

Review Article

A LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND GENDER ENROLMENT, INCLUSIVE EDUCATION, GOVERNMENT FUNDING, AND GRADUATE MARKETABILITY IN RWANDA AND TANZANIA

ABSTRACT

This study sought to establish the historical development of higher education in Rwanda compared to other East African countries, especially Tanzania. The article was geared to finding out how higher education has developed in both Rwanda and Tanzania in terms of gender and enrolment, inclusive education, government funding, and the marketability of graduates. The findings indicated that there is no equity in gender or enrolment in both Tanzania and Rwanda. In both countries, there is a need to encourage females to access higher education without fearing some of the barriers like getting pregnant and the patriarchal system. Funding students in higher education institutions is a problem for both countries. The need for inclusive education did not suit the governments well enough; hence, parents decided to leave their children unschooled. Fresh graduates are advised to be self-employed or develop their qualifications in the education sector to make them more marketable.

Comment [he8g1]: Include sample size

Keywords: Education, Graduates, enrolment, gender, inclusive, marketability.

1. INTRODUCTION

The issue of comparative advantage is crucial in studying the similarities and differences in education sectors. Before understanding comparative education, there is a need to understand the different terms that will be mostly used in this article, including comparative education, education, enrolment, gender, inclusiveness, and marketability. According to Adejumobi (1990), comparative education is the identification and diagnosis of educational problems, determinants, ideals, and presuppositions in given societies with a view to interpreting them by cross-reference to similar elements in other societies. Getao (1996) defined comparative education as a discipline: the study of educational systems in which one seeks to understand the similarities and differences among educational systems.

Noah and Eckstein (1969) defined comparative education as follows: Comparative education is potentially more than a collection of data and perspectives from social science applied to education in different countries. Neither the topic of education nor the cross-national dimension are central to any of the social sciences, nor are the social science concerns and the cross-national dimension central to the works of educators. The field of comparative education is best defined as an intersection of the social sciences, education, and cross-national study. In this study, comparative education is the field of study that studies two or more education systems in their similarities and differences and later comes up with a solution to solve the problems that exist in the education systems of the different countries. This article posits comparative education as the field of study that studies two or more education systems in their similarities and differences and later comes up with a solution. Marketability refers to the measure of whether a product will appeal to buyers and sell at a certain price range to generate a profit (Newton, 2019).

Comment [he8g2]: Reference is missing

Gender is defined as the roles and responsibilities among men and women that exist in families, societies, and cultures. Gender includes the expectations held about the characteristics, aptitudes, and likely behaviours of both women and men (femininity and masculinity) (March 1999). According to Bollen (2018), "government funding refers to the act of providing financial resources, usually in the form of money or other values such as effort or time, to finance a need, programme, or project, usually by an organisation or company. Sources of funding include credit, grants, venture capital, donations, savings, subsidies, and taxes. Inclusive education refers to the presence, participation, and achievement of all students' vulnerable to exclusionary pressures, not only those with impairments or those who are categorised as 'having special educational needs' (Ainscow & Miles, 2008).

Comment [he8g3]: Follow APA referencing

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Historical development of higher learning in Rwanda and Tanzania

Johson (2011) conducted a study on the current education system in Tanzania, which evolved from German and British colonial rule. Education in Tanzania consists of distinct levels. The first level includes two years of pre-primary education for children between 5 and 6 years old, followed by seven years of primary education, which is available "to all children from the age of 7 years." Primary education begins with Standard I and ends with Standard VII; a final examination on the national level marks the completion of primary school and determines selection for secondary school. The formal secondary school follows, consisting of two sequential cycles; the first is a four-year Ordinary Level (O-

Level) that spans from Form 1 through Form 4. The second cycle is two years and consists of Form 5 and Form 6; this is the Advanced Level (A-Level). National testing takes place after Forms 4 and 6 and is used to determine further education. Tertiary education often takes three or more years for students. The general pattern of education follows a 2+7+4+2+3 pattern (BEST, 2010). The national examinations serve as a funnelling mechanism whereby students who do not pass the examination either terminate their education or have to find alternative paths to pursue their studies.

Asaba (2015) narrates Rwanda's education system. Operates on a 6-3-3-4 school system, that is to say, six years for pre-primary and primary school, three years for ordinary school, three years for advanced level, and four years for a university bachelor's degree. There are three official languages of instruction used in Rwanda: Kinyarwanda for primary p1–p3 and English for p4 and university. French is taught as well, but as a supplement subject in public primary and secondary schools. Each year, over 44,000 students are enrolled in higher education for undergraduate, graduate, certificate, and diploma programmes. The University of Rwanda formed as a merger of former public universities, and these universities became collages of the University of Rwanda.

2.2 Gender Enrolment in Rwanda And Tanzania

Tusiime, Otara, Kaleeba, Kaviira, & Tsinda (2017) conducted a study on the gender difference in enrollment and graduation rates and public higher education in Rwanda. The study focused on the analysis of enrollment rates between females and males in public and private higher learning institutions in Rwanda. The study goes on using the mixed method approach, whereby a qualitative and quantitative approach are used in conducting research. The seven universities from Rwanda were taken as a sample. The findings reveal that a higher number of males are enrolled and graduate from public universities than females. The study explains more that higher numbers of males are enrolled in private and public universities and graduates.

The study further found out some factors that can hinder females from accessing university education in small or low numbers. Early parenthood, loss of parents or guardians, level of performance in college entrance exams, family responsibilities, availability of gender-based counselling services at colleges, gender stereotypes, combining work and studies, and financial constraints

Therefore, in Rwanda, there is almost no equality between females and males in accessing university education. It still remains that a lower number of females are enrolled in university education than men. The imbalance in the ratio between male and female students enrolled at universities is becoming a

Comment [he8g4]: APA format

serious phenomenon. Randell & Fish (2008) argued that the gender imbalance between females and males in access to higher learning institutions is due to the serious obstacles to girls' opportunities to enter Rwandan universities. This is due to the background of the findings of Randell and Huggins (2007), the Ministry of Education (2008), and FAWE (2008). about gender and education at the primary and secondary levels in Rwanda point to a persistent gender imbalance between males and females in the low number of females who access primary and secondary school than males due to the negative attitudes towards females in society.

On the same vein, Johnson (2011) conducted a study on women's access to higher education in Tanzania. The study reveals that there is a gender gap in accessing higher education between males and females. In this study, the number of women who access higher education is not equal to the number of males who access higher education. The study gives some reasons that can hinder women from attending higher education like men. Patriarchy, proximity to schools, teenage pregnancy, domestic roles, religion, and initiation rituals serve as hindrances for women who seek higher education. The findings in this research reveal that women were described as having the ability to pursue education by identifying strategies for success, like avoiding the social pressure to get pregnant. Therefore, there is no equality in gender enrolment in higher education in Tanzania because high numbers of males are enrolled in higher education while low numbers of women are enrolled in higher learning.

Table 1. Students Admitted into HLIs between 2016/2017 and 2017/18 admission cycles. (TCU, 2018)

Institution	2016-2017			2017-2018		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
Arusha Technical College	25	125	150	48	168	216
9 The Catholic University of Health and Allied Sciences	174	268	462	116	183	299
Dar es Salaam Institute of Technology	106	593	699	113	528	641
College of Business Education Dar as Salaam	245	414	659	150	199	349

Comment [he8g5]: Why only these institutions and not others

What is the comparison in Rwanda

Table 1 describes the gender enrolment among male and female in some Tanzania Universities. The Table indicated that a higher number of males accessed or enrolled in higher education compared to

females. The results evidenced that the higher number of males were enrolled in higher education than the female number.

In comparing the gender enrollment between Rwanda and Tanzania, it is evident that both countries have a low number of women who are enrolled in higher education compared to their male counterparts. Turning to factors that hinder the situation of women in accessing higher education in Tanzania and Rwanda, they are both the same, like the issue of women being regarded as the ones who are supposed to have the responsibility at home. Women are regarded as the ones who are not supposed to access higher education because they can get pregnant while they are in the process of attaining education. The article argues that the governments of Tanzania and Rwanda need to encourage and educate women to attain higher education so that the gap between male and female access to higher education can be narrowed. Randell & Fish (2008) Rwanda has committed itself to international guidelines and standards by ratifying the convention to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women and to support education for women and their rights. These include the Rwandan Constitution, with its commitment to affirmative action, Vision 2020, the Economic Development Poverty Reduction Strategy 2008–2015, the 2008 Education Sector Strategic Plan, the Joint Education Sector Support 2006–2010 (JESS), and the 2008 Girls' Education Policy (GEP). Vision 2020 states that "in order to achieve gender equality and equity, Rwanda will continuously update and adapt its laws on gender. It will support education for all, eradicate all forms of discrimination, fight against poverty, and practise a positive discrimination policy in favour of women" (p. 2).

2.3 Inclusive Education in Rwanda And Tanzania

Karangwa (2013) conducted a study with the aim of assessing inclusive education in Rwanda on social-political contributors to inclusive education. Agency-led inclusive education projects have seen notable school transformations towards improved accommodation of learners with diverse needs, even where resources and awareness are modest. Yet, in even more communities, agency-led projects have perpetuated the tradition of leaving the children unschooled and/or dependent on charity and local perceptions of disability, often resulting in exclusion from skills development and social participation. These findings indicate the role of agency-led initiatives is not solely effective in mitigating inclusive education. Therefore, Rwanda and African countries at large ought not to rely fully on these

organisations. Nevertheless, African countries need to provide a suitable environment in terms of policy and funding for these organisations.

Talley & Brintnell (2015) conducted a study on the scope of implementing policies for inclusive education in Rwanda, whereby they came up with the finding that Rwanda has numerous policies for inclusive education but has not been successful in implementing these standards nationally. A multisectoral approach, including interdisciplinary liaisons, is cited to achieve inclusive education. Occupational therapy services recently introduced in Rwanda contribute to reducing obstacles and facilitating the transition of children with disabilities into mainstream classrooms. To overcome the barriers to inclusive education, it is first necessary to identify the client before the solutions can be taken. This will assist other regions in identifying challenges to and adopting inclusive education in the future.

Balsera (2011) conducted a study on the human capital discourse that promotes or hinders the rights of girls, orphans, and vulnerable children to get an education. The findings indicated that education is a human right for all and can be examined through human capital discourse. The paper concluded that although the human capital discourse has brought attention and resources to education for those with disabilities and orphans, the situation has worsened for some marginalised groups, leading to growing inequalities and discrimination. Moreover, Lewis (2009) conducted a study on both Rwanda and Ethiopia and came up with the findings, which showed that only a few disabled children are receiving a quality education in Rwanda. So attention needs to be given to improving the collection of statistical data to capture the realities of disabled people. The paper highlighted the lack of information from the perspective of education beneficiaries in Rwanda, the lack of documentation of experience around special needs education and inclusive education is one of the major challenges in inclusive education. So documenting and sharing existing experience could lead to improvements in the scaling up of successful initiatives in Rwanda. Apart from that, the education sector's policies appear to be weak in relation to disability, special needs education, and inclusive education. There is also limited guidance as to how disabled people fit into the wider 'marginalised' or 'special needs' groups and how those who are implementing policies can ensure that disabled people are not subsequently sidelined within these groups.

On the other hand, Polat (2010) studied inclusion in education using Tanzania as a case study in the educational fields. The author of this article addresses the theoretical connection between social justice and inclusiveness in education. This study used political and social theory to situate the problem of impairment or disability within the context of social justice. The results indicate that, despite some definite advancements, more needs to be done to promote inclusive education in Tanzania. All pupils

should receive high-quality education, according to expectations. Therefore, the government must help students by reducing tuition costs in the education sector so that students with disabilities may afford them.

Therefore, in that case, inclusive education in Tanzania is not suitable for all learners who need to be helped by it due to the fact that it requires a high level of effort to advise policymakers to enact laws that are more inclusive. The low numbers of students are being helped in this inclusive education, whereby the majority remains helpless. Some barriers can be reduced or eliminated for all students. Inclusion in Tanzania uses ongoing participatory action research based on the views of key stakeholders such as school and local education staff, parents, and students, and supports the schools in the process of self-review and development. This will contribute to enabling the schools in Tanzania to develop inclusive, or more inclusive, school cultures.

Polat (2010) supports that fact by commenting that "some progress has been made towards inclusive, just, and quality education in Tanzania, but there is still a long way to go" (p. 50).

Comparing the issue of inclusive education in Rwanda and Tanzania can be similar due to the fact that both countries' inclusive education cannot meet the needs of the majority. In that case, the Rwandan government needs to put more effort into inclusive education, and Tanzania also needs to put much effort into inclusive education so that education can be accessible for all without discrimination. Not only that, but also in Rwanda and Tanzania, parents can be barriers to inclusive education. So, the article argues that the government needs to educate parents in this case of inclusive education so that education can be accessible for all. Apart from the similarities in inclusive education, Tanzania is better than Rwanda in terms of inclusive education. This is due to the fact that in Tanzania there is a tendency for free education for students in secondary and primary school, whereas in Rwanda it is not like that.

Lewis, (2009) Conducted a study on education for disabled people in Ethiopia and Rwanda, he came up with the findings that in both Ethiopia and Rwanda, as examples of countries that support inclusive education, very few students are getting education, whether through inclusive education or segregated schools. In this, we can see that other countries like Ethiopia support inclusive education, even if in a small way. Kenya is another example of a country that supports inclusive education, even in a small way. Elder (2015) conducted a study in Kenya about the right to inclusive education for students with disabilities, and he came up with the finding that the students with disabilities in Kenya have the right to access education. Though a right to equality may include equal access to education for people with disabilities, guarantee equal access to inclusive schools, transportation, modified curriculum, extra

classroom support with highly trained teachers, and other such support that would help students with disabilities actually access their education. But there are still some challenges in Kenya, like poverty, child labour, natural disasters, HIV/AIDS, gender, ethnicity, access to healthcare, access to food, and the availability of clean drinking water.

Elder (2015) argues that Kenya needs to develop an inclusive education plan that includes the development of a country- or region-centred plan, the implementation of inclusion reports, the development of an inclusive network for schools throughout Kenya, and the clarification of ambiguous language and terms within Article 24 of the CRPD as applied to Kenyan laws and policies.

2.4 Government Funding in Rwanda And Tanzania

Government funding is particularly important in developing countries as compared to developed countries. Since the former has a low economy that affects students directly. Nuwagaba (2013) conducted a study on evaluating the current higher education funding system in Rwanda by using the Higher Education's Students' Loans Department (HESLD-REB) PPP, tuition fees, bank loans, and internally generated funds by higher learning institutions. The findings from this study agreed that cost-sharing is a good model for funding education in higher institutions in Rwanda, but it has many challenges. These challenges view this system of FMT (financial means testing) as not frightening to all. In that case, financial support is not given to all who deserve it due to the corruption system in the Rwandan government. HESLB-REB in Rwanda is underfunded; this will impact the quality of the graduates and the sector as a whole. The article argues that there is a need for policy change by the government of Rwanda towards the funding of higher education. Therefore, the system of funding higher education in Rwanda is not good enough to meet the needs of all students in the higher learning institution. There are some challenges, like the challenge of corruption, whereby those students who qualify to be assisted by the loan board from Rwanda are not being assisted. Nuwagaba (2013) argued that "financial assistance, in some cases, is given to the would-be non-qualifying beneficiaries" (p. 92).

On the other side, Nyahende (2013) conducted a study on the success of student loans in financing higher education in Tanzania. The study gave out the factors indicating the success of students' loans in financing higher education in Tanzania. This study found that student loans in financing higher education in Tanzania are successful as they increase enrollment of students in higher learning institutions. The study also revealed that the Higher Education Students' Loan Board (HESLB) is employing enough effort to cover loans granted to beneficiaries since 1994, as well as the guidelines and

criteria for granting loans, which were found to be satisfactory. The study recommended that there are some challenges that face the Higher Education Students' Loans Board (HESLB), like political factors, economic factors, family influences, and school impacts. In that case, these factors need to be considered so that the Higher Education Students' Loans Board (HESLB) can perform better than that. Economic factors need to be considered more than other factors. To measure the economic ability among loan applicants, for instance, the presence of collateral security Tanzania's higher education is supported by the Higher Education Students' Loans Board (HESLB), but in reality there are some challenges, like a number of students in higher learning who fail to get the funds from the Loans Board due to the failure to measure the economic status of the students who need to be helped by the Higher Education Students' Loans Board (HESLB), which is supposed to be measured in terms of economic status first, then the process of receiving funds from the government can follow. Nyahende (2013) argued that "since the Higher Education Students' Loan Board (HESLB) was established, the board has been entrusted by the government with the responsibility to disseminate loans to Tanzanian students who are eligible and needy" (p. 48).

As the issue of higher learning is tangible in Tanzania, Ishengoma (2004) conducted a study on cost-sharing in higher education in Tanzania as a fact or fiction. In this study, he comes up with the finding that cost-sharing in Tanzania has expanded access to higher education, but its implementation has been offhand.

In comparing the government funding from both Rwanda and Tanzania, Tanzania is better than Rwanda in the system of funding higher education because the study proved that there is a success in government funding as the enrollment of students in higher learning increases. Not only that, but also in Tanzania, there are minor challenges in the Loans Board, like the economic challenges, whereby students need to be checked first on the issue of economic status. Rwanda and Tanzania can be similar in terms of government funding because all of the countries are funded by the Loans Board. Also, Rwanda and Tanzania can be similar in that the system of failing to measure students' economic status can lead to those who are qualifying to get loans from the government missing out due to the failure to measure the student's economic status. Finally, Rwanda needs to solve the problem of corruption in the Higher Education's Students' Loans Department (HESLD-REB) and FMT (financial means testing) in the issue of corruption in the system of giving students loans in higher education. Nuwagaba (2013) commented that "FMT is not fairly done as a result of corruption by local government officials, as supported by HESLD (2011); in some cases, financial assistance is given to the would-be non-qualifying

beneficiaries" (p. 92).

2.5 Marketability of Graduates in Rwanda And Tanzania

Many students graduate from universities every year, but they cannot access employment at the same time, where others can decide to study more and others can employ themselves. Asaba (2015) reports that in Rwanda, over 15,000 students graduate from universities every year, but not all of them can find jobs. In Rwanda, the issue of fresh graduates from higher learning being employed, especially in the private sector, requires some experiences and knowledge obtained in a certain course. So in that case, any fresh graduates from higher learning do not get employment due to their lack of experience working because they are coming fresh from the universities and are searching for a job. Many parents and graduates' in Rwanda think that instead of searching for a job, students from higher learning need to upgrade their qualifications in education so that they can become more comfortable and marketable in the world of employment.

There is the issue of limited jobs in Rwanda, not like in Tanzania. Aggarwal, Mohammed, & Kumar (2012) argued that in Rwanda, there is a problem of unemployment among university graduates that is due to the students being more interested in collar jobs than self-employment. They do not prefer to employ someone without skills, and they consider that a way of spending the money to educate the workers. That is why in Rwanda, they prefer higher qualifications in education with skills. Therefore, what matters in Rwanda is that there is not enough employment for the graduates without skills and a higher qualification in education. What matters for students is not only being a graduate, but also the quality and skills that a student gets from the university are more concerned. Materu (2007) conducted a study on higher education quality assurance in sub-Saharan Africa in terms of status, challenges, opportunities, and promising practises, and he argued that learning outcomes (the quality of graduates) are needed in order to promote accountability for the graduates, as Rwanda is among the sub-Saharan countries in Africa.

On returning to Tanzania, Nikusekela and Pallangyo (2016) conducted a study on the analysis of supply-side factors that influence the employability of fresh higher education graduates from higher learning institutions. The study used a snowballing procedure to obtain 80 respondents who were used for analysis. Primary and secondary data were collected using structured interviews, observation, and documentary review. The findings indicate that the employability of fresh higher education graduates

can be determined by the characteristics of their sex. This is whether fresh graduates who are male or female can be employed. Not only that, but also knowledge of practical experience obtained through field practicals, placements, study tours, and campus expert visits showed higher chances of employment as higher learning graduates needed to apply such knowledge while other factors were insignificant. Therefore, the issue of fresh higher learning for graduates in higher learning in Tanzania is taken into account due to the sex of the graduates and their knowledge of their experiences. This means that the fresh graduates in Tanzania must have employment skills and knowledge from the universities in order to have employment in Tanzania.

An attempt to compare Rwanda and Tanzania in the issue of marketability shows the differences in the issue of marketability are based on gender. Tanzania, while in Rwanda, what matters for all is the high quality of education. The article argued that the Tanzanian system appears not to be good due to the fact that there are a higher number of graduates in Tanzania who do not have a job. Even in Rwanda, there are more fresh graduates who are in a dilemma about whether they will get a job or not.

Aggarwal, Mohammed, & Kumar (2012) conducted a study in Rwanda on the issue of technology and business incubation as a proven model to support technology innovation and entrepreneurship in Rwanda due to the reason for unemployment among university graduates, which resulted from pertinent information concerning the Government of Rwanda. However, it is not happening due to a lack of awareness among the youth, especially university graduates; rather, the students are more inclined to take up white-collar jobs than self-employment as career options. As a result, the study findings indicate that using Business Incubation can solve the problem of unemployment and poverty among young university graduates, as well as entrepreneurship models. It is suitable for investments requiring little capital or in efforts to mobilise resources. To sum up, both Rwanda and Tanzania are not doing well on the issue of the marketability of higher-level graduates due to a lack of employment.

Katundu & Gabambi (2014) conducted a study on the entrepreneurial tendencies of Tanzanian university graduates with evidence from the University of Dar es Salaam. He argued that poverty and unemployment are high in Tanzania for graduates. In Rwanda, there is also unemployment. Aggarwal, Mohammed, & Kumar (2012) cemented that "unemployment among university graduates is pertinent concerning the government of Rwanda and is not happening due to a lack of awareness among the youth, especially university graduates." Most of the practise here in higher learning institutions is that the students are more inclined to take up white-collar jobs rather than take self-employment as a career option" (p. 48). So due to that, he came up with the findings that, in order to empower graduates and

facilitate their entry into business, it is necessary to gradually transform them into job creators. Despite government initiatives, very few graduates have managed to start their jobs due to a lack of skills in a certain area, while the reality is fresh from the universities, where they can get those long working experiences.

3. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATION

To wrap up, the government of Tanzania needs to solve the issue of gender enrollment in higher learning. There is a need to advise and educate females on how to access higher education without fearing barriers like getting pregnant, the patriarchy system, or the responsibility that they have. The issue of inclusive education needs to be given the first priority as the policy of Tanzania about inclusive education, with the availability of materials and teachers and the presence of a favourable environment at school, including the interaction among the students with disabilities and those who do not need to be included together. This needs to be solved so that those who are supposed to get help can get it without having challenges.

On the other hand, the Tanzanian government needs to solve the issue of the marketability of graduates by considering gender equality. This needs to consider the qualifications of the graduates to see if she or he can fit certain employment rather than the experience in certain years of working experience. This will help many fresh graduates get employment. There is a need for seminars and workshops to encourage fresh graduates to employ themselves instead of waiting for employment from the government and other sectors. Lastly, they need growth in their education level so that it can increase their marketability as fresh graduates. Finally, the government needs to advise students during university enrollment to choose the courses that are marketable outside, and if not, to choose courses in which students can perform well and even work on them without being employed instead of waiting for employment from the government and other sectors. On the other hand, with the issue of government funding for the high institutions, they are not doing well in that much So, what is needed is to set the rules that will help those who are supposed to get the loans from the student loan board get them without problems.

Turning to Rwanda, there is a need to solve the issues of poverty, poor school environments, negative attitudes towards women in society, insecurity, and social exclusion. There is a need for the government to create policies and favourable conditions for females in the education sector and to prepare seminars

and workshops with the aim of encouraging women to be stable and competent in getting an education. The government needs to create the condition of looking at women with the same attitude as men in the education sector by making society understand the issue of negative attitudes towards women, the exclusion of women in education, the need to include women in the education sector equally with men, and the need to remove the negative attitude towards women in the education sector. On the issue of government funding, Rwanda needs to abolish the issue of corruption in FMT and make sure that all students who need to get loans from the government must get them without the use of corruption. We also need to establish the rules that will be considered for the kinds of students who can access loans. Rwanda needs a unique and valued understanding of each individual in society. Rwanda needs to create a favourable environment for students with disabilities in the education sector and at home. So we need a policy to favour inclusive education, like understanding that each child needs to be treated in a good way as an equal to others rather than segregating them based on their disabilities. Coming to the issue of the marketability of graduates, it needs higher effort for the fresh graduates from the universities to employ themselves without looking for a collar job, and if they fail to do that, they can engage in developing their qualifications in the education sector. This will help the students become more competent, and employers will be able to employ them instead of waiting for a collar job while they have an education.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The information used to support the findings can be obtained from corresponding author upon request.

REFERENCES

1. Adejumobi, S. A. (1990). *Comparative Education for Nigeria*. Lagos: Nerdc Press.
2. Aggarwal, R., Mohammed, B. S., & Kumar, P. (2012). Technology And Business Incubation a Proven Modeto Promote Technology Innovation and Entrepreneurship In Rwanda. *International Journal of Business and Public Management*, 47-50.
3. Ainscow, M., & Miles, S. (2008). Making Education for All-Inclusive: Where Next? *Article in Prospects*, 15-34.

4. Asaba, S. (2015, July 22). *Education.Experience:The Dilemma Of A Fresh Graduates*. Retrieved From The New Times, Rwanda's Leading Daily: [www.Newtimes.Co.Rw/Section/Reade/190827](http://www.newtimes.co.rw/section/read/190827)
5. Balsera, M. R. (2011). Does The Human Capital Discourse Promote Or Hinder The Right To Education? The Case Of Girls, Orphans and Vulnerable Children in Rwanda. *Journal Of International Development*, 275-284.
6. Elder, B. C. (2015). Right To Inclusive Education For Students With Disabilities In Kenya. *Journal Of International Special Needs Education*, 18-28.
7. Forum For African Women Educationalists (2002). Mainstreaming Gender in Education for All (EFA) Action Plans: FAWE's Experience from 1999 to 2002. Organizational Document
8. Getao F. N. (1996) *International Education Systems*, Lectern Publications, Nairobi.
9. Huggins, A., & Randell, S. (2007). Gender Equality In Education In Rwanda: What Is Happening To Our Girls?'. *Paper Presented At The South African Association of Women Graduates Conference On Cape Town*, 1-10.
10. Ishengoma, M. J. (2004). Cost-Sharing In Higher Education In Tanzania: Fact Or Fiction? *Boston College & Council For The Development Of Social Science Research In Africa*, 105-1115.
11. Johnson, M. P. (2011). Women's Access To Higher Education In Tanzania: A Qualitative Study. *Lowa Research Journal*, 1-20.
12. Karangwa, E. (2013). Towards Inclusive Education In Rwanda: An Assessment Of The Socio-Political Contributors To Inclusive Education Development. *Rwandan Journal Of Education Volume 2*, 46-58.
13. Katundu, M. A., & Gabamambi, D. M. (2014). Entrepreneurial Tendencies Of Tanzanian University Graduates: Evidence From University Of Dar-Es-Salaam. *European Academic Research*, 5525-5531.
14. Lewis, I. (2009). Education For Disabled People In Ethiopia and Rwanda. *Education For All Global Monitoring Report*, 1-10.
15. Newton, C. (2019). Chron. Retrieved from Chron Web Site: <https://smallbusiness.chron.com/product-marketability-17351.html>
16. Nikusekela, N. E., & Pallangyo, E. M. (2016). Analysis Of Supply-Side Factors Influencing The Employability Of Fresh Higher Learning Graduates In Tanzania. *Global Journal of Human Social Science: Economics Vol. 16*, 8-9.

17. Noah, H.J., and Eckstein, M.A. (1969). *Toward A Science of Comparative Education*. London: Macmillan.
18. Nuwagaba, A. (2013). Evaluation Of Current Higher Education Finding, Model In Rwanda Using Higher Education Student Loans Department (HESLD-REB) As A Case Study. *Journal of Economics And Internation Finance*. Vol. 5, 72-95.
19. Nyahende, V. R. (2013). The Success of Student Loans In Financing Higher Education In Tanzania. *Higher Education Studies Vol.3*, 47-61.
20. Polat, F. (2010). Inclusion In Education: A Step Towards Social Justice. *International Journal Of Education Development*, 50-58.
21. Randell, S., & Fish, J. (2008). Promoting The Retention of Women Faculty And Students In Higher Education: The Rwandan Case. *Paper Presented At The Women's Worlds 2008 Conference 10 International Interdisciplinary Congress on Women, Madrid, July 2008*, 1-10.
22. Republic Of Rwanda Ministry of Education (2008). Girls' Education Policy.
23. Talley, L., & Brintnell, E. S. (2015). Scoping The Barriers To Implementing Policies For Inclusive Education In Rwanda: An Occupational Therapy Opportunity. *International Journal Of Inclusive Education*, 1-12.
24. Talley, L., & Brintnell, E. S. (2015). Scoping The Barriers To Implementing Policies For Inclusive Education In Rwanda: An Occupational Therapy Opportunity. *International Journal Of Inclusive Education*, 1-12.
25. ZTCU. (2018). *Higher Education Students Admission, Enrolment And Graduation Statistics*. Dar es salaam: 7 Magogoni Street.
26. Tusiime, M., Otara, A., Kaleeba, A., Kaviira, A., & Tsinda, A. (2017). Gender Differences In Enrollment And Graduation Rates In Private And Public Higher Learning Institution In Rwanda. *Rwanda Journal ISSN 2305-2678(Print;ISSN 2305-5944(Online)*, 5-32.