The Role of the Public-Private Partnerships in Widening Access to Tertiary Education in Rwanda: Evidences and Challenges

Philothere Ntawiha¹, Stephen O. Odebero ², Justin Nshimiyimana³*, Joseph Ndikumana⁴ & Beth Mukarwevo Nasiforo⁵

¹&³University of Rwanda-College of Education, ²Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology, ³&⁴Kibogora Polytechnic

Corresponding author address: juwerra@gmail.com tel: +250788685688

RESEARCH HIGHLIGHTS

- Tertiary institutions increased from 1 to 44 including 12 public and 32 private and 57% of all students in tertiary education being in private institutions.

- PPPs in Rwanda involves private tertiary institutions, government purchasing education services from private institutions, and both public and private institutions working together to offer scholarships to students

- Challenges facing PPPs include: lack of institutional capacity, limited financing, lack of qualified teaching staff, and lack of clear policy and framework governing PPPs.

GRAPHICAL ABSTRACT

Role of PPPs in widen access to tertiary education in Rwanda

Find out extent to which PPPs has widen access to tertiary education

Determine different forms of PPPs in tertiary education

Highlight challenges to PPPs in tertiary education

Review of reports, yearbooks, websites, etc

- Tertiary education institutions increased from 1 to 44
- 57% of students are enrolled in private institutions
- Privately managed tertiary institutions
- Government purchase services from private inst
- Public and Private Institutions sponsor students
- Lack of institutional capacity
- Limited financing
- Lack of qualified staff
- Lack policy& framework

Conclusions

- PPPs has considerably widened access to tertiary education
- PPPs take different forms whereby both public & private sectors work together to provide educational services
- Despite the progress made, PPPs face a number challenges

Recommendations

- Government to develop a clear PPPs policy and framework
- Both public and private sectors to strengthen PPPs to widen access to tertiary education for country sustainable development

Results

-Objectives

- Tertiary education institutions increased from 1 to 44
- 57% of students are enrolled in private institutions
- Privately managed tertiary institutions
- Government purchase services from private inst
- Public and Private Institutions sponsor students
- Lack of institutional capacity
- Limited financing
- Lack of qualified staff
- Lack policy& framework
INTRODUCTION

The provision and financing of higher education in most countries had been the responsibility of the governments (MINEDUC, 2010). However, with the growing need and demand for higher education many governments around the world found themselves unable to fully provide and finance higher education. In order to satisfy the need and demand for higher education governments involve the private sector in the provision and financing of higher education UNESCO (2014). The involvement of the private sector in education is known as Public-Private Partnerships. This involves contracts/arrangements between the public sector and the private sector to provide educational infrastructures, teaching/learning materials, education services, and/or any other support in education (Chaudhry and Uboweja, 2014). This study first provides the background information comprising of a brief description/history of higher education in Rwanda and a brief review of the literature to understand the concept of Public-Private Partnerships. It further examines the role of Public-Private partnerships in widening access to tertiary education in Rwanda, explores different forms of PPPs used in Rwandan tertiary education system, and highlights the challenges to success implementation of PPPs in tertiary education in Rwanda. This was done through a critical review of different documents including government’s reports, statistics yearbook, websites, and other official documents.

According to MINEDUC (2010) education in Rwanda was informal and delivered largely through the family and through ‘itorero’. It is since then that higher education was seen as a critical area of investment for the future economic growth and development of the country. As the consequence, the government increased its share of the national budget allocated to higher education. This increased the student population enrolled at the National University of Rwanda which came from 49 students (HEC, 2015). HEC goes on to state that until 1994 the National University of Rwanda was the only public university in Rwanda. Other universities were created after the 1994 genocide against Tutsi. It is since then that higher education was seen as a critical area of investment for the future economic growth and development of the country. As the consequence, the government increased its share of the national budget allocated to higher education. This increased the student population enrolled at the National University of Rwanda which came from 49 students in 1963 to 4550 students in 1999. To expand higher education opportunities, the government also established new public universities and encouraged the private sector to invest in higher education by opening private universities.

It was in this perspective that higher education opportunities dramatically increased in the late 90s. New institutions of higher education have been opened. These
include the former Kigali Institute of Science and Technology (KIST), the former Kigali Institute of Education (KIE), and the Kigali Health Institute (KHI) among many others. Likewise, public universities also remarkably opened including Kigali Independent University (ULK), Independent Institute of Lay Adventists of Kigali (INILAK), Catholic Institute of Kabgayi (ICK), It is to be noted that in 2013, the government of Rwanda decided to merge all public universities into one public university, University of Rwanda (UR), with six colleges for the purpose of improving quality and efficiency in public institutions of higher education. As at December 2015, there are 44 institutions of higher education in Rwanda, 12 public and 32 private (HEC, 2015).

Although tertiary or higher education and the demand for it have remarkably improved, it continued to suffer from a number of weaknesses. Instruction materials and physical facilities are limited, many instructors lack required qualifications to teach at higher education levels and students are often not well prepared by secondary school curricula. Due to limited resources the government of Rwanda alone cannot address all these challenges. Therefore for better provision of education services there need to work together with the private partners such as non-government organizations, business corporations, community groups and other philanthropists. It is in this perspective that early in 2010, the government of Rwanda, through the Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MINECOFIN) created a Public-Private Partnerships Secretariat and developed a PPP Strategy to help guide collaboration across social, economic, and development sectors, further reinforcing the political will and leadership to develop PPPs. To this end, the main functions of the PPP Secretariat are to assist ministries and districts with PPP projects, manage joint ventures between public and private sectors, and mobilize resources for PPP initiatives. The Secretariat is also mandated to fund proposals aimed at achieving socioeconomic goals through joint ventures.

**Understanding Public-Private Partnership**

Although the governments remain the key provider and financier of higher education in most of developing countries, Public-Private Partnerships in education are playing a remarkably important role in the provision and financing of higher education. According to LaRocque (2008) Public-Private Partnership is “a risk-sharing relationship based upon an agreed aspiration between the public and private (including voluntary) sectors to bring about a desired public policy outcome. More often this takes the form of a long-term and flexible relationship, usually underpinned by contract, for the delivery of publicly funded service.” Likewise, according to Patrinos, Barrera-Osirio and Guaqueta (2009) Public-Private Partnerships are “a cooperative venture between the public and private sectors, built on the expertise of each partners, that best meets clearly defined public needs through the appropriate allocation of resources, risks and rewards.” OECD (2006) adds that Public-Private Partnerships are arrangements whereby the private sector provides infrastructure assets and services that traditionally have been provided by government, such as hospitals, schools, prisons, roads bridges, tunnels, railways, and water and sanitation plants.” PPPs should not be confused with privatization. While PPPs involves a partnership between public and private sectors with a focus on system efficiency, innovation and accountability to improve the quality of service delivery, privatization is about “the permanent transfer of control, whether as a consequence of a transfer of ownership right from a public agency to one or more private parties or for example, of a capital increase to which the public sector shareholder has waived its right to subscribe” (Chaudhry & Uboweja, 2014).

From all these above definitions it is clear that through private-public partnerships in education all contracting partners, public and private, vow to be held accountable to produce measurable improvements in provision of education services. To this end, Barrera-Osorio and Patrinos (2009) emphasize that the main rationale for developing public-private partnerships in education is to maximize the potential for expanding equitable access to schooling and for improving education outcomes. LaRocque (2008) adds that another reason for undertaking Public-Private Partnerships initiatives in education is to expand and create new infrastructure and other educational resources to provide quality education for all citizens. For Chaudhry and Uboweja (2014) PPPs aims at bringing together the reach of the government system with the innovation of the private sector to improve the quality of the education system as a whole. For Patrinos, Barrera-Osirio and Guaqueta (2009), Luthra and Mahajan (2013) and Chaudhry and Uboweja (2014), countries should use PPPs to address a number of challenges they face in their education system. For them PPPs can help countries to address the following challenges:

a) **Widen access to education and improve utilization of existing assets:** Many low and middle income countries still have to address huge infrastructure needs to increase access to education. PPPs can help increase access to schools by extending the government’s capacity to start new schools.

b) **Lift the quality of education:** PPPs can introduce skills and innovations within the government system. PPP projects in education would have a high level of relevance to the larger system as they would operate under similar conditions and level of funding as government schools. Private providers have the flexibility to innovate and introduce better
management and pedagogical techniques. For instance, they can experiment with technology to improve teacher training and administration. Teachers can use innovative techniques such as multi-level differentiated instruction and activity-based learning in the classroom. This improvement in the quality of education provision should be measured through indicators like student learning outcomes and student retention.

c) **Increase choice for low-income parents:** With PPPs new schools are opened. Children especially those from low income households can therefore enroll in the nearby schools to reduce transport cost. PPPs also contribute to reduction in the costs of education; making it affordable for the low income families. Moreover, PPP schools, particularly those that introduce high quality instruction, would allow governments to provide parents the option to receive an education of their choice while remaining in the government education system.

d) **Strengthen accountability in the government system:** As PPP schools operate under strict performance standards, they introduce greater accountability into the government school system. Parents begin to expect clearer measurement of education standards and the private and government school systems have to respond to the demand for greater accountability.

According to Luthra and Mahajan (2013) PPPs in education should be different from PPPs in other sectors such economy, health, and infrastructure development. This is because PPPs in education have their unique characteristics. These unique characteristics of PPPs in education include:

a) Focus on providing services to the poor without the opportunity to cross-subsidize

b) No potential to earn revenues or return on investment as schools can charge fees only in certain circumstances

c) Complex monitoring structures with results that may take time to appear, e.g. improved learning outcomes

d) High operating and maintenance costs in relation to capital expenditure as a large part of education costs are teacher salaries

**Forms of PPPs in education**

Due to these unique characteristics of PPPs in education, PPPs have different forms across the world. According to Luthra and Mahajan (2013), Patrinos, Barrera-Osirio and Guaquea (2009), LaRoque (2008) and OECD (2006) the following are the most prominent PPPs forms/models in education system:

a) **School Management initiative:** In this form PPPs, the public schools managed by the private sector. In so doing, the government contracts directly with private providers to operate public schools. However, although these schools are privately managed, they remain publicly owned and publicly funded. The advantage of this model is to innovate with respect to developing curriculum, hiring high quality teachers and demonstrating increases in student learning outcomes at government cost per child. Some international examples of this model/form of PPPs in education include charter schools in the US, concession schools in Columbia, Akanksha Foundation schools in Mumbai, India and Quality Education for All Schools in Pakistan.

b) **Capacity Building Initiatives:** In this model, the government pays for provision of specific support such as curriculum support, pedagogical support, management initiatives and teacher training. It presents an opportunity to provide high quality services at scale. The government retains full control over the schools and the private operator provides educational inputs. A good example of this form of PPPs in education is the cluster-based training of teachers and quality assurance resource centres in Pakistan.

c) **School Infrastructure Initiatives:** In this form of PPP, the private partner builds, owns and operates the infrastructure facilities and the government uses these facilities for running the school in exchange for which the private partner is paid a fee over the contract period. The contract period is generally between 20 to 30 years and schools have to meet strict performance criteria for maintenance, based on which they receive payment. The ownership and asset at the end of the contract period may be transferred to the government or be retained by the private sector depending on the terms in the contract. Some of the examples of this form of PPPs in education are the Private Finance Initiative in England, the leasing of public school buildings to private operators in Pakistan, the central government’s Model School programme in India, and PPP for New Schools in Egypt.

d) **Purchase of Educational Services from Private Schools:** In this model, the government sponsors students to attend private institutions. It pays a subsidy for each student
enrolled in eligible private secondary schools. Some international examples of purchase of educational services are financial assistance on a per child enrolled basis in Punjab, Pakistan and the universal post-primary education and training in Uganda.

e) **Vouchers and Voucher-like Programmes:** In this form PPPs the government directly gives vouchers to either parents or private schools. It is to be noted that a school voucher is a certificate or entitlement provided by the government to parents to pay for the education of their children at a school of their choice. Some international examples of such programmes are the Education Voucher Scheme in Pakistan, the Milwaukee Parental Choice Programme in US, the Plan de Ampliacion de Cobertura de la Educacion secundaria in Colombia and the school funding system in the Netherlands.

All the above Public-Private Partnership models can be summarized in the following figure:

![Public-Private Partnership (PPP) forms/models](image)

**Figure 1: Public-Private Partnership (PPP) forms/models**

*Source: Developed by the researchers based on the PPPs related literature*

Proponents of PPPs in education argue that the well designed and implemented PPPs leads to better outcomes. To this end, Patrinos, Barrera-Osirio and Guaqueta (2009) suggest four positive outcomes of the private provision of public services. These are as follows:

a) **PPPs can create competition in the education market:** The private sector can compete for students with the public sector. In turn, the public sector has an incentive to react to this competition by increasing the quality of the education that it provides.

b) **PPP contracts can be more flexible than most public sector arrangements:** Generally, the public sector has less autonomy in hiring teachers and organizing schools than the private sector does. Public-private contracts can be a better fit between the supply of and demand for education. Flexibility in teacher contracting is one of the primary motivations for PPPs.

c) **Governments can choose private providers in PPP contracts by means of an open bidding process in which the government defines specific requirements for the quality of education that it demands from the contractor:** The contracts often include measurable outcomes and clauses that specify the condition to deliver a certain quality of education, and the contractor with the best or lowest cost proposal is then chosen. This one characteristic of the contract alone can raise the quality of education.

d) **PPP contracts can achieve an increased level of risk-sharing between the government and the private sector:** This risk sharing is likely to increase efficiency in the delivery of services and, consequently, to induce the channeling of additional resources to the provision for education.

There is no doubt that increasing the role of the private sector in tertiary education have several benefits over the traditional method where tertiary education was solely delivered by the public sector. The realization of these advantages highly depends on how well the partnership between the public sector and private sector is designed,
on regulatory framework of the country as well the capacity of partners to implement, oversee and enforce the contracts. In this perspective, LaRoque (2008) adds that PPP increases efficiency of the education system, expands access to education services and increases educational choices especially for poor households only when the contracts are correctly implemented. For Luthra and Mahajan (2013) PPPs allow governments to take advantage of the specialized skills offered by certain private organizations and to overcome operating restrictions such as inflexible salary scales and work rules that may prevail in the public sector. Furthermore, another advantage is that governments can contract out to the private sector in a range of initiatives that can include everything from nonacademic activities such as food services and management contracts involving a few schools, to subsidizing the tuition at private schools for hundreds of thousands of students, to long-term, multimillion dollar infrastructure partnerships (IMF, 2004). In addition, PPP in education is a way to bring the private sector's skills and resources into the education sector and to increase efficiency and innovation in the delivery of education (Jones, Vann, and Hayford, 2004).

Despite these positive outcomes of the Public-Private Partnership in education, some educationists argue that there are negative outcomes associated with the private provision of public services. According to Patrinos, Barrera-Osirio and Guaqueta (2009) the following are the reasons why PPPs should be avoided in education system:

a) PPPs will lead to the privatization of education and thus will reduce the government’s control over a public service.

b) Increasing the educational choices available to students and their families may increase socioeconomic segregation if better prepared students end up self-selecting into high-quality schools, thus further improving their outcomes.

c) PPPs will lead to poorer students being left behind in the deteriorating public schools that lose the support of more educated parents.

From these points it is clear that PPPs may face resistance from certain stakeholders. According to Brans (2011) teachers and other employees may see PPPs as a threat to their job stability. Policymakers need therefore to take these concerns in consideration while designing PPPs models. To do this policy makers should do consultations with stakeholders and share the contract documentation with them or recruit leading people in the politics and business communities who understand the potential benefits of PPPs and can use their influence to help overcome any resistance (Gibson and Davies, 2008). Another important consideration that policy makers especially the government need to take note of before engaging in PPPs contracts is to change its existing education policies and regulatory framework. To this end, Patrinos, Barrera-Osirio and Guaqueta (2009) recommend that before engaging in any PPP initiative, the government should clearly create an enabling framework that includes:

a) Defining the place of private providers in the national education strategy;

b) Setting clear, objective, and streamlined criteria that the private sector must meet in order to establish and operate schools;

c) Introducing school funding systems that integrate public and private schools and that are neutral, responsive, and targeted;

d) Establishing an effective quality assurance system.

According to Brans (2011) consideration of all these points would lead to designing a successful PPPs design. However, it is to be noted that good design cannot ensure the success of a PPP in education as it must also be implemented effectively and efficiently. To ensure effective and efficient implementation of PPP contracts, the government is recommended to first choose their private partners by means of a transparent, competitive, and multi-stage selection process. Second, the government is recommended to assign the roles of purchaser and provider of education services to different entities within the education administrative agencies. Third, it is recommended to ascertain that the private agency in question has sufficient capacity for the task at hand. Fourth, the government education institutions are recommended to develop their own capacity, establish quality assurance mechanisms, develop appropriate performance measures for contractors, and finally devise incentives to achieve performance targets as well as sanctions for nonperformance (Gibson and Davies, 2008). Failure to consider all these leads to failure of PPP to deliver.

**Purpose and objectives of the study**

The purpose of this study was to highlight the key role of public-private partnerships in widening access to higher education in Rwanda. Specifically, the sought to:

a) Find out the extent to which PPPs has widened access to tertiary education in Rwanda

b) Highlight different forms of PPPs in Rwandan tertiary education

c) Highlight different challenges to PPPs in tertiary education in Rwanda.

**Theoretical framework**

This paper was premised on the Principal-Agent Theory that is also referred to as the Agency Theory. The theory was developed by Stephen Ross in 1970 to advocates for a contract under which one or more persons (the
principal) engage another person (agent) to perform some service on their behalf which involves delegating some decision-making authority to the agent (Ahmad, Adi, Noor, Soon and Azizan, 2013). In other words, in the Principal-Agent Theory one person or entity (the agent) is able to make decision on behalf of, or that impact, another person or entity (the principal). It is to be mentioned that within the principal-agent relationship the most important problems that arise are informational asymmetries and goal/performance conflicts. This may due to the incomplete information and different behavior in the actions by the agents.

Figure 2: Principal Agent Theory

Source: Researcher’s conceptualization based on the theory of Principal-Agent

The Principal Agent Relationship can therefore be a useful analytical tool in education for public and private contracting relationship. This is because in the Public-Private Partnerships, the public sector (government) harnesses the expertise and efficiencies of the private sector to deliver certain facilities and services that were traditionally procured and delivered by the public sector. In this perspective, various mechanisms are used to align the interests of the agent with those of the principal such as availability of necessary information, working agreement, performance evaluation and profit risk sharing.

METHODOLOGY

This paper was desk review research that was conducted in a three month period during which different documents were critically examined. The examined documents include: Rwanda education statistics yearbook 2013, 2014, 2015, Education Sector Strategic Plan, and Higher Education policy among many others. These documents provided relevant information on the contribution of PPPs to widening access to tertiary education, different forms of PPPs that are used in tertiary education, and different challenges PPPs face in tertiary education in Rwanda. The study was guided by the theory of Principal Agent Theory to highlight the relationship between the government (principal) and agent (private sector) in providing tertiary education. Relevant quantitative data were collected and summarized in percentages and qualitative data were thematized. The findings were presented verbatim as well as in tables and graphs.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Degree to which PPPs widened access to tertiary education

PPPs in education have considerably increased the number of both public and private tertiary education institutions. This is because in 2015, the number of institutions offering tertiary education in Rwanda increased from one public institution and one private institution to forty four (44) institutions, of which only 12 institutions were public and the remaining 32 were private. The following figure summarizes the number of public and private tertiary education institutions in Rwanda.
As it is indicated in the above figure, the number of private institutions has outnumbered public institutions. While public tertiary education institutions constitute almost a third (12 out of 44) of private tertiary institutions, private tertiary institutions are almost thrice (32 out 44) of the public university. This is a clear indication that Private-Partnerships in Rwandan have significantly widened access to tertiary education. This has been emphasized by Patrinos, Barrera-Osirio and Guequeta (2009) who confirmed that Public-Private Partnerships in education increase the number of educational institutions and hence widen access to education services.

As far as the number of students in tertiary education institutions is concerned, it is to be mentioned that PPPs have considerably widened access to tertiary education. The number of students enrolled in private institutions outnumbered that of students enrolled in public institutions where in 2015, private institutions recorded 49888 students against 36427 in public institutions. The following table gives an account of the students’ enrollment in public and private tertiary education institutions.

**Table 1: Enrolment in tertiary education institutions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of institution</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public</td>
<td>36427</td>
<td>42.2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>49888</td>
<td>57.8%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>86315</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: HEC, 2015*

From table 1 it is clear that the creation of private tertiary institutions has contributed to the increase in the number of students enrolling in tertiary education institutions. Private institutions occupy 57.8% of the total number of students enrolled in tertiary education institutions. On the other hand, public institutions occupy only 42.2%. This implies that access to tertiary education has been widened thanks to PPPs in education. This goes hand in hand with the view of Barrera-Osirio and Patrinos (2009) who emphasize that the main rationale engage in PPPs contracts in education is to maximize the potential for expanding equitable access to schooling for students especially those from poor households.

Table 2 indicates that overall enrollment in private institutions is higher (57.8%) than that of public institutions (42.2%). As far as fields of education are concerned, the number of students in private institutions has outnumbered that of public institutions only in courses related to social sciences, business and law which occupy 34.44% against 9.51% as well as in courses related to services which occupy 2.81% in...
private institutions against 0.24% in public institutions. This means that most of these courses are more available in private institutions than in public institutions. From table 2 it is also clear that for courses such as education, arts and humanities the gap in enrollment in both public and private institutions is not too big. This is because in education 8.55% and 8.11% of students enrolled in public and private institutions respectively and in arts and humanities 2.41% enrolled in public institutions against 1.82% in private institutions. For courses related to science, engineering, manufacturing and construction, agriculture, and health and welfare public institutions the gap is wide between public institutions and private institutions. 7.25% and 5% of students enrolled in public institutions to pursue science and engineering, manufacturing and construction respectively against 3.88% and 78% in private institutions. While 4.45% and 4.79% of students enrolled in public institutions to pursue courses related to agriculture and health and welfare respectively, only 0.98% and 2.98% enrolled in private institutions. This implies that although the number of students in public institutions outnumber the number of students in private institutions, private institutions have considerably the number of students enrolling in tertiary education. This is in agreement with the idea of LaRoque (2008) who confirmed that Public-Private Partnership contracts increase education choices for low-income students, providing them with possibilities to choose the most affordable courses.

Table 3: Number of graduates in tertiary education by field of education in 2015

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field of education</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>2943</td>
<td>15.8%</td>
<td>870</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities &amp; Arts</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>2.27%</td>
<td>241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social sciences, business &amp;law</td>
<td>1927</td>
<td>10.34%</td>
<td>6088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science</td>
<td>1277</td>
<td>6.59%</td>
<td>721</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering, manufacturing &amp; construction</td>
<td>675</td>
<td>3.62%</td>
<td>357</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>1400</td>
<td>7.52%</td>
<td>125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and Welfare</td>
<td>682</td>
<td>3.66%</td>
<td>673</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Services</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9276</td>
<td>49.8%</td>
<td>9352</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education Statistics yearbook, 2015

Table 3 indicates that PPPs in tertiary education has considerably increased the number of graduates in all fields of education. Statistics in table 3 reveal that from 2013 to 2015 the number graduates in courses related to social sciences, business and law was three times more in private institutions (32.68%) than in public institutions (10.34%). Likewise, the few graduates (1.49%) in courses related to services were all from private institutions. This is evidence on how PPPs have increased access to courses that were not offered by public institutions. However, despite the fact that the number of graduates in other courses is higher in public institutions, the contribution of private institutions is big as 16.03% of the total graduates are from private institutions against 39.46% who graduated from public institutions.

Forms of PPPs in Rwandan tertiary education

a) Privately managed tertiary education institutions

Since the introduction of Public-Private Partnerships in tertiary education, the number of tertiary education institutions has considerably increased to the extent that number of privately managed tertiary institutions outnumbered publicly managed institutions. The following figure compares the percentage of both private and public tertiary education institutions.

Figure 4: Percentage of tertiary education institutions

Source: HEC, 2015

Figure 4 indicates that private tertiary education institutions outnumbered public institutions. The figure reveals that the number of private institutions is almost three times (72.70%) that of public institutions (27.30%). This is clear indication that Public-Private Partnerships in tertiary education has achieved its purpose. It is to be noted that PPPs in education consist of contracts between

ISSN: 2616-7506
the public sector and private sector to provide educational infrastructure of services that were traditionally provided by the public sector (OECD, 2006). One of the aims of this form of contract is to maximize the potential for expanding equitable access to education (Barrera-Osorio and Patrinos, 2009). In this perspective, the increased creation of privately managed tertiary education institutions has expanded access to tertiary education in Rwanda.

b) Government purchasing education services from private institutions

Public-Private Partnerships in tertiary education has led to government purchasing education services from private tertiary education institutions. Doing this, the government through Rwanda Education Board (REB) and Fond d’Assistance pour les Rescapes du Genocides (FARG), an association of Genocide Survivors, and other government’s institutions has been sponsoring students in private institutions. This was due to the fact that some courses that were not offered in public institutions and these institutions were not able to accommodate all students wishing to study. This indicates that thanks to PPPs access to tertiary education has been considerably expanded.

c) Public and Private Organizations offering scholarships to students

With PPPs many organizations-governmental, non-governmental, and private- got involved in tertiary education providing different forms of support to students in local institutions and overseas. The following table summarizes different organizations and forms of support they offer to students.

Table 4: Organizations involved in tertiary education and types of support they offer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Support to local students</th>
<th>Support to overseas students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tuition fees</td>
<td>Living allowance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Government of Rwanda</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>FARG</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>MINADEF</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>RNP</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>RSSB</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Indian Government</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Chinese Government</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Canada Francophony</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Australian Government</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>KOICA</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Algerian government</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Morocco government</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Canada exemption</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>NUFFIC</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Japan MEXT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Japan Ashinaga</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Japan JIKA</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>DFAID</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>SIDA</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Nyerere Foundation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Rwanda Education Board, 2015

ISSN: 2616-7506
From table 4 it is clear that 21 organizations, including the government of Rwanda, provide different forms of support to students in tertiary education institutions inside and outside the country. The forms of support they provide include:

a) Tuition fees for students studying in local and overseas institutions. The amount varies from institution to institution depending on the course being undertaken.
b) Living allowance for students studying in local and overseas institutions. The amount varies depending on the sponsor and from country to country.
c) Research fees and/or internship fees. The amount depends on the type and place of research and/or internship.
d) A one-way air ticket to University and from university after completion of the program for students studying abroad only.
e) A two-way air ticket to attend burial in case student’s biological parent/son/daughter/wife or husband passes away for students studying abroad only.
f) Excess luggage for student when returning back after completion of studies for students studying abroad only.

Challenges to PPPs in tertiary education in Rwanda

Successful implementation of Public-Private Partnerships in tertiary education depends on the creation of sound policies and framework, financial capacity of partners, availability of qualified teaching staff and strong commitment among many others. This section describes the challenges to successful implementation of PPPs in tertiary education in Rwanda.

a) Lack of institutional capacity: private sector has limited capacity to start some courses especially those related to engineering, manufacturing and construction, science, agriculture and health sciences. The delivery of these courses requires sophisticated and expensive instructional materials and equipment, infrastructure as well as highly qualified lecturers. Due to most of the privately managed institutions are not able afford the required infrastructures, materials and lecturers. Hence they choose to offer courses such as social sciences, education and services which do not require sophisticated and expensive resources.

b) Limited financing: the private institutions heavily depend on students as their key source of revenues. Most of them rely on tuitions fees to pay lecturers, expand infrastructures, and provide other necessary instructional materials and equipments. With limited capacity of parents/guardian to pay for their children, private institutions fail to get sufficient budget to provide quality education. This may be the reason why most of the parents/guardians prefer sending their children to public institutions rather than private institutions. It may also be the reason why most of the private institutions offer courses that are related to social science, business and law, services and education which are normally less expensive than those related to science or engineering.

c) Lack of highly qualified teaching staff: another challenge to PPPs is the lack of enough qualified teaching staff. Many lecturers in Rwandan tertiary education institutions are not qualified. The majority of them an academic ranks of either assistant lecturer or tutorial assistant. The following table summarizes the profile of academic staff in both private and public institutions by academic rank.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Academic Rank</th>
<th>Public</th>
<th></th>
<th>Private</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professor</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>0.72%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>1.28%</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Professor</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>1.06%</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>1.80%</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>2.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Lecturer</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>2.84%</td>
<td>272</td>
<td>6.72%</td>
<td>387</td>
<td>9.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>524</td>
<td>12.94%</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>10.69%</td>
<td>957</td>
<td>23.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Lecturer</td>
<td>717</td>
<td>17.70%</td>
<td>879</td>
<td>21.71%</td>
<td>1596</td>
<td>39.41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tutorial assistant</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>10.84%</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>5.63%</td>
<td>667</td>
<td>16.47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>4.87%</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.19%</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>6.06%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2064</td>
<td>50.98%</td>
<td>1985</td>
<td>49.02%</td>
<td>4049</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Education Statistics yearbook, 2015
Table 5: indicates that the majority of teaching staff in both public and private tertiary institutions have the academic rank of either assistant lecturer (39.41%) or tutorial assistant (16.47%). This means that most of them hold a master’s degree or a bachelor’s degree. It is to be noted that the minimum requirement to teach at tertiary education level is to have a master’s degree (HEC, 2015). Therefore, as the table indicates 16.47% of the teaching staff in Rwandan tertiary education institutions do not meet the minimum requirement. Lack of qualified teaching personnel is a serious challenge to successful implementation of PPPs given the key role of the academic staff in the attainment of educational goals.

The role of the teach staff has been emphasized by Bakhda (2004) who emphasizes that the primary role of the instructor is to create a conducive atmosphere for learning including preparation of learning content, preparation of classroom environment, ordering materials, using a variety of methods to deliver learning, assessing the level of learners, managing times and students, and being a good role model. Similarly, Lassa (2000), Rodgers (2001), and Stuart (2004) assert that education should be provided by highly trained/qualified persons for the purpose of achieving educational objectives in any society.

d) Lack of policy and framework governing PPPs: Public-Private Partnerships will be ineffective if there are no strong and conducive policies and framework to guide contractors. A well defined PPP policy would clearly outline processes of selection and evaluation of private operators with the aim to ensure that only high quality providers enter a PPP contract. Furthermore, sound policies and framework would have accountability measures to assess progress toward predetermined performance standards. Until now no policy has been enacted in Rwanda to provide standards and framework that private partners engaging in PPPs in tertiary must meet. This affects the quality of education that is provided in private institutions as some partners engage in PPPs without enough competence and capacity to meet the standards.

CONCLUSION

Based on the evidences from different documents reviewed, it is very logical to reach the conclusion that PPPs has considerably widened access to tertiary education. This is because PPPs have created competitions among educational institutions, helped achieve economies of scale, maximized the use of current capacity to provide education services, extended service delivery networks, and mobilized additional resources to provide tertiary education services. Based on the evidences that PPPs in education take different forms whereby the public and private sector work together to sponsor tertiary education in either private or public tertiary institutions, there is very good reason to conclude that PPPs both public and private sectors are effectively working together to widen access to tertiary education in Rwanda. Finally, it is very logical to conclude that despite the progress made, serious challenges such lack of institutional capacity, qualified teaching personnel, clear policy and framework, and limited financing will hamper PPPs if not addressed. Therefore, the government was recommended to develop clear policy and framework governing PPPs in education. Furthermore, both public and private sectors were recommended to strengthen PPPs in widening access to tertiary education for both personal and country development.

References


ISSN: 2616-7506


