface of the earth. It is formed due vertical downward movement of the earth crust.

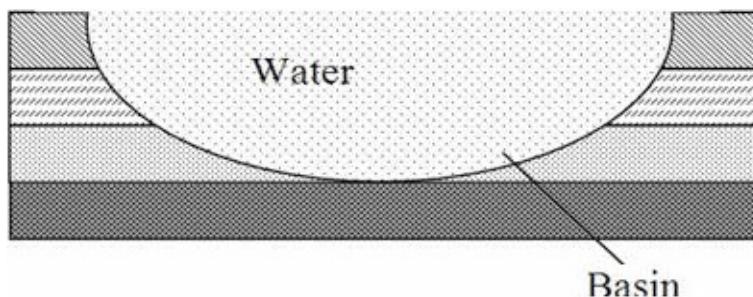


Figure 1. 17: Bain

Examples of basins include inland basins like Congo, Chad and Amazon basins. When a basin is filled by water, it forms lakes like Lake Victoria, Kioga in Uganda, Muhazi and Mugesera in Rwanda.

Plains are extensive areas of generally flat relief. They are normally found on the coastlines where warping greatly affected these areas.

1.3. Vulcanicity



1.4. LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. Distinguish between vulcanicity and volcanicity.
2. Explain the processes that led to the formation of the following;
 - i. Intrusive volcanic landforms
 - ii. Extrusive volcanic landforms

1.3.1. Definition of vulcanicity

Vulcanicity is one of the processes that are indirectly linked with faulting. When the earth's crust develops a line of weakness, the already mobile and molten rocks under intense pressure from overlying rocks will overflow through this line of weakness (fault) and move upwards from the mantle into the earth crust. The process of movement of this magma from the deeper layers of the crust into or on top of the crust is referred to as vulcanicity. If this magma cools inside the bedding planes it leads to formation of intrusive volcanic features.

on the other hand if it reaches and cools on the earth surface, it forms extrusive volcanic features or volcanic features. Vulcanicity therefore refers to the process through which intrusive and extrusive features are formed.

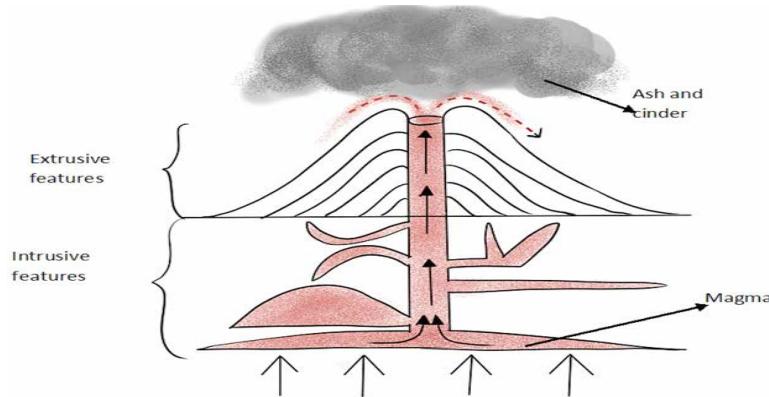


Figure 1. 18: Vulcanicity: intrusive and extrusive features

1.3.2. Extrusive volcanic features

Extrusive volcanic features are landforms of vulcanicity that are formed when magma reaches the earth surface. There are various landforms resulting from extrusive volcanic:

1. **Volcanoes: volcanoes** are conical or dome shaped features built when magma escapes through the vent or fissure on to the earth surface. The magma rises in a vent from a reservoir of magma from the mantle. These materials accumulate around the vent and repeated eruptions and accumulations lead to the building up of volcanoes. The size and shape depends on the nature of materials erupted and the mode of eruption. Therefore, there are different types of volcanoes ranging from small conical hills to vast mountains.

Types of volcanoes

i. Composite cone or strato volcanoes

Composite volcanoes, sometimes called *stratovolcanoes*, are typically deep-sided, symmetrical cones of large dimension built of alternating layers of lava flows, volcanic ash, cinders, blocks, and bombs and may rise as much as 8,000 ft above their bases.

Most composite volcanoes have a crater at the summit that contains a central vent or a clustered group of vents. Lavas either flow through breaks in the

crater wall or from fissures on the sides of the cone. Lava, solidified within the fissures, forms *dikes* that act as ribs which greatly strengthen the cone.

The essential feature of a composite volcano is a conduit system through which magma from a reservoir deep in Earth's crust rises to the surface. The volcano is built up by the accumulation of material erupted through the conduit and increases in size as lava, cinders, and ash are added to its slopes. Examples of composite cones include Kilimanjaro in Tanzania, Birunga in Northern Rwanda, Longonot in Kenya and many others.

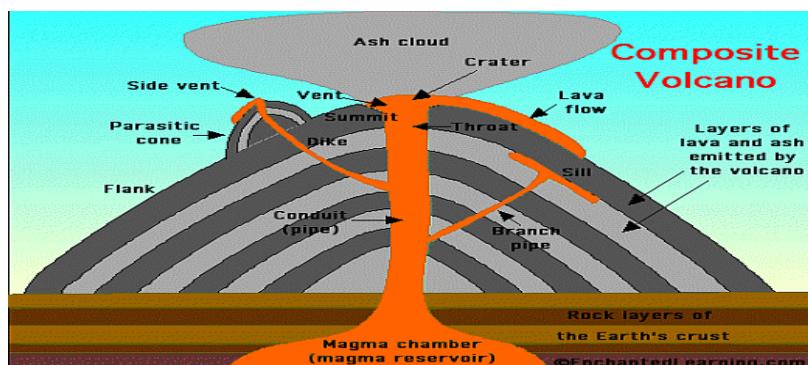


Figure 1. 19: Composite cone or strato volcanoes

ii. Ash and cinder cones

A **cinder cone** is a steep conical hill of loose pyroclastic fragments, such as either volcanic ash, or cinder that has been built around a volcanic vent. The pyroclastic fragments are formed by explosive eruptions or lava fountains from a single, typically cylindrical, vent. As the gas-charged lava is blown violently into the air, it breaks into small fragments that solidify and fall as either cinders, or scoria around the vent to form a cone that often is symmetrical; with slopes between 30–40°; and a nearly circular ground plan. Most cinder cones have a bowl-shaped crater at the summit.

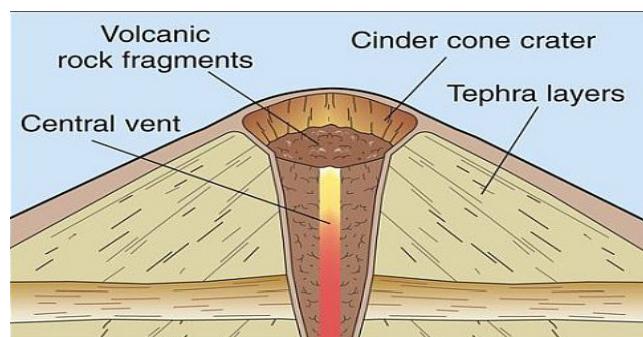


Figure 1. 20: A cinder cone

iii. Basic lava cones or shield volcanoes

These are also called basalt domes. Shield volcanoes derive their name from their distinctive, gently sloping convex slopes that resemble fighting shields. They are formed from basic lava which is very fluid and mobile. It is therefore able to flow a long distance before solidifying. They are formed from several fluid basaltic lava flows that erupt non-explosively. Such flows can easily spread for a long distance from feeding volcanic vents. The volcanoes formed are very low in height with gentle slopes. Examples include Mt. Marsabit and Tukuyu in Tanzania.

The Anatomy of a Shield Volcano

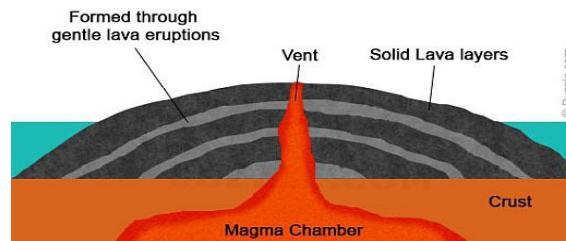


Figure 1. 21: Basic lava cones or shield volcanoes

1. Volcanic plug or neck

A volcanic plug is a hill resulting from differential weathering and erosion between the former feeder tube of a volcano and its surrounding rocks.

A volcanic plug, also called a volcanic neck or lava neck, is a volcanic landform created when lava hardens within a vent on an active volcano. When forming, a plug can cause an extreme build-up of pressure if volatile-charged magma is trapped beneath it, and this can sometimes lead to an explosive eruption. If a plug is preserved, erosion may remove the surrounding rock while the erosion-resistant plug remains, producing a distinctive landform. Examples are in Tororo, Uganda, Alekilek on Mt. Napk, Batian and Nelion on Mt. Kenya and Mawenzi on Mt. Kilimanjaro.

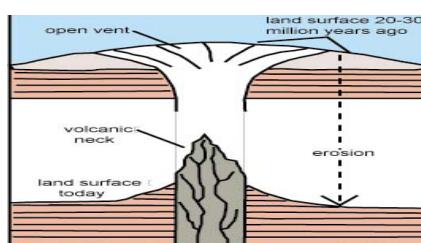


Figure 1. 22: Volcanic plug or neck

2. Crater: This is a volcanic depression on top of the volcano. There can be a ring

crater or explosive crater in circular shape when a crater is filled by water, it forms a Crater Lake. Examples of crater lakes in Rwanda are found on Kalisimbi, Muhabura and Bisoke volcanoes.

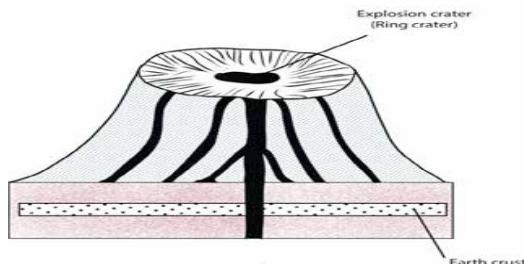


Figure 1. 23: Crater

3. A caldera: This is a wide depression that usually forms on top of a volcanic mountain due to explosive secondary eruption. When a caldera is filled with water, a Caldera Lake is formed. A typical example of dry caldera is Ngorongoro Caldera in Tanzania

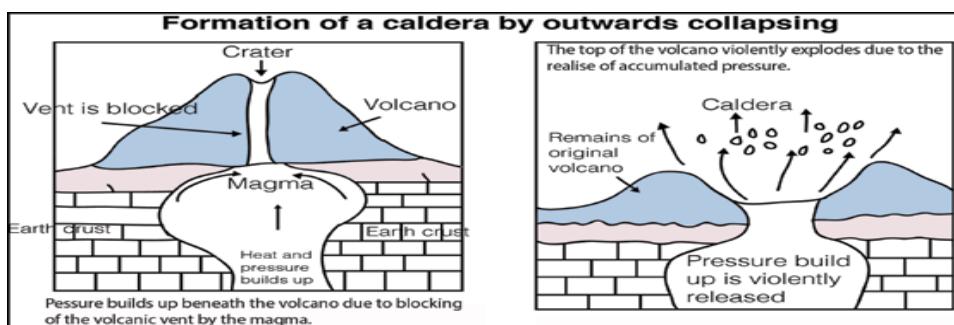


Figure 1. 24: A caldera

1.3.3. Intrusive feature

Intrusive landforms are formed when magma cools within the crust. The intrusive activity of volcanoes gives rise to various forms. These features occur beneath the crust and may be exposed to the surface after the overlying rock is removed by erosion. They include the phacoliths, laccoliths, volcanoes, dyke, lapoliths and sills.

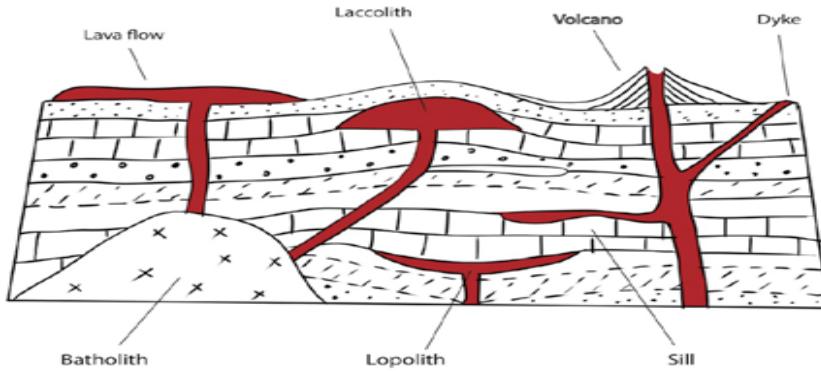


Figure 1. 25: Intrusive feature

1. **Batholiths.** These are large rock masses formed due to cooling down and solidification of hot magma inside the earth. They appear on the surface only after the denudation process remove the overlying materials. Batholiths form the core of huge mountains and may be exposed on surface after erosion. These are granitic rocks.

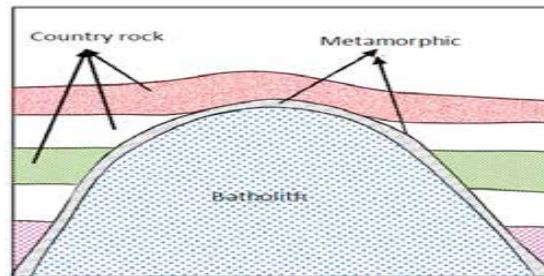


Figure 1. 26: Batholiths

2. **Laccoliths.** These are large dome-shaped intrusive bodies connected by a pipe-like conduit from below. These are basically intrusive counterparts of an exposed domelike batholith.

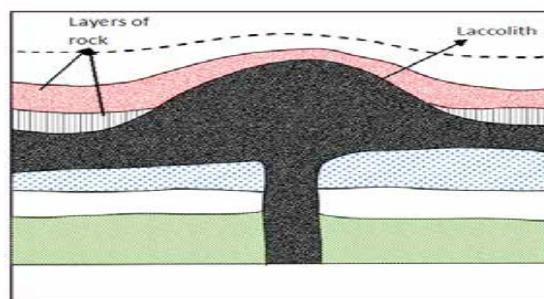


Figure 1. 27: Laccoliths

3. **Lapoliths.** When the lava moves upwards, a portion of the same may tend to move in a **horizontal** direction wherever it finds a weak plane. It may get rested in different forms. In case it develops into a saucer shape, concave to the sky body, it is called Lapoliths.

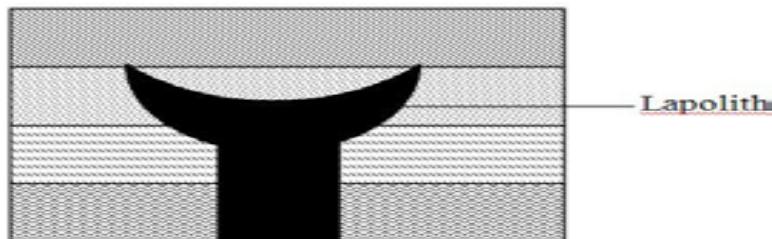


Figure 1. 28: horizontal

4. **Phaccoliths:** A wavy mass of intrusive rocks, at times, is found at the base of synclines or at the top of anticline in folded igneous country. Such wavy materials have a definite conduit to source beneath in the form of magma chambers (subsequently developed as batholiths). These are called the Phaccoliths.

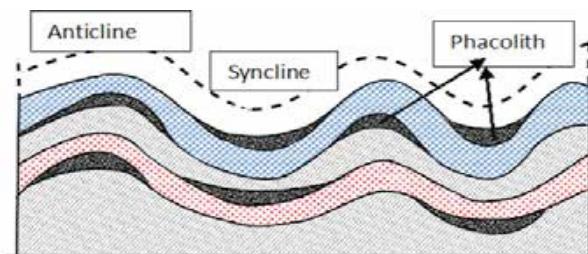


Figure 1. 29: Phaccoliths

5. **Sills.** These are solidified horizontal lava layers inside the earth. The near horizontal bodies of the intrusive igneous rocks are called sill or sheet, depending on the thickness of the material. The thinner ones are called sheets while the thick horizontal deposits are called sills.

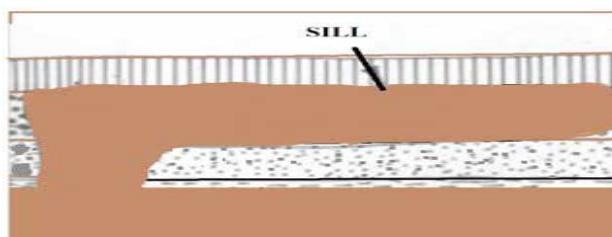


Figure 1. 30: Sills

6. **Dykes.** When the lava makes its way through cracks and the fissures developed in the land, it solidifies almost perpendicular to the ground. It gets cooled in the same position to develop a wall-like structure. Such structures are called dykes.

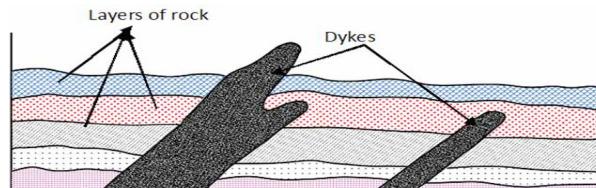


Figure 1. 31: Dykes



2.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Using the knowledge acquired from vulcanicity, explain the importance of extrusive and intrusive volcanic features in the development of Rwanda



SKILLS LAB

Visit a distinct volcanic landform in your area and find out the processes that were responsible for its formation. You need to make prior research about this landform from library or internet before you set off for the visit. Seek guidance from your tutor to find out if it is possible to find enough information about the landform of your choice

Remember to write a report that you will present to the tutor



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Using diagrams, explain how Lake Kivu was formed.
2. Discuss the economic importance of faulting to the development of countries where it occurred.
3. Distinguish between folding and faulting?
4. Identify the different types of folds that you know. Of what importance is folding to man?
5. Draw a Map of East Africa, and on it mark and label:
 - i. The Great East African rift valley
 - ii. Five graben lakes
 - iii. Three block mountains
 - iv. Three volcanic mountains
6. Distinguish between intrusive and extrusive volcanism and identify six intrusive volcanic features.



UNIT 2

EXTERNAL LANDFORM PROCESSES (WEATHERING AND MASS WASTING)

By the end of this unit the student-teacher should be able to demonstrate an understanding of the different features resulting from the external processes and their relationships with the human activities.

2.1. Weathering



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

Make a tour near your school and observe the rocks around. Find out their texture, colour and hardness.

1. Do you think these rocks are parent (original) rocks or they were detached from somewhere?
2. Discuss the processes that could have affected these rocks.



1.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet and text books to research about the types and processes of weathering.

2.1.1. Definition of Weathering

When rocks are formed, they are strong, consolidated and cohesive. With time however, this strength, consolidation and cohesiveness reduces and hitherto consolidated rock particles loosen and the rocks start to break down. When this happens, we say that the rock has been weathered down. Weathering therefore is an external process in which rocks are decayed or disintegrated in situ. The term *situ* means in one place without motion.

2.1.2. Types and processes of weathering.

Weathering is caused by physical, chemical and biological processes hence the three types of weathering as described below

2.1.2.1. Physical/Mechanical weathering

This is a type of weathering where rocks are broken down into small pieces without changing their chemical composition. What changes is only the physical size but they maintain their chemical properties. It is mostly influenced by temperature changes. Physical weathering takes the following forms:

- i. **Exfoliation.** In arid regions, such as hot deserts, rock surfaces heat up rapidly when exposed to the sun and the surface layers expand and break away. At night when temperature falls rapidly the same layers contract and more cracks develop. In time the layers of rocks peel off and fall to the ground. This process is called exfoliation. Exfoliation results into formation of exfoliation domes. Exfoliation domes occur in areas of exposed granite like in Mubende, Kitgum in Uganda, Kongwa, Serengeti, Iringa and Songea. More pronounced ones are found in Kalahari, Sinai and Egyptian deserts.

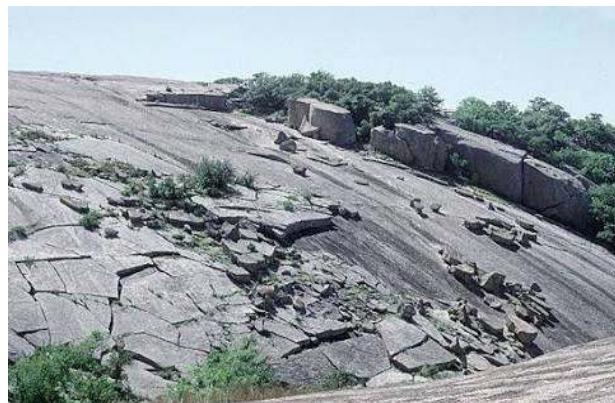


Figure 2. 1: Exfoliation

An exfoliation dome with scree peeled off after mechanical weathering process

ii. Block disintegration

This is a type of weathering in which a rock is disintegrated not in small particles as in exfoliation but in blocks. It is common in exposed plutonic rocks like granite because these rocks develop cracks and joints as they cool down. After exposure to thermal heating and cooling, the rock expands and cools along the already developed cracks and they will be widened. Eventually the rock will fall apart in blocks hence block disintegration. This type of weathering produces granitic tors or inselbergs. Examples are Bismark rock in Mwanza, Tanzania.



Figure 2. 2: Block disintegration

Fig. showing blocks of rocks broken down along their joints

- iii. Frost shattering. This type of weathering is experienced in areas that fall below freezing point. In East Africa, they are found on mountain peaks of mountain Kenya, Kilimanjaro and Rwenzori. Rainwater or snow-melt collects in cracks in the rocks. At night the temperatures drops and the water freezes and expands. The increases in volume of the ice exerts pressure on the cracks in the rock, causing them to split further open. During the day the ice melts and the water seeps deeper into the cracks. It is this expansion in these cracks that makes rock particles to break off as scree and rock to disintegrate.

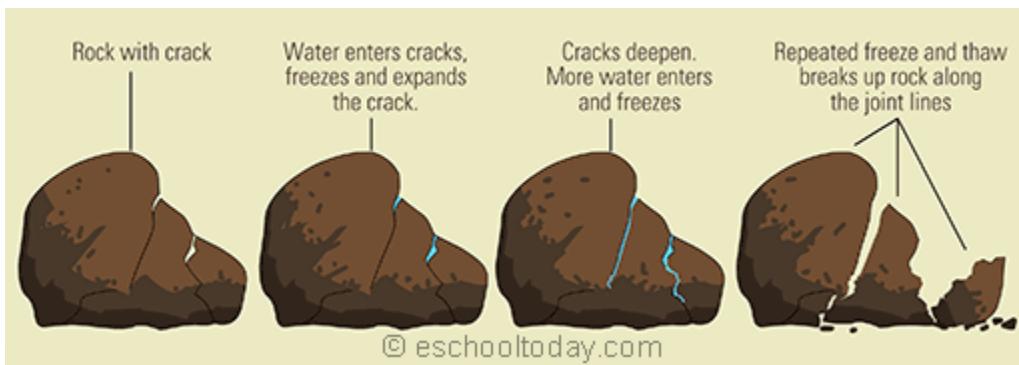


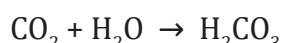
Figure 2. 3: Frost shattering

Plants and Animal action can also cause physical weathering as their roots grow. Seeds of plants or trees can grow inside rock cracks where soil has collected. The roots then put pressure on the cracks, making them wider and eventually splitting the rock. Even small plants can cause this kind of weathering over time.

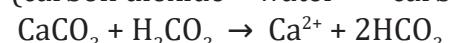
Animals that burrow underground, such as moles, gophers or even ants, can also cause physical weathering by loosening and breaking apart rocks. Dens and tunnels are signs of this type of weathering. Other animals dig and trample rock on the Earth's surface, causing rock to slowly crumble apart. This process exposes new parts of the rock to the elements, making them susceptible to other types of weathering, such as chemical weathering

2.1.2.2 Chemical weathering

- **Chemical weathering** is the weakening and subsequent disintegration of rock by chemical reactions. These reactions include oxidation, hydrolysis, and carbonation. These processes either form or destroy minerals, thus altering the nature of the rock's mineral composition. Temperature and, especially, moisture are critical for chemical weathering; chemical weathering of rock minerals generally occurs more quickly in hot, humid climatic regions
- **Carbonation** is the process of rock minerals reacting with carbonic acid. Carbonic acid is formed when water combines with carbon dioxide. Carbonic acid dissolves or breaks down minerals in the rock. The effect of carbonation on limestone rocks can be summarized using the equation below:



(carbon dioxide + water → carbonic acid)



(calcite + carbonic acid → calcium + bicarb)

- **Oxidation** is the reaction of rock minerals with oxygen, thus changing the mineral composition of the rock. When minerals in rock oxidize, they become less resistant to weathering. Iron, a commonly known mineral, becomes red or rust colored when oxidized.
- **Hydrolysis** is a chemical reaction caused by water. Water changes the chemical composition and size of minerals in rock, making them less resistant to weathering. For example, when feldspar mineral is completely hydrolyzed, clay minerals and quartz are produced and such elements as K, Ca, or Na are released.
- A hydrolysis reaction of orthoclase (alkali feldspar), a common mineral found in igneous rock, yields kaolinite, silicic acid, and potassium.
- **Hydration** is the absorption of water into the mineral structure. This causes the rock to expand in size. This expansion reduces the cohesiveness of the rock particles hence internal stress is caused in the

rock and therefore the rock crumbles. A good example of hydration is the absorption of water by anhydrite, resulting in the formation of gypsum. Hydration expands volume and also results in rock deformation.

- **Solution.** This is more-less a physical-chemical weathering process which does not change the physical structure of the rocks very much. This is a process by which soluble rock particles are dissolved and weathered away in a solution form. Water being the major solvent, it can dissolve soluble rocks and therefore form a solution. This therefore reduces the size of the rock e.g. rock salt (calcium chloride) and calcium bicarbonate are easily weathered in solution.

2.1.2.3. Biological weathering

This involves the weakening and subsequent disintegration of rock by plants, animals and other living organisms. Growing **plant roots** can exert stress or pressure on rock. Although the process is physical, the pressure is exerted by a biological process (*i.e.*, growing roots). Biological processes can also produce chemical weathering, for example where plant roots or microorganisms produce organic acids which help to dissolve minerals.

Burrowing **animals like rodents and termites** can move rock fragments to the surface, exposing the rock to more intense chemical, physical, and biological processes and so indirectly enhancing the process of rock weathering. Although physical, chemical, and biological weathering are separate processes, some or all of the processes can act together in nature

2.2. Factors influencing weathering



2.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet and text books to identify different factors influencing weathering and present your findings.

2.2.1. Climate

This is the most important factor affecting weathering of rocks. The extent of weathering is dependent on the climate of the area. There are two factors that influence weathering, namely Temperature and Rainfall. For example chemical weathering is highly pronounced in areas with high rainfall which facilitates

processes like carbonation, hydration and solution. Physical weathering by frost action is most likely in cold climate where freeze and thaw occur alternately during the cold weather.

In this case again precipitation is the main factor. In the absence of water ice cannot form and frost action is not possible. Hence an effective frost action occurs in the cold moist climate. At higher temperatures chemical reactions are likely to take place faster. Chemical reactions in most cases need water which is a reactant in hydration and carbonation. Water is also the medium in which the reaction can take place. Exfoliation process also occurs due to temperature fluctuations during day and night.

2.2.2. Relief

Relief refers to the nature of the landscape or topography and it has a direct impact on weathering. In mountainous regions, the windward side receive high rainfall and as such, chemical weathering is dominant on this slope. However, due to arid conditions on the windward slope, physical/mechanical weathering is more dominant on this slope.

Slope - On steep slopes weathering products may be quickly washed away by rains. On gentle slopes the weathering products accumulate. On gentle slopes water may stay in contact with rock for longer periods of time, and thus result in higher weathering rates

2.2.3. Nature of the rock

We know, the chemical properties of a rock depend on the mineral composition to a great extent. Mineral in a rock may readily react with acids, water or oxygen causing considerable weathering. For example, limestone can get severely acted upon by even very mildly acidic rainwater. Granite on the contrary mostly containing silica remains unaffected by such agents.

2.2.4. The impact of living organisms

Plants and animals have a great role to play in rock disintegration and decay. Plants add certain chemicals such as nitric acid which chemically weather away the rocks. Their roots also break the rocks as they expand. Therefore, the thicker and bigger the vegetation, the faster will rocks disintegrate.

Animals also cause weathering in different ways, for example big animals like elephants trample on rocks causing weathering. Man through his activities like

agriculture can cause weathering. Decaying animals release certain acids like ammonia, lactic acid and urea which react with and weaken rocks.

2.2.5. Time

Since a rate is how fast something occurs in a given amount of time, time is a crucial factor in weathering. Depending on the factors above, rates of weathering can vary between rapid and extremely slow, thus the time it takes for weathering to occur and the volume of rock affected in a given time will depend on slope, climate, and animals

2.3. Weathering in the humid tropical regions and the resultant landforms

Humid tropical climate is characterized by high rainfall and temperature of up to 1500mm and 25 centigrade degrees respectively. This climate however has got some periods of drought. Due to amount of rainfall especially during the rainy season, chemical weathering processes are common. These include, hydration, solution, oxidation and carbonation. During the dry season when temperatures are high and rainfall is low, physical weathering processes become pronounced. These include, exfoliation, block disintegration, crystallization etc.

The combined humid and dry conditions of tropical climate lead to the formation of the following landforms:

- **Exfoliation domes:** these are smooth and round topped hills found in regions that experience alternate heating and cooling during the day and night respectively. This will result in the top layer peeling off in form of screes leaving a dome shaped structure;
- **Laterites:** these are hardpan soil (duricrust) produced by concentration of oxides in the soil giving it a red deep appearance,
- **Grikes:** these are landforms found in chemically weathered limestone rocks. Chemical weathering especially carbonation weathers down the surface of these rocks to produce deep and narrow grooves called grikes;
- **Clints:** these are formed together with grikes. These are round ridges that separate the two grikes;
- **Stalactites:** these are protrusions found on a roof of a chemically weathered limestone cave. As water enters the limestone rock, it dissolves some of its materials whose solution starts to leak from the roof of the cave. Later when water evaporates, it leaves behind a column of hard rock connected to the roof of the cave called a stalactite;

- **Stalagmites:** these are formed together with stalactites. Whereas stalactites are connected on the roof of the cave, stalagmites are formed on the base of the cave and therefore protrude upwards. They are formed from the accumulation of leaking calcium carbonate solution. When this calcium carbonate evaporates, it leaves this limestone rock called a stalagmite.
- **Pillars:** these are formed within the weathered limestone rocks. When a stalactite joins with a stalagmite in a limestone cave, they finally make a pillar.

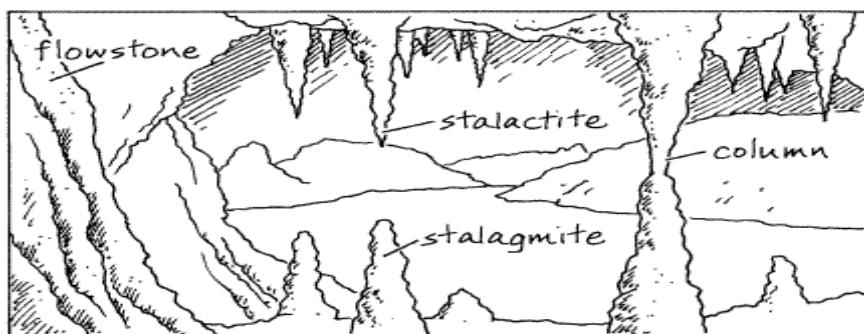


Figure 2. 4: Pillars

- **Limestone Gorge:** this is a deep narrow gorge produced when the roof of the cave collapses. It is therefore a depression with almost vertical sides that is drilled into the roof of the cave as the cave collapses.
- **Dry valley:** these are valleys in which there are no streams flowing. Rivers flowing from non-limestone area may finally enter limestone rocks, which are very permeable and may disappear underground only to reappear on ground again at the end of the limestone rocks. Within limestone permeable rocks where the river disappears, remains a former valley where the river disappeared deep down as a dry valley.

2.4. Mass Wasting



2.4. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Rwanda is not well known for landslides, but recently especially in the years with above normal rainfall and with high increase in population per kilometer square the loss of life and property from landslides and mud flows is increasing.

This research assesses the factors that influence landslide occurrences in Rwanda, their impacts on the livelihood of the people, their causes and protection measures. For almost 10 years from 2000, heavy rains and landslides left 108 people dead and ten thousand displaced and landless mostly in North and Western provinces. The volume of debris from landslides was 110 million m³ in and this was deposited into rivers and streams or in transportation roads. Twenty-nine of these landslides dammed rivers resulting in high losses of fertile soils and infection of fresh waters with used chemicals in cultivating those lands. The main landslide types are debris flows which occur on concave slopes where water concentrates and with the layer of clay downward water pushes the land to slides laterally. These landslides occur on steep slopes that are concave and between slope angles of 14 degrees to 55 degrees. Slopes facing north-west and West are most prone to landslides which coincide with the dominant rainfall in the areas. The soil types in this area are those conditioned by topography and tropical climate namely Nitisosols, Ferralsols, Leptosols, Gleysols, and Acrisols. The soils contain medium to high plasticity clays and according to the Atterberg limits they approximately fall in the categories of kaolinite. The top soils also have a high infiltration rate which allows fast flow of water into the deeper clay rich horizons promoting water stagnation causing slope failure. The main triggering factor is rainfall and rainfall events of low intensity but prolonged for days are thought to be more disastrous however, this is an area that needs further investigation. In order to reduce the occurrences of landslides terraces have started being constructed by the government and local people and afforestation is being promoted everywhere with the theme "cut one tree plant three" in order to fight against landslides disasters with the construction of slope retaining walls, but still not yet a zoning map hasn't been done, it is of high need to implement a map of zones vulnerable to landslides in the whole country so that people will be able to avoid those places in their daily works.

From the text above, answer the following questions;

1. Mention the type of mass wasting mentioned in the text
2. Identify the landslide prone areas in Rwanda
3. Explain the effects of the landslides according to the above text.
4. What are the solutions proposed in the text above?



LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. Explain what is happening in the photographs A,B,C, and D
2. Compare the similarities and differences in photograph C and D



Photograph A



Photograph B



Photograph C



Photograph D

Mass wasting is sometimes called mass movement or slope movement. Mass wasting is defined as the large movement of rock, soil and debris downward due to the force of gravity. In other words, the earth's outer crust is being 'wasted' away on a 'massive' scale and falling to lower elevations. It is different from erosion because in erosion, water physically transports away the soil particles but in mass wasting, water does not wash away the soil but assists the slope to slide under gravity.

2.5. Types of mass wasting



2.5. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet and text books to research about different types of mass wasting

Mass wasting can be categorized under three major types, namely;

- Slow flowage (creep) processes
- Rapid flowage processes
- Slide processes

2.5.1. Slow flowage

These are mass wasting processes which move slowly and are also called creep movements. They are very slow in their motion and they may occur without being noticed unless a very keen observation of certain features is made. They include/

- i. **Soil creep** - the very slow, usually continuous movement of regolith down slope. Creep occurs on almost all slopes, but the rates vary. Evidence for creep is often seen in bent trees, offsets in roads and fences, and inclined utility poles.
- ii. **Solifluction** - flowage at rates measured on the order of centimeters per year of regolith containing water. Solifluction produces distinctive lobes on hill slopes. These occur in areas where the soil remains saturated with water for long periods of time.
- iii. **Rock Glaciers** - a lobe of ice-cemented rock debris (mostly rocks with ice between the blocks) that slowly moves downhill.
- iv. **Talus creep** - this is the down slope movement of mainly scree that are relatively dry. It moves almost in the same way as soil creep and it occurs under tropical and temperate climate.

2.5.2. Rapid flowage processes

These include the following

- i. **Earth flows:** this refers to the movement of saturated soil and other debris on steep slopes under the influence of gravity. They usually occur after a

heavy down power where the rainwater thoroughly lubricates the clayish materials making it easy to flow down along the rock beneath when friction is thoroughly reduced. A sudden movement will occur and the weathered lubricated materials flow rapidly down the slope.

ii. Mud flows: this refers to the movement of semi-liquid mud with unconsolidated gravel and boulders. They move very fast to a speed of more than 15km/hr.

iii. Debris avalanches: this refers to the sudden downfall of materials embedded in the ice or glacier on mountain slopes under the influence of gravity. The fact that slopes are very steep and there is enough rain to soak the slopes makes avalanches run faster than other rapid flowage processes.

2.5.3. Slide processes

They are collectively called landslides. They are very fast and many often involve dry materials. They occur on steep slopes. They include the following:

i. Rock slump. This is a type of slide whereby downward rotation of rock occurs along a concave-upward curved surface. The upper surface of each slump block remains relatively undisturbed, as do the individual blocks. Slumps leave arcuate scars or depressions on the hill slope. Slumps can be isolated or may occur in large complexes covering thousands of square meters. They often form as a result of human activities, and thus are common along roads where slopes have been over steepened during construction. They are also common along river banks and sea coasts, where erosion has under-cut the slopes. Heavy rains and earthquakes can also trigger slumps.

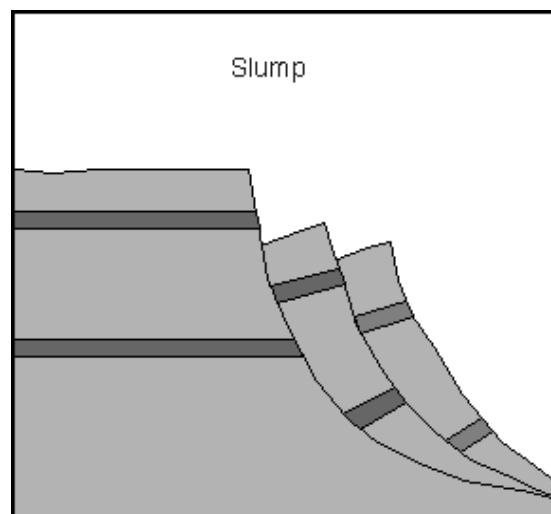


Figure 2.36: Slump

ii. Rock falls occur when a piece of rock on a steep slope becomes dislodged and falls down the slope. **Debris falls** are similar, except they involve a mixture of soil, regolith, vegetation, and rocks. A rock fall may be a single rock or a mass of rocks, and the falling rocks can dislodge other rocks as they collide with the cliff. Because this process involves the free fall of material, falls commonly occur where there are steep cliffs. At the base of most cliffs is an accumulation of fallen material termed **talus**.

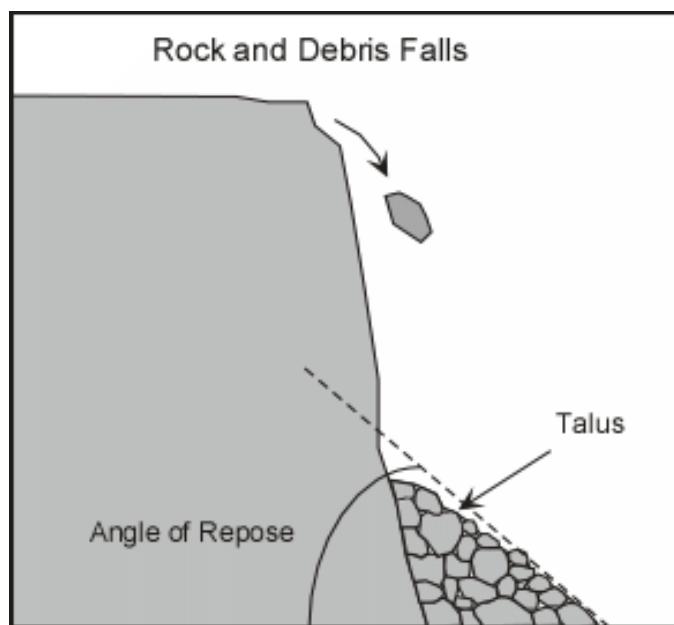


Figure 2. 6: Rock and Debris Falls

- iii. Rock slides** and debris slides result when rocks or debris slide down a pre-existing surface, such as a bedding plane, foliation surface, or joint surface (joints are regularly spaced fractures in rock that result from expansion during cooling or uplift of the rock mass). Piles of talus are common at the base of a rock slide or debris slide. Slides differ from slumps in that there is no rotation of the sliding rock mass along a curved surface.
- iv. Debris slide.** This occurs in the same way as slumping except that under the debris slide, only unconsolidated particles (debris) slide. Hence, it is the rolling of unconsolidated earth debris from a vertical or overhanging face.

2.6. Causes of mass wasting, effects of mass wasting, measures to control mass wasting.



2.6. LEARNING ACTIVITY

1.
 - a. Explain the causes of mass wasting
 - b. Discuss the effects of mass wasting in any part of the world.
 - c. Suggest measures of controlling mass wasting.

2.6.1. Causes of mass wasting

Mass wasting is caused by both physical and human factors.

2.6.1.1. Physical factors

- i. **Slope gradient.** Mass wasting is caused by gravitation pull of the slope. The gradient of the slope determines the rate at which materials move downslope under the influence of gravity.
- ii. **Types of rocks.** The nature of the rock has a great influence on mass movement. Rocks differ in terms of texture, permeability, joints and structure, for example, if an impermeable rock underlies a permeable one, it is very probable that the permeable rock on top will get properly soaked and will slide off a permeable one causing landslides.
- iii. **Climate.** Climate influences landslides in a number of ways. In areas where rainfall is high, the rate of weathering is rapid and this facilitates mass wasting to take place. Areas that receive low rainfall, the rate of weathering is low and hence limited mass wasting. Some areas which undergo freezing and thawing, frost heaving is common which trigger of rock debris and avalanches.
- iv. **Earth movements** like earthquakes and tremors trigger of mass movement. When such tremors come and find already a steep slope, heavy and lubricated slope, it will shake it and the debris will be forced to slide.

2.6.1.2 Human activities

- i. **Construction of transport and communication routes.** Mass movement is common on sides of road and railway cuttings especially in hilly and mountainous areas. The vibrations caused by the moving traffic together

with the pull of gravity trigger off rock falls and movement of debris. Road and railway construction also leaves rocks hanging hence rendering them susceptible to movements

- ii. **Deforestation.** This is the destruction of forests especially natural vegetation. Tree roots bind soil particles together and firm. In many parts of the world, trees have been destroyed through agriculture and settlement activities. This leaves the soils bare and exposed to weathering process that facilitates mass movement of rocks and soil.
- iii. **Mining and quarrying.** Mining and quarrying lead to formation of steep slopes which trigger off mass wasting. In addition, explosives used to blast rocks cause vibrations that break the rocks which makes them prone to mass wasting.
- iv. **Overgrazing.** Grazing of large herds of animals can cause some tremors on slopes and hence causing slope failure. This occurs on slopes which are already overloaded especially in national parks
- v. **Poor cultivation methods:** Poor cultivation methods such as ploughing up and down hill slopes induce movement e.g. in Kondoa district of Tanzania. This is exacerbated by the presence of steep slopes. Cultivation also involves the remove of the protective cover of the vegetation hence leading to mass movements.

2.6.2. Effects of mass wasting



2.1. ACTIVITY

Observe the photograph below and explain the effects of mass wasting as seen from the photograph.





Figure 2.7: Mass wasting in road construction area (Karongi District), on riverbanks (Gakenke district) and on steep slopes (Nyabihu district), Rwanda.

Mass movement has been on increase in most areas of East Africa. This has had both economic and social effects on the people in this region. Some of these effects include the following:

- i. **Loss of life and property:** For example, in May 2018, a landslide buried 18 people in Rwankuba sector Karongi District in Western Rwanda. Landslides also destroy property like settlements which are buried during the mass movement.
- ii. **Destruction of agriculture land and crops.** When sliding occurs, the land for agriculture is destroyed. Besides, the top fertile soil is swept away leaving bare scars on hill slopes unfavorable for agriculture. Crops can also be destroyed in the process of mass movement.
- iii. **Destruction of infrastructure** especially roads, bridges, electric transmission poles etc. which are buried by rock debris hindering transport and communication along these routes. This is common in steep slope areas of northern and western Rwanda.
- iv. **Loss of vegetation.** Mass movements particularly landslides lead to the destruction of valuable forest resources. These are totally buried and destroyed.

2.6.3. Measures to control mass wasting

- i. **Afforestation and re-afforestation.** This increases the cohesiveness of rocks. Roots of trees bind the soil particles together. Afforestation program is being encouraged in all districts of Rwanda.
- ii. **Use of better methods of farming** which encourage slope stability like terracing and contour ploughing are being practiced in all hilly and mountainous areas of northern and western Rwanda. Terracing involves the cutting of slopes into a series of steps on a steep slope. This reduces the steepness of the slope hence controlling movements.

- iii. **Sensitization and mass education** of people about avoiding any activities that might trigger mass movement like settlement on steep slopes and agriculture activities. This can help people to avoid any practices that might cause mass wasting.
- iv. Engineering works on steep slopes should respect slope stability. For example, need to construct embankments on the roadsides.



2.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Conduct a field study around your college, or a visit to your district environment officer. Find out measures the authorities have put in place to stop mass wasting. Make a presentation about your findings.



2.1. SKILLS LAB

Conduct a field study tour around your college and study about the types of mass wasting taking place. Present your findings to the class.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Explain the three types of weathering
2. 'Climate rather than rock structure is the most important factor that causes mass wasting'. Discuss.
3. Explain the chemical weathering process that take place in humid and hot tropical regions.
4. Describe the difference between stalagmites and stalactites.
5. Describe the landforms that are formed by weathering in arid and semi-arid regions.
6. Define mass wasting and give the different types of mass wasting according to velocity/speed or rate of mass movement.
7. Explain the physical and human factors that cause mass wasting.



UNIT 3

ROCKS

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to explain the mode of formation of rocks and assess the economic importance of rocks



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

Use local environment, textbooks, internet and photographs like one below to research about the types of rocks, their characteristics, and their importance.



3.1. Rocks: definition, types and characteristics



3.1. ACTIVITY

1. Observe the image below in fig A and fig B and describe the characteristics of these rocks.
2. Search on internet and in textbooks and explain how they were formed.
3. Mention other types of rocks that were formed by other processes than the one identified in (2) above.



Fig. A



Fig. B

3.1.1. Rocks: definition

A rock by definition is any aggregate of one or more minerals existing in a solid state. It may be consolidated such as granite, limestone and coal or unconsolidated such as sand or clay. A given rock is always composed of more than one mineral. However, a few varieties consist almost one mineral. Rocks therefore form a composition of minerals be soft or hard that make up the earth in a solid state.

3.1.2. Types of the rocks and their characteristics

Rocks can be classified according to their mode of formation and according to their age. The classification of rocks **according to their mode of formation**

gives three categories: igneous rocks, sedimentary rocks and metamorphic rocks.

3.1.2.1 Igneous rocks

Igneous rocks are also called fire formed rocks. They are formed when molten material called magma cools and solidifies. Magma is a molten rock formed in the interior of the earth. It is formed when rocks deep underground melts due to intense hot temperatures and pressure inside the earth. The hot temperatures are generated by radioactivity and geochemical reactions. As magma flows and cools different types of igneous rocks are formed.

Igneous rocks are further divided into three categories namely, plutonic, hypabyssal and volcanic rocks.

- i. **Plutonic** if magma cools into large masses of rock deep in the earth crust, the process is slow and the resultant rocks are compact in texture and highly crystallized. These are called plutonic rocks examples include granite diorite and gabbro.
- ii. **Hypabyssal rocks:** These are formed when molten material rises along lines of weakness and cracks in the country rocks and cools near the earth surface .In this case, cooling is more rapid than in the case of plutonic rocks. Medium sized crystals are formed for example quartz and dolerite
- iii. **Volcanic rocks:** When magma is poured on the surface of the earth, volcanic rocks are formed. They cool rapidly to form small crystallised rocks e.g. rhyolite, andesite, basalt and obsidian rocks. On the other hand, pyroclasts consist of igneous materials but fragmented in nature. They were thrown of volcanic vent and fragments of solid lava, cinders ash and dust.

Characteristics of igneous rocks

- They are usually made of two or more minerals
- They are light or dark coloured
- They are fine grained or glassy so they do not have strata or layers
- They do not contain fossils (fossils are remains of plants and animals fixed in rocks)
- The number of joints increases upwards in any igneous rock.
- Igneous rocks are mostly associated with volcanic activities and are mainly found in the volcanic zones. That is why they are also called volcanic rocks.



Figure 3. 1: Igneous rocks

3.1.2.2. Sedimentary rocks

According to the mode of formation, sedimentary rocks comprise three types namely mechanically, chemically and organically formed sedimentary rocks.

- Mechanically formed sedimentary rocks:** as soon as rocks are exposed to the ground they begin to be broken down by erosion and weathering processes. The broken minerals are carried by wind, streams or ice and finally deposited as sediments. This group includes a variety of either coarse or fine textured rocks formed by compaction and cementation of sediments such as sand, silt, clay and gravel. They are further cemented by calcareous, siliceous or ferruginous materials to consolidate the materials. Examples of such rocks include, shale, clay, mudstone, sand stones, tillites, and conglomerates.
- Chemically formed sedimentary rocks:** This type of sedimentary rocks are formed when dissolved materials precipitate out of salt water after evaporation. All water falling on the earth surface as rain contains salts in solution. The salts may be precipitated by direct evaporation of water, chemical interaction or by release of pressure where underground water reaches the surface. The deposition of calcium on beds of streams like Lake Magadi in Kenya, Lake katwe in Uganda is a familiar example. Salt pans also exist in Narok, Taita, and Samburu. Stalactites and stalagmites in limestone areas are also examples of chemically formed sedimentary rocks.
- Organically formed sedimentary rocks:** These are formed from the accumulation of dead remains of living organisms. As remains of plants and animals continue to accumulate, pressure in them continues to build

and finally they solidify and form a rock. Good examples of this type of sedimentary rocks include coral reefs which forms as a result of accumulation of skeletons of sea creatures called coral polyps. When these creatures die, they sink down to the sea bed where their shells are broken up, compressed, cemented and together to form rocks. Another familiar example of organic sedimentary rock is coal. It consists mainly of carbon derived from masses of plant matter that accumulate in the forested swamps millions of years ago. Due to lack of oxygen in swampy water, the plants did not decay but solidified into coal.

Characteristic of sedimentary rocks

- They have flat or curved surfaces
- Particle size may be the same or may vary
- They usually have pores (spaces) between pieces
- Sedimentary rocks are the product of other rocks that were already formed.
- They appear in the form of layers or strata.
- Sedimentary rocks are found over the largest surface area of the earth.
- Sedimentary rocks have various minerals because they are a product of different sources
- Most of the sedimentary rocks allow liquids and gases to pass through them (permeable and porous).
- Sedimentary rocks are characterized by different sizes of joints.
- Sedimentation units in the sedimentary rocks having a thickness of greater than one centimetre and are called *beds*.

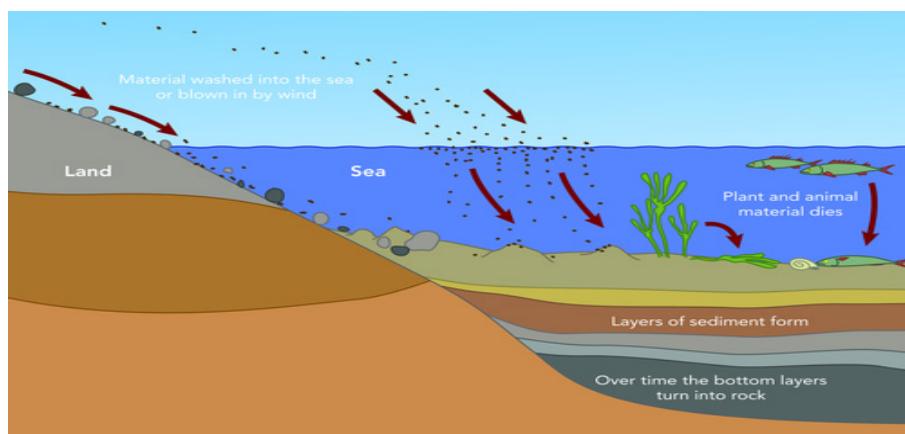


Figure 3. 2: Sedimentary rocks

3.1.2.2. Metamorphic rocks

Metamorphic rocks were once igneous or sedimentary rocks, but have been changed (metamorphosed) as a result of intense heat and/or pressure within the Earth's crust. They are formed as a result of exposure to conditions different from those under which they were formed. Heat within the earth interior is generated through radioactivity and geo-chemical reactions. Magma moving from deep in the earth crust towards the earth surface also generates heat which leads to metamorphism. When this heat comes into contact with rocks, serious effects occur on rocks eventually changing their chemical and physical properties. 'meta' means change and 'morphic' means form. Hence metamorphic rocks are those whose form has changed. There are three forms of metamorphism namely thermal, dynamic and thermal dynamic metamorphism.

- i. **Thermal metamorphism** which occurs due to heat changes the rock structure for example sandstone changes into quartzite, limestone changes into marble
- ii. **Dynamic metamorphism** occurs when pressure is subjected to rocks. This pressure occurs due to earth movements leading to compressional and tensional forces. This led to the formation of shale and phyllite.
- iii. **Thermal dynamic metamorphism.** This where changes are brought about by a combination of both heat and pressure. In this case coal or organic matter is changed into graphite by both heat and pressure. Slate turns into schist when subjected to both heat and pressure.

Characteristics of metamorphic rocks

- They are formed from igneous rocks, sedimentary rocks or any other metamorphic rocks
- They have alternate bands of light and dark minerals
- They rarely have openings
- They do not split easily
- Some are made up of just one mineral, for example, marble
- They have a different texture from the original rock.

3.2 Impact of the rocks



3.2. ACTIVITY

1. Describe the type of rocks used in the following activities.
 - i. Civil engineering like road construction
 - ii. Construction of houses
 - iii. Making of fertilizers
 - iv. source of energy
 - v. Making of glasses
 - vi. Used in preparation of food
2. Using examples, explain the negative effects of rocks.

3.2.1. Positive impact of rocks

- i. **Soil formation:** when rocks weather down, they produce soils of varying fertility. Igneous rocks especially volcanic soil when weathered produce fertile soils that promote agriculture. Sedimentary rocks along river valleys and lowlands have weathered to produce fertile soils supporting rice growing in swampy areas.
- ii. **Minerals:** rocks are mined to provide minerals used in various purposes. For example gold and diamonds are deposited rocks that are mined in igneous rocks, marble is mined from metamorphic rocks, sand and limestone from sedimentary rocks. These minerals have supported economic development through foreign exchange earned through their export.
- iii. **Building and construction materials:** rocks both sedimentary, metamorphic and igneous provide building materials like sand, and building stones. Cement used in construction of buildings and roads is extracted from limestone which is a sedimentary rock. Bricks, tiles and other decorative stones are got from rocks. Besides, some rocks are also quarried to construct roads, and other infrastructure.
- iv. **Climate modification:** igneous rocks form highlands like Mt. Kilimanjaro, Birunga, Drakensberg etc. These highlands receive heavy orographic rainfall which has supported a dense population through agriculture activities on slope of these mountains. Heavy rains in these highlands has supported growth of forests. These forests are very important in stimulating economic

development. The slopes of these mountains are cool and suitable for settlement.

v. **Tourism development:** rocks have formed relief landforms which provide a fascinating scenery and as a result, they have attracted tourism in these areas. Good examples are inselbergs, volcanic plugs, stalactite and stalagmites, exfoliation domes and coral reefs

vi. **Source of Energy :** some energy sources like lignite coal, bituminous coal, anthracite coal and natural gas are extracted in sedimentary rocks around the world. These minerals have been instrumental in spurring development where they are discovered.

vii. **Chemical industries:** some rocks have got chemicals like salts, nitrate, phosphates and potash and Sulphur. These chemical are used in making the manufacturing of dyes, fertilizers and medicines

3.2.2. Negative impact of rocks

- The fertility of soils depends on the nature of parent rock from which it is weathered. When certain rocks are weathered, they produce poor infertile soils which are porous in nature and cannot enhance agriculture. A good example is quartz that weathers to give rise to sandy soils.
- Weathered limestone rock produce poor soils with limited water retention capacity which limits farming
- Some rocks are very hard and brittle and they cover extensive areas. These rocks discourage mechanical agriculture because they destroy farm implements like tractors. Some massive lava flows are also difficult to break using ordinary farming tools hence rendering farming activities difficult.
- Engineering and construction works are also rendered difficult by some hard igneous rocks like batholiths, dykes and sills. In some places, breaking these rocks to pave way for road construction may require use of explosives which is very expensive.
- Rocks also limit surface drainage in some areas. When a rock is permeable, it leads to the absence of drainage features like rivers, swamps or wetlands. This is because as it rains, water percolates through the permeable rocks and sinks in deeper layers of the crust. Such areas always lack streams or rivers. This is rampant in porous volcanic areas.
- In other places especially limestone areas, some rivers disappear leading to the emergence of dry valleys.

- It is also important that the quality of water depends on the nature of the rock through which a stream flows. In some places water tends to be hard because of the presence of soluble calcium carbonate.
- High mountains formed from volcanic rocks act as barriers to rainfall on the leeward sides.
- These dry conditions on the leeward side of the highland make agricultural activities difficult.
- In some places, rocks have created a negative impact especially where different types of landslides have occurred. Rock fall involving the falling of large boulders and rock slide have caused accidents, blocked roads and sometimes have led to loss of life and property.



APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Take a tour around your school, identify and record different types of rocks.

Discuss the importance of the rocks identified.



3.1. SKILLS LAB

Take a field trip around your college, where quarrying or mining is taking place and identify different rock strata and types of rocks quarried. Can you categorize these rocks? What evidences are there to confirm that the rocks are sedimentary, igneous or metamorphic?



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Define a rock and give three major types of rocks
2. Explain the formation processes of igneous rocks
3. Describe how metamorphic rocks are formed and give examples of these rocks.
4. Discuss the role of rocks in economic development of Rwanda.



UNIT 4

SOILS

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to explain the processes responsible for soil formation, causes and effects of soil erosion, and suggest measures for soil conservation.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

Soil is defined as the thin upper layer of earth in which plants grow, a black or dark brown material typically consisting of a mixture of organic remains, clay, and rock particles. Soil is formed through various ways due to the influence of various factors. However, due to soil erosion, it can be degraded. It is the responsibility of human being to manage and conserve soils.

1. Explain the factors responsible for soil erosion.
2. Suggest solutions to soil erosion.
3. Identify areas with severe soil erosion in the country.
4. Analyze the appropriate soil management and the conservation measures.

4.1. Factors favouring the formation of the soils



4.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, maps of soils and the photographs to research on the factors favouring the formation of soils.

Soil is defined as the thin upper layer of earth in which plants grow, a black or dark brown material typically consisting of a mixture of organic remains, clay,

and rock particles. Soil is one of humankind's most important natural resources because all food production and many other human activities depend on it.

Soil formation is influenced by both natural and human factors. They are parent rock, climate, living organisms, topography, human activities and time. They are described below.

4.1.1 Parent rock

The parent rock is the rock material that breaks down to form soil particles. Parent rocks differ in terms of structures; some are hard while others are soft. Therefore, they are weathered at different rates. The rate of weathering of a parent rock also differs according to whether it has or does not have joints. Joined rocks are more susceptible to weathering and readily break down to give rise to soil particles.

The colour of the parent rock also determines the rate at which it absorbs heat, expands and contracts and therefore breaks down. Soil formation is likely to be faster on dark coloured rocks, compared to shiny ones which reflect heat. The composition of a rock directly determines the nature of the soil nutrients. For example, a quartz rock leads to the formation of sandy, porous soils, while a limestone rock leads to the formation of soils rich in lime. Weathering of laterite yields thin skeletal and poor laterite soils.

4.1.2 Climate

Through elements of climate mainly rainfall and temperature, climate influences the soil formation. Rain provides water which is the prerequisite for chemical weathering processes which leads to rock decomposition hence the formation of soils. Furthermore, high temperatures speed up the rate of chemical reactions. Because of this, soil formation in hot climates is faster than in cold regions.

4.1.3 Relief or topography

Topography also affects soil formation. It determines the rate of erosion of the surface rocks. Steep slopes are often more susceptible to erosion than gentle ones. This implies that there is a more rapid loss of nutrients on steep slopes compared to gentle ones. This explains why only shallow, skeletal soils can form on steep slopes. Although steep slopes are associated with thin soils, they are also associated with rapid rates of soil formation because the rate of exposure of the parent rock to agents of weathering is high. Gentle slopes tend to have deep, mature and well developed soils because the rate of removal of

soils is low and the rate of deposition is high. Flat landscapes are susceptible to leaching therefore; poor soils tend to develop over such environment.

4.1.4 Living organisms

Vegetation and the activities of animals and bacteria determine the organic content of soil, along with all that is living in soil (algae, fungi, worms, and insects). The chemical composition of the vegetation contributes to the acidity or alkalinity of the soil solution. For example, broadleaf trees when decomposed tend to increase alkalinity whereas needle-leaf trees tend to produce higher acidity. Also decay of plants and animals supply the soil in humus and nutrients. Animals contribute to soil development through breaking down of vegetation and rocks into small particles that form the soil. The figure below represents the diversity of life in fertile soil that contributes to soil formation and recycling.

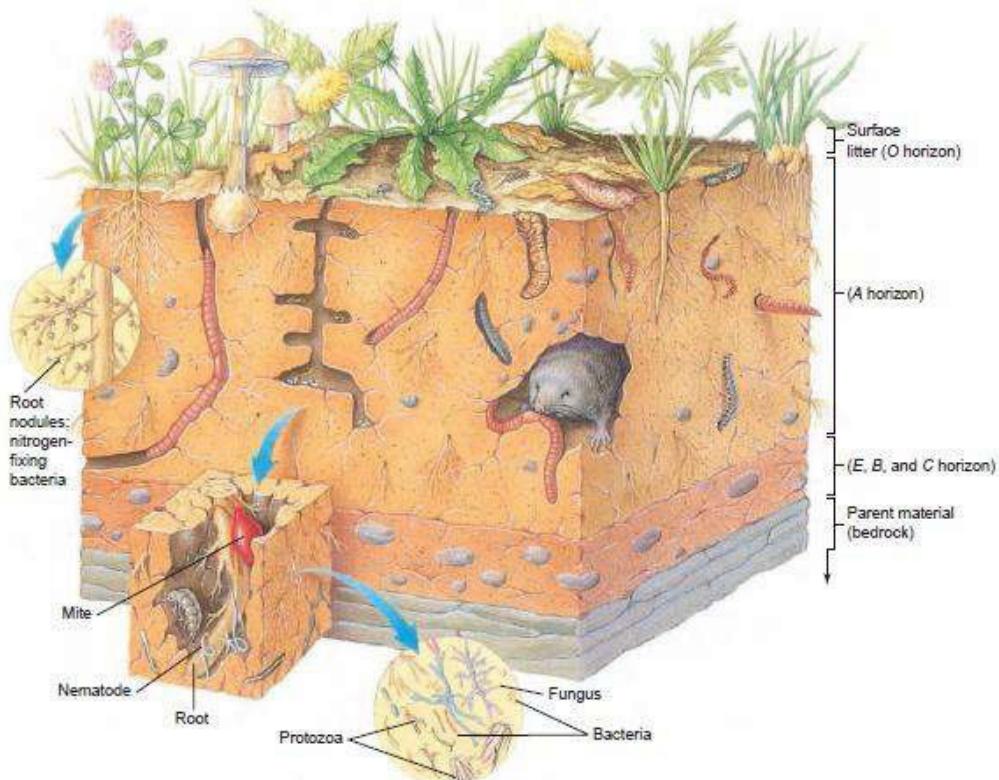


Figure 4. 1: Living organisms

4.1.5 Time

All of the identified natural factors in soil development (parent rock, climate, biological activity, and topography) require time to operate. If the parent

rock has been exposed to weathering for a long time soil formation will be complete compared to another rock that has been exposed to weathering for a comparatively shorter period. This implies that the longer the duration of interaction, the more developed and mature the soils will be.

4.1.6 Human activities

Human intervention has a major impact on soils: The use of fertilizer changes the natural properties of soils. Farming activities by use of heavy machinery causes soil compaction. This hinders water seepage and consequently soil development is hindered. Man cuts the vegetation (deforestation) hence reducing humus formation and consequently affecting the type of soil that develops. Mining activities allow water to percolate deeply hence weathering the bedrock. Reclamation of land leads to formation of waterlogged soils e.g. peat soil. Construction works and settlement require cementing and tarmacking of the foundations. This reduces soil permeability and water seepage thus limiting chemical weathering of the parent rock and premature soils.



4.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Visit your local area and describe the factors for soil formation.

1. Use the acquired knowledge from the above lesson and explain how different factors, namely climate, living organisms, parent rock, relief, time and human influence soil formation.
2. Which of the above processes (in 1 above) are the most predominant? Justify your answer.

4.2. Soil erosion



4.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, maps of soils and the photographs to research on the causes and effects of soil erosion.

Soil erosion refers to the removal of top soil by agents of weather such as running water, glaciers, winds, animals and man.



1. Observe and explain the phenomena that occurred in the above photograph.
2. Explain the cause of the phenomenon shown on the photograph

4.2.1 Causes of soil erosion

4.2.1.1 Human made causes

- **Overgrazing**

This is the major cause of erosion in pastoral areas; it is caused due to overstocking of domesticated animals like cattle, sheep and goats. When these animals eat plants over a long time, they expose areas of soil which are often subsequently removed by wind or rain action, bush burning or over cultivation.

- **Deforestation**

Because of population increase, there is great pressure on forests in order to get cultivable land and land for settlement. The high demand for fire wood and charcoal both in rural and urban areas has posed a great threat on the natural forests. This has led to wide scale deforestation hence exposing the soil to rain and surface run off which erodes away the top soil.

- **Bush burning**

It is done in the dry season in nomadic areas, with the aim of improving the quality of pasture which will grow during the next rainy season. This instead destroys the soil cover, makes the soil exposed to all agents of erosion.

- **Over-cultivation of the land**

Ploughing disrupts the soil. Every year, the world population increases by 93 million people and they need more food. Therefore, farmers plough more

fields to produce more food. This increases pressure on our soil resources. Ploughing soil is the mechanical turning and loosening of soil to improve it for crops. Ploughing) soil removes the plant cover that holds soil particles in places, leaving soils open to wind and water erosion. This makes the land lose its fertility and becomes exhausted.

- **Rapid population increase**

Today there is population explosion in most areas of the world especially in less developed countries. There is massive human pressure on land, vegetation in search of food, this leads to the removal of vegetation cover which accelerates soil erosion.

- **Uphill and downhill cultivation**

This refers to cultivation of strips of land up and down a slope. In this kind of ploughing, fields are longer up and down a slope than they are across the slope. This provides an open ground, long enough for runoff to gather momentum enough to erode soil. These strips become man-made channels which can be enlarged into gullies by surface run-off.

- **Construction works**

Through the construction of roads, railways and housing complexes, reasonable forest areas are cleared. This produces gorges, quarry sites, and steep sided hills are dissected by roads and railways. This thus accelerates the speed of runoff and exposes the soils to agents of erosion.

4.2.1.2 Natural causes

- **Heavy rainfall**

This is common in hilly areas where the speed of surface run off is high than infiltration . Rain drop washes away the top soils to the valleys.

- **Drought**

The current climatic change has resulted into limited vegetation or no vegetation cover. This makes the soil to be exposed to the agents of erosion (wind and moving water).

- **Winds**

Wind takes away the top soil in areas with limited vegetation cover and trees which would act as wind breakers. This is common in arid and semi- arid areas which experience high temperature and too much sunshine.

- **River and wave action**

Shore lines of lakes and oceans as well as banks of rivers are eroded by the waves and running water respectively. This accelerates the rate of erosion

- **Steep slopes**

This has accelerated the rate of surface run off hence leading to soil erosion in highland areas in the world.

4.2.2 Effects of soil erosion

The following are the effects of soil erosion:

- **Limited mechanized agriculture**

The use of modern machines like tract or sis made difficult because of gullies which affect their movement in farms, this in turn affects crop production.

- **Destruction of crops**



Figure 4.42: Destruction of crops by soil erosion

Soil erosion destroys crops on farm yards. The eroded materials destroy the wind erosion destroys the growing crops especially in hilly areas and at times transport them to the lower valleys. This is common in the northern province of Rwanda.

- **Low soil productivity**

Soil erosion leads to the loss of soil nutrients which in turn affects the yields. The bare soil in hilly slopes can no longer support crop production.

- **Famine**

Soil erosion leads to vegetation destruction and this affects rainfall formation. This phenomenon

limits agricultural productivity hence famine.

- **Change of the Landscape**

It changes the landscape appearance and natural beauty of the areas affected because of presence of landslides, gullies and rills.



Figure 4.43: Change of landscape

Landslide in Gakenke district (© Manirakiza Vincent)

- **Siltation**

The eroded materials at times are deposited on people's land or along riverbanks. Such silt displaces people and destroys their property. This is common in flat lands adjacent to hilly areas.

- **Flooding**

Floods cause great damages on communities and individuals. As most people are well aware, the immediate impacts of flooding include loss of human life, and damage to property, destruction of crops, loss of livestock, and deterioration of health conditions owing to waterborne diseases.



Figure 4. 44: Flooding

- **Destruction of transport system**

Roads are greatly destroyed because of soil erosion that results into gullies. These gullies are caused by surface run off in the affected areas. This limits movement of people, goods and services and requires urgent rehabilitation. This affects government 's budget.

- **Desertification**

Soil erosion depletes the vegetation cover which would act as a source of convection rainfall. Thus causes semi-arid conditions of climate to develop.



Figure 4.45: Desertification. This land was affected by erosion due to deforestation

Source:<https://www.bing.com/search?view=0pmabxaDi8zbFpgHaE&mediaurl=https%3a%2fdesertification.files.wordpress.com%2f2015%2fdeforestation-impact-soil-erosion->



4.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. With clear examples, explain how human activities contribute to soil erosion.
2. Justify how heavy rainfall and wind can cause soil erosion.
3. Examine the effects of soil erosion.

4.3 Areas of severe soil erosion



4.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, maps of soils and the photographs and describe areas of severe soil erosion.

The following are areas of severe soil erosion:

- **Mountains and highlands with very steep slopes**

Surface water run off occurs whenever there is excess water on a slope that can not be absorbed into the soil or is trapped on the surface. Reduced infiltration due to soil compaction, crusting or presence of steep slopes increases the run off. Run off from agricultural land is greatest during rainy months when the soils are typically saturated.



Figure 4. 45: Mountains and highlands with very steep slopes

The steep relief accelerates the rate of surface runoff hence leading to soil erosion. This is common in volcanic and hilly areas. Severe erosion occurs in these areas because the speed of surface runoff is too high and takes away the top soil.

- **Glaciated highlands**

Moving ice and glacier on the major highlands carries away large quantities or eroded soil in form of moraine. This is deposited at the base of mountain and on out wash plains. Severe erosion by glaciers and melt water is common on most high and steep glaciated mountains.

- **Desert and semi-desert areas**

Soil erosion, is severe in desert areas because of limited vegetation cover. Very strong winds blow off the unconsolidated soil and attaches it from the ground. Soil is relocated elsewhere by strong winds where it is carried and deposited in other areas. This phenomenon is common in desert areas.



Figure 4. 46: Desert and semi- desert areas



4.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain the reasons why hilly lands are commonly affected by erosion.
2. Describe how desert is risky to soil erosion

4.4 Appropriate soil management and the conservation measures



4.4. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, media etc. to research on soil conservation and soil management and answer the following question:

1. What is the difference between soil conservation and soil management?
2. Identify any 3 examples of soil conservation measures.

- **Soil conservation:** it refers to the prevention of soils from erosion, degradation or loss of fertility while soil management refers to all the measures put in place to ensure proper use of soils in a sustainable manner.

Soil erosion and depletion are the major threats to soil as a resource. Therefore, sound farming techniques must be employed to prevent soil erosion and impoverishments, and to ensure that agriculture is more profitable in the world, the following should be done:

- **Mulching:** This method consists of covering the bare ground with a layer of organic matter such as straw. This helps to maintain soil moisture and limit rapid evaporation.



Figure 4. 47: Mulching

- **Crop rotation:** This is done to avoid the effects of monoculture and add mineral salts to soil, hence improving soil cohesion and reducing soil erosion.

- **Contour ploughing:** This method prevents excessive soil loss, as gullies are less likely to develop and also reduce run-off so that plants receive more water. Row crops and small grains are often planted in contour pattern so that the plants can absorb much of the rain, and erosion is minimized
- **Terrace farming:** This method is practically used on the steep slopes to avail enough flat land to grow. It is best way to reduce surface run off and soil erosion.

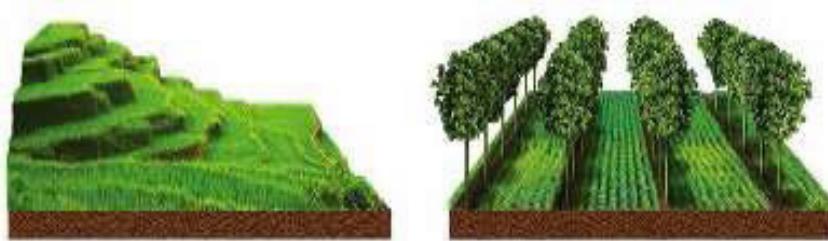


Figure 4.48: Terrace farming

Terracing - Agro-forestry

- **Intercropping method.** It consists of growing different crops in alternative rows and sown at different periods to protect the soil from rain-wash.
- **Fallowing:** Sometimes it is very important to allow a farmland to rest or lie fallow, so that the natural forces can act on the soil. Fallowing also increases the sub-soil moisture and improves the general structure of the soil.
- **Zero grazing:** Reducing the number of animals grazing in an area according to the carrying capacity of land.
- **Afforestation:** It is a process of planting trees in a virgin land without any trees to create a forest. Trees as wind breaks are planted and they reduce the speed of wind hence reducing soil erosion.
- **Growth of cover crops:** This is used in gentle area to reduce splash erosion and surface run off e.g. the growth of Pumpkins and Yams in Buganda.
- **Education and mass mobilization:** this can be done through education of farmers and pastoralists about the causes and effects of soil erosion, and how to avoid them. This should also be done through agricultural seminars, radio programs, and demonstration farms.



4.4. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain how terracing and mulching prevent soil from erosion.
2. Discuss the role of education in fighting against erosion.



SKILLS LAB

Observe the following image and apply the activity that follow:



By using the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values that you have about soils use plastic bottle, bucket or old sack, sample of soils, vegetables or flower siblings and glove and make a bottle/sack or bucket garden in your school compound.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Explain and 5 causes of soil formation.
2. Examine the causes of soil erosion in your region and describe its effects.
3. Describe any 4 soil management and conservation measures applicable to your region.

UNIT 5

WEATHER AND CLIMATE IN THE WORLD

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to appreciate the importance of the atmosphere, weather and the impact of climate on the environment and human activities in the world.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

Using the geographical documents, textbooks, internet, maps and photographs:

- a. Give the difference between the weather and climate.
- b. Explain the importance of Atmosphere
- c. Examine the influence of climate on the environment and human activities.

5.1. Definition of the atmosphere, weather and climate and the structure of the atmosphere



5.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use a geographical documents and internet and explain the following terms: Weather, climate and atmosphere and make a vertical representation of the atmosphere.

5.1.1. Definition of atmosphere, weather and climate

i. Atmosphere

The atmosphere is a mixture of gases surrounding the earth and retained by the force of the earth's gravity. It is an envelope of gases surrounding the earth. It contains the gases that support all forms of life on earth. This envelope of air is dense at the sea level. It thins out with increase in altitude.

ii. Weather

Weather can be defined as the state of the atmosphere at any given time. This state is about temperature, atmospheric pressure, wind speed and direction, moisture, cloud cover, precipitation, and sunshine. Weather keeps changing all the time. The change is from hour to hour and day to day.

Weather is also defined as the condition of the atmosphere at a particular place over a short period. Weather changes from time to time. The weather can be windy, cloudy, sunny, hot etc. Elements of weather include temperature, rainfall, humidity, air pressure, sunshine, winds and cloud cover. Weather involves the behavior of all above elements at a place and a particular time.

Weather is measured from a weather station. A weather station is a place where the elements of weather are measured and recorded. Some of weather recording instruments like thermometers are kept in a Stevenson screen, which is special double boarded, louvered and wooden box in which thermometers, are hung at weather station. Steven screen is designed in special way as follow:

- It is painted white to reflect heat,
- It is placed on stands about 120 cm above the ground. This is to ensure that air pressure is measured or to tap freely the moving wind,
- It has louvers (wooden) to protect the thermometers from direct sun rays and allow free circulation of air,
- It is made of wood because wood is a poor conductor of heat,
- The roof is double boarded to prevent the sun's heat from reaching inside the screen,
- It is placed away from buildings or tree shades,
- The screen is also placed on grass covered surface to minimise radiation from the earth's surface.

Weather recording instruments include:

Instruments	Elements of weather recorded
1. Maximum and minimum thermometers	Temperature
2. Rain gauge	Rainfall
3. Wind vane	Wind direction
4. Sun shine recorder (Campbell's Stokes apparatus)	Hours of sun shine
5. Barometer	Air pressure
6. Hygrometer	Humidity
7. Anemometer	Wind Speed

III. Climate

Climate is an average weather conditions of a place measured, recorded, studied and analyzed over a long period of time 30-35 years. It is measured by assessing the patterns of variation in temperature, humidity, atmospheric pressure, precipitations, wind speed and direction.

The elements of weather and climate: Weather and climate are made up of many elements. The main ones are temperature, precipitation, wind, atmospheric humidity, clouds, sunshine and atmospheric pressure.

5.1.2 The structure of the atmosphere

The atmosphere is a mixture of various gases surrounding the earth. It provides all gases that are essential for sustaining all life forms on the earth. Based on temperature variation, the atmosphere is made up of four layers: the troposphere, the stratosphere, the mesosphere and the thermosphere.

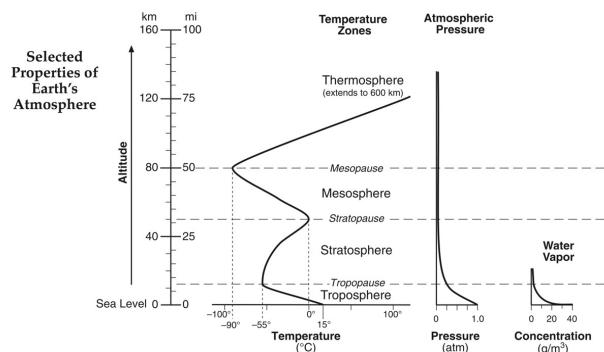


Figure 5.49: The structure of the atmosphere

The structure of the Atmosphere

i. Troposphere

This is the lowest layer of atmosphere, extending from the earth's surface to a height of about 8 km at the poles and 18 km at the equator. Temperature, within this layer, generally falls by 0.65° per 100m of ascent with increasing altitude up to the upper limit, the **tropopause**. The troposphere is the most important because all the elements of weather and weather phenomena occur in this layer (e.g. evaporation, condensation, and precipitation of different forms like fog, cloud, dew, frost, rainfall, snowfall, thunder, lightning, atmosphere storms, etc.). This layer contains about 75% of gaseous mass of the atmosphere, most of water vapour, aerosols and pollutants.

Briefly, troposphere is characterized by the following:

- It is the lowest layer of the atmosphere.
- The upper limit of the troposphere is called the tropopause.
- The temperature decreases with altitude at the rate of 6.5°C per 1km/ 1000m
- The atmospheric pressure decreases also with altitude and reaches to 100 millibars and 250 millibars over the equator and poles respectively at tropopause.
- It lies between 10 km and 20 km above the sea level.
- All weather phenomena occur in this layer. These are evaporation, condensation and precipitation. Condensation is the conversion of vapour or gas into a liquid of different forms. Precipitation is water that falls to the ground as rainfall, snow or hail.
- The height of tropopause is 17 km over Equator and 9 to 10 km over the poles.
- The higher one goes, the cooler it becomes. The decrease in temperature with height is called the environmental **Lapse rate**.
- The reasons why temperature decreases in troposphere with height:
- **Effect of terrestrial radiation:** The earth emits back parts of the solar radiation into the atmosphere. The radiation definitely reduces as the distance away from the ground increases.
- **The effect of adiabatic compression:** The atmospheric pressure is highest on the surface and reduces away from the surface. The atmospheric pressure compresses air molecules and increases molecular activity. The air molecules in high pressure surface regions give high temperature than the areas high in atmosphere.

- **The role of man activities:** Industrialization, bush burning, the use of automobiles increase temperature on the earth.
- **Solid nature of the earth** stores more heat than the atmosphere
- **Abundance of water vapor** in the atmosphere which absorb heat than high troposphere.

ii. Stratosphere:

The stratosphere is the layer which is extending from 16 to 50 km above the sea level.

It is characterized by the following:

- There is increase of temperature due to absorption of ultraviolet solar radiation by ozone layer and lesser density of air and the presence of many solid components (dust, smoke, ash, salt) which act as obstacles to solar radiation.
- There is nearly absence of weather phenomena because of dry air and rare occurrence of clouds.
- The lower portion of the stratosphere having maximum concentration of ozone is called **ozonosphere**, which is confined between the heights of 15 to 35 km from sea level. Depletion of ozone would result in the rise of temperature of the ground surface and lower atmosphere. The main causes of ozone destruction are halogenated gases called chlorofluorocarbons (CFCs: chlorine, fluorine and carbon). Ozone layer depletion results to global warming, acid rain, melting of continental glaciers and rise in sea level, skin cancer, poisonous smoke, decrease in photosynthesis, ecological disaster and ecosystem instability.
- The upper limit of the stratosphere is known as stratopause.

iii. Mesosphere

- The mesosphere extends between 50 km and 80 km.
- Temperature decreases as height increases. In fact, the rise of temperature with increasing height in the stratosphere stops at the stratopause.
- The temperature decreases in altitude because this layer is almost empty of components which would capture solar radiation.
- At the uppermost limit of the mesosphere (80 km), the temperature drops at -80° C and may go down as low as -100° C to $-133^{\circ}\text{ Celsius}$ at mesopause.

- This layer is characterized by very low air pressure ranging between 1.0 millibar at 50 km altitude representing stratopause, and 0.01 millibars at the mesopause (between 90 and 100 km).

iv. Thermosphere

It extends from 80 km to 640 km. It is composed of ***Ionosphere*** and ***Exosphere***.

a. The ionosphere consists of the following ionized layers:

- D layer: reflects low-frequency radio waves but absorbs medium and high-frequency waves. Being closely associated with solar radiation, it disappears as soon as the sun sets.
- E layer: The E-layer is also called the Kennelly-Heaviside layer. It reflects the medium and high-frequency radio waves. It is much better defined than the D layer. It is produced by ultraviolet photons from the sun rays interacting with nitrogen molecular. This layer also does not exist at night.
- Sporadic E-layer: This layer occurs under special circumstances. It is believed that this sporadic layer is caused by meteors and by the same processes that cause aurora lights. This layer reflects very high frequency radio waves.
- E2 layer is generally found at the height of 150 km and is produced due to the reaction of ultra-violet solar photons with oxygen molecules. This layer also disappears during the night times.
- F layer consists of two sub-layers e.g. F1 and F2 layers (150 km-380 km) are collectively called the Appleton layer. These layers reflect medium and high frequency radio waves back to the earth.
- G layer (400 km and above) most probably persists day and night but is not detectable.

b. The exosphere represents the uppermost layer of the atmosphere. The density becomes extremely low. The temperature reaches 5568° C at its outer limit, but this temperature is entirely different from the air temperature of the earth's surface as it is never felt. The atmosphere above the ionosphere is called the outer atmosphere and it is made of exosphere and the magnetosphere.



5.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. What is atmosphere?
2. Differentiate weather from climate.
3. Use a diagram to represent the vertical structure of atmosphere.
4. Why does temperature reduce with an increase in altitude?

5.2. Composition and importance of the atmosphere



5.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use the geographical documents, textbooks, internet, maps and photographs to describe the composition and importance of atmosphere.

5.2.1. *Composition of atmosphere*

Basically, the atmosphere is composed of three major constituents, namely: **gases, water vapour, and aerosols**. These constituents of the atmosphere are either permanent (Nitrogen Oxygen, Argon, Carbon dioxide, hydrogen, neon, Helium, Krypton, ozone and Xenon) or temporary constituents include solid (dust, smoke, salt and volcanic ash), liquid (water vapour) and gaseous.

i. Gases

The main gases are shown in the table below:

Name	Formula	Volume in %
Nitrogen (N_2)	(N_2)	78.1
Oxygen (O_2)	(O_2)	20.9
Argon (A_1)	(A_1)	0.93
Carbon dioxide (CO_2)	(CO_2)	0.03
Neon (Ne)	(Ne)	0.0018
Helium (He)	(He)	0.0005

Methane (CH_4)	(CH_4)	0.0002
Krypton (Kr)	(Kr)	0.00011
Nitrous oxide	N_2O	0.00005
Hydrogen (H_2)	(H_2)	0.00005
Xenon (X_2)	(X_2)	0.0000087
Ozone (O_3)	(O_3)	-

The following are the most important components of the atmosphere:

1. **Nitrogen**, which is about 78.1% of the total gases. Nitrogen is for all life forms. It is an important part of amino acids which make up proteins.

Nitrogen (N) is one of the building blocks of life: it is essential for all plants and animals to survive. Nitrogen (N₂) makes up almost 78.1% of our atmosphere. Humans and most other species on earth require nitrogen in a “fixed,” reactive form.

Life depends on nitrogen, which is a basic ingredient in amino acids that make up all proteins. While a substantial percentage of the atmosphere is comprised of nitrogen gas, it must be processed into a soluble form. This is done via a nitrogen cycle that occurs in the soil. Then plants and the animals that eat them can obtain dietary nitrogen.

Plants with nitrogen deficiencies look weak. Their leaves, which should be healthy and green, may look wilted and yellow. Animals and people get dietary nitrogen by eating protein-rich foods like milk, eggs, fish, beef and legumes. Nitrogen, carbon, hydrogen and oxygen are found in amino acids, which are the main structures of every protein.

The nitrogen cycle involves:

- Transfer of atmospheric nitrogen into soils (known as nitrogen fixation);
 - Mineralization, nitrification and transfer of nitrogen from soils to plants.
 - Denitrification and return of nitrogen to the atmosphere. It helps the oxygen in combustion; it also helps indirectly in oxidation of some elements.
2. **Oxygen**: This makes up 20.9% of gases in the atmosphere. The molecular oxygen (O_2) mostly occurs up to the height of 60 km in the lower

atmosphere. It is produced through photosynthesis. This is the process by which green plants use sunlight, carbon dioxide and water to make their own food. It is one of the main elements that make up air, and it is necessary for the survival of all plants and animals e.g. animals breathe in oxygen.

3. **Carbon dioxide** represents 0.03% of the total atmospheric gases. The gaseous carbon (CO_2) plays two significant roles:
 - Carbon dioxide helps in the process of photosynthesis where carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen are combined by the autotrophic green plants of terrestrial and marine ecosystem. This is assisted by sunlight that enables the formation of the organic compounds.
 - Carbon dioxide is transparent to incoming shortwave solar radiation. It is opaque to outgoing long wave terrestrial radiation. It is evident that carbon dioxide is most significant greenhouse gas. The concentration carbon dioxide increases due to the anthropogenic activities, namely the burning of fossil fuels and wood and deforestation which lead to probable climate change through global warming.
4. **Ozone (O_3)**: It is defined as “a three-atom isotope of oxygen (O_3) or merely a triatomic form of oxygen (O_3). It is formed with the separation of (O_2). Then, these separated oxygen atoms (O) are combined with Oxygen molecules (O_2) and thus ozone (O_3) is formed. It is a life-saving gas because it filters the incoming shortwave solar radiation and absorbs ultraviolet rays. Therefore, the ozone layer protects the earth from becoming too hot. It is known as the earth’s umbrella to all organisms in the biospheric ecosystem against their exposure to ultraviolet solar radiation. The highest concentration of ozone is between the altitudes of 12 km and 35km in stratosphere; the said zone is also called ozonosphere.
5. **Water vapour**: Liquid water turns into vapour through the process of evaporation. The content of water vapour decreases with the altitude in the atmosphere. More than 90% of the water vapour in the atmosphere is found up to a height of 5 km. The moisture content in the atmosphere creates clouds, fogs, rainfall, frost, snowfall and other forms of precipitation.
6. **Aerosols**: These are suspended solid particles and liquid droplets. These particles are from various sources like volcanic eruptions, desert dust, spores and pollen. The concentration of these particles decreases with increasing altitude in the atmosphere.

5.2.2. Importance of the atmosphere

The atmosphere is important for the following reasons:

- It protects living things from harmful ultraviolet rays of the sun. This role is played by the ozone layer.
- The atmosphere protects the earth from receiving too much radiation from the sun and reduces its harmful effects.
- It helps to regulate the heat during the day and night. On earth, however, molecules in the atmosphere absorb the sun's energy as it arrives, spreading that warmth across the planet. The molecules also trap reflected energy from the surface, preventing the night side of the planet from becoming too cold.
- The Earth's atmosphere protects and sustains the planet's inhabitants by providing warmth and absorbing harmful solar rays.
- The atmosphere traps the sun's energy and sends off many of the dangers of space.
- It provides the various gases that are useful to living things. These include oxygen.
- It provides precipitation that helps to sustain life on earth.
- The atmosphere is made of gases that are essential for photosynthesis and respiration, among other life activities.
- The atmosphere is a crucial part of the water cycle. It is an important reservoir for water and the source of precipitation.
- The atmosphere moderates Earth's temperature because greenhouse gases absorb heat.
- Atmosphere contains the oxygen and carbon dioxide, which living things need to survive.
- The atmosphere also serves an important purpose as a medium for the movement of water. Vapour evaporates out of oceans, condenses as it cools and falls as rain. Hence, providing life-giving moisture to otherwise dry areas of the continents. Without an atmosphere, it would simply boil away into space, or remain frozen in pockets below the surface of the planet.
- The atmosphere separates the earth from the space and thus, hot meteors do not hit the ground all the time.



5.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain why the atmosphere should be protected.
2. Make a brief description of the composition of the atmosphere.

5.3. Types of climate and their characteristics



5.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use textbooks, maps and internet to explain the types of climate and their characteristics.

Climates are classified according to the average and the typical ranges of different variables, most commonly temperature and precipitation. There are three world climatic zones. These are: Tropical, Temperate and Cold zones.

5.3.1. Tropical zones

5.3.1.1 Equatorial climate.

Equatorial climate is also called **tropical wet climate or tropical rainforest climate**. It is found along the equator extending from 5° to 10° South and North latitudes. Along the Eastern margin of continents, it spreads to 15° - 25° of latitudes. This type of climate is found specifically in the following regions:

- The Amazon River Basin in South America
- The Congo Basin and Guinea coast in Africa
- Malaysia, Indonesia and the Philippines Islands in South-Eastern Asia
- Eastern and Central America (parts of Panama, Costa Rica, Nicaragua, Honduras, British Honduras and Guatemala), some islands in the Western Colombia
- Coastal lowlands of Eastern Brazil
- Eastern Madagascar.

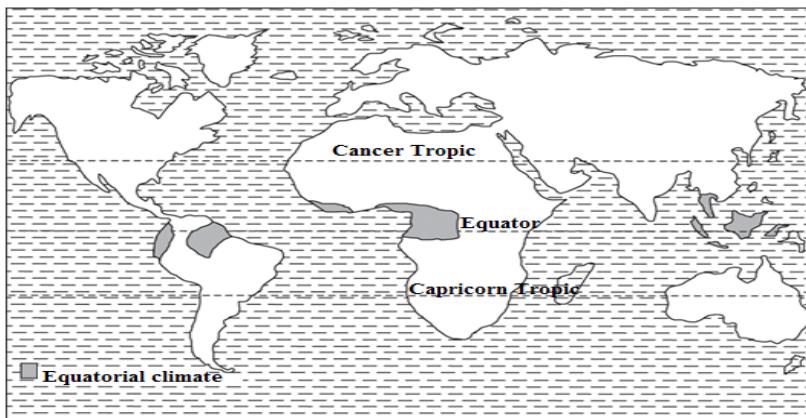


Figure 5. 50: Equatorial climate

Climatic characteristics of equatorial region

- This climatic region is located within 5° North to 10° South of the Equator.
- The average monthly temperatures are over 18°C. However, many places record average monthly temperatures of 24° to 27°C.
- The Equatorial regions lie in a belt where the winds are light. It is a low-pressure belt.
- The annual range of temperature is very small (the difference between the highest and the lowest temperatures) varies from 5° to 8°C.
- The equatorial regions get heavy precipitation throughout the year. Many areas receive 2000 mm of the rain per year. The annual average rainfall in the equatorial climate is nearly 2500 mm.
- There is a large amount of cloudiness.
- Conventional rainfall is received, and it is usually accompanied by thunderstorms.
- High temperatures and heavy rainfall encourage growth of natural vegetation. There are evergreen dense forests.

Below there is an example of Singapore weather station:

Singapore weather station

Months	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D	Annual mean
T°C	26.4	26.9	27.5	27.5	27.8	27.5	27.5	27.2	27.2	26.9	26.9	26.9	27
P(mm)	399	221	157	139	112	95	100	187	167	206	120	235	2 0 3 8 (total)

5.3.1.2 Tropical marine climate

It is found on the East coasts of regions lying between 10° N and 25° N and 10° S and 25° S of the equator. These areas come under the influence of on-shore Trade Winds. Examples are East coast of Brazil, the Eastern coastlands of Madagascar, Mexico, Nicaragua, Guatemala, Venezuela, the lowlands of Central America, West Indies, the coast of Queensland (Australia) and the southern islands of the Philippines.

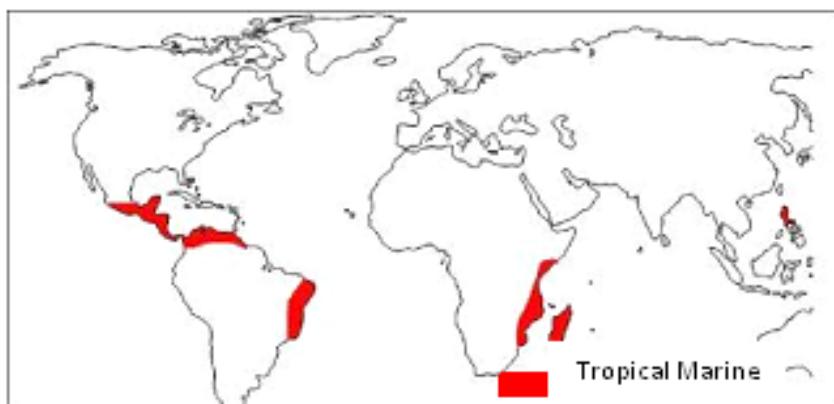


Figure 5. 51: Tropical marine climate

Tropical marine/maritime climate

Climatic characteristics of Tropical maritime/maritime climate

- The annual temperature range is about 8°C.
- Temperatures reach 29°C during the hot season while it is about 21°C during the cold season,
- Annual rainfall varies from 1000 mm to 2000 mm.
- Rainfall received is both convection and orographic brought by onshore Trade Winds.
- Humidity is high throughout the year.
- Sea breezes lessen the effects of the heat.
- Tropical maritime climate is good for tree growth. The lowlands have tall and evergreen trees.

Cameroon weather station

Month	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
T°C	24	24.5	25	24	23.5	23	22	22.5	22.5	22.5	22.5	23
P(mm)	9	40	50	207	187	120	150	78	282	264	160	5

5.3.1.3 Tropical continental climate

This climate occurs between 5° N and 15° N and 5° S and 15° S. It is in West, East and Central Africa, South America, parts of the Deccan plateau (India) and the areas to the north and east of the Australian Desert.

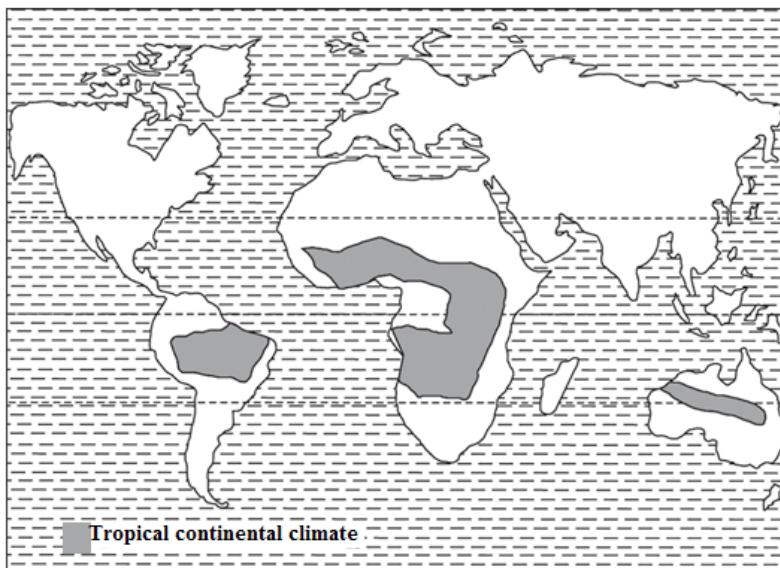


Figure 5. 52: Tropical continental climate

Tropical continental climate

Climatic characteristics of Tropical continental climate

- Heavy convectional rainfall is mainly in the summer.
- Annual rainfall is about 765 mm.
- In some regions, the offshore winds are strong and hot. An example is the Harmattan of West Africa.
- Humidity is high during the hot, wet season.
- Summers are hot (32° C) and winters are cool (21° C).
- The annual temperature range is about 11°C. The highest temperatures occur just before the rainy season begins. This is in April in the northern hemisphere and October in the southern hemisphere.

5.3.1.4 Savannah climate (Tropical wet-and-dry climate)

This is located between 5° and 20° latitudes on either side of the Equator. It is found in Latin America. These are the Llanos of the Orinoco Valley including Colombia and Venezuela, the Guyana Highlands and the Campos of Brazil.

In Africa, it is found in the South of the Congo basin, the Southern part of Democratic Republic of Congo, Angola, Zambia, Mozambique, Tanzania, Uganda, Botswana, South-Western Madagascar, Central Nigeria, Southern Kenya, Togo, Ghana and Ivory Coast.

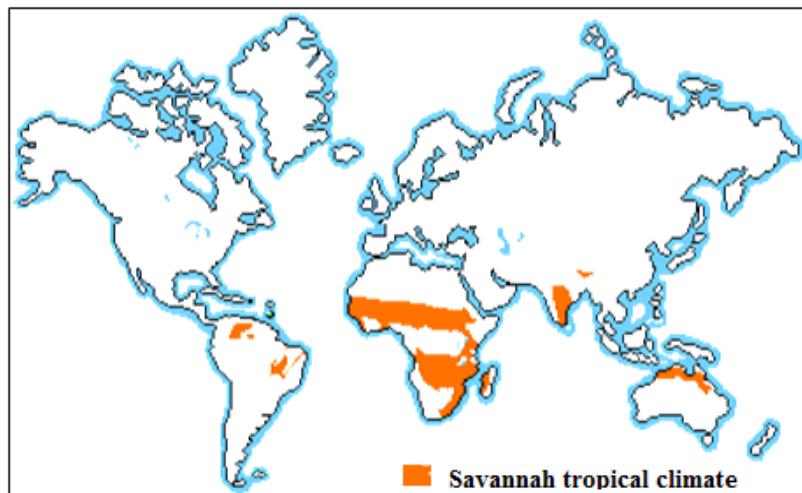


Figure 5. 53: Savannah climate (Tropical wet-and-dry climate

Savannah Tropical climate

Climatic characteristics of Savannah Tropical climate

- High temperature of around 20°C.
- The annual range of temperature is greater than in the equatorial regions. It is over 3° but not more than 8°C.
- Total annual average precipitation varies from 1000 mm to 1500 mm. Much of the rain falls during the summer.
- The vegetation is grasslands with scattered trees and bushes.

5.3.1.5 Tropical desert climate

Most of these deserts lie between 15° to 35° N and S. The hot desert climate is found in the following deserts: Atacama (the coastal deserts of Peru and Chile in South America), the Namib and Kalahari deserts of coastal Angola and South West Africa, interior part of Botswana and South Africa, the great Australian desert, the Sahara and the Arabian deserts, the Iranian desert, the Thar desert of Pakistan and India, California (USA) and the deserts of Northern Mexico.

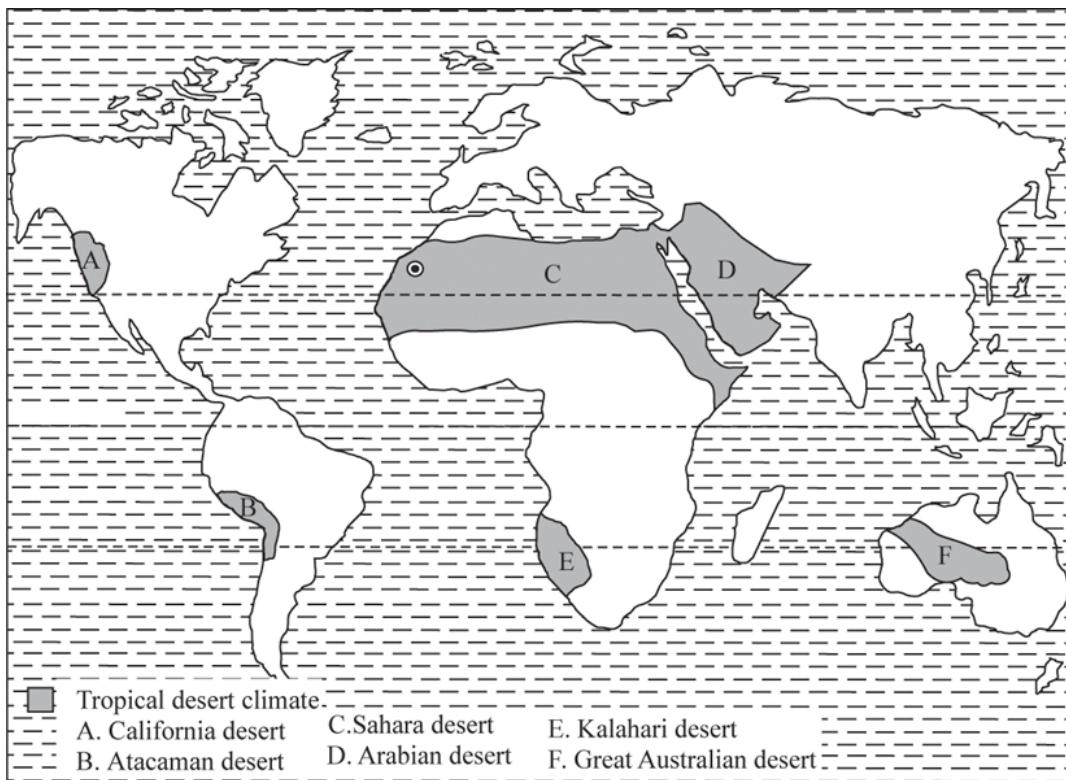


Figure 5.54: Tropical desert climate

Tropical desert climate

Characteristics of Tropical desert climate

- Hot deserts have the highest temperatures recorded.
- They have cloudless skies and little or no water vapour.
- The daily ranges of temperature vary between 22° to 28° C. In rare cases, the diurnal range may be as high as 41.7° C.
- The annual average precipitation is less than 250 mm.
- Relative humidity is high.
- There is little plant cover.

Below is an example of Khartoum (Sudan) weather station:

Khartoum (Sudan) weather station

Month	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
T°C	22.5	23.5	27.5	30.7	33.1	33.3	30.8	29.4	30.9	31.4	27.5	23.7
Pmm	0	0	0	1	5	7	48	72	27	4	0	0

5.3.1.6 Tropical Monsoon Climate

This is found in areas with seasonal land and sea winds. On-shore summer winds blowing from over tropical warm Oceans bring about heavy precipitation. Off-shore winds from over the land make the weather dry during winter.

Monsoon climate is found in the coastal areas of Eastern and Southern Asia. These places include India, Burma, Bangladesh, Indo-china, Southern China, and Philippines, Taiwan, Japan and Korea.

In tropical Africa, it is found along the South-West coast of West Africa. These areas include the coasts of Guinea, Sierra Leone, Liberia, and Ivory Coast.

Other areas are the Northeast coast of Latin America from the mouth of Orinoco River in Eastern Venezuela through Guyana, Surinam and French Guyana to the North-Eastern part of Brazil. The North coasts of Puerto Rico and the Dominican Republic in the Caribbean Islands which have a mild monsoon climate.

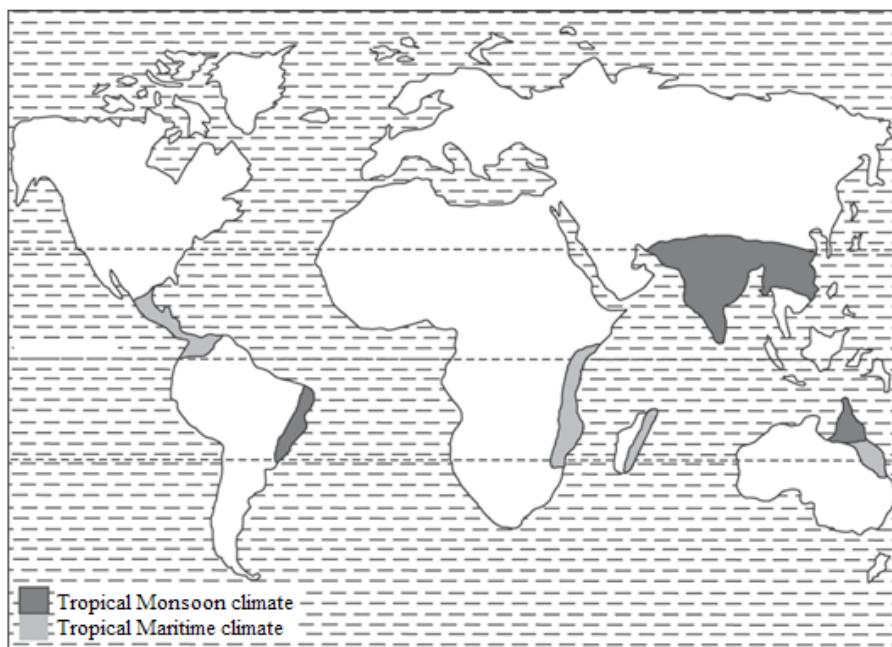


Figure 5. 55: Tropical Monsoon Climate

Tropical monsoon climate

Characteristics of Tropical monsoon climate

- High temperatures (32°C) in the hot season (summer) and low temperatures (15°C) in the cold season (winter).

- High annual range of temperatures of about 17°C.
- Summers receive high rainfall of up to 2500 mm.
- The winters are dry.
- There is a reversal of winds. In one season they blow from sea to land (onshore). These bring heavy rainfall. In the other season, they blow away from the sea (offshore), such come along with little rain.

Cherrapundji (India) weather station.

Month	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D	Annual
T°C	12	13	17	19	19	20	20	20	20	19	16	13	17
R (mm)	20	41	179	605	1705	2875	2455	1827	1231	447	47	05	11437

5.3.2 Temperate zone

5.3.2 1 Mediterranean Climate

Mediterranean climate is found between 30° and 40°N and S of the equator. This is on the western sides of the continents. This climate is found in five regions of the world:

- North of the Mediterranean Sea from Portugal to Turkey and beyond in the Iranian Highlands, Morocco, Northern Algeria, and Tunisia, and North of Bengasi in Libya.
- The central and Southern California coast in the United States of America.
- Central Chile.
- The Cape Town area of South Africa, and
- Southern Western coasts of Australia.

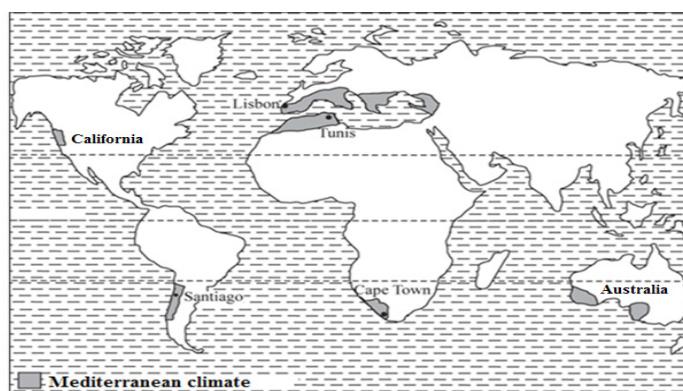


Figure 5. 56: Mediterranean Climate

Mediterranean climate.

Characteristics of Mediterranean climate

- The average temperature of the coldest month is between 4.4°C and 10°C. That of the hottest month is between 21°C and 27°C.
- The mean annual temperature ranges are between 11°C and 17°C.
- The average annual precipitation is between 350 and 750 mm.
- There is rain in winter while the summers are dry.

Below there is an example of Algiers (Algeria) weather station:

Algiers (Algeria) weather station

Month	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
T°C	11.9	13	14.2	16.1	18.8	21.9	25	25.3	23.8	20.3	16.9	13.1
R (mm)	107	90	89	59	33	15	2	7	29	80	117	137

5.3.2 2 Temperate Maritime Climate

This type of climate is found between 40° and 65° N and S of the equator. These are regions to the West of continents.

It is mainly found in Western Europe including Great Britain, North Western France, Germany, Denmark, Holland, Belgium and Norway.

In North America, it is found along the West coast up to 60° N of the equator. It borders the Sub-Arctic climate of Canada and Alaska. In Europe, it extends along the west coast of Norway to 68° N.

In the Southern Hemisphere, it is found to the Southwest coast of Chile, Southeast coast of Australia, the islands of Tasmania and New Zealand.

Below there is an example of Brest (France) weather station:

Brest (France) weather station

Month	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D
T°C	6.7	7.2	8.3	10.9	13.3	16.2	17.9	18.1	16.3	12.8	9.3	7.2
R (mm)	84	75	57	54	49	49	51	53	54	78	91	96

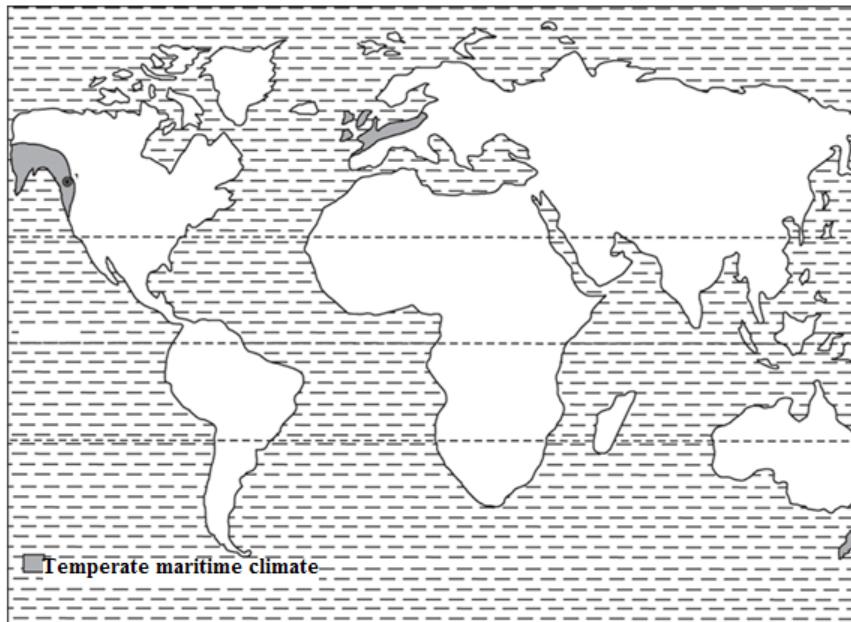


Figure 5.57: Temperate Maritime Climate

Temperate maritime climate

Characteristics of Temperate Maritime climate

- Temperatures are influenced by the warm Ocean currents.
- This climate has cool summers and mild winters.
- The annual range of temperature is about 7° C.
- Average temperatures in summer are between 15° C and 18° C. Winter temperatures range between 11° and 17° C.
- In Europe, the lowlands receive an average precipitation of 500 mm to 850 mm. On the windward side, it is between 2500 mm and 3750 mm.

5.3.2.3 Continental Temperate climate

This type of climate occupies a large part of the United States of America. In Europe, it is found in Romania and Bulgaria. It occupies the lower Danube Valley.

In Eastern Asia, it is found in North China bordering the yellow Sea, North and South Korea, and Northern Honshu in Japan.

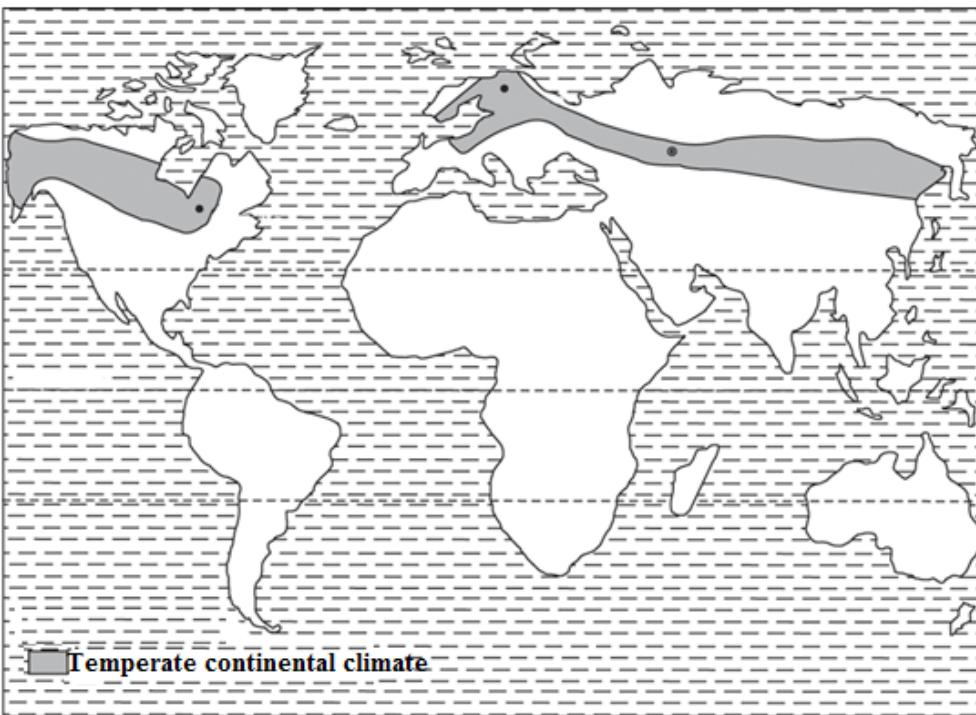


Figure 5. 58: Continental Temperate climate

continental temperate zone

- Temperate continental climates are found on continents in the Northern Hemisphere between 40°-70°
- Climate in these areas is controlled by the fact that they are not located near Oceans where temperatures are moderate.
- Temperate continental climates are also called micro thermal climates, because they are located away from the Oceans. These climatic zones experience the extremes of temperatures.
- Summers are warm and can be very humid while winters are cold with snowstorms and blustery winds.
- The annual average temperatures are around 10° C.

5.3.3 Cold zone

5.3.3.1 Polar and Tundra climate

The Tundra climate is found in the northern hemisphere beyond 60° N of the equator. These are areas to the North of Asia and Canada. It also occurs on the coast lands of Greenland. Polar climate is found in Greenland, interior of Iceland and in the Antarctica.

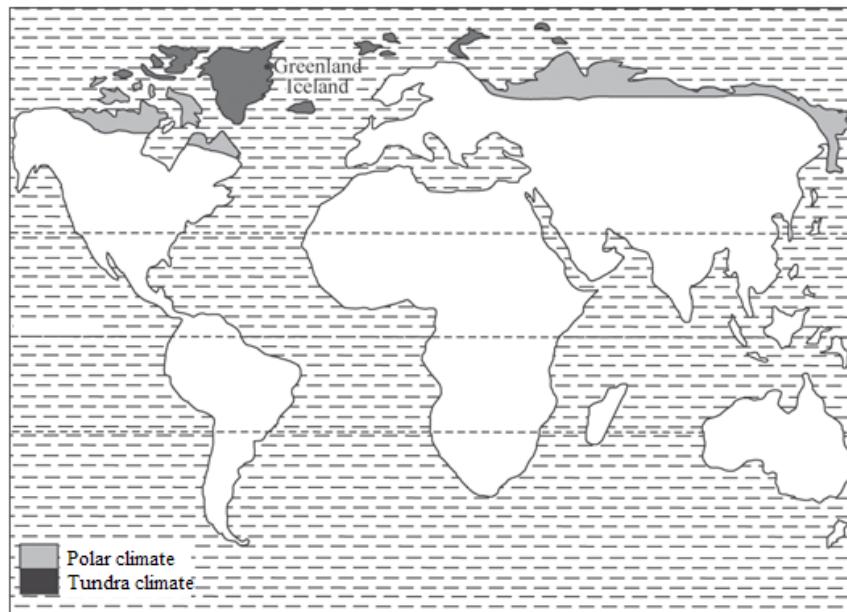


Figure 5.59: Polar and Tundra climate

Polar and Tundra climate

Characteristics of Tundra climate

- The average annual rainfall is 250 mm.
- Precipitation is in the form of snow in winter and rainfall in summer.
- Humidity is low because of low temperatures.
- Winter temperatures are low. They range from - 29°C to 4°C. Summer temperatures average about 10°C.
- Vegetation consists of mosses, lichens and dwarf trees and shrubs. It is called tundra vegetation.

Characteristics of Polar climate

- Temperatures are always low. They are below 0°C, which leads to snow.
- Precipitation mainly occurs in summer. It averages between 100 mm and 250 mm.
- Winters are associated with one continuous night. Summers are one continuous day.
- Blizzards are common. These are snowstorms with high winds. Visibility is low.
- There is hardly any vegetation. This is because of snow and ice cover.

5.3.3.2 Mountain climate

This type of climate is found in the mountain ranges of the world. These include Mt. Kenya, the Ethiopian Highlands and the Alpine ranges of Europe. Others are the North Western part of Rwanda, especially over volcanic region, the Andes of South America and the Rockies of North America.

Characteristics of Mountain climate

- High rainfall on the windward slopes. It is less on the leeward slopes,
- Orographic rainfall is received,
- Pressure and temperature decrease with altitude,
- But if the mountains are high enough, there is a height at which maximum precipitation occurs and above which it decreases,
- It is also characterized by strong local winds (mountain and valley breezes).



5.4. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Draw a world sketch map and on it mark and label the equatorial climate.
2. Describe the characteristics of the zone shown on that sketched map.

5.4. Influence of the climate on the human activities



5.5. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Some areas are good for agricultural activities and animal rearing, while others are good for fishing, tourism and others. Use different geographical documents and describe the relationship between climate and human activities.

Climate influences the distribution of population. This is because of temperature conditions, amount of precipitation and length of crop growing season.

The relationship between climate and human activities is summarized below:

- i. **Human activities in equatorial regions:** Heavy rainfall and high temperatures support growth of forests. The main human activities are lumbering and agriculture. Lumbering is the cutting down of trees and making them into timber. Crops such as coffee grow well in this type of climate. Tourism is also developed in this area due to natural forest.
- ii. **Human activities in savanna climate:** This type of climate is good for agriculture and dairy farming. There is enough grass for the animals. Growing of vegetables is done in this type of climate.
- iii. **Human activities in desert climate:** The high temperatures and low rainfall are not supportive for agriculture. Animal keeping is also not well developed only camels, goats and sheep are kept in such type of climate. Furthermore, it is only around the oases that some farming is done. An **oasis** is a fertile spot in the desert where water is found. Growing of crops is done by irrigation. However, mining activities are done in some deserts for instance gold is extracted in West Australia; diamonds in the Kalahari and petroleum in Algeria, Libya, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Iran and Iraq.
- iv. **Human activities in temperate climate:** This type of climate is suitable for agriculture and livestock keeping. Most developed countries are in this type of climate. These zones have high population.
- v. **Human activities in polar climate:** The main activities in this zone are the fishing, hunting of seals in Greenland and tourism in Arctic Circle. Few people are found here.
- vi. **Human activities in mountain climates:** Due to rainfall in the windward, the main activities in this zone are agriculture (maize, wheat, coffee, and pyrethrum), tourism, animal rearing and mineral exploitation.



5.5. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Consider one climatic area and describe the main economic activities suitable for the region.



SKILLS LAB

Use a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values you have acquired about types of climate and their characteristics and draw a world sketch map describing different climatic zones and their characteristics. Make a 5 minutes class presentation.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. With aid of a diagram describe the structure of atmosphere.
2. How is atmosphere important for human life?
3. What are the instruments used to measure and record weather conditions (rainfall, temperature, wind direction, humidity and sunshine)?
4. Describe the characteristics of equatorial climate.
5. “Human activities depend upon climate and weather conditions of an area” with relevant to specific examples, support this statement.



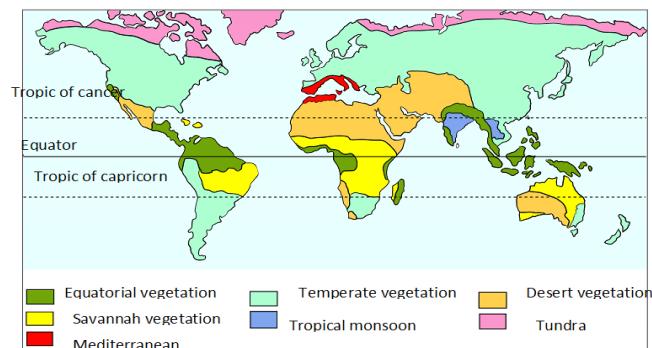
UNIT 6

NATURAL VEGETATION OF THE WORLD

Key unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to appreciate the distribution of different types of vegetation in the world.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY



1. Identify the different types of natural vegetation shown on the map provided above.
2. Describe the factors influencing their distribution.
3. Why is it important to conserve natural vegetation and how can we preserve our natural vegetation?

Vegetation refers to a community of plants which grow in an area and which gives it distinct character. In biological terms, vegetation is known as "flora", that is all vegetation types growing on land and in water. The world vegetation communities are in two categories: forests and grasslands. They are distributed according to the vegetation zones and they include tropical, temperate, tundra, desert, mountain and aquatic/marsh or mangrove vegetation.

6.1. Tropical forests and their characteristics



6.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Observe the photograph provided below and answer the questions that follow:



1. Describe the characteristics of the vegetation presented on the photograph above.
2. What type of vegetation shown on the photograph above basing on the characteristics described in (1) above?
3. Identify and describe different types of tropical forests.

Tropical vegetation develops within the tropics. Tropical vegetation can be sub-divided into three, but related groups. These include equatorial rainforests, tropical monsoon forests and tropical mountain forests.

6.1.1. Equatorial forests

The equatorial rainforests grow within the tropics between 10 °N and 10 °S near the equator. Equatorial rainforests are sometimes called “**rainforest**” and equatorial rain forests cover only a small part of the earth’s surface, which is about 6% of the earth’s surface. They are situated in Amazon basin in South and Central America, Congo basin in Central Africa, Malaysia and Burma in the west to Malaysia, West Africa coastal belt (Nigeria, Ghana, Ivory Coast, Liberia and Central Africa Republic).

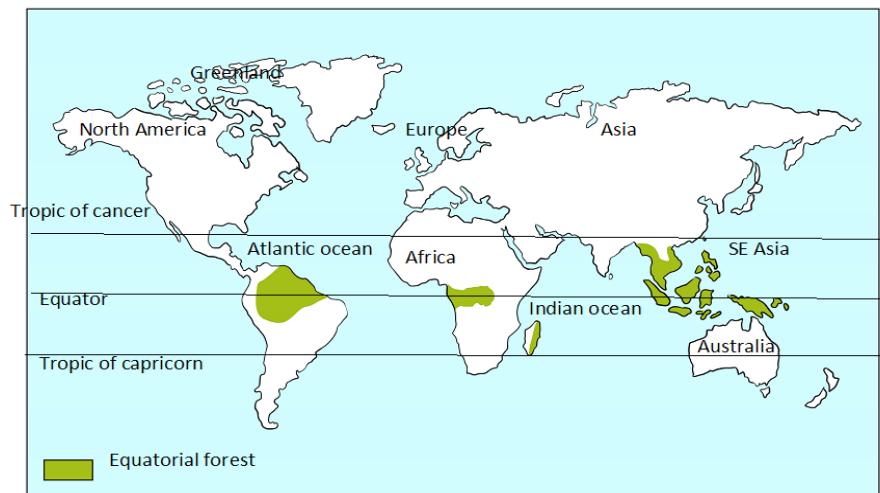


Figure 6: 60: Equatorial forests.

Equatorial rainforests are characterized by the following:

- They are evergreen, since the forests receive heavy rainfall throughout the year with no clear distinct seasons.
- They grow buttress roots in order to support their enormous sizes.
- The major tree species in equatorial are hardwood trees which are characterized by long gestation period.
- The vegetation in equatorial regions are characterized by different canopies or layers.
- Equatorial rainforests are dominated with valuable tree species such as mahogany, ebony, green heart and redwood.
- The forest floor receives only 2% of the sunlight. This has led to the existence of little undergrowth.
- The trees are very tall (35 m - 40 m) with a very dense and thick canopy. The result is that the canopy blocks most of the sunlight falling on them depriving the plants under them of sunlight. Therefore, the trees in Equatorial rainforests become tall due to competition for light.
- Most trees are broad-leaved evergreen. This allows excessive rates of transpiration in equatorial rainforests.
- Trees grow in mixed stands. The different species are scattered all over the forest.
- There is high accumulation of undergrowth. This is due to the existence of canopies that limit the penetration of light to reach the ground.

6.1.2. Tropical Monsoon forests

The Tropical Monsoon Forests beyond the equatorial region between 10° and 25° north and south of the equator. Burma, Thailand, the Indo-China region, parts of India, East Java, parts of northern Australia, small parts along the southern west coast of West Africa especially in Senegal and low land.

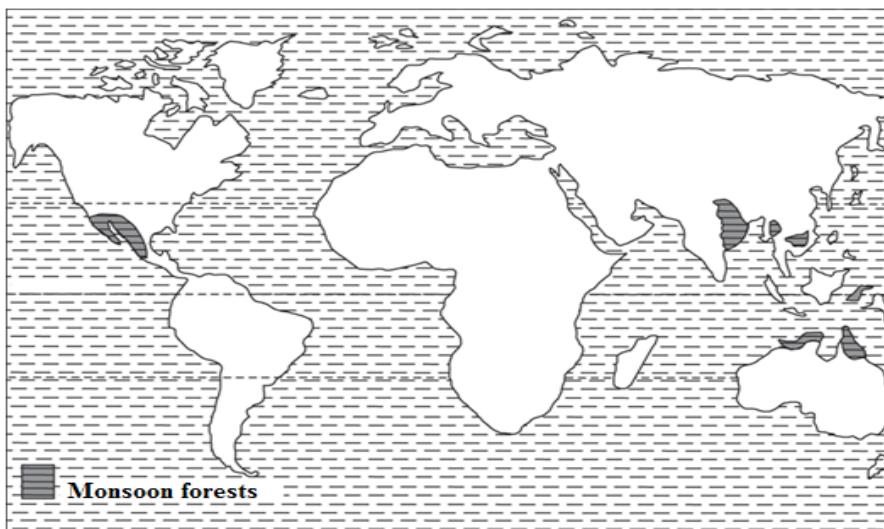


Figure 6. 61: Tropical Monsoon forests.

Tropical monsoon forests are characterized by the following:

- The trees possess trunks that they use to store water during the dry seasons.
- The tropical monsoon forests can grow up to 30 metres in height.
- Trees possess long tap roots that penetrate into the ground to access groundwater. In order to sustain plants' growth, especially during the dry winter season when there is unreliable rainfall.
- Tropical monsoon forests shade off their leaves during the dry seasons in order to minimize water loss.
- Trees have broad leaves due to sufficient rainfall (2000 mm) received during the wet season.
- Tropical monsoon forests contain valuable hard wood tree species such as the teak and sandalwood.
- Tree canopy from 25 to 30 m tall and grow closely together to form a continuous canopy layer. Epiphytes and lianas and parasitic plants are found on the canopy.

6.1.3. Mountain tropical forests

The tropical mountain forests are mainly located at a high altitude in the mountains and usually vary largely along the slopes of Himalayas Mountain and East Africa Mountain peaks of Rwenzori, Kenya and other good are located in Cameroon Mountains, Central Africa and Ethiopia Highlands. At the altitude trees grow in plenty of higher slope between 1,500 meters to 3,500 meters and dominate the mountain forest, the evergreen trees like Teak, Bamboo and can grow abundantly and dominate the natural vegetation.

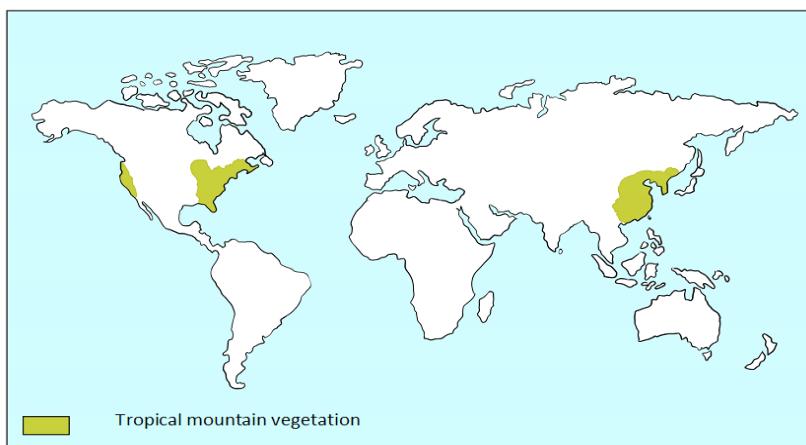


Figure 6. 62: Tropical Mountain forests.

Mountain forests have the following characteristics:

- Mountain forests grow broad leaves and they are evergreen;
- Mountain forests grow thick under growth;
- The forests contain giant evergreen trees that grow on the windward slopes of the mountain;
- The main tree species are characterized by long gestation period;

6.2 Temperate forests

The temperate forests are categorized into 3 categories that include: deciduous forests, Mediterranean forests and coniferous forests.

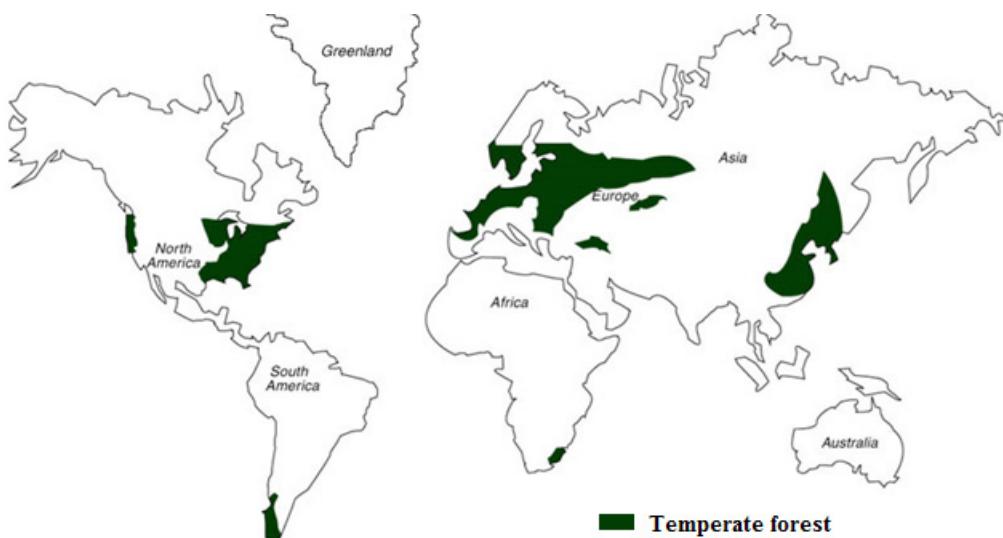


Figure. 6. 63: Temperate forests.

The characteristics of temperate forests.

- With high levels of precipitation, humidity, and a variety of deciduous trees.
- Temperate trees are trees that lose their leaves in winter.
- Trees shed their leaves in fall and bud new leaves in spring when warmer temperatures and longer hours of daylight return.
- Temperate forests are the tall evergreen trees dominating the regions.
- Redwood trees are the tallest in the world, reaching heights above 360 feet.
- The most prominent tree in temperate forest is the Douglas fir, that growing 280 feet tall.
- Temperate forest the mature species of cedar and spruce trees typically exceed 200 feet.
- Epiphytes are mostly species of mosses and ferns that live on the branches and trunks of trees, especially the broad-leaved maples.
- Temperate forests have many species of large ferns inhabit the shady forest floors.
- Temperate forests can get from 60 to 200 inches of precipitation annually.

6.2.1. Mediterranean forests

The Mediterranean forests are located mainly in south-west America, Spain, Italy, France, Australia, Mediterranean Sea, Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, and Central Chile. Mediterranean forests grow also well on the tip of South Africa near Cape Town.

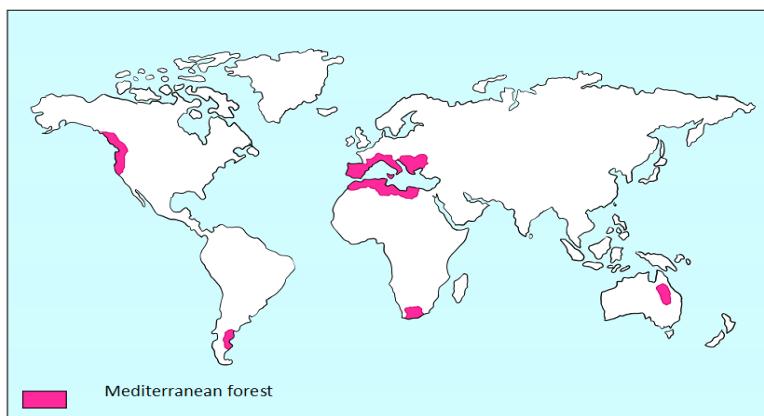


Figure 6. 64: Shows Mediterranean forests

The characteristics of Mediterranean forests are:

- Trees species in the Mediterranean deciduous forests have broad leaves.
- Mediterranean vegetation is characterized by open and evergreen woodlands.
- Mediterranean vegetation has impassable thicket with thin and waxy leaves.
- The scrubs are known by different names in different localities e.g. *Maquis* in southern Europe, *Chapparal* in California, *Fymbos* in South Africa, *Mallee shrub* in Australia, *Mattoral* in Spain and *Macchia* in Italy.
- There is inadequate undergrowth.
- There is generally composed of broadleaf trees, such as the oak and mixed sclerophyll forests.
- dense vegetation composed of broad-leaved evergreen shrubs, bushes, and small trees usually less than 2.5 m (about 8 feet)
- Tall trees and growing in regions lying between 30° and 40° north and south latitudes.
- Trees, even fully grown, are often stunted.

- Woody, evergreen shrubs or small trees prevail, having developed various strategies of growth and usage of available water during the dry period.
- Mediterranean deciduous tree species have a long gestation period.
- Mediterranean plants have long taproots to reach underground water, called “Xerophytic Plants”.
- Mediterranean trees adapt themselves to dry summers with the help of their thick barks and wax coated leaves, which help them reduce transpiration

6.2.2. Coniferous forests / Taiga Forest

The coniferous forests are located. They are pretty much across North America, Europe, and Asia, usually extending from 50° to 60°N. The coniferous forest is the largest terrestrial vegetation covering about 17% of Earth's land area. Canada, Russia, and Scandinavia are almost entirely covered by these coniferous forests. The vegetation is identified by its climate, which occurs almost exclusively in the high latitudes of the northern hemisphere.

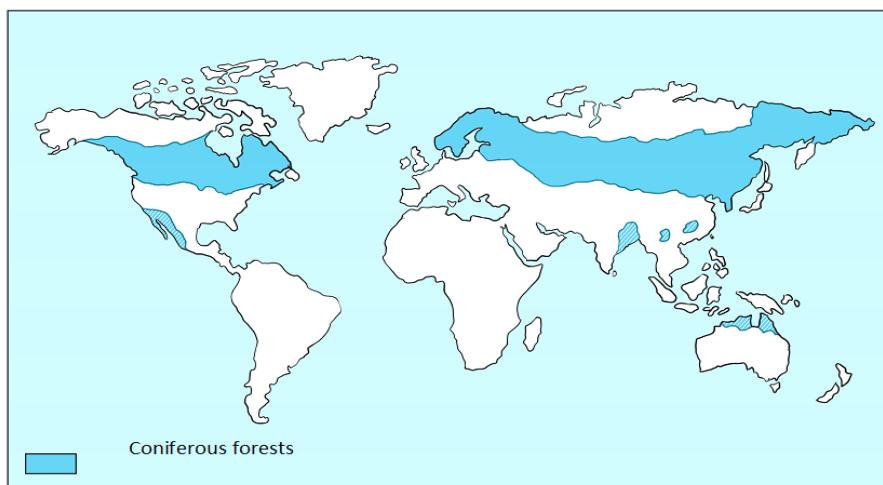


Figure. 6.65: Coniferous forests / Taiga Forest.

The characteristics of coniferous forests are:

- The coniferous forests consist of tall, softwood evergreen trees.
- The limited species of trees and these trees are evergreen and grow apart from each other;
- The coniferous tree species grow tall, straight and contain few branches.
- The type of these coniferous forests grow in pure stands;

- Trees are conical shaped with needle shaped leaves. These include chir, pine, cedar are the important variety of trees in these forests;
- The tree species often grow to a height of over 30m (100ft) tall;
- Coniferous tree species grow shallow roots and able to collect enough water from top soil;
- Roots are shallow enable to absorb the nutrients and water on the top soil;
- Adapted in harsh winter even the ground is frozen, little water is available still can survive;
- Leaves are small, narrow and often needle with the capacity of reducing transpiration

6.2.3 Deciduous forests

Deciduous forests grow well within the latitude of 40° N and 60°N and 30° S and 50°S of the equator. Deciduous forests can be found in the eastern half of North America, and the middle of Europe. There are many deciduous forests in Asia. Some of the major areas that they are in are southwest Russia, Japan, and eastern China. South America has two big areas of deciduous forests in southern Chile and Middle East coast of Paraguay. There are deciduous forests located in New Zealand and southeastern Australia also.

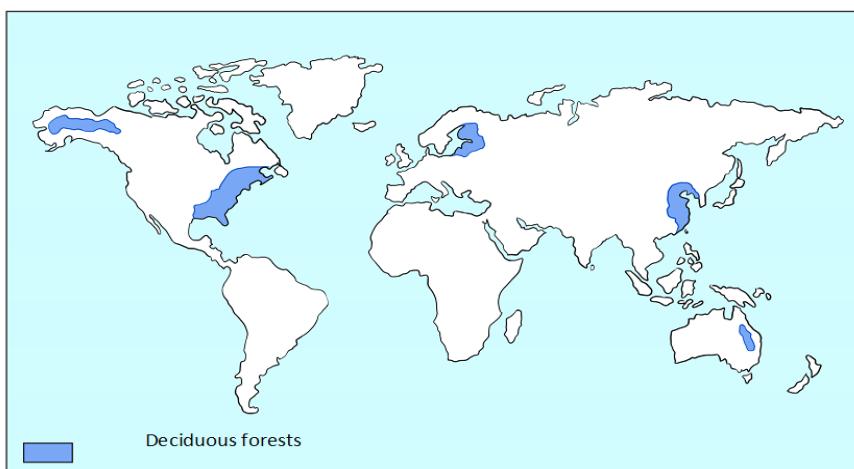


Figure 6. 66: Deciduous forests.

The characteristics of deciduous forests are:

- These regions experience seasonal changes. Trees shed their leaves in the dry season to conserve water.

- Deciduous forests are characterized by existence of epiphytes, which include mosses.
- Trees like sandalwood, teak, ebony, bamboo, etc. are the common trees found here.
- Deciduous forests have a short growing gestation
- Deciduous forests grow in pure stands.
- Deciduous forests require low sunshine supply.
- There are at times hard wood forests species such as maple, oak, beech and hazel.



6.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Describe briefly different types of temperate forests.

6.3. Grasslands

Grasslands include two types: tropical grasslands and grasslands in temperate zone.

6.3.1. Tropical grasslands



Figure 6.67: Tropical grasslands

Tropical grasslands are commonly known as savannah vegetation. Tropical grasslands grow well within altitude of 5° N and 15° N and 5° S and 15° S of the equator. Tropical grasslands grow well in Africa, South America specifically in Campos in Brazil". They can also be found in Guyana, Australia, Eastern

Madagascar and India. Tropical grassland is divided into two groups: Savanna and steppe.

i. Savannah humid

Savannah humid forests grow well in regions with average rainfall total at high 1000 mm per year. Mambo woodlands of central Tanzania as examples of savannah woodlands in East Africa. Other examples of savannah humid also found in Madagascar, Indian subcontinent, south East Asia and New Guinea.

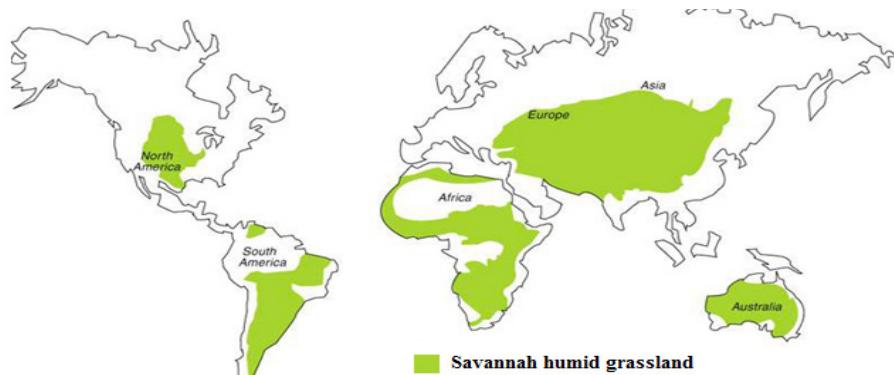


Figure 6. 68: Savannah humid.

The characteristics include the following:

- The trees species are deciduous, and shade leaves during the dry periods.
- The vegetation's are mostly shrub and short grass.
- The species of trees such as baobab and acacia are mostly common in area.
- The trees grow in arrangement of constant cover.
- The grass can grow very tall, about 3 to 4 meters in height, which is also known as "elephant Grass".
- Near riverbanks and water holes, trees are and which are deciduous in nature, e.g. Acacia, baobab, etc.
- The vegetation is characterized by undergrowth of mainly shrub and short grasses.
- The acacia tree species in the savannah woodlands form small umbrella -like tops
- The trees species are deciduous and shade -off leaves during the dry season.

- The tree species such as the acacia and baobab are more dominant in savannah humid.
- Plant has yellow or white flowers and can grow over six feet tall.
- The non-thorny trees, baobab, candelabra, and the Jackal berry tree are found on the African grasslands.

ii. Steppe/ Savannah dry

Savannah dry covers almost half the surface of Africa (central Africa) and large areas of Australia, South America, and India. Climate is the most important factor in creating a savanna. Savannas are always found in warm or hot climates where the annual rainfall is from about 50.8 to 127 cm (20-50 inches) per year. It is crucial that the rainfall is concentrated in six or eight months of the year, followed by a long period of drought when fires can occur.

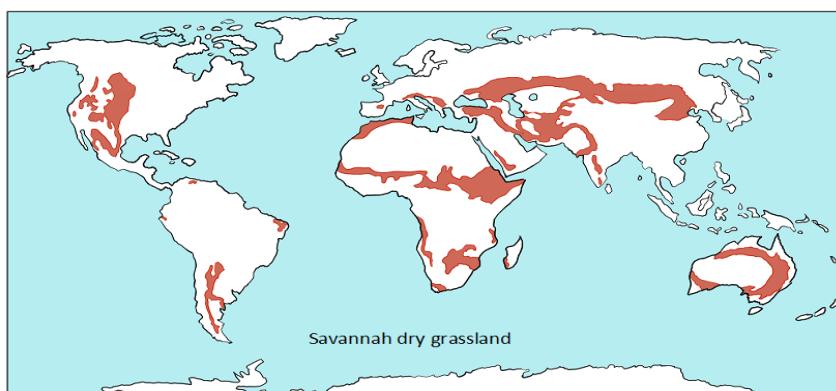


Figure 6. 69: Steppe/ Savannah dry.

The main characteristics of Savannah dry are:

- Trees may facilitate grass growth by improving the biophysical or biogeochemical conditions for herbaceous growth.
- The trees grass growth through direct competition for water, light and nutrients.
- The open canopy allows sufficient light to reach the ground to support an unbroken herbaceous layer consisting primarily of grasses.
- Annual herbaceous plants die completely at the end of the growing season or when they have flowered and fruited, and they then grow again from seed.
- The vegetation consists of tall grasses and scattered trees.
- The grasses are usually two meters high or more.

- The trees are mainly found near watercourses. The main types of tree species are acacia;
- Some trees lose their leaves in the dry season.
- Some plants have thick barks and thorny leaves to reduce water loss.

The Savannah dry /steppe are associated with various economic activities include hunting, fruit of gathering, rearing of animals, settlement patterns, agriculture and gazetting of national park and game reserves.

6.3.2 Grasslands in temperate zone

Temperate grasslands are known by different names in various regions. “**Prairies**” in North America; “**Pampas**” in South America (Argentina), “**Downs**” in Australia “**Velds**” in South Africa and “**Steppes**” in Europe. These are found in the mid- latitudinal zones and in the interior part of the continents. Central Asia from Black Sea to Central Russia, North Central USA and Southern Canada, South-East Australia, Southern Africa and Argentina.

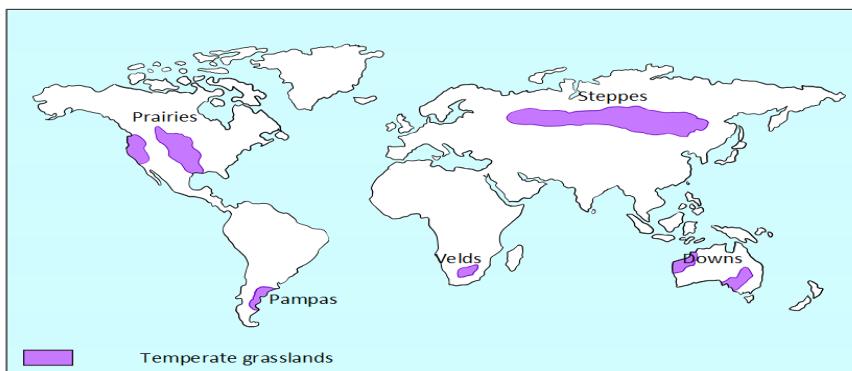


Figure 6.70: Grasslands in temperate zone.

The characteristics of temperate grasslands are:

- Grass lands found here are short and juicy, which is suitable for cattle feed.
- Maize and wheat are grown in large amount that is why this area is known as “bread basket” of the world.
- The steppes form largest segment of the temperate grassland biome. Steppes are divided into: Forest steppes, Meadow steppes, grass steppes.
- America Prairies are divided into three sub regions: tall grass prairie, mixed grass prairie and short grass prairie.
- Based on rainfall, the Pampas in South America (Argentina) are divided

into two types: humid pampas in the eastern part and Sub-humid pampas in the Western part of Argentina.

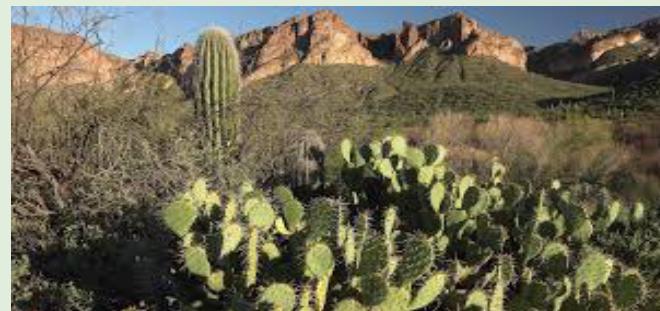
- Velds in South Africa are sub-divided into three types: themed veld (altitude varies between 1500-2000m), Sour veld and Alpine veld (2000-2500) of the Drachenberg mountain.
- Dows growing in Australia are divided into three types: temperate tall grasslands found in eastern coast of New south Wales to Victoria and Tasmania. Temperate short grasslands found to the north of the temperate tall grassland region. Xerophytic grasslands developed in the interior lands of New South Wales and Queensland where semi-arid climate prevails.
- Canterbury grasslands are extended especially over the eastern and the central part of New Zealand.

6.4. Desert Vegetation



6.4. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Observe critically the photos provided below and answer the questions that follow:



1. Identify the nature of the types of the vegetation on these two figures above.
2. Compare and contrast the geographical conditions shown on both figures.

Desert vegetation grows

desert covering the countries of Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Iran Syria and Israel, Atacama Desert (Peru and Chile), southern California in USA, Sonora in Mexico and Victoria in Australia. Desert Vegetation is separate into two types, namely hot desert and cold desert vegetation or Tundra.

6.4.1. Hot desert vegetation

Hot deserts are located between the latitudinal belts of 15° - 30° in North America, South Asia, south and Central America, Africa and Australia. Hot desert vegetation is very hot throughout the year. The rainfall is unreliable as the trade wind blocks the rainfall and natural vegetation is very poor in the desert region.

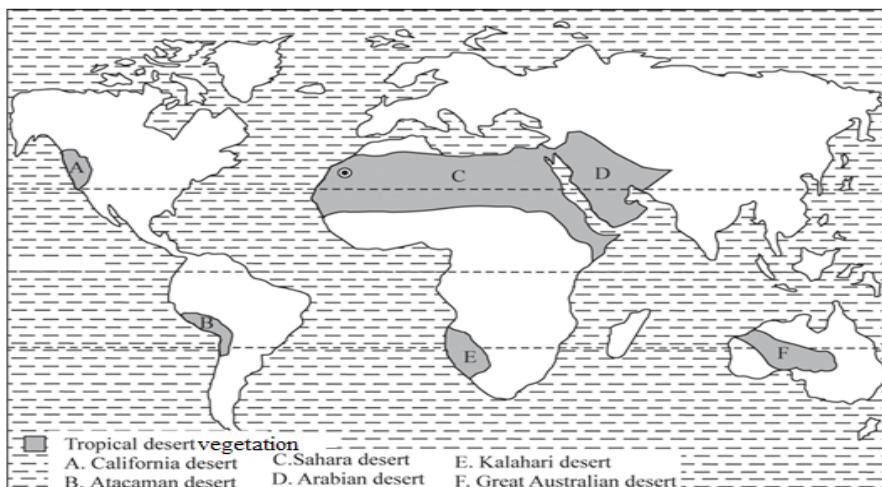


Figure 6. 71: Hot desert vegetation.

Hot desert vegetation is characterized by the following:

- They have small leaves, with sunken or restricted openings, pale, reflective and leaves.
- Plants found there are very less with succulent stems, long roots and leaves.

- The desert trees shade off its leaves during the dry season to minimize water loss from the excessive temperature.
- Desert vegetation types especially the tree species grow long taproots to tap the necessary water deep in the underground water table.
- The main vegetation growing here is mainly thorny acacia, bushes euphorbia and tufted coarse grasses.
- Some desert vegetation types grow no leaves in order to avoid excessive water loss through evapotranspiration.

6.4.2. Cold desert vegetation

The cold vegetation is located in high, flat areas, called plateaus, or mountainous areas in temperate regions of the world. Temperate regions lie between the Polar Regions and the tropics. Like other types of desert, cold deserts get very little rain or snow and are mainly in the in North Canada, North Russia, North Sweden and Finland islands in Arctic Ocean.

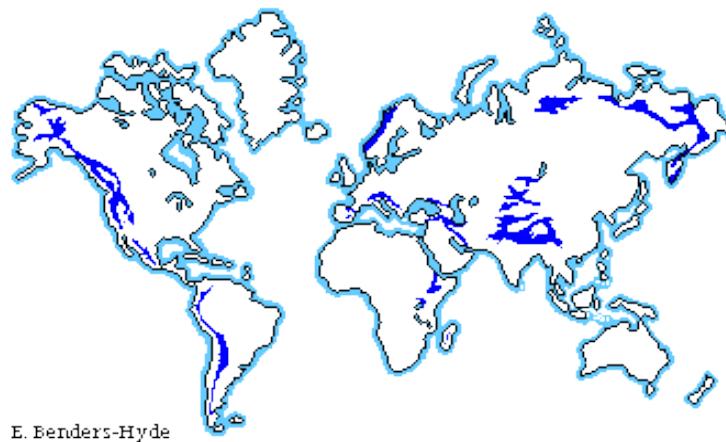


Figure 6.72: Shows Cold desert vegetation.

The major characteristics of cold desert vegetation include the following:

- The plants are widely scattered.
- The main plants are deciduous, most having spiny leaves.
- Large amount of snowfall in winter (and sometimes in summer).
- Short, wet moderately warm summers.
- Mean average winter temperature - 2 to 4° C.
- The vegetation receives a mean annual precipitation ranges from 90 and 260 mm.
- Good drainage to leach out most of the salt.

- The burrowing habit also applies to carnivores like the badger, kit fox, and coyote.
- Several lizards do some burrowing and moving of soil. Deer are found only in the winter.



6.4. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Referring to Sahara Desert describe its impact to the population settlement in any country around it.

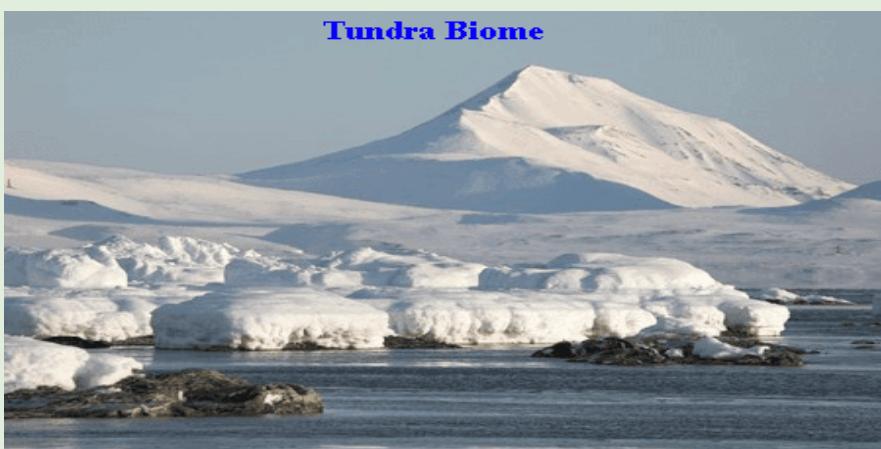
6.5. Tundra vegetation



6.5. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Observe the picture provided below and answer the following questions

Tundra Biome



1. Identify the type of vegetation shown on the photograph above.
2. Explain the characteristics of the vegetation shown identified in (1) above.

Tundra vegetation is the coldest of all the vegetation and the term tundra is derived from a Finnish word “*tunturi*” which means “treeless plain”. It is among the harshest type of vegetation are found in the arctic region on top of mountains where the climate is cold and windy, rainfall is limited. Therefore, the tundra regions are covered the areas of Alaska, Russia and some parts of Canada.

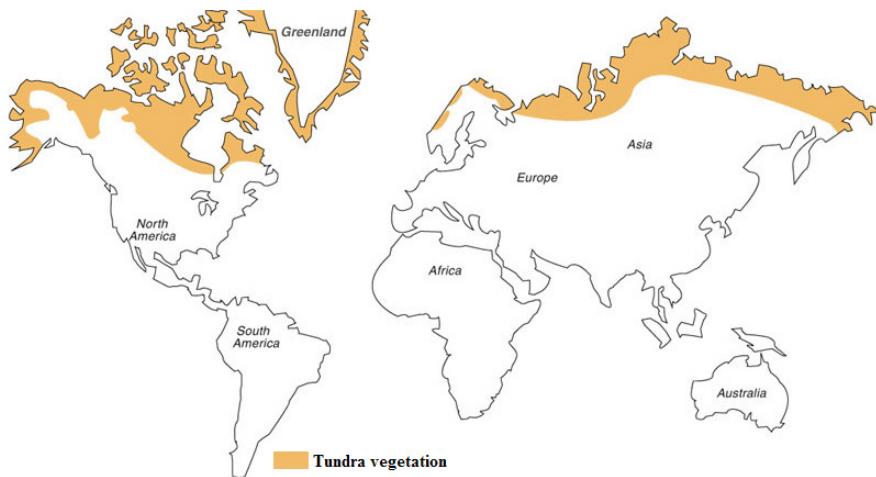


Figure 6.73: Shows Tundra vegetation

The characteristics of tundra vegetation are as follows:

- There is very low variety of trees.
- The vegetation arrangement is simple.
- The season of growth and reproduction is short.
- The drainage system is nearly limited.
- The nutrients and the energy here is in the form of dead and organic material.



6.5. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

For either Russia or Canada, describe the necessary geographical conditions in that country.

6.6. Mountain vegetation



6.6. LEARNING ACTIVITY

1. Describe mountain vegetation in tropical zone.
2. Describe the characteristics of mountainous vegetation with reference to east Africa.

Mountain vegetation is categorized into two type's namely tropical mountain vegetation and temperate mountain vegetation.

6.6.1. Tropical Mountain vegetation

Mountain vegetation has a variety of vegetation ranging from tropical to temperate types. On type Mountain slope, various vegetation types show clear demarcation zones. The savannah vegetation rows from at the foothills, followed by the layer of tropical rainforests, bamboo forests, mountain heath and moorland and rest is bare rock. For instance, mountains: Mt. Kenya, Aberdares, Kilimanjaro, Mt. Meru, Mt. Elgon, Mt. Cameroon, Mt. Ruwenzori, Virunga, Simien Mts. and Bale Mts.

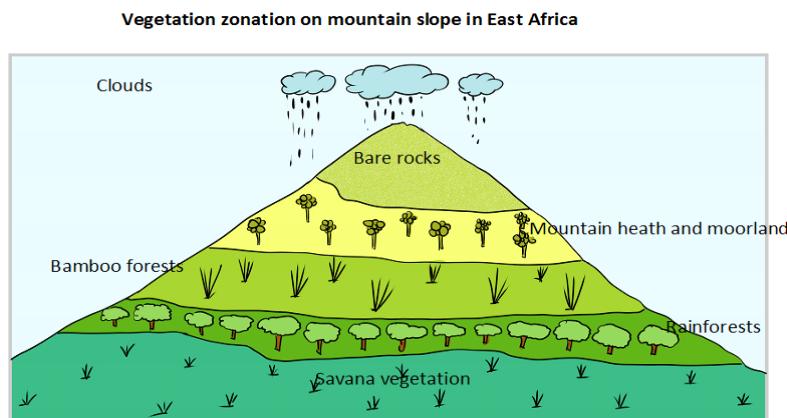


Figure 6.74: Shows Tropical Mountain vegetation

The characteristics of mountain vegetation

- It grows in clearly demarcated zones from the foothills to the summit.
- Mountain vegetation are dominated by tussock grasses and stands of giant rosette.
- The mountain heath and moorlands grow between the bamboo forests and the snow – line or bare rocks.
- The tree species, mainly of the lower canopy, are the wild olive.
- Soils in the mountains are mostly are very young and fertile favors the growth of threes.
- Mountainous areas, the decrease in temperature with increasing altitude leads to the corresponding change in natural vegetation.
- The wet temperate forests are suitable between 1000 and 2000 mm.
- Between 1500 and 3000 mm, temperate forests containing coniferous trees like pine, deodar, silver fir, spruce and cedar.

6.6.2 Temperate mountain vegetation

Temperate mountain vegetation grows well in High Mountain of temperate regions, and temperate mountain vegetation grows best between 35° N and 60° N of the equator. Temperate mountain vegetation also is found in Alps in Western Europe, in Norway, Sweden and Finland and the Rocky Mountain slopes in California and British Columbia and Andes in South America.

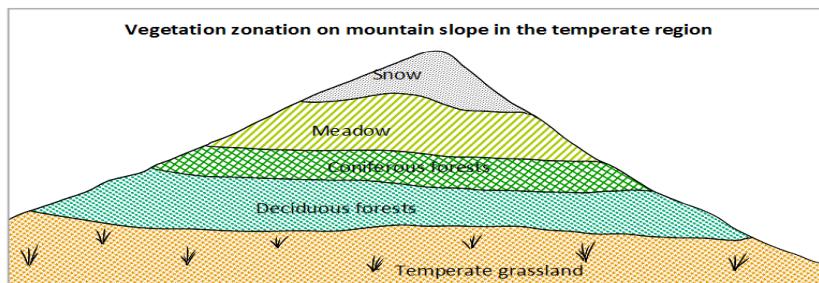


Figure 6. 75: Show Temperate mountain vegetation

Zonation temperate mountain vegetation

They are characterized by the following:

- Temperate mountain vegetation contains both deciduous and coniferous plant species such as poplar, birch, oak and elm.
- The vegetation arranges itself on the slope in clear demarcated zones.
- Some tree species grow a thick bark in order to store enough water for use during the winter season.
- Tree species shade off their leaves when temperature drops below 6° C in winter.
- Tree species especially the coniferous forests adapt themselves to the climatic conditions by growing tiny needle-like leaves.
- Tree species become shorter and more dispersed towards the zones containing meadow.



6.6. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Explain the use of mountainous vegetation with reference to Northern Rwanda.

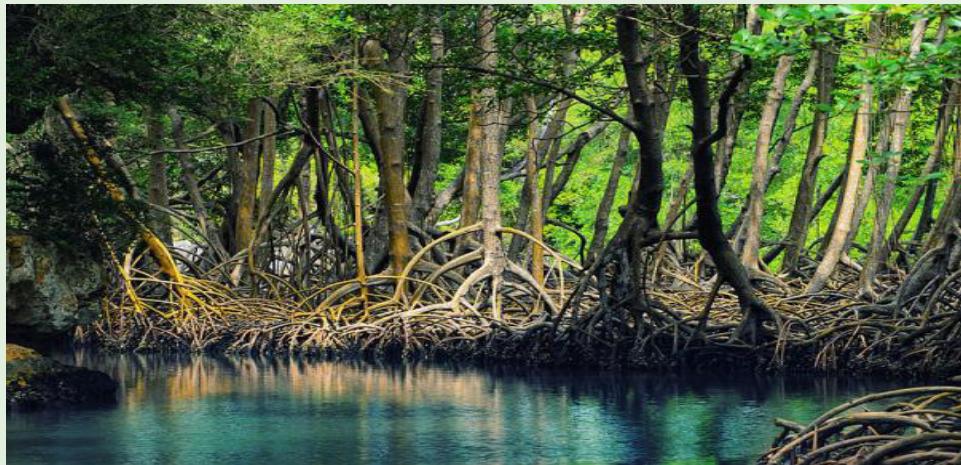
Critically examine the role of temperate vegetation to the economy of Switzerland

6.7. Aquatic, marsh and Swamp vegetation



6.7. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Make a critical analysis of the photo below to answer the questions that follow:



1. Identify the type of vegetation shown on the photograph above.
2. From your own observation describe the environmental conditions that influence the location and growth of the identified vegetation above.

1. **Mangrove vegetation** grow in marshy, swamp areas along the coast of East Africa specifically in Kenya and Tanzania, Deltas of the Ganga, Mahanadi, Ganga Brahmaputra delta in India, and evergreen vegetation grows along the coastal margins between 5°N and 5°S of the equator.

The characteristics of mangrove forests:

- Mangrove vegetation have broad branches and they are evergreen
- Characterized by mineral soils with poor drainage and by plant life dominated by trees.
- The mangrove vegetation grows buttress roots.
- This type of vegetation has a long gestation.
- They exist in areas with poor drainage and sufficient water supply to keep the ground waterlogged, and they have a high enough supply of minerals in the water to stimulate decay of organisms.

- High salinity, hypoxic (oxygen deficient) waterlogged soil strata, tidal pressures, strong winds and sea waves.
 - Mangroves forests species, surviving at temperatures above 66° F (19° C), not tolerating fluctuations exceeding 18° F (10° C) or temperatures below freezing for any length of time.
2. **Aquatic plants** : Refers to as hydrophytes or macrophytes. These plants require special adaptations for living submerged in water, or at the water's surface. Aquatic plants can only grow in water or in soil that is saturated with water.

The following are Characteristics of aquatic plants:

- Roots are often reduced in submerged aquatic vegetation and their only function is to anchor the plant to the ground.
 - Plants that normally are submersed typically form their flowers raised above the water surface.
 - Floating plant with no attachment to the mud or bottom and with inflated portions of leaves, stems, or special hairs that enable the plant to remain floating.
 - Plant rooted in the mud or muck with immersed leaves with photosynthetic stems and relatively small leaves similar to typical leaves of terrestrial plants living nearby.
 - Plants that normally are submersed typically form their flowers raised above the water surface.
 - Aerial roots that link with underground roots have numerous pores over their surface that allow for gaseous exchange.
 - Structures that anchor many seaweeds to the substratum, such as the bottom layer or bedrock
3. **Marsh** is a wetland that is dominated by herbaceous rather than woody plant species. Marshes can often be found at the edges of lakes and streams, where they form a transition between the aquatic and terrestrial ecosystems. Grasses, rushes or reeds often dominate them. Familiar examples of marsh vegetation include cattails, sedges, papyrus and sawgrass.

The following are characteristics of a marsh:

- The marsh vegetation grows in poorly drained water.
- The marsh vegetation is common characteristics of wetlands areas.
- The marsh vegetation grows in both fresh and salty waters.
- The marsh vegetation is found along the rivers and lakes.

Swamp vegetation is a wetland that is forests. Many swamps occur along large rivers where they are critically dependent upon natural water level fluctuations and some swamps have hammocks, or dry-land protrusions, covered by aquatic vegetation, or vegetation that tolerates periodic inundation.

Characteristics of swamp vegetation are:

- They are characterized by mineral soils with poor drainage and by plant life dominated by trees.
- The latter characteristic distinguishes a swamp from a marsh, in which plant life consists largely of grasses.
- They exist in areas with poor drainage and sufficient water supply to keep the ground waterlogged, and they have a high enough supply of minerals in the water to stimulate decay of organisms and prevent the accumulation of organic materials.
- They are often found in regions of low relief associated with rivers that supply the water to some lakes.
- The number of plant species in swamps is few compared to the numbers that grow on well-watered but not waterlogged land



6.7. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Clarify conditions that prove that the East African coast is dominated by mangrove vegetation.

6.8 The factors which influence natural vegetation



6.8. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Make a field trip in your home area, observe types of vegetation and explain the factors influencing their distribution.

A number of factors as indicated below influences vegetation distribution:

- **Rainfall:** Growth of vegetation depends on amount of rainfall. For example, Equatorial rainforests have evergreen and dense vegetation.

On the other hand, places with low rainfall have scattered vegetation. There is little vegetation in deserts.

- **Temperature:** Forests found in cool areas have fewer tree species. Those in hot areas have more species. The cold mountain tops have heath and moorland.
- **Relief and altitude:** It has been noticed that with a rise in the altitude, the plants in the region show a stunted growth. Trees such as pine, silver fir, birch, and juniper fall in this category of vegetation
- **Slopes:** Areas on the opposite sides of mountains have different vegetation. Steep slopes have more runoff. Gentle slopes allow water to sink into the soil. Plants use this water.
- **Soil types** provide basis for different types of vegetation. The sandy soils in the desert support cactus and thorny bushes. Wet, marshy, delta soils support mangroves and other deltaic vegetation.
- **Human activities:** These include settlement, mining, farming and livestock keeping. For example, vegetation is cleared to create space for building houses. Trees are cut for firewood and timber. New or artificial vegetation is planted. In other areas, the ground is left bare.
- **Drainage** also determine the vegetation of a place, there are plants grow best in areas of good drainage while others grow well in swampy condition for example papyrus which only grow in swampy area.



6.8. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Describe the influence of human activities on vegetation distribution in Rwanda.

6.9. The importance of natural vegetation



6.9. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Make a field trip in your home area, observe nature of vegetation and explain the significance of it to man.

Natural vegetation plays a significant role in the development of countries where they are found in the following ways:

- **Source of food**

Some plants that form the vegetation provide food. This is in form of fruits that grow in tropical forests. Some tree roots and shoot are sources of vegetables among the communities that live near these forests. Savannah woodland are also habitats for bees that help in production of honey which is also collected for food.

- **Construction materials**

Natural forests also provides construction materials; for example, trees provide timber and poles for construction of buildings. These poles can also be used in transmission of electric and telephone lines.

- **Climate modification**

Dense tropical rainforests help in influencing rainfall in the tropical region through evapotranspiration process. They also cool the environment where they are found

- **Controlling soil erosion**

Vegetation also provide a protective cover of the earth surface. This helps to control the agents of erosion like wind and running water from eroding the landscape. Besides, tree roots keep soil particles together and can withstand any erosional agents.

- **Soil formation.**

When the vegetation decomposes, they lead to soil formation for example dense vegetation leads to the formation of deep fertile soils that enhance agriculture. Also, dense forests help in accelerating chemical and biological weathering processes that help in soil formation.

- **Protection of water catchment areas**

Natural vegetation helps to protect water catchment areas like rivers and streams. The forests and grasslands protect these areas from excessive evaporation of water from the soil hence keeping constant flow of water as streams in these areas.

- **Purification of air in the atmosphere**

The natural vegetation helps clean or purify air through harvesting carbon dioxide from the atmosphere. Again, trees produce oxygen that human beings and animals use for their survival

The vegetation also helps regulate the flow of numerous biogeochemical cycles in the atmosphere, most critically those of water, carbon, and nitrogen. It also contributes in the local and global energy balances.

The natural vegetation plays an important role in our ecosystem. Whereby, plants are known as the primary producers since they can manufacture their own food through the process of photosynthesis using sunlight.

- **Supports industrialization**

The natural vegetation is also a natural resource that provides a number of uses to man; i.e. the products like ropes, rubber, gum, papers, and wood used in the manufacturing of books, rope, tyres, and seats come from the natural vegetation.

- **Source of medicine**

Some plants have medicinal contents. Herbs are used in the treatment of various diseases that threaten human lives as well as those of domestic animals

- **Promotes tourism.**

The natural vegetation such as forests and grasslands attract tourists. These pay (money) when they visit to see the animals and a variety of flora. The money is used to develop the social facilities like schools, hospitals etc.

- **Employment opportunities**

Many people get jobs. They are employed as researchers, forest guards and forest officers.

Vegetation has also negative influences to man that are the following:

- Vegetation are associated with some pests such as tsetse flies and tick, such pests transmit animal and human diseases.
- Vegetation reduces mean annual temperature five feet, above ground from 0.8 to 1.8 °F depending upon character of vegetation and locality and affects man's activity.
- Some plants are thorny – leafed and they harmful for human beings and animals.
- Vegetation is a habitat for dangerous animals, which may attack or harm human being.
- Some plants are poisonous and may kill human being and animals when eaten.



6.9. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Examine the value of natural vegetation for sustainable development of the country.



SKILLS LAB

Characteristics of Natural Vegetation

Conduct a tour around your college or in any of the following areas;

- i. Nyungwe forest National Park
- ii. Akagera National Park
- iii. Volcano National Park and identify the common type of natural vegetation in any of the areas chosen. Explain the characteristics of the natural vegetation type in that area.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Draw a map of world on it show the following vegetation types:
 - Savannah humid
 - Mediterranean vegetation
 - Desert vegetation
 - Mountain vegetation
2. How do the following factors influence the distribution of vegetation in Africa?
 - Variation in temperature.
 - Variation in relief



UNIT

7

THE FIRST, SECOND REPUBLICS AND THE 1990-1994 LIBERATION WAR

Key unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to examine the achievements and the failures of the First and the Second Republics and describe the causes and course of the liberation war.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

The independence of Rwanda was declared on the 1st July 1962. From 1962-1973 Rwanda was under the 1st Republic and from 1974-1994 Rwanda was under the 2nd Republic. Both republics contributed to the social, political and economic evolution of Rwanda. However, due to different factors, those republics collapsed between 1973 and by 1994 (during liberation war).

1. Examine the achievements of the 1st and 2nd Republics.
2. Explain the factors which contributed to the collapse of the First Republic by 1973 and the Second Republic by 1994.
3. Describe the causes and effects of 1990-1994 liberation war in Rwanda.

7.1 Achievements of the 1st and 2nd Republics of Rwanda



7.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, media etc. to research on the 1st and 2nd Republic in Rwanda and examine the achievements of the two Republics.

7.1.1. Achievements of the 1st Republic (1962-1973)

The independence of Rwanda was won on 1st July 1962 from Belgian colonization; then, since 1962 up to 1973, Rwanda was under the First Republic under Kayibanda Gregoire as the president. Under this period, some achievements and political institutional changes were recorded.

- **The Constitution**

In 1962, Rwanda under the Republican form of government acceded to independence without a well formulated constitution. The vote for constitution took place during the meeting of November 23rd, 1962. The final text was signed on the following day, i.e. on 24th November 1962- by 40 Members of Parliament.



Grégoire Kayibanda,

President of Rwanda from October 1961 to July 1973.

Source: <https://www.facebook.com/pg/GregoireKayibanda/about/>

- **The government**

By independence, Rwanda had also a government headed by a President of the Republic and a Parliament.

- **The National Assembly**

The Parliament supervises the action of the President of the Republic and his government. Under the 1st Republic, there were three legislatures elected respectively in 1961, 1965 and 1969 until the dissolution of the Parliament following the July 5th, 1973 Coup d'état.

- **The Supreme Court**

The Supreme Court was instituted in the first Constitution of the Republic of Rwanda.

- **Economic evolution under the First Government**

The regime of the First Republic managed to make some modest achievements on economic perspective. The First Republic inaugurated some **financial institutions** like banks which helped to finance a few factories and industrial companies. The National Bank was established in January 1964, the commercial Bank in 1962, and the “Banque Rwandaise de Développement” or the Rwanda Development Bank in 1968.



Image of the Commercial bank of Rwanda

Source: <https://twitter.com/ClaudeKabengera/status/1026801081823752193>



Image of Rwanda Development bank

Source: <http://rwanda-corporate-review.blogspot.com/>

The Rwanda Development Bank had a mission to solve the problem of financing industrial companies. In fulfillment of this mission, the Rwanda Development Bank financed several industries.

In the sector of **infrastructure**, some projects had been conceived to macadamize all the road axes linking the country to the outside world in the frame-work of the five-year development plan (1966-1971). In order of priority, the following roads were to be macadamized:

- Kigali- Gatuna;
- Kigali-Rusumo;
- Kigali- Butare; and
- Ruhengeri- Cyanika.

In addition to this achievement, there was the construction of the **Rusumo Bridge** at the Akagera River linking Rwanda and Tanzania and that of the Bridge over Nyabarongo River.

In the sector of rural development, the emphasis was placed on the **reclamation of marshlands** in order to improve agricultural production and the distribution of improved seeds and plants in some parts of the country. Besides, there was **introduction of new crops like rice**. In terms of animal production, some **cattle dips** were put in place to fight ticks which attack cows.

- **Socio-cultural evolution**
- **Education system**

In the sector of education and health, the First Republic managed to make some but very few achievements. Since its existence the regime of the First Republic strived to give free education services.

A “double-intake” system was introduced in primary schools during the academic year of 1969 - 1970. This system meant that every teacher had two groups of pupils to teach: one group in the morning and the other in the afternoon.

However, the increase in intake for pupils resulting from the double-session program had problems. These included inadequate teaching staff who were not well qualified, poor teaching content which was not appropriate to the realities on the ground and finally, there was lack of school materials such as books, chalk, dusters. Even the state of school buildings was appalling.

In order to overcome the above problems, the government took the following actions:

- As early as 1963, more qualified teachers were urgently trained by putting in place a training period of two years for trainers of trainers;
- A “pedagogic training centre” was set up in order to improve the quality of head teachers who were destined to become inspectors after six months of internship. This was done in the perspective of reorganized primary education at provincial level in various sectors;

- Opening of 12 audio-visual centres by the Gitarama Radio School in favour of radio teaching programs for uneducated rural children in a 4 years program.
- Creation of a special post- primary cycle for girls to replace the 8 former post primary domestic training colleges (3 years in boarding school) for “privileged” young girls.
- Training of headmistresses and female teachers in women technical schools (2 years’ terminal cycle after ordinary level) in Nyanza, Mubuga and Remera;
- In 1971 - 72, the number of secondary schools increased from 24 to 63;
- For boys, some of those schools offered ordinary level orientation, diversified upper levels, technical secondary studies in agriculture, veterinary, medical training, etc. lower teacher – training education and finally professional education;
- As for girls, who had been marginalized for a long time in terms of education, a common cycle of orientation, diversified upper levels, lower teacher-training education, middle education and social, medical and domestic training were introduced.

It should be reminded that at the time of independence, the country of Rwanda was not well equipped in terms of secondary schools. It possessed few secondary schools such as Groupe Scolaire of Astrida in Butare, Kicukiro Government Technical School in Kigali, Saint Andrew College in Kigali, Christ the King College, etc.

During this period, there was not any for higher education. In fact, the first university was opened on November 3rd 1963 in Rwanda. The initiative to establish higher education finally was born during the First Republic. It was started by a Canadian priest called Levesque as Rector with 50 students distributed in three faculties: medicine, arts and sciences. It also operated a school called Ecole Pratique des Langues Modernes (Practical School of Modern Languages) and a Higher School for Nursing.



Image of National University of Rwanda

Source:<https://talloiresnetwork.tufts.edu/national-university-of-rwanda-rwanda/>

On 17th October 1971, after eight years of sustained hard work, UNR had 471 students, 250 of whom 18 had graded as doctors in medicine. This was a big achievement for UNR. This University was launched in Butare (Huye District today) with the assistance of two countries: Switzerland and Canada.

By 1971-1972, the number of students had reached 470. The Higher Institute of Education (Institute Pédagogique National (IPN) was started in 1966.

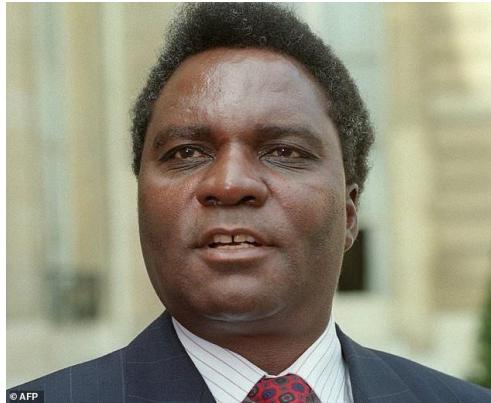
- **Health sector**

In health sector, the First Republic also tried to make some efforts. The focus was put on the construction of new dispensaries whose number increased from 67 to 142 in 1972.

To take care of disabled children, a centre for physically handicapped children was built at Gatagara and another Psychiatry Centre for the people with mental disability was built at Ndera. This centre known as CARAES Ndera is run by the Gaud Brothers of Charity. Regarding preventive medicine, vaccination campaigns were initiated between 1965 and 1970.

7.1.2. Achievements of the Second Republic

After the coup d'état of 1973, Rwanda went through the different political changes under the leadership of the president Juvenal Habyarimana. He ruled the country from 1973 up to 1994 through a Party State MRND.



President Juvénal Habyarimana (1937 - 1994)

Source:https://www.bing.com/images/search?view=detailV2&ccid=304_634x517.jpg&exph=517&expw=634&q=habyarimana+juvenal&simid=607998000554577436&s_electedIndex=1

- **Creation and institutionalization of MRND**

The “*Mouvement Révolutionnaire National pour le Développement*” (MRND) or National Revolutionary Movement for Development was created two years after the coup by the President Juvénal Habyarimana. It was set up in order to fill the vacuum created by the dissolution of PARMEHUTU government on 5th July 1975.

It was “Party State” whose objective was to unify, stimulate and intensify all efforts of all Rwandan people with a view to enhancing economic, social and cultural development in an atmosphere of national peace and unity. In 1977, the Commission for Administration and Institutional Affairs of MRND prepared a new constitution. In October 1978, the constitution was adopted by the Government and the MRND Central Committee. On the 20th of December 1978, the new Constitution was adopted by the population in a referendum with a reported 89% of the casted votes. At the same time Habyarimana was elected in a universal suffrage as President of Rwanda at an alleged 99% majority.



Image of MRND Cell member's card

Source: <http://www.memorialsdelashoah.org/rwanda/fiches/carte-membre-mrnd-fiche222.html>

Article 7 of the Constitution made Rwanda a single party State under the MRND and made each citizen a member of it from birth. In reality, this was the establishment of a One Party political system. The President of MRND party had to be the sole presidential candidate and all Rwandan citizens were automatically members of MRND. The new Constitution abolished the National Assembly and replaced it with Conseil National de Développement (CND) or National Development Council (NDC).

- **Institutionalization of Communal work (Umuganda) and facilitation by MRND**

In order to consolidate its power and its grip on the country, the MRND regime resorted to two methods of rural mass mobilization and recruitment of supporters in the entire country. These were communal work (*Umuganda*) and facilitation (*gushyushya Urugamba*) both of which were inspired by the *Salongo* and *Sakayonsa* bands from Zaire's MPR (Mouvement Populaire de la Révolution).

Communal work and facilitation were political instruments aimed at controlling the population and ensuring its support to the regime. During the facilitation process, the founding President was idolized, praised and glorified with slogans like "Prezida fondateri, Ramba, Sugira, Sagamba, Tera imbere, Turagushyigikye!" These slogans transcended everywhere during such functions. The president was a cult leader of sorts. That politics of controlling the population in order to ensure its allegiance only brought about rivalry.

- **Ethnic and Regional balance**

The Second Republic was basically made of Hutus who originated from the central and southern parts of the country. This policy established regional quota according to ethnic groups. These quotas were based on the criterion of proportional representation according to population as far as education and employment in the public service and private sector were concerned.

The so-called policy of "*Equilibre ethnique et régional dans le service et dans l'enseignement*" or "ethnic and regional balance" prevented the best performers to join the education field, the army, the police and other posts which they deserved or wished to join. The policy marginalized the Tutsis as well as the Hutus from other districts apart from Gisenyi and Ruhengeri.

- **Economic evolution**

The 1974 - 1982 period was a very important phase of economic growth because of favorable rates of exports. On the one hand, there was an increase in coffee exports, and on the other hand foreign aid also increased.

Concerning infrastructure development, the five following infrastructures were put in place by the Second Republic:

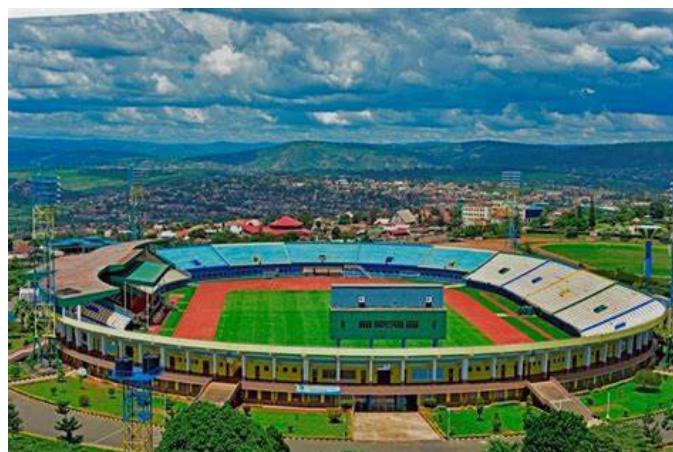
- Asphalting of several roads which reached a distance of 888.5 Km by 1989;
- Construction of several buildings to serve as offices for different Ministries and hospitals as King Faisal Hospital;
- Extension of electricity network;
- Construction of Kanombe Airport;
- Construction of Amahoro National Stadium.

From 1980 to 1987, the country enjoyed an economic growth due to a combination of positive external and internal factors like good climatic conditions, increase in prices of coffee, tea and minerals and a considerable external capital coming into the country.



Image of Kigali international airport

Source: <https://paliagnes-rwanda.skyrock.com/1875726937-L-aeroport-de-Kanombe.html>



Amahoro stadium

Source: <https://constructionreviewonline.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/06/stadium>

- **Socio - cultural evolution**
- **Health sector**

Under the Second Republic, many attempts were made like the expansion of the health sector, the dispensaries were transformed into health centers and more medical personnel were trained. Health centers increased from 32 in 1974 to 50 in 1975.

The government of Rwanda had also put in place a policy which aimed at creating nutritional centers in order to educate parents of nutritional diets and hygiene through creation of nutritional centres within the Health centres in such a way

as to simultaneously achieve curative care and preventive education, including vaccination, nutrition, maternal and child protection.



Image of Kigali King Faisal

Source:https://twitter.com/easteco_org/status/997186271570223104

Another achievement registered in the health sector was in 1979 that the Rwandan Government established the Broad-Based Vaccination Programme (PEV/BVP) whose objective was to reduce infant mortality through vaccination against certain targeted diseases: tuberculosis, whooping cough, tetanus, polio, measles and diphtheria.

In 1987, the Rwandan Government established the National Programme for the Fight against AIDS (PNLS) whose objective was to control, prevent, reduce and conduct research on AIDS. In the same year the Government launched the National Programme for Fight against Malaria (PNLM) and in 1989, the Programme for Acceleration of Primary Health Care (PASSP) was put in place. This programme aimed at encouraging the participation of the population in self-sponsorship and management of health services in their health centres.

- **Education**

In this sector, some achievements were attained such as:

- The construction of new primary and secondary schools and many reforms have been made at all levels of education in Rwanda;
- In 1978 – 1979, the system of primary education teaching was revised. The primary cycle changed from 6 years to 8 years. Training in professional skills was introduced in Primary 7 and P8, and Kinyarwanda became a language of instruction from P1 up to P8.

- At the secondary education level, the Ordinary Level was reduced and specializations sections now started in the Second year of secondary education. But this reform failed due to the following reasons:
 - Lack of teaching aid materials;
 - Lack of qualified teachers in various newly introduced subjects in the new curriculum;
 - Lack of appropriate evaluation methods for the reform.

Therefore, in 1991, there was the revision of this reform where the primary education cycle was brought back to 6 years.

At University level, the national Institute of Education for Teacher Training was fused with certain department of the National University of Rwanda. The creation of the new campus at Nyakinama in the 1980 – 1981 was a result of this fusion. The duration of studies in the Faculties of Arts and Education was reduced from 5 to 4 years.



7.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Identify any 5 economic achievements of the 1st Republic in Rwanda
2. Describe the political evolution during the 1st Republic
3. Assess the social achievement of the 2nd Republic

7.2. Failures / Factors for the downfall of the 1st and 2nd Republics of Rwanda



7.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Using internet, media, textbooks, etc., find reasons that caused the failures or the downfall of the 1st and 2nd Republics of Rwanda.

7.2.1 Failures of the first Republic

Through the coup d'état of the 4th – 5th July 1973, the First Republic was at its

downfall. This was caused by long standing failures that even dated from its beginning. Many factors were responsible for this downfall.

- **Institutionalization of discrimination against Tutsi**

From 1959 onwards, the Tutsi population was targeted, causing hundreds of thousands of deaths, and a population of almost two million Rwandan people were living in the Diaspora for almost four decades. The First Republic, under President Grégoire Kayibanda, institutionalized discrimination against Tutsi and periodically used massacres against the Tutsi. The following are examples:

- Names of “undesirable” Tutsi civil servants were hung on notice boards on the same day, in the night of 26th and 27th February 1973;
- Orders for Tutsis to leave establishments were formulated everywhere in the same manner;
- No province was spared and all Tutsis were affected.

- **Regionalism**

In 1965, the PARMEHUTU managed to win every seat of the National Assembly. However, in spite of this achievement, this political party was experiencing since 1963, considerable internal tensions.

An example is the purge which began in February 1973 were initially provoked by students, but also encouraged – or perhaps led – by the authorities. Along with PARMEHUTU, the authorities aimed at uniting the regime by defining a common enemy. Northern soldiers (particularly Alexis Kanyarengwe, the Chief of Police, who was from Ruhengeri) who, in turn, wished to cause a political crisis, also targeted the Tutsi population. In fact, the purges, which initially consisted in posting lists of Tutsi students and staff, asking them to leave universities and companies, later evolved beyond the control of the central authorities. They came to bear certain demands, both social (general resentment of the rich) and regional (opposition between the south and center of the country on the one hand, and the north on the other).

Consequently, Grégoire Kayibanda punished several northern dignitaries by dissociating them from the jobs and locations associated with wielding power: Alexis Kanayarengwe was appointed director of the Nyundo seminary; Major Nsekalije was assigned to a tea cooperative in Byumba. All the general secretaries of the government ministries were replaced, as well as nine of the ten *préfets*. It seemed the divide between the south and the north was firmly established.

During the months of February – March 1973, purges were organized in schools and in the administration against the Tutsi population. Tutsi students

designated in lists posted in all secondary school institutions and universities and signed '*Mouvement des Étudiants*' ('Students' Movement') or '*Comité de Salut Public*' ('Committee of Public Safety'), were under threat and had to flee from these institutions.

Need for constitutional amendment

Another factor that contributed to the fall of the First Republic was the need for constitutional amendment which was voted on May 18th, 1973 by the National Assembly. This amendment increased the duration of presidential terms of office from five to seven years, and allowed Grégoire Kayibanda to stand for a third term. Even though, the National Assembly supported the amendment of the constitution, the country was already divided according to the two main regions: north and south; the first willing to take the power and the last wanting to maintain it.

When it came the time of voting this report, Members of parliament were not unanimous. On the contrary, they were divided into two camps. There were those who sympathized or supported that report and those who were against it. The supporters of the report were punished by being suspended from decision making organs of the Party and were even prevented from contesting the legislative elections of 1969. To safeguard the Constitution, the senior officers of the National Army carried out a coup d'état that put to end the regime of the First Republic.

The 5th July 1973 Coup d'état

The blow for the downfall of the First Republic was the coup d'état of 1973 carried out by 11 senior officers of the national army commanded by Major General Juvenal Habyarimana. Such other senior officers were Lieutenant Colonel Alexis Kanyarengwe, Majors Aloys Nsekarije, Major Benda Sabin, Major Ruhashya Epimaque, Major Gahimano Fabien, Major Jean Népomuscène Munyandekwe, Major Bonaventure Ntibitura, Major Serubuga Laurent, Major Buregeya Bonaventure and Major Simba Aloys. This team was called "Comrades of the 5th July".

On this day, the high command of the National Guard made a national declaration to the population; mentioning the following points:

Mr. Kayibanda is discharged of his duties as president of the Republic.

Major general Juvénal Habyarimana will assume the constitutional prerogative of head of state.

The government has been forced to retire and is temporarily replaced by a "committee for peace and national unity" composed of 11 officers and presided over by Major General Juvénal Habyarimana, until total re-establishment of peace in the country.

The national assembly is dissolved.

Political activities are forbidden throughout the entire territory of the Republic. The various organs of the party are dissolved.

Rights and liberties are guaranteed by the 24th November constitution, with the exception of 16 articles which have been suspended.

7.2.2. Failures of the Second Republic

- Lack of freedom of speech and press**

The Second Republic was against the freedom of speech and press. This was justified by intimidation and imprisonment suffered by anyone who attempted to criticize this Regime of the Second Republic. For instance, on September 18th, 1990 the trial of the priest André Sibomana, who was the director of the bi-monthly publication *Kinyamateka*, and three of his journalists opened in Kigali after the publication of articles denouncing corruption in the government in this newspaper. On July 3rd and 6th, 1990 the *Cour de Sûreté de l'État* (State Security Court) had Vincent Rwabukwisi, the editor-in-chief of *Kanguka* and Hassan Ngeze, the editor-in-chief of *Kangura* arrested. The first was accused of having interviewed *Umwami* Kigeri V Ndahindurwa in exile in Nairobi and of plotting with refugees, and the second of having breached the peace.

- Economic crisis**

The economic improvement was fragile towards the end of the 1970-1980. This was due to an economic crisis which became worse during 1980-1990. It was especially from 1984-1986 that the crisis exacerbated and reached its highest point during 1990-1993. This economic was caused by many factors.

At home, internal factors of structural nature like the reduction in agricultural production and failure to control population growth, weighed negatively on the economic situation. Therefore, this led to a fall in domestic resources.

In January 1990, one-sixth of the Rwandan population was affected by famine which killed 250 people, according to the government. In 1991, Rwanda signed an agreement with the World Bank to implement a Structural Adjustment Plan (SAP) which led to the devaluation of the Rwandan franc on two occasions: its value fell by 40 % in November 1990, then again by 15 % in June 1992. Though

the SAP was only partially implemented, the main effect of the devaluation was skyrocketing inflation, which reached 19.2 percent in 1991.

- **The imprisonment and killing of the politicians of the First Republic**

Nevertheless, during the two years that followed, the former 'barons' of the First Republic were assassinated or imprisoned. During the following years (between 1974 and 1977), 58 people – individuals who were close to Grégoire Kayibanda and public figures of the First Republic – were assassinated upon orders from Théoneste Lizinde, Chief of Security at the Interior Ministry. According to some sources, the repression affected up to 700 people.

- **Institutionalisation of ethnic and regional balance or quota system**

The Regime of Habyarimana was not a model of democracy as its leaders claimed. The regime coerced and aligned people behind political option within a single party system and partisan politics based on ethnic and regional segregation. The regime had created the Rukiga-Nduga conflicts which were characterised by the exclusion of Tutsi and Hutu of Nduga from schools and main posts of the direction of the country.

This policy was in fact applied in all sectors of the National life and it constituted a serious violation of human rights. It undermined the regime of the Second Republic significantly as it was seriously contested by the democratic forces which militated for change and it ended up leading to the downfall of MRND regime in 1994.

- **Centralisation of the power in the hands of a small group of people "Akazu"**

Between 1985 and 1990 most of administrative positions were reserved for Hutus in a tacit quota system. In fact, power was held by elites from the north of the country, in contrast with the 'pro-southern' orientation of the First Republic. One-third of the 85 most important governmental positions were given to persons born in the préfecture of Gisenyi. One of the main power centres was known as the *Akazu* meaning "from one single household" and was organized around Agathe Kanziga – Juvénal Habyarimana's wife – and her brothers.

- **The exaggerated glorification of the personality of Habyarimana**

As years went by, President Habyarimana started developing a personality cult. This was done through mobilisation and glorification of the President and his political party using animation and his portrait which was everywhere in public and private surroundings.

- **Increasing of dictatorship**

Frankly speaking, before the outbreak of the liberation war, the Habyarimana regime had already become a totalitarian regime. There was a single political party the Revolutionary National Democratic Movement (MRND) and all the powers were concentrated in the hands of a small group of family members of President Habyarimana. No single decision could be made whatsoever without prior approval and/or blessings of the dictator's consent.

- **Mismanagement of refugees' problem Refusal of their return**

The problem of refugees in Rwanda dated from 1959 with the mass killing which was organized against the Tutsi. This problem was differently managed by the two Republics.

In June-July 1989, the Central Committee of MRND, the highest decision-making body in the Habyarimana regime examined the problem of Rwandan refugees scattered around the world, especially in the neighbouring countries. As a solution, the Central committee resolved that the refugees cannot return massively into the country. The Central Committee strongly advocated that refugees should find a way of integrating themselves into their respective countries of asylum. According to the Central Committee, Rwanda was overpopulated and incapable of receiving and accommodating her own people back. Only those who had the capacity to cater for themselves, it was decided, should apply individually for consideration to repatriate.

This position of President Habyarimana and his Government prompted the refugees to call for an International Conference in Washington in August 1988 in which they rejected this position and reaffirmed their inalienable right to return to their homeland, and this led to the National Liberation War on October 1st, 1990 hence leading to the downfall of the Second Republic during 1990-1994 during liberation war.



7.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Examine the common failures that contributed to the downfall of the 1st and 2nd Republics of Rwanda.

7.3. Causes, course and the effects of the Liberation war of 1990-1994 in Rwanda



7.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Using internet, textbooks, media, examine the causes and effects of 1990 – 1994 Liberation War.

7.3.1. *Causes of the liberation war of 1990-1994 in Rwanda*

- **The long and hard life in exile**

The events of 1959 has led to the exile of many Rwandans who left the country after the unrest period marked by violence and massacres of the members of the political party *Union Nationale Rwandaise* (UNAR) and against the Tutsi in general. Such violence was committed by some members of the *Parti du Mouvement de l'Emancipation Hutu* (PARMEHUTU) supported by Belgian authorities. The resistance organised by refugees' groups called *Inyenzi* and their efforts to return home were in vain. In exile, refugees had very bad living conditions in refugee camps and single young adults struggled to get a better life. Such bad living conditions coupled with lack of employment and good education in hosting countries pushed them to think of a solution to return home.

- **The regionalism and ethnic based divisionism**

Both, the First Republic (1962-1973) and the Second (1973-1994) Republic maintained and institutionalised “ethnic” labels (Hutu, Tutsi, Twa) in identity cards and the quota system. As a result, ethnic and regional equilibrium had to be respected in different sectors such as administration, enrolment in secondary and tertiary schools and in the army.

During the First and Second republics, hatred against Tutsi was reinforced; very political crisis was blamed on Tutsi who were treated as scapegoats. This case was raised when refugees' troops called *Inyenzi* attacked Rwanda in 1963 and later before the 1973 Habyarimana's coup d'Etat against Kayibanda's regime.

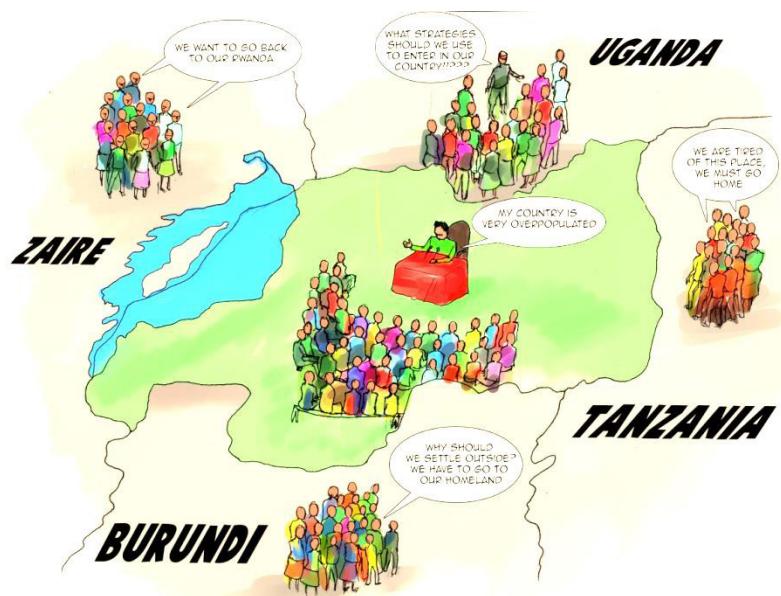
- **The refusal of return for Rwandan refugees**

Since 1959 and under the First Republic, the Tutsi ran away from the violence and mass killing organized against them; they did so because they had to save

their lives. Generally, they ran towards church missions, schools and other places considered as safe to protect them from danger. Others decided to leave the country as soon as possible to look for asylum in neighbouring countries. Although the Government of Rwanda had since 1964 requested that refugees be settled in their countries of asylum, it did almost nothing to help them. On the contrary, its policy consisted of making life for them very difficult in those countries. The Rwandan embassies watched refugees closely in their countries of asylum.

In 1966, President Kayibanda prevented refugees to claim their properties. In 1975, President Habyarimana put in place a decree stating that Tutsi refugees' assets should become public properties. This decision was due to the refusal of political leaders who did not want to return the land to its owners.

The 1990 – 1994 Liberation War was inevitable insofar as the problem of the refugees was left pending, while the living conditions in the countries of asylum became unbearable.



Refugees aspiring to return home

- **The intimidation and killing of opponents**

The Second republic did not accept and tolerate any opposition. Any person who tried to oppose it was jailed. Even if political assassinations were not frequent they existed. For instance, the deaths of the former Chief Editor of *Kinyamateka* newspaper, Father Sylvio Sindambiwe and Felicula Nyiramutarambirwa, former member of the MRND Central Committee are believed to have been planned by

the regime. Thus, the 1990 – 1994 Liberation War was organized in order to fight against such injustice in the country.

- **The increase of dictatorship in Rwanda**

During the Second Republic, only a single political party, MRND was allowed to operate as it was stipulated by the 1978 constitution. In practice, the powers were concentrated in the hands of a small group of people from the President's family and his family in-law called *Akazu*. No single important decision could be made without prior approval of the President and his MRND.

- **Mismanagement, corruption and embezzlement of public fund**

By 1977, the foreign aid funds considerably increased a year to finance diverse projects undertaken with a lot of amateurism. These big projects of "integrated development" failed and left nothing tangible to the farmers. These projects distorted the Rwandan economy: excessive debts, corruption, negligence of subsistence crops for the benefit of the exportable farm produce (coffee and tea), stressed disparities between the capital city and the countryside, etc. and in January 1990, one-sixth of the Rwandan population was affected by a famine.

- **Rwandan Diaspora rejected by neighboring countries**

The majority of Rwandan refugees were deprived from all political rights. The authorities in these countries openly said that they had had enough of Rwandan refugees, had been hospitable enough and it had high time they returned to their countries. An example was the president of Uganda Obote who expelled Rwandan refugees in 1982. When they tried to enter Rwanda, they were pushed back into Uganda. Because they had nowhere else to go, many of them decided to drown themselves in the Akagera River.

7.3.2. *The course of the 1990 – 1994 liberation war in Rwanda.*

Rwandan refugees benefited from Ugandan crisis of the 1980s. Three young Rwandans namely Fred Gisa Rwigema, Paul Kagame and Sam Byaruhanga joined Yoweri Kaguta Museveni's guerrilla war with an idea of using a military option to liberate Rwanda. Due to the persecution of Kinyarwanda-speaking people living in Uganda and their expulsion by Milton Obote's regime in the 1980s, other young Rwandans decided to join the Museveni's guerrilla war in order to acquire experience that would help them to wage an armed struggle to force their return to Rwanda.

The beginning of the Liberation War.

The Liberation War was launched by RPF *Inkotanyi* and its armed wing, the Rwandese Patriotic Army on October 1, 1990 led by late Major General Fred Gisa Rwigema. When the war started in 1990, the RPF could count on about 3,000 well trained soldiers of various grades. This army was composed of not only male but also female combatants.



A picture of Late Major General Fred Gisa Rwigema

Source: RPF Archives.

The RPF first launched an attack in Umutara on 1st October, 1990; but this attack was not successful because of the death of Late Major General Fred Rwigema on October 2, 1990. After being pushed from Umutara, the RPF resorted to using guerrilla tactics in the northern region of Rwanda.

- **Attack on Ruhengeri (January 1991)**

On the morning of January 23, 1991, the RPA attacked the Town of Ruhengeri. The Rwandan forces in the area were taken by surprise and were mostly unable to defend themselves against the invasion. One of the principal RPA targets in Ruhengeri was Ruhengeri prison¹. The RPA stormed the buildings, and the prisoners were rescued and several of them were recruited into the RPA. Some political prisoners such as Théoneste Lizinde, Stanislas Biseruka and Brother Jean Damascène Ndayambaje were also released from prison.

On 29th March 1991, the first negotiations between the RPF and the government of Rwanda started shortly after the RPF seized Byumba.

In July 1992, a ceasefire was negotiated and signed in the Arusha Peace Agreement was signed between the RPF and the Habyarimana Government. An organization of African unity force known as GOMN (Grouped'Observation Militaires Neutres/ Neutral Military Group of Observers) was put in place to observe the ceasefire.

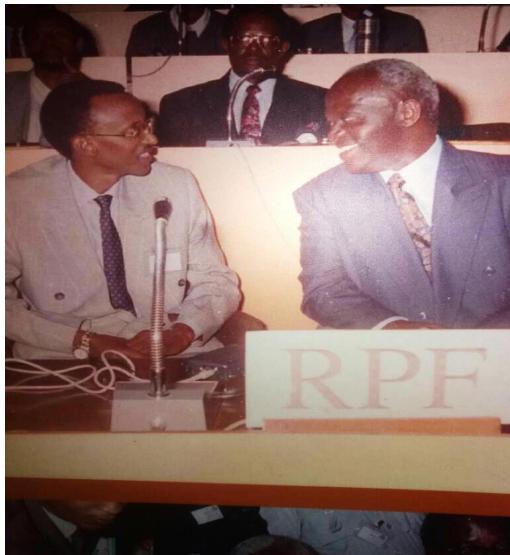


A picture of Arusha International Conference Centre. Venue for peace talks between the government of Rwanda and RPF - Inkotanyi to end the war.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File%3AAICC_Arusha.jpg

On November 15th, 1992, Habyarimana took an about turn and declared that what had been partially negotiated and agreed upon between his regime and the RPF was mere piece of paper rubbish and openly expressed congratulations to the Interahamwe killer militia of his MRND party on the massacres they had just committed especially in the Northern part of the country. That way, he had made the ceasefire rather fragile by flagrantly violating its terms and working null and void. In reaction to those massacres, the RPF launched an offensive attack on the 8th of February 1993 which saw them capturing a large part of the country especially in the northern region. In fact, the RPF were nearing the gates of Kigali, the capital because they reached Rutongo. But soon after, due to the International pressure to resume negotiations, the RPF returned to its former positions around Kinihira.

On 4th August 1993, the Arusha Agreement was signed. It was a political compromise for power sharing between the Government and the RPF but on the 10th of September 1993, the "Broad-based Transition Government" failed to make off because Habyarimana refused to swear in the new government and parliament in which RPF was to be part of.



A picture of the delegates of RPF during the signing of Arusha Peace Accord on August 4, 1993 (Major Paul Kagame on the left and RPF Chairperson Alexis Kanyarengwe on the right).

Source: RPF Archives



A picture of the delegates of the Republic of Rwanda during the signing of Arusha Peace Accord on August 4, 1993.

Source: RPF Archives

After the signing of Arusha Agreement in December 1993, the French military detach that was in Rwanda left and a UN intervention force arrived.

The UN peacekeeping force was known as United Nations Mission for Rwanda (UNAMIR). Its mission was to supervise the implementation of the Arusha Peace Agreement of August 4, 1993.

On December 28, 1993, 600 soldiers of the third battalion of RPF arrived at the *Conseil National de Développement* (CND) and had a mission to ensure security of the RPF future ministers and members of the Parliament in the new Broad-based Transitional Government.

On January 5, 1994, President Habyarimana was sworn in as President in accordance with the Arusha Peace Agreement, but blocked the swearing in of other members of the Broad-based Transitional Government.

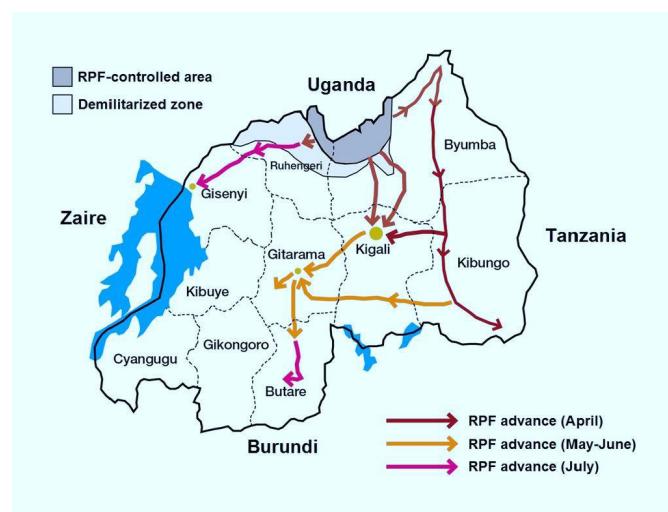
On April 6, 1994 at 20:30, the Presidential airplane, the *mystère Falcon 50* from Dar-es-Salaam was hit by two missiles and Presidents Habyarimana of Rwanda and Cyprien Ntaryamira of Burundi were killed. The long-planned Genocide against the Tutsi immediately started and boycotted the implementation of Arusha Peace Agreement and other peaceful ways. It was the Rwanda Patriotic Front which stopped genocide.

On July 4, 1994, Kigali fell into the hands of the RPA. The members of the so-called Interim Government (called *Abatabazi*), members of the FAR, the armed groups, and many people who were involved in the Genocide and the general population, fled mainly to Zaïre, current Democratic Republic of Congo (DRC) and Tanzania.



A picture of RPA troops entering in Kigali City after the fall of the capital

Source: <https://www.newtimes.co.rw/section/read/206929>



A map showing the advance of the RPF in 1994.

Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Rwandan_Civil_War.

7.3.3. The effects of the 1990 – 1994 liberation war in Rwanda

- **The loss of lives and destruction of properties**

Since the war started, there was increase of insecurity in Rwanda. In some areas, the reaction of the Habyarimana's government was to attack and kill the Tutsi population of the interior of the country. For instance, from 1991 to 1993, there the massacre of Abagogwe social group in retaliation against an RPA attacks. The similar killings were also done in Kibirira, Bugesera, Kibuye, Murambi and in Umutara. These killings were also seen by some analysts as a strategy of strengthening the Habyarimana regime in difficult conditions and uniting all Hutu against a same enemy

- **Destruction of infrastructures properties**

By this war, some public infrastructures like offices, roads and bridges, specifically in the northern regions of Rwanda were destroyed. Besides, the private properties were also destroyed like houses and shops.

- **The decline of the Rwandan economy**

The war and the pressure on Habyarimana's regime led to the collapse of the Rwandan economy. The prices of main export commodities such as coffee decreased at the international market thus the country witnessed a hard economic situation. Besides, foreign aid decreased and the *Rwandan francs* lost its value.

Main sectors of economic activities declined and Rwandans' financial conditions worsened. In fact, because of the war, the North corridor was closed and this led to the stoppage of commercial exchange with Uganda. The war also increased the military expenditure of the Government of Rwanda and the military expenses kept impoverishing the country.

- **Displacement and exile of many people.**

Due to the fighting during the 1990 – 1994 liberation war; more than one million Rwandans fleeing the battle fields were displaced inside the country and they were not working. These Rwandans were in great need of shelter, food and other basic needs to use in their daily life. At the end of the war, Government officials, soldiers and militia fled to the DRC, Tanzania and Burundi taking with them millions of civilians. Thousands of them died of water-borne diseases.



A picture of the Rwandan refugees 'camp at Goma in East of Zaire (Today Democratic Republic of Congo).

Source: https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/f/f0/Rwandan_refugee_camp_in_east_Zaire.jpg

Apart from the negative effects brought by the Liberation war fought from 1990 to 1994, on the other side, this war also brought positive results to the Rwandan society as stated in the following paragraphs.

- **Restoration of national unity:** Thanks to the liberation war won by RPF,

many achievements were made in the matter of building the national unity like equal justice, peace and security, end of segregation, etc.

- **Fighting against the public malpractice:** The RPF Inkotanyi aimed at fighting against the corruption, favoritism and embezzlement as they were the result of the liberation war.
- **Establishment of the democracy:** The liberation war helped to establish a true democracy; the people have the rights to choose their leaders at all levels of public institutions.
- **Improvement of the image of Rwanda:** The 1990 - 1994 liberation war contributed to the improvement of the righteous image of the country. Rwandans are well-known all over the world as a good example of reconciliation, people living together on the same land, victims and criminals, after the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi.
- **Promotion of good diplomatic relations with other countries:** By the end of the 1990 – 1994 liberation, the country promoted international relations based on mutual respect, cooperation and mutual economic exchange. This helped the country to reduce economic and political dependency towards foreign countries.



7.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. The 1990 – 1994 liberation war was inevitable in Rwanda: Discuss.
2. Make a summary of events which have marked the course of the liberation war in Rwanda from 1990 up to 1994.
3. Discuss the effects of liberation war.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Identify any 5 achievements of the First Republic from 1962 – up to 1973.
2. Explain the factors which led to downfall of the First Republic by a coup d'état of 1973.
3. After the 5th 1973 coup d'état, the leaders of the Second Republic promised the Rwandans the better political, economic and social situation. Examine the achievements scored by the Second Republic.
4. By 1994, the Second Republic collapsed and different factors are considered as responsible for this collapse. Discuss these factors.
5. Different factors justify the reasons which led to the outbreak of the 1990 – 1994 liberation war in Rwanda. Identify and explain them.
6. The 1990 – 1994 liberation war was fought into different stages. Describe the course of the liberation war.
7. Assess the effects of the liberation war of 1990 – 1994.

UNIT 8

GENOCIDE AGAINST THE TUTSI, ACHIEVEMENTS AND CHALLENGES OF THE RWANDAN GOVERNMENT AFTER THE GENOCIDE AGAINST THE TUTSI AND PREVENTION OF GENOCIDE

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to explain genocide against the Tutsi, achievements and challenges of Rwandan Government and analyze the preventive measures of genocide against the Tutsi from happening again in Rwanda and elsewhere in the world.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

In Rwanda, between April and July 1994, there was a terrible genocide perpetrated against Tutsi and more than one million Tutsi people lost their lives. This genocide destroyed social and economic aspects of Rwanda which took long time for reconstruction. Use different books, internet and other resources available in your school to find the achievements of the government of Rwanda after genocide and identify the challenges faced as well as the strategies applied to prevent the recurrence of genocide.

Genocide is a deliberate, systematic extermination of a human group for diverse reasons: ethnic, religious, regional, social and political. Genocide is the mass killing of innocent people based on their tribe, race, religion, political ideas, among other reasons, with an intention of completely wiping them out. The genocide against Tutsi was a long planned, deliberate and systematic extermination of Tutsi. During the 1994 Genocide against Tutsi, over one million Tutsi perished in only one hundred days. This makes it the most brutal and fastest genocide in the world ever.

8.1. Causes, stages and effects of genocide against Tutsi



8.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Genocide against Tutsi was not prepared in one day or one night. Many causes and stages in planning were involved. Use a range of materials including textbooks, Internet, media (videos, films and newspapers), to describe the causes, stages and effects of genocide against Tutsi.

8.1.1. The causes of the Genocide against Tutsi.

i. Division ideology

This has its roots from the colonial era. This was because both the Belgians and Germans supported and collaborated with the Tutsi in administration of the country. In addition to that, Germans and Belgians treated Rwandans as belonging to different social categories, that is Tutsi, Hutu and Twa. In addition, both the 1st and 2nd republics practiced divisive and exclusive politics based on social categories in schools and in administration. This planted the seeds that resulted into the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.

ii. Bad leadership during the 1st and the 2nd Republics

Both the 1st and 2nd republics promoted division between Rwandans. They were characterized by indoctrination of part of the population with extremist, genocidal ideology. This tore the national unity among the masses and later resulted into the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. Both regimes made no attempt to unite the people. They maintained the ethnic identity cards indicating a person as being Hutu or Tutsi. They promoted hatred and disharmony between the Hutu and Tutsi. The Tutsi were discriminated against, to a point where the Hutu were discouraged from marrying a Tutsi.

iii. The culture of impunity

During both regimes, criminals who committed crimes against humanity were rewarded by being promoted to important administrative positions instead of being punished. Corruption, favouritism, cheating, embezzlement and diversion of public funds were common under the 1st and 2nd republics. The victims went unpunished. In cases of massive killing of the Tutsi, the criminals were congratulated instead of being punished or trailed. Therefore, laws had loopholes and cases were judged in favour of the majority Hutu. This increased the killing of the Tutsi.

iv. The role of local media

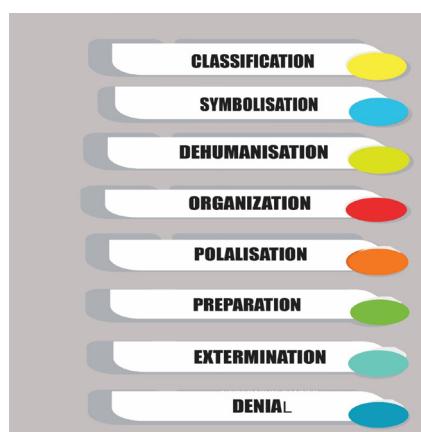
The media played a key role in aiding the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. The call to murder all Tutsi men, women and children was broadcasted over one of the two radio stations in Rwanda. Various newspapers, magazines and television stations also called for and supported the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi. Examples are the *Kangura* and *Umurwanshyaka* magazines, the government owned Radio Rwanda and RTLM (*Radio Télévision Libre des Mille Collines*) radio and television stations.

v. Greed for power by the members of Akazu

Most members of the Akazu, who mostly originated from Gisenyi prefecture (current Rubavu and Nyabihu Districts) wanted to keep on the rule over the country. They formed the inner circle of government and were close friends to Juvenal Habyarimana's wife Agathe Kanziga. To achieve this, they took the responsibility of eliminating the Tutsi of whom they considered as an obstacle to their intentions. They prepared for Genocide against the Tutsi.

8.1.2. The stages of the Genocide against the Tutsi

For genocide to happen there must be certain preconditions. Foremost among them is a national culture that does not place a high value on human life. Also required is a campaign of vilification and dehumanization of the victims by the perpetrators who are usually the states. According to Gregory H. Stanton, genocide has 8 main stages, classification, symbolization, dehumanization, organization, polarization, preparation, extermination and denial.



The stages of genocide

Source: Inspired by the eight stages of genocide of G.H. Stanton.

i. Classification

At this stage people are divided into “us and them”. Genocide would be impossible without **us** and **them**. All cultures have categories to distinguish people into “us and them” by ethnicity, race, religion, or nationality: German and Jew, Hutu and Tutsi in Rwanda. Bipolar societies that lack mixed categories, are the most likely to have genocide.

ii. Symbolization

Names, words or symbols are applied to the targeted group. The classifications put on ID cards to easily identify the victim. Classification and symbolization are universally human and do not necessarily result in genocide unless they lead to the next stage, dehumanization.

iii. Dehumanization

One group denies the humanity of the other group. Members of it are equated with animals, vermin, insects or diseases. Dehumanization overcomes the normal human revulsion against murder. At this stage, hate propaganda in print and on hate radios is used to vilify the victim group.

iv. Organization

Genocide is always organized, usually by the state, often using militias to provide deniability of state responsibility (the Interahamwe militia in Rwanda.) Sometimes organization is informal or decentralized (terrorist groups.) Special army units or militias are often trained and armed. Plans are made for genocidal killings.

v. Polarization

Extremists drive the groups apart. Hate groups broadcast polarizing propaganda. Laws may forbid intermarriage or social interaction. Extremist terrorism targets moderates, intimidating and silencing the center. Moderates from the perpetrators' own group are most able to stop genocide, so are the first to be arrested and killed.

vi. Preparation

Victims are identified and separated out because of their ethnic or religious identity. Death lists are drawn up. Members of victim groups are forced to wear identifying symbols. Their property is expropriated. They are often segregated into ghettos, deported into concentration camps, or confined to a famine-struck region and starved.

vii. Extermination

The extermination begins, and quickly becomes the mass killing legally called "genocide." It is "extermination" to the killers because they do not believe their victims to be fully human. When it is sponsored by the state, the armed forces often work with militias to do the killing.

viii. Denial

Denial is the eighth stage that always follows genocide. It is among the surest indicators of further genocidal massacres. The perpetrators of genocide dig up the mass graves, burn the bodies, try to cover up the evidence and intimidate the witnesses. They deny that they committed any crimes, and often blame what happened on the victims. They block investigations of the crimes, and continue to govern until driven from power by force. There they remain with impunity, unless they are captured and a tribunal is established to try them.

8.1.3. The effects of genocide against Tutsi

The effects of the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi are many. They are social, political and economic as they are explained below.

- **The loss of lives:** The most negative impact was the loss of lives in which more than one million innocent people who included men, women and children were killed in just 100 days.
- **The destruction of properties:** Genocide led to the destruction of properties like offices, communication lines, schools, and hospitals, and private properties such as houses.
- **The physical mutilation of people:** It caused physical mutilation of people. During this genocide against Tutsi, the perpetrators did not only kill the victims but they also deformed the bodies of the Tutsi.
- **The high level of trauma:** The 1994 genocide against Tutsi led to a high level of trauma. This situation was caused by sexual abuse and torture of the victims by the killers and loss of family members.
- **The excessive degradation of human dignity:** It led to excessive degradation of human dignity characterized by inhuman crimes like cannibalism, rape and even the burial of people who were alive.
- **The devastation of the environment:** The genocide against Tutsi caused the devastation of the environment. For instance, many forests were cut down, huge plantations damaged and domestic animals belonging to the Tutsi slaughtered and eaten.

- **The increase in HIV/AIDS prevalence:** There is an increase in HIV/AIDS prevalence in the post genocide period because during the genocide against the Tutsi, the perpetrators used the rape of women and girls as a weapon.
- **The economic decline:** There was decadence of the country's economy. During the genocide most of the active population could not carry out their daily economic activities because of insecurity. The perpetrators and victims of genocide could not work and participate in economic activities.
- **The increase in the number of widows, orphans, and the disabled people:** There was an increase in the number of widows, orphans, and the disabled people. The 1994 genocide against the Tutsi has led to the death of more than one million Tutsi and left many widows and orphans who lost their family members. After the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi, Rwanda also registered a large number of disabled persons.



Image showing effects of genocide on human body

- **The big number of the prisoners:** At the end of the 1994 genocide against Tutsi, more than one hundred thousand people suspected of committing genocide were apprehended and imprisoned. Considering the big number of these prisoners waiting to be judged, it was difficult to give justice to both victims and prisoners in a reasonable period.

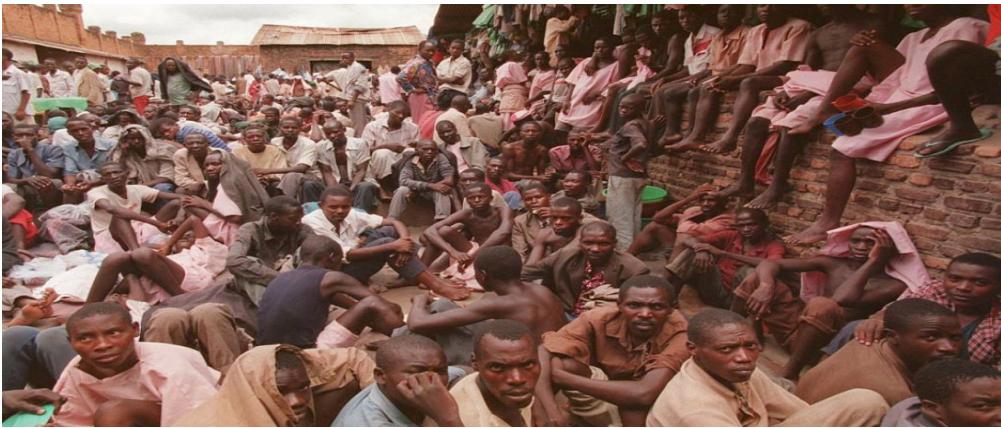


Image showing large numbers of prisoners after genocide against Tutsi

Source: <https://www.pri.org/stories/2011-06-24/un-convicts-woman-rwanda-genocide>.

- **The prevailing climate of suspicion and mistrust:** A climate of suspicion and mistrust also prevailed in the country. The Tutsi survivors of genocide could not interact with the Hutu whom they considered as the perpetrators of genocide that led to the death of their relatives.
- **Creation of Gacaca courts:** Gacaca courts were created to judge a big number of alleged criminals of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, by Organic Law No. 40/2001 of 26/01/2001 published in the official gazette of the Republic of Rwanda on March 15th, 2001 in Rwanda. Gacaca courts were created as a solution to the crucial problem of a big number of the victims of genocide who were waiting for justice. At the international level, the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda ICTR based in Arusha, Tanzania, was created to judge the cases of the planners of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi.
- **The image of Rwanda was tarnished at international level:** Politically and diplomatically, Rwanda's international image was tarnished. After the genocide against the Tutsi, the country was only seen in a negative way by considering almost all Rwandans as killers. Rwanda was also seen as a country totally destroyed and without any humanity.
- **Refugee crisis:** Because of the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, more than two million of Rwandans fled the country and established themselves in neighbouring countries in refugees' camps. Another big number of Rwandans were displaced throughout the country.

- **The spread of genocide ideology:** Due to the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, Rwanda became an epicenter of genocide ideology in the Great Lakes region. The perpetrators of genocide who fled the country and went to live in refugee camps in DRC exported the ideology of genocide and continued to kill innocent people.

In conclusion, it should be noted that the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi left Rwanda deeply damaged and the devastation was so great and so painful that some people regarded Rwanda as a failed state. Although this Genocide affected mainly the Tutsi, all Rwandans were generally affected. Many people became refugees and were displaced while others were apprehended and became prisoners.



8.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. What is genocide?
2. To what extent was mass media responsible for the outbreak of Genocide against the Tutsi?
3. What are the main stages of Genocide?
4. Explain the effects of Genocide against Tutsi.

8.2. Achievements and the challenges of Rwandan Government after genocide



8.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

In the years following Genocide, the government of Rwanda was committed to strengthen the unity of Rwandans as a pillar of peace and sustainable development. Carry out a research using relevant documents and internet to find about the achievements and the challenges of the Rwandan Government after genocide against Tutsi.

8.2.1. Achievements of Rwandan Government after Genocide against the Tutsi

After Genocide against Tutsi and chaotic situation that followed the government of National unity did a lot to rehabilitate the country which was destroyed by the leaders of the second Republic. The following are the achievements of the government of Rwanda after Genocide against Tutsi.

The government of national unity promoted the unity and reconciliation of Rwandans. The national unity implies the indivisibility of the Rwandan people. All citizens should have an equal opportunity to national economic resources and can claim the same political rights. After genocide against Tutsi, the Government of National Unity fought and eliminated all constraints of national unity such as “ethnicity” and regionalism. For instance, “ethnic” labels were removed from identity cards.



Rwandans hug and shake hands as a sign of unity and reconciliation

The Commission unity and reconciliation was established and undertakes research in the matter of peace and unity and reconciliation to make proposals on measures for eradicating divisions and for reinforcing unity of Rwandans.

It restored peace and security in all parts of the country. After the Genocide against the Tutsi, the security in Rwanda was extremely unstable as there were still unhealed wounds from the war. The problem of insecurity especially on the western border of the country was caused by the incursions of Ex FAR and Interahamwe militias. Military strategies were devised to find solution and

eradicate the thousands of military groups and ex-combatants who continued to kill innocent Tutsi citizens.

The government of national unity resettled refugees of 1959 who had taken refuge in neighbouring countries. Note that the First and second republics refused these refugees to come back in their mother land saying that Rwanda was overpopulated and incapable to receive and accommodate her own people back. At the same time the government of Rwanda repatriated the 1994 refugees.

The Government apprehended and brought to justice the perpetrators of the Genocide. Thousands of people were arrested and judged. Some of them were released for lack of evidence and others convicted and sentenced. It is pertinent to the people of Rwanda to feel that no reconciliation is possible without justice.

The Government of National Unity restored traditional jurisdictions or Gacaca courts because of a big number of prisoners. The government decided to ease pressure on the criminal justice system by categorizing Genocide suspects according to the crimes they are accused of. The category 1, the planners and authors of the Genocide numbering 2,133, were tried in conventional courts. Category 2-4 where involvement in genocide was slightly less serious, were tried in traditional community courts or Gacaca courts.



Source: http://www.rwandapedia.rw/sites/default/files/Gacaca%202001%204_1.jpeg

Community dense appreciating the contribution of Gacaca courts in unity and reconciliation of Rwandans

To strengthen the criminal justice system, the Government of Rwanda organized special training to magistrates and judges, while courts around the country

were renovated. A national police force was created and charged with civil security matters and criminal investigations.

To reinforce good governance in Rwanda, anti-corruption and public accountability institutions were created by the Government. Their operational capacity continued to be strengthened so as to achieve greater accountability. They include the Office of the Ombudsman, Office of the Auditor General for State Finances, Rwanda Public Procurement Authority and Rwanda Revenue Authority. These institutions are mandated to fight injustice, corruption and abuse by public officials and related offences in both public and private administration and to promote the principles of good governance based on accountability and transparency.

The Government of National Unity instituted meritocracy in the education system of Rwanda and put measures in place to address the country's manpower incapacity. Since 1994, the number of high learning institutions has gone up from one to six in 2000. The total number of students receiving higher education rose from 3,000 to just about 7,000. The number of graduates between 1963 and 1993 was 2,160. Between 1995 and 2000, a period of five years, the government of Rwanda produced over 2,000 graduates.



The former military college in the heart of Kigali was transformed into a modern institute of science and technology (KIST) in 1997 to provide technical, skill-based training to 2,500 full time and part-time students. Licenses and facilitation were granted to other institutions and colleges to make more training opportunities available to the population.

The number of primary schools also increased by more than one and a half times from 1994-2000. The number of qualified teachers rose by 53% between 1994 and 2000. More resources were made available to build new schools and rehabilitate old ones. The government introduced universal primary education, established education support institutions, such as the National Curriculum Development Centre, the general inspectorate of education and an examination Board “National Examination Council” was introduced to ensure fairness, transparency and uniformity standards.

The Nine Year and Twelve Year Basic Education were introduced to facilitate access to lower and upper secondary education. For the first time parents were involved in the construction of schools for their children.

To create a highly skilled and productive workforce, the government has introduced technical and vocational training centers, established colleges of technology under “Rwanda Development Workforce authority”.

The Government of National Unity is committed to promoting democracy and empowering the population of Rwanda to make policy-decisions and to become masters of their destiny. March 1999, grassroots elections were held across the country at cell and sector levels. The elections demonstrated the success of the unity and reconciliation program as people voted on the basis of merit, not ethnicity. The democratization process moved up to the district. The officials to this level were directly elected by the people for the first time in the history of Rwanda. Rwanda drafted the new constitution which was based on the views of people. After the constitution was promulgated, the general and presidential elections were held in 2003.

The Government of National Unity was committed to rebuilding, expanding and improving the infrastructure of the country in order to facilitate economic growth. Since 2003 new roads have been built and others have been reconstructed to improve the road system.

The government improved health domain by encouraging the people to participate in health programmes like Health insurance program; constructing more healthinfrastructure and training more health staff. La Rwandaise d'Assurance Maladie (RAMA), later Rwanda Social Security Board was established to ensure that government civil servants get proper medical insurance coverage.



<https://www.google.com/search?biw=1365&bih=584&tbo=isch&sxsrf=ACYBGNRXRdbQ8Gl1sJnIBIFGNnIAHQqS3w%3>

Moreover, the government of Rwanda promoted gender equality. The Government and civil society priorities were to strengthen capacity building programmes for women in all fields. In this regard, the Rwandan legislation which was disadvantaging women was amended in order to give equal opportunities to both men and women. Furthermore, the gender factor was integrated in all national policies on Rwanda's long term development.

8.2.2. Challenges of Rwandan Government after genocide

- **Suspicion and mistrust.** Since Rwanda's social cohesion had fractured due to the divisive politics that preceded the genocide, suspicion and mistrust characterized the population. Thus, the new government inherited a deeply scarred nation where trust within and between communities had been replaced by fear and betrayal. The government had a heavy task to restore unity and trust among Rwandans.
- **Security issue:** Security problems were also a challenge to the government of national unity. Although the RPF had captured power and a transitional government had been put in place, in various parts of Rwanda the former government forces and Interahamwe militia were still carrying out genocide against Tutsi. In addition, infiltrators from refugee camps across the border continued to cross and destabilise the country. The Broad-based Transitional Government under RPF leadership had to devise means to address insecurity in the whole country so that Rwandans could begin the task of rebuilding the nation.

- **Resettlement of refugees and genocide survivors.** The RPF strived to restore Rwanda as a country for all Rwandans and provided a homeland to which millions of Rwandan refugees could return. Tens of thousands of internally displaced people, especially genocide survivors whose homes had been destroyed, were resettled and provided with basic housing facilities.
- **Economic challenges** after genocide against Tutsi. The Rwandan economy and political situation before 1994 was marked by economic stagnation and high levels of poverty, mainly attributed to lack of vision, poor economic planning, mismanagement, embezzlement and corruption by the leadership of the time. The post-genocide Rwanda faced economic challenges including an unstable macroeconomic environment. For example, in 1994 the economy shrank by 50 per cent and inflation rose to 64 per cent. Between 1985 and 1994, the GDP growth rate was a mere 2.2 per cent against a population growth rate of 3.2 per cent, meaning there was an annual decline of -1 per cent of per capita GDP. This was mainly due to the fact that the economy was characterized by low productivity in all sectors, but most especially in agriculture, a sector on which more than 90 per cent of the population depended for their livelihood.
- **Low private investment** and as such, the country lacked a serious and vibrant private sector to drive economic growth. In the public sector too, there was a highly unskilled labour force because the skilled professionals had been particularly targeted in the genocide. In brief, the Government of National Unity inherited an economy completely destroyed by genocide and over three decades' mismanagement.
- **Challenges in sector of health:** in health the picture was similarly miserable. This sector had always been weak in Rwanda. Health workers in this sector were few and poorly trained. This situation was exacerbated by the genocide in which a large number of health workers had participated and consequently fled the country or were killed. The few that had returned from exile settled in Kigali, which had some infrastructures and was also safer to live in. To mitigate the health crisis, a number of NGOs and the army came in and tried to make a difference, but the task was overwhelming since the number of the injured and the sick was very high.
- **Challenges in the sector of education:** During the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi, most education infrastructure was destroyed and the human capital decimated. Few people who went to school could not translate their knowledge into productive activities to improve the standard of living. In the eastern part of the country, schools were not

only few, but in some areas they did not exist at all. It was a challenge to provide education infrastructure across the country and train teachers.

- **A broken justice sector.** More than 140, 000 genocide suspects had been arrested, yet there was insufficient prisons infrastructure to host them. Their upkeep became a huge challenge in terms of feeding, and provision of medical and other services. To make matters worse, there were an inadequate number of trained lawyers to handle the large number of perpetrators of genocide and this was also true for other crimes that were being committed in the country.



8.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. What are the achievements of Rwanda after genocide against Tutsi?
2. Explain the challenges of the government of Rwanda faced after genocide against Tutsi.

8.3. Forms and channels of genocide denial and ideology.



8.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet and books written on genocide against the Tutsi and discuss different ways used to deny this genocide.

Genocide denial is defined as an attempt to deny or minimize statements of the scale and severity of an incidence of genocide. Since 1994, the genocide denial has taken three main forms: Literal genocide denial, interpretative and implicative genocide denial. In Rwanda genocide was denied in the following ways:

- The minimization of genocide in any behavior exhibited publicly and intentionally in order to reduce the weight or consequences of the genocide against Tutsi.
- Minimizing how the genocide was committed.
- Altering the truth about the genocide against the Tutsi in order to hide the truth from the people.

- Asserting that there were two genocides in Rwanda: one committed against the Tutsi and the other against Hutu or saying there had been acts of mutual killing, etc.

8.3.1. Literal genocide denial

The literal genocide denial involves negating the facts of genocide, silencing talk of genocidal plans and killings. Literal genocide denial was mainly confined to the private sphere during the early post-genocide years. It still appears in some research, in internet blogs, and among the lawyers of those accused of genocide at the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda.

8.3.2. Interpretative genocide denial

This form of genocide denial involves categorizing evidence that is established, and goes beyond negating, ignoring or silencing talk of genocide. Higher moral goals are often invoked in cases of interpretative denial, such as: revolutionary struggle, ethnic purity, western civilization', or in the case of Rwanda, legitimate self-defence and a striving for ethnic-based self-determination.

In the media and at the International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda, the most common expression of interpretative denial was to present the genocide against the Tutsi as simply part of wider 'civil war' of all against all, rather than a targeted genocide. Interpretative genocide denial also uses the term "the double genocide" to deny genocide and the responsibility of perpetrators.

8.3.3. Implicatory genocide denial

This third form of genocide denial consists of revengeful counter-accusations, and explicit justification for one's position, through anticipatory counter – accusation against the other party. The aim is also to exonerate all atrocities and lay the blame on others'.

In implicatory denial the other side is always guilty of lies, propaganda, ideology, disinformation or prejudice, and thus of triggering the genocide. Very often, implicatory genocide denial tries to prove that if genocide was committed, it was not by those accused but by the 'other side' in a civil war.

In Rwanda, since around 2003, implicatory genocide denial has been aimed at restoring a sense of self-worth among those accused of genocide crimes.

The implicatory genocide denial becomes prevalent and involves explicit counter-accusations that genocide was planned by those previously viewed as

saving the victims. A double genocide thesis is part of both the interpretative and implicative forms of genocide denial. The most channels of genocide denial and ideology are the books, the newspapers, the public speeches, the films etc.



8.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Using examples, explain three types of genocide denial.

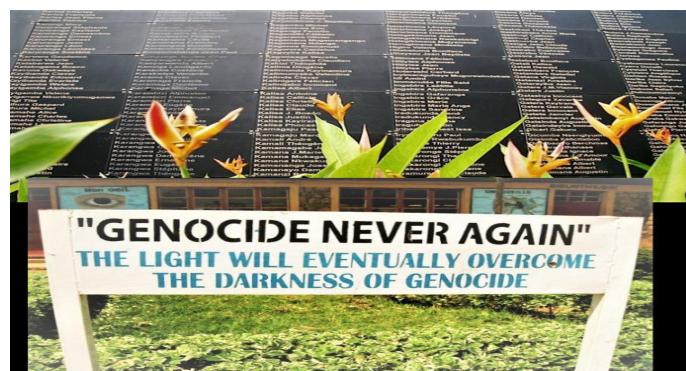
8.4. Measures of preventing genocide ideology at primary, secondary and tertiary levels



8.4. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Genocide is an evil to avoid all costs. Explain how Genocide can be prevented at primary level.

Prevention is a continuous process that aims at avoiding the occurrence of something harmful by tackling the causes of the harm prior to it and at each phase of the process to its occurrence and after. Genocide Prevention is any action that works toward averting a future genocide. Genocide ideology can be prevented at three levels: primary, secondary and tertiary levels.



Genocide never again

Source:http://www.richardsrwanda.org/wp-content/uploads/2011/07/284884_2248833668160_1467762132_32478548_5366937_n.jpg

- **The prevention at the primary level** consists of measures aiming at creating an environment that reduces the risk of its escalation. This means preventive measures that may avoid the occurrence of the harm by tackling its root causes and put in place mechanisms that ensure the prevention of that harm. This requires using domestic legislation, independent judiciary and an effective police force to protect people.
- **Prevention of genocide at secondary level** is necessary in two situations:
 - Firstly, in case a state has not adopted measures at the primary level and
 - Secondly, in case the measures adopted before did not prevent the risks of genocide from developing.

The secondary prevention takes place when genocide is already taking place. At this level, many genocidal actions are observed, such as hatred, intolerance, racism, ethnic cleansing, torture, sexual violence, disappearances, dehumanizing and public discourse.

The main focus is to end the genocide before it progresses further and claims more lives. This level of prevention may involve military intervention especially when it is an armed conflict context or use peaceful prevention to save lives.

- **Prevention of genocide at tertiary level** focuses on avoiding genocide in future by rebuilding, restoring the community and dealing with all the consequences to repair the damage caused. This phase deals with all consequences.

According to the international humanitarian law, the international community has the obligation to intervene once all signs are clear enough to prove that genocide is happening.



8.4. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Suggest any three appropriate measures to prevent genocide.

8.5. Challenges faced in the process of preventing genocide



8.5. LEARNING ACTIVITY

After the holocaust of 1945, all countries agreed to prevent genocide. However, they failed to prevent it. Use the internet and other history books to explain the challenges faced in the process of preventing genocide.

While fighting and preventing genocide, there are many challenges including the following:

- **The first challenge** is related to lack of certainty that the presence of factors at different phases may lead to genocide;
- The second challenge is the uncertainty on whether the preventive measures to be taken can prevent the genocide;

In all cases, no one can be sure that the signs of genocide will lead to it or that the measures to prevent it will be effective. In fact, by the time this is clear, it might be too late to prevent genocide from happening and too difficult to do it without causing other problems.

- **Another important challenge** is that there is no institution that assesses the factors and phases of genocide and determine who takes appropriate measures, when to take them, how and where to implement them.

Given the nature of prevention and the process to genocide, it is very difficult for the preventer to be sure beforehand that the preventive measures to be taken will definitely prevent the occurrence of genocide.



8.5. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Brainstorm the signs that can predict the genocide and explain the challenges encountered during the process of preventing genocide.

8.6. Solutions to the challenges faced in the process of preventing genocide



8.6. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet and books and describe the solutions related to the challenges faced in the process of preventing genocide.

8.6.1. The role of the international community

The poor record in preventing genocides forced the United Nations to conceptualize ways of deterring the crime while “recognizing and fully respecting the sovereignty of States.” The then UN Secretary - General Kofi Annan took important measures which inspired many programs in the field of genocide prevention. He identified a Five Point Action Plan to end genocide:

- Prevent armed conflict, which usually provides the context for genocide;
- Protect civilians in armed conflict, including the mandate for UN peacekeepers;
- End impunity through judicial action in both national and international courts;
- Gather military information and set up an early warning system;
- Take quick and decisive action along a continuum of steps, including military action.

8.6.2 Regional level

- Various regional mechanisms have developed distinct methods for engaging with concerns that fall within the borders of their member states. The African Union (AU) is significantly more engaged in the region than its predecessor, the OAU.
- Through the Protocol Relating to the Establishment of the Peace and Security Council of the African Union (PSC), the African Standby Force (ASF) was established as part of the African Peace and Security Architecture (APSA). It includes conflict prevention, early warning and preventive diplomacy, peace-building, intervention and humanitarian action, and disaster management.

- The Eastern Africa Standby Force (EASF) created by the decision of the Summit of the African Union held in July 2004 in Addis Ababa, is a constituent organization of the ASF. Yet, a number of the regional organizations still lack the resources, logistical and communication capacities to effectively enforce the peace.

8.6.3 At national level

In the aftermath of genocide, measures have been taken to face the immediate consequences and to prevent genocide from happening again. The following are the measures taken to prevent genocide:

- Prevention and punishment of the crime of genocide, fighting against denial and revisionism of genocide as well as eradication of genocide ideology and all its manifestations;
- Eradication of discrimination and divisionism based on ethnicity, region or on any other ground as well as promotion of national unity;
- Building a State governed by the rule of law, a pluralistic democratic Government, equality of all Rwandans and between men and women
- Laws punishing the crime of genocide and the genocide ideology have been elaborated. Special organ to monitor and implement these principles has been created, the National Commission for the Fight against Genocide established by Law N°09/2007 of 16/02/2007. Its mission is “to prevent and fight against Genocide, its ideology and overcoming its consequences”.
- Therefore, it is imperative that the genocide against the Tutsi and all other acts of genocide elsewhere in the world be remembered. The second one is to educate people for sustainable peace and prevention of genocide using memorials.



Bisesero memorial sites and genocide commemoration are one of the ways to prevent genocide

Then the prevention of genocide should be done in educational setting. The country of Rwanda has included the prevention of genocide and peace education as a cross cutting issue in the programmes that have to be taught at all levels of education from the primary to the tertiary.

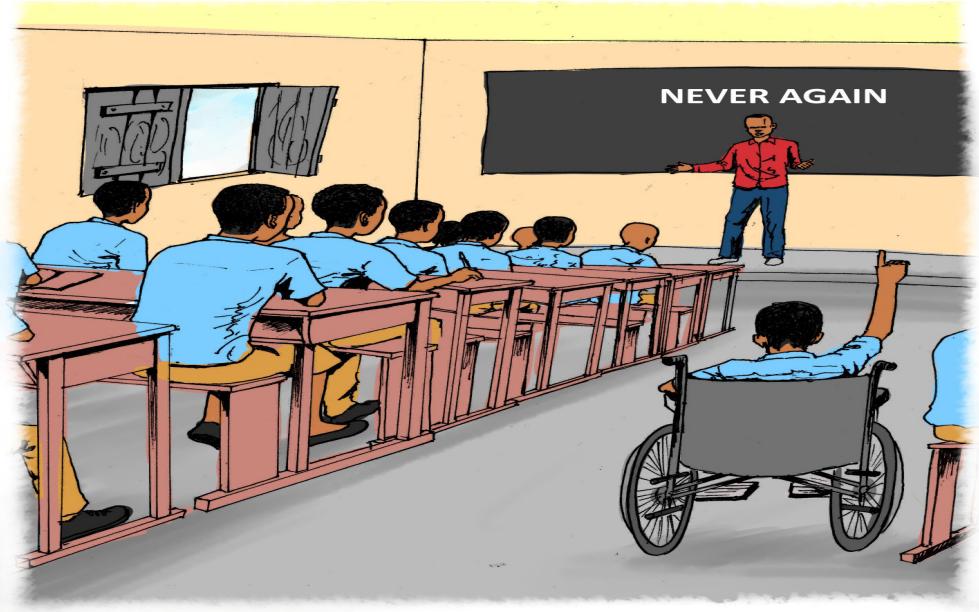


Figure 2.7: Educating the youth through testimonies about the past is a good way to prevent



8.6. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

The prevention of genocide has been always challenging. Explain the measures put forward by international community, regional and the government of Rwanda to prevent genocide.



SKILLS LAB

Suppose you are appointed by National Itorero commission to teach the topic “**origin of genocide against the Tutsi**”, to the youth who are participating in Itorero program”. Use a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values you have acquired about Genocide against the Tutsi and prepare a ten minutes presentation about the topic mentioned above. Make a presentation to the youth participating in Itorero program.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. What are the factors responsible for the outbreak of genocide against Tutsi?
2. Describe the achievements and challenges of Rwandan Government in dealing with genocide issues.
3. Discuss the effectiveness of the preventive measures of genocide against the Tutsi as they have been suggested by the government of Rwanda.



UNIT 9

NATIONAL COHESION DUTIES AND OBLIGATIONS, IDENTITIES AND THE RESPECT OF HUMANRIGHTS

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to analyze types and different ways of human rights violation, its prevention and the national duties and obligations towards the achievement of national cohesion.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

The Universal declaration of human Rights (UDHR) is a milestone document in the history of human rights. United Nations General Assembly adopted it in Paris on 10th December 1948. Thereafter, a number of countries ratified this text. Analyze the types and different ways of human rights violation, its prevention and the national duties and obligations towards the achievement of national cohesion.

9.1. Types and prevention of Human rights violations



9.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Conduct a search use of internet, textbooks and media about human rights violations and give answers to the following questions:

1. Discuss the concept of Human rights.
2. Identify types of Human rights
3. Describe different ways of prevention of Human rights violations.

9.1.1. Definition of the concept of Human Rights

Human rights are commonly understood as inalienable fundamental rights which are inherent in the mere fact of being human. The concept of human rights is based on the belief that every human being is entitled to enjoy her/his rights without discrimination. Human rights differ from other rights in two aspects.

Firstly, they are characterized by being:

- Inherent in all human beings by virtue of their humanity alone (they do not have to be purchased or to be granted);
- Inalienable (within qualified legal boundaries); and
- Equally applicable to all.

Secondly, the main duties deriving from human rights fall on states and their authorities or agents, not on individuals.

Human rights are applicable everywhere and at every time in the sense of being universal, and they are egalitarian in the sense of being the same for everyone. They require empathy and the rule of law and impose an obligation on persons to respect the human rights of others. They should not be taken away except as a result of due process based on specific circumstances, and require freedom from unlawful imprisonment, torture, and execution.

9.1.2. Types of Human Rights

Human rights can be classified and organized in a number of different ways. At an international level the most common categorization of human rights has been to split them into civil and political rights, economic, social and cultural rights. The following are some of the types of Human Rights:

- **Individual or civil rights** are a set of 'physical integrity rights' which concern the right to life, liberty, and security of the person; privacy and freedom of movement; ownership of property; freedom of thought, conscience, and religious belief and practice; prohibition of slavery, torture, and cruel or degrading punishment.
- **Rule of law** is related to equal recognition before the law and equal protection of the law; effective legal remedy for violation of rights; impartial hearing and trial; presumption of innocence; and prohibition of arbitrary arrest.
- **Rights of political expression** comprise freedom of expression, assembly, and association; the right to take part in government; and periodic and meaningful elections with universal and equal suffrage.

- **Economic and social rights** concern adequate standard of living, free choice of employment; protection against unemployment; “just and favorable remuneration”; the right to form and join trade unions; “reasonable limitation of working hours”; free elementary education; social security; and the “highest attainable standard of physical and mental health.”
- **Rights of communities** refer to self-determination and protection of minority cultures.

9.1.3. Ways of prevention of human rights violations

9.1.3.1 The concept of prevention

Human rights violations occur when actions done by state's (or non-state) actors abuse, ignore, or deny basic human rights (including civil, political, cultural, social, and economic rights). Furthermore, violations of human rights can occur when any state or non-state actor breaches any part of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) treaty or other international human rights or humanitarian law.

States have the primary responsibility for the promotion and protection of all human rights, including the prevention of human rights violations. The obligations of States include the duty to protect against human rights abuse by third parties, including private actors. States may breach their international human rights law obligations where they fail to take appropriate steps to prevent, investigate, punish and redress private actors' abuse.

9.1.3.2 Direct prevention/mitigation

Direct prevention aims to eliminate risk factors and establish a legal, administrative and policy framework which seeks to prevent violations. It is also contingent on establishing a culture of respect for human rights, good governance and the rule of law, and an enabling environment for a vibrant civil society and free press.

9.1.3.3 Indirect prevention/non-recurrence

Indirect prevention of human rights violations, or non-recurrence, takes place after a violation has occurred. It aims to prevent recurrence by identifying and addressing causes of violations of all human rights, through investigation and prosecution, ensuring the right of victims and societies to know the truth about violations, and the rights of victims to an effective remedy, in accordance with international law.

9.1.3.4 Legislative and institutional framework for prevention

As a first step, prevention includes ratifying human rights treaties and their implementation at the domestic level and adopting laws and policies that guarantee human rights in law and practice.

The role of human rights education in prevention of human rights violation

Human rights education contributes to the prevention of human rights violations and conflict, and to the enhancement of participation in decision-making processes within a democratic system. Education about human rights must become part of general public education. Research institutes and universities should be also strengthened to train lawyers and judges.

9.1.3.5 Dialogue

Dialogue groups that assemble people from various ethnicities should be organized to overcome mistrust, fear and grief in society. Getting to know the feelings of ordinary people of each side might help to change the demonic image of the enemy group. Dialogue also helps parties at the grassroots level to discover the truth about what has happened, and may provide opportunities for apology and forgiveness.

9.1.3.6 Truth commissions

Truth commissions are sometimes established after a political transition. They can be understood as bodies set up to investigate a past history of violations of human rights in a particular country which can include violations by the military or other government forces or armed opposition forces. Their goal is to uncover details of past abuses as a symbol of acknowledgment of past wrongs. Finally, they conclude with a report that contains recommendations to prevent a recurrence of the crimes and to provide reparations to victims.

9.1.3.7 International war crimes tribunals

International war crimes tribunals are established to hold individuals criminally responsible for violations of international human rights law in special courts.

9.1.3.8 Democratization measures

Various democratization measures can help to restore political and social rights. For sustainability and long-term viability of human rights standards, strong local enforcement mechanisms have to be established. An independent judiciary that provides impartial means and protects individuals against

politically influenced persecution must be restored. Election monitors who help to guarantee fair voting procedures can help to ensure stable and peaceful elections. And various social structural changes, including reallocations of resources, increased political participation, and the strengthening of civil society can help to ensure that people's basic needs are met.

9.1.3.9 Humanitarian aid and development assistance

Humanitarian aid and development assistance seeks to ease the impact that violent conflict has on civilians. Once conflict has ended, development assistance helps to advance reconstruction programs that rebuild infrastructure, institutions and the economy. This assistance helps countries to undergo peaceful development rather than sliding back into conflict.



9.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain the concept of prevention of human rights violations.
2. Discuss different ways of prevention of Human rights violations.

9.2. National cohesion, identities and respect of human rights



9.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use the internet or visit your school's library and media to ready about the national cohesion and identities and then answer to the questions below:

1. Explain the concepts of national cohesion and national identity.
2. To what extent can national cohesion and national identity influence the respect of human rights.

9.2.1 National Cohesion

National cohesion involves the constructing of an integrated citizenry with a sense of belonging amongst members of different groups and from different

regions, through the regulation and reconciliation of differences as well as competing interests and demands.

9.2.2 National identity

National identity is the sense of a nation as a cohesive whole, as represented by distinctive traditions, culture, language and politics. A person's national identity is his/her identity and sense of belonging to one state or to one nation, a feeling one shares with a group of people, regardless of one's legal citizenship status. Scientists see national identity in psychological terms as "an awareness of difference", a "feeling and recognition of 'we' and 'they'".

National identity is not an inborn trait, various studies have shown that a person's national identity results directly from the presence of elements from the "common points" in people's daily lives: national symbols, language, national colours, the nation's history, national consciousness, blood ties, culture, music, cuisine, radio, television, and so on.

National identity markers are those characteristics used to identify a person as possessing a particular national identity. These markers are not fixed but fluid, varying from culture to culture and also within a culture over time. Such markers may include common language or dialect, national dress, birthplace, family affiliation, etc.

9.2.3 Factors of national cohesion and identities

The promotion of the national cohesion and identities requires deliberate strategies to reorganize the management of diversities. These strategies include:

- There is need to strengthen social institutions and organizations as well as mechanisms of governance to enhance national cohesion. The transformation of the political and governance institutions such as the executive, legislature, judiciary, civil service, local government, public administration, electoral rules, and party composition is particularly important for the achievement of national cohesion and integration.
- Adoption of diversity concepts at all levels of organizational management at public and private establishments.
- Establishment and enhancement of local community dialogue forums by creating, developing and/or expanding local community dialogue forums such as local workshops are essential.
- Strengthening the role of national, province and community leaders in promoting national cohesion and identity; community leaders

and traditional systems that promote national cohesion such as the Councils of Elders should be recognized and supported.

- Implementation and enforcement of legislation that is related to prosecution of individuals or groups that promote negative ethnicity and hate speech in Rwanda.
- Embrace of diversity and symbols of national unity emphasis should be placed on the sovereignty of the people, effective management of indigenous languages, national symbols, the national anthem, national days, national values and principles of governance among others.
- Develop and monitor a set of indicators and indices that capture the role of governance institutions in enhancing cohesion. These indicators will include: democratic governance, rule of law, reduction of corruption, justice and human security as well as promotion of value systems and public policies.
- Accelerate the development of special economic zones to improve the socio-economic profile of the less developed regions. The Government should ensure equitable infrastructural development across the country with attention to roads, electricity, water and sanitation among others.
- Facilitate equitable investments in social and economic services, education, training institutions, health facilities, food, security and water among others. Ensure universal access to fundamental human rights such as basic education, health services, and water and food security.
- Improve land management practices and challenges related to natural resource mismanagement. Since many conflicts in Rwanda revolve around land and management of resources, there is need to improve land management practices and address land inequalities and resource mismanagement.
- Address youth unemployment and other forms of socio-economic exclusion. The economy should be improved with the aim of facilitating the creation of more job opportunities.
- Use traditional performances such as dance, music, drama and sporting activities to facilitate cohesion amongst communities. Cultural performance and arts, especially those that are linked to specific events and national days, should be used to encourage and support national cohesion and integration.
- Media and cultural activities such as art, music, pictures and film can be used to broadcast messages of peace and positive co-existence.

- Therefore, the media should be used to promote various cultural activities that encourage and support national cohesion and integration.
- There is a need of strong communication strategy which should entail working with local media among others in a bid to counter stereotypes and other negative practices.
 - Another factor for national cohesion and identity includes the existence of a visionary leadership that practices good governance and develops a vision for the nation.
 - It is also essential to recognize changing demographics such as youth, men, women, people with various challenges and other groups.

9.2.4 Influences of national cohesion and identity on the respect of human rights

National cohesion and culture play a significant and fundamental role in fostering identity and sense of security by directing individual behavior. Cultural products serve to unify people while participation in cultural activities ensure that issues of national importance are profiled and messages of integration communicated thereby promoting mutual coexistence and respect of human rights as follows:

When the people identify themselves in one group, one country or state with the same culture, this enables them to defend them and safeguard their life and the life of each other.

The national cohesion is amongst the key points in respect of the human rights especially the right to the nationality as defended in Universal declaration of human rights and in the constitution of Rwanda as amended up to date. This is due to the will of sharing a nation as their identity.

In the traditional Rwanda, the Rwandans had the same religion, beliefs and rituals. This facilitated them to enjoy the freedom of worship because everyone was allowed to participate in his or her own traditional ritual like Kubandwa and guterekera. Today, even if there are various religious practices; the Constitution of Rwanda grants all citizens with freedom of worship. In this regard, the respect of human rights is ensured.

Culture is essential for individual survival and for social relations. Just as culture is essential for individuals, it is also fundamental for the survival of societies. Some system of rule-making and enforcing is necessary in all societies. In order to survive, societies need rules about civility and tolerance toward others. We are not born knowing how to express kindness or hatred towards others.

National cohesion and Rwandan identity can promote the respect of the human rights in the sense that they destroy the sectarian references, exclusions, division and negative ideologies that had characterised the Rwandan societies and led to the genocide against the Tutsi.

In culture of Rwanda and as it is stated in the constitution of Rwanda, every child has the right to the family and is entitled to special measures of protection by his/her family, society and the State. This enforces the respect of human rights especially the Convention on the Rights of the Child adopted in 1989.

In ancient Rwanda as well as today, the Rwandans enjoy the rights of being fairly tried. Judicial institution like Gacaca for instance, had been set up to perform such noble task. This cemented the culture of justice and all Rwanda people respected the decision made by hierachal courts of justice.



9.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Carry out a survey on different policies currently set up by government of Rwanda basing on the Ancient Rwandan cultural practices to rebuild the National cohesion and identity.
2. Explain how the national cohesion and national identity can influence the respect of human rights.

9.3. The background and structure of the national duties and obligations



9.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use different resources like interviews, books, internet or documentary films about national duties and obligations in Rwanda in order to give relevant answers to the questions below:

Explain the national duties and obligations of Itorerory'Ighugu, Umuganda and Imihigo

9.3.1. Itorero ry'igihugu

Itorero is one of the Rwanda's Home Grown Solutions in the governance cluster and is regarded mainly as a cultural-centred programme. It is a holistic training system that includes civic education exercises, cultural values, patriotism and social political development of Rwandans.

Itorero was initiated during the reign of King Ruganzu I Bwimba at around 1312 A.D. The traditional Itorero was a cultural school where Rwandans would learn about their language, their history, social relations, sports, dancing, songs, patriotism and national defense. Itorero was created so that people acquire a good and deep understanding of their culture.

From 1924 to 1994, Itorero was banned by the colonial rule and further by the post independence regimes.

Between May 1998 and March 1999, the consultative meetings in Urugwiro recommended the reviving of the cultural values that could help to cultivate decent citizens. It is in this spirit that the Rwanda government decided to draw from the Rwandan culture, some home grown tools to deal with our peculiar challenges in the area of governance, economy and social welfare.

The idea of re-establishing Itorerory'Igihugu came up during the leadership retreat that took place in Akagera in February 2007. It is in this perspective that a Cabinet meeting of 12th November 2007 passed a resolution to revive Itorerory'Igihugu and make it a channel for instilling a new mindset among Rwandans for speedy achievement of the development goals enshrined in the Vision 2020.

Itorerory'Igihugu was later revived at the official launch presided upon by His Excellency Paul Kagame, the President of the Republic of Rwanda on 16th November 2007 in the Parliament Buildings.

Itorerory'Igihugu has the objective of cultivating self-respecting citizens who are identified by their national values, who are eager to embrace speedy innovations that have positive impact on their social welfare. Itorerory'Igihugu also aims at cultivating visionary, patriotic, and exemplary servant leaders at all level of governance, leaders who have a heart for the people and their wellbeing.

The curriculum content for Itorerory'igihugu is unique to Rwanda due to the fact that it is based on principles and values peculiar to the Rwandan culture while Urugerero (National Service) on the other hand, has much in common with what takes place in other countries. Participating in Itorero is the obligation

of every Rwandan, regardless of status and social group. They include children from seven years old and the youth from the age of 18 to 35 years. For the latter age group, participating in Urugero (National Service) is obligatory.

The same content focuses on a desire to promote opportunities for development using Rwandan cultural values; identify taboos that inhibit the development of the country; fight violence and corruption; eradicate the culture of impunity; strengthen the culture of peace, tolerance, unity and reconciliation; and eradicate genocide ideology and all its roots.

9.3.2 Umuganda

Umuganda was created to help supplement the national budget spent in construction and the repair of basic infrastructure. The work done is organized by community members and is done voluntarily and without pay. The projects completed through Umuganda include the construction of schools, feeder roads, road repair, terracing, reforestation, home construction for vulnerable people, erosion control, water canals, etc.

Planning for Umuganda is done at council meetings at the cell level. It is the responsibility of local leaders as well as national leaders to mobilize the population to participate in Umuganda. Community members meet and plan the date and the activity. Participation in Umuganda is compulsory for all able-bodied citizens and it is expected that this policy will result in a more cohesive society as all members of a community come together to complete a project that benefits the community.



Rwandan population performing the umuganda activities

Source: <https://www.npr.org/sections/goatsandsoda/2018/07/18/628364015/how-rwanda-tidied-up-its-streets-and-the-rest-of-the-country-too>

Umuganda is one of Home Grown Solutions. Modern day Umuganda can be described as a community work. On the last Saturday of each month, communities come together to do a variety of public works. This often includes infrastructure development and environmental protection.

9.3.3. *Imihigo*

Imihigo (*Performance Contract*) is the plural Kinyarwanda word of Umuhigo, which means to vow to deliver. Imihigo also includes the concept of Guhiganwa, which means to compete among one another. Imihigo describe the pre-colonial cultural practice in Rwanda where an individual set targets or goals to be achieved within a specific period of time. The person must complete these objectives by following guiding principles and be determined to overcome any possible challenges that arise.

In 2000, a shift in the responsibilities of all levels of government as a result of a decentralization program required a new approach to monitoring and evaluation. Local levels of government were now responsible for implementing development programs which meant that the central government and people of Rwanda needed a way to ensure accountability.

In 2006, Imihigo were introduced to address this need. Since its introduction, Imihigo have been credited with improving accountability and quickening the pace of citizen centred development activities and programs. The practice of Imihigo has now been extended to ministries, embassies and public service staff.



Local and central government leaders are signing new performance contracts, best known as Imihigo

Sources:<https://www.newtimes.co.rw/news/leaders-sign-imihigo>

In putting into practice imihigo, the districts are responsible for implementing programs under this broad agenda while Central Government assumes the task for planning and facilitating.

9.3.4. Community policing.

When **Rwanda National Police (RNP)** was created in the year 2000, it adopted the community policing strategy to build ties and work closely with members of the community to fight crime. Since then, the department for community policy has been influential in reducing crime throughout the country.

Traditionally, the Police respond to crime after it occurs. On top of that, the Police cannot be everywhere at all times and, therefore, relies on routine patrols, rapid response to calls for service, arrests and follow-up investigations. Community policing, therefore, was adopted to encourage citizens to participate in crime-solving.

Community policing encourages the Police to increase the means by which citizens can report incidents or the use of volunteers to provide timely reports that help us in anti-crime operations.

This strategy has been very successful in increasing Police response to crime, because many reports are now provided by community members. This shows that people trust police to do its best in protecting their lives and property.



9.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain the background of the creation of Itorero. What was its curriculum content at its origin?
2. Explain the concept of Imihigo in its present-day meaning.
3. Account for the reasons for the creation of the community policing and Umuganda community work.

9.4. The contribution of the Rwandan citizens and non-citizens towards the national duties and obligations



9.4. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, media and interviews to assess the role played by the Rwandan citizens and non-citizens in the implementation of the national duties and obligations of Itorero, umuganda, imihigo and community policing.

9.4.1. National Itorero Commission

From 19 November 2007, Itorerory'Igihugu was launched in all districts of the country. In December 2007, a ceremony to present nationwide Intore regiments at district level to His Excellency the President of the Republic of Rwanda and other senior Government officials took place at Amahoro stadium. Each district's regiment presented its performance contract at that colorful ceremony marked by cultural festivals. Each district's Intore regiment publically announced its Identification Name.

There is also Itorero for Rwandan Diaspora that has the authority to develop its affiliated sub-division. From November 2007 up to the end of 2012, Itorerory'Igihugu had a total of 284,209 trained Intore.

In order to enable each Intore to benefit and experience change of mindset, each group chooses its Identification Name and sets objectives it must achieve. Those projected objectives must be achieved during or after training, and this is confirmed by the performance contracts that necessarily have to be accomplished. With this obligation in mind, each individual also sets personal objective that in turn contributes to the success of the corporate objectives.

The number of Intore who have been trained at the village level amounts to a total of 814 587. Those mentored at the national level are the ones who go down to mentor in villages, schools, and at various work places. In total, 1 098 599 Rwandans have been mentored nationwide.



Journalists, artistes and sportsmen who took part in the national Itorero Programme at the Kigali Convention Centre where they were waiting to meet the President /Village Urugwiro.

Source: <https://www.newtimes.co.rw/section/read/213653>

From 2007 to 2017, about 23 categories composed of over 2,300,000 people from both public and private institutions have been trained under Itorero. These include citizens (1,109,707), students (160,875), professionals (50431), teachers (43600), decentralized (leader 33509), trainers (7520), diaspora (2769), farmers (2256) and people with disabilities (392).

Through Uruggerero Program, Intore mentored in 2012 totaled 40,730. Among them, 19,285 were female, while 21,445 were male. However, those who joined Uruggerero were 37,660, female being 18,675 while male participants were 18,985.

9.4.2 Umuganda

Rwandans between 18 and 65 are obliged to participate in Umuganda. Expatriates living in Rwanda are encouraged to take part. Professionals also contribute to umuganda. It is in this context that members of Rwanda's elite and private sector, including engineers, medical personnel, IT specialists, statisticians and other professionals, are actively involved in Umuganda activities. The military personnel also participate in social activities like building schools and hospitals and this inspires the population to be very active as well.



People carrying out Umuganda

Source: <https://www.bing.com/images/search?view=detailV2&ccid=vpL0ENN&id=134EB29B47082D18B51405423A69D5941E3C8C6A&thid=OIP.vpL0ENNMSQAwQOWgWVBHxAHaEs&mediaurl>

9.4.3. Imihigo

Imihigo is the result of a participatory process of identifying and implementing priorities from the grassroots to the national level. In the process of identifying priorities, each level demonstrates its contribution to achievement of development goals.

Performance contracts offer various opportunities for community participation including various meetings at the district, sector, cell and village. Accountability days and public meeting after umuganda are interesting opportunities for participating in performance contracts. The above opportunities are exploited by many including communities, women, consultative councils who actively participate in performance contracts. In such meetings, local priorities to be included into the national priorities are directly discussed with all the people contrary to other levels that involve only people's representatives.



The best performing teacher was rewarded for her great performance

Source: <https://www.bing.com/images/search?view=detailV2&ccid=oIGr%2f60G&id>

9.4.4. Community policing

Community Policing Committees (CPCs) were introduced in 2007 and they are made up of ordinary citizens chosen by fellow residents. They operate in cells and sectors to collect information that helps in crime prevention, while they also sensitize residents about the need to collectively overcome crime.

The Youth Volunteers in Crime Prevention is an organization that has over 7,000 young men and women spread throughout the country – with an aim to promote security and participate in crime prevention. They have been influential in aiding Police operations and also in sensitizing fellow youth against crime.



Police officers creating a road connecting communities during 'Police Week' 2017/ Courtesy

Source:<https://www.newtimes.co.rw/news/police-attributes-security-gains-people-centred-policing>

The Community policing also works with motorists' association to ensure that road safety is respected, as well as with the business community to protect the country against economic crimes.



9.4. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Evaluate the contribution of the different categories of Rwandans towards Itorero and umuganda.
2. Someone said “aim high, the sky is the limit” in the context of Imihogo, explain the validity of that statement.
3. “The community policing requires the participation of civilians in its implementation”. Discuss.

9.5 The challenges faced during the implementation of the national duties and obligations



9.5. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, media and discuss with your colleagues or other key informants and analyze the challenges faced during the implementation of the national duties and obligations in Rwanda.

9.5.1. National Itorero Commission

According to Strategic Plan 2009-2012 of Itorero ry'Ighugu, the biggest challenge for Itorero is finding solutions to address the poor mindset of the average Rwandan. Other problems which impede development goals are corruption, genocide and divisionism ideology.

From the time Itorero was launched, it is remarkable that many Rwandans have not yet fully understood its purpose and rationale. This confusion has caused some people to link Itorero ry'Ighugu with activities of other associations. For example, those with a dancing purpose (cultural troupe).

To mentor a significant number of Intore throughout the country still requires a substantial financial budget. This also calls for the commitment of the government and its partners to finance the program.

9.5.2 Umuganda

The challenges faced by Umuganda fall into two broad categories: planning and participation. In some areas of the country, poor planning has led to unrealistic targets and projects that would be difficult to achieve without additional financing. In urban areas, participation in Umuganda has been lower than in rural areas.

To address these challenges, the team responsible for Umuganda at the Ministry of Local Government has run trainings for the committees that oversee Umuganda at the local level. These trainings include lessons on monitoring and evaluation, how to report achievements, the laws, orders and guidelines governing Umuganda as well as responsibilities of the committee. To overcome the issues of low participation rates in some areas of the country, especially in urban areas, an awareness raising campaign was conducted through documentaries, Television and radio shows to inform Rwandans about the role Umuganda plays in society and its importance.

Problems of measurements: Umuganda is one of the most important activities planned to be achieved through implementation of Imihigo. However, there is absence of a clear standard on how to measure the value of Umuganda. For instance, some districts measure its value based on the number of people participating on the day multiplied by the daily labour (mostly farming) rate applicable in that district, whereas other districts attempt to estimate the financial cost of achievements on the day of Umuganda.

9.5.3 Community policing

The following are the biggest challenges the National Police of Rwanda is faced to as far as Community policing is concerned: high population growth rate and high population density, high police population ratio, high Rural-urban migration rate, low level of education, illiteracy, and ignorance of laws and potential for increasing criminality.



9.5. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain how the absence of a clear standard on how to measure the value of Umuganda constitutes a challenge in implementation of imihigo.
2. Account for the challenges encountered in implementation of the following national duties and obligations: Community policing, itorero and umuganda.



SKILLS LAB

Use a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values you have acquired about home grown solution and role play the contribution of Umuganda in the social-political and economic development of Rwanda. Present your role play in the plenary.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Explain different types of Human rights.
2. Describe different ways of prevention of Human rights violations.
3. Explain the role that the media can play to influence national cohesion and national identity.
4. For you what is the importance of National Itorero Commission?
5. Describe the role of Umuganda to the development of the country.
6. What is the importance of the community policing?

UNIT 10

PREVENTION AND RESOLUTION OF CONFLICTS

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to analyze the national, international judicial systems and instruments, how the justice has been delayed and denied in Rwandan society, preventing and resolving conflicts and violence at the national as well as international levels.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

Using a range of written materials and internet, research on the organs responsible for preventing and resolving conflicts and violence, ways and challenges faced in preventing conflicts at the national and international levels.

10.1. Organs responsible for preventing and resolving conflicts and violence at the national and international levels



10.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Conduct your own research and explain how different organs contribute to the prevention and resolution of conflicts and violence at national and international.

Conflict is a reality of social life and exists at all levels of society. Conflicts have all the time existed. They are in different categories, they have different causes and therefore, there are no conflicts that are entirely similar. Different scholars tried to find causes of conflict:

- According to Nicholas Machiavelli, conflict was a result of the human desire for self-preservation and power.
- For Hobbes, the three ‘principal causes of quarrel’ in a state were competition for gain, fear of insecurity, and defense of honour.
- For Hume, the underlying conditions for human conflict were relative scarcity of resources and limited altruism.
- For Rousseau, the “state of war” was born from “the social state” itself.

Generally, a conflict exists when there is an interaction between two or more individuals, groups or organizations where at least one side sees their thinking, ideas, perceptions, feelings or will contradicting with that of the other side and feels that they cannot get what they want because of the other side.

There are four main causes of conflict:

- **Structural factors:** such as weak states, security concern and ethnic geography;
- **Political factors** like discriminatory political institutions, exclusionary national ideologies, intergroup and elite politics;
- **Economic factors**, for example widespread economic problem, discriminatory economic system, poverty, unequal access to national resources and modernization;
- **Cultural factors** like cultural discrimination, problematic group histories, emerging dehumanizing ideologies, etc.

The **escalating** or “going up” factors are what contribute towards turning a conflict into something negative or destructive. The **de-escalating** or “going down” factors are the factors that help to channel the conflict energy into something positive and constructive. The way conflicts are seen can determine how to deal with them. The figure below shows the process of conflict escalation and de-escalation.

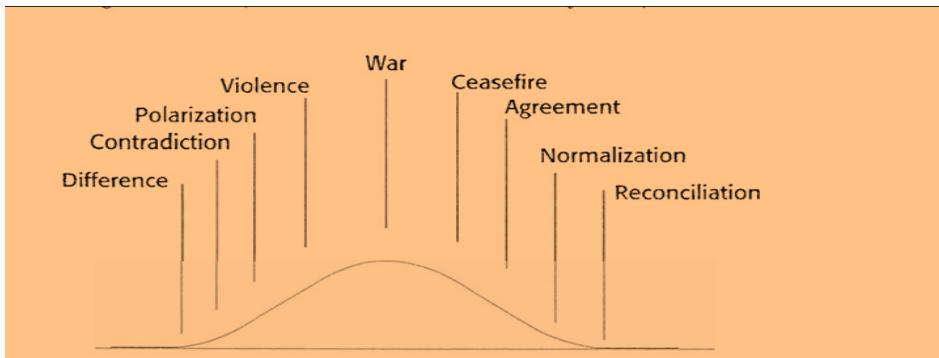


Figure 1: Conflict escalation and de-escalation

Conflict and violence are linked but are not identical. Violence is very often an expression of conflict, a way of carrying out conflicts.

10.1.1 Role of the state in prevention and conflict resolution

The state is the only legitimate user of physical violence in a society. Thus, it is almost by definition involved whenever there is an armed conflict in society. All these roles make the state an *actor* in conflict as well as an *object* of conflict. This causes a dilemma.

The dilemma of state in prevention and conflict resolution can be summarized as follows:

- If the state is powerful (totalitarian system), it creates counteraction, fear among the population and pay high cost of the repression in case of resistance; if it is weak it can be dismissed.
- There are many forces which can compete against the state. These forces include the companies interested in the extraction of minerals, the religious groups wanting to institute their own order; the political groups ethnically oriented searching for control of the power. A weak state can create intrastate wars, and a strong state may do the same. Both may also lead to regional/international repercussions.
- To find the 'ideal' state for lasting peace is not easy. Liberal democracy has been identified as an appropriate model, but it may not be applicable in every context and be sufficient to handle all the world's conflicts.
- International conflicts can be handled by the international institutions (such as the UN, the International Court of justice and regional organizations), while internal conflicts may be treated as "home affairs". However, internal affairs can be submitted to the international community if the legitimate, the government, ask for such an intervention. This is a

basic principle of the UN Charter and was seen as an untouchable principle during the Cold War.

To prevent conflict, therefore:

- The state should set up the mechanisms, institutions and policies aiming at fighting the violence and preventing the conflicts basing on the respect of the human rights.
- The state has also obligation of passing the rules and laws which limit the occasion of violence, outbreak of the conflicts and determine the pacific ways of conflict resolutions.
- The state, through its organs, must enforce the rules, regulations and the laws. This is basic principle for preventing the conflicts.

10.1.2 Role of international community in prevention and resolution of the conflict

The United Nations Organization (UN) has a broad mandate for the prevention of violent conflict under Article 1 of the UN Charter. It has a wide array of departments and agencies that have been working to very good effect to mitigate the sources of conflict and stop the immediate causes of violence. For instance, the UN is often best placed to undertake preventive initiatives. Such initiatives include preventive diplomacy, preventive disarmament, preventive peacekeeping, post-conflict peace building, capacity building and technical support, and activities promoting human rights and good governance.

The most visible manifestations of the UN Secretary-General's "good offices" efforts, Special Envoys, are deployed to help resolve a wide variety of disputes, from territorial questions to constitutional and electoral crises to peace talks. Special Envoys may have different mandates: country-specific (e.g. Syria, Yemen), regional (e.g. Sahel, Great Lakes), or thematic (e.g. prevention of genocide) mandates.

The UN special political commissions, headed by senior representatives of the Secretary-General, provide a tool for intensive and sustained preventive efforts across a range of disciplines such as electoral support, women's empowerment and human rights.

They support complex political transitions and help sustain peace in coordination with national and UN development and humanitarian entities and other actors such as regional organizations and international financial institutions.

The UN Peacekeeping missions bring military and police capacities to bear,

integrating them with civilian peacekeepers to advance multidimensional mandates. Peacekeepers provide security and political and peace building support to help countries make the difficult, early transition from conflict to peace, helping to prevent relapse and to secure longer term stability, working in partnership with many other actors.



UN peacekeeping soldiers from Rwanda patrol on December 09, 2014 in Bangui.

Source: <https://www.forbes.com/sites/realspin/2017/04/20/after-the-rwandan-genocide-the-un-promised-never-again-now-its-time-for-them-to-take-action-against-isis/#599d5e344142>

UN regional offices serve as forward platforms for preventive diplomacy. Their networks and proximity to the countries in their region help to defuse tensions and support national actors, UN Country Teams, and regional organizations to address crises. Regional offices are also well placed to address cross-boundary issues such as transnational organized crime and water sharing.

The UN works closely with regional partners – either in a leading or supporting role – to prevent conflict and maintain international peace and security. Partnerships with regional organizations such as the African Union (AU), the European Union (EU) or the Organization of American States (OAS), and sub-regional organizations like the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) or the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), play important roles in early warning, engaging national networks and coordinating regional responses.

10.1.3 Roles of regional organizations

Regional and sub-regional organizations are uniquely placed to affect several factors that are crucial in the prevention of violent conflict. Such organizations

can facilitate and help move forward the efforts of the UN system throughout its engagement in a given conflict or potential conflict.

Regional and sub-regional organizations are well placed to act because first, members of regional and sub-regional organizations may be more willing to allow these organizations, rather than the UN, to engage in preventive action.

The actions of regional and sub-regional organizations are likely to be more discreet than those undertaken by the various bodies of the UN, particularly at the early stages of potential conflict.

Moreover, regional and sub-regional organizations may be better placed to act because they are familiar with the actors involved in the dispute and the situation on the ground.

In addition, although their interests are not always benign, neighbors frequently have a greater interest in preventing conflicts that could potentially escalate to the regional level.

The regional and sub-regional organizations have an important role to play in developing a regional “culture of conflict prevention” through the promotion of democracy, human rights and sustainable development.

Lastly, they can and have been quite successful at longer-term and sustained conflict prevention efforts involving capacity building and technical assistance. In the past few years, this has begun to include election monitoring and broader democratization assistance in several regions.

10.1.4 Role of Non – Governmental Organizations on prevention and conflict resolution

In prevention and conflict resolution, the local and non-governmental organizations could play the following role:

- Addressing structural violence & promoting human security - through development, human rights monitoring & promotion, preventing environmental degradation...
- Making governments & state structures more responsive - through participation in political processes, policy dialogue, monitoring, advocacy campaigns, protests...
- Alleviating social tensions and conflict - through challenging xenophobia and discrimination, facilitating dialogue, promoting tolerance and a culture of peace...

- Developing options and strategies for response - formulating recommendations, engaging in policy dialogue, problem-solving workshops
- Mobilizing political will for response - lobbying and campaigning, sensitizing domestic audiences
- Developing & strengthening 'constituencies for peace' and public awareness work, facilitating social dialogue, public protests...
- Providing the humanitarian relief & support to war-affected communities; which reduce tension to the revengeful war.
- Strengthening capacities to mediate conflict and manage differences
 - through conflict resolution training, mediation services, education, promoting rule of law.
- Creating a 'pragmatic peace' at the local level, strengthening local community organizations' capacities for conflict transformation & peace building through public dialogue.
- Developing a negotiation agenda and vision for the future that addresses the causes and consequences of conflict.
- Participating in the political negotiations and Facilitating / mediating political negotiations process.



10.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Describe how each of the main organs in prevention and resolution of conflicts play its role.

10.2. Different ways used to prevent and resolve conflicts and violence



10.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

As a student-teacher who will deal with different cases of conflicts in pupils, discuss different ways used to prevent and resolve conflicts and violence.

Dealing with conflicts is called differently: “conflict management,” “conflict resolution”, “conflict transformation”, “conflict mediation”, “consensus building”, etc. Most of the theorists and practitioners prefer to use “conflict resolution”. The possible outcomes can be win-lose (one wins, the other loses), or compromise (parties settle their difference or win-win). However, the common outcome in violent conflicts is that both parties lose.

Because conflicts are an integral part of human interaction, one should learn to manage them in order to prevent escalation and destruction. Throughout history, individuals and groups used a variety of ways to resolve their disputes or conflicts, trying to reach a resolution acceptable to all parties.

10.2.1. Conflict analysis

In dealing with conflicts, it is necessary to have a better understanding of the dynamics, relationships and issues of the situation. A detailed analysis of the conflict from a variety of perspectives must be carried out by exploring the specific issues and problems that relate to it. This practical process is what is called “conflict analysis”. It helps to plan and carry out better actions and strategies by facilitating to:

- Understand the background and history of the current events;
- identify all the relevant groups involved;
- Understand the perspectives of all these groups and to know more about how they relate to each other;
- identify factors and trends that underpin conflicts; learn from failures as well as successes.

The whole dynamic conflict analysis is to be able to move from an attitude of “*I don't know what the real cause of the conflict is!*” to “*Now I know why we have this conflict!*”. It is therefore important for the person or group analyzing a situation to gather data about the positions, values, issues, interests and needs of each party in conflict.

- **Positions** are what the person says and demands. They contain an understanding of the situation, the outcome of the conflict and the role that the conflicting party plays in it. Very often they contain a value as a justification or legitimization. Positions are formal, official and very often public.
- **Values** are basic principles which are held to be very important and may be used to justify positions. They can be cultural norms, laws, ethics, etc.
- **Issues** are what the parties claim the conflict is about. They are specific and concrete. Very often factual problems are less important than relationship

problems, though conflicts are usually framed in factual terms.

- Conflicting parties are motivated by their own **interests**. They may be expressed but often they are hidden. Frequently, an actor may have several interests in a conflict. As interests are not essential human needs, they are negotiable and their relative importance may change with time.
- **Needs** are the fundamental, essential requirements for human survival. They relate to security, identity, community and vitality of human life. They are not negotiable, but they may be satisfied in different ways. They are usually unstated or disguised.

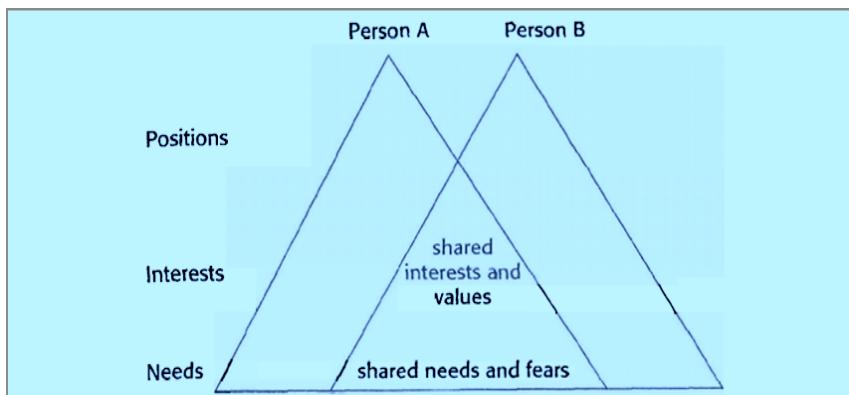


Figure 2: Conflict analysis

Conflicts change over time, passing through different stages of activity, intensity, tension and violence. It is helpful to recognize and analyze each stage.

10.2.2. Using timelines

It is a list of data (years, months, days, location, and actors) which depicts events in a chronological order. It shows a succession of events and gives examples in the history of the country. People of opposing sides may have different histories, emphasize different events, describe them differently, and attach contrasting emotions to them.

The aim of using timelines in this way is to try to arrive at a 'correct' or 'objective' history of the conflict and to understand the perceptions of the people involved. The timeline is also a way for people to learn about each other's history and perceptions of the situation. The aim to reach is the point where the parties in a conflict can accept that others may have valid perceptions, even if these are opposed to their own.

10.2.3. Conflict mapping

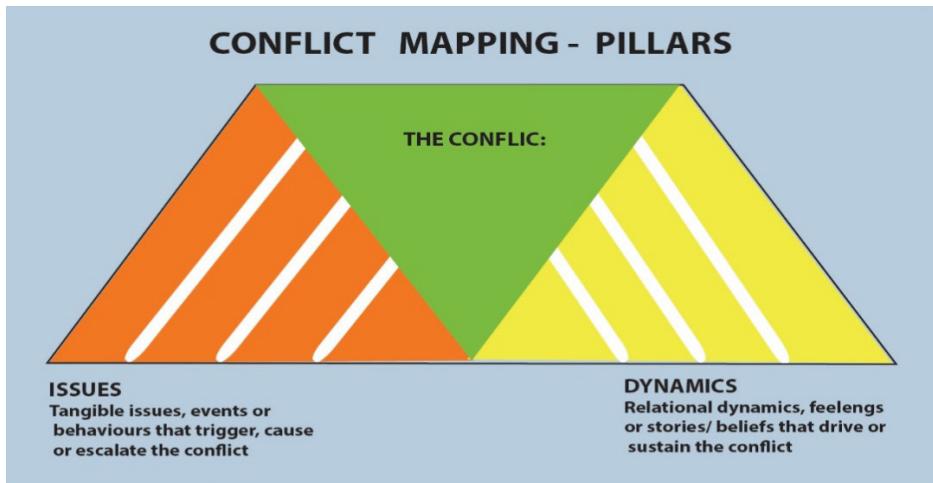


Figure 3: Conflicts mapping pillars

Mapping is a technique used to represent a conflict graphically, placing the parties in relation both to the problem and to each other. When people with different viewpoints map their situation together, they learn about each other's experiences and perceptions.

10.2.4. Conflict tree

In many conflicts, there is a range of opinions concerning questions such as:

- What is the core problem?
- What are the root causes?
- What are the effects that have resulted from this problem?
- What is the most important issue for our group to address?

This is called "conflict tree". It offers a method for a team, organization, group or community to identify the issues that each of them sees as important and then sort these into three categories: Core problem(s), causes and effects. This tool offers also a way of identifying positive and negative forces and to assess their strengths and weaknesses.

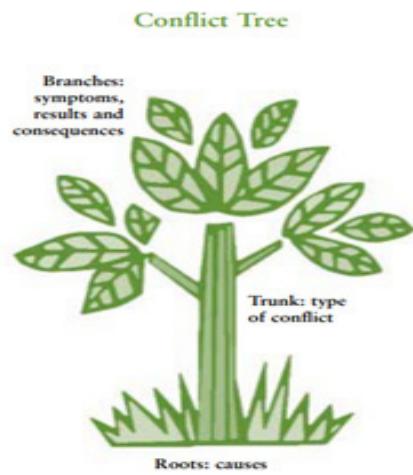


Figure 4: Conflict tree

10.2.5. Negotiation

Negotiation is a process in which parties to a conflict discuss directly possible outcomes. Parties exchange proposals and demands, make arguments, and continue the discussion until a solution is reached, or an impasse declared. The goal of negotiation is to reach an agreement that is acceptable to all parties, to which they remain committed, and which they indeed implement.

Negotiations are based on the following basic principles:

- **Separate the people from the problem:** The participants in a negotiation have with different perceptions, beliefs, viewpoints and emotions. In negotiation the “people side” must be treated separately from the factual issues. Ideally, participants should also see themselves working side by side attacking the problem, not each other.
- **Focus on interests, not positions:** The object of negotiation is to satisfy underlying needs and interests. To take and hold on a position will not lead to agreements that take care of human needs. Thus the focus should be on interests.
- **Invent options for mutual gain:** In negotiation, partners must take time to look for a wide range of possible solutions before trying to come to an agreement. If there are many options, there is more chance of finding solutions which advance shared interests and reconcile differences.
- **Use objective criteria:** Agreement must reflect some fair standards. These standards are not subjective criteria of one participant; rather they should be shared by all participants and objectively verifiable.

- Finally, **active listening** is the most important and difficult skill needed for negotiator or mediator to succeed in the negotiation process.

On international level, negotiation in order to resolve conflicts has become a common and frequent practice. Many ways are available to deal with conflict. In most cases, conflicts are resolved through efforts of trained government representatives or diplomats. This is an old tradition by which ambassadors were personal representatives of one sovereign to the court of another. In modern times, electronic communication has supplanted the individual diplomat when it comes to the establishment of important international agreements, but the role of person-to-person contact, even at the highest levels, remains important. The process of conflict resolution is like a debate.

10.2.6. Mediation

Mediation is a process that employs a neutral/impartial person or persons to facilitate negotiation between the parties to a conflict in an effort to reach a mutually accepted resolution. It is a process close to negotiation.

The mediator's role is to help the parties think in new and innovative ways and to avoid rigid positions instead of looking after their interests. In general, the mediator not only facilitates but also designs the process and helps the parties to get to the root of their conflict, to understand their interests, and reach a resolution agreed by all concerned parties. He/she uses tools such as active listening, open-ended questions, and his/her analytical skills.

The mediator may decide to stop the process for ethical or other reasons, and the parties may decide that they are not satisfied with the process. The agreement, which is reached between the parties is voluntary, the parties own it and are responsible for implementing it. The agreement is validated and ratified by the courts.

Mediation has a special advantage when the parties have ongoing relations that must continue after the conflict is managed. Since the agreement is by consent, none of the parties should feel they are the losers. Mediation is therefore useful in family relations, disputes between neighbors, in labor relations, between business partners, and political parties. It creates a foundation for resuming the relation after the conflict has been resolved.



© RCN Justice et Démocratie

Figure 5: Mediators hearing from each of the parties in conflict in Kirehe District in September 2012.

Source: RCN Justice & Démocratie http://www.rwandapedia.rw/sites/default/files/Mediation%20Session%20in%20Nyamugari%20Sector%20in%20the%20Kirehe%20District_2012.jpg



10.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Describe different ways used in prevention and resolution of conflicts and violence

10.3. Challenges encountered during the prevention and resolution of conflicts and violence



10.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Using textbooks and reports make a research on prevention and resolution of conflicts and violence; examine the challenges encountered by the peacemakers in conflict prevention and resolution process.

Solving conflicts completely is impossible, as conflict is part of the daily life. What is needed to achieve a lasting peace is to prevent escalation so that it does not become crisis with killings of human beings and destruction of social and material structures.

Practitioners say that peace begins within each individual and then spread out. The question is that not everyone is ready to engage in that process unless there is awareness action with that aim. This can be initiated by the state, the international institutions or civil society organizations.

Lack of conflict mechanism and programs in local community can hinder the prevention and resolution of conflict in the community. Not all countries or communities have such experience. Rwanda is among the countries who have elaborated such kind of programs because of its particular tragic experience.

Key challenges to conflict prevention remain in international affairs. Many states in the South are concerned that conflict resolution can be abused as a pretext for the big powers to violate the sovereignty of the weak. These concerns have been somewhat verified in the past couple of years. It is the case of recent operations in Libya.

Concerns about violations of sovereignty persist, as do suspicions about the underlying motivations behind the use of military power for ostensibly humanitarian purposes, and perceptions that, even when well-intentioned, the application of force can potentially have troubling and unpredictable consequences.

Lack of international community ownership regarding some crises: the actions of the United Nations are limited with insufficient humanitarian activities and in some cases (like in Darfur crisis), the international community's will is oriented by the big powers such as the USA and China. To some extent, China was mandated to play a more role to end the conflict in Darfur. Therefore, the conflict became insignificant to the UN which delays the action to be taken in order to stop it.

Unwillingness of the UN to develop a conflict resolution mechanism capable of managing crisis also is another challenge in process of conflict resolution. This unwillingness is a result of the misperception of the existence of global threats by states and non-states actors. Such willingness can be also resulted from the division within international community based on different interests each member state can find in conflict.

In case of intra-state conflict, some states are not able to address the menace of the proliferation of small arms and light weapons in polity with functional policies. This enables different groups to get armed and able to challenge the national security. As a result, the government is seen as a weak and failed state. Even the civil society is not able to act in order to prevent the conflict.

Some states also fail to tackle the immediate and root causes of conflict holistically. After many years of neglect, the government can fail to really solve many cases of injustice, poverty, unemployment and issues of resource control. In addition, the state failure to address early warning signs and early response systems can greatly affect the conflict prevention and resolution.

10.4. Solutions to the challenges encountered during the prevention and resolution of conflicts and violence

Conflict prevention and resolution involve long-term political processes, with periods of slow to no progress punctuated by shifts in positions, circumstances or contexts. While some types of conflicts can be sorted into broader categories due to certain common features, each conflict has to be seen in its particular environment.

To be effective, conflict resolution tools should integrate state and non-state actors through multi-track approaches at the local, national, and regional levels. Local civil society organizations may have a better understanding of local context and can play a significant role in supporting national conflict resolution and reconciliation processes at the local level.

Mediation is a specialized activity, which requires specific training, expertise and knowhow. Consequently, any third-party actor engaging in mediation efforts should be equipped with a solid understanding of how mediation and conflict resolution work.

Sustainable peace building contributes to the process of conflict resolution. Consequently, national and international efforts have to focus on meeting the most immediate needs of people.

Another key objective is the restoration of state legitimacy and effectiveness, as peace building usually starts after a partial or complete breakdown of the political and social order, for instance due to an armed conflict or other forms of protracted violence.

The establishment and promotion of prevention and conflict resolution must include national peace commissions, national and local institutions for mediation and dispute settlement, national and local early warning networks, local peace committees, truth and reconciliation commissions as well as community-based conflict prevention initiatives.

Early warning and early response systems must be considered on time so that they can be especially important contributions to end the conflict status within a society or between different nations.

The key building blocks for reconciliation include trust, justice and reparation. They should be applied in support of conflict resolution and peace building, reconciliation activities are inherently about learning how to remember and change rather than to forgive and forget.



10.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Discuss with examples, the challenge peacemakers face while trying to prevent and resolve armed conflicts in the world.
2. Examine the solutions proposed to the problems faced by the peacemakers when they are preventing and solving conflicts.



SKILLS LAB

Use a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values you have acquired about prevention and resolution of conflicts and debate the following topic **“the armed conflicts in the country are more caused by the weakness of the international community than the weakness of the country”**.



END UNIT ASSESSMENTt

1. Explain challenges that may occur when resolving armed conflicts.
2. Consider a case of a conflict you may know and explain different ways that have been used to prevent and resolve it.
3. Discuss how big powers come as a challenge to armed conflict resolution in Africa.



UNIT 11

DIGNITY AND SELF-RELIANCE

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to critique how the home-grown solutions contribute to self-reliance.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

Home Grown Solutions are Rwanda's brainchild solutions to economic and social development. Use internet, textbooks and media and answer to the following question:

1. Explain the concepts of Home Grown Solutions and self-reliance in Rwanda
2. Comment on how Home Grown Solutions contribute towards good governance, self-reliance and dignity.
3. Examine the challenges encountered during the implementation of the Home Grown Solutions.

11.1. Concepts of Home-Grown Solutions and self-reliance



11.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks and media and distinguish dignity from self-reliance thereafter, Explain the concepts of: Girinka, Ubudehe, Akarimak'igikoni, Kuremera, Umuganda, Agaciro, Imihigo, Itorero and Community policing.

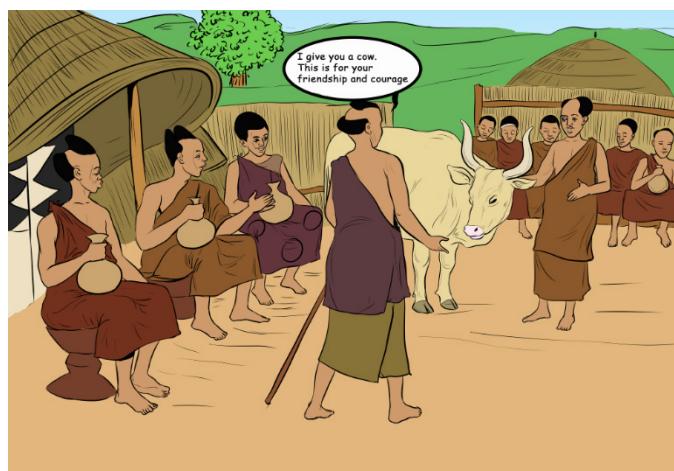
Dignity: It is a condition of being worth of respect, esteem or honor.

Self-reliance: This is a state of being independent in all aspects.

Home Grown Solutions are Rwanda's brainchild solutions to economic and social development. They are also practices developed by the Rwandan citizens based on local opportunities, cultural values and history to fast track their development. Being locally-created, Home Grown Solutions are appropriate to the local development context and have been the bedrock to the Rwandan development successes for the last decade.

11.1.1. *Girinka*

The word “*Girinka*” (*girainka*) commonly known as GirinkaMunyarwanda (One Cow per Poor Family Programme) can be translated as ‘may you have a cow’ and describes a centuries’ old cultural practice in Rwanda whereby a cow was given by one person to another, either as a sign of respect and gratitude or as a marriage dowry.



A traditional Rwandan giving a cow to a friend

Contemporary *Girinka* was introduced in 2006 against a backdrop of alarmingly high levels of poverty and childhood malnutrition. The program is structured in two phases. First, a community member identified as someone who would greatly benefit from owning a cow is given a pregnant dairy cow. That person benefits from its milk and manure production. Beneficiaries are then obliged to give the first born female calf to another worthy beneficiary in their community. This is known as the ‘pass on’ principle, or *kuziturirana/kwitura*.

Girinka has been described as a culturally-inspired social safety net program because of the way it introduces a productive asset (a dairy cow) which can provide long-term benefits to the recipient. Approved on 12 April 2006 by Cabinet decision, *Girinka* originally aimed to reach 257,000 beneficiaries; however, this target was revised upwards in 2010 to 350,000 beneficiaries by 2017. The Government of Rwanda was initially the sole funder of the *Girinka* program but development partners have since become involved in the program. This has led to an increase in the number of cows being distributed. By September 2014 close to 200,000 beneficiaries had received a cow.



The old woman is caring the cow given to her through Girinka Program

Source: https://www.bing.com/images/search?view=detailV2&ccid=oIGr%2f60G&id=DD0AFBBE7EF6005A7B1C6CF1871140326F860B29&thid=OIP.oIGr_60G_DI6umSwbzJjawHaFj&

11.1.2. Ubudehe – Social categorisation for collective action and mutual support

Ubudehe refers to the long-standing Rwandan practice and culture of collective action and mutual support to solve problems within a community. It is one of Rwanda's best known Home Grown Solution because of its participatory development approach to poverty reduction.

- **Traditional Ubudehe**



Figure 1: People working and sharing together during Ubudehe

The origin of the word *Ubudehe* comes from the practice of preparing fields before the rainy season and finishing the task in time for planting. A community would cultivate clear the fields together to make sure everyone was ready for the planting season. Once a community had completed *Ubudehe* for everyone involved, they would assist those who had not been able to take part, such as the very poor. After planting the partakers gathered and shared beer. Therefore, the focus of traditional *Ubudehe* was mostly on cultivation.

Ubudehe was an inclusive cultural practice involving men, women and members of different social groups. As almost all members of the community took part, the practice often led to increased solidarity, social cohesion, mutual respect and trust.

Colonisation and the introduction of a cash-based economy weakened the practice of *Ubudehe* as some members of the community were able to recruit some people to perform agricultural works for payment. While this trend occurred across the country, in some places *Ubudehe* was still practiced until the 1980s.

- **Contemporary Ubudehe**

Contemporary *Ubudehe* is a poverty reduction initiative by the Government of Rwanda which provides communities with the skills and support necessary to engage in problem solving and decision making for their development. It is a culture of collective action and solidarity to solve problems of poverty by people themselves. This is done by categorizing Rwandans into different income

groups according to self-sustenance. The poor are given priority in terms of health insurance, education, electricity, water supply and even accommodation.

From the independence of Rwanda, *Ubudehe* was reintroduced into Rwandan life in 2001 as way to better involve communities in their development by setting up participatory problem solving mechanisms. *Ubudehe* creates opportunities for people at all levels of the society, especially the village level, to interact with one another, share ideas, create institutions and make decisions for their collective development.

11.1.3. Akarimak'Igikoni (Small field of kitchen)

This is one of the government's home grown solutions for fighting against malnutrition. It consists of small field of vegetables cultivated near the house. The field is enriched by enough manure to increase production of vegetables. A variety of vegetables are grown there and careful supervision is ensured by family members. The Akarima k'Igikoni has played a significance role in combating malnutrition mainly in rural areas. It helps people to get balanced and varied diet hence good health and increase in production and life expectance of Rwandans.



Akarima k'Igikori

[https://www.bing.com/images/search?view=detailV2&ccid=AF0Vh4ef&id=06845EE9C24CC248A1BAD0587997531A0B67C71E&thid=OIP.AF0Vh4efOAHwgmOVsd_-](https://www.bing.com/images/search?view=detailV2&ccid=AF0Vh4ef&id=06845EE9C24CC248A1BAD0587997531A0B67C71E&thid=OIP.AF0Vh4efOAHwgmOVsd-_)

11.1.4. Kuremera

It is an initiative created by the government of Rwanda. It aims at solving the problem of unemployment especially among the youth. At the start, the Rwandan government gave Rwandan Francs 200 million to youth. They were given this

amount to start self-help projects. This has gone even to local levels. Members of a given community can join hands to help the needy in their community. For example, they construct houses, avail water for the aged and provide food.

11.1.5. Umuganda

Umuganda was created to help supplement the national budget spent in construction and the repair of basic infrastructure. The work done is organized by community members and is done voluntarily and without pay. The projects completed through Umuganda include the construction of schools, feeder roads, road repair, terracing, reforestation, home construction for vulnerable people, erosion control, water canals, etc.

Today, *Umuganda* takes place on the last Saturday of each month from 8:00 a.m. and lasts for at least three hours. Rwandans between 18 and 65 are obliged to participate in *Umuganda*. Those over 65 are welcome to participate if they are willing and able. Expatriates living in Rwanda are also encouraged to take part. Those who participate in *Umuganda* cannot be compensated for their work – either in cash or in kind.

11.1.6. Agaciro (*Agaciro Development Fund*)

This is solidarity fund that has been initiated by Rwandans. The fund seeks to improve the level of financial autonomy of Rwanda. It is a government programme. It was started by his Excellency the President of the Republic of Rwanda in August, 2012. It was started as a way of increasing self-reliance rather than relying on foreign aids.

11.1.7. Imihigo- Performance contracts

The word *Imihigo* is the plural Kinyarwanda word of *umuhigo*, which means to vow to deliver. *Imihigo* also include the concept of *guhiganwa*, which means to compete among one another. *Imihigo* practices existed in pre-colonial Rwanda and have been adapted to fit the current challenges of the Rwandan society.

Imihigo were re-initiated by Rwanda's President, Paul Kagame, in March 2006. This was as a result of the concern about the speed and quality of execution of government programs and priorities. The government's decentralisation policy required a greater accountability at the local level. Its main objective was to make public agencies and institutions more effective and accountable in their implementation of national programs and to accelerate the socio-economic development agenda

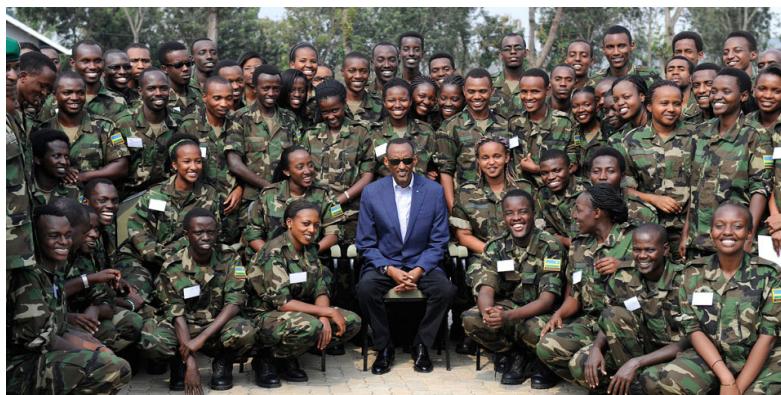
Today, *Imihigo* are used across the government as performance contracts and to ensure accountability. All levels of government, from the local district level to ministries and embassies, are required to develop and have their *Imihigo* evaluated. Members of the public service also sign *Imihigo* with their managers or head of institution. The *Imihigo* process ensures the full participation and ownership of citizens because priorities are developed at the grassroots level.

11.1.8. *Itorero*

Traditionally *Itorero* was a traditional institution where Rwandans would learn rhetoric, patriotism, social relations, sports, dancing, songs and defence. This system was created so that young people could grow with an understanding of their culture. Participants were encouraged to discuss and explore Rwandan cultural values. *Itorero* was reintroduced in 2009 as a way to rebuild the nation's social fabric and mobilise Rwandans to uphold important cultural values.

In the aftermath of the Genocide against the Tutsi, the Government of Rwanda reintroduced *Itorero* in view of societal transformation. This Home Grown Solution was adopted following the 4th Umwiherero (National Leadership Retreat) in February 2007.

Contemporary *Itorero* includes physical activities along with classes on Rwandan history that reintroduce some of the cultural values lost during colonisation. Training is adapted for the group participating in *Itorero*.



President Kagame closes 7th Itorero for youth living abroad

Source:<http://paulkagame.com/?p=3551>

Itorero is designed for all Rwandans. Children of seven years and above take part in their *imidugudu*, *villages*, to help them grow up to become responsible citizens. Compulsory National Service (*Urugerero*) is designed for those

between the ages of 18 and 35 who have completed secondary education. Others keen to participate are given the opportunity to do so according to their professional backgrounds.

Rwandan citizens living abroad also join *Urugerero* and a number of young Rwandans have organised *Itorero* in cities including London and Brussels. Non-nationals desiring to participate and provide service to the country can also do so.

11.1.9. Community policing

Community policing or community oriented policing is a strategy of policing that focus on building ties and working closely with members of the communities. Community policing was adopted in Rwanda to encourage citizens to participate in crime-solving.

Community policing encourages the Police to increase the means by which citizens can report incidents or the use of volunteers to provide timely reports that help us in anti-crime operations.

This strategy has been very successful in increasing Police response to crime, because many reports are now provided by community members.



Rwanda National police with people launches police week (2017)

Source:<https://www.bing.com/images/search?view=copyjpg&exph=350&expw=569&q=community+policing+in+Rwanda&simid=608043157824998829&selectedIndex=214>



11.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain the background of the creation of Girinka
2. Explain the concept of Uhudehe in its present-day meaning.
3. Account for the reasons for Imihigo.

11.2. Contribution of Home Grown Solutions towards a good governance, self-reliance and dignity.



11.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, media and interviews among the surrounding people and analyse the contribution of Home Grown Solutions towards a good governance, self-reliance and dignity.

Home Grown Solutions, culturally owned practices have been translated into sustainable development programmes and have contributed a lot in helping getting some socio-economic solutions that were not possible to get otherwise.

Dignity and self-reliance through Home Grown Solutions have positive contributions on the Rwandan society. Some of them are:

- They have brought, among Rwandans, a sense of togetherness and love for one another. The love is not based on any other string but Rwandans.
- Dignity and self-reliance have played a big role in the economic development of Rwanda. Every Rwandan feels that it is their duty to develop their own country.
- Dignity and self-reliance has led to promotion of peace and stability among Rwandans. People learn to respect and live in harmony with each other.
- Rwanda has been able to fight the bad history of tribalism of 1950s and early 1990s. Rwandans now work together towards the development of their nation.

- They have also helped to reduce income inequalities among Rwandans. Rwandan society looks forward to dignifying every member, that is, the rich help the poor.
- Dignity and self-reliance reduce the dependency ratio on the government. Some issues are addressed by the citizens through various campaigns such as 'bye-bye nyakatsi.' Campaigns such as *kuremera* and *Agaciro* Development Fund have enabled the government to finance up to 66% of its budget.
- Rwanda has been able to provide basic services to its citizens. For example, under the *Ubudehe*, the vulnerable Rwandans are given priority in terms of education.
- Dignity and self-reliance are very important in Rwanda. They promote growth and development of Rwanda. They bridge the gap between the poor and the rich. They enable provision of basic services, and helping the needy and disaster stricken people. They also help in poverty eradication.



11.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Describe the contribution of Home Grown Solutions towards a good governance, self-reliance and dignity in your district.

11.3. Challenges encountered during the implementation of Home Grown Solutions



11.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

In the implementation of home grown solutions, different challenges were encountered. With reference to what you have found in learning activity 9.1, discuss especially these ones that were faced in Girinka, Ubudehe and Umuganda programmes and how they can be handled.

11.3.1. Challenges of Girinka.

In some cases, the distribution of cows has not been transparent and people with the financial capacity to buy cows themselves were among the beneficiaries. This issue was raised at the National Dialogue Council (*Umushyikirano*) in 2009

and eventually resolved through the cow recovery programme. This program resulted in 20,123 cows given to unqualified beneficiaries (out of a total of 20,532 wrongly given) redistributed to poor families.

A lack of feed factories in the country has hindered efforts to properly feed some of the cattle affecting their health and productivity. The Ministry of Agriculture worked with investors who have shown interest in building feed factories in Nyagatare, Kayonza and Kicukiro. In some instances, the cost of management inputs has been high and in some districts there has been a delay in utilisation of earmarked fund. Decentralisation of the programme has helped address this.

Provision of additional services (especially veterinary services and artificial insemination) has been limited in some cases due to shortage of skilled staff with relevant training. This has affected the cows' milk production and the 'pass on' system.

Poor management by inexperienced farmers has increased the mortality for some cows. To address this, beneficiaries now receive training about modern farming practices prior to receiving their cow.

11.3.2. Challenges of Ubudehe

In some cases, village members have preferred to be classified into lower poverty levels as a way to receive support from social security programs such as health insurance and *Girinka*. To overcome this, household poverty level categorisation takes place publically with all heads of households and must be validated by the village itself.

In the project implementation, the major challenge lies in the choice of a project by the community and its completion. Actually, communities sometimes have difficulty defining the problems affecting their development and struggle to know how best to prioritise the projects and select the most crucial project to execute. Challenges also sometimes arise when communities are required to choose one household to act as a model for the village. This can be a point of contention because that household receives significant resources to carrying out its *Ubudehe* development plan.

11.3.3. Challenges of Umuganda

The challenges faced by *Umuganda* fall into two broad categories:

- Planning and participation. In some areas of the country, poor planning has led to unrealistic targets and projects that would be difficult to achieve without additional financing.

- In urban areas, participation in *Umuganda* has been lower than in rural areas. To address these challenges, the team responsible for *Umuganda* at the Ministry of Local Government has run trainings for the committees that oversee *Umuganda* at the local level. These trainings include lessons on monitoring and evaluation, how to report achievements, the laws, orders and guidelines governing *Umuganda* as well as responsibilities of the committee.

11.3.4. Challenges of *Itorero*

During its implementation, *Itorero* faced a series of challenges including:

- Inadequate staff and insufficient logistics for the monitoring and evaluation of *Itorero* activities;
- Training modules and internal regulations and procedures governing *Itorero* programmes not yet refined;
- Low level of understanding the important role of *Itorero* by *Igihugu* on the part of partners;
- Districts lack sufficient training facilities;
- Some *Itorero* mentors lack sufficient capacity to train other people;
- The National *Itorero* Commission does not get adequate information on partners' commitment to Volunteer Services;
- A number of various institutions in the country have not yet started considering voluntary and national service activities in their planning.
- Low understanding of the role of *Itorero* especially at the village level;
- Existence of some partners who have not yet included activities relating to the promotion of *Ubutore* culture in their plan of action.

11.3.5. Challenges of *Imihigo*

There is a planning gap especially on setting and maintaining logic and consistency: objectives, baseline, output/targets and indicators.

Setting unrealistic and over-ambitious targets by districts was common. Some targets were not easily achievable in 12 months; for example, the construction of a 30 km road when no feasibility study had been conducted or reducing crime by 100%.

In some districts low targets were established that would require little effort to implement.

The practice of consistent tracking of implementation progress, reporting and filing is generally still weak.

Some targets were not achieved because of district partners who did not fulfil their commitments in disbursing funds - especially the central government institutions and development partners.

There is a weakness of not setting targets based on uniqueness of rural and urban settings.

Setting targets that are beyond districts' full control was observed: For example, construction of stadiums and development of master plans whose implementation is fully managed by the central government.

There was general lack of communication and reporting of challenges faced that hindered implementation of the committed targets.



11.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Examine the challenges encountered in the implementation of Itorero.
2. Explain the key challenges in planning and implementation process of Imihigo.
3. Suggest solutions to the problems encountered in the implementation of Umuganda as Home Grown Solution in your sector.



SKILLS LAB

Observe the following image and apply the activity that follow:



By using the knowledge, skills, attitude and values that you have about Home grown solutions use the surrounding environment and available materials to make Akarima K'Igikoni and plant there vegetables or flower siblings. Explain to the class how you proceeded to make. Make follow up of it and share the production with others.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Assess the achievements and challenges of Umuganda in Social and economic sector.
2. Discuss the contribution of Girinka to poverty reduction in Rwanda.
3. Comment on the contributions of home-grown solutions to self-reliance in Rwanda.

UNIT 12

RWANDAN VALUES, TABOOS, CITIZENSHIP AT NATIONAL, AFRICAN, GLOBAL LEVELS AND THE ROLE OF DEMOCRACY IN THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE RWANDAN SOCIETY

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to examine the importance of citizenship at national, African and global levels and appreciate the role of democracy in the transformation of the Rwandan society.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

Read textbooks, reports and documentary films to make short note on the background of Ndi Umunyarwanda, pan Africanism and global citizenship.

12.1. Ndi Umunyarwanda: background, Rwandan values and taboos as well as their role in sustainable development



12.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Using internet and films, give the meaning of “Ndi umunyarwanda” and explain the origin of Ndi umunyarwanda”.

Ndi Umunyarwanda, means ‘I am Rwandan’. It is a programme initiated to build a national identity based on trust and dignity. It aims to strengthen unity and reconciliation among Rwandans by providing a forum for people to talk about the causes and consequences of the genocide as well as what it means to be Rwandan.

Ndi Umunyarwanda is a program and a process born out of the Youth Connect Dialogue. The dialogue was initiated by Rwandan youth, Ministry

of Youth and Imbuto Foundation, with the aim of building trust among Rwandans. NdiUmunyarwanda http://genocidearchiverwanda.org.rw/index.php/Category:Ndi_Umumnyarwanda_Collection.

programme was initiated in 2013, with an ultimate goal of building a national identity and to foster a Rwandan community that is based on trust and unity.

In the Rwandan context, trust is a process that can be achieved through responsible and continuous dialogue, on the truth about our history, the cost struggle. Ndi Umunyarwanda reminds Rwandans that the struggle to protect their nation and sustain their achievements is ongoing. The concept is based on four pillars: **history, testimonies, forgiveness and healing**.

It was born to help Rwandans, especially the youth, openly talk about their history, repent, forgive, and heal in the post-Genocide period. Seeking the truth, expressing the remorse for what happened during the Genocide, encouraging apologies and forgiveness and taking measures to ensure that what happened never happens again are the foundation of Ndi Umunyarwanda programme.

If it is well implemented, Ndi Umunyarwanda will help a lot because it will be a platform to break the awkward silence that we have in our society. We should not be carrying the trauma of not being able to express ourselves. We can express ourselves and still be Rwandans.' They need a platform where they can talk about what they feel and think in order to heal and move forward. Ndi Umunyarwanda will help build trust among Rwandans and it will bring a lot of successes for this country because we will see more people working together and developing themselves more than before.

Ndi Umunyarwanda teaches about the qualities of the Rwandan including:

- Trust in each other
- Truth and tolerance
- Listening
- Humility
- Self-respect
- Helping each other
- Patriotism
- Team work

Ndi Umunyarwanda also teaches Rwandans about **taboos**. These are vices or things and we should not practice or emulate. Such taboos include:

- Selfishness
- Betray the country
- Having genocide ideology, hate, and passing that on to your sibling.

The role of Ndi Umunyarwanda values in sustainable development

- **Ndi Umunyarwanda values** have brought, among Rwandans, a sense of togetherness and love for one another.
- Dignity and self-reliance have played a big role in the economic development of Rwanda. Every Rwandan feels that it is their duty to develop their own country.
- Dignity and self-reliance has led to promotion of peace and stability among Rwandans. People learn to respect and live in harmony with each other.
- With **Ndi Umunyarwanda values**, Rwanda has been able to fight the bad history of tribalism of 1950s and early 1990s. Rwandans now work together towards the development of their nation.
- **Ndi Umunyarwanda values** have also helped to reduce income inequalities among Rwandans. Rwandan society looks forward to dignifying every member, that is, the rich help the poor.
- Dignity and self-reliance reduce the dependency ratio on the government. Some issues are addressed by the citizens through various campaigns such as 'bye-bye nyakatsi.' Campaigns such as *kuremera* and *Agaciro* Development Fund have enabled the government to finance up to 66% of its budget.



12.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. What does Ndi Umunyarwanda mean?
2. Explain how Ndi Umunyarwanda values contributed in sustainable development of Rwanda.

12.2. Concept and importance of Pan-Africanism and global citizenship



12.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

For many years Africans wished to have a united continent, use internet and textbooks to find the importance of pan-Africanism.

12.2.1. *The concept of Pan-Africanism*

Pan-Africanism is a worldwide movement that aims to encourage and strengthen bonds of solidarity between all indigenous and diaspora ethnic groups of African descent. It is based on the belief that unity is vital to economic, social, and political progress and aims to «unify and uplift» people of African descent. At its core Pan-Africanism is a belief that “African people, both on the continent and in the diaspora, share not merely a common history, but a common destiny”. Pan-Africanist intellectual, cultural, and political movements tend to view all Africans and descendants of Africans as belonging to a single “race” and sharing cultural unity. Pan-Africanism posits a sense of a shared historical fate for Africans in the Americas, West Indies, and, on the continent itself, has centered on the Atlantic trade in slaves, African slavery, and European imperialism.

Pan-Africanism is a dynamic concept of seeing Africa [and its populations] as one entity in its different components: people, cultures, history, and issues and considering Africans as one race wherever they are in time and space.

Pan-Africanists envision a unified African nation where all people of the African diaspora can live. The most important early Pan-Africanists were Martin Delany and Alexander Crummel, both African Americans, and Edward Blyden born in West Indies. However, the true father of modern Pan-Africanism was the influential thinker W.E.B. Du Bois.

Among the more-important Pan-Africanist thinkers of the first decades of the 20th century was Jamaican-born Black Nationalist Marcus Garvey. From the 1920s through the 1940s, among the most-prominent black intellectuals who advocated Pan-Africanist ideas were C.L.R. James and George Padmore, both of whom came from Trinidad. From the 1930s until his death in 1959, Padmore was one of the leading theorists of Pan-African ideas. Also influential

were Léopold Senghor and Aimé Césaire , who were natives of Senegal and Martinique, respectively. A disciple of Padmore, Jomo Kenyatta of Kenya, was also an important figure in Pan-Africanist thought. The most-important figure of 1950s period was Kwame Nkrumah of Ghana who believed that European colonial rule of Africa could be extinguished if Africans could unite politically and economically.



Kwame Nkrumah (1899 –1972), Jomo Kenyatta (1889-1978), Léopold Séder Senghor (1906-2001)

The importance of Pan-Africanism

- Pan Africanism helped Africans to speak with one voice during the anti-colonial struggle and in subsequent diplomatic and economic negotiations.
- The regional economic communities in Africa and the ideas of founding a borderless Africa with a single market, freedom of movement for labour and capital was inspired by pan Africanism movement.
- Although divisions are still there, Pan-Africanism serves as a catalyst to confront these divisions via the continued mobilization for global, Black solidarity and consolidation.
- Pan Africanism affirmed the worth of black people and therefore rejected the inferiority ascribed by racist thought in the late 19th and 20th Cs.
- It helped to launch the struggle for rights and equality for black people in the diaspora; although there were advocates of a return migration to Africa, eventually and especially after 1945, black people in the diaspora focused on rights and justice where they lived.

- In Africa, the movement asserted the right of independence for Africans—“Africa for the Africans.”
- Early in the century, for the newly emerging African elite, it was a source of ideas and contacts, especially for students studying abroad;
- It helped to provide an ideology of unity in the process of mass mobilization of Africans for the independence struggle;
- It also helped to build a constituency in Europe and North America which was sympathetic to and supportive of independence for Africa and this came to form important ‘public opinion’ in the 1950s and 60s.
- The ideas of Pan Africanism were used by nationalists to form political parties and liberation movements in many states of Africa which fought and led African countries to independence.
- The ideas of Pan Africanism resulted in the formation of OAU in 1963. With Pan Africanism African political unity was sowed and this unity influenced the formation of OAU that joined all African countries. The headquarters of OAU were at Addis- Ababa from where coordination among African states was carried out, hence facilitating the liberation struggles.
- The Pan Africanism helped to sensitize black people about their rights and helped them present their human rights abuses before the UN. A number of Pan Africanists, for example, Julius Nyerere, Kwame Nkrumah, Kamuzubanda, Jomo Kenyatta and others started sensitizing fellow Africans about their rights, including the rights for self-government.
- The Pan Africanism has continued to voice its dissatisfaction against neocolonialism in Africa. The Pan African groups around the world have succeeded in focusing the world’s attention to the existence of neocolonialism that is hindering the development of African countries even after independence.

12.2.2. Global Citizenship

It is a way of living that recognises that our world is wide, interconnected and interdependent. One in which our choices and actions may have repercussions for people and communities locally, nationally or internationally. A Global Citizen is someone who:

- is aware of the wider world and has a sense of their own role as a world citizen
- respects and values diversity
- has an understanding of how the world works

- is outraged by social injustice
- participates in the community at a range of levels, from the local to the global
- is willing to act to make the world a more equitable and sustainable place
- takes responsibility for their actions.

To be effective Global Citizens, young people need to be flexible, creative and proactive. They need to be able to solve problems, make decisions, think critically, communicate ideas effectively and work in collaborative way for sustainable development.



12.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. What is pan Africanism?
2. What was the importance of pan-Africanism which Africans struggled to achieve?

12.3. Some characteristics of a good leader (competent, humility, patience, attentive listening...)



12.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Anana is the executive secretary of Lanzo sector. He is known to work many hours per day. When many people are waiting for him to solve their problems, Anana can not leave the office before all problems are answered. Anana worries about people who are in category one of Ubudehe. What are the qualities of this leader?

Everybody defines leadership differently but I really like the way John C Maxwell defines leadership, “**A leader is one who knows the way, goes the way, and shows the way.**” Irrespective of how you define a leader, he or she can prove to be a difference maker between success and failure. A good leader has a futuristic vision and knows how to turn his ideas into real-world success stories. In this article, we take an in-depth look at some of the important leadership

qualities that separate good leaders from a bad one. The following are some of the characteristics of a good leader:

- **Competency:** To be competent is having suitable or sufficient skill, knowledge, experience, etc., for some purpose; properly qualified. Competent leader, therefore, performs through every season of leadership, during the good, bad, and ugly times of leading. They know how to nourish themselves and remain self-motivated. The most important role of a leader is to produce results, primarily by influencing those around them to perform
- **Honesty and integrity:** The 34th President of United States, Dwight.D.Eisenhower once said, “**The supreme quality of leadership is unquestionably integrity.** Without it, no real success is possible, no matter whether it is on a section gang, a football field, in an army, or in an office.” Honesty and integrity are two important ingredients which make a good leader.
- **Humility:** Humility is often characterized as genuine gratitude and lack of arrogance, a modest view of one's self.Humility is one of the most respected strategic leadership qualities. Humble leaders admit their mistakes, apologize when necessary, and always share credit. This behavior makes you more “human” and relatable; it's also simply a best practice to empower and reward others instead of acting like the smartest person in the room (even if you are!) Humble leaders treat others with respect. Humble leaders are consistent and disciplined in their treatment of others. They treat everyone with respect regardless of their position, role or title.
- **Patience:** A good leader should have the ability to endure difficult circumstances such as perseverance in the face of delay; tolerance of provocation without responding in annoyance; or forbearance when under strain, especially when faced with longer-term difficulties.
- **Confidence:** To be an effective leader, you should be confident enough to ensure that other follow your commands. If you are unsure about your own decisions and qualities, then your subordinates will never follow you. As a leader, you have to be oozing with confidence, show some swagger and assertiveness to gain the respect of your subordinates. This does not mean that you should be overconfident, but you should at least reflect the degree of confidence required to ensure that your followers trust you as a leader.
- **Inspire Others:** Probably the most difficult job for a leader is to persuade others to follow. It can only be possible if you inspire your followers by setting a good example. When the going gets tough, they

look up to you and see how you react to the situation. If you handle it well, they will follow you. As a leader, should think positive and this positive approach should be visible through your actions. Stay calm under pressure and keep the motivation level up.

- **Commitment and Passion:** Your teams look up to you and if you want them to give them their all, you will have to be passionate about it too. When your teammates see you getting your hands dirty, they will also give their best shot. It will also help you to gain the respect of your subordinates and infuse new energy in your team members, which helps them to perform better. If they feel that you are not fully committed or lacks passion, then it would be an uphill task for the leader to motivate your followers to achieve the goal.
- **Good Communicator:** Until you clearly communicate your vision to your team and tell them the strategy to achieve the goal, it will be very difficult for you to get the results you want. Simply put, if you are unable to communicate your message effectively to your team, you can never be a good leader. Words have the power to motivate people and make them do the unthinkable. If you use them effectively, you can also achieve better results.
- **Decision-Making Capabilities:** Apart from having a futuristic vision, a leader should have the ability to take the right decision at the right time. Decisions taken by leaders have a profound impact on masses. A leader should think long and hard before taking a decision but once the decision is taken, stand by it. Although, most leaders take decisions on their own, but it is highly recommended that you consult key stakeholders before taking a decision. After all, they are the ones who will benefit or suffer from your decisions.
- **Accountability:** As a leader, make sure that every one of your subordinates is accountable for what they are doing. If they do well, give them a pat on the back but if they struggle, make them realize their mistakes and work together to improve. Holding them accountable for their actions will create a sense of responsibility among your subordinates.
- **Delegation and Empowerment:** You cannot do everything, right. It is important for a leader to focus on key responsibilities while leaving the rest to others. By that, I mean empowering your followers and delegating tasks to them. If you continue to micromanage your subordinates, it will develop a lack of trust and more importantly, you will not be able to focus on important matters, as you should be. Delegate tasks to your subordinates and see how they perform. Provide them with all

the resources and support they need to achieve the objective and give them a chance to bear the responsibility.

- **Creativity and Innovation:** What separates a leader from a follower? According to Steve Jobs, “Innovation distinguishes between a leader and a follower.” In order to get ahead in today’s fast-paced world, a leader must be creative and innovative at the same time. Creative thinking and constant innovation is what makes you and your team stand out from the crowd. Think out of the box to come up with unique ideas and turn those ideas and goals into reality.
- **Empathy:** Leaders should develop empathy with their followers. Unfortunately, most leaders follow a dictatorial style and neglect empathy altogether. Due to this, they fail to make a closer connection with their followers. Understanding the problems of your followers and feeling their pain is the first step to become an effective leader. A good leader should work hard and provide his/ her followers with the suitable solution to their problems.



12.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Describe the qualities you think all leaders should have.

12.4. Some characteristics of good governance



12.4. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Referring to any country of your choice, explain the characteristics of good governance.

Governance is «the process of decision-making and the process by which decisions are implemented (or not implemented). The concept centers on the responsibility of governments and governing bodies to meet the needs of the masses as opposed to select groups in society. The following are some of the characteristics of good governance:

- **Participation:** Participation of both sexes is crucial to good governance. Participation could be direct or indirectly, through representation.

Participation means the citizens needs to be informed and organized. This is where the freedom of association and organized civil society play key roles.

- **Accountability:** This is a key requirement of good governance. Not just for government institutions but also for civil societies and private sectors. They must be accountable to their stakeholders and to the public. Accountability must be accompanied by transparency and rule of law.



President Paul Kagame and Prime Minister Habumuremyi leading Umwiherero. 11th National Leadership Retreat

Source: http://www.rwandapedia.rw/sites/default/files/13062988465_7e76c492ef_b_0.jpg

- **Good Planning:** Planning is the process of goal setting; developing the approach to achieve those goals; outlining activities; prioritizing them; and creating a schedule that brings us closer to the goals that we set. With this understanding, we can strive to focus on the goal and work effectively to achieve it. Effective planning is one of the best methods to manage your time in order to use it to your advantage. “If you fail to plan you plan to fail”, because spending time without proper planning will lead you nowhere.
- **Rule of Law:** This refers to the legal framework that is enforced impartially. It requires the protection of human rights and the rights of the minorities. For this to be effective, the judiciary must be independent and the police force must be impartial and incorruptible.
- **Responsiveness:** Good governance presupposed that institutions and processes serve all stakeholders and respond as soon as the need arises. It entails government acting expeditiously in time of crisis or emergency.
- **Equity and Inclusiveness:** This requires that all groups in society be

given opportunity to improve and maintain their well-being. It means giving an open door to all and treating all equally.

- **Transparency:** This means decision taking and enforcement are done in a way that abides by rules and regulations. It allows for information flow. Moreover, information must be freely available to those who will be affected by it, in an easily understandable form.
- **Effectiveness and Efficiency:** This emphasizes the need for institutions and establishments to produce results that meet the needs of present society with the resources available. The concept covers the sustainable use of resources and the protection of the environment.
- **Democratization:** It allows for individuals and every group in society to be given the opportunity to vie for positions without hindrance. It is the opportunity to fairly compete, without intimidation or discrimination.
- **Free Press:** A press that is not gagged. A press responsible in reportage and investigative journalism is emphasized here.
- **Virile Civil Society:** This refers to the civil society that is conscious and alive to its responsibilities.



12.4. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

What are the criteria that can help you to judge if any administrative entity has good governance?

12.5. Definition of democracy, justice, and different forms of democracy and justice



12.5. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Democracy was born in Athens city-state of Greece and today the countries of the entire world compete to implement the principles of democracy. Use textbooks and internet and respond to the following questions:

1. Define democracy and justice
2. Explain different forms of democracy and justice

12.5.1. The concept of democracy

Etymologically the term “democracy” means “power of people”. It derives from two Greek words “demos” or people and “kratos” which mean power. Democracy is defined as the government in which the supreme power is vested in the people. In some forms, democracy can be exercised directly by the people; in large societies, it is by the people through their elected representatives. In the memorable phrase of American President Abraham Lincoln, democracy is the government of “the people, by the people, and for the people”. Thus, democracy is simply a system of government where the citizens directly exercise their power, and have the right to elect the government representatives who collectively create a government body for the entire nation (like, a parliament).

The basic features of democracy include the following:

- **Political freedom:** This means, a freedom of choice, social order and form of government. It refers to the right of people to determine and change constitutional order and ensure the protection of human rights.
- **Equality of citizens:** This means equality of all people before the law, equal responsibility of any committed offense and the right to equal protection before court. Equality is guaranteed for all citizens: there can be no privileges or restrictions on the grounds of race, colour, political beliefs, religious or other convictions, ethnic or social origin, property status, residence, linguistic or other grounds. The most important aspect is the equality of rights and freedom of men and women who have the same opportunities for their implementation.
- **Selectivity of state bodies:** This implies formation of authorities and local government through the people’s will. It ensures that people have equal opportunity to exercise electoral rights for everybody. In a democratic state, the same people should not permanently occupy positions in government bodies for a long time: this causes distrust of citizens and leads to a loss of legitimacy of these bodies.
- **Separation of powers:** This means that interdependence and mutual restrictions are imposed on different branches of power: legislative, executive and judicial powers. It serves as a means of checks and balance in order to avoid the accumulation of powers in the hands of some individuals who would transform their power into a means of suppressing freedom and equality.
- **Decision-making by the will of the majority with the mandatory observance of the rights of the minority:** This feature means the combination of the will of the majority with guarantees of the rights of the individual who acts as a part of the minority (ethnic, religious

or political). It also means the absence of discrimination, suppression of rights of an individual who is not a part of the majority in decision-making activities.

- **Pluralism:** It refers to the diversity of social phenomena, broadening of the range of political choice, leading not only pluralism of opinions but also political pluralism, the plurality of parties, public associations, etc.

12.5.2 The concept of justice

According to Aristotle justice consists of treating equals equally and “unequals” unequally, in proportion to their inequality. Justice is an action in accordance with the requirements of some laws. Whether these rules are grounded in human consensus or societal norms, they are supposed to ensure that all members of the society receive fair treatment. Justice ensures that people receive their fair share of the goods available; obtain fair treatment from society's institutions. Justice also implies that people's actions conform to rules of fair play.

There are four main features of justice including meritocracy, fairness, equality and moral righteousness.

Meritocracy This is the idea of “getting what one deserves”. For example, a person can receive a medal for bravery, risking one's life to save a drowning person

Fairness: This is the idea of treating equals equally. For example, two people doing the same job competently with the same amount of experience and training should get the same pay. There should not be distinctions in rates of payment based on gender, age, racial or ethnic background or any other factor not related to performance on the job.

Equality: This common understanding of justice is embodied in equal citizenship rights for all persons (for example, the right of all to vote in elections and run for political office and equal entitlement to universal public programs such as health insurance and education). Equality also demands that there should be an equitable sharing of civic burdens, such as paying taxes (although “progressive” taxation schemes may require the wealthy to pay proportionately more, they are about fairness).

Moral righteousness: This final aspect of justice encompasses the ideal of individual virtue and ethical conduct. Individuals are thought to be “just” when they engage in **altruistic** behaviour to help others or make society a better place and set an example of altruistic conduct in both their personal responsibilities

(as a spouse, parent or friend) as well as civic and public roles (as an employee, elected politician or club president).

12.5.3. Different forms of democracy and justice

I. Forms of democracy

The main forms of democracy include direct democracy, representative democracy, presidential democracy, parliamentary democracy, authoritarian democracy, participatory democracy, Islamic democracy and social democracy.

Direct democracy: A direct democracy is when citizens get to vote for a policy directly, without any intermediate representative or house of parliament. If the government has to pass a certain law or policy, it goes to the people. The latter vote on the issue and decide the fate of their own country.

Representative democracy: Representative democracy or indirect democracy is when people choose to vote for who will represent them in the parliament. This is the most common form of democracy found across the World. This form of democracy is based on protecting the rights of not only the majority of the people in the state but also the minorities. By electing a more qualified representative, a minority population would be able to vocalize its *grievances* in a more efficient manner.

Most of the representative democracies of the World consider themselves to be liberal democracies. This is because they value the needs of their individual citizens more than those of the entire state. This is why in countries like India and the USA; it is difficult to proclaim a state of emergency.

Presidential democracy: Under a presidential democracy, the president of the state has a significant amount of power over the government. He/she is either directly or indirectly elected by citizens of the state. The president and the executive branch of the government are not liable to the legislature, but cannot, under normal circumstances, dismiss the legislature entirely. Similarly, the legislature cannot remove the president from his/her office either, unless the case is extreme.

In a presidential democracy, the head of state is also the head of the government. Countries like the USA, Argentina, and Sudan employ this kind of democracy.

Parliamentary democracy: A democracy that gives more power to the legislature is called a parliamentary democracy. The executive branch derives its democratic legitimacy only from the legislature, i.e. the parliament. The head of state is different from the head of government, and both have varying degrees

of power. However, in most cases, the president is either a weak monarch (e.g. the United Kingdom) or a ceremonial head (e.g. India).

Authoritarian democracy: This is when only the elites are a part of the parliamentary process. Some individuals of the state are allowed to vote for their chosen candidate, but “regular people” cannot enter the elections. Therefore, in the end, it is only the ruling elite that decide on the various interests of the state’s population.

Participatory democracy: This is the exact opposite of authoritarian form of democracy. There are different types of participatory democracy, but all of them yearn to create opportunities for all members of the population to make meaningful **contributions** to the decision-making process. It empowers the disempowered by breaking up the state into small networks and prefers to empower community-based grassroots politics. It values deliberation and discussion, rather than merely voting.

Islamic democracy: This form of democracy seeks to apply Islamic law to public policies, while simultaneously maintaining a democratic framework. Islamic democracy has three main characteristics. Firstly, the leaders are elected by the people. Secondly, everyone is subject to the Sharia law including the leaders. Thirdly, the leaders must commit themselves to practicing shura, a special form of consultation practiced by Prophet Muhammad. The only countries that fulfil these three characteristics are Iran, Afghanistan, Pakistan, and Malaysia.

Social democracy: Social democracy arose as a reaction to neoliberal policies in international economics. Under neo-liberalism, profit-making entities like multinational corporations can easily infiltrate other political states, thus the power of the political state seems weak.

Social democracy aims at empowering the state in favour of the neoliberal market. The state can increase its expenditure by providing free alternatives to overpriced private **ventures**. It may focus on providing free education or free healthcare, so that people do not have to depend on profit-making corporations.

This list obviously does not claim to be an exhaustive discussion around the different types of democracy that exist today. There are as many theories concerned with democracy as there are different governments in the World.

II. Forms of justice

Issues of justice arise in several different spheres and play a significant role in causing, perpetuating, and addressing conflict. Just institutions tend to instill a sense of stability, well-being, and satisfaction among the society members,

while perceived injustices can lead to dissatisfaction, rebellion, or revolution. Each of the different spheres expresses the principles of justice and fairness in its own way, resulting into different forms and concepts of justice: distributive, procedural, retributive, and restorative. People can seek these forms of justice when they have been wronged.

Distributive justice: Distributive justice, or economic justice, is concerned with giving all members of the society a “fair share” of the benefits and resources available. However, while everyone might agree that wealth should be distributed fairly, there is much disagreement about what counts as a “fair share.” Some possible criteria of distribution are equity, equality, and need. Equity means that one’s rewards should be equal to one’s contributions to the society, while “equality” means that everyone gets the same amount, regardless of his or her input. Distribution on the basis of need means that people who need more will get more, while people who need less will get less. Fair allocation of resources, or distributive justice, is crucial to the stability of the society and the well-being of its members. When issues of distributive justice are inadequately addressed and the item to be distributed is highly valued, intractable conflicts frequently result.

Procedural justice: Procedural justice is concerned with making and implementing decisions according to fair processes that ensure “fair treatment.” Rules must be impartially followed and consistently applied in order to generate an unbiased decision. Those carrying out the procedures should be neutral, and those directly affected by the decisions should have some voice or representation in the decision-making process. If people believe procedures to be fair, they will be more likely to accept the outcomes, even ones that they do not like. Implementing fair procedures is central to many dispute resolution procedures, including negotiation, mediation, arbitration, and adjudication.

Restorative justice: Restorative justice (also sometimes called “reparative justice” or “corrective justice”) is an approach to justice that focuses on the needs of victims and offenders, instead of satisfying abstract legal principles or punishing the offender. Victims take an active role in the process, while offenders are encouraged to take responsibility for their actions, “to repair the harm they have done by apologizing, returning stolen money, or doing community service”. In other words, the simplest form of restitution is a straightforward **apology**. Restoration means putting things back as they were, so it may include some acts of apology to demonstrate one is truly sorry. This may include actions and even extra payment to the offended party.

Retributive justice: Retributive justice is based on the idea that people deserve to be treated in the same way they treat others. It is a retroactive approach that justifies punishment as a response to past injustice or wrongdoing. The central idea is that the offender has gained unfair advantages through his or her behavior, and that punishment will set this imbalance straight. In other words, those who do not play by the rules should be brought to justice and deserve to suffer penalties for their transgressions.



12.5. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain the following terms:
 - a. Democracy
 - b. Justice
2. Differentiate presidential democracy from parliamentary democracy
3. Democracy and justice may have different forms according to different countries. Identify and explain these forms.

12.6. Differences and similarities between democracy and justice in Rwanda and in the neighboring countries



12.6. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use books and internet and find common aspects in democracy and justice in Rwanda and Tanzania.

12.6.1 Democracy in Rwanda

I. The main principles of democracy

After the 1994 genocide against the Tutsi, the country of Rwanda strived to set up a democratic regime. The main principles underlying democracy including elections, political pluralism, rule of law, decentralization, liberalization of the press and media were emphasized. Moreover, due to the regional and ethnic divisions that had characterized the first and the second Republics and culminated into the Genocide against the Tutsi, an emphasis was also placed on the promotion of unity and reconciliation among Rwandans.

Elections: An election can be defined as a mechanism of filling an office or post through choices made by the designated body of the people known as the electorate. Participation of the citizens in elections and thereafter collective involvement of the elected officials in the decision-making process are important ingredients for the gradual establishment of democracy. In addition, the concept of representative democracy is based on the principle that it is the people who are the nominal holders of political sovereignty and that, in the exercise of that sovereignty; they elect their representatives so that they can exercise their political rights.

Separation of powers: The notion of separation of powers can be understood as the separation of government decision-making into the legislative, executive, and the judicial functions. This aims at reinforcing constitutional protection of individual liberties by preventing the concentration of such powers in the hands of a single group of government officials.

Political pluralism: In Rwanda, a multi-party system is recognized in its Constitution (article 54). Political organizations fulfilling the conditions required by the law may be formed and operate freely. However, due to the historical context of the country of Rwanda that had been characterized by "ethnic" and regional discrimination which culminated into the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi, the Rwandans have put in place other principles underpinning the political system which involves power-sharing, consensus and the existence of the Forum of the Political Parties.

Power sharing: Power sharing can be understood as a system of governance in which all major actors of the society are provided a permanent share of power. This system is often used by majority of the government system in which ruling groups rotate among various social groups over time. The basic aims of power sharing are traditionally to ensure the decentralization of power, the protection of rights for the minority groups, the establishment of grand coalition governments in which nearly all political parties are represented and the provision of mechanism to ensure decision making by consensus.

Rule of law: The rule of law requires state institutions should act in accordance with the law. The branches of the state must obey the law and in addition the state cannot exercise power over anyone unless the law permits to do so. It has to be noted that the rule of law signifies that no political authority is superior to the law itself. When and where the rule of law obtains, the rights of citizens are not dependent upon the will of rulers; rather, they are established by law and protected by independent courts.

Decentralization: Decentralization being the opposite of centralization refers to the process of transferring powers, authority, functions, responsibilities and the requisite resources from central government to local governments or administrative divisions. Decentralization has to be implemented through three modes: deconcentration, delegation and devolution.

- Under **deconcentration**, services and functions reserved to be performed by central government are executed by central government public servants located in local governments but hierarchically responsible directly to central government.
- Under **delegation**, services and functions reserved to be performed by central government are delegated to local governments and the requisite resources transferred to them for effective provision of these delegated services.
- Under **devolution**, the powers, authority, functions, responsibilities services and resources currently centralized at central government level are transferred to local governments which are created by law as legal entities with powers to sue and be sued.

Press and media: The media means any process, whether in print, audio-visual, auditory, signs or internet, to disseminate, broadcast and make known to the general public facts, opinions and any other expression of thought particularly in order to inform, educate and train, promote leisure and entertainment. And the Public media refers to public broadcasters and newspapers.

The media policy elaborated in 2014 by the Ministry of Local Government aims at availing an informed citizenry and it is inspired by the fundamental principles of freedom of speech and opinion, free access to information, media freedom and their relationship to the pursuance, attainment and sustainability of a free, secure, united, reconciled and democratic Rwanda.

II. Justice in Rwanda

With the 1994 Genocide against the Tutsi that destroyed all the sectors of the life of the country, the judiciary needed to be rebuilt to meet the **challenges** created by that Genocide. To address this situation, the Government of National Unity committed to create a strong, responsive, professional and independent judiciary that Rwandans could trust and respect, reformed the judicial system.

To meet this objective, the justice system was revised in 2003. With this judicial reform, the Ministry of justice had to oversee the functioning of the judicial police, the criminal investigation, the prosecution and the prison services and all these entities were separated with full financial and administrative

independence including the Ministry of Justice, the Supreme Court and the National Prosecution Authority.

The High Council of the Public Prosecution is composed of persons from different organs with experience and expertise. The Council is responsible for taking decisions, recruitment and appointment of staff.

The National Prosecution Authority has branches across the country and is headed by the Prosecutor General. It also has several special units such as the Economic and Financial Crimes Unit, Genocide Fugitive Tracking Unit, Sexual and Domestic Violence Unit, all ideology and related Crimes Unit, Witness and Victims Protection Unit, all of which have helped in delivering justice.

At the same time, the Inspectorate General of the Prosecution was created to oversee the functioning of prosecutors. It has a mechanism of evaluating prosecutors, and sanctioning or rewarding them according to their performance. Prosecutors in managerial and administrative positions have a limited term of office to ensure transparency, efficiency and accountability. All these initiatives have enabled the Prosecutor's Office to handle more cases in courts of law than ever before.

According to justice reforms of 2003, the structure of the Supreme Court was reduced from six separate chambers, each with its own president, to a single unit under the leadership of the Chief Justice. A new High Court of the Republic was also created and replaced the former four chambers of the Supreme Court. The High Court of the Republic has two lower levels, namely the Intermediate Court and the Primary Court (District). The new structure has had a positive effect on the efficiency of the High Court because it facilitates harmonization of jurisprudence.

In addition, the Inspectorate General of Courts was established to regularly supervise the functioning of courts so as to evaluate court judges and personnel who are in turn rewarded in case they perform well while poor performances are sanctioned accordingly. Heads of courts, on the other hand, have a fixed term of office.

In 2007, Commercial Courts were established by an organic law No. 59/2007 of 16/12/2007 to settle commercial disputes. Commercial courts comprise the Commercial High Court and the Commercial Courts. Commercial Courts in the country are three namely Nyarugenge Commercial Court; Huye Commercial Court and Musanze Commercial Court.

The reforms have also introduced “single judge seating” at all levels with the exception of the Supreme Court. This reform has contributed at a certain extent to the reduction of delays and backlogs, which had previously characterised Rwanda’s judiciary, in the disposal of cases.

New kinds of courts like *Gacaca* jurisdictions and *Abunzi* (mediators) were initiated as home-grown solutions in the justice system.

Through the Ministry of Justice, the *Government* initiated the Access to Justice Bureaus, referred to in French language as *Maisons d’Accès à la Justice* (MAJ), in 2007. Now established in all 30 districts of Rwanda, MAJ serves as the first point of orientation with legal aid service for Rwandans. MAJ mainly provides legal information/education as well as legal advice. MAJ also aligns with the policy objective of a more decentralized and reconciliatory justice system that involves citizens. The Rwanda Bar Association (RBA) law grants MAJ staff powers to provide legal and judicial aid to indigents and needy people.

MAJ staff may assist, counsel, represent and plead, before all courts, for indigents. They are also able to analyze cases, offer legal advice and mediation to parties, sensitize the population on their legal rights, assist prisoners and provide legal training to *Abunzi*.

In Rwanda, there is also another means utilized in conflict resolution. This is based on law on arbitration and conciliation in commercial matters published on No 005/2008 of 14/02/2008. This law defines “arbitration”: a procedure applied by parties to the dispute requesting an arbitrator or a jury of arbitrators to settle a legal, contractual dispute or another related issue while “conciliation” describes a process, whether referred to by the expression conciliation, mediation or an expression of similar import, whereby parties to the dispute request a conciliator to assist them in their attempt.

12.6.2. Democracy in Tanzania

I. History and principles of democracy in Tanzania

The United Republic of Tanzania was established in April 1964, following the amalgamation of the former independent states of Tanganyika and Zanzibar. Tanganyika attained independence in December 1961 under the leadership of Julius Nyerere. The transition to independence was achieved without violence and in 1964, the Union between Tanganyika and Zanzibar merged to form Tanzania.

Tanganyika (Tanzania mainland) had a multiparty political system. The Tanganyika African National Union (TANU), established in 1954 was the

overwhelmingly a dominant political party in pre independence Tanganyika. Other political parties were United Tanganyika Party (UTP), the African National Congress (ANC) and All Muslim National Unity of Tanganyika (AMNUT). In Zanzibar (Tanzania Islands) there were three important political parties prior independence.

These included Zanzibar Nationalist Party (ZNP), ASP-Afro Shiraz Party and Zanzibar and Pemba Peoples Party (ZPPP).

The multi- party general election in Tanganyika prior to independence took place in 1958, 1960 and 1962 when Tanganyika became a republic and *Mwalimu* Julius Nyerere as the first President. Although all the political parties struggled to bring independence in Tanganyika, soon after the attainment of independence, the ruling party (TANU) under the Chairmanship of Mwalimu Nyerere, denounced opposition parties and introduced the single party system in 1962.

Tanganyika united with Zanzibar in 1964 which led to the birth of The United Republic of Tanzania in which TANU became the only political party in Tanzania Mainland and ASP-Afro Shiraz Party in Zanzibar after the dissolution of other political parties. This was followed by the introduction of the single party constitution in 1965.

All general elections since 1965 to 1990 were held in a single party system, though they were competitive in nature. The single party political system did not give the citizens freedom to join in or form the political parties, even though they were not pleased by the ruling party. The presidential position had one candidate and a shadow or blank, in which the electorate was required to vote for YES for a candidate or NO for a shadow. This system violated the citizens' rights of electing the leader they wanted. On February 5, 1977, TANU and ASP merged to form *Chama Cha Mapinduzi*(CCM) [meaning Party of the Revolution] a revolutionary state party. It became the sole legal political party in Tanzania.

All candidates had to be approved by CCM and were permitted to campaign only under the CCM platform. Elections within a single party framework were competitive. For example in October 1985, there were 328 candidates competing for 169 elective seats in the National Assembly.

The multi- party political system was officially reintroduced in 1992 after the collapse of the USSR in the 1990s and pressure from the donor countries (USA and Europe), the World Bank, and the International Monetary Fund conditionalities forced the less developed countries including Tanzania to

adopt the multiparty system in order to get financial assistance in terms of loans, grants and aids.

Surprisingly, the majority of Tanzanians refused the introduction of multi-party due to the fear that the political parties will lead to civil wars and disruption of the long existing unity and peace. The late *Mwalimu Nyerere* played a major role in educating the Tanzanians on the importance of multi-party system. Unexpectedly, he was the one who banned the political parties soon after independence. He realized his mistakes and because of his influence and reputation as the *father of the nation*, multi-party system was officially instituted on July 1, 1992.

This marked the era of multi-party system and democracy in Tanzania, where many political parties registered, including the ruling party (CCM) which was the first party to get the certificate of registration, followed by the Civic United Front (CUF) in Kiswahili, *Chama Cha Wananchi* and CHADEMA in Kiswahili *Chama cha Demokrasi and Maendeleo* (meaning in English Party for Democracy and Progress). There were also other many political parties and in 1995 there were 13 political parties that participated in the general election.

Since 1995 multiparty elections have always been organised and the CCM has always managed to win all the presidential ones. The election results witnessed the return of the CCM to power with Benjamin Mkapa who received 62% of the vote while the opposition candidates amassed 38%. In the parliamentary elections, the CCM also won more seats than other political parties.

The 2000 elections were not different from the 1995 elections with the CCM able to ensure that they were not operating on a level playing field. The abolition of state subsidies to political parties meant that the opposition was unable to fund their campaigns adequately. The problem of the differentiation between the CCM and the state remained.

Although Tanzania has escaped the more overt political turmoil that its neighbouring countries have endured, in the aftermath of the 2000 multiparty elections, the country appears to be open to inter-ethnic rivalry largely due to the Zanzibar question which threatens the union itself.

Zanzibar is the site of the greatest opposition to the ruling CCM party which has been in power since independence. The challenge faced by the former President Jakaya Kikwete was to deal with the dysfunctional economy and to meet the ever growing demands of its population which has seen a rapid decline of social services. The ideal of self-reliance which was espoused by Nyerere is no longer a choice, but increasingly a necessity.

After the two presidential mandates of Mkapa in 2005, the CCM's Candidate Jakaya Kikwete won the presidential election with an unassailable lead of 68%. In 2015, Dr John Pombe Magufuli from the CCM political Party also won presidential elections and became on November 5, 2015 the fifth president of Tanzania. After all, the CCM had been in power for decades, and meaning seemed to herald continuity with the past.

II. Justice in Tanzania

Social justice is the view that everyone deserves equal economic, political and social rights and opportunities.

Since independence Tanzania has gone through distinct policy episodes of social integration. In the first two decades of the post-independence period Tanzania made deliberate efforts and took various initiatives to attain social integration.

In this period Tanzania strived to build national unity and placed emphasis on human development and social policy consistent with the basic needs approach. This period was characterized by emphasis on investment in human development consistent with the basic needs approach. During this period an emphasis was placed on promoting the principles of human dignity, equality and freedom of the individuals, equality of opportunity in life and equal citizen political rights across all races and commitment to reduce income and wealth differentials in society and fight against corruption.

In the same period, the Government of Tanzania deliberately downplayed religious differences and promoted religious tolerance. It was declared that the state was a secular state which worked with various religious denominations. Moreover, the Government adopted the policy of health for all availing free medical services to all. Massive investments were made in health facilities and primary health care was given priority. The Government of Tanzania also made significant contribution in the provision of basic services. This has been done through direct funding of services such as health, education and water which are basic necessities to the population, and through provision of subsidies on basic goods such as food. All these are efforts to provide social protection to the population.

Various policy statements on social security issues have been made and Acts passed in regard to the protection of some sections of the population against contingencies such as injuries and old age. In total these formal social securities covered only a very small proportion of the population (less than 10%).

Apart from the formal social protection schemes, there are also traditional and non-traditional informal social protection schemes. Tanzania, like many other

countries in the developing world, has had strong informal/traditional safety nets built on family and/or community support and informal income transfers. The traditional social security systems are often based on customary rights, or on spiritual and religious grounds. They are often organized around family groups, kinship groups or neighborhood and community groups. While it is recognized that over time traditional social system has tended to decay and change forms in response to the forces of urbanization and industrialization there are indications that family and community social support systems have remained the main safety nets, particularly among the rural poor and other vulnerable groups. In times of crises, individuals have depended on family and clan members and/or members of the community for assistance in the form of cash or in-kind, remittances to rural areas and facilitating settling in of new migrants into the urban areas.

The villagization programme that was adopted was a more inclusive and country wide programme involving the replacement of the traditional system of rural settlements in which households were located often in isolated homesteads by the creation of larger and more viable villages which were perceived to be more viable economic units. The government's efforts to deal with the challenges of smallholders, uneconomically small plots and challenges of providing social services to a scattered population took various forms but the most memorable policy stance was villagization, which involved the resettlement of rural population with view to facilitate the provision of social and economic infrastructure. Priority was given to education including adult education, health services and rural water supply. Villages were created in 1974 in which 60% of the population was relocated. The logic behind villagization was based on what was seen as ideal African traditional family whereby which was almost self-contained economic and social unit which provided and shared basic necessities of life on the basis of mutual respect and obligation. The principles of love, sharing and work which had prevailed in traditional African family units were expected to be carried into Ujamaa Villages.

In fact, Tanzania made considerable achievements in human development and during that period, there was an economic progress but this model ran out of steam towards the end of the 1970s as exhibited by the way this development was interrupted by the economic crisis starting from the late 1970s and the early 1980s. In response Tanzania adopted structural adjustment programmes which were meant to focus on efficiency gains and growth acceleration.

The second policy episode from 1981 to 1995 was essentially a period in which Tanzania adopted adjustment and reforms which were aimed at restoring stabilization and growth but in the process it contributed to causing cracks into

the social integration status that had been achieved in the previous two decades. In the third period (1996-2005) Tanzania embarked on more comprehensive economic and social policies in which social integration received attention again but this time in a new context of the market economy, competition and globalization.

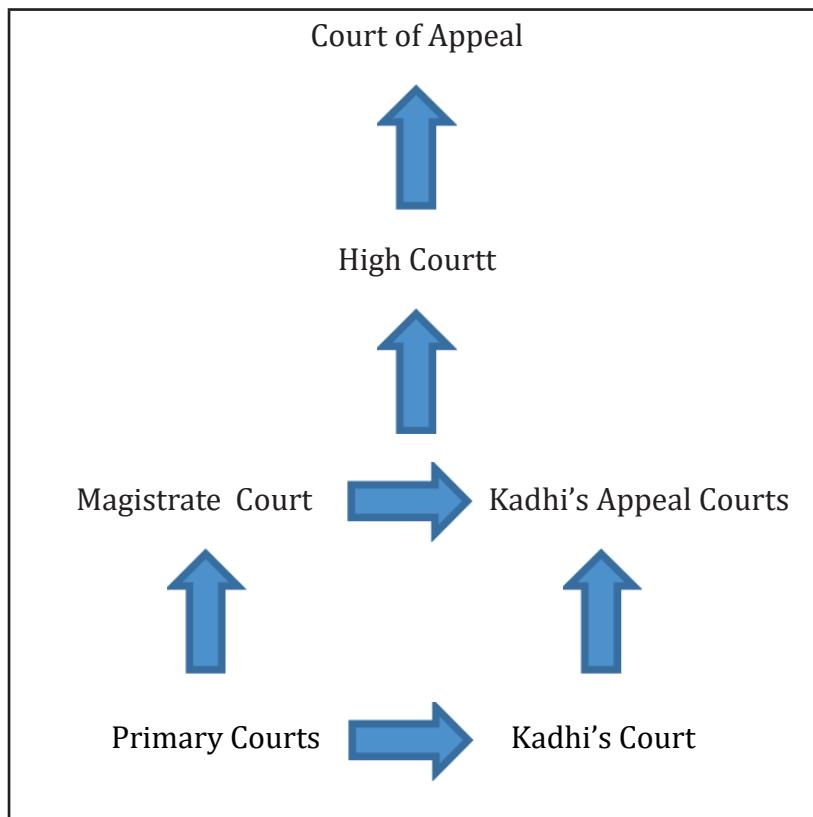
Concerning the judicial system, Mainland Tanzanian law is a combination of British, East African customary law, and Islamic law. The courts at the lower levels are presided over by magistrates appointed by the chief justice. They have limited jurisdiction, and there is a right of appeal to district courts, headed by either resident or district magistrates. Appeal can be made to the High Court, which consists of a chief justice and 17 judges appointed by the president. It has both civil and criminal jurisdiction over all persons and all matters however, appeals from the High Court can be made to the five-members Court of Appeal and judges are appointed to the Court of Appeal and the High Court by the president on the advice of the chief justice and to courts at lower levels by the chief justice.

In 1985, the Zanzibar courts were made independent to those of the mainland. Islamic courts handle some civil matters and cases concerning the Zanzibar constitution are heard only in Zanzibar courts. All other cases may be appealed to the Court of Appeal of the Republic.

The judiciary is made up of various courts of judicature and is independent of other arms of the government. Tanzania adheres to and respects the constitutional principles of separation of powers. The Constitution makes provision for the establishment of an independent judiciary, and the respect for the principles of the rule of law, human rights and good governance.

The Judiciary in Tanzania can be illustrated as follows: The Judiciary in Tanzania has four tiers: The Court of Appeal of the United Republic of Tanzania, the High Courts for Mainland Tanzania and Tanzania Zanzibar, Magistrates Courts, which are at two levels, i.e. the Resident Magistrate Courts and the District Court, both of which have concurrent jurisdiction. Primary Courts are the lowest in the judicial hierarchy.

The structure of the Zanzibar legal system is as follows:



Source: <http://www.nyulawglobal.org/globalex/Tanzania.html>



12.6. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. What are democratic principles which guide process of democracy in Rwanda?
2. Explain any two principles of democracy applied in both Rwanda and Tanzania.
3. What are the reforms in justice applied in Rwanda after genocide against the Tutsi?



SKILLS LAB

Use a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values you have acquired about democracy and role play the qualities of a good leader. Present your role play in the plenary.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Explain the following terms expressions:
 - a. Ndi Umunyarwanda
 - b. Pan-Africanism
 - c. Democracy
 - d. Justice
2. Explain how Ndi Umunyarwanda program can help in socio-economic development of Rwanda.
3. Show how Rwanda is a democratic country.
4. The democracy in Rwanda and Tanzania are similar to some extent. Explain this statement.



UNIT 13

ROLE OF THE AGENTS OF THE COLONIAL CONQUEST, EUROPEAN DOMINATION AND THE EXPLOITATION OF AFRICA IN THE 19TH CENTURY

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to discuss the role of agents of colonial conquest and to analyze the European domination, exploitation in Africa and its consequences in the 19th century.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

In the 19th century, due to a number of factors many European countries conquered and began to control the African continent. After the occupation of the so-called "**dark continent**", European countries used different methods to exploit their colonies. Use internet, textbooks and media to answer to the questions below:

1. Explain the role of colonial agents in the process of colonization of Africa.
2. Analyze the methods of African exploitation.
3. Assess the impact of European domination and exploitation of Africa in the 19th century.

13.1. Role of colonial agents in the process of colonization of Africa



13.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks and media to research on colonial agents in the process of colonization of Africa and answer to the following question:

1. What do you understand by the term colonization and colonial agents?
2. Explain the role of colonial agents in the process of colonization of Africa.

13.1.1. Colonial agents

Colonization is a practice in which a powerful country rules a weaker one and establishes its own trade and culture over it. **Colonial agent** refers to a person who acts on behalf of another. It can also mean a person who obtains and provides information for the government in a certain area in secret. In the history of African colonization, **colonial agents** refer to the various groups of Europeans who came into Africa from 1884 in order to pave way for colonization of Africa. Colonial agents in Africa included **missionaries, Explorers and traders (Chartered Companies)**.

Most of these agents were sent to Africa by various organizations:

- the Royal Geographical Society (RGs) sent **explorers**
- the London Missionary Society and Church Missionary Society (CMS) sent **missionaries** to various parts of Africa
- the Royal Niger Company (RNC), German East Africa Company (GEAC), British South African Company (BSAC), the Imperial British East African Company (BEAC) and among others operated as **Chartered Companies** representing their home governments in different African countries.

13.1.2 The role of colonial agents in colonization of Africa

These agents were always received with open hands by African chiefs they met but later they led activities to collapse Africa's political independence.

i. The role of explorers in colonization of Africa

The verb **to explore** means to discover, to move far with a purpose of discovery. Therefore, explorers were people who came from Europe to discover more about man and universe in which man lived. Moreover, Exploration is the act of searching or travelling around terrain (including space) for discovering resources or information.

Explorers played a very important role towards the colonization process and perhaps without their colonial powers would have faced more serious problems than the ones faced in Africa. They provided important geographical information about the African continent. For example, John Speke discovered the source of River Nile, Krapf reached mountain Kenya. Such information greatly helped the later groups which came in Africa.

Explorers mapped out the African interior and located on them areas with rich economic potentials, hospitable tribes as well as those which were hostile. For example, while in East Africa, Doctor David Livingstone sent several maps to

London showing locations of caravan routes, Lakes and major rivers of Southern Tanganyika. The maps provided greatly helped future European agents.

Explorers established initial good working relations with African communities they came into contact with. This greatly simplified the work of other colonial agents like Christian missionaries and Chartered Companies. For example, through H.M. Stanley, the Kabaka Mutesa of Buganda called upon Christian missionaries and Chartered companies.

Explorers also provided relevant information about the rich economic potentials of Africa which inspired Europeans colonialists to come and colonize Africa.

ii. The role of missionaries in the colonization of Africa

Missionaries refer to a group of people who left their home country and move elsewhere to preach their religious belief to other people. The missionaries that came in Africa included: Church missionary society, Roman Catholic missionaries, Lutherans, Universities mission to central Africa (UMCA), Orthodox missionaries, Holy ghosts from Zanzibar, The White Fathers etc.

Missionaries always invited their home governments for assistance in case of any resistance from local African communities. This was always looked at as only way of being assured of safety. However, in the end such societies were colonized.

Each colonial power sent missionaries in areas where she had great economic interests. In such circumstances, missionary groups worked for betterment of their home countries and in this way were indirectly paving way for the colonization process in Africa.

Missionaries always softened the hearts of their Christian converts to the extent that they could hardly resist colonial rule. The wonderful preaching and teachings from the bible as well as the use of threats sometimes turned the young converts into good collaborating agents of colonial powers thus missionaries cannot escape blame for having laid the foundation of colonial rule in Africa.

In some cases, Missionaries also worked side by side with African chiefs as secretaries and advisors. In such special circumstances, missionaries would later ill-advised African chiefs to sign treaties whose details they could not understand and in order for them to remain protected, they always called for their home governments.

Missionaries also promoted legitimate trade in order to protect their economic interest of their governments that sent them. This greatly strengthened and promoted the colonization of Africa.

In some areas missionaries also contributed to internal divisions and weakening of some African societies, for example Buganda people were divided along religious lines that caused religious wars between Catholics and Protestants to finish off the war and colonize Uganda.

More to this, in Uganda missionaries financed other colonial agents most especially the Imperial British East African Company to continue operating for more years because they were promoting the interests of Britain as a colonial power.

iii.The role of Chartered Companies in the colonization of Africa

Chartered companies were trading companies that were sent by European countries to come and trade in Africa. They started signing treaties, occupying areas of influence, laying down the initial infrastructure that facilitated colonial administrative policies; they abolished slave trade, identified economic viable areas for economic exploitation, from their home government that led to European colonization.

The various Chartered Companies that operated in Africa included:

- Imperial British East African Company (IBEACO),
- The Germany East African Company (GEACO),
- The British South African Company (BSACO),
- The Royal Niger Company (RNCO), etc.

Trading companies played a significant role towards the colonization process in the following ways:

- They financed the administration of the countries in which they operated on behalf of their countries in which they operated on behalf of their home governments and by doing so, they saved such government the burden of unnecessary financial expenditure.
- Chartered companies also provided the skilled manpower for the administration of colonies as reluctant to take over direct responsibility.
- The companies used their authority to help in the effective abolition of slave trade. For example, the IBEACO destroyed the Coastal Arab Slave trade centers and much as the Arabs tried to put up a resistance they were defeated thus promotion of legitimate trade.

- Chartered companies also developed several infrastructures on behalf of European colonial governments, for example, they financed the construction of medical centers and administrative posts. In Uganda the IBEACO financed the surveying of the main route of the Uganda railway.
- Chartered Companies also signed treaties of friendship with the local leaders of the areas in which they operated on behalf of their colonial governments they represented. Such treaties were used by colonial powers to claim for the rightful ownership and or occupation.
- More to that chartered Companies created security organs on behalf of their home governments. For example, in Kenya and Uganda, the Imperial British Company had its private army that comprised of Sudanese, Arabs, and Swahili and Ganda soldiers. This same force was used by the British to maintain internal stability.
- They collaborated with the Missionaries to defeat African resistance wars.
- They encouraged their home governments to carry out effective occupation of the colonies.



13.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain the term colonial agents.
2. Identify the three main colonial agents that paved way for colonization of Africa.
3. Analyze the role of colonial agents in the process of African colonization.

13.2. Methods of African exploitation



13.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Carry out research on the colonial conquest and domination of Africa and explain the European colonial methods of exploitation in the process of African.

Colonial Methods of African Exploitation also known as Colonial economic policies were mechanisms introduced by European colonial masters in Africa

in order to ensure **effective exploitation** of Africa's natural resources for their economic gains.

i. Taxation

It was the main method of generating revenue for supporting colonial administration. The commonest were the hut and gun taxes. The method of collection was brutal and harsh, and often caused resistance wars. For instance, the Hut Tax War of 1898 in Sierra Leone.

Taxation was also important to force Africans either to grow cash crops or to work on European farms. This was because in order to get money for paying taxes these were the only possible alternatives. In some areas like the Congo Free State and Angola, taxes were paid in form of natural products and animals. Failure to pay taxes in these areas would lead to confiscation of property and sometimes mutilation.

ii. Forced cash crop growing

To meet the primary demand for colonisation of Africa, cash crop growing had to be boosted. Some crops like rubber were grown traditionally; some were grown such as pyrethrum by Europeans while others like coffee and cotton were grown by Africans under the supervision of Europeans. These cash crops were needed to supply raw material to industries in Europe.

Europeans did not encourage the production of food. Forced labour undermined the production of food crops. This led to famine in African societies which had been traditionally self-sufficient in food. The African economies were developed as producers of raw materials in form of cash crops and minerals, and as consumers of European manufactured goods.

iii. Forced labour

Africans were forced to work on European farms, mines and construction sites of colonial offices and roads. Their labour was either paid cheaply or not paid at all. In the Portuguese colonies of Angola and Mozambique there was a unique form of forced labour called contract labour. Africans were rounded up and taken to Principe and Sao Tome to work in sugar cane plantations.

Due to this forced labor, African societies experienced famine. A lot of time was spent on work for Europeans.

iv. Land alienation

This was the most evil form of exploitation of natural resources. Africans in settler colonies were hit hardest by this practice, for example in Kenya, South

Africa, Rhodesia, Algeria, Angola and Mozambique. In some areas of Africa, Africans were forced to settle in reserve camps leaving fertile and mineralized plots of lands to Europeans. This policy caused resistance in many areas of Africa.

In Rwanda, the church alienated huge chunks of land to build churches, schools and people were forced out of their land.

v. Development of legitimate trade.

After realizing the benefits of slave trade and its abolition, they introduced legitimate trade. This form of trade is said to have brought peace and stability as it eliminated the raids and suffering caused by slave trade.

Legitimate trade was monopolized by Europeans who transferred all the profits to their countries. They paid low prices for African products and highly priced their exports to Africa. Worse still, the legitimate trade involved the exchange of high valued African products like gold, copper, diamonds, cotton, coffee, rubber, and palm oil among others. Exports to Africa included beads, used clothes, bangles, spices and glassware.

In Rwanda, the European trader named Borgraved'Altena purchased cows at very low prices so as to supply beef to the colonialists.

vi. Discouraged industrialization

To control the monopoly for trade in raw materials and market for their manufactured goods in Africa, Europeans extremely discouraged manufacturing industries. In Egypt, Lord Cromer established processing plants for cotton lint while cotton cloth production was done in Britain.

In Senegal, the French never set up any industries to the extent that even groundnuts were exported in the shells. Only primary processing industries were set up to reduce the volume of raw materials. The prices for raw materials were very low while the manufactured goods from Europe were sold at high prices. This was a clear indication of colonial exploitation.

vii. Development of road and railway transport

To support legitimate trade, road and railway transport networks were established. These networks connected the interior of African colonies to the coast.

Roads were mainly established in areas rich in resources where colonialists had direct gains. The main purpose was to facilitate the effective exploitation of raw materials.

In Togo, Germany constructed railway lines and named them according to the produce they were meant to carry such as Cotton line, Palm oil line and Iron line.

In Rwanda, the railway project planned by the Germans from Dares-Salaam via Tabora to Rusumo stopped because of the first World war.

viii. Education system

The colonial education system was controlled by Christian missionaries. In the colonial schools, Africans were trained to serve as lower cadres, known as "colonial auxiliaries". The main products of these schools best suited the posts of houseboys, house girls and clerks. They could not make engineers, doctors and other professional careers. The colonial education system produced people who liked European ways of life. As a result, they exploited fellow Africans. In Rwanda, education was exclusively given to the sons of chiefs. In French, Portuguese and Italian colonies education was used for assimilation purposes. Liberal subjects such as, political science, literature and history were neglected in order to keep Africans away from forming revolutionary movements against colonialists. To colonialists, the best subjects fit for Africans were bible study, reading and writing of languages.



13.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Examine the use of legitimate trade in the economic exploitation of African countries.
2. Discuss the colonial method of discouraging industrialisation in the economic exploitation of African countries.
3. Examine the colonial transport policy in the economic exploitation of Africa.
4. Discuss the effect of the colonial methods on Rwanda.

13.3. Impact of European domination and exploitation of Africa in the 19th century



13.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Carry out research on the colonial conquest and domination of Africa and answer the following question. Then, present the results of your findings to the class.

Examine the positive and negative impacts of European domination and exploitation of Africa in the 19th century.

European domination and exploitation has caused different socio-economic and political impacts on Africa. Both positive and negative effects are described below.

13.3.1. Economic impact/effects

i. Positive effects

- The colonial government improved the colony infrastructure: roads, bridges, ports, etc.,
- They introduced cash crops: tea, coffee, and sisal, cocoa, Cotton, etc.,
- Colonization increased the value of land, because it could be sold at a high rate,
- Colonization increased Legitimate trade,
- Colonization introduced money that facilitated the exchange (cash economy),
- Colonization introduced modern technology where people started using machines.

ii. Negative effects

- Roads built helped colonialists to exploit African resources not to develop Africa,
- Regions that had no resources were ignored,
- To avoid competition, colonialists discouraged the development of industries in Africa,
- African artisans stopped pottery, basketry etc.,

- Colonial rule neglected food crops and emphasized on cash crops which caused famine in some part of Africa,
- The commercialization of land led to illegal sell of communal lands which led to poverty and social conflict,
- Colonialists monopolized external trade,
- Economic exploitation of Africa: minerals (gold, diamond, etc.), land and labor,
- The death of many people working in mining and plantations of Europeans in Africa.

13.3.2. Social effects

i. Positive effects

- Urbanization was accelerated across all African countries,
- Introduction of modern medicine to fight tropical diseases: malaria, typhoid, etc.,
- Introduction of hospitals, clinics, sanitary equipment, etc.,
- The spread of Christianity and western education in Africa. They trained the first African elite,
- They introduced new languages: French, English, Latin, Portuguese etc.,
- Abolition of slave trade and introduction of legitimate trade,
- Introduction of western culture: cloths, buildings, houses, etc.

ii. Negative effects

- Rural-urban migration and associated problems like prostitution.
- Hostility between Africans and Europeans because these foreigners had occupied fertile lands of the natives.
- Africans identity and civilization disappeared with colonization.
- Division of Africans due to divide and rule policy.
- Uneven distribution of social services: they were established only for white minority.
- In education, the curricula did not meet the need of Africans.
- Neglect women social status: women were excluded in some jobs like mining.
- Racial discrimination promoted by the white settlers.
- Land alienation: fertile land was occupied by European settlers.

- Colonization created a new class of intellectual which conflicted with illiterate people.
- Many people were killed during the war of conquest.

13.3.3. Political impacts

i. Positive impact

- The colonialism created peace and stability in some areas because expansionist wars ended.
- It created independent states in Africa: there are more than 50 states in Africa.
- Colonialism introduced new institutions like high courts in judiciary system.
- Europeans introduced new administrative structure. E.g. province, district, sector, cell.
- Colonialism gave birth to African nationalism and Pan Africanism.

ii. Negative impacts.

- Colonization was oppressive, discriminative and exploitative.
- Colonialists divided Africa without considering tribal boundaries. For example, the Bakongo scattered in Angola, DRC, Gabon.
- It weakened indigenous system of government where Europeans replaced African chiefs.
- The colonization created the idea that public property belongs to the colonialists not the people and that idea is still there.
- The Europeans created a permanent army that caused insecurity after decolonization of Africa.
- Loss of independence; Africa lost the sovereignty and freedom. They lost control of their own affairs.



13.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Discuss how effective has been the European domination on Africa on political and socio-economic aspects.



SKILLS LAB

Use a combination of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values you have acquired about European domination and exploitation of Africa in the 19th century debate the impacts of European domination and exploitation of Africa and present it in the plenary.



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Discuss the role of colonial agents in the process of African colonization.
2. Describe how the European colonial methods affected Africa.
3. Colonisation contributed nothing to the development of Africa. Discuss this statement in the Rwandan context.

UNIT 14

AFRICAN NATIONALISM AND THE ACQUISITION OF INDEPENDENCE

Key Unit competence: The student-teacher should be able to analyze the causes of the African nationalism, the means used to acquire independence in Africa and its impact on African societies.



INTRODUCTORY ACTIVITY

The independence of Africa was one of the great achievements of 20th century. The process of reaching independence was a great struggle and courage of African Nationalist like Kwame Nkrumah, Julius Nyerere and Nelson Mandela among others. African nationalists were motivated by various factors and they used various methods to win independence.

1. Explain the causes of African nationalism.
2. Examine the methods used by African nationalists for gaining independence.
3. Assess the impacts of African nationalism on African societies.

14.1 Causes of African nationalism



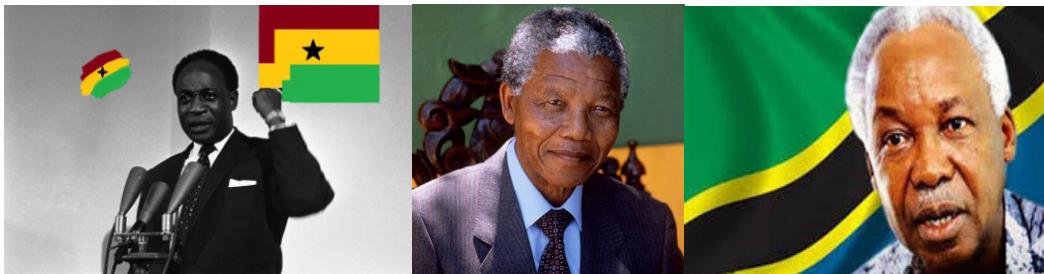
14.1. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, media etc. to research on African nationalism and answer to the following questions:

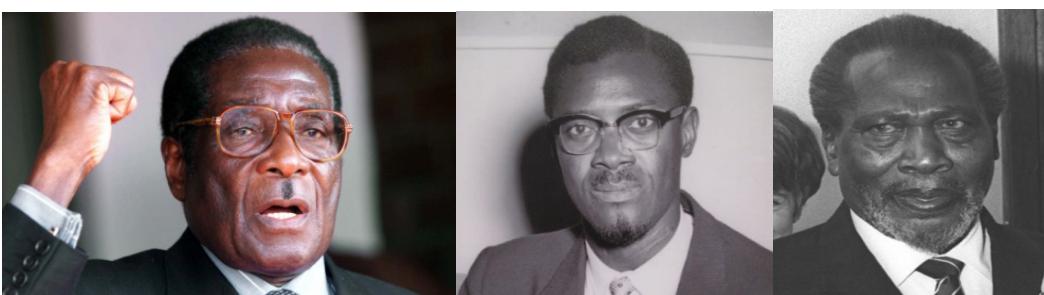
1. Explain the term Nationalism.
2. Analyze the causes of African nationalism.

Nationalism can be defined as the desire for colonized people to end all forms of foreign control and influence so as to be able to take charge of their political, social and economic affairs. It is the desire for self-rule and self-governance or strong feeling and love for one's country.

Example of the main African Nationalists:



Kwame Nkrumah, Ghana Nelson Mandela, South Africa Julius Nyerere, Tanganyika



Robert Mugabe, Zimbabwe Patrice Lumumba, Zaire Jomo Kenyatta, Kenya



Ahmed Ben Bella, Algeria

Figure 14. 1: Main African Nationalists

Before 1960 most of Africa was still under colonial control. However, by 1970 most of Africa was independent from European colonialism. Several factors contributed to the rise of this African nationalism. The factors that gave birth to African nationalism are of two kinds; **internal** factors and **external** factors.

14.1.1 Internal factors

i. The oppressive and exploitative colonial policies

During the 19th century and early 20th c, the whole of Africa, except Ethiopia and Liberia was brought under colonial rule. Europeans grabbed African land, pushed African intro over -crowded reserves, introduced high taxes, and forced Africans to work in mines and on plantations. All for the white man's benefit while at work, Africans were often abused or even lagged. These who failed to pay taxes were treated in similar way or even imprisoned. All this annoyed Africans and led to strong feelings of nationalism.

ii. Missionaries' activities in Africa

They introduced western education and taught at subjects like history which exposed Africans to the liberation struggle of various people for example the French revolution of 1789, they also emphasized to the equality of all people which incited Africans to fight for rights including political rights.

iii. The formation of political parties in Africa

These included united gold coast convention(UGCC) and the Convention of People's Party(CPP) in Ghana, African National Congress(ANC) in South Africa, the Uganda National Congress (UNC),the Kenya African National Union (KANU) and others Leaders of these parties were elites who inculcated a spirit of nationalism amongst party members.

iv. The 2nd WW (1939-1945)

Africans were recruited to serve their colonial masters as drivers, cooks and soldiers during this Great War. They saw whites retreating, dying and they learnt a lesson that whites were not gods as they had thought. They could die of bullets just like Africans. They also witnessed poverty and prostitution in European slums. On their return to Africa at the end of the W.W.II, the ex-service men no longer feared whites and introduced militant nationalism in Africa.

v. The formation of OAU on 25th may 1963

This was a continental body, which aimed at promoting African unity. It united the 32 independent African states and set itself a task of helping other African countries that were still under colonial rule. In 1974, the OAU set up a liberation committee that provided moral such as ANC in S.A.

vi. The 1952-1955 MAU MAU rebellion in Kenya

The term **MAU- MAU** stands for, (Mzungu Aende Ulaya Mwafurika Apate Uhuru). Following many years of oppression Kenya's took up wins against

the British which thought Africans in the Angola, Algeria and other areas that colonial oppression can be ended through wined struggle.

vii. The independence enjoyed by Ethiopia and Liberia

In these two countries, the political, economic, social and cultural ways of life had remained intact. These two countries served as a role models and challenged the suffering Africans to fight for their lost dignity and independence.

viii. The 1954-1962 Algerian war of independence

Algeria successfully resisted to French colonialists. It became independent at the end of guerilla war. This provided another example to Africans to struggle against colonial rule using force of arms.

ix. The development of mass media across Africa

African elites founded a number of newspapers, magazine and radio stations. Though these they publicized the atrocities committed by colonialists against Africans and called up on Africans to rise up and change the situation.

14.1.2 External factors

i. The formation of the United Nations Organisation 1945

The UNO set itself an objective of fighting against colonialism all over the world. It set up a decolonization committee charged with the responsibility of granting political freedom to all colonized peoples.

- ***The UNO set up a trusteeship council:*** This was to take care of the colonies that had belonged to defeated Germany and Italy e.g.: Tanganyika, Libya, Togo and Cameroon...
- ***It became a voice for the colonized:*** The UN members were aware that it was colonialism that had caused the disastrous 2nd WW.
- ***The UNO was not discriminative:*** It admitted African countries that were independent to the UNO membership.
- ***It issued the universal declaration of human rights in 1948:*** this UDHR emphasized the dignity and equality of all human beings.
- ***The UNO recognized liberation movements in Africa:*** where as the colonial masters looked at Africa nationalist groups are label movements, the UNO recognized them and allowed liberation leaders to explain their grievances to UN members.
- ***It gave military support to keep peace:*** In some cases, the UNO has sent its peace keeping forces to bring order among nationalists and hence streamline the struggle for independence.

- ***It gave constructive advice to nationalists:*** In 1964, the UNO advised Senegal and Gambia to remain as sovereign states and avoid political integration that was likely to produce ethnic conflicts.
- ***UNO extended financial support to Africa:*** The UNO has since the 1940s showed economic interests in Africa but has also desired to promote the standard of living of African people.
- ***The UNO helped in training African leaders:*** During the decade of decolonization, the UNO trusteeship council embarked on man power training in African territories.

ii. The impact of the 2nd world on the growth of African nationalism

- ***The war exposed the military weakness of the white men:*** before the 2nd WW, Africans thought that the white men were invincible (unbeatable) and feared to make a military challenges to them. However, during the war African soldiers saw white men dying retreating. This made Africans to reduce their fear for the white men.
- ***Africans get exposed to the entire world:*** They were sent to fight in South Africa, Asia and Europe. These travels opened their eyes and minds they met new people with new ideas.
- ***Africans obtained military skills:*** During the war, they were exposed to up to date European weapons which they learnt to fire and in some cases to repair on their return to Africa, they put this technical knowledge and tactics in practice by fighting the white men.
- ***African soldiers were exposed to democracy:*** They made friendship with European communists and they witnessed democratic and constitutional governance and wondered why they should not have the same democratic rights.
- ***Unfulfilled promises*** made the nationalistic while persuading them into war African service men were promised rewards. For example, democratic constitutions, employment in civil service, promotion in army... However, when the war ended most of them were demobilized, remained unemployed and lived in very poor conditions as compared to the situation during war.
- ***It led to militant nationalism in Africa:*** Before African nationalists used old methods of demanding for independence through negotiations became irrelevant they formed militant movements to fight for independence.
- ***African service men witnessed disunities amongst Europeans:*** At first, Africans looked at Europeans as demi-gods and patrons of civilization. However, during the Second World War, Africans were exposed to quarrels and fight amongst Europeans. For instance, the British against German,

French against Germany... on returning to Africa, they turned the Bullet against Europeans.

- ***It led to the formation of the United Nations Organization (UNO):*** The UNO was born to correct the mistakes of the hypocritical League of Nations and to replace it. From the start, the UNO condemned colonialism and advocated for the political rights of the all colonized people of Africa and Asia.

iii.The rise of super powers

In 1941, USSR and USA joined the Second World War after WW II, they emerged as the new super powers to replace the war ravaged France and Britain their roles in decolonization were as follows:

- ***They wanted to spread their ideologies in Africa:*** After the 2nd WW, cold war (war of ideas) started it was between USSR, which wanted to spread its ideology of socialism, communism in Africa and USA which wanted to spread its ideology of capitalism in Africa. The two powers allowed sympathy with the colonized Africans so as to get supporters of their ideologies.
- ***USA exposed African students to democracy:*** America not only gave scholarship to African students like Nkrumah to study abroad, lent also allowed them to form or join democratic students' organization. It also published a monthly magazine "African interpreter" by granting students freedom to express themselves democratically.
- ***Interaction of USA troops with African soldiers:*** During the 2nd WW, American troops were dispatched to north and West Africa. They valued the dignity of blacks unlike Europeans. they could share meals, toilets, bars and dancing halls with them above all, American troops criticized British and French colonialism in Africa.
- ***USA and USSR had anti colonial traditions:*** The USA had once been colonized and oppressed by the British they fought for independence and joined it 1976. They understood clearly the status of Africans and worked hard to change it.
- ***USA and USSR influenced the formation of the UNO:*** After 2nd WW, the major powers of the world met at San Francisco and signed to UNO charter article 13 made it clear that colonialism was an evil that had to be abolished. It declared the right of all people to choose best suited to them.
- ***Super powers threatened sanctions or colonial masters:*** USA and USSR exerted pressure on Europeans colonialists to decolonize their African empires, hence facilitating nationalistic activity in Africa. USA and

USSR even threatened to impose sanctions on Britain, France, Belgium and Portugal if they didn't decolonize.

- **USSR embarked on spreading socialism in Africa:** this ideology condemned land grabbing, oppression, exploitation and racial segregation.
- **Both USA and USSR supported Pan-Africanists:** In America Negro intellectual like WEB Dubois expressed better criticism against colonialism. He was never arrested for his view. The same to George Padmore, the great West Indian Pan African intellectual. The free atmosphere accorded to pan Africanists in diaspora enabled them spread their views up to Africa and hence influenced decolonization.

iv. The pan Africa movement

African living in Diaspora, especially in America started this movement. Pan Africanists like WEB Dubois, Marcus Garvey and George Padmore appealed to Africans all over the world to be proud of their role and to unite against whites in Africa. Marcus Garvey "go back to Africa" policy and "Africa for Africans" Slogan inspired the growth of nationalistic feelings amongst African students who went study abroad. For example Kwame Nkrumah.

v. Western education

Colonial masters' scholarship to some Africans students who went to study abroad. Those students came into contact with white's liberals, socialists and communists who were against colonialism. In addition, they witnessed democracy at work in European countries and America and wondered why such democratic governance was denied to them on returning to Africa, the elites demanded for democratic governance and an end to colonialism.



14.1. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Explain the role of UNO in the rise of African nationalism.
2. Show how the Second World War influenced the rise of African nationalism.
3. Discuss the role played by new super powers in the rise of African nationalism.

14.2. Means used by Africans to acquire independence in Africa



14.2. LEARNING ACTIVITY

Use internet, textbooks, media to research on African nationalism and analyze the means used by Africans to acquire independence in Africa.

There were four types or methods that Africans applied in the struggle to liberate Africans from the colonial domination

14.2.1. Peaceful liberation/non-violence means.

Peaceful liberation involved intensive negotiation between the colonialists and African Nationalists for instance the political independence of Tanganyika, Ghana, Uganda and Zambia applied negotiation or peaceful means to get their independence.

14.2.2. Liberation by revolution.

The liberation by revolution involved complete overthrow of the existing political system. This existed in colonies where independence was given to the minority at the expenses of the majority; the case in point is in Zanzibar where minority Arabs were granted independence by the British which prompted the majority blacks to make a revolution in 1964 supported by the masses. It took place even in Egypt and Libya. Liberation by revolution is always sudden and involves bloodshed.

14.2.3. Liberation by armed struggle/violent method.

The struggle was conducted in the situation where peaceful means failed and the imperialists were reluctant to negotiate or to give independence to the Africans. In such situation the Africans picked up arms to fight the imperialists by force as a method to achieve the independence. For example, in Zimbabwe, Algeria, Kenya, Angola, South Africa and Mozambique the fight involved bloodshed use of guerrilla warfare.

14.2.4. Combination of peaceful means and armed struggle

In some countries, the liberation movement combined both peaceful means and armed struggle. Firstly, the Africans resorted to armed struggle as a way to achieve their independence and then applied dialogue/peaceful means to solve the problems of their independence. This situation happened in Kenya and Zimbabwe.



14.2. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

1. Many African Nationalists started by asking independence through non-violence methods, and when this failed they adopted armed struggle. Discuss.
2. Explain the reasons why in some countries revolutionary struggle was the best mean for acquiring true independence.

14.3. Impact of African Nationalism



14.3. LEARNING ACTIVITY

The independence of Africa was one of the great achievements of 20th century. Use internet, textbooks, and media and examine the impacts of African nationalism.

- African nationalism had effects as it led to present political freedom for Africa and reversed the African tragedy and humiliation that was orchestrated at the Berlin Conference.
- It brought about the Organization of African Unity. Its spirit led to assisting African Liberation Movements of Southern Africa against colonialism.
- African nationalism affirmed the worth of black people and therefore rejected the inferiority ascribed by racist thought in the late 19th and 20th centuries.
- It helped to launch the struggle for rights and equality for black people in the Diaspora;
- In Africa, African nationalism asserted the right of independence for Africans “Africa for the Africans”.

- In addition to the slogan, African nationalism contributed in at least 3 ways:
 - Early in the century, for the newly emerging African elite, it was a source of ideas and contacts, especially for students studying abroad;
 - It helped to provide an ideology of unity in the process of mass mobilization of Africans for the independence struggle;
 - It also helped to build a constituency in Europe and North America which was sympathetic to and supportive of independence of Africa and this came to form important 'public opinion' in the 1950s and 60s.
- African nationalism played a role in history after independence by unifying nations with diverse groups and gave all its citizens a sense of belonging. It bound people living in one nation together even if they did not have a common background. Due to this unity when opportunities were given to all people, they feel proud in their country and stand together in times of hardship such as natural disasters.



14.3. APPLICATION ACTIVITY

Referring to the situation of Rwanda after the liberation war, discuss the impacts of African Nationalism.



SKILLS LAB

Use the slogan of African nationalists '*Africa for Africans*' and the following word of Marcus Garvey in the box to compose a song against colonialism.



***"The Black skin is
not a badge of
shame, but rather a
glorious symbol of
national greatness."***

Marcus Garvey



END UNIT ASSESSMENT

1. Explain the term 'Nationalism'
2. Write down a one-page text explaining the rise of Nationalism in Africa.
3. Analyze the impact of African Nationalism and try linking it with our homegrown solutions described in the previous units.

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