

A Rethinking of Upward Mobility Among Educated Women in the Public Sector in Rwanda

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Abstract

A Rwandan saying literally articulates that the optimal development of a woman is vital to the development of the family. However, in Rwanda, women remain disadvantaged in terms of participation in top job hierarchies. This study explored upward mobility among educated women in the Public Sector in Rwanda. The study established that women's lack confidence to compete for higher-level positions is the main cause of gender discrepancies in top-level positions (89.7%). Women rush to get married instead of going for higher Degrees (Master's and PhD) (79.4%) and fewer women complete Bachelor's Degree while the higher Degree is the screening device to access top-level positions (81%). The Main implications of this gender disparity are unequal distribution of income (95.6%) and low salary for women (75%). It was concluded that gender disparity in qualifications in top-level positions in Rwanda's Public Sector deserves serious consideration to be alleviated.

Keywords: upward mobility, educated women, top-level positions, public sector, Rwanda

1. Introduction

A Rwandan saying literally articulates that the optimal development of a woman is vital to the development of the family. In this regard, the post genocide Government in Rwanda continuously harnessed efforts to ensure female access to formal education at all levels to guarantee women's access to decent jobs. Scholars have also viewed that formal education is an avenue towards social transformation (Otieno, Bizimana & Ndayambaje, 2015). Likewise, human capital theories that refer to education levels or other credentials such knowledge, training, experience or skills of a person make the person potentially valuable for an employer (Jacobs, 1995). However, it is a fact that the equality of chances between men and women to access jobs after obtainment of degrees remain elusive.

It has been revealed that even in light of heightened international awareness of gender issues, it is a disturbing reality that no country has managed to eliminate the gender gap in workplaces and gender disadvantages are stronger at the top of hierarchy than at lower levels (Mwaniki & Guantai, 2018). It was documented that women's entrance into specific occupations has for a long time suggested that less competent workers have begun to be hired or that the occupation is becoming deskilled (Cotter, Hermsen, Ovadia & Vanneman, 2001).

Female-male gap at workplaces remains higher and as such, qualification being occupational, there is a continued existence of a gendered gap between men and women. This factor suggests that women's qualifications provide significant disadvantages towards the top of job hierarchies, which become worse as a person's career goes on, preventing women from advancing within their jobs or receiving promotions (Douglass, 2007). Inequality effects are more prevalent within higher-powered or higher income occupations, with fewer women holding these types of occupations and there are limited chances of women for income raises and promotion or advancement to positions or jobs that are more prestigious. These barriers prevent women from receiving job or job promotions or income raises, and the effects of the inequality increase over the course of a woman's career (Douglass, 2007; Tlaiss, & Kauser, 2010).

Truly, gender considerations have a big impact on women's access to jobs and specifically higher job positions. A study in the United States has shown that when leaders at scientific research institutes were presented with identical job applications with either female or male names, faculty participants rated the male applicant as significantly more competent and hireable than the female applicants (Douglass, 2007). These participants also

selected a higher starting salary for male applicants. The findings also showed that a tendency to be biased towards the male application was expressed by both male and female faculty staff (Douglass, 2007). Similarly, it has been noticed that in many regions of sub-Saharan Africa, women do not yet enjoy equal status with men, and full women's empowerment is still a dream. Only 25 percent of women are employed in the formal sector, in comparison with 74 percent of men (Burstein, 1995).

Jobs which are predominated by women offer lower wages than do jobs predominantly occupied by men. As women enter an occupation, this reduces the amount of prestige associated with the job and men subsequently leave these occupations (Jacobs, 1995). It has been experienced that women are occupationally segregated because men and women are thought to possess different physical, emotional, and mental capabilities, horizontal segregation, or because of the stratification of occupation according to the power, authority, income, and prestige associated with occupation, vertical segregation, which excludes women from holding such jobs (Douglass, 2007).

Statistical discrimination is also cited as a cause for income disparities and gendered inequality in the workplace. Statistical discrimination indicates the likelihood of employers to deny women access to certain occupational tracks because women are more likely than men to leave their job or the labor force when they become married or pregnant (United States Department of Labor, 2010). This being the case, women are instead given positions that are dead-end or jobs that have very little mobility (United States Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2013).

Worldwide, women continue to earn less than men in the labor market-even when they have the same education and years of work experience as men (Arbache & Filipiak, 2010). In addition to gender wage gap, women often face a glass ceiling when it comes to promotions, which leads to the lack of women in management positions in different countries and cultures (Davidson & Burke, n.d).

In Rwanda, women in top and management positions can only be observed in scanty services, such as in Chamber of Deputies (56%), Permanent Secretaries (50%), Supreme Court judges (43%) and judges at Commercial High Courts at 43%. The lowest score was at women ambassadors who constitute 23.8%, while full ministers are 28.6%. The mayoral offices are also mainly occupied by men (90%). In education, a sector considered as meagerly paying, the gender gaps show that in primary education men represent 50.1% of teachers while in secondary and higher education men are 70%. In health centres, women represent 58.6%, whereas men are 41.4%, which indicates that women dominate the area (Tumwebaze, 2012). This is the situation while women representation at all levels should be at least 30% constitutionally (Tumwebaze, 2012; Gender Monitoring Office, 2011).

Although the achievements in women's promotion at workplaces, the statistics show that there are many areas that still show gender imbalances. These statistics provide vital information on the status of women and men in the society and the gaps that exist in their day-to-day activities in the social, economic and political spheres (Gender Monitoring Office, 2011). There was, therefore, a need to assess the factors hindering women's access to top-level positions in the Public Sector in Rwanda and assess the implications of gender disparities in top-level positions on women's income in the Public Sector in Rwanda.

2. Methods

The researcher collected data to answer the questions of the status of the subject of the study, which was assessment of upward mobility of educated women in the public sector in Rwanda. In this regards, the researcher determined such things as major qualifications available in Rwanda's public sector, factors underlying gender disparities in qualifications within Rwanda's Public sector notably the behavior of girls as compared to boys once they are in school, i.e. whether they tend to remain in school more or less than boys and the views of the civil servants about the factors hindering women's access to top-level positions in the Public Sector in Rwanda and the implications of gender disparities in top-level positions on women's income in the Public Sector in Rwanda.

The targeted population for this research involved Rwanda's public servants which is estimated at 81 858 according to the Civil Servants census of 2010. Several reasons motivated the choice of the study population. First, in order to know about the gender disparities in qualifications within Rwanda's Public sector, respondents from the public servants were the best indicated. Secondly, by approaching Public Servants, the manifestation of gender disparities in qualifications was captured in their respective institutions. Thirdly, Public Servants' views on the issue at hand provided better understanding of the genuine reality rather than relying on reports about gender assessment. Given the fact that the population was large without knowing the variability in the proportion that would participate, the sample was calculated using Cochran's formula at a margin error of 5% and

confidence level of 95% (Cochran, 1963). A finite population collection proportion was used to determine how many people were needed to poll:

$$n_0 = \frac{z^2 pq}{e^2} \tag{1}$$

Where $n_0 = \frac{(1.96)^2 \times (0.5) \times (0.5)}{(0.5)^2} = 384$

and

z = normal distribution coefficient

p = probability of success

q = probability of failure

e = margin error

n_0 = estimated sample size

Hence the sample size of this study equals to 384 civil servants. This number has been equitably divided into the four strata on the basis of 24 civil servants a stratum.

The procedure used in this study was stratified sampling. It refers to a probability sample where the population is broken into different strata or subgroups based on one or more characteristics and then a simple random sample was taken from each stratum of interest in the population. In this study, the population was broken into four strata namely: Ministries and State secretariats, Public institutions, Provinces plus Kigali City, Districts and Sectors. The stratified sample was determined on the basis of 10% of each Institution. Thereafter, simple random sampling was used to select the participants from the strata. The research required both primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained using survey questionnaire and interview. Secondary data were mainly sourced from the civil servant census carried out by the NISR in 2010, administrative records from the Ministry of Public Service and Labor and the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Gender and Family, the Gender Monitoring Office and archival researches and reports from the Public Service Commission.

Frequencies and percentages were the data analysis tools. Along this study, the following charts were used for data presentation: Pie Charts, Bar Charts and Histograms. All, the adopted design was a Descriptive Survey and this allowed to report the state of affairs with regard to the variables under study.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Distribution of Public Servants by Field of Education/Level of Education/Sex

A record review allowed the researcher to come up with a situational picture about representativeness of both men and women in the public sector, which gives good grounds to contend that Rwanda still has to put up with gender inequalities in the public sector. The researcher looked into the distribution of men and women by fields of education and by institutions.

By sheer sense of numbers, there exist gender disparities in Rwanda’s public service according to different fields of education. Table 1 depicts data about this issue.

Table 1. Distribution of public servants by field of education/level of education/sex

Field of study	A2		A1		A0		Master’s		PhD	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Agriculture, Forestry, Fishery	340	657	82	285	52	222	5	41	2	11
Architecture, building	13	139	0	11	1	6	3	7	0	0
Arts	103	192	33	83	121	312	1	13	0	4
Business and Administration	1,421	1,302	464	521	1,402	2,224	84	254	2	16
Computing	72	59	43	75	87	288	14	55	2	6

Field of study	A2		A1		A0		Master's		PhD	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Engineering and Engineering trades	62	674	24	187	50	457	10	56	2	12
Environmental protection	5	15	57	145	40	148	14	45	1	7
Health	4,487	2,097	882	777	226	549	26	76	28	90
Humanities	2,247	3,325	70	251	288	861	34	111	8	43
Journalism and information	1	2	62	32	26	46	0	6	0	2
Law	101	159	65	103	523	846	18	46	0	2
Life sciences	716	1,294	27	121	116	463	19	39	5	26
Manufacturing and processing	317	287	33	58	9	14	8	8	1	6
Mathematics and statistics	338	1,094	20	96	46	254	4	27	2	11
Personal services	781	126	236	29	14	7	1	2	0	0
Physical sciences	54	180	12	45	12	126	2	17	1	12
Security services	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0
Social and behavioral science	146	37	137	107	269	240	7	7	0	2
Social services	586	125	86	65	225	200	3	9	0	1
Teacher training and education science	16,841	15,317	116	333	455	1,347	14	40	1	7
Transport services	0	24	0	0	1	2	0	1	0	0
Veterinary	168	424	35	122	4	43	5	11	0	14
Not known or unspecified	67	140	10	7	2	6	3	5	0	0
TOTAL	28,866	27,669	2,394	3,453	3,969	8,661	276	877	55	272

Source: Secondary data

Table 1 substantiates that females dominate in teacher training, education science and health but only A2 level, which is low paying level. Females dominate also in social and behavioral science. The same Table reveals that the composition and distribution of qualifications in Rwanda's civil service disaggregated by gender. Overall, bachelor's degrees are the majority constituting about 47% of the qualifications in Rwanda's civil service; A2 qualifications come second with a substantial percentage of about 32%, advanced diplomas come third at about 10% of the qualifications, while Master's Degrees come 4th at 5.6% of all the qualification in Rwanda's Civil service. Three main issues ought to be addressed in Rwanda's public service. The low number of Master's and PhD Degrees in Rwanda's civil service is a concern, which has to be addressed if Rwanda is to attain the necessary capacity required to achieve its ambitious goals in vision 2020. Model countries like Singapore developed a minimum threshold of Master's and PhD degrees through not only the sustained training efforts of its citizens abroad but also ensuring that they kept their best human assets after training. One of the challenges to Rwanda's civil service is the ability to keep their human resource especially after training abroad. Most of the Master's and PhD holders find it less attractive to continue working for government and usually opt for the private sector. This implies that remuneration is a critical factor.

The substantial 18% of the civil service with simply A2 qualifications indicates a substantially low level of specialization in terms of skills in the civil service. A2 graduates are not specialized meaning that further training is needed to upgrade the skills of both A2 leavers in the civil service.

3.2 Distribution of Public Servants by Institution

Herein, a distribution of men and women in public institutions was made. The sheer sense from numbers is that men dominate the service in public institutions. Table 2 substantiates this distribution.

Table 2. Distribution of public servants by institution/level of education/sex

Institution	A2		A1		A0		Master's		PhD	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Ministries/High Government Institutions	102	108	133	74	516	760	41	135	1	8
Provinces	1	3	5	3	16	59	3	5	0	0
Districts	730	816	84	176	338	973	3	9	0	1
Sectors	1,100	1,710	107	247	270	702	1	1	0	0
Primary education	13,016	12,722	77	164	138	317	1	4	0	0
Combined education	5,618	5,791	164	477	323	803	0	1	0	0
Secondary education	1,487	2,120	160	766	443	1,656	6	20	0	1
Higher education	73	99	151	103	212	514	79	301	19	133
Health centers	3,896	2,134	248	270	106	89	1	1	3	5
Hospitals	2,179	966	806	647	240	504	22	50	16	68
Agency/Commissions/Public institutions	642	1,171	439	492	1,317	2,193	111	333	16	55
Projects	22	29	20	34	50	91	8	17	0	1
TOTAL	28,866	27,669	2,394	3,453	3,969	8,661	276	877	55	272

Source: Secondary data

As the level of schooling increases, the representation of women decreases faster. Females dominate health centers and hospitals mostly A2 and A1 levels. Looking at the top level qualifications in Table 2 we can see that big differences occur among men and women in Rwanda's public sector. Despite the fact that the 4473 Bachelors' Degree holders constituted 47% which is the majority of the total qualifications in Rwanda's public sector, 31.36% of the available Bachelor's Degrees are held by women while 68.64% of the available Bachelor's Degrees are held by men. This indicates a big gap in achieving gender equality by qualifications in Rwanda's public sector. In addition, the percentage of women holding Bachelor's Degrees as a percentage of the total civil servants is 15% which is quite low. Although the percentage of women in the lower qualifications of A2 and advanced diploma (A1) increases to about 42 and 45 percent respectively, it is still lower than the proportion of men in these respective categories which stands at 58 and 54 percent respectively. The gender disparities widen further when it comes to higher degrees like the Master's and PhDs. Of the 38 PhDs in Rwanda's public sector, only 5 i.e. 13% are held by women while men hold the rest i.e. 33 (87%); Of the 511 Master's Degrees in Rwanda's public sector only 132 (25.83%) are held by women with the men holding 397 i.e. 74.17%.

Table 2 shows the dire need of Master's Degree holders at senior positions within local government units. The local government picture is a lot worse than that of the central government in terms of Master's Degree holders. While only 26(1%) of the professional civil servants at local government institutions hold a Master's Degree. Despite the few Master's Degree in local government a good number of senior staff at local government hold a Bachelor's Degree.

Remarkably, there is not only need to step up training of the Rwandan civil service more so at Master's and PhD level but also taking more affirmative action to increase the number of women training at higher degrees, Master's and PhD levels, in order to address the wide gender disparities in qualifications that exist in Rwanda's public sector. Women's low share in Rwanda's public sector is indicative of their low education status and indeed low level of income. Looking at PhD degree holders, universities and research institutes dominate with 80.69% of them, a result which is not surprising given the high level skill required for doing research and lecturing at universities.

A similar trend is observed with the Master's Degree holders where universities and research institutes dominate with about 39.53% of the degree holders. Central government and government parastatals closely tie at 26.22% and 29.16% leaving a behind local government which lag at just 5.09 % of employing Master's Degree holders.

There is a need to attract more Masters’ degree holders into local government agencies. The distribution of Bachelors’ Degree holders in the civil service is dominated by local government institutions which, constitute 47.70% of the Degree holders with 2123 civil servants. Government parastatals follow local government with about 28.7% of the degree holders while universities and central government institutions tie at about 13.5 % of the graduates in the civil service. This implies that while local government institutions rank high with graduates, they need to increase their efforts in attracting civil servants with Masters’ degrees. An analysis of the lower qualifications in Table 4 shows that local government institutions and universities dominate with Diploma holders by 40 and 32 percent respectively. In addition, local government still dominates the lower qualification by over 80% indicating further need for skill upgrading in the local government units of Rwanda’s public sector.

3.3 Causes of Gender Disparity in Qualifications in Rwanda’s Public Sector

Presented under this section are the causes of gender disparities in qualifications in Rwanda’s public sector. The Figure 1 summarizes the causes in question.

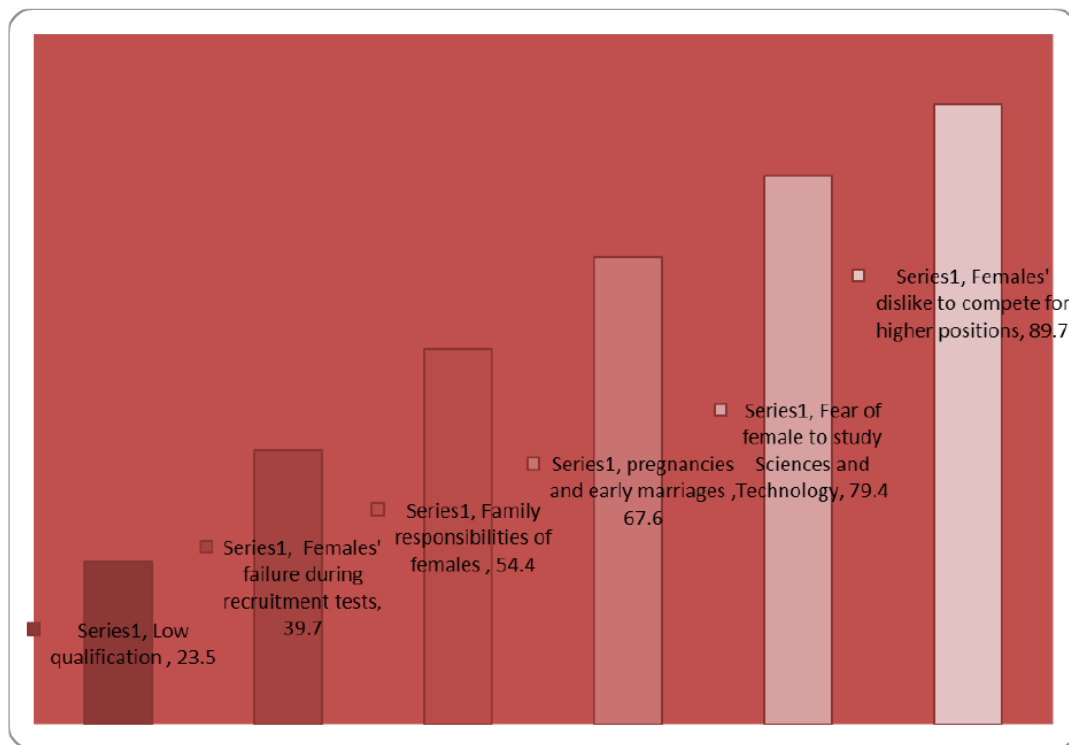


Figure 1. Causes of gender disparity in qualifications in Rwanda’s public sector

Source: Primary data

With respect to the causes of gender disparities in Rwanda’s public sector, 9.37% of the respondents argue that a lot of women are outwitted by men because they lack adequate skills when it comes to competition for job. Twelve and half percent contend that the number of women who fail tests during recruitment is far beyond that of men. Fourteen and a half percents affirm that the number of women who hold higher degree, which is a screen device, is far below that of men. Fifteen point sixty-two reveals that women do not like to work far from their homes like in grassroot levels. Ten point forty-one say that women do not like to compete for higher level positions because of duties which are supposed to be discharged at these levels, which cannot be squeezed into their household duties. It sounds that there is need for women to feel confident and courageous to compete for higher level positions as men. It has been earlier highlighted that even in light of heightened international awareness of gender issues, it is a disturbing reality that no country has managed to eliminate the gender gap in workplaces (Mwaniki, & Guantai, 2018) and gender disadvantages are stronger at the top of hierarchy than at lower levels (Cotter *et al.*, 2001).

Fifteen point fifty-one value founding their households more than studying to higher levels while 45.75% argue that households duties prevent women from pursuing their studies up to higher levels, which would offer them chance to get the same positions as men.

This is corroborated by the information given by the interviewees that between 2005 and 2010 the number of educated women was far below the number of women. Women only outnumber men in the fields like secretariat and management, which influences the positions they occupy. According to the data, women and men are almost equally represented at primary education level but the number of women goes decreasing starting with secondary level, which originates the small the number of women who enter the work market compared to men. There is also lack of role model for women.

3.4 Implications of Gender Disparities in Top Level Positions on Women’s Income in Rwanda’s Public Sector

Were considered under this section are the distribution of public servants by institution, distribution of public servants by gender and institution and the distribution of men and women in the decision-making positions and implications on women’s income. Figure 2, Tables 3 and 4 summarize these distributions.

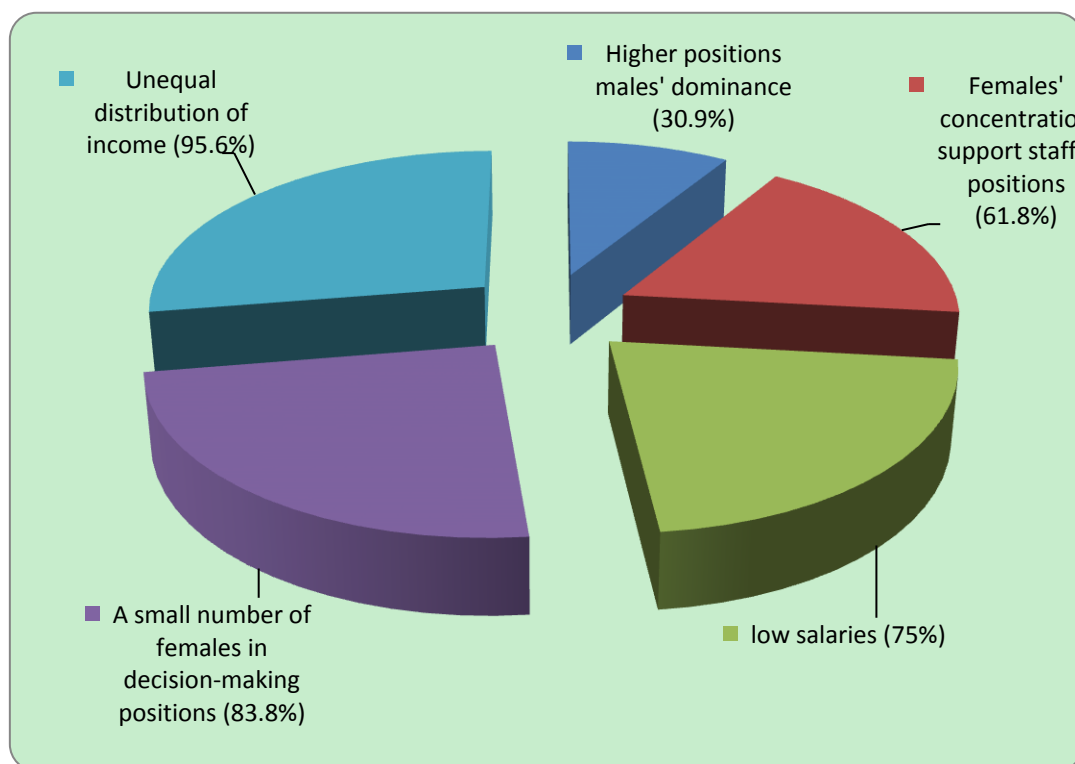


Figure 2. Implications of gender disparities in top level positions on women’s income

Source: Primary data

It was revealed that women occupy lower positions, hence little salary (75%) and unequal distribution of income (95.6%), lack of allowances in the time when men who dominate higher positions obtain allowances according to their positions, which always enhances women’s dependence on men and poverty for women. In long run, this has an impact on the welfare of the family and children’s education and lack of self-confidence. Women have very many households related duties to discharge and are attempted by men because of low income.

During the recruitment process there is no analysis to ascertain whether the policy of gender equality is respected. There is persistence that makes it that women feel much comfortable in certain domains than others hence they play big roles in nursing and teaching domains, considered as low paying. Interviewees substantiated that there are inequalities in certain positions even though there are no big disparities between men and women in some other positions. Men are highly represented in the positions which do not require competition with bigger salaries. For

the positions which require competition, men apply in a great number compared to women. Women are not highly represented in the decision-making positions. Women are highly represented in the positions of administrative assistants. In the United States, it was also found that male applicants were rated as significantly more competent and hireable than the female applicants (Douglass, 2007), which translates into unequal upward mobility at work.

The reviewed records applicants (Gender Monitoring Office, 2011), back up what was revealed by informants that men overwhelmingly dominate in higher positions. Women are simply greatly represented in lower positions like support staff, as recorded in Table 3.

Table 3. Dominance of men in decision-making positions

Designation	2009					2010				
	Number			%		Number			%	
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male
Permanent Secretaries	8	13	21	38.1	61.9	8	15	23	34.8	65.2
Director Generals	6	16	22	26.3	73.7	5	35	40	12.1	87.5
Directors of units (Ministries)	45	132	177	25.4	74.6	34	78	112	30.4	69.6
Directors of Units (All institutions)						148	420	568	26.1	73.9
Experts or professionals						290	562	852	34.0	66.0
Technicians						69	104	173	39.9	60.1
Support staff						185	119	304	60.9	39.1

Source: Secondary data

Table 3 demonstrates the gender inequalities in Rwanda's public sector. The main observation is that despite the high women representation in Rwanda's parliament, women are still under represented at senior and middle level positions within the public sector. This calls for further affirmative action to integrate more women at these positions. The general trend in all the 3 Tables is that the proportion of women is very low at high level positions and hence women are dominantly found in meagerly paying positions.

Men dominate overall, decision-making positions, women dominate in the support positions (20.80%), 11.45% say that low salary is a contributing factor whereas 21.87% substantiate that a scanty number of women occupy decision-making positions. Worthwhile, men and women are unequally distributed at the district level. Table 4 depicted this underrepresentation.

Table 4. Distribution of public servants by gender and institution

District	Type of institutions								Total
	Ministries and government institutions		Education		Health		Decentralized entities		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
Nyarugenge	1,188	2,134	571	411	840	322	150	154	5,770
Gasabo	1,302	1,846	761	648	541	266	104	133	5,601
Kicukiro	330	578	487	410	360	160	76	118	2,519
Nyanza	40	86	718	723	217	152	71	128	2,135
Gisagara	11	21	691	724	279	166	98	146	2,136
Nyaruguru	7	21	703	765	166	150	97	150	2,099

Huye	146	294	1,019	1,229	402	263	108	121	3,582
Nyamagabe	34	172	822	948	218	162	72	161	2,589
Ruhango	31	38	820	727	200	111	103	168	2,298
Muhanga	67	92	966	690	350	232	89	93	2,539
Kamonyi	18	14	971	628	269	135	58	126	2,219
Karongi	28	81	851	939	290	237	66	205	2,697
Rutsiro	4	14	615	950	202	196	56	173	2,210
Rubavu	58	172	603	1,038	233	171	93	203	2,571
Nyabihu	8	11	587	1,125	196	211	117	182	2,437
Ngororero	6	24	744	1,041	216	191	125	185	2,534
Rusizi	27	147	957	991	204	209	128	181	2,844
Nyamasheke	15	41	1,081	1,071	277	234	98	167	2,984
Rulindo	5	33	667	829	244	175	103	231	2,287
Gakenke	5	25	808	943	340	313	150	202	2,786
Musanze	88	296	903	1,263	282	247	99	176	3,354
Burera	7	41	648	1,158	220	206	125	237	2,642
Gicumbi	44	90	781	1,094	255	218	120	238	2,840
Rwamagana	30	108	695	652	276	175	68	108	2,107
Nyagatare	19	89	542	1,231	248	260	51	136	2,576
Gatsibo	8	16	749	1,177	307	242	41	122	2,662
Kayonza	7	25	567	835	293	279	52	121	2,179
Kirehe	5	24	519	840	255	236	86	202	2,167
Ngoma	40	84	655	782	227	198	80	164	2,230
Bugesera	30	66	616	839	259	191	69	154	2,224
Total	3,608	6,680	22,217	26,70	8,666	6,308	2,753	4,925	81,858

1

Source: Secondary data

The analysis of the gender balance shows a completely altered picture. The majority of the gender-balanced institutions are government line ministries, urban districts and government parastatals mainly located in Kigali, which employ a proportion of women of 50% and above. This implies that the problem of integrating women into the public sector may be worse at district level. One of the explanations could be the lack of qualifications among most rural women while the other could be the unattractiveness of working in the districts most of which are rural, for the qualified women. This is in agreement with what was revealed by our interviewee that women prefer to stop working when it comes to working in remote areas or simply far from their homes.

Rwanda has made good progress in educating the girl child at primary and secondary school levels. However, given the low proportion of women in the civil service, a trend that cuts across different types of government institutions, there is still scope for affirmative action and gender multiplier effect for both civil service and education.

4. Conclusion and Recommendations

Gender disparity in qualifications in the Rwanda' public sector in general and in top-level positions in particular deserves serious consideration to be alleviated. The study revealed that although the Rwanda's incredible strides in expanding education and promoting girls' education, there are still inequalities in terms of education attainment specifically when it comes to higher levels of qualifications. There are still shortfalls in access and completion of women to higher levels of education compared to men. Rwanda has made good progress in educating the girl child at primary and secondary school levels. However, there is still need for affirmative action

for both girls' higher education access and service for recruitment and education for women. There is need to emphasize rural women's access to tertiary education.

Female dislike to compete for higher positions is the major cause for female underrepresentation in top level positions. The implications of gender disparities in top level positions are inequality in income distribution and low salary earning for women. Women underrepresentation remains high the public sector particularly in the senior and middle levels given the current qualification situation of women.

The Government of Rwanda should adopt the policy of multiplier effect of female education when it comes to higher education admission to yield a higher rate of access and completion for women as a similar increase as for men, attendance, attainment, and completion as well as in improvements in the status of women within families, local community, and the political arena. The Government of Rwanda should maximize its affirmative action by adequately investing in girls' education to facilitate the achievement of not only primary and secondary levels but also the most other level of education (tertiary) and increase the probability that access and completion will be sustained. It is advisable to the Government of Rwanda to promote women adults' skills that they need to lead their productive lives. The policy of gender multiplier should not only be reflected in the political and higher level of decision-making. It should also be reflected in lower levels such as support or technical staff to address the far low representation of women compared to men. The Government of Rwanda should support women working in education and health areas to upgrade their levels seen that women are most represented in these areas but with lower education levels (A2). Future researcher could replicate this study and investigate the gender disparities in qualification in Rwanda's non-governmental institutions. Comparisons could then be made to determine whether the differences exist regarding gender disparities in qualifications in the public service and non-governmental institutions.

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