

Background Paper
The Learning Generation

Accelerating Progress in Education
in Malawi

A Focus on Financing and Political Economy

This paper was prepared for the International Commission on Financing Global Education Opportunity as a background paper for the report, *The Learning Generation: Investing in education for a changing world*. The views and opinions in this background paper are those of the author(s) and are not endorsed by the Education Commission or its members. For more information about the Commission's report, please visit: report.educationcommission.org.

**ACCELERATING PROGRESS IN EDUCATION IN MALAWI: A FOCUS ON
FINANCING AND POLITICAL ECONOMY**

MALAWI COUNTRY REPORT

Submitted to:

**The International Commission on Financing Global
Education Opportunity
6 West 48th Street
New York, NY 10036
USA**

Submitted by:



Malawi Institute of Management
P.O. Box 30381, Lilongwe 3, Malawi
Phone (office): +265 1 710 866
Phone (mobile): +265 992 516 821
Fax: +265 1 710 609
E-mail: peter.ngoma2002@gmail.com

June, 2016

SUMMARY STATISTICS OF THE EDUCATION SECTOR IN MALAWI (2015)

17,101,849

INDICATOR	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
NATIONAL (2015)			
Total population	17,101,849	8,208,887	8,892,962
Total population (projected, 2030)	26,090,975	12,687,058	13,403,905
% total population (Rural)	85%	48%	52%
Total population under 18 years	9,305,835	4,642,344	4,663,491
Total population under 5 years	3,022,496	1,533,864	1,488,632
Adult literacy rate (2010)	75.1%	77.8%	72.4%
Gross National Income per capita (US\$)	263		
Human Development Index (2014)	0.445		
% below national poverty line (2011)	50.7%		
% below US\$1.25 poverty line at purchasing power parity	72.2%		
% total national budget allocated to education sector	17%		
EARLY CHILDHOOD DEVELOPMENT (2015)			
Total number of ECD centres	11,105		
Total number of children in ECD	1,295,386		
% children in ECD	40.0%	50%	50%
% children in ECD (Rural)	NA	NA	NA
% total national budget allocated to ECD	0.01%		
PRIMARY EDUCATION (2015)			
Gross Enrolment Rate	133	134	132
Net Enrolment Rate	94	101	103
National Dropout Rate	3.7%	3.5%	3.9%
% of Dropouts (Rural)	97.5%	48%	52%
National Repetition Rate	21%	22%	21%
% Repeaters (Rural)	93.6%	51%	49%
Total number of schools	5,738		
Total number of classrooms	44,068		
Total number of teachers	71,363	41,408	29,955
Total number of teachers (Rural)	62,641	38,777	23,864
% qualified teachers	90%	90%	90%
% qualified teachers (Rural)	80%	86%	72%
National Completion Rate	52%	56%	47%
Total number sitting for PSLCE	259,254	139,935	119,319
National PSLCE pass rate	62%	69%	55%
% total national budget allocated to primary education	6.25%		

INDICATOR	TOTAL	MALE	FEMALE
SECONDARY EDUCATION (2015)			
National Transitional rate to secondary level	36%	35%	37%
Total number of schools	1,454		
Total number of schools (CDSS)	686		
Gross Enrolment Rate	24	26	22
Net Enrolment Rate	15.6	16	15
Total number of learners	358,033	190,623	167,410
% Total number of learners (Rural)	79%	54%	46%
% Total number of learners (CDSS)	46%	53%	47%
National Dropout Rate	4.2%	40%	60%
National Repetition Rate	3.8%	46%	54%
Total number sitting for MSCE	130,293	72,123	58,170
National MSCE pass rate	55%	61%	47%
MSCE pass rate (CDSS)	NA	NA	NA
Total number of teachers	14,497	11,288	3,209
Total number of teachers (CDSS)	7,615	5,931	1,684
% qualified teachers	41%	38%	49%
% qualified teachers (CDSS)	41%	38%	54%
% total national budget allocated to secondary education	2.18%		
TECHNICAL EDUCATION (2015)			
Total number of colleges	30		
% Total number of colleges (Public)	63%		
Total number of learners	21,195	12,977	8,218
Total number of tutors	410	285	125
% Total number of tutors (Public)	80%	67%	33%
Number of learners	21,195	12,977	8,218
% total national budget allocated to technical education	0.04%		
% total national budget allocated to teacher training education	0.91%		
UNIVERSITY EDUCATION (2015)			
Total number of universities	18		
% Total number of universities (Public)	22%		
Total number of accredited higher learning institutions	37		
% Total number of accredited higher learning institutions (Public)	41%		
Total number of lecturers in universities (Public)	980	NA	NA
Total number of students in universities (Public)	14,900	9,238	5,662
% total national budget allocated to university education	3.35%		

EDUCATION PATTERN IN MALAWI

Education level	Age	Target	Standard	Form	Award
ECD	1-5	Child			
Primary (8 years)	6-7	Infant	1-2		
	8-10	Junior	3-5		
	11-13	Senior	6-8		PSLCE*
Secondary (4 years)	14-15	Junior		1-2	JCE*
	16-17	Senior		3-4	MSCE
Tertiary	18+	Technician (2-3 years)			Certificate
		Diplomate (2-3 years)			Diploma
		Graduate (4-5 years)			First Degree
		Post-graduate (2-6 years)			Masters
					Doctorate

Key:

CDSS : Community Day Secondary School
 ECD : Early Childhood Development
 JCE : Junior Certificate of Education
 NA : Not Available
 MSCE : Malawi School Certificate of Education
 PSLCE : Primary School Leaving Certificate of Education

* : Abolished from 2016

Main Sources : Government of Malawi Ministries of Education, Finance, Gender and Labour; Malawi National Examinations Board; National Council for Higher Education; National Statistical Office; UNESCO; UNDP and World Bank.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES.....	vii
ACRONYMS.....	viii
EXECUTIVE SUMMARY.....	x
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	xviii
CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background.....	1
1.2 Objectives.....	2
1.2.1 Main objective.....	2
1.2.2 Specific objectives.....	2
1.2.3 Research questions.....	2
1.3 Significance.....	2
1.4 Methodology.....	3
1.4.1 Sampling framework.....	3
1.4.2 Data collection techniques.....	3
1.4.3 Data management and analysis.....	4
1.4.4 Analytical framework.....	4
1.4.5 Ethical considerations.....	4
1.5 Outline of the paper.....	4
CHAPTER TWO: THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF EDUCATION IN MALAWI.....	5
2.1 The political economy context.....	5
2.2 Brief history of political regimes and state interventions in Malawi.....	5
2.2.1 Colonial era.....	6
2.2.2 Independent Malawi under one party era.....	6
2.2.3 Independent Malawi under democracy and pluralism.....	7
2.2.4 Major post-independence education reforms.....	12
CHAPTER THREE: THE IMPACT OF EDUCATION REFORMS AND KEY DRIVERS.....	17
3.1 Access.....	17
3.1.1 Early childhood development education.....	17
3.1.2 Primary education.....	19
3.1.3 Secondary education.....	22
3.1.4 Primary school teacher training.....	24
3.1.5 Technical education.....	25
3.1.6 University education.....	26
3.2 Learning.....	28
3.2.1 Early childhood development education.....	28
3.2.2 Primary education.....	29
3.2.3 Secondary education.....	33
3.2.4 Primary school teacher training.....	36
3.2.5 Technical education.....	36
3.2.6 University education.....	37
3.3 Equity.....	38

3.3.1 Early childhood development education	38
3.3.2 Primary education	38
3.3.3 Secondary education	41
3.3.4 Primary school teacher training	42
3.3.5 Technical education	42
3.3.6 University education	43
3.4 Finance	45
3.4.1 Early childhood development education	47
3.4.2 Primary education	48
3.4.3 Secondary education	49
3.4.4 Primary school teacher training	50
3.4.5 Technical education	50
3.4.6 University education	51
CHAPTER FOUR: CURRENT CONSTRAINTS AND FINANCING FOR 2030 SDGs ON EDUCATION IN MALAWI	52
4.1 Current constraints in the education sector	52
4.1.1 Macroeconomic environment	52
4.1.2 Household perceptions on performance of education	52
4.1.3 ECD education	53
4.1.4 Primary education	54
4.1.5 Secondary education	55
4.1.6 Tertiary education	56
4.2 Financing the 2030 SDGs on education in Malawi	58
CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	60
5.1 Reform areas to bring about improved educational access, learning, equity and financing ...	60
5.1.1 Political leadership	60
5.1.2 Institutional arrangement	62
5.1.3 Management	63
5.2 Balance between quantity and quality of education in Malawi	65
5.2.1 Access	65
5.2.2 Learning	66
5.2.3 Equity	68
5.3 Effective cost sharing mechanisms for financing investments in education in Malawi	69
5.4 The political cost of not reforming the education sector in Malawi	70
REFERENCES	72
Appendix I: Financing requirement for Malawi to achieve 2030 SDGs on Education	74

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1: Number of learners in education subsectors, 1964 - 2014.....	17
Table 2: Gross Enrolment and Net Enrolment Rates, 1984 - 2014	19
Table 3: Number of students enrolled in conventional and DECs, 1964 - 1994	22
Table 4: Number of pupils per available resource, 1994 - 2014.....	30
Table 5: Shortage of qualified teachers in sampled schools of rural areas of Rumphi, 2016.....	31
Table 6: Literacy rates according to district and gender.....	33
Table 7: Percent MSCE pass rate, unqualified teachers and student enrolment by type of secondary school, 2000 and 2002	34
Table 8: GER, NER and GPI for boys and girls in Rumphi and Mangochi, 2016.....	40
Table 9: Proportion ever and never attended school and reasons for not attending, district and gender, 2016.....	40
Table 10: Average budgetary allocation in percentage, 2001-2014	45
Table 11: Summary of Malawi IECD cost estimates, 2015-2020	48
Table 12: Average unit budget allocation per learner (US\$), 2001 – 2016.....	49
Table 13: 2030 SDGs on Education Financing Requirements for Malawi	58
Figure 1: Summary of Malawi’s main education legal and policy frameworks, 1938 - 2015	5
Figure 2: Comparative Pre-primary Gross Enrolment Rate in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014.....	18
Figure 3: Comparative Primary Gross Enrolment Rate in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014	22
Figure 4: Comparative Secondary Gross Enrolment Rate in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014	24
Figure 5: Comparative Primary school teachers trained to teach in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014.....	25
Figure 6: Comparative TVET students per 100,000 inhabitants in SADC countries, 2009.....	26
Figure 7: Comparative Tertiary enrolment in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014.....	27
Figure 8: Number of children per caregiver in ECD centres, 2015	28
Figure 9: Comparative primary school pupils to teacher ratio in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014.....	30
Figure 10: Comparative primary school dropout rate in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014	32
Figure 11: Comparative secondary school completion rate in SADC countries, 2009	35
Figure 12: Student to teacher ratios in public and private technical colleges, 2012.....	37
Figure 13: Trend in boys and girls enrolment in primary education, 2008-2012.....	39
Figure 14: Enrolment of boys and girls by level of secondary education, 2005-2012	41
Figure 15: Enrolment of males and females in public and private TTC, 2012.....	42
Figure 16: Enrolment of males and females in public and private technical colleges, 2012.....	43
Figure 17: Enrolment of females in public and private universities, 2011	44
Figure 18: Percentage public budgetary allocations to education subsectors in Malawi, 2014 ...	46
Figure 19: Comparative public expenditure on education as a percent of GDP in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2005-2014.....	47

ACRONYMS

AU	:	African Union
CAMFED	:	Campaign for Female Education
CBCC	:	Community Based Childcare Centre
CC	:	Community College
CDSS	:	Community Day Secondary School
CSO	:	Civil Society Organisation
DEC	:	Distance Education Centre
DEM	:	District Education Manager
DPP	:	Democratic Progressive Party
ECD	:	Early Childhood Development
EFA	:	Education for All
EMIS	:	Education Management Information System
ESIP	:	Education Sector Investment Plan
ESP	:	Education Sector Plan
EU	:	European Union
FAWEMA	:	Forum for African Women Educationists in Malawi
FGD	:	Focus Group Discussion
FISP	:	Farm Input Subsidy Programme
FPE	:	Free Primary Education
GABLE	:	Girls' Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education
GDP	:	Gross Domestic Product
GER	:	Gross Enrolment Rate
GNP	:	Gross National Product
GoM	:	Government of Malawi
GPE	:	Global Partnership for Education
GPI	:	Gender Parity Index
HDI	:	Human Development Index
ICT	:	Information, Communication and Technology
IECD	:	Integrated Early Childhood Development
IHS	:	Integrated Household Survey
IMF	:	International Monetary Fund
JCE	:	Junior Certificate of Education
JICA	:	Japanese International Cooperation Agency
KII	:	Key Informant Interview
LDF	:	Local Development Fund
LUANAR	:	Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources
MACOHA	:	Malawi Council for the Handicapped
MANEB	:	Malawi National Examinations Board
MCDE	:	Malawi College of Distance Education
MCP	:	Malawi Congress Party
MDG	:	Millennium Development Goal
MERP	:	Malawi Economic Recovery Plan
MESIP	:	Malawi Education Sector Improvement Project
MGDS	:	Malawi Growth and Development Strategy

MIM	:	Malawi Institute of Management
MoE	:	Ministry of Education
MoEST	:	Ministry of Education, Science and Technology
MoGCDSW	:	Ministry of Gender, Children, Disability and Social Welfare
MP	:	Member of Parliament
MPRS	:	Malawi Poverty Reduction Strategy
MSCE	:	Malawi School Certificate of Education
MTEF	:	Medium Term Expenditure Framework
MUST	:	Malawi University of Science and Technology
MYP	:	Malawi Young Pioneers
MZUNI	:	Mzuzu University
NCHE	:	National Council for Higher Education
NESP	:	National Education Sector Plan
NER	:	Net Enrolment Rate
NSO	:	National Statistical Office
ODL	:	Open and Distance Learning
ORT	:	Other Recurrent Transaction
OVC	:	Orphans and Vulnerable Children
PCAR	:	Primary Curriculum and Assessment Reform
PE	:	Personal Emoluments
PIF	:	Policy and Investment Framework
PP	:	Peoples Party
PSLCE	:	Primary School Leaving Certificate of Education
PTA	:	Parents-Teacher Association
SAP	:	Structural Adjustment Programme
SADC	:	Southern Africa Development Community
SDG	:	Sustainable Development Goal
SDP	:	Statement of Development Policies
SMC	:	School Management Committee
SWAp	:	Sector Wide Approach
TEVETA	:	Technical, Entrepreneurship, Vocational Education and Training Authority
TDC	:	Teacher Development Centre
TTC	:	Teacher Training College
TVET	:	Technical, Vocation Education and Training
UDF	:	United Democratic Front
UNDP	:	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	:	United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	:	United Nations Children's Fund
UNIMA	:	University of Malawi
USAID	:	United States Agency for International Development

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

1. Introduction

1.1 Background: Malawi is one of the nonfragile Least-Developed Countries in Sub-Saharan Africa which was ranked 173 out of 188 countries on the United Nations Human Development Index (HDI) of 2014 with a per capita Gross Domestic Product of US\$755 in 2013. The human population was estimated at 17.1 million in 2015 and is projected to reach 26 million by 2030. About 51.8% of the population is aged less than 18 years of which 50.5% is female. The 2015 poverty rate based on income poverty line of US\$1.25 was about 72.2%. The population is predominantly rural-based, with 85% living in rural areas and dependent on subsistence agriculture.

1.2 Purpose of the research: Owing to these low economic and human development indicators, Malawi faces a number of challenges in the education sector that negatively affect access, learning, equity, finance and governance resulting in low completion and transition rates, high repetition and dropout rates, low pass rates in national examinations, and low access to tertiary education. It is against this background that the Malawi Institute of Management partnered with the International Commission on Financing Global Education Opportunity to undertake research on “*Accelerating progress in Education in Malawi: A focus on financing and political economy*” with the aim of assessing the education sector in Malawi to identify reform areas in financing and political economy in order to accelerate progress on education outcomes so that Malawi can achieve the 2030 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on Education.

1.3 Methodology: The research used a combination of approaches for collecting both qualitative and quantitative data which included literature review, key informant interviews, focus group discussions, a household survey and a press release in the local media calling for innovative ideas on education reforms from the general public. The approach was complementary in nature to enhance credibility, relevance and persuasiveness of the research findings. The research pursued a historical political economy analytical framework with specific reference to the issues of access, learning, equity and financing in early childhood development (ECD), primary, secondary, teacher training, technical and university education as a result of the education sector strategies and plans advanced by each political regime with its underpinning macroeconomic policies.

2. Key findings

2.1 Political leadership: The research found out that different political regimes have had a particular focus on a preferred education subsector rather than dealing with the entire education sector holistically. The lack of a holistic approach to the education sector has resulted in some subsectors advancing while others lagged behind.

2.2 Institutional arrangement: The research revealed that the institutional arrangement in the education sector has evolved with the political dispensation. While the one party regime had local education authorities, the multiparty regime has adopted a hybrid of decentralization with so many administrative and fiscal authority layers in between headquarters and the actual point of impact which has increased bureaucracy.

- 2.3 Coordination:** The research also found out that there is fluidity in the ministry responsible for ECD, adult learning and technical education depending on political regime preference. However, it is not the location of the subsector that is a concern but the lack of coordination between different ministries to holistically advance the education subsectors.
- 2.4 Management:** Evidence from the research demonstrates that management of the education sector has largely been influenced by the political economy landscape. During the one party rule, the management style was influenced by the four corner stones of the political regime – unity, discipline, loyalty and obedience which ensured service delivery with quality and nationalism. In the multiparty era, management has been riddled with corruption, nepotism, patronage, mismanagement, indiscipline on the pretext of human rights but without responsibilities, which has led to individualism at the expense of national goals.
- 2.5 Policy changes:** Several key informants bemoaned the tendency by management in the education sector to embark on policy changes without adequate consultations. Each political regime has at one point or another attempted to change curricula, teacher recruitment and promotion system, selection policy, school calendar, among others, without due diligence with the concerned key stakeholders especially teachers and parents.
- 2.6 Planning:** The findings showed that the aftermath of ECD, Free Primary Education (FPE) and Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSSs) exposed Government’s lack of proper planning and unpreparedness to cope with demands in access and to maintain quality of education. With the SDGs, thorough analysis need to be made in terms of cost implication for universal and free access to ECD, primary and secondary education.
- 2.7 ECD services:** It is clear from the research findings that ECD services support children’s well-being and progressive preparation for primary school entry but these are currently faced with a myriad of challenges including lack of curricula, unqualified caregivers, poor facilities, lack of teaching and learning materials.
- 2.8 Primary school curriculum and assessment:** The research found out that some education experts have serious reservations with the Primary Curriculum and Assessment Reform (PCAR) as it is deemed to contribute to lowering education quality.
- 2.9 Education curricula towards 2030 SDGs:** The research noted that primary and secondary school curricula of the future should strive to impart essential skills and knowledge on a broad range of issues and the nature of examining students should focus more on testing the ability of students to apply skills and knowledge and more output-based rather than regurgitating the materials without grasping the learning points.
- 2.10 Access:** It is clear from the research findings that the country can never achieve universal access to free ECD, primary and secondary education using the brick and mortar model of education facilities and direct pupil and teacher contact of teaching. The research estimated that by 2030, there will be at least 5 million learners in ECD, 8 million learners in primary schools, 3 million learners in secondary schools, 4 million learners in adult literacy, 80,000 learners in Teacher Training Colleges, 688,500 learners in technical colleges and 446,250 learners in universities, *ceteris paribus*. At the pace of education infrastructure development in Malawi, it will be a far-fetched dream to expect that all these learners will be learning in a brick and mortar classroom and through direct pupil and teacher contact.
- 2.11 Learning:** The research findings show that there are broader socio-economic issues that affect learning outcomes of students including income, nutrition, health, energy, information technology, water and sanitation, among others. For instance, students drop out of school due to financial and social related challenges such as lack of money to pay for non-fees

requirements for examinations, textbooks, writing materials; early marriages and pregnancies; long distances; inadequate and demotivated teachers; and sheer laziness. These factors also increase repetition rates resulting in low transition rates.

- 2.12 Equity:** The findings of the research showed that despite efforts to bridge the gender gap, it is still a challenge to maintain gender parity especially in senior classes of primary school; and the gap progressively widens into secondary and tertiary education. Overall, urban residents have more access to education opportunity than do their rural counterparts. Children with special needs are also not fully integrated into the education system either due to lack of appropriate facilities and also special needs teachers.
- 2.13 Quota system on university selection:** The research found out that the current quota system although it is called equitable access policy to tertiary education is not all that equal. Students who are in well-resourced secondary schools like national, district boarding and grant aided secondary schools compete on equal terms with those in CDSSs and night schools which are poorly resourced.
- 2.14 Financing:** The research results showed that closing the funding gap due to donor's withdrawal of direct budgetary support will pose a challenge to the education sector in Malawi as donors contributed 40% of the national budget and about 80% of the development budget. Further, there will be need to increase efficiency of domestic resource utilization by cutting unnecessary wastage, reducing spending on non-core activities and curbing corruption.
- 2.15 Costing 2030 SDGs on education:** The research estimated that Malawi will need to spend at least US\$7.7 billion by 2030 excluding capital expenditure in order to achieve universal and free access to basic and secondary education. Funding to education sector will have to be gradually and systematically increased by at least 12% in 2016 from the baseline budget of 2015 to reach 22% by 2030. To the contrary, funding to the education sector in the proposed 2016/2017 national budget has reduced from 17% to 12% of the total national budget and is less by 17% in nominal US\$ terms to the 2015 budget. This is cause for concern.
- 2.16 Alternative funding sources:** In order to finance the funding gap and achieve the SDGs on education by 2030 in Malawi, more funding need to come from parents, the private sector, development partners, alumina, diaspora community, civil society organisations, foundations, trusts and communities, among other key stakeholders, to complement public expenditure in education.
- 2.17 Political cost of illiteracy:** The research noted that the greatest political cost of illiteracy manifests in subsidies that government has to pay for citizens who are economically disempowered due to lack of education in terms of health, education, agriculture, water, public order and security, among others.

3. Recommendations

- 3.1 Political leadership:** In order to make progress in the education sector, the political leadership should:
- a) Make compulsory, universal and free all public ECD, primary and secondary education through a directive. This was already included in the Malawi Vision 2020 that was adopted in 2000.
 - b) Issue a directive to make all constituent colleges of University of Malawi independent

and challenge them to expand their Degree programmes and also introduce Diploma programmes.

- c) Revamp and reinvigorate literacy programmes to ensure universal access to basic education in Malawi by directing that each village should have a functional literacy programme.
- d) Pass a directive to abolish educational divisions/zones and fully embrace the dictates of the Local Government Act of 1998 which mandated local councils to manage basic, primary and secondary education with the aim to curb corrupt practices.
- e) Introduce a week of National Community Service where the communities can revert to providing materials, labour and experts especially on the construction of public ECD, primary and secondary schools infrastructure.
- f) Adopt a holistic multi-sectoral strategy rather than sector specific strategies in order to speed progress in poverty reduction in view of the high levels of income poverty and other dimensions of poverty in Malawi, especially in rural areas where the majority of the population resides.
- g) Be more affirmative and use decrees to eliminate all forms of disparities due to gender, rural-urban and disabilities in the education sector.
- h) Maintain a stable macroeconomic environment which is key to attract participation of the private sector to invest in the education sector at all levels and to spur economic activities in income generating activities at household level.
- i) Genuinely curb corruption and strengthen the public financial, procurement and human resources management systems as these are critical to bring about efficiency gains in domestic resource utilization and winning back donor confidence and trust.

3.2 Institutional arrangement: Going forward, the institutional arrangement in the education sector should include:

- a) Reviving the Local Education Authority to look at both inspectorate and advisory roles, among others, at ECD, primary and secondary education in local councils.
- b) Establishing a National Council for Basic and Secondary Education to develop and enforce standardized quality assurance system for basic and secondary education for both public and private schools. Better still; reconfigure National Council for Higher Education to become National Education Regulatory Authority which can develop and enforce a harmonized and independent quality assurance system from ECD, primary, secondary, technical up to university education levels in both public and private education institutions in Malawi.
- c) Demonstrating serious commitment to the education Sector Wide Approach where all education subsectors such as ECD, primary, secondary, technical and university collaborate and coordinate in terms of planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring, resource mobilization and communication for results.
- d) Transforming the School Management Committees into independent Boards backed by a necessary regulatory framework in line with the Local Government Act (1998) and the amended Education Act (2013).

3.3 Management: Management in the education sector should:

- a) Solicit the support of all stakeholders, including CSOs to establish appropriate mechanisms and procedures to drive, coordinate, finance and stimulate interventions for

the achievement of education goals at various levels, by genuinely involving all stakeholders in the planning, implementation and monitoring of education policies and strategies.

- b) Promote the principles of open, inclusive and participatory policy dialogue, planning, implementation and mutual accountability among key stakeholders in the education sector.
- c) Develop a successor to the National Education Sector Plan (2008-2017) to localize 2030 SDGs on education that will empower local councils to develop District Education Investment Plans (2018-2030) with clear local resource mobilization strategy. There also is need for management at all levels in the education sector to guide the process of contextualizing, localizing and implementing the 2030 SDGs on education.
- d) Review the school calendar to evenly spread out the financial burden for poor households especially in critical hunger months where the demand for food at household level overrides the need to pay school fees for children.
- e) Ensure a transparent and inclusive process with other key partners to regulate standards, improve quality and reduce disparities between regions, communities and schools.
- f) Undertake continuous review and assessment of policies to sustain quality and relevance of learning and efficiency in the education system.
- g) Incorporate risk assessment, preparedness and response to disasters like floods, hunger and epidemics in the education strategy to ensure uninterrupted access to education in disaster prone areas.
- h) Establish prudent financial management and output based accountability on finances and prioritize core areas when budgeting such as learning and teaching materials, bursaries, scholarships, teacher welfare, infrastructure and trim on non-core areas like workshops, travel and allowances.

3.4 Access: In order to increase access to education without necessarily compromising on quality, there is need to:

- a) Provide incentives to the private sector and religious institutions to invest in technical, teacher training and university education through build, operate and manage arrangement and them to charge subsidized fees to students while government provides guarantees through long term security coupons/bonds to recover investment costs.
- b) Transfer responsibilities for infrastructure development especially for public ECD and primary education to the communities and for secondary and technical education to the local councils while public universities should be autonomous and should be challenged to mobilise infrastructure development financing independently from government.
- c) Focus more on open environment learning, mobile teaching (visit & train), mass teaching especially for public education using prerecorded teaching materials which can be played on videos, television or radios; e-learning through digital libraries and e-books, open and distance learning, among others.
- d) Make it mandatory that every village should have multipurpose schools for ECD and primary education and a clear linkage to secondary school selection based on geographical proximity but Government should ensure that public schools in rural areas receive equal treatment in terms of funding, qualified teachers, teaching and learning materials.
- e) Focus more on open and distance learning, teaching by visits, audio learning, video

learning, mobile teaching, mass learning, e-learning and Information, Communication and Technology (ICT)-based instruction by opening satellite learning centres, e-libraries and weekend programmes in rural areas using the CDSSs as training centres to improve access to tertiary education.

- f) Re-orient curricula of technical education and ensure that the community colleges focus more towards other non-traditional fields where the youth and adults can learn economic and business skills such as in baking, trading, retailing, hairdressing, designs, tailoring, agri-entrepreneurship, ICT, etc which currently absorbs the majority of school leavers and school dropouts. The community colleges, both public and private, can use CDSSs as places for proving teaching and learning.
- g) For the **Education Commission** to impress on the largest International ICT Companies such as Apple, Samsung, Foxconn, Amazon, HP Inc., Microsoft, IBM, Alphabet Inc., Sony, Panasonic, Huawei, Dell, Toshiba, Intel, among others, to embark on joint and collaborative research as global corporate social responsibility aimed at reducing the cost of ICT education technologies and developing Open Source programmes such as Android, solar charged cellphones and other ICT education gadgets which can be used by learners in rural areas in developing countries if preloaded with learning and teaching materials.

3.5 Learning: In order to improve learning and achieve the 2030 SDGs on education in Malawi, there is need to ensure:

- a) Attainment of household food security or provision of universal school feeding programmes especially at ECD and primary education.
- b) Attainment of good health at household level and of learners through massive vaccination campaigns, deworming programmes, provision of mosquito nets and anti-malarial preventive drugs to reduce sickness which increases school absenteeism.
- c) Perfection of the PCAR for continuous assessment as it is cheaper and focuses on grasping skills and knowledge rather than memorization for exams. Teaching and learning should focus on training job creators and not job seekers.
- d) Making English language compulsory throughout the entire education system from ECD (just like private schools in Malawi) and make it a policy that all primary enrolment should be through ECD centres. Otherwise, reverse the policy on Chichewa as a language of instruction and adopt local vernacular languages for instruction in basic education and use PCAR for assessment to ensure fairness.
- e) Empowerment of communities by Civil Society Organisations (CSOs) to take an interest and a leading role in the education of their children through sending their children to child corners; play grounds and local education events and parents should be encouraged to mobilise and contribute locally available learning and teaching materials especially for ECD and primary education.
- f) Borrowing lessons from grant aided schools or schools owned by religious organisations where quality standards have been sustained over the years regardless of the political regime through – discipline of both teachers and students and retention of qualified teachers.
- g) Introduction of crush programmes to train teachers for ECD, primary, secondary and technical education in order to maintain acceptable pupil to teacher ratio for the 2030 SDGs on education. The research has shown that the country will require at least 133,333

primary school teachers, 75,000 secondary school teachers and 20,000 technical college instructors by 2030. This cannot be achieved using the current approach to teacher training.

- h) Development of standards and guidelines for open and distance learning, online and outreach programmes to maintain quality and relevance of learning.
- i) Commitment of more resources to improve teachers' welfare through training, promotions and better salaries; increase teacher training through open and distance learning, online and outreach programmes in teacher development centres to reduce high levels of student to teacher ratio and design non-discriminatory monetary and non-monetary incentive schemes to enroll more female teachers, rural-oriented teachers and special needs teachers.
- j) The **Education Commission** should engage the world's largest solar energy makers in China, USA, Canada, Germany, etc to develop low cost solar panels that can be used to electrify education establishment in rural areas in developing countries so that students and teachers have more time for learning during both day and night.
- k) The **Education Commission** should also engage the world's largest education publishers to publish education materials especially those meant for developing countries at a subsidized rate as part of global corporate social responsibility.

3.6 Equity: In order to improve equity in education in Malawi, there is need to:

- a) Upgrade education facilities to make them more child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all.
- b) Institute a fair secondary school selection system based on equal competition among students within the same locality and same type of secondary school by reviewing the implementation of quota system to compare "*like with like*".
- c) Expand public universities' degree programmes and introduce more diploma programmes through open and distance learning to increase access and equity to tertiary education by those who fail to make it into the university due to limited space.
- d) Ensure strong collaboration and coordination among sectors dealing with children such as health, nutrition, gender, social welfare, child protection, disability, parents, CSOs, etc to eliminate disparities in access to education.
- e) CSOs should empower communities to encourage their children especially girl child to enroll and remain in school.
- f) The **Education Commission** should engage both female and male celebrities in music, sports, arts and other international celebrities as champions and contributors to a global fund that can be used to support education of girls in low income countries such as Malawi.

3.7 Financing: A number of cost sharing mechanisms have to be put in place, including:

- a) Progressively increasing student contribution towards their education by classifying students based on the income levels of their guardians.
- b) Reducing on management costs in the education sector by devolving power and authority to local councils in line with the Local Government Act.
- c) Widening the tax base by eliminating tax avoidance and evasion and corruption in order to increase tax revenue collection which can be used to finance education.
- d) Prioritizing funding to those most in need based on gender, location and disability

particularly the needs of children, girls, youth and disadvantaged adults.

- e) Increasing efficiency and accountability by instituting robust result-based financing and accounting mechanisms.
- f) Strengthening oversight responsibility and involvement of other stakeholders such as communities, private sector individuals, CSOs in grassroots accountability.
- g) Expanding the scope for cost-sharing and cost-recovery targeted at students who benefit most from education and who are most able to pay for it.
- h) Enhancing higher levels of private sector financing and community contributions through public-private partnerships; build, operate and manage arrangement especially in secondary and tertiary education.
- i) Maintaining the Sector Wide Approach to financing education.
- j) Introducing a special education levy in telecommunication, aviation, tourism, fuel, tobacco and alcohol industries which can be used to create a Public Education Infrastructure Development Fund.
- k) Creating a national education trust fund where other foundations, development partners and trusts can contribute funding for financing education in Malawi.
- l) Instituting a diaspora school adoption mechanism and alumina associations for resource mobilization.
- m) Increasing teacher volunteers from overseas through private sector, CSOs and religious partnerships to reduce the burden on teachers' salaries.
- n) Development partners should directly procure learning and teaching materials, hire constructors for infrastructure development and directly pay suppliers for major learning and teaching consumables like writing materials and textbooks.
- o) Development partners should develop a parallel financing modality with its own financing, accounting and procurement entity to support the education sector and to increase direct technical assistance.
- p) Allowing each community to introduce sponsorship programmes for needy learners to source funding from development partners, trusts and foundations.
- q) The **Education Commission** should champion the development of a global community of interest on education that can fundraise in order to provide scholarships and bursaries to needy students in low income countries like Malawi. The current researchers working with the Commission should be supported to pioneer fundraising activities within their localities.

Going forward, Malawi has to embrace a holistic approach to its development agenda especially in the wake of the SDGs regardless of the political regime. There is need to have a long-term shared vision that can be sustained and implemented by successive political regimes. It will be naïve to expect the education sector to perform wonders when each political regime seeks to introduce its own policy agenda with no regard to previous efforts. As a country, time is ripe to learn from the past, manage the present and plan for the future in a consistent and systematic manner regardless of the political regime. Politics will drive the education agenda and good politics will yield the desired results from the education agenda.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Malawi Institute of Management (MIM) would like to thank the International Commission on Financing Global Education Opportunity and the Rockefeller Philanthropy Advisors for entrusting MIM to conduct a research on “*Accelerating Progress in Education in Malawi: A focus on Financing and Political Economy*”. The research has examined the political economy in Malawi and its impact on education outcomes over the years and has identified critical reform areas and financing models to accelerate education in Malawi for the attainment of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on education by 2030.

MIM would also like to commend the researchers for their commitment and dedication to the study. These included Dr. Peter Ngoma of MIM as Lead Researcher, Professor Mustafa Hussein of the University of Malawi as Political Economy Analyst, Mr. Shawo Mwakilama of MIM as University Education Analyst, Mr. Jonathan Mbuna of MIM as Secondary and Technical Education Analyst, Mrs. Joana Dilawo of MIM as Early Childhood Development (ECD) and Primary Education Analyst and Mr. Willie Kachaka of Evidence for Change (E4C) Solutions as Household Survey Analyst. The unwavering support rendered by Mrs. Sarah Kalolo, Faculty Secretary at MIM, in booking appointments and reminding researchers of their schedules is also highly appreciated.

MIM is also grateful to all the stakeholders that provided invaluable data and information for this research. In particular, MIM acknowledges the support rendered by the Principal Secretaries and Directors in the Ministries of Education, Labour, Gender and Finance in providing data and insights on key reform areas to improve the performance of the education sector in Malawi. MIM also thanks statutory corporations that made their contributions to the research including the University of Malawi, Malawi National Examinations Board, TEVETA, National Council for Higher Education, National Statistical Office and Centre for Social Research, among others.

The research team also greatly values the contributions made by teachers, parents, pupils and traditional leaders that were interviewed in Rumphu and Mangochi districts. In addition, officers from the development partners, Civil Society Organisations (CSOs), religious institutions and the private sector in Malawi deserve acknowledgment for participating in the research. These included those from the World Bank, African Development Bank, UNDP, UNICEF, UNESCO, EU Delegation, Germany Embassy, Save the Children, Oxfam, Forum for African Women Educationists in Malawi, Civil Society Coalition for Quality Education, Malawi Girl Guide Association and owners of private ECD, primary, secondary, technical and university institutions.

And to all those who made contributions to this research but not mentioned here; we salute you.

For further details, contact Dr. Peter Ngoma; E-mail: peter.ngoma2002@gmail.com; Cellphone: +265 992 516 821

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Malawi is one of the nonfragile Least-Developed Countries¹ in Sub-Saharan Africa bordered by Zambia, Tanzania and Mozambique. It is approximately 118,900 km² of which 20% is covered by water bodies. According to the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the country was ranked 173 out of 188 countries on the United Nations Human Development Index (HDI) of 2014 with a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of US\$755² per capita in 2013 (UNDP, 2015). The human population was estimated at 16.8 million in 2014 and is projected to reach 26 million by 2030. The national population and housing census of 2008 estimated that 51.8% of the population was aged less than 18 years; of this, 50.5% was female (NSO, 2009). The national poverty incidence marginally decelerated to 50.7% in 2011 from 52.4% in 2004 (NSO, 2012) but the UNDP (2015) estimates that about 72.2% of the population is below the income poverty line of US\$1.25 per day at Purchasing Power Parity.

These low economic and human development indicators are a direct cause and outcome of the education policies championed by the various political economy regimes in Malawi. Since gaining independence in 1964, there have been several policy efforts to improve education outcomes but substantial challenges remain especially in areas of access and equity, quality and relevance, management and governance, and financing. These are evidenced by high number of students per teacher and per classroom, pedagogical methods of teaching, inadequate teaching and learning materials, high number of untrained teachers, lack of promotions and delayed salaries for teachers. These, in turn, manifest in low completion and transition rates, high repetition and dropout rates, low pass rates in national examinations, low access to tertiary education and little regard for special needs and gender equality at all levels of education in Malawi. As a result, adult illiteracy remains one of the highest in the world, at 34.6% (NSO, 2012). The current situation in Malawi resonates with most fragile and nonfragile low income countries in the world (Steers and Smith, 2015) and yet Malawi has enjoyed relative political stability and peace.

It is against this backdrop that the International Commission on Financing Global Education Opportunity was established in order to find additional financing that will be needed to achieve the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) on education of providing every child with access to free primary and secondary education by 2030. The Commission has been financed by the Rockefeller Philanthropy Advisors to bring together the best research and policy analysis on the actions necessary to increase investment in concrete and relevant learning outcomes that have a positive impact on economic and social development. In Malawi, the Commission partnered with the Malawi Institute of Management (MIM) to undertake research on *“Accelerating Progress in Education in Malawi: A Focus on Financing and Political Economy”*. The research focused on all levels of education which included Early Childhood Development (ECD), primary, secondary and post-secondary education. Using the research results from across the global, the Commission

¹ Using methodology proposed by the OECD-DAC - based on income level, fragility and IDA eligibility (Steer and Smith, 2015).

² Based on 2011 Purchasing Power Parity.

plans to establish a compelling case for additional investment in education, particularly in middle- and low-income countries.

1.2 Objectives

1.2.1 Main objective

The main objective of the research was to assess education in Malawi and identify reform areas in financing and political economy in order to accelerate progress on education outcomes.

1.2.2 Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the research were:

- 1) To identify reform areas, taking account of issues of political economy, to bring about improved educational finance, access, learning and equity.
- 2) To identify effective cost sharing model, including the roles of both the private and public sectors, to finance investments in education for learning outcomes in Malawi.
- 3) To search for a balance between quantity and quality of education and identify where reforms will matter most to ensure relevance, equity, effectiveness, efficiency and sustainability of education delivery in Malawi.
- 4) To examine the political cost of not reforming the leadership and management style in the education sector in Malawi.

1.2.3 Research questions

The main questions addressed by this research included the following:

- 1) What are the key issues affecting Malawi's education in terms of financing, access, equity and learning in ECD, primary, secondary and post-secondary subsectors?
- 2) What can feasibly be done to address the underlying causes of Malawi's current issues on education financing, access, learning and equity in all education subsectors?
- 3) What are the critical reform areas in the political economy, institutional arrangement and management of the education sector that underpin improvement on financing, access, learning and equity in ECD, primary, secondary and post-secondary education?
- 4) Taking into account the political economy, which reform areas will bring about the highest returns on education investment in ECD, primary, secondary and post-secondary education?

1.3 Significance

This research is unique in the sense that it has comprehensively traced the key developments in the education sector in Malawi from the pre-independence through post-independence single party era to multiparty dispensation. This has unraveled crucial drivers to education performance and progress, as well as shortcomings, all of which are essential in mapping the way forward if Malawi is to accelerate progress in education. In addition, this paper brings in nuanced arguments which enrich the debate on reform areas in financing and political economy to improve access and equity, quality and relevance, management and governance, and financing of education at all levels in Malawi. Finally, unlike other studies, this research had an element of

gathering primary data from households in Rumphi and Mangochi districts which have the highest and lowest literacy rates, respectively, as compared to national average literacy rate (NSO, 2012). This comparison was indispensable to drawing key lessons with which to identify key drivers and challenges in financing and political economy of education that can shape the future of Malawi's progress on education for the achievement of the education SDGs by 2030.

1.4 Methodology

The research used a combination of approaches aimed at collecting both qualitative and quantitative data. These included literature review, key informant interviews (KIIs), focus group discussions (FGDs), a household survey and a press release calling for innovative ideas from the general public on education reforms. This approach ensured complementarity and triangulation thereby enhancing credibility and persuasiveness of the research findings.

1.4.1 Sampling framework

The research was undertaken at targeted institutions and communities at national and district levels. It targeted a cross-section of stakeholders in ECD, primary, secondary, technical and university education from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST); Ministry of Labour, Youth and Manpower Development; Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development; Ministry of Gender, Children, Disability and Social Welfare (MoGCDSW); religious institutions owning education establishments; private owners of schools, colleges and universities; the private sector; bilateral and multilateral development partners; Civil Society Organisations (CSOs); lecturers, teachers, parents and traditional leaders. All key informants were purposively selected due to their specialized knowledge and experience in their domain, whereas participants to the household survey were randomly selected.

1.4.2 Data collection techniques

The study used multiple data collection techniques to collect data on education access, equity, learning and financing and stakeholder insights on key reform areas to accelerate progress in education in Malawi. These included a desk review to gather relevant secondary data from official reports in the ministries of education, finance, gender and labour; National Statistical Office (NSO), development partners, CSOs and the private sector. This was followed by KIIs using a checklist, which targeted key personnel in the education sector at ECD, primary, secondary, technical and university levels. Some KIIs were also conducted with parents, members of School Management Committees (SMCs), Parents-Teacher Associations (PTAs) and teachers. FGDs were held using an interview guide with learners in primary schools (separate for males and females) in Rumphi and Mangochi districts. A household survey was also undertaken in Rumphi and Mangochi districts using a questionnaire which collected data on demographics, details on education, housing, energy and water sources, household assets and livestock, cash income and expenditure, and household subsidies. Lastly, the research team also issued an advert in the print media calling on the public to share ideas on how to accelerate progress in education in the country through a special e-mail account: malawieducationreforms2030@gmail.com.

In total, 54 stakeholders participated as key informants, 80 primary school learners participated in FGDs, 21 people contributed articles in response to the media advert, including the former Vice President of Malawi, Dr. Justin Malewezi (1994-2004), and 395 households participated in the household survey.

1.4.3 Data management and analysis

Household data was entered and managed in CS-Pro Android software, but its analysis was done in STATA, Statistical Package for Social Scientists and Excel. Where necessary, NSO dataset from the Third Integrated Household Survey (IHS III) conducted in 2011 was used. The research team provided on-spot supervision and quality control of the data collection, entry and analysis processes. Qualitative data collected was transcribed and decoded manually, according to the research thematic areas. Triangulation was done using desk review to ascertain the validity of the primary data.

1.4.4 Analytical framework

The research pursued a historical political economy analytical framework with specific reference to the education sector in Malawi. It particularly focused on the political economy in general, main national and education sector strategies and plans, national budgets and financing to the education sector, performance of the education sector over the different political regimes, main challenges, and key reform areas, among other things. In undertaking this analysis, the research focused on key thematic areas of education access, equity, learning and financing. Further reference was made to the framework of quality of education by Barrett, *et al.* (2006) that also includes effectiveness, efficiency, equality, relevance and sustainability.

1.4.5 Ethical considerations

Since the research involved human participants, research ethics were adhered to in order to ensure that the rights of the participants were respected and protected. These rights included informed consent which entailed informing the prospective participants about the overall purpose of the research; confidentiality and anonymity which assured participants that any information provided would not be published or reported in a manner that would identify them.

1.5 Outline of the paper

The paper has five chapters. The first chapter is an introduction and methodology; chapter two highlights the political economy of education in Malawi taking a historical perspective of the main national and education policies and strategies and the underpinning macroeconomic environment; chapter three analyses the impact of these education reforms and identifies the key drivers to the reform outcomes; chapter four examines the outstanding current challenges in the education sector and estimates the financial resources required to address these challenges in order to meet the SDGs on education by 2030; and the fifth chapter provides conclusions and recommendations focusing on political economy and financing to accelerate progress in education in Malawi.

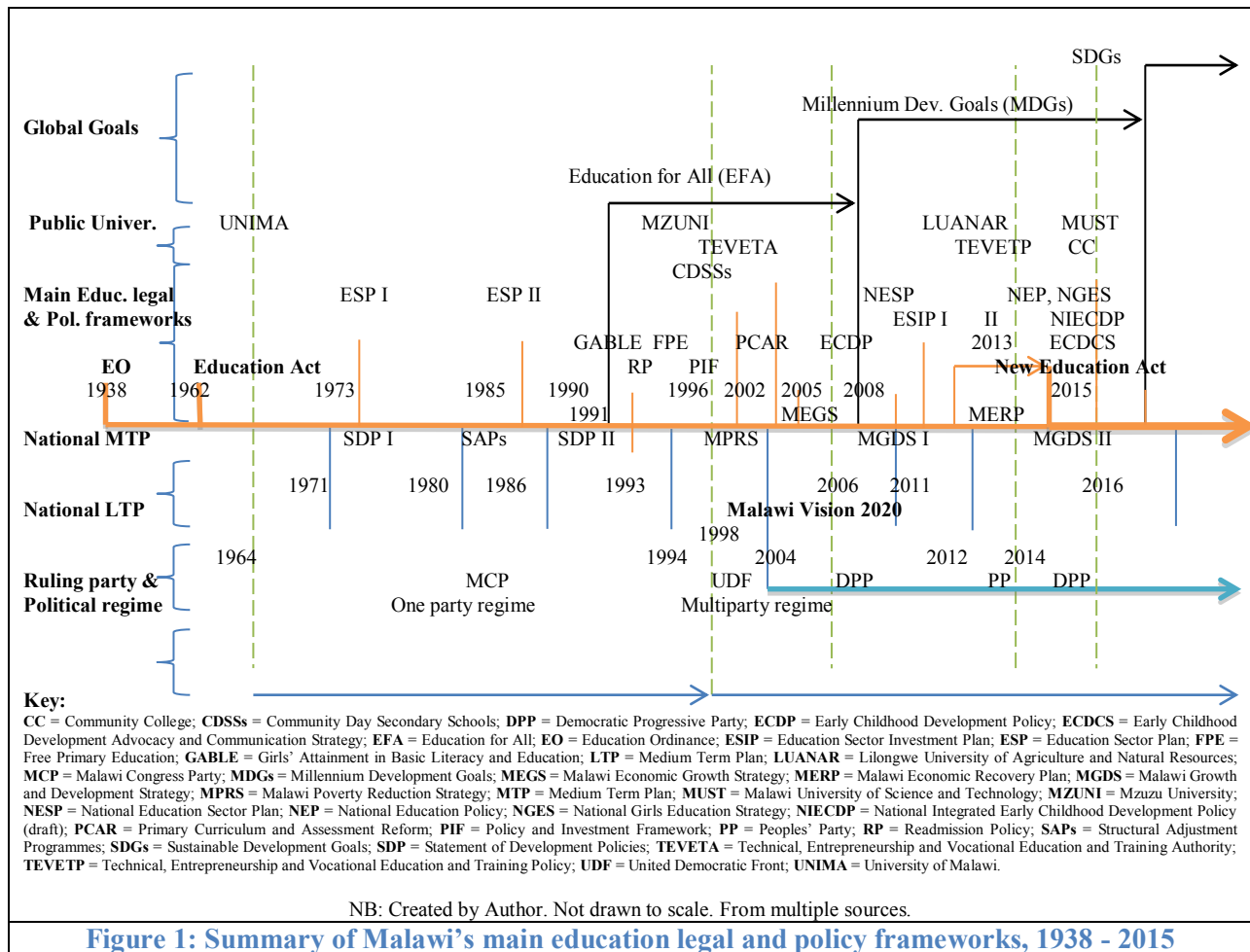
CHAPTER TWO: THE POLITICAL ECONOMY OF EDUCATION IN MALAWI

2.1 The political economy context

The significance of political economy in the education sector in Malawi cannot be overemphasized. Politics, and how it interfaces with the economy, impact on the choice of national education policies, programmes and projects and how these are financed. For instance, it is politics that eventually determines how much of the national budget is allocated to the education sector through approval of the Appropriation Bill by parliament. It is through commitment by the political leadership that systemic corruption can genuinely be rooted out in the broader economy, and in particular, in the education sector. Thus, the ability of the education sector to deliver on its mandate largely depends on the political choices.

2.2 Brief history of the political regimes and state interventions in Malawi

Since independence, Malawi has been ruled by four different political parties, each with unique economic policies and focus on the education sector. Figure 1 summaries the key legal and policy frameworks that guided interventions in the education sector under each political regime.



2.2.1 Colonial era

The first Education Act in Malawi was passed in 1962. The major reforms in the Act included making Local Education Authority autonomous; establishing an Education Advisory Council; centralizing and standardizing registration of teachers under Unified Teachers Service; registration of schools; prescription of fees and syllabi; defining powers and responsibilities of the Minister of Education; making English as a medium of instruction from standard one; introducing eight year primary education; ceasing of grants (subvention) to voluntary organizations; and self-help as a tool for primary school construction (Kamlongera, 2012).

The pre-independence era mainly focused on primary education offering basic reading, writing and counting in vernacular by Christian missionaries. A few Africans were allowed to open schools after the review of the Education Ordinance in 1938. There was no elaborate ECD, secondary, technical and university education up until the 1950s when the education system included 4 years of secondary education for Cambridge Higher School Certificate, 2 years for A-level specialized courses comparable to Junior College and pre-school sessions for children aged 2 years in Zomba, Chiradzulo and Livingstonia only for Europeans (Munthali, *et. al.* 2014).

2.2.2 Independent Malawi under one party era

Malawi gained independence in 1964 under Dr. Hastings Kamuzu Banda of the Malawi Congress Party (MCP) who ruled Malawi for 30 years up to 1994. One of the priorities of Dr. Banda was to expand education for most Malawians and to make it more relevant to the needs of the society. In 1970, the Government of Malawi (GoM) adopted an overarching national medium term plan approach known as Statement of Development Policies (SDP) and the first plan covered the period 1971 to 1980. The SDP I period was characterised by market interventionist policies which included import substitution, industrialization under tariff protection, maximum and minimum price regulations, fixed exchange rate regimes, bank interest rates controls, directed bank credits, among others. According to Booth *et al.* (2006), this phase produced fairly rapid economic growth with an average GDP growth rate of over 5% per annum.

However, by the late 1970s, the country experienced deteriorating terms of trade for its agricultural exports on the global markets which affected the balance of payment. This was worsened by rising import bill for fuel, drugs and fertilizers; droughts and the political conflicts in Mozambique which increased influx of refugees and forced Malawi to use long routes for haulage of its imports and exports. As a result, Malawi adopted and started implementing the Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) from 1980 (Figure 1) with support from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank. The SAPs were neoliberal and emphasized on free commodity prices, bank interest rates and generally liberalizing export and imports from control, and reducing tariff barriers on imports.

Over the years, the implementation of SAPs unleashed political instability and uneven economic environment characterized by rising inflation and increasing bank interest rates and exchange rate instability. The 1980s, therefore, saw a slower pace of growth, increasing inequality which was further weakened by a severe HIV and AIDS outbreak. For instance, the exchange rate

depreciated by almost 182%³ between 1985 and 1994; inflation rate moved from 11.9% in 1990 to 34.7% in 1994 and reached 83.4% in 1995; and the economy recorded growth rates of -7.9% in 1992 and -11.6% in 1994 (GoM, 2002). The combination of political repression, economic volatility and poor human rights record of Dr. Kamuzu Banda resulted in substantial pressure for political regime change from within and the international community. In 1993, a referendum was held and multiparty politics was adopted.

2.2.3 Independent Malawi under democracy and pluralism

2.2.3.1 Dr. Bakili Muluzi's era, 1994 - 2004

The first multiparty democratic elections were held on 17th May, 1994 and Dr. Bakili Muluzi of the United Democratic Front (UDF) was elected President from 1994 to 1999. He won a second term of office in 1999 to 2004. The major legal and policy frameworks that set the political and economic environment and guided the education sector during Dr. Muluzi's regime included the new Republican Constitution of 1995, the Vision 2020 of 1998, the Malawi Poverty Reduction Strategy (MPRS) of 1998, the Education for All (EFA) goals at global level (Figure 1) and the National Decentralization Policy of 1998.

The new Constitution recognizes education as a basic human right in Chapter IV, Section 25, and subsection 4:25:1 specifically states that "*all persons are entitled to education*" (GoM, 1995); the Vision 2020 sets out the national long-term goal for Malawi, which is "*By the year 2020, Malawi, as a God-fearing nation, will be secure, democratically mature, environmentally sustainable, self-reliant with equal opportunities for and active participation by all, having social services, vibrant cultural and religious values and technologically driven middle income economy*" (National Economic Council, 2000.) Education is within the Social Sector Development Pillar of the Vision 2020, which explicitly proposed to make compulsory both primary and secondary education; build more schools by both the public and private sectors; institute a fair and quality secondary selection system; review the admission policy to allow more paying students and provide scholarships to needy students in tertiary education.

The MPRS, on the other hand, was a medium term strategy to achieve the Vision 2020 and its goal was "*sustainable poverty reduction through empowerment of the poor*" (GoM, 2002). The MPRS recognized low education as both a cause and a consequence of poverty, as such, the strategy placed education as a centerpiece for poverty reduction. The strategy particularly focused on basic education but recognized that sustainable national development also requires the development of secondary, higher and pre-school education.

The Policy Investment Framework (PIF) was introduced in 1996 as a Medium Term Expenditure Framework (MTEF) to align the education sector with the MPRS and the Sector Wide Approaches (SWAs) to budget support. Specifically, the PIF aimed at increasing access to educational opportunities for all Malawians at all levels of the system.

A number of programmes to reduce gender inequality under Free Primary Education (FPE) were also implemented including Readmission Policy, which allowed school aged mothers to return to

³ From US\$1 = MK1.59 to MK4.48.

school after giving birth; child friendly support programmes such as provision of water and sanitation facilities with emphasis on girls; grant programmes targeting orphaned girls and boys; formulation of the National Gender Policy which mainstreams gender in the education sector to reduce repetition, absenteeism and dropout rates for girls; advocates for the increased enrolments of girls in science and technology and implementation of gender responsive curriculum.

Nevertheless, Booth *et al.* (2006) argued that Dr. Muluzi's second term (1999-2004) produced an even worse performance, frequent crises and a steep decline in most developmental indicators. The local currency depreciated by over 2,314% between 1994 and 2004; the annual average GDP growth rate was 1.6% between 1998 and 2003, markedly below the population growth rate of 2.8%; annual inflation rate averaged 27% and nominal commercial bank interest rates averaged 44% per annum. There was a complete breakdown of the state's capacity to formulate and implement tangible policies and the regime was associated with misappropriation of public resources, collapse of state service provision, extensive fiscal indiscipline and consequent macroeconomic instability. There was a systematic failure to distinguish between private sector resources, state resources and the resources of the ruling party. Corruption was, therefore, "*democratized*" and the accumulation of spoils increasingly assumed illegal forms and patronage drove policy direction. At the end of 2004, Malawi was at the edge of an abyss.

2.2.3.2 Professor Bingu wa Mutharika's era, 2004 - 2012

Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika was elected President in 2004 under the UDF party as he was touted as an "*economic engineer*" to fix the broken economy that eluded Dr. Bakili Muluzi, the "*political engineer*". He presented himself as a strong leader with a coherent developmental vision for the country (Cammack and Kelsall, 2010) and someone who sought to address high level corruption in the public sector. He, therefore, immediately ditched the UDF party and formed his own party, the Democratic Progress Party (DPP) in 2005. He committed to transform Malawi from a "*predominantly importing and consuming nation to a predominantly producing and exporting nation*". Against all odds, he vowed to introduce Farm Input Subsidy Programme (FISP) to subsidize smallholder agricultural production, with or without donors. He believed in household food security and national food self-sufficiency as the key driver to Malawi's economic growth and development and permanent poverty reduction. He did not subscribe to free exchange rate policy and many of the free market economy principles.

The national development policies were articulated in the Malawi Growth and Development Strategy I (MGDS I) which covered the period from 2006 to 2011. The goal of the MGDS I was "*poverty reduction through sustainable economic growth and infrastructure development*" (GoM, 2006). The MGDS I provided policy direction and national goals towards attainment of the global Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) (Figure 1). However, education was not among the six key priority areas of the MGDS I which included agriculture and food security; irrigation and water development; transport infrastructure development; energy generation and supply; integrated rural development; and prevention and management of nutrition disorders, HIV and AIDS. It was rather grouped under '*other*' focus areas of the MGDS I, which also included health, gender, governance, environment and vulnerable groups (GoM, 2006). The broad national education goals in the MGDS I included equipping students with basic knowledge and skills to enable them function as competent and productive citizens; providing the academic

basis for gainful employment in the informal, private and public sectors; and providing high quality professionals with relevant knowledge. The key strategies included the provision of teaching and learning materials, training of teachers and construction of appropriate classrooms (GoM, 2006).

During this period, the education PIF was consolidated into the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) in 2008, which covered the period from 2008 to 2017 (Figure 1). The vision of NESP is “*to be a catalyst for socio-economic development and industrial growth*”, the mission is “*to provide quality and relevant education to the Malawian nation*” and its mandate is “*to promote education in Malawi irrespective of race, gender, ethnicity, religion or any other discriminatory characteristics*” (MoEST, 2008).

The NESP aims to improve the access, equality, quality, relevance, governance and management of the country’s education system. It forms the basis of all investment (by the GoM and all Development Partners) and is consistent with the Paris Declaration of 2005 and Accra Agenda for Action of 2008 on decisions about funding for education. The NESP draws on the Education Sector Plan (ESP) I and II, PIF, Vision 2020 and the MGDS I. It operationalizes the broad educational development priorities and recognises education as a catalyst for socio-economic development, industrial growth and an instrument for empowering the poor, the weak and the voiceless; and complies with international protocols which incorporate the ideals of EFA, MDGs, Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) and the African Union (AU). The NESP covers Basic Education (ECD, out-of-school youth, complementary basic education and adult literacy as non-formal education and Primary Education); Secondary Education; Teacher Education Development for basic and secondary education; Technical Education and Vocational Training (formal, village polytechnics and distant learning) and Higher Education (private, public and open universities). The NESP paves the way towards a SWAp to planning, development and financing of the education sector.

The NESP is rolled using Education Sector Implementation Plan (ESIP) which extracts strategies and activities to be undertaken in the five-year period to be refined and redefined in annual work plans and budgets. The first ESIP covered the period 2009 to 2013 and focused on quality and relevance; access and equity; governance and management of education delivery. In addition, an Integrated Early Childhood Development (IECD) unit was established within the department of Child Development Affairs of the MoGCDSW to strengthen efforts in the implementation of National ECD Policy (2006) and the National ECD Strategic Plan (2009) for accessible and quality ECD services to all young children, including orphans and other children living in difficult circumstances.

Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika’s second term (2009-2012) also focused more on increasing university space by among others planning to construct a third public university; the Malawi University of Science and Technology (MUST) which became operational post his death in 2015 (Figure 1). He also directed the delinking of Bunda College of Agriculture from the University of Malawi (UNIMA) to form a fourth autonomous university; the Lilongwe University of Agriculture and Natural Resources (LUANAR) which became operational in 2012. He also allowed more private colleges and universities to operate in Malawi and formed the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) to regulate quality of education in tertiary education institutions.

In general, the first term of Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika showed great signs of improved economic conditions. For example, the average real GDP growth rate was 7.1% between 2006 and 2010 against a national target of 6% and a Sub-Saharan average of 5%. The national poverty headcount as reported by the Welfare Monitoring Survey done by NSO reduced from 52% in 2004 to 39% in 2010 (ODI, 2011); inflation declined to single digit (averaging 8% in 2007, 8.7% in 2008, 8.4% in 2009) from an average of 27% prior to 2004; the commercial bank lending rate also declined to 13% from an average of 44% prior to 2004 (AfDB, 2009); and domestic debt was reduced to around 13.5% of GDP by 2009 from around 25% in 2004 (GoM, 2010). The country achieved food self-sufficiency throughout this tenure and Malawi became a net food (maize) donor to other hunger stricken countries such as Lesotho and Swaziland during this period. As a result, President Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika received an MDG Award as a Global Champion on Food Security and he also introduced African Day of Food and Nutrition Security at the African Union when he was the Chair of the AU. His FISP for smallholder farmers became a pinnacle of his success and it became a model for other African countries.

However, the President's style of governing shifted significantly after a landslide victory in 2009 (Cammack and Kelsall, 2010) with visible poor governance, limited respect for the rule of law and poor human rights record. In 2010, donors withdraw about 40% of the direct budgetary support in response to the purchase of a Presidential jet and the expulsion of the UK Ambassador to Malawi over a leaked cable. The economic problem was compounded by worsening terms of trade for key exports (tea, tobacco, coffee). By 2011, the economy was characterized by critical shortages of foreign exchange which was made worse by the artificial management⁴; further limiting the extent of imports into the economy. The growing economic crisis converged with rising political tensions, particularly with CSO elites. In July 2011, national wide protests were held in reaction to the economic discontent and political tensions.

Dr. Joyce Banda, President Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika's Vice President, became estranged over DPP's succession plan and was expelled from the party in 2011. Eventually, Dr. Joyce Banda went on to form her Peoples Party (PP) in 2011 but remained the State Vice President due to the Republican Constitutional requirement. Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika suddenly died in April, 2012 of cardiac arrest while in office and Dr. Joyce Banda was, therefore, shown-in as the next President of Malawi to complete the term up to 2014 in line with the Constitutional Order.

2.2.3.3 Dr. Joyce Banda's era, 2012 - 2014

President Dr. Joyce Banda of the Peoples Party inherited an economy that was facing serious challenges such as shortage of foreign reserves, scarcity of fuel, essential drugs in hospitals and industries operating below capacity due to inadequate imported raw materials. In order to respond to these challenges, MGDS II (2012-2016) was launched but was considered too broad to deal with immediate challenges affecting the economy. The Malawi Economic Recovery Plan (MERP) was, therefore, formulated as an offshoot of the MGDS II (Figure 1). The plan identified areas for immediate, short-term and medium term interventions like devaluation of the local currency⁵, setting a market determined exchange rate, instituting automatic pricing

⁴ The local currency depreciated by 51% between 2004 and 2010, from US\$1 = MK108.15 to MK163.59.

⁵ The local currency depreciated by 175% between 2012 and 2014.

mechanism for fuel, restoration of bilateral and multilateral donors and repealing of punitive laws (GoM, 2012).

During her reign, the Comprehensive Education Act was passed by Parliament in 2013; the National Education Policy was ratified by Cabinet in 2014 and the National Girls Education Strategy and Girls Communication Strategy were launched in 2014 in an effort to highlight the importance of keeping girls in school and reversing the trend of so many girls dropping out of school due to early marriages and pregnancies. During her period, the ESIP I was evaluated in 2013 and the first draft of ESIP II was appraised by the Local Education Group and the Global Partnership for Education (GPE) Secretariat in 2013. Annual Sector Reviews were also held by the Technical Working Group on education. Dr. Joyce Banda's regime though short (2012-2014), emphasized on girls' education both in public and private spheres. She took initiatives to address teachers' welfare and end chronic problems of late payment of teachers' salaries and low teacher morale. However, this was done during campaign period and weeks before the 2014 general elections. Many teachers, therefore, considered these reforms as mere political rhetoric and campaign ploy.

The economy slowed down in 2012, with real GDP growth rate of 1.9% and a rebound in 2013 with real GDP growth rate of 5.2%. However, a fiscal scandal known as "*cashgate*"⁶ revealed in the first quarter of the 2013/14 financial year exposed serious weaknesses in governance and public financial management. The Baker Tilly Report (2014) confirmed that over US\$20 million of public money was cashgated in just six months. In response, the development partners immediately withheld direct budgetary support and, as a result, the macroeconomic conditions deteriorated substantially and eventually, President Dr. Joyce Banda lost in the Presidential elections in 2014 to Prof. Peter Mutharika of the DPP.

2.2.3.4 Professor Arthur Peter Mutharika's era, 2014 - 2019

In 2014, Prof. Peter Mutharika, a brother to former President Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika, became President under the Democratic Progress Party second regime (DPP II). He inherited an economy struggling with the adverse effects of the liberal policies introduced by the PP regime and the impact of the cashgate scandal. Upon assuming office in 2014, he prioritized introduction of Community Colleges (CC), the Public Service Reforms, continuation of the FISP and introduction of another subsidy, the Affordable and Decent Housing Subsidy, among others, which were the key campaign promises. The MERP was replaced by the MGDS II (2012-2016) as the overarching national development strategy pending a successor strategy which will localize the 2030 SDGs (Figure 1).

About halfway into his first term (2014-2016), there are positive policy directions towards the education sector especially on ECD and tertiary education. These include the approval of the National ECD Advocacy and Communication Strategy; the Adult Literacy Strategy; the rolling out of ESIP II (2014-2018) through the Joint Financing Mechanism under the upcoming Malawi Education Sector Improvement Project (MESIP) funded by the GPE grant; official opening of the fourth public university, the MUST; laying of a foundation stone for construction of a fifth

⁶ The systematic plunder of public finances by public officers and private business owners through fraudulent transactions carried out in the Integrated Financial Management Information System.

public university, the Mombela University in Mzimba district; and expanding and professionalizing technical education by opening of community colleges in 11 of the 28 districts in Malawi to offer technical skills to the youth as a source of self-employment and income. Under his reign, he has promised to open at least a community technical college in each of the 28 districts and the vision is to have at least one CC in each of the 193 parliamentary constituencies. However, in primary and secondary school education, there are pockets of low teacher morale due to issues of salary delays, nonpayment of leave grants, lack of teacher promotions, lack of clear deployment policy of teachers when they upgrade, and disagreements surrounding rural hardship allowances.

As of early 2016, the economy was characterized by exchange rate instability and the local currency depreciated by 84% between May, 2014 and February, 2016⁷; high rates of inflation of around 23% and high commercial bank interest rates of around 40%. The country also faced its worst drought in decades during the 2014/15 season which was declared a national disaster and a serious maize food shortage manifested in 2015/16 season. Already, the food deficit in 2016/17 is projected to affect more than 2.9 million people and the President has also declared it a national disaster⁸. Without direct budgetary support, the regime is grappling with worsening current account deficit, declining reserves, unsustainable budget deficit and a rising public debt which will negatively impact on the education sector.

2.2.4 Major post-independence education reforms

2.2.4.1 Education reforms, 1964 - 1972

In 1964, the American Council of Education undertook a survey to determine the approaches (plans) for attaining education targets, estimate financial commitments, identify new projects and the education needs for social and economic progress. The survey assessed all levels of formal and informal education reforms up to 1972. As a result, secondary education was immediately expanded; the UNIMA and the Malawi Book Services were founded; the Malawi College of Distance Education (MCDE) was opened for primary, secondary and upgrading courses for primary teachers, secondary and post-secondary skills education through correspondence and broadcasting unit. In 1967, the National Library Act was passed establishing public libraries; 22 district day secondary schools were expanded and renovated; and youth week was introduced in schools. In 1968, the Malawi National Examinations Board (MANEB) was founded to localize national certificate examinations such as Primary School Leaving Certificate of Education (PSLCE), Junior Certificate of Education (JCE) and Primary Teacher Examinations; and Chichewa was declared a national language to enforce unity and reduce ethnic loyalties. In 1969, Special Education (deaf and blind) College was established and a Project Implementation Unit in the Ministry of Education (MoE) was created to oversee school construction. Selection of students to secondary schools was modified to reflect district of origin, and secondary schools were differentiated between district, designated urban and national. In 1970, training of primary school teachers without secondary school junior certificate was discontinued (Kamlongera, 2012).

⁷ The local currency depreciated from US\$1 = MK411.11 to MK757.78 but has since appreciated to below MK700 to a dollar as of April, 2016 ([www.rbm.mw/statistics/major rate](http://www.rbm.mw/statistics/major_rate)).

⁸ Presidential Diary: Press Release. Malawi Broadcasting Corporation Television, April 2016.

2.2.4.2 Education reforms, 1973 - 1984

In line with the SDP I, the first Education Sector Plan became effective in 1973. The plan provided guidelines for education development on primary, secondary and teacher education with an addendum on technical and vocational training incorporated in 1976. The ESP I ensured that labour market needs defined post-primary level development; curricula-relevance aligned to socio-economic and environmental needs; utilization efficiency of existing physical and financial resources maximised; and equitable distribution of education facilities and resources. The ESP I was preceded by a manpower survey of Malawi in 1971 as a basis for secondary enrolment and expansion and the review of secondary school curriculum. The Cambridge Ordinary Level examinations were changed to Malawi School Certificate of Education (MSCE), the secondary school cycle was reduced from five to four years and the curriculum was changed from modern to classic; and Chichewa was introduced as a compulsory subject in primary and junior secondary schools in 1974 (Kamlongera, 2012).

Under the period of ESP I, the MoE was relocated from Blantyre to Lilongwe with all departments, units and sections housed under one building; Chancellor College was moved from Blantyre to Zomba; all para-medical courses were centralised under the School of Health Sciences; the technical education programmes were reformulated to include building, electrical commercial and technical craft courses; College of Accountancy was opened to offer localised training of Accountants; and Kamuzu College of Nursing was established as part of UNIMA. It is argued that the ESP I prioritized secondary and tertiary education at the expense of primary education, due to the need to provide middle level manpower to fill posts left by colonialists (Kadzamira and Rose, 2001).

During the initial period of the SAPs, the reforms in education sector included creation of the Malawi National Commission for United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) in 1980; opening of Kamuzu Academy as a grammar school to improve education standards by introducing classical subjects; establishment of the Malawi Institute of Education to separate curriculum development and in-service teacher training in 1982; opening of Natural Resources College in 1985; revision of technical vocational curriculum in secondary schools to accommodate girls; inclusion of gender equality policy with emphasis on women inclusion; introduction of nationwide functional literacy programme to cover 2 million learners and link with agricultural activities; introduction of Education Sector Credits with conditionalities for funding such as increasing fees, improving primary schools by recruiting more teacher trainees and increasing its funding for other quality changes, among others (Kamlongera, 2012).

2.2.4.3 Education reforms, 1985 - 1994

In order to consolidate the education sector plans, the second Education Sector Plan was developed within the context of the SAPs and covered the period 1985 to 1995. This also coincided with the second Statement of Development Policies whose educational and training emphasis was redressing critical shortage of manpower; introducing the quota system and student contribution towards their education under the University of Malawi. The ESP II, therefore, incorporated all levels of formal education with the aim to consolidate policies to balance the levels of physical and human resources allocated to all levels; to equalise educational

opportunities; to promote education systems efficiency; and to judiciously utilise the limited resources to the education sector. There was policy priority shift from tertiary and secondary to primary education with the aim to address issues of access, equity, quality, efficiency and relevance in primary schools (Swainson *et al.*, 1998).

Among key reforms during the implementation of ESP II were changes in management of policy, finances and planning processes in the MoE; directive for primary teachers to teach in their region of origin; introduction of loan scheme in the UNIMA in 1989; introduction of special teacher training programme for primary education; emphasis on decentralization of education management; bursary scheme for girls; repetition policy for girls; form one secondary school selection favouring non-repeaters; take off in 1990 of FPE policy arising from the World Conference on EFA held in Jomtien, Thailand; launch of Girl's Attainment in Basic Literacy and Education (GABLE); abolition of primary school fees in phases; changes in curriculum for primary and primary teacher training; establishment of College of Medicine in 1991; introduction of cost centres and creation of 75 educational zonal inspectors; and opening in 1993 of College of Education for secondary school teachers at Diploma level to reinforce EFA under the Ouagadougou Declaration (Kamlongera, 2012).

2.2.4.4 Education reforms, 1995 - 2004

According to Kamlongera (2012), the notable education reforms between 1995 and 2004 included:

- a) In 1994, the introduction of FPE for all primary school classes to increase access, eliminate inequalities and build a strong socio-economic base and enhance civic education; opening of Mzuzu University (MZUNI) to improve secondary education teaching; establishment of a Supplies Unit under MoE for bulk procurement and distribution of teaching and learning materials to public schools; removal of the quota system in UNIMA; and introducing School Feeding Programme with the assistance of the World Food Programme.
- b) In 1995, the introduction of a new mode of training primary school teachers from the normal two years with one year in college and second year practical to sandwich college based (three to six weeks in college) and largely under teaching practice; World Summit for Social Development and 4th World Conference on Women reaffirming the equity agenda for women; and Changing of Inspectorate to Advisory role under MoE.
- c) In 1996, changing Distance Education Centres (DECs) into Community Day Secondary Schools (CDSSs); introduction of secondary school clusters for management and education professional development; introduction of revolving fund for textbooks at secondary school level; Technical and vocational section moved to Ministry of Labour from MoE; changing of the calendar year from October - July to January – December; formation of six education divisions in place of three education regional offices; establishment of Malawi Integrated In-service Teacher Education Programme to train 18,000 teachers; language of instruction directive for standards 1 - 4 in mother tongue where appropriate; the UNIMA Review (Report) by Malawi Institute of Management advocated for a decentralized management of the colleges and cost recovery.
- d) In 1997, the MCDE was introduced to service largely secondary education; Malawi School Support Systems Project was implemented for construction of 315 Teacher Development Centres (TDC) as in-service centres for teachers.

- e) In 1998, the Local Government Decentralization Act and Policy were in place which stipulated primary schools and distance education as a Local Government mandate under the district councils; the Technical, Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education Training Authority (TEVETA) Act was also enacted.
- f) In 2000, the emphasis on the inclusion of access, equity, quality, relevance, management and governance as key issues for education development at all levels; human capital as the mover of education development and no longer manpower planning; introduction of MTEF for rolling financial planning in education; inclusion of cross cutting issues in education (HIV and AIDS, nutrition and school health, special needs, technology and environmental matters); curriculum implementation of junior secondary education; Malawi re-affirming to the six EFA goals and MDGs in Dakar; school feeding programme in 22 out of 34 education districts in selected schools implemented.
- g) In 2001, introduction of decentralization through district education planning; institutionalization of school mapping as a step towards micro-planning for school, zonal and district wide implementation.
- h) In 2002, Advisory/Inspection reform through modification of the instrument; implementation of curriculum changes for senior secondary education; developing of Primary Curriculum and Assessment Reform (PCAR).

2.2.4.5 Education reforms, 2005 – 2015

The reforms in education sector from 2005 can be summarized as follows (Kamlongera, 2012):

- a) Instituted direct support to schools for school level procurement of basic teaching and learning materials and school health and nutrition for public primary schools in 2005.
- b) Formulated MGDS I in 2006 which focused on education as a catalyst for socio-economic growth and reverted the Technical and Vocational training to MoEST from Ministry of Labour.
- c) In 2007, re-introduced radio educational programme (Interactive Radio Instructions) through the Education Development Center – “*Tikwere*” under United States Agency for International Development (USAID) funding; strengthened Mathematics and Science in Secondary Education as a nationwide activity; focused on secondary and higher education for human capital improvement; reformed the primary school curricula to be child-centered and included socio-economic relevant issues of the learner including life skills; constructed secondary schools and supplied related teaching and learning materials; initiated a project on Ethanol propelled vehicle with one of the technical colleges (Lilongwe).
- d) Developed education under equity and access, relevance and quality, and management and governance as key factors from pre-primary to higher education; institutionalized district education planning as part of decentralization and micro-planning; improved district education management information system for district decision making; instituted an education SWAp secretariat.
- e) In 2009, the school calendar year was changed from January-December to October-July; inspection regulated and regularized; decentralization of management and financing; improved efficiency and reduced repetition and drop out and increased role of the private sector; enhanced direct support to schools for public primary schools; inspection of private schools; creation of an Education Infrastructure Management Unit.

- f) In 2010, reversed the financial regulation for public secondary schools to retain tuition and boarding fees; re-introduced the quota system in the University of Malawi; introduced Open and Distance learning for teacher trainees; started recruitment of assistant teachers; introduced hardship allowance for teachers in rural and remote areas; transferred Adult Literacy from Ministry of Gender, Children and Community Development to MoEST.
- g) In 2011, Directorate of Education Methods Advisory Services was renamed as Inspection and Advisory Services; introduced technician diploma programmes in Automobile, Construction and Mechanical Engineering at the Polytechnic of the University of Malawi in July; introduced Continuous Professional Development for primary school teachers.
- h) The passing of the Comprehensive Education Act by Parliament, the evaluation of ESIP I and the appraisal of first draft of ESIP II by the Local Education Group and the GPE Secretariat in 2013.
- i) The ratification of the National Education Policy by Cabinet in 2014 and the launch of National Girls Education Strategy and Girls Communication Strategy in 2014.
- j) The approval of the National ECD Advocacy and Communication Strategy and the Adult Literacy Strategy, the rolling out of ESIP II (2014-2018) through MESIP; official opening of MUST, the opening of 11 community colleges and the laying of a foundation stone for the fifth public university in 2015.

CHAPTER THREE: THE IMPACT OF EDUCATION REFORMS AND KEY DRIVERS

3.1 Access

The impact of the education reforms under the different political regimes on access to education based on number of learners at ECD, primary, secondary, teacher training, technical and university level is summarized in Table 1.

Table 1: Number of learners in education subsectors, 1964 - 2014

Education subsector	Year					
	1964	1974	1984	1994	2004	2014
ECD	na	na	na	31,866 ^a	229,823	1,344,723
Primary	359,841	537,301	847,157	1,895,423	3,166,786	4,670,279
Secondary	5,951	17,380	30,949	88,752	180,157	346,604
Primary teacher training	1,368	1,306	1,890	3,624	12,129	20,800 ^b
Technical	381	480	522	1,007	1,756	8,356 ^c
University	180	1,059	1,961	3,684	4,745	12,203 ^d

na = not available; a = 1996; b = Public TTCs only; c, d = 2012; Sources: MoEST EMIS, MoGCDSW.

3.1.1 Early childhood development education

Access to ECD education was very low during the pre-independence and single party regime, only catering for less than 1% of the eligible population and mainly for white settlers (Munthali *et al*, 2014). It was after multiparty regime in 1994 that Malawi witnessed an increase in the community based pre-schools due to the growing numbers of orphaned children as a result of the HIV and AIDS epidemic (Chiwoko, 2010; Munthali *et al*, 2014). Enrolment in ECD centres increased from 31,866 in 1996 to 229,823 in 2004, representing an average growth rate of 20.9% and reached 1,344,723 in 2014 representing an average growth rate of 14.1% between 2004 and 2014 (Table 1). Despite these seemingly high growth rates during the multiparty era, coverage of the eligible population only improved from 1.2% in 1996 to 9.7% in 2004 and escalated to 40% in 2014 (MoGCDSW, 2015).

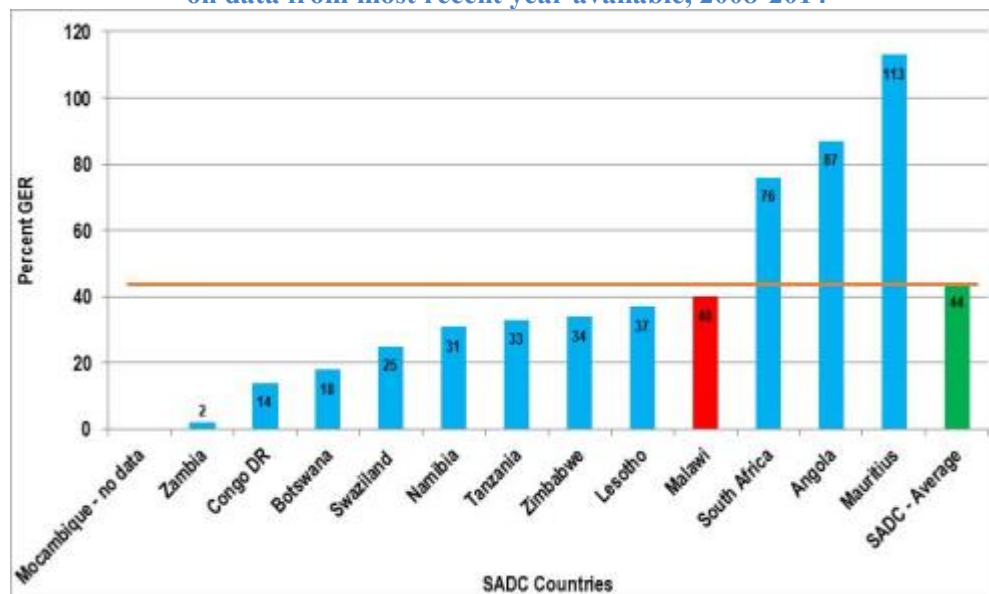
There were two main drivers that contributed to increase in ECD access during the multiparty regime.

- i. The first driver was the increase in HIV and AIDS related orphans and vulnerable children (OVCs) which compelled many communities to establish community based childcare centres (CBCCs). As a result, the number of ECD centres increased from 649 in 1996 to 4,529 in 2004 with an average enrolment per centre of 51 children in 2004 (MoGCDSW, 2015).
- ii. The second driver was the formulation of the ECD Policy in 2006 which provided a clear framework on ECD education. The policy had a number of strategies that led to increase in ECD structures owned by the communities and private owners; increase in awareness by parents of the importance of ECD services; consolidating households and community involvement in ECD services to commit own efforts, resources and labour; introduction of school feeding programmes that attracted and retained more children; formulation of child specific legal and policy frameworks that called for more care, protection and development of children; political will to support child development programmes; a more

coordinated resource mobilization approach involving local and international organisations⁹ and the institutionalization of National ECD Network with a membership of 105 in 2015. As a result of these policy interventions, the number of ECD centres increased from 6,240 in 2006 to 11,105 in 2015 (MoGCDSW, 2015) and the average number of children per centre increased from 99 in 2006 to 126 in 2015.

Comparatively, the 40% Gross Enrolment Rate (GER)¹⁰ in pre-primary school for Malawi in 2014 was below the SADC average of 44% but was relatively higher than Zambia (2%), Congo DR (14%), Botswana (18%), Swaziland (25%), Namibia (31%), Tanzania (33%), Zimbabwe (34%) and Lesotho (37%) based on data from the most recent year available (Figure 2). Thus, although Malawi is ranked low on the HDI compared to these countries, it was doing fairly better in terms of GER for pre-primary school. In particular, Malawi registered more than double the GER for pre-primary school compared to medium human development countries of Zambia, Congo DR and Botswana (UNDP, 2015).

Figure 2: Comparative Pre-primary Gross Enrolment Rate in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014



Sources: UNDP (2015); MoGCDSW (2015)

⁹ Including UNICEF, Feed the Children, World Vision, Plan International, Save the Children, World Relief, Catholic Relief Services, Family Health International, Participatory Rural Development Organisation, Action Aid International, Association of ECD in Malawi, National Aids Commission, Evangelical Association of Malawi, DREAM, VIBITAC, SAFE, among others.

¹⁰ Total enrolment in a specific level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the eligible official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education in a given school year.

3.1.2 Primary education

Table 1 shows that Malawi registered unprecedented increase in access to primary education after the adoption of multiparty regime in 1994. The number of pupils accessing primary education increased from 847,157 in 1984 to 1,895,423 in 1994 and reached 4,670,279 in 2014. During the one party regime, access to primary education increased by 49% between 1964 and 1974 and by 58% between 1974 and 1984. During the multiparty regime, access to primary education increased by 124% between 1984 and 1994 and by 67% and 47% between 1994, 2004 and 2014, respectively. However, the average growth rate shows that there was a steady increase in access to primary education from 1964 to 1994, from 4% between 1964 and 1974 to 4.6% between 1974 and 1984 and 8.1% between 1984 and 1994 but this rate declined to 5.1% between 1994 and 2004 and 3.9% between 2004 and 2014. This suggests that although the onset of the multiparty era saw more than double the number of pupils enrolled in primary schools, the momentum stabilized and declined in recent times.

Table 2 shows that both Gross Enrolment Rate and Net Enrolment Rate¹¹ (NER) maintained increasing trends in pre- and post- multiparty periods. However, both the GER and NER were below 100% during the single party period but were above 100% after multiparty regime. The GER increased from 93% in 1994 to 135% in 2014 and the NER increased from 71% in 1994 to 103% in 2014. The SACMEQ (2010) observed that until the introduction of the FPE policy after the multiparty regime, access had been severely hampered by the charging of user fees, the requirement to wear school uniform and the many other contributions parents were expected to make towards the education of their children. However, the FPE policy resulted in high repetition rates and enrolment of over and under age kids which highly inflated the GER (World Bank, 2010).

Table 2: Gross Enrolment and Net Enrolment Rates, 1984 - 2014

Enrolment rate	Year			
	1984	1994	2004	2014
GER	63	93	107	135
NER	44	71	82	103

Source: MoEST, EMIS

There were several factors that contributed to increase in access to primary education during the multiparty regime:

- i. The main driver to increase in access to primary education during the multiparty regime was the introduction of the FPE policy in 1994. As a result of this policy change, more than a million additional pupils joined the primary education system in 1995 (Sharra, 2015).
- ii. The use of mother language for teaching in Standard 1 to 3 introduced by Dr. Muluzi's regime contributed to increased access as pupils from other vernacular languages that were previously disadvantaged when learning in Chichewa were encouraged to enroll and learn in their local languages. However, the policy was reversed by Prof. Bingu's regime

¹¹ Enrolment of the official age group for a given level of education expressed as a percentage of the corresponding population.

which reverted to Chichewa as the medium of instruction from Standard 1 to 4 across the country and this has been maintained up to now. At the moment, all text books apart from English language are written and taught in Chichewa e.g. Mathematics, Social Studies, Expressive Arts and Life Skills (See picture 1).



Picture 1: Standard 4 books sampled in schools in Rumphi district in 2016. Photo by research team.

This has created problems for learners in districts where Chichewa is not the mother tongue. Their first 4 years of primary education puts them on a disadvantage point compared to learners whose mother tongue is Chichewa. One of the parents in Rumphi district, which is a predominantly Tumbuka speaking district, remarked as follows:

“nadi wana ntchinonono kuti wapulike, pakuti wakusambizika mu chiyowoyero icho ntchawo cha” (i.e. it is really difficult for children to learn properly because they are being taught in a foreign language).

- iii. The flexibility in school uniform introduced by Dr. Muluzi’s regime also increased access to primary education. Previously, school children were supposed to wear school uniforms and the policy was *“no school uniform no classes”* which disadvantaged more children coming from poor families.
- iv. Government liberalization of private schools which started during UDF’s reign and expanded by successive multiparty regimes also assisted in increasing access to primary education.
- v. The introduction of school feeding program during the first DPP regime which has since been upscaled by subsequent multiparty regimes also helped to improve access in primary school. In some schools belonging to Islamic faith community, the schools even go further to provide meals during the critical hunger months (December – March) to learners. For instance, the research team witnessed this at Nangopoche Junior Primary School in Mangochi district in March, 2016.
- vi. Engagement between duty bearers like the District Education Managers (DEM), faith based organisations and traditional leaders has contributed towards increased enrolment in primary education. For instance, in Mangochi district, it was noted that the DEM involves religious and traditional leaders in community mobilization which was not the case previously.

- vii. Exposure through travel has also contributed to increasing access to education especially at primary school level in some districts such as Mangochi, Mzimba, NkhataBay, Nkhotakota, Dedza, among others, where the youth mainly go to South Africa to work as menial labourers. During KII in Mangochi district, one traditional leader in Moto Village stated the following:

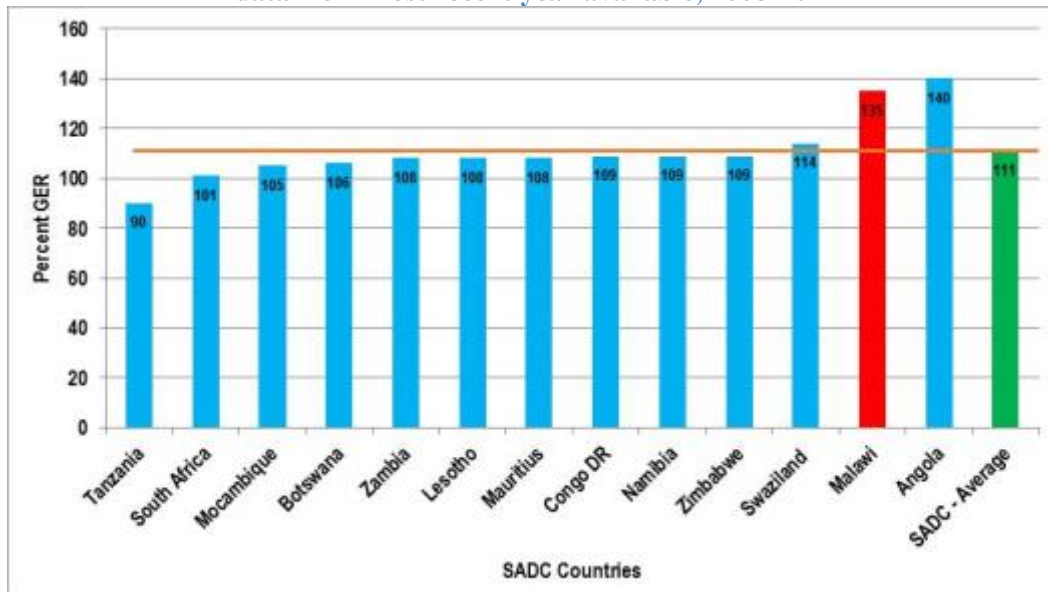
“I have two girls who are now in South Africa but they finished school up to Form 4 since they were told that for them to have better jobs in South Africa they needed to be educated”.

- viii. Infrastructure development has also assisted in increasing access to primary education. Some traditional leaders in Mangochi district indicated that before Nangopoche Junior Primary school was constructed, the young pupils used to travel long distance of over 10 km to access education and most of them dropped out unlike now when schools are close to each other thereby enabling the young learners access schools within walking distance.
- ix. On a macro level, population growth has also impacted on increased access to primary education. The population of Malawi has grown and continues to grow at a high rate, averaging 2.9% between 1966 and 2008 (NSO, 2009). The population has grown from about 4 million in 1965 to about 16 million in 2015, with about 46% of the population being under the age of 15 years resulting in more children wanting to access primary school education.
- x. Other interventions that have enhanced access to education include changes in policies such as classification of children who drop out of school as vulnerable children which makes them eligible to bursary programmes¹²; increasing children corners and facilities that work with vulnerable children from 6-17 years to counsel and encourage them to go back to school; the MoGCDSW and the Local Development Fund (LDF) providing social cash transfer programmes in 18 districts with 90% funding from development partners in which vulnerable children are provided with cash and extra cash if children are going to school; community empowerment to ensure vulnerable children enroll in schools supported by projects such as USAID ASSIST.

In comparison with other SADC countries, the latest available data shows that Malawi had a higher GER at 135% compared to a SADC average of 111% and this was only lower to that of Angola which was 140% (Figure 3). The available latest data also shows that only three countries in SADC (Angola, Malawi and Swaziland) had GER that was above the average for SADC. However, Tanzania had the lowest GER of 90% while the other SADC countries had a GER of at least 100%.

¹² There are 1.8 million registered vulnerable children but only 22,000 (1.2%) has been targeted by 2019.

Figure 3: Comparative Primary Gross Enrolment Rate in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014



Sources: UNDP (2015); MoEST EMIS (2015)

3.1.3 Secondary education

When the country gained independence in 1964, there were only 5,951 secondary school students. The number increased to 88,752 at the dawn of multiparty democracy in 1994, and reached 346,604 in 2014 (Table 1). Prior to multiparty regime, only 4 of the 17 secondary schools available then provided a full program leading to a secondary school certificate (Chiwoko, 2010; Lambert, 2013). Reports claim that only 18% of the secondary school age group made it into secondary education in 1994 leaving about 82% out of the secondary education system (MoE and UNESCO, 2004). As a result, more students accessed secondary education in DEC than the conventional secondary schools with about 48% of the students enrolled in DEC in 1994 and this increased to 58% in 2003 (Table 3).

Table 3: Number of students enrolled in conventional and DEC, 1964 - 1994

Type of secondary	Year					
	1964	1974	1984	1994	2003*	2004
Conventional	5,951	13,779	22,245	46,444	54,492	
DEC	0	3,601	8,704	42,308	76,258	180,157
Total	5,951	17,380	30,949	88,752	130,750	180,157

*DECs converted into CDSSs

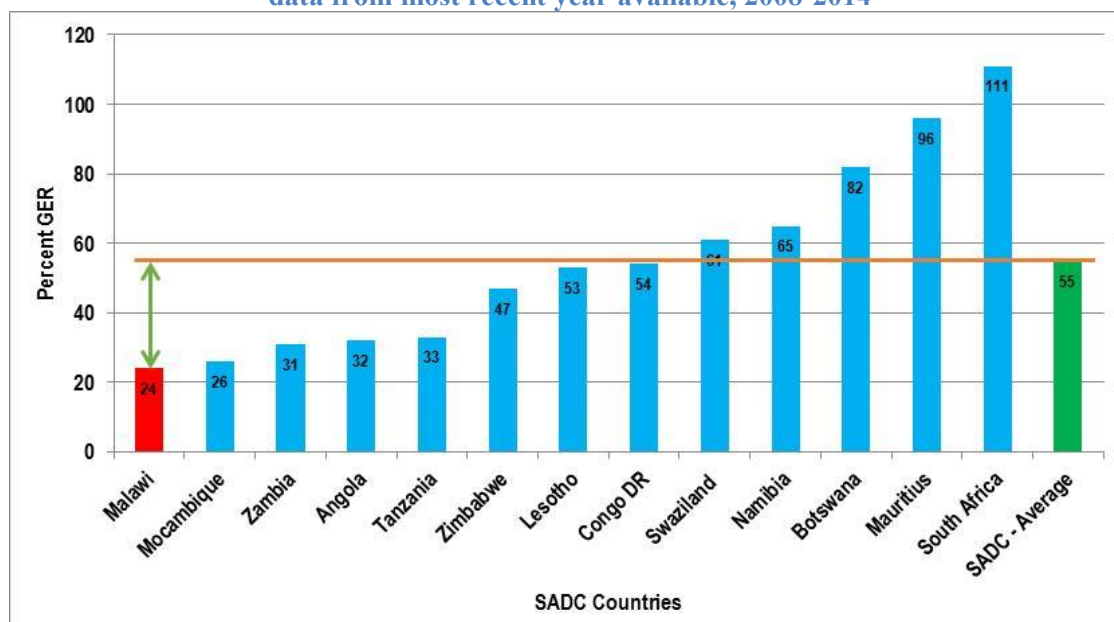
In order to expand access to secondary education, the UDF regime started merging all DEC to become one unified system of CDSSs from 1995. However, the average growth rate of access to secondary education maintained a declining trend during multiparty regime, decreasing from 10.5% between 1984 and 1994 to 7.1% between 1994 and 2004 and further to 6.5% between 2004 and 2014. Likewise, the GER for secondary education was only 16% in 2004 and increased to 24% in 2014 with the NER in 2014 of 15%. This trend points to the fact that access to secondary education in Malawi remains one of the lowest in the world.

The main drivers to improving access to secondary education during the multiparty dispensation included the following:

- i. The introduction of free primary education resulted in more pupils qualifying for secondary education.
- ii. The conversion of DEC's into CDSSs quadrupled the number of available space for eligible students to enter into secondary education (Al-Samarrai and Zaman, 2002). As of 2015, there were 686 CDSSs compared to less than 22 secondary schools before multiparty.
- iii. Construction of new secondary schools and mushrooming of many private secondary schools, which increased availability and access to secondary education, unlike the period before.
- iv. The survey undertaken in Rumphi and Mangochi districts in March, 2016, showed that besides government's initiatives, community leaders and members are also eager to see an increase in secondary enrolment for their children. They make financial and material contributions for development projects for schools in their communities through the LDF in construction of classroom blocks, hostels and laboratories.
- v. Development partners are also taking part to contribute to progress in secondary education. For instance, Japanese International Cooperation Agency (JICA) has so far built 23 Day Secondary Schools, and is also involved in building girls hostels in some Day Secondary Schools with a view to reducing number of girls who dropout due to long walking distances. JICA is also providing laboratory equipment to secondary schools. The European Union (EU) in 2015 launched a project for financing secondary education in Malawi, which focuses primarily on access, quality and management. The EU intends to rehabilitate and refurbish 21 CDSSs. Also, the World Bank through the GPE is rolling out the MESIP that will assist GoM to improve the quality and efficiency in the provision of education services delivery and enhancing the school accountability as planned in the draft ESIP II (2013-2018).
- vi. The country opened up to a number of local and international CSOs in the education sector. Some CSOs specifically implemented projects targeting the girl child and this contributed towards increasing access to secondary education. There were sponsorship programmes and campaigns for girls from organizations like Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED), FAWEMA, GABLE and CRECCOM. CAMFED provides seed money (MK30,000) to girls after completing Form 4 to start businesses and mentor other girls which has so far reached out to 5,000 mentors.

Based on latest available data, Figure 4 shows that Malawi's secondary school GER of 24% was the lowest among SADC member states which had an average of 55%. South Africa had the highest GER for secondary school at 111% and together with Mauritius, Botswana, Namibia and Swaziland had GER of above the average for SADC. On the other hand, Malawi, alongside Mozambique, Zambia, Angola, Tanzania, Zimbabwe, Lesotho and Congo DR had GER of below the average for SADC.

Figure 4: Comparative Secondary Gross Enrolment Rate in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014



Sources: UNDP (2015); MoEST EMIS (2015)

3.1.4 Primary school teacher training

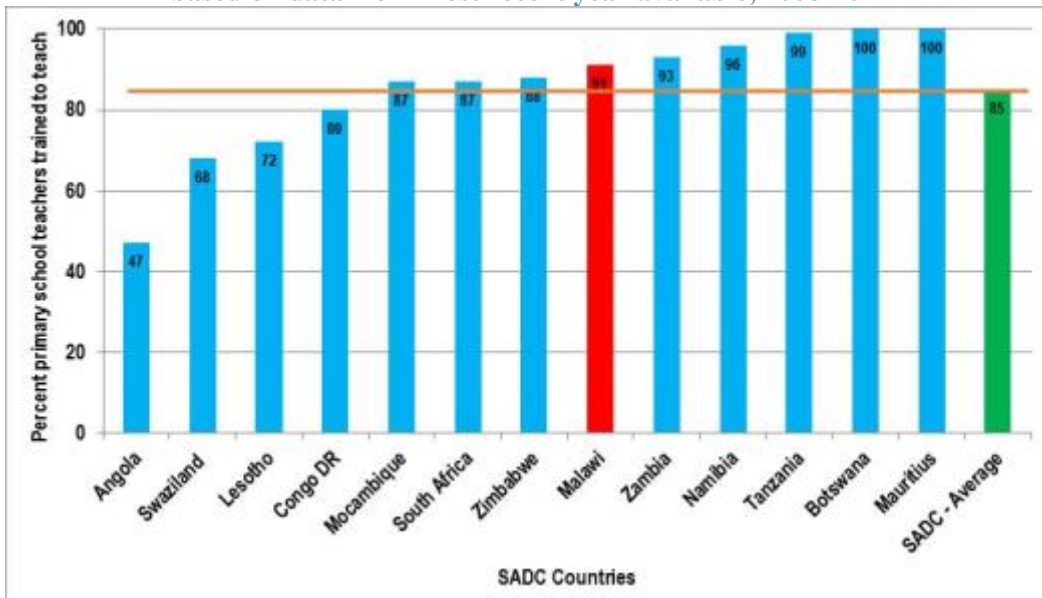
Upon independence, there were only 1,368 primary school teacher trainees in Teacher Training Colleges (TTC) and the number increased to 3,624 in 1994 during the one party system. During the multiparty regime, the number increased to 12,129 in 2004 and 20,800 in 2014 (Table 1). There were only 6 TTCs by 1994 with a bed capacity of 2,700 (MoE and UNESCO, 2004). The number of public TTCs has remained the same to-date indicating that the increase in teacher trainees was as a result of participation by the private sector and the open distance learning (ODL) system of teacher training. Thus, the average growth rate for teacher trainees increased from 6.5% between 1984 and 1994 to 12.1% between 1994 and 2004 and declined to 5.4% between 2004 and 2014.

The main drivers to increase in teacher trainees during the multiparty regime were:

- i. The participation of the private sector in offering teacher training.
- ii. The adoption of ODL approach to teacher training.
- iii. The increase in enrolment at secondary level as a result of CDSSs.
- iv. The introduction of FPE which ignited demand for more teachers.

The available latest data for SADC shows that the average percentage of primary school teachers trained to teach was 85% which was lower than that of Malawi at 91% (Figure 5) suggesting that Malawi had more trained teachers teaching in primary schools compared to the average for SADC. Comparatively, Angola had the lowest percentage (47%) of trained teachers teaching in primary schools and alongside Swaziland, Lesotho and Congo DR had lower percentage of trained teachers teaching in primary schools than the average for SADC.

Figure 5: Comparative Primary school teachers trained to teach in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014



Source: UNDP (2015)

3.1.5 Technical education

Table 1 shows that there were only 381 technicians in technical schools when the country attained independence in 1964 and the number increased to 1,007 in 1994 and jumped to 8,356 in 2012. This represented an average growth rate of 6.6% between 1984 and 1994, 5.6% between 1994 and 2004 and 15.6% between 2004 and 2012. In post multiparty era, the UDF regime rarely emphasized the concept of technical education except for the establishment of TEVETA in 1999 by an Act of Parliament (M’bwana, 2015). It was during DPP’s regime that technical education was given attention.

In 2012, there were a total of 8 public and 11 private technical colleges with a total enrolment of 8,356. As of 2016, additional 11 community colleges have been opened, each enrolling about 100 students.

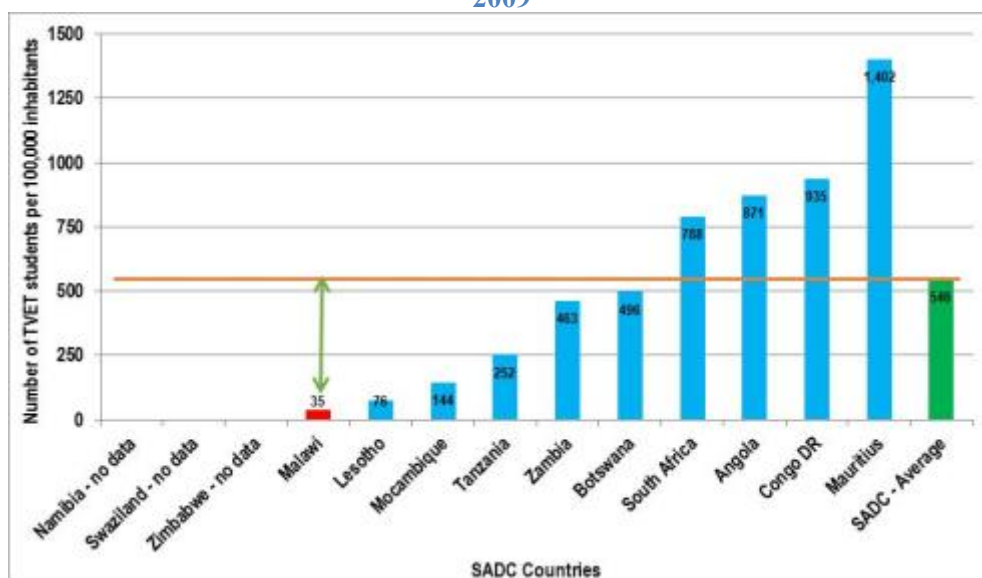
The drivers to access to technical education in post one party period have been:

- i. The TEVETA which facilitates the provision of technical, entrepreneurial and vocational education and training in Malawi. TEVETA targets people in the rural settings that demand skills training and OVCs. TEVETA uses demand driven approaches through village heads and district assemblies to identify students who can enroll in technical education in both private and public technical colleges. Admission is based on performance on public aptitude tests and people selected are offered spaces in the colleges. Currently, there are about 30 technical colleges in Malawi including the community colleges.
- ii. The political will by President Prof. Arthur Peter Mutharika’s regime to focus on technical skills development through the community colleges in order to economically empower the youth for self-employment and income.

- iii. The commitment by the development partners to support technical education including the African Development Bank, the World Bank, GIZ and the EU Delegation, among others.
- iv. The participation of the private sector and the CSOs to offer technical skills development on commercial basis and as a social service to students and OVCs, respectively.

In 2009, Malawi had 35 students only per 100,000 inhabitants in Technical, Vocational Education and Training (TVET) compared to the average of 546 students per 100,000 inhabitants in SADC countries (Figure 6). In essence, Malawi had one of the lowest enrolments in TVET in SADC.

Figure 6: Comparative TVET students per 100,000 inhabitants in SADC countries, 2009



Source: World Bank (2010)

3.1.6 University education

There were only 180 university students at independence in 1964 and the number increased to 3,684 in 1994, 4,745 in 2004 and to 12,203 in 2012 (Table 1), representing an average growth rate of 17.7% between 1964 and 1974, 6.3% between 1984 and 1994, 2.5% between 1994 and 2004 and 9.4% between 2004 and 2012.

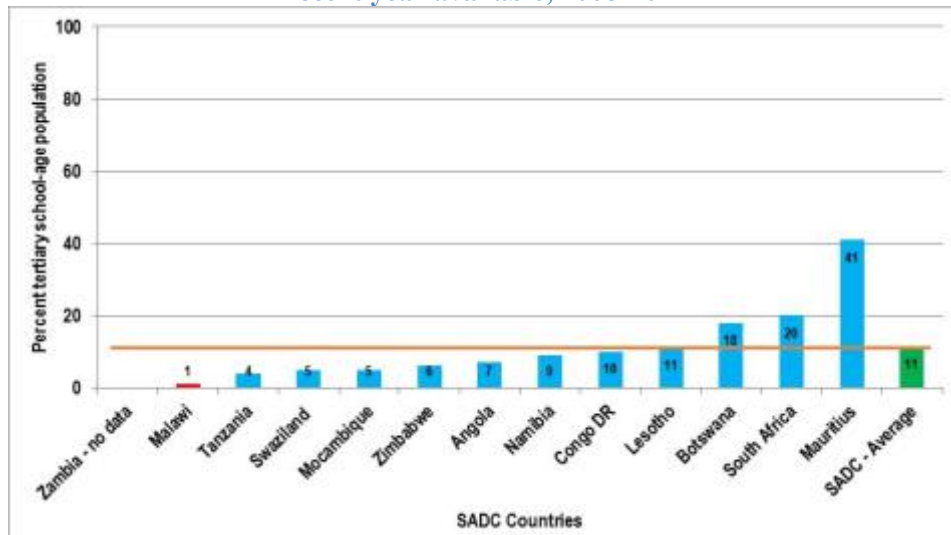
Dr. Muluzi opened the second public university in Malawi, MZUNI in 1994 and Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika initiated the construction of the third public university, the MUST and the delinking of Bunda College of Agriculture from UNIMA to become the LUANAR as a fourth public university. During his reign, a number of private colleges and universities also thrived in Malawi. Tertiary education in Malawi begins after completion of MSCE and only students who obtain at least 6 credits, including English, compete for places in the public universities. Currently, there are four public universities in Malawi: MUST, LUANAR, MZUNI and UNIMA whose combined overall student intake is less than 15,000 thereby creating stiff competition for university education access.

Several factors have contributed towards increasing enrollment and number of disciplines offered to students at tertiary level:

- i. The country has four public universities up from one public university in 1964 and by 2016, the country had 18 private universities. NCHC has also accredited a total of 15 public and 22 private institutions as providers of higher education. There are also several colleges offering professional certificates in various disciplines to students graduating from secondary school especially in accounting, business administration, marketing, human resource management, nursing, journalism, catering and secretarial.
- ii. Infrastructure development to expand accommodation and learning facilities. As of 2015, the public universities were accommodating over 14,000 students compared to less than 4,000 before.
- iii. Introduction of nonresidential programmes, parallel mode of teaching and learning during semester holidays, introduction of centres for continuing education in all colleges and mounting of satellite centres for parallel programmes.
- iv. Localization of collaborative programmes such as Bachelor of Medicine and Surgery thereby increasing local intake.
- v. Increased enrolment at secondary school. From 1994, the country introduced free primary education that led to increase in enrolment at primary school which trickled up to secondary school and tertiary levels.
- vi. The demand for more professionals by the labour market increased the need for university education to get lucrative managerial jobs and promotions.

Comparatively, Malawi has the lowest enrolment rate in tertiary education in the SADC region. While the latest available data shows that SADC had an average of 11% for tertiary enrolment, Malawi only had 1% (Figure 7).

Figure 7: Comparative Tertiary enrolment in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014



Source: UNDP (2015)

3.2 Learning

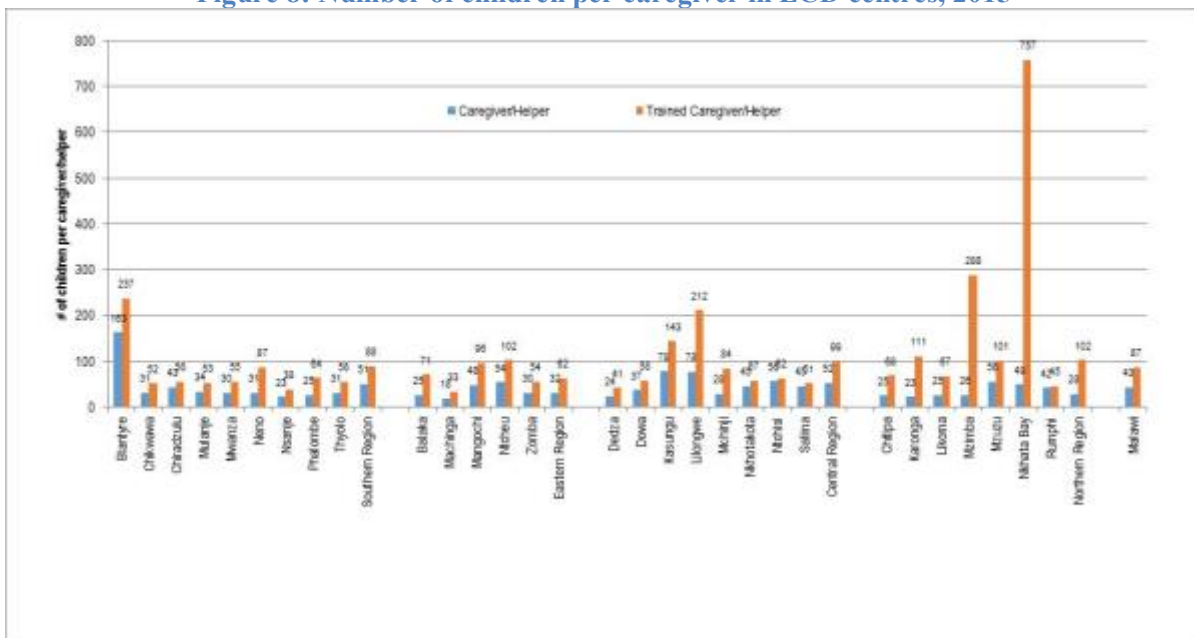
3.2.1 Early childhood development education

Most teachers in pre-schools work for free, are not qualified and have no resources to help them teach. The teachers lack the very basics including blackboards, chalk, books and toys associated with pre-school education (Munthali *et al*, 2014). There is also no proper curriculum and syllabus for pre-schools and most of the pre-schools are concentrated in urban areas as it is considered a luxury in rural areas. These issues tend to compromise quality of ECD education especially in rural areas.

For instance, there were 300 ECD service centres in Rumphu in 2016, but only 8% (24) had playing grounds and materials such as see-saw, dollies, toys, soccer balls, etc. (Rumphu District Social Welfare Office, 2016). There were also 32,361 caregivers and helpers across the country, 89% of them were female but only 49% had been trained (MoGCDSW, 2015) implying an average of 43 children per caregiver and 87 children per trained caregiver at national level.

There are also marked disparities across the districts in terms of children to caregiver ratio, the highest for trained caregiver ratio being recorded in Nkhata Bay, Mzimba, Blantyre, Lilongwe and Kasungu in 2015 (Figure 8). In urban areas, more parents are becoming economically active so much that they do not have enough time to take care of their dependent young children. Some private sector entrepreneurs saw the business opportunity in ECD services and started providing child care services to working class couples. ECD centres in urban areas therefore tend to be of good quality with adequate materials for child development.

Figure 8: Number of children per caregiver in ECD centres, 2015



Source: Author calculation from MoGCDSW (2015)

In the rural areas, ECD services mainly developed from OVC care programmes that were targeting children affected or infected by HIV and AIDS. CBCCs were therefore established by communities to cater for psychosocial needs of orphaned children. Most of the CBCCs constructed by the communities are therefore of poor quality (See pictures 2 and 3 of Mhaju CBCC in Rumphi district in 2016).



Picture 2: Mhaju CBCC satellite classroom, Rumphi district (2016). Photo by research team.



Picture 3: Mhaju CBCC kitchen, Rumphi district (2016). Photo by research team.

In some rural areas, the communities are supported by CSOs in the construction of ECD centres. These tend to have good quality for provision of ECD services (See pictures 4 and 5 of Chikwawa Model CBCC in Rumphi district in 2016 constructed by Action Aid with funding from Rodger Federer Foundation).



Picture 4: Chikwawa Model CBCC by Action Aid, Rumphi district (2016). Photo by research team.



Picture 5: Chikwawa Model CBCC kitchen, Rumphi district (2016). Photo by research team.

3.2.2 Primary education

In pre-independence period, teaching was conducted by Christian missionaries who adopted the traditional African culture of passing lessons from one generation to the next through careful observation, imitation and memorization. Records indicate that at this point in time, the quality of education across the country was significantly low as many of the teachers were poorly trained or even unqualified (Chiwoko, 2010).

During the single party regime, Dr. Kamuzu Banda ensured that the education system delivered on quality and internal systems were efficient. However, available data in 1994 before the onset

of multiparty regime shows that survival rates¹³ for primary education were very low for both boys and girls and were worse for girls. For instance, out of 100 pupils that enrolled in Standard 1, only 14 girls and 19 boys reached Standard 8 indicating a high dropout rate along the way (Kadzamira and Rose, 2001). Further, the average repetition rates at the primary level increased from 17% in 1991 to 29% in 1994 (Chiwoko, 2010). Students had to gain PSLCE based on their Standard 8 final exam results in order to progress to a few secondary school openings. This resulted in some pupils repeating Standard 8 for over 5 years in order to get PSLCE and be selected to secondary school.

During the multiparty regime, education standards declined due to more pupils joining the system, inadequate and under qualified teachers and poor learning and teaching conditions. Table 4 shows that the pupil to teacher ratio improved between 1994 and 2014 but it is still far from the recommended ratio, the pupil to classroom ratio worsened during the same period.

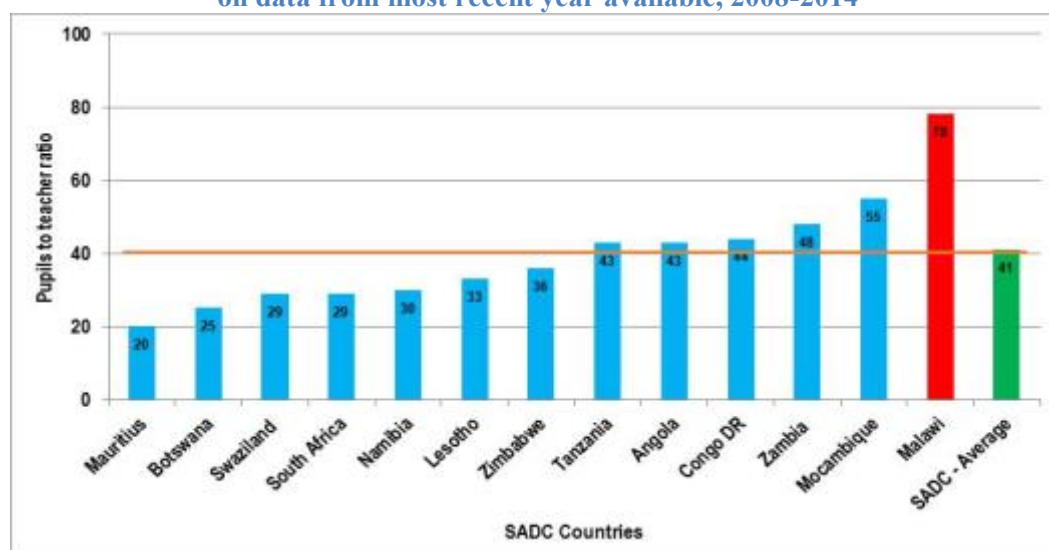
Table 4: Number of pupils per available resource, 1994 - 2014

# of pupils per:	Year			Recommended
	1994	2004	2014	
Trained Teacher	88	82	78	60
Classroom	102	107	111	

Source: MoEST, EMIS

In the SADC region, Malawi had the highest number of pupils per teacher with 78 pupils for one teacher compared to an average of 41 pupils per teacher in SADC (Figure 9). All the SADC countries had below the recommended number of 60 pupils per teacher except Malawi.

Figure 9: Comparative primary school pupils to teacher ratio in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014



Sources: UNDP (2015); MoEST EMIS (2015)

¹³ A percentage of a cohort of pupils enrolled in the first grade of a given level or cycle of education in a given cycle of education in a given school year who are expected to reach successive grades.

The shortage of trained teachers and classrooms is acute in rural areas. For instance, in Rumphi district, most schools that were visited had a ratio of about 100 to 120 pupils per teacher and critical shortage of qualified teachers (Table 5).

Table 5: Shortage of qualified teachers in sampled schools of rural areas of Rumphi district, 2016

Zone	Name of school	Total number of qualified teachers	Standard
Mphompha	Mzungutwa Primary	2	1 to 8
	Chimulu Primary	3	1 to 8
	Mara Primary	2	1 to 8
Livingstonia	Katochi Primary	1	1 to 8
	Chonkhomoka Primary	1	1 to 8
	Thunda Primary	3	1 to 8
Jarawe	Chankhama Primary	1	1 to 8
	Muliyezi Primary	3	1 to 8
Bolero	Kapyolambabvi Primary	2	1 to 8
	Lunyina Primary	1	1 to 8
	Betere Primary	4	1 to 8

Source: Rumphi District DEM (2016)

Some schools in rural areas in Rumphi have pupils learning under a tree due to lack of classrooms and some classes are overcrowded (See pictures 6 and 7).



Picture 6: Make-shift classroom at Chikwawa Primary School in Rumphi district in 2016.



Picture 7: An overcrowded classroom at Mhuju Primary school in Rumphi in 2016.

Although more students had access to education on introduction of universal FPE during Dr. Muluzi's regime, quality had deteriorated. Consequently, the number of repeaters steadily increased between 1999 and 2004, with an average growth rate of 3.6% for boys and 4.1% for girls while the number of dropouts declined, with an average decline rate of -3.1% for boys and -1.7% for girls. The household survey findings showed that the most common reason for dropouts was lack of money to pay non-fees related expenses and uniform (48.7%), marriage and pregnancy (17%) and lack of interest and laziness (16%).

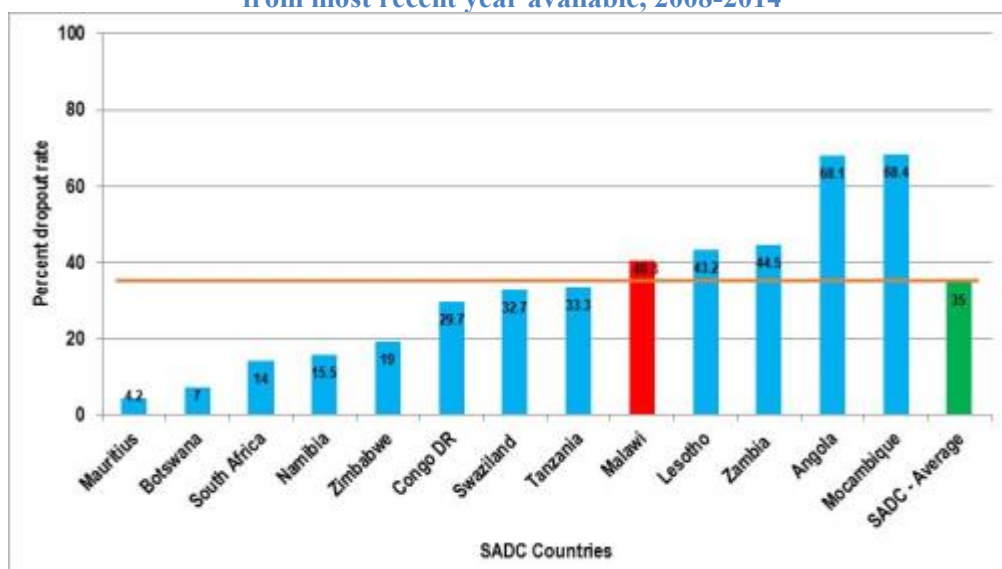
About 21% of the enrolment in primary education in 2015 was repeaters with disparities across the education zones. Central West Zone had 23% of the pupils repeating, Central East and Southern East had 18% each, Northern Zone had 15%, Shire Highlands Zone had 14% and Southern East Zone had 11% (MoEST EMIS data, 2015).

Survival rate for Standard 8 pupils was severely affected during the election year of 2009, declining from 58.1% to 41.1% for boys and from 49.9% to 37.9% for girls before peaking up between 2010 and 2011 then declining to 41% for boys and 35% for girls in 2012 (MoEST, EMIS, 2014). Between 2008 and 2012, survival rate for both boys and girls had a negative average decline rate of -3.6% for boys and -3.5% for girls.

The transitional rate from primary to secondary school also declined between 2008 and 2012, especially so for girls which declined from 36% in 2008 to 30% in 2012 while that of boys declined from 35% in 2008 to 30% in 2012 (MoEST EMIS, 2014) representing an average decline rate of -1.6% for boys and -1.8% for girls.

Primary school dropout rate in Malawi was at 40.3% and was higher than the average for SADC of 35% based on available latest data (Figure 10). Comparatively, Lesotho, Zambia, Angola and Mozambique had higher dropout rate than Malawi while dropout rate for Mauritius was only 4.2% and 7% for Botswana.

Figure 10: Comparative primary school dropout rate in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2008-2014



Source: UNDP (2015)

The household survey also estimated literacy rates¹⁴ in Rumphi and Mangochi districts. Table 6 shows that literacy rate was higher for males (61.2%) than females (51.5%). Between the 2 districts, Rumphi reported a higher literacy rate (79.2%) compared to Mangochi district (32.9%) which was consistent with the NSO findings of IHS III in 2010. Thus, despite efforts to introduce FPE over the last two decades, literacy rates remain stubbornly very low in Mangochi districts.

¹⁴ Literacy rate was defined as the ability to read or write in Chichewa and English.

Table 6: Literacy rates according to district and gender

Literacy rate	Rumphi (n = 190)	Mangochi (n = 205)	Total (n = 395)
Total	79.2	32.9	56.1
Gender			
Male	83.4	39.0	61.2
Female	74.9	28.1	51.5

Source: Research survey data (2016)

The household survey also assessed the learning environment in Rumphi and Mangochi districts. Overall, the results indicated that general toilets availability was sufficient for both boys and girls, as these are easy to construct with local resources such as bricks, sand, poles, grass, labour and finances from the community and students themselves (See Picture 8). However, in few rural based schools such as in Rumphi district, conditions of some toilets were deplorable, where students were using makeshift toilets (See Picture 9) which are unhealthy and unhygienic.



Picture 8: A proper toilet at Mhaju Primary School in Rumphi district in 2016.



Picture 9: A makeshift urinal at Mhaju Primary School in Rumphi district in 2016.

The household survey results also revealed that almost all the sampled schools in Mangochi and Rumphi districts did not have a special needs teacher regardless of the level of education. The results showed that between 11% and 14% of the available toilets were disability friendly and between 47% and 56% of the toilets were girl friendly. Some schools have made attempts to ensure infrastructure in schools is friendly to students with disabilities by perambulating the learning area and hostels. The survey results also showed that most schools, particularly those in rural areas, have no electricity.

3.2.3 Secondary education

During the colonial period, post-primary curriculum placed more emphasis on elementary vocational skills which were thought to be ‘*practical*’ for the ‘*native*’ population – smithery, carpentry and a few simple rules of crop production (Heyneman, 1980).

During Dr. Kamuzu Banda’s regime, secondary schools had different classification which determined the quantity and quality of resources allocated to them. These were National Secondary Schools, District Boarding Secondary Schools, District Day Secondary Schools and MCDE. The national secondary schools were more resourced than the others in terms of

qualified teachers, teaching and learning materials and funding. The best performing students at PSLCE were selected into the national secondary schools and the selection followed the same trend for boarding, day and distance education. Thus, the best students were selected to the best resourced secondary schools and vice versa. Due to limited space for secondary education, there was a significant increase in students joining the poorly resourced MCDEs between 1964 and 1994 with about 48% of the students enrolled in MCDEs in 1994 (MoEST EMIS, 2007).

During Dr. Muluzi’s regime, all DEC’s were merged into CDSSs which resulted in increased access to secondary education but compromised quality of learning. For instance in 2000, the MSCE pass rate for those who sat for the examinations was only 8% for boys and 10% for girls yet, 72% of all secondary school students were enrolled in CDSSs (Table 7). Despite this higher enrolment rate in CDSSs, about 86% of the teachers were unqualified in 2000 and this worsened to 93% in 2002 yet the CDSSs enrolled 67% of all secondary school students in that year.

Table 7: Percent MSCE pass rate, unqualified teachers and student enrolment by type of secondary school, 2000 and 2002

Type of secondary:	MSCE pass rate (2000)		Unqualified teachers (2000)	Unqualified teachers (2002)	Total student enrolment (2002)
	Boys	Girls			
Govt. Day	32%	38%	14%	16%	7%
Govt. Boarding	34%	39%	8%	15%	10%
Grant Aided	52%	58%	12%	12%	5%
CDSS	8%	10%	86%	93%	67%
Private	35%	43%	22%	49%	10%
Night	12%	15%	51%	100%	<1%

Source: MoEST, EMIS (2000, 2002)

During Bingu’s regime, there were efforts to improve the number of trained teachers in CDSSs which reached 45% in 2012. However, student repetitions were conspicuously higher in examination classes of Form 2 and Form 4 between 2008 and 2012, accounting for 36% in Form 2 and 43% in Form 4 of all repeaters while student dropout rate was notoriously high in 2012 for both boys and girls especially in Forms 1 and 2 accounting for 33% in Form 1 and 31% in Form 2 of all dropouts (MoEST EMIS, 2014). Repetitions and dropouts were particularly higher for girls in Form 2.

In most schools, there is shortage of classrooms (leading to congestion as a class of capacity of 40 holds up to 70 learners), shortage of space in hostels, inadequate furniture (chairs, desks, etc) inadequate teachers’ houses, insufficient equipment and materials in the laboratory, and shortage of books in school libraries.¹⁵ The geographical distribution of schools also hinders access as learners who walk long distances, particularly girls, absent from school during some days, or simply drop out. In addition, household responsibilities and other cultural practices do affect learners’ attendance to school especially girls. According to MoEST EMIS (2014), out of the 17,608 learners who dropped out of secondary education in 2014, about 59.4% were girls.

Furthermore, there are serious motivational issues on the part of teachers, which affect their commitment and approach to work. This emanates from aspects such as mundane delayed

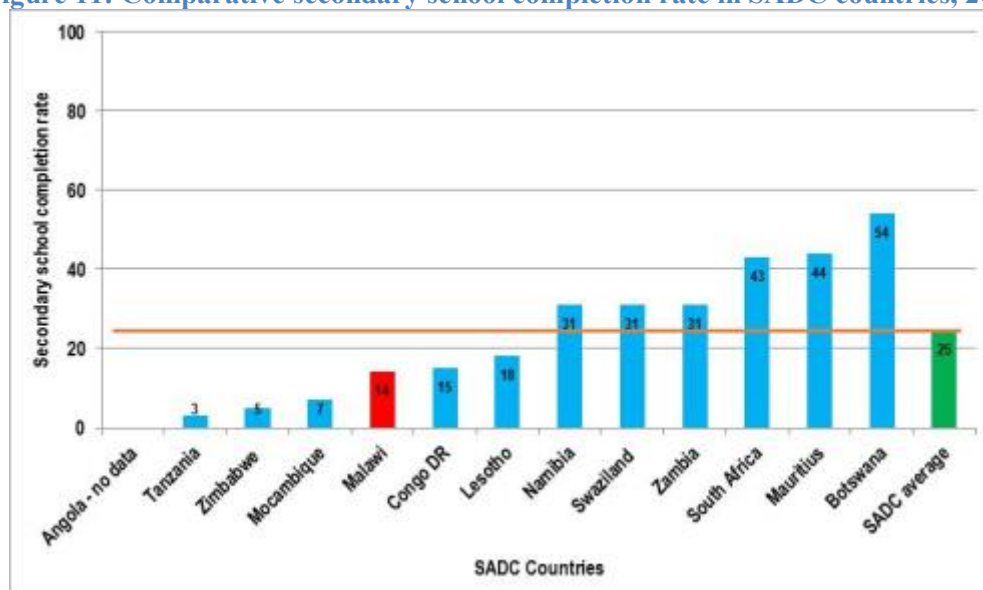
¹⁵ Key Informant Interviews, Rumphu and Mangochi, March, 2016.

monthly salaries, delayed leave grants, lack of promotion¹⁶, increased workload due to high learner to teacher ratio, and some teachers' laissez faire attitude and commitments to personal undertakings.¹⁷ Time limitation for night stream students also affects learning as students are only coached for 2 hours, instead of the normal 6-8 hours. Government announced that it will hire 477 additional secondary school teachers in the 2016/17 national budget to ease the inadequacy of teachers in secondary schools.

With regard to performance during national examinations, the results in the recent past have not been that pleasant. The outcomes give an indication of the low quality of education in the schools. The results show that between 30% and 40% of learners fail the JCE examinations. This is a significant figure, which in itself unravels the kind of quality of education given to students in Malawi. Similarly, results at MSCE level show that on average about 50% of learners who take the exams fail. This kind of performance in national examinations points to serious shortcomings that exist in secondary education in Malawi.

Within SADC region, Malawi had a lower than SADC average on secondary school completion rate in 2009. Completion rate was only 14% in Malawi compared to an average of 25% in SADC with Botswana recording the highest completion rate of 54% while Tanzania recorded the lowest completion rate of 3% (Figure 11).

Figure 11: Comparative secondary school completion rate in SADC countries, 2009



Source: World Bank (2010)

¹⁶ Some teachers remain on the same position for more than 10 years, even if they acquire further qualification.

¹⁷ Key Informant Interviews, Rumphu and Mangochi, March, 2016.

3.2.4 Primary school teacher training

While the number of TTCs¹⁸ increased in 2012, resulting in 12,833 teacher trainees enrolled, 51% of these were under ODL, an increase from 27% recorded in 2011 suggesting that more teacher trainees underwent ODL.

The average number of students per teacher in TTCs in 2012 was 50 but Kasungu TTC and St. Joseph TTC had below this average suggesting room to increase the intake. About 63% of the students enrolled at Blantyre TTC were under ODL, 59% for Kasungu TTC and 57% for Machinga TTC. Lilongwe TTC, St. Joseph, Amalika, Dowa-DAPP, Emanuel, Chilangoma and Maryam Girls TTCs did not enroll students under ODL in 2011 and 2012 (MoEST EMIS, 2013). This shows that ODL can be expanded if the quality assurance system is strengthened.

In the recently announced 2016/17 national budget, government has made a commitment to recruit 10,500 primary school teachers who already completed their teacher training education but could not be employed due to lack of funding. This is likely to reduce the pupils to teacher ratio in primary schools.

3.2.5 Technical education

Technical education started to be given attention after independence by Dr. Kamuzu Banda. He opened the Malawi Young Pioneer (MYP) bases to offer technical skills in agriculture, wood work, metal work, home economics, rudiments of crafts and technology (Chiwoko, 2010). However, over the years, the MYP bases became paramilitary wing of the ruling MCP.

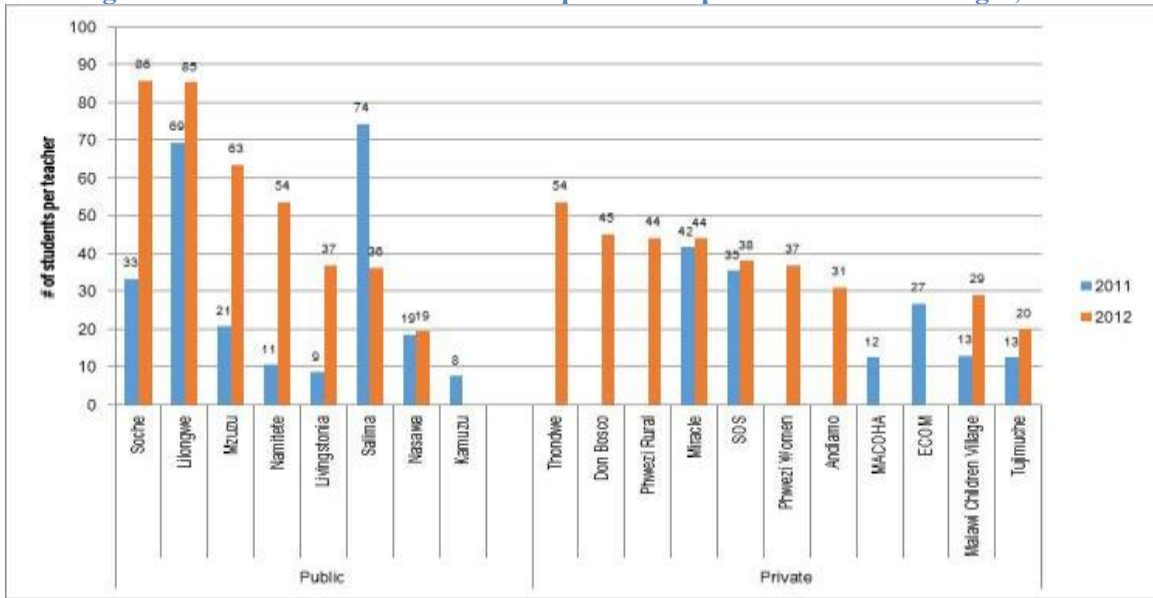
At the onset of multiparty, Dr. Muluzi abolished the MYP bases with the aim of demilitarizing them and did not pay much attention to technical education although the TEVETA Act was enacted during his regime. It was during President Bingu wa Mutharika that technical education started being given attention. At the end of Bingu's regime in 2012, 76% of the students in technical college were in public colleges and 24% were in private colleges.

Figure 12 shows that the number of students per teacher was higher in public than private colleges in 2012 with an average of 54 students per teacher in public colleges compared to 38 students per teacher in private colleges. This was an increase from 30 and 24 recorded in public and private technical colleges in 2011, respectively. However, Livingstonia, Salima and Nasawa colleges had below the public college average ratio while Phwezi Women, Andiamo, Malawi Children Village and Tujimuche had below the private college average ratio in 2012 suggesting scope for expansion.

Lack of harmonization of different certificates by TEVETA, MANEB, Trade Test and City and Guilds affects employment and future upgrading opportunities in other higher institutions of learning for the technical college graduates.

¹⁸ Registered TTC in 2011 included: Public - Lilongwe, Machinga, Kasungu, Blantyre, Karonga; Private - St. Joseph, Amalika, Dowa-DAPP, Emanuel, Chilangoma, Maryam Girls.

Figure 12: Student to teacher ratios in public and private technical colleges, 2012



Source: MoEST, EMIS (2012)

3.2.6 University education

Computation from available EMIS (2007) data for the period 1999 to 2004 indicated that although enrollment for university education increased at an average rate of 4.2% for males and 6.9% for females, the average number of students graduating declined by -2.6% for males and -4.1% for females. About 6% of the students enrolled in 2011 dropped out of higher education for various reasons but the major one was on academic grounds which affected 48% of the female and 45% of the male students. Recent reports in 2016 from LUANAR indicated that about 50% of the students withdrew due to financial related challenges.

With the increasing involvement of the private sector in the provision of higher education, the Bingu regime instituted the National Council for Higher Education to regulate quality of education in institutions of higher learning. NCHE is now responsible for implementing the quota (equity) system of selecting students into public universities which does not take into account the institutionalized disparities within the secondary schools in Malawi.

3.3 Equity

3.3.1 *Early childhood development education*

President Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika's regime championed the formulation of ECD Policy in 2006 to, among other things, ensure that children development affairs articulated in the MGDS and MDGs were addressed including Education for All, reduction of infant mortality, and implementation of the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the AU Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child. The Policy therefore ensured that even vulnerable and orphaned children have access to ECD services.

Currently, ECD centres are found in both rural and urban areas which has increased availability and access but quality of the facilities and learning materials is poor in rural areas. The provision of free porridge and availability of learning and playing facilities and materials has also increased access although most ECD centres in rural areas are unable to sustain the provision of porridge. As a result, access for girls to ECD centres in 2015 was equal to that of boys at 50% (MoGCDSW, 2015). In addition, about 22% of all the children enrolled in ECD centres in 2016 were OVCs.

However, the household survey revealed that it is still problematic for children with disabilities to access ECD services due to lack of facilities and materials that create conducive environment for such children to enroll and remain in school. In Rumphi district, most parents keep such children at home for fear that they may be injured at the ECD centres since very few centres have pavements that would ease movement of such kids and playing equipment and materials are not friendly to this group of children. Other parents do not send their children with disabilities simply because they are not aware that even such children deserve to attend school and can be productive in life in future. Further to this, the whole district of Rumphi does not have a single special needs teacher focusing on ECD services.

3.3.2 *Primary education*

The main actors in the education sector during the colonial period were Christian missionaries, and hence access to education in predominantly non-Christian areas was very limited. There were also very few females in the education system. The American based Phelps-Stokes Fund conducted a survey of education in Malawi in 1924 which called for greater efforts to educate females, expand primary education and improve teacher training.

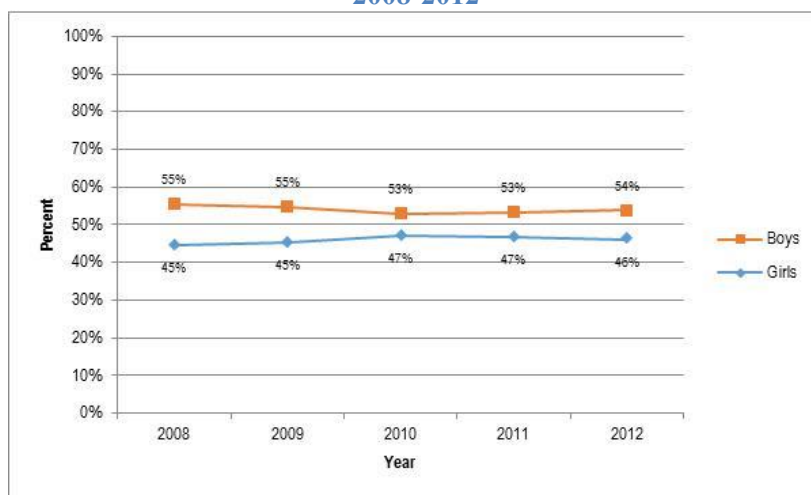
During the single party regime, the Government of Malawi (GoM) ratified the Convention on the Elimination of all forms of Discrimination Against Women and the Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1987 and 1991, respectively. Both Conventions primarily advocate the principle of equity. However, Sturges (1998) argued that access to education during Dr. Kamuzu Banda's regime was disproportionately available to males. Relatively fewer girls were enrolled for formal education in comparison with boys. Thus, despite deliberate efforts such as phased abolition of tuition fees for Standard 1 in 1991/2 and the introduction of school fees waiver for non-repeating girls in Standard 2 to 8 in 1992/3 through EFA and GABLE initiatives, the proportion of girls

was still below that of boys. The regime failed to achieve equity in primary education given that women made up 51% of the population (NSO, 1999).

Primary education enrolment continued to favour boys than girls during the UDF regime. It was until 2004, when there were signs of closing the gender gap, as enrolment was almost 50% to 50% for boys and girls. During the UDF regime, there were attempts to provide primary education to special needs students such as those with hearing difficulties, physical disabilities and visual impairment. Special attention was also paid to the primary education of orphans and other vulnerable children.

During Bingu’s regime, enrolment of girls in primary school had an upward trend although it was still below that of boys (Figure 13). The average growth rate in enrolment between 2008 and 2012 was 2.2% for girls and 1.5% for boys.

Figure 13: Trend in boys and girls enrolment in primary education, 2008-2012



Source: MoEST, EMIS (2014)

President Joyce Banda’s regime though short (2-year rule) emphasized on girls’ education both in public and private spheres. During President Joyce Banda’s regime, the MoEST launched the National Girls Education Strategy and the National Girls Communication Strategy. This was an effort to highlight the importance of keeping girls in school and reversing the increasing trend of so many girls dropping out of school due to early marriages and pregnancies.

Gender parity in primary education is achieved in Standard 1 to 4 and girls start dropping out from Standard 5 due to early marriages and pregnancies. There are quite a number of initiatives that have been implemented in Malawi to keep girls in school. For instance, Save the Children, with funding from the UK Department for International Development is implementing a programme that gives £7 per term to girls in Standard 7 and 8 in selected schools to keep them in school and enable them to meet the indirect costs of schooling. Initiatives by FAWEMA of aiding girls’ education from primary to tertiary education have also contributed to girls’ equity in education.

The household survey also estimated the GER, NER and Gender Parity Index (GPI) in primary schools in Rumphi and Mangochi districts. Table 8 shows the GER and NER for the *de facto* household population by sex in primary schools.

Table 8: GER, NER and GPI for boys and girls in Rumphi and Mangochi primary schools, 2016

District	Gross Enrolment Ratio			Gender Parity Index	Net Enrolment Ratio			Gender Parity Index
	Boys	Girls	Total		Boys	Girls	Total	
Rumphi	130.5	121.5	126.3	0.93	99.5	100.0	99.7	1.01
Mangochi	66.8	71.6	69.1	1.07	90.4	99.6	94.8	1.10

Source: Research survey data (2016)

The GER was higher for males than for females in Rumphi district and *vice versa* in Mangochi district. This might indicate that there were more underage or overage male students attending primary school as compared with female students in Rumphi district while the opposite could be true for Mangochi district. The NER was slightly higher for female than for male children in both districts. A GPI¹⁹ that is less than one indicates a gender disparity in favour of males (i.e. a higher proportion of males than females attends that level of schooling). A GPI that exceeds one indicates a gender disparity in favour of females. A GPI of one indicates parity or equality between the rates of participation for males and females. The results in Table 8 show that overall, both NER and GER show a GPI that was in favour of girls.

The household survey also endeavored to establish school attendance by male and female children.

Table 9: Proportion ever and never attended school and reasons for not attending, district and gender, 2016

School attendance	Rumphi (n = 190)		Mangochi (n = 205)		Total (n = 395)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
% ever attended school	73.9	70.2	45.8	59.3	60.9	65.3
% never attended school	26.1	29.9	54.2	40.7	39.1	34.7
Reasons for not attending						
Still too young to attend school	53.2	33.0	14.0	13.3	15.4	13.9
No money for fees/uniform	20.6	32.9	11.8	22.2	12.2	22.5
Poor quality of school	0.0	4.1	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.3
Illness or disability	8.5	1.0	0.6	0.1	0.9	0.2
Not interested/lazy	1.6	4.9	35.9	19.8	34.6	19.4
Parents didn't let me in	11.3	17.5	30.0	33.3	29.3	32.9
Had to work or help at home	4.8	6.7	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.2
School too far from home	0.0	0.0	3.3	5.7	3.2	5.6
School conflict with beliefs	0.0	0.0	2.5	3.4	2.4	3.3

Source: Research survey data (2016)

¹⁹ The GPI assesses sex-related differences in school attendance rates and is calculated by dividing the GER for females by the GER for males.

Table 9 indicates that 65% of the females in the survey population had attended school and 35% had never attended school while 61% of the males had attended school and 39% had never attended school in Rumphi and Mangochi districts. About 33% of the parents did not allow their wards to attend school, 22% lacked money for fees and uniform, 19% were not interested in school and 14% were considered too young to attend school. Poor quality of schools, illness and disability were least cited reasons though were higher in Rumphi than Mangochi district. The finding in Mangochi district showed that the learning environment allowed persons with disability and orphans to attend school together with other students, an indication that efforts to make schools disability friendly were bearing fruits in the district.

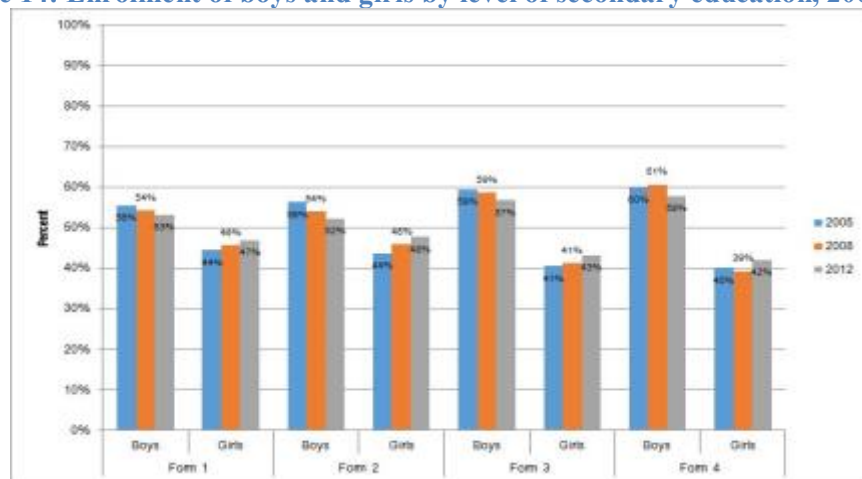
3.3.3 Secondary education

Studies indicate that secondary education was highly unequal particularly affecting children from poor families and girls during the single party regime. Research evidence shows that parents of girls attending secondary school education were better educated and were of a higher socio-economic status than parents of boys (Hyde, 1993; Chimombo, 1999).

This trend continued during Dr. Muluzi’s regime in the multiparty era. In 2004, enrolment in secondary education was 57% for boys and 43% for girls and these disparities were also reflected at each successive level of secondary education and were more pronounced at senior secondary level. However, the government made efforts to increase enrollment of students with special needs in secondary education which reached 2,462 in 2004 with 47.5% of them being females and also enrollment of orphaned children which reached 31,350 in 2004 with 46.9% being females.

Equity to secondary education for girls improved between 2005 and 2012 during Bingu’s regime although access for boys was still higher than that of girls (Figure 14). The enrolment rate for girls grew by an average of 0.6% while that of boys declined by an average of -0.5%. Access to secondary education by special needs students and orphans also increased during Bingu’s regime.

Figure 14: Enrolment of boys and girls by level of secondary education, 2005-2012



Source: MoEST, EMIS (2005, 2008, 2012)

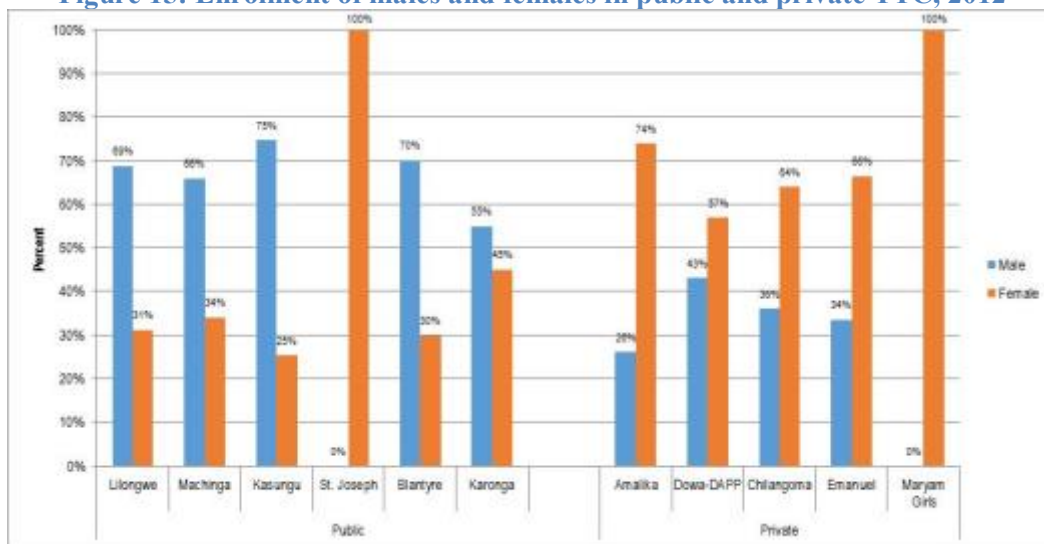
According to MoEST EMIS data (2015), out of the total 358,033 students' enrolment in both public and private secondary schools, 167,417 were girls, which represented about 46.7%. In case of students with disabilities and other vulnerabilities, much effort has been made and there is awareness of the need to advance access and equity to education, although gaps exist at the moment. The mainstream schools are not fully disability friendly for students with disabilities.

Equity is still affected by long distances between secondary schools especially for students who are on ODL and most of the secondary schools lack boarding facilities. This affects girls as they fail to cope up walking long distances when they also have to perform multiple household responsibilities at home than their male counterparts.

3.3.4 Primary school teacher training

During the single party regime, enrolment in TTCs favoured males than females. However, after multiparty and the participation of private TTCs, the trend has changed. In 2012, the private TTCs enrolled more females than the public TTCs except St. Joseph which is a grant aided College (Figure 15).

Figure 15: Enrolment of males and females in public and private TTC, 2012

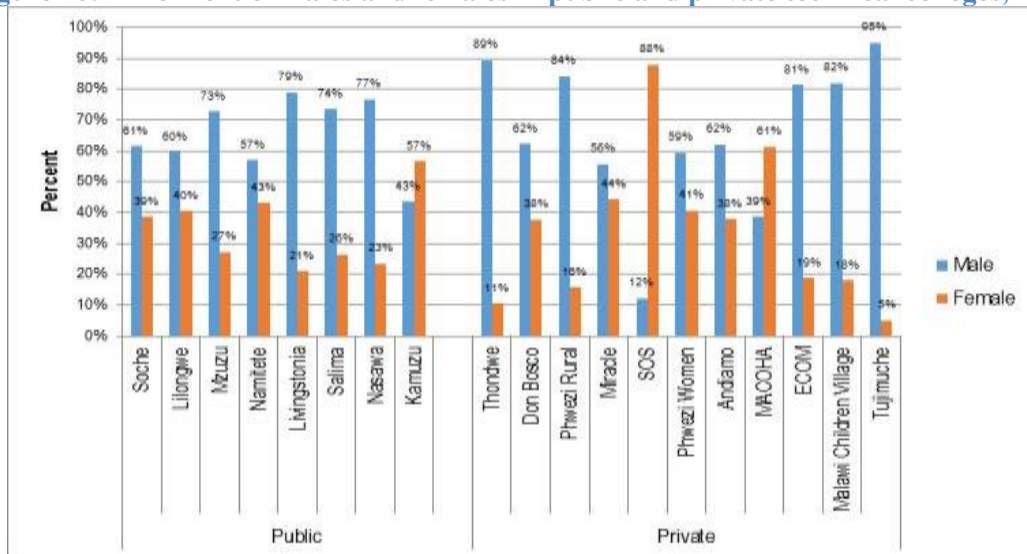


Source: MoEST, EMIS (2012)

3.3.5 Technical education

There hasn't been any change to male dominance in technical education even after two decades of multiparty democracy. The pre-multiparty stereotypes that technical fields such as carpentry, brick laying, mechanical, electrical, smithery are male domain continue to manifest to-date. In 2012, technical colleges favoured males than females except Kamuzu Vocational College in the public sector and Malawi Council for the Handicapped (MACOHA) in the private sector. Livingstonia, Salima, Nasawa and Mzuzu technical colleges had below 30% of female students while Tujimuche, Thondwe, Mpwezi Rural, Malawi Children Village and ECOM had less than 20% of female students (Figure 16).

Figure 16: Enrolment of males and females in public and private technical colleges, 2012



Source: MoEST, EMIS (2012)

Initially, the intake has been 30 girls to 70 boys but government now focuses on achieving 50:50 ratio although females usually do not apply into male dominated programmes. TEVETA now provides full scholarships to girls to encourage them enroll in the so called male dominated programmes. Primary school dropouts and those without MSCE are unable to enroll in technical education in Malawi.

3.3.6 University education

Sturges (1998) reported that during the single party regime, only 0.3% of the eligible candidates from secondary schools were enrolled in university education and less than 20% was female. No wonder, there was female oversubscription in adult literacy courses, estimated at 90% in 1994. However, as early as 1980, there were Women in Development movements which started influencing research and planning in the education sector. These efforts were given weight by such international conferences like the Beijing Conference and the efforts from Ministry of Gender which started advocating for equal opportunities for girls and women (Ngwira, 2010). Alongside these efforts were the interventions by various CSOs like GABLE, FAWEMA and others which championed and supported girls in their education.

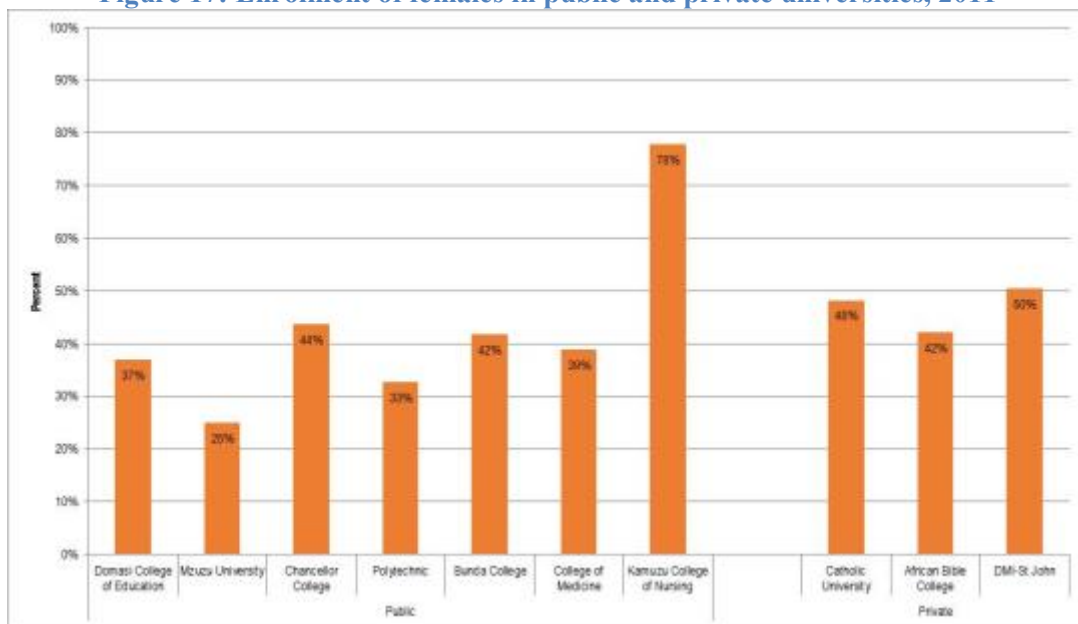
During the UDF regime, enrolment of female students in university education improved from 25% in 1994 to 31% in 2004. Several policy and affirmative actions were made to improve equity, and over the years, UNIMA made a policy that a minimum of 35% of those enrolled should be female.

During Bingu's regime, a policy on equitable access to tertiary education was adopted. The policy looks at ensuring gender equity and equitable access to public universities amongst the diverse tribes in the country. The policy uses a quota system where entry into the university is based on district of origin and merit. Each district is therefore granted at least 10 places in public universities every year before the remaining places are filled based on merit. This system of selecting students to the country's public universities was hatched during the one party state in

the 1970's, partly abandoned in 1994 and then re-introduced in around 2008. The quota system however, does not take into account the disparities in types of secondary schools within the districts such as national, conventional, district and CDSSs, thereby disadvantaging students who enroll in CDSSs which are poorly resourced. Paradoxically, most of the students from poor and rural areas enroll in CDSSs.

As a result, overall female enrolment in public universities reached 38% in 2011 while it was 47% in private universities. Kamuzu College of Nursing had 78% female enrolment, MZUNI had 25%, Polytechnic had 33% and Domasi College of Education had 37% (Figure 17). During the 2016/2017 academic year selection by NCHE, UNIMA admitted 2,085 students of which 48% was female while MUST had admitted 458 students of which only 26% was female.

Figure 17: Enrolment of females in public and private universities, 2011



Source: MoEST, EMIS (2012)

3.4 Finance

During the colonial period, education financing was mainly from collections of school fees and voluntary donations from local and international well-wishers. The Advisory Committee on education controlled education expenditure at local education authority. The Education Act (1962) stopped education grants and subvention to voluntary organisations and promoted self-help as a tool for primary school construction (Kamlongera, 2012).

During Dr. Kamuzu Banda's era, Government ensured that the education sector was one of the priority sectors in terms of public expenditure alongside health and agriculture. The share of GDP devoted to public expenditure on education rose from 3.8% in 1990/1 to about 6% in 1993/4. Education recurrent budget expenditure was about 22% of total government recurrent expenditures in 1993/4 and represented 55% of the total education budget. Of this, over 50% was spent on primary education.

Due to the implementation of the FPE policy, the UDF Government ensured that the education sector continued to receive the largest proportion of the national budget than any other ministry. Between 2001 and 2004, average total government budget was US\$498 million per year, of which an average of 21% was allocated to the education sector (Table 10). During this period, total education budget averaged US\$105 million of which an average of 60% was allocated to Other Recurrent Transaction (ORT) and 28% was allocated to development/capital expenditure.

In the subsequent multiparty regimes, budgetary allocation to the education sector did not match up to the UDF regime allocations. Out of an average of US\$923 million of the total national budget between 2005 and 2008, an average of 16% was allocated to the education sector; out of an average of US\$1.74 billion between 2009 and 2012, an average of 15% was allocated to the education sector; of the US\$1.48 billion in 2013, 19% was allocated to the education sector and of the US\$1.55 billion in 2014 of the national budget, 17% was allocated to the education sector. In essence, budgetary allocation to education sector as a proportion of GDP steadily increased from 2.1% of GDP between 2009 and 2012; 2.3% of GDP in 2013 and 2.5% of GDP in 2014 (Table 10).

Table 10: Average budgetary allocation in percentage, 2001-2014

Description of budget item	Average Percentage				
	2001-2004	2005-2008	2009-2012	2013	2014
% Education budget to total Government budget	21%	16%	15%	19%	17%
% Education budget allocated to ORT	60%	55%	60%	58%	54%
% Education budget allocated to Development	28%	20%	13%	15%	17%
% Education ORT budget to total Govt. ORT budget	20%	13%	12%	14%	13%
% Education development budget to total Govt. dev. budget	16%	10%	7%	15%	11%
% Education budget to GDP			2.1%	2.3%	2.5%

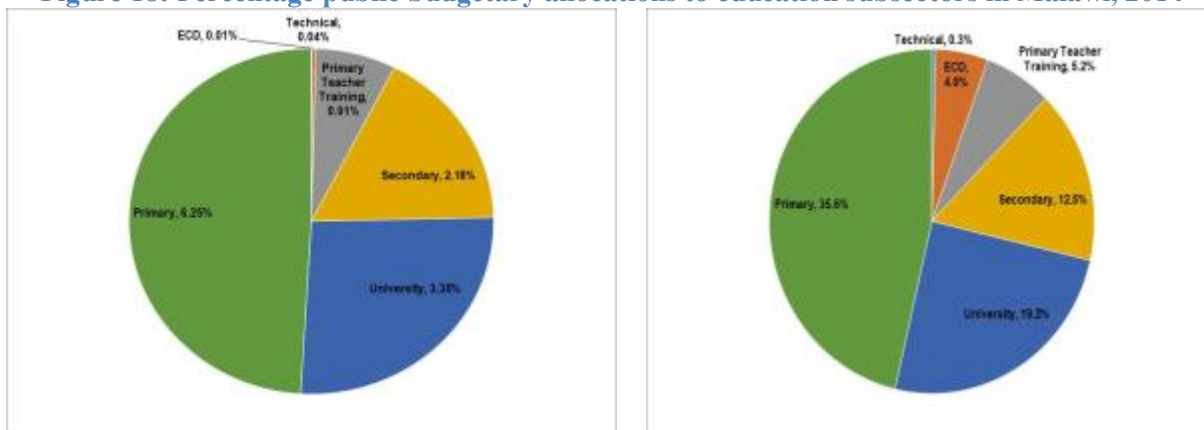
Source: Author calculation based on MoEST, EMIS data

The new EFA goals after 2015 set a target for countries to allocate at least 6% of Gross National Product (GNP) to education or 9% of GDP and at least 20% of total Government expenditure on education (UNESCO, 2014). Evidence in Table 10 shows that Malawi failed to meet this requirement since 2005 when the proportion of total government expenditure to education expenditure was less than 20%.

Although total government ORT budget averaged US\$308 million between 2001 and 2004, US\$612 million during 2005-2008 period, US\$1.3 billion between 2009-2012 period and US\$1.2 billion in 2013 and US\$1.1 billion in 2014, both ORT and development budget allocations to the education sector from 2005 to 2014 were below the level achieved between 2001 and 2004. Likewise, the average proportion of total education budget allocated to ORT and development within the education sector were below the levels achieved during 2001-2004 period. This shows that subsequent governments after UDF regime shifted priorities towards sectors other than education. Magalasi (2010) found out that the Ministry of Education was the second most funded sector in the National Budget from Ministry of Agriculture between 2004 and 2010. Actually, average development budget for education between 2009 and 2012 was in single digit (7%) and the lowest than any other period since 2001 (Table 10).

In 2014, the allocation to ECD education was only 0.01% of the total national budget, 6.25% for primary education, 3.35% for university education, 2.18% for secondary education, 0.91% for primary teacher training and 0.04% for technical education (Figure 18). Within the education sector budget, allocation to primary education in 2014 was 35.6% of the total education budget, university education was 19.2%, secondary education was 12.5%, primary teacher training was 5.2%, ECD education was 4% and technical education was 0.3%. Relatively, a higher proportion of financial resources was allocated to university education than secondary, primary teacher training, technical and ECD education.

Figure 18: Percentage public budgetary allocations to education subsectors in Malawi, 2014



% national budget allocation to education subsectors

% education budget allocation to subsectors

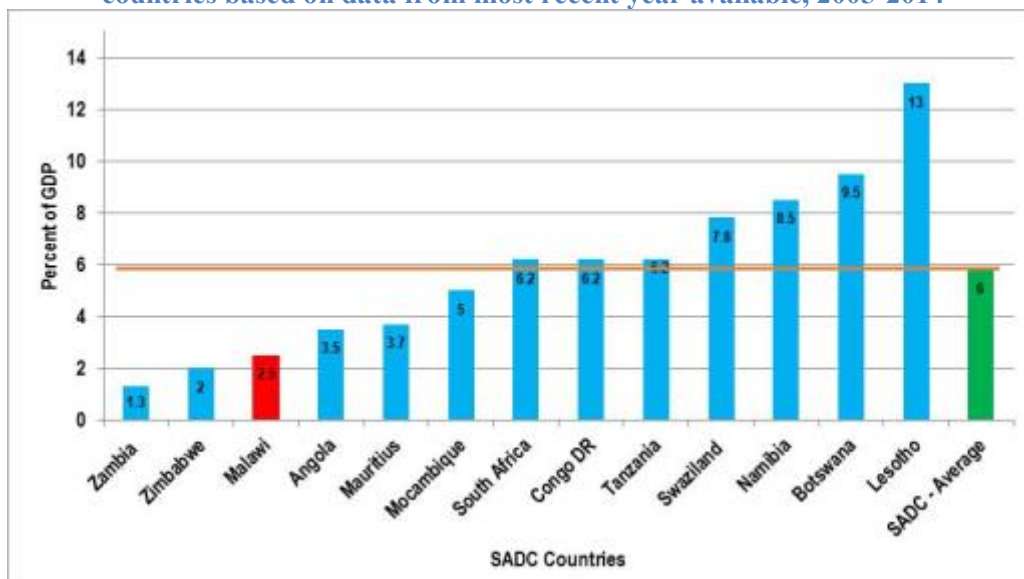
Source: MoEST EMIS (2015)

The government announced the 2016/17 national budget of US\$1.7 billion in June, 2016 of which 12.4% (US\$210.8 million) has been allocated to the education sector; lower than agriculture (16.5%) but higher than health (8%) (GoM, 2016). Thus, the proportion of 2016/17

national budget allocated to education sector is lower than of 2014/15 budget which was 17%. This should be cause for grave concern in the interest of SDGs on education.

Comparative public expenditure on education based on data from most recent year available in SADC countries shows that Malawi’s public expenditure on education of 2.5% of GDP was below the average for SADC which was 6% of GDP (Figure 19). However, public expenditure on education as a proportion of GDP for Malawi was higher than that of Zambia (1.3%) and Zimbabwe (2%). In SADC region, only Lesotho and Botswana were able to meet the 9% GDP allocation to the education sector.

Figure 19: Comparative public expenditure on education as a percent of GDP in SADC countries based on data from most recent year available, 2005-2014



Source: UNDP (2015); MoEST EMIS (2015)

3.4.1 Early childhood development education

ECD is currently financed by the government of Malawi to a smaller extent while other partners including UNICEF, World Bank, USAID, Action Aid, Save the Children, among others, fund the largest share of ECD budget. For instance, during the 2014/2015 financial year, the total budget for ECD was MK1.2 billion (US\$2.9 million) of which only 4% (MK52.5 million – US\$127,427) was financed by the GoM with 41% coming from off-budget support to government from development partners and the local and international NGOs funding 55% of the budget (MoGCDSW, 2015). This indicates that out of the average spending for ECD services in 2014/15 of US\$2 per child, the GoM only contributed 9 cents per child.

The recently developed Harmonized IECD Implementation, Monitoring and Evaluation Strategy 2015-2020 by MoGCDSW with support from UNICEF estimates a financial resource requirement of MK73.3 billion (US\$178 million) over the next 5 years (2015-2020) with an average of MK14.7 billion (US\$35.7 million) per annum (Table 11). Government commitment in 2015/2016 financial year increased to MK519 million, which was still 4% of the total budget

for ECD services. Communities contribute materials like bricks, grass, wood and labour towards construction of ECD centers which ensures ownership of the ECD centers and programmes.

Table 11: Summary of Malawi IECD cost estimates, 2015-2020

Strategic area	Annual Costs (MK)					Total Cost (MK)
	2015/2016	2016/2017	2017/2018	2018/2019	2019/2020	
1. Coordination, Leadership and Management	540,612,500	863,862,500	609,062,500	601,762,500	601,762,500	3,217,062,500
2. Child care, survival and stimulation	7,441,339,000	7,464,539,000	7,365,539,000	7,365,539,000	7,365,539,000	37,002,495,000
3. Child protection services	1,631,200,000	1,801,200,000	1,661,200,000	1,661,200,000	1,661,200,000	8,416,000,000
4. ECD centres service delivery	1,828,720,000	1,642,830,000	1,857,430,000	1,635,530,000	1,635,530,000	8,600,040,000
5. Parenting education and support services	645,610,000	1,388,775,000	1,076,327,000	1,076,492,000	1,076,492,000	5,263,696,000
6. Transition services	280,750,000	708,050,000	92,050,000	92,200,000	106,900,000	1,279,950,000
7. Capacity Development	1,771,200,000	1,679,000,000	1,710,000,000	1,694,000,000	1,702,000,000	8,556,200,000
8. Research, monitoring and evaluation	107,600,000	145,600,000	123,200,000	119,600,000	106,600,000	602,600,000
9. Resource mobilization	74,760,000	81,560,000	84,560,000	82,760,000	84,560,000	408,200,000
TOTALS (MK)	14,321,791,500	15,775,416,500	14,579,368,500	14,329,083,500	14,340,583,500	73,346,243,500
US\$ (2014)	34,761,630	38,289,846	35,386,817	34,779,329	34,807,242	178,024,863

Source: MoGCDSW (2015)

During the 2016 household survey conducted in Rumphi and Mangochi districts, the household contribution to ECD services was estimated at US\$9.2 per child (Table 12).

Key informants indicated that funding to ECD services at district level is a problem because it doesn't come through the Local Government Finance Committee. As such, funding comes directly from the MoGCDSW Headquarters through a cheque. Sometimes, Members of Parliament (MPs) collect the cheque with no accountability mechanisms unlike if the funds were to come through the Local Assembly. In addition, CSOs that work on ECD services in the districts lack transparency on what they received for ECD work. They don't disclose their budgets to the District Social Welfare Officers.

3.4.2 Primary education

During the multiparty era, primary education continued to be given priority in terms of budget allocation, taking an average of 31% of the total education budget between 2001 and 2014. The unit budgetary allocation per learner²⁰ also increased from an average of US\$7 per pupil between 2001 and 2004 to US\$10 per pupil between 2005 and 2008, to US\$35 per pupil between 2009 and 2012 and to US\$23 per pupil in 2014 (Table 12). The highest average unit budgetary

²⁰ Includes ORT, learning and teaching materials, rehabilitation and personal emoluments for primary school teachers.

allocation per learner was in 2009-2012 period while the lowest average unit allocation per learner was in 2001-2004 period.

Table 12: Average unit budget allocation per learner (US\$), 2001 – 2016

Level of education	Average unit budget per learner (US\$)			2013	2014	Households (2016)**
	2001-2004	2005-2008	2009-2012			
ECD	na	0.5*	na	na	2.1	9.2
Adult literacy	na	3.3*	na	na	na	na
Primary	7	10	35	26	23	18.8
Secondary	51	81	189	152	130	160.4
Primary teacher training	na	601	876	na	675	na
Technical	na	653*	358	na	na	377.4
University	3,184	4,215	5,711	4,947	3,488	1,090

na = not available; Source: Author calculations from MoEST EMIS data; *CSR Report (2008) for ORT; **2016 household survey results.

School fund contribution is about MK400 to MK500 (US\$0.97 to US\$1.21) per student per year in many schools, which is paid once a year. SMCs indicated that this is not enough to meet the schools' needs. The money also keeps on losing value due to high inflation which the country continuously experiences. It is also not easy to access the School Improvement Grant established by government through the local development councils due to conditionalities and a lot of paper work. Some households fail to make financial contributions when requested, which then affects progress of children in schools. For instance, if parents fail to pay money for printing examination papers (MK400 per pupil per term in Mangochi district in 2016), the children will not be allowed to write exams and as such, they repeat the class.

It has been stated that parents and communities have participated in the construction of about 75% of the country's schools and that most school's maintenance is officially their responsibility (Younis and Friis, 2001). UNESCO (2014) argued that because total primary education expenditure in Malawi shows that households are contributing 16%, the level of education is not totally free. Social Cash Transfer Programme has been recognized as one of the initiatives through which communities and households access cash-for-work, part of which is meant to be spent on food and sending children to school. In 2016, the household survey results for Rumphu and Mangochi districts showed that households were spending about US\$19 per child for primary education (Table 12) of which 23% covered school uniform, 16% for extra lessons, 12% for school books and textbooks and 11% for tuition.

3.4.3 Secondary education

Since independence, secondary education has never been made free although the successive governments have introduced school fees waivers for girls in secondary schools as part of the EFA reforms. School fees continue to pose a huge burden to most poor families to send their children to secondary schools in Malawi.

Households continue to pay for secondary education and communities do contribute materials for school development projects especially in CDSSs. Parents pay for tuition and school revolving fund, buying school uniforms and learning materials (exercise books, pens, etc) and transport. In Conventional Secondary Schools, for example, parents pay up to MK39,000.00 (US \$57) in

school fees, which includes tuition, text book revolving fund, food and accommodation.²¹ UNESCO (2014) reported that households cover 32% of the cost of lower levels of secondary education. In 2016, the household survey for this study found that households were spending US\$160 per student in secondary education (Table 12); with 48% spent on ICT gadgets, 20% on tuition and 12% on boarding fees.

Since the global appeal for EFA in the 1990s and the MDGs in the 2000s and the campaigns by the CSOs, there has been commitment by successive governments to increase funding to the education sector to adhere to several international commitments. Successive governments during the multiparty period allocated an average of 12% of the education budget to secondary education²² between 2001 and 2014. Consequently, average unit budget allocation per secondary school student has increased from US\$51 per student during 2001-2004 period, reaching a high of US\$189 per student during 2009-2012 period before going down to US\$130 per student in 2014 (Table 12).

3.4.4 Primary school teacher training

Government funding during the multiparty regime to teacher training²³ averaged 2% of the total funding to the education sector between 2001 and 2014. Unit budgetary allocation per teacher trainee averaged US\$601 per trainee between 2005 and 2008, increased to an average of US\$876 per trainee between 2009 and 2012 and was US\$675 per trainee in 2014 (Table 12).

3.4.5 Technical education

Funding to technical education averaged less than 1% of the total education budget between 2001 and 2014. Currently, sponsored students contribute MK30,000 (US\$45) per year for boarding and TEVETA has the responsibility of financing the difference in student fees which vary from college to college to buy training materials. Funding from TEVETA to the colleges is often delayed. With high inflation, the colleges get affected when prices of commodities on the market go up. Fees payment by parents is also not stable due to pervasiveness of poverty in the country. Current household survey results in 2016 showed that households spend about US\$377 per student in technical education (Table 12), with 49% paying for tuition and 40% paying for boarding fees.

In 2007, the CSR Report (2008) estimated that unit cost for ORT per student in technical colleges was US\$653 per student, which was very high. The overall unit cost per student however averaged US\$358 between 2009 and 2012. Currently, government sponsored students only pay US\$45 suggesting that government subsidizes over 85% of the cost per student.

²¹ Key Informant Interview, Rumphi Secondary School, March, 2016.

²² This covered ORT, teaching and learning materials, rehabilitation, bursaries and cash transfers and personal emoluments.

²³ This covered funding to public primary teacher training colleges for ORT, teaching and learning materials, rehabilitation, cash transfers and personal emoluments.

3.4.6 University education

During the single party regime, university financing was one of the factors that had positively impacted on access to tertiary education. From the establishment of UNIMA in 1964 up until 1985, government subvention to the public university catered for all costs and students were not required to pay a single penny. In fact, university students were paid allowances for their upkeep besides studying for free. Only foreign students were paying. The university would even spend above its budget line and government would underwrite the over expenditure. Government was committed in supporting university education and that commitment, among other things, ensured that UNIMA was well resourced.

After multiparty democracy, the GoM engaged MIM to review the financing structure of university education in Malawi so as to increase access after the adoption of FPE which increased the number of students in secondary schools and hence demand for tertiary education. The MIM Report of 1995 noted that government subvention to public universities rose substantially between 1988 and 1995 without corresponding increase in student intake. The report recommended adoption of cost sharing mechanisms and outsourcing of non-core services by UNIMA. From 1985, government introduced cost sharing mechanism where students were paying MK200.00 (US\$312) but was loan from government, and most of the students never repaid the loan. It was until last year that the Higher Education Students' Loans and Grants Board became effective and has since embarked on tracing all students that took loans for their education from 1985 to repay the loans now. The recent household survey in Rumphi and Mangochi districts showed that households spent US\$1,090 per university student in 2016 (Table 12) with 92% of the money paying for tuition.

The budget allocation to university education in Malawi is one of the highest compared to other subsectors of education even during the multiparty regime and the cost-sharing mechanisms adopted after the MIM Report. The allocation to university education between 2001 and 2014 averaged 20% of the total budget allocation to the education sector, which was only second to primary education allocation but above secondary (12%), teacher training (2%) and technical education (<1%). For instance, the average budget allocation per university student was US\$3,184/student between 2001 and 2004, increased to US\$5,711/student between 2009 and 2012 and US\$3,488/student in 2014 (Table 12). This shows that the university system in Malawi can still reduce the unit cost per student by increasing the marginal rate of student intake more than the marginal rate of budget increase, among other things.

CHAPTER FOUR: CURRENT CONSTRAINTS AND FINANCING FOR 2030 SDGs ON EDUCATION IN MALAWI

4.1 Current constraints in the education sector

4.1.1 *Macroeconomic environment*

The macroeconomic environment in Malawi remains turbulent as a result of withdraw of direct budgetary support by development partners. This was worsened by the recurrent floods and droughts which affected agricultural production; the mainstay of the economy and the major employer of more than 80% of the rural population. The country, therefore, faces a serious food deficit which was declared a national disaster in April, 2016. The current macroeconomic environment is associated with high inflation rate, unstable exchange rate and high bank interest rates. As a result, the private sector productivity is affected and GDP growth is subdued. These macroeconomic problems will affect budgetary allocation to the education sector at a time when it needs more resources.

Furthermore, under the International Monetary Fund monitored Extended Credit Facility Programme, the Government has been advised, among other things, to freeze hiring of additional civil servants because the wage bill is currently unsustainable and is believed to be bloated by ghost workers, more especially in the education sector. This makes the programme to be off-track and the GoM has committed to ensure that the IMF monitored programme is on track in order to unlock direct budgetary support that has been withdrawn by the development partners. In the 2016/2017 fiscal year, the GoM has appealed to IMF to be allowed to only hire critical staff and these include teachers, nurses and security personnel. This, therefore, implies that recruitment of additional teachers in the education sector cannot be done based on the specific needs of the sector alone but also in conformity with the IMF monitored programme. This has resulted, in most cases, in failure by government to recruit teachers²⁴ immediately after graduating yet the government subsidized their training.

Currently, Malawi spends 2.5% of GDP and 17% of the total national budget on education which is below the recommended threshold for EFA goals. With the withdrawal of direct budgetary support from development partners and the food deficit that will have recurring negative repercussions on the economy, the country is likely to have difficulties financing the SDGs on education of providing every child with access to free primary and secondary education by 2030. Already, the recently announced 2016/2017 national budget has a reduced allocation to the education sector from 17% to 12% of the total national budget. Without improving the macroeconomic conditions, Malawi will continue to be one of the SADC countries that has a low proportion of GDP allocated to the education sector.

4.1.2 *Household perceptions on performance of education*

Households are also concerned with the performance of the education sector. The results of the household survey from Rumphu and Mangochi districts showed that the majority of households felt that the multiparty era resulted in worse expenditure on education (71.3%), poor discipline of

²⁴ and of late, Medical Doctors and Nurses.

teachers in public schools (67.3%), poor quality of teachers in public schools (63.8%), inadequate number of science and maths books per pupil in public schools (62.6%) and inadequate number of (required) textbooks in public schools (61.3%). The results from the household responses are in qualitative agreement with the MoEST EMIS data, and other recent reports on the education sector in Malawi such as Hall and Mambo (2015) and Steer and Smith (2015).

In the advent of the SDGs on education and in order to meet the targets of providing free access to primary and secondary education for every child in Malawi, it will be naïve to expect government to meet all the financing needs of education that will ensure quality and relevance of learning given the turbulent macroeconomic environment. The role of households in financing education and providing oversight to ensure quality and relevance of education needs to be exemplified with due regard to the plight of the poor households. In addition, households through their elected leaders such as MPs, Ward Councilors and SMCs should take an active role in ensuring efficient and effective utilization of the limited resources allocated to education sectors within their influence.

4.1.3 ECD education

MoGCDSW (2015) IECD Annual Report cites a myriad of challenges that affect quality and access to ECD services, which can be summarized into the following: (a) inadequate funding for ECD services at all levels; (b) inadequate and poor infrastructure for the provision of ECD services; (c) inadequate and poorly trained volunteers and service providers at all levels; (d) inadequate and poorly standardized instructional, learning and playing materials and food rations; (e) increasing number of children with special needs, orphans and street children; (d) food insecurity, disease outbreaks especially malaria, and low income at household level which increases absenteeism; and (f) long distances between ECD centres which makes children to walk for over 1 hour.

The IECD Annual Report indicated that 51% of the caregivers in ECD centers had not received any formal training due to lack of specialized ECD training in Malawi and lack of funding to train the volunteer caregivers in the ECD centers. The IECD Strategy (2015-2020) has earmarked capacity development of caregivers, service providers and ECD leaders to ensure efficient and effective delivery of ECD services.

Although there is an increment in the construction of ECD centers throughout the country, there are still quite a number of villages that have no access to the facilities. The MoGCDSW (2015) noted absence of childhood development centers and child development and protection resource centers in some communities due to inadequate funding to construct the centers. Children hence walk long distances to access ECD centres.

Going forward, volunteer caregivers and CBCCs will continue to play a key role in the provision of ECD services in Malawi. However, there is need for a progressive strategy that will ensure building the career and professionalism of the caregivers and institutionalizing the CBCCs to link with junior primary schools within the localities. This will ensure proper synergy and high transition rate to the mainstream education sector.

4.1.4 Primary education

While there have been some success in accelerating progress in access in primary education, there have also been some constraining factors affecting relevance, quality and financing. These factors have slowed down gains in primary education sector as there are high repetition and dropout rates and low transition rate.

During the multiparty regime after 1994, the MoEST has embarked on frequent changes in curriculum. Government adopted PCAR (Box 1) in 2002 which most key informants in the education sector singled out as the major contributing factor towards lower primary education quality. It was noted that PCAR permits pupils to progress to another class when a pupil has actually failed. The other aspect noted was that the previous curriculum before PCAR allowed pupils to learn from basics of syllables to building words. PCAR jumps some levels and pupils learn words without learning syllables. The assumption is that these must have been learnt at ECD level. This was compounded by the teaching policy in vernacular language without sufficient teaching and learning materials in some schools which made more pupils to scramble for few available learning materials in localized vernacular languages.

Box 1: Primary Curriculum and Assessment Reform (PCAR)

PCAR is a continuous assessment system for primary school pupils which was introduced by MoEST in 2002. Under this system, pupils are assessed on what they are able to learn individually and as a group. This is on top of the tests that teachers are supposed to administer. The education experts have noted that PCAR requires teachers to assess pupils and follow up on pupils who are not doing well which is normally not the case in Malawi. According to education experts, this system requires rich resource setting to work better unlike the situation in Malawi. Due to lack of resources in Malawi, the system ends up loading the teacher with lots of paper work and given the high pupils to teacher ratio, the teacher cannot have adequate time to compile the continuous assessment, prepare for materials and deliver them.

While free primary education itself has been lauded to have increased access, the manner in which FPE was introduced contributed to lowering quality. Free primary has lowered education quality by resulting in inadequate number of teachers, sub-standard classrooms and inadequate teaching and learning materials. There are also issues to do with inadequate supply of learning and teaching materials. In Mangochi for instance, one of the schools visited had 110 learners sharing 13 text books.

Although there has been increase in construction of primary school classrooms, these are still not enough. Some children still travel very long distances to access primary school education, others still learn under trees and classrooms are still overcrowded. This increases absenteeism and affects quality of learning. Girls are the most affected as they fail to cope up walking long distances and they eventually dropout. There are also fewer schools across the country that have facilities for special needs students and teachers for special needs are unavailable especially in rural areas where 85% of the country's population resides.

Most Malawians in the rural areas are poor hence parents face difficulties to pay school fees and money for printing of exam papers on time which affects the school's cashflow and work plan. Funding from government comes late and impacts negatively on the work plans. In some months, government does not provide funding which puts schools in an awkward position in relation to paying suppliers. Funding from government has also been reducing over time yet

enrolment has increased and prices of commodities have skyrocketed. The formula for allocating ORT does not consider the geographical location of the school, e.g. those in urban areas easily access funding while those in the rural areas have to spend extra money to access the funding, yet ORT allocation uses a flat rate for all schools in the same category.

During the 2016/2017 national budget presentation in June 2016, Government announced that it will hire addition 10,500 primary school teachers to reduce the pupil to teacher ratio in public primary schools across the country.

4.1.5 Secondary education

Access to secondary education is hindered by several factors ranging from limited number of schools, as well as limited space within existing schools in relation to the demand for secondary education; limited financial, teaching and learning material resources; lack of fees causing students to fail to enroll into Form 1, or continue with secondary education; to lack of human resources to teach in secondary schools. The University of Malawi and other private universities graduate an average of 1,200 secondary school teachers per year, against the current establishment of 22,000 teachers in public secondary schools. There were 14,506 secondary school teachers in 2015, resulting in a vacancy rate of 34%. Because of this, the existing teachers end up teaching in subjects that they are not qualified for which compromises the quality of learning. Government announced that it plans to hire addition 477 secondary school teachers during the 2016/2017 fiscal year which will reduce the vacancy rate from 34% to 32%.

Although many students access secondary education through CDSSs, these are poorly resourced in almost all respects: teachers, funding, infrastructure, learning and teaching materials, etc. In most CDSSs, there is shortage of classrooms leading to congestion as a class designed for 40 learners holds up to 70 learners; shortage of space in hostels for boarders, inadequate furniture (chairs, desks, etc); inadequate teachers' houses; insufficient equipment and materials in the laboratory; lack of proper offices; and shortage of books in school libraries. During selection into the public universities, the quota system by NCHE only looks at the district as a whole without differentiating between conventional, district boarding and CDSSs. Thus, students enrolled in CDSSs are disadvantaged yet most students from poor backgrounds and in rural areas enroll in these schools.

The geographical distribution of schools also hinders access as learners who walk long distances, particularly girls, are usually absent from school or simply dropout. Equity is therefore affected by long distances between secondary schools especially for girls. Time limitation for night stream students also affects learning as students are only coached for 2 hours, instead of the normal 6-8 hours.

Teacher welfare has always been a contentious issue for ages. These relate to low salaries, delayed salaries and leave grants, lack of promotions, and general welfare motivation. This is mainly because most schools depend on government for financing which is currently facing serious financial challenges. In secondary schools, students only pay MK17,000.00 (US\$25) per term. Government reviewed the fees to MK65,000.00 (US\$96) per term but the suggestion was shot down by parliament on account that most Malawians are poor and cannot afford to pay

US\$96 per term. This will continue to constrain financing of secondary education and hence welfare of teachers.

In 2015, GoM advanced a proposal to abolish the PSCLE and JCE on account of loss of value of the qualifications, high costs of administering the exams and focusing on learning completion for skills and knowledge rather than memorization. However, the proposal was turned down by MPs and the status quo remains. The argument advanced by parliamentarians was that the JCE qualification was still relevant for lower level and menial jobs and also is a check for students preparing for the MSCE. Balancing between these two viewpoints will be a matter of great importance in ensuring access, relevance, equity, quality and financing of secondary education.

4.1.6 Tertiary education

Statistics indicate that Malawi has one of the lowest university rates per 100,000 inhabitants at all levels of tertiary education (World Bank, 2010). In 2010, the country had only 35 learners per 100,000 inhabitants in TVET and 51 students for 100,000 inhabitants in the universities. Not much has changed over the years. Out of 18,069 eligible students that applied for places in public universities in 2015/2016, NCHE only selected 3,684 students representing 20% intake of the eligible students (NCHE, 2016).

One of the factors affecting access to university education is inadequate space within the public universities. Although some colleges are currently offering off campus services to students, this is still inadequate to enroll more students. The public universities have also undergone limited infrastructure development to match up with the demand. Over the previous years from one party state to multiparty state, the country's public universities have not expanded their space in relation to the increasing number of students. For instance, from 2010 to 2016, the country's public universities have been admitting less than 4,000 students per year and yet the number of students sitting for MSCE has considerably grown up from 36,621 in 2010 to 71,486 in 2014 (MoEST EMIS, 2015). While the students sitting for MSCE have almost doubled between 2010 and 2014, the number of students selected to public universities has remained static.

Besides the issue of space, financing for tertiary education has been a challenge across the board for public universities, TTCs and TVET institutions. As early as 1995, the study by MIM noted that the financing mechanism of tertiary education in Malawi was not sustainable. This sentiment was again echoed in World Bank Issue Paper of 2010 that funding to tertiary education in Malawi was insufficient to cater for infrastructure development.

Within TVET institutions, those without MSCE are unable to enroll. This is against the argument that technical and vocational skills should be open to people who have expressed the passion and have talents. In the public universities, the equity/quota policy is considered to deny deserving students right to access public universities. For instance, a student who scores 12 points on MSCE²⁵ could not be accommodated while another who scores 21 or 36 points is enrolled based on the level of competition within the district of origin. This may end up discouraging students from working hard in districts where competition is stiff.

²⁵ The MSCE best score is from 6 points, and public universities admit students who score up to 36 points, which should be 6 credits, including English.

Most higher learning institutions have inadequate equipment and use outdated technology. This makes the knowledge students gain not to be up-to-date and inapplicable.

On teacher training, it was noted that the frequent change of curriculum and proliferation of many private teacher colleges without quality assurance system has compromised the quality of teachers coming out of the colleges. One head teacher in Mangochi district said the following:

“Teachers are not taught the right subjects and most of them do not know how to handle pupils or students. The blame should be put squarely on the TTCs be it government or private. Some lessons that teachers were learning previously and practical sessions that were done have been taken out in some private colleges”

Previously, government used to subsidize cost of training teachers in TTCs, TVET and public universities. Due to increasingly high costs, the policy has since been changed and students are required to pay fees that reflect actual costs. Previously, students were paying about MK1,500 per year in TTCs and MK55,000 per year in public universities but GoM has from 2015 reviewed the fees to be MK150,000 (US\$222) in TTCs, MK220,000 (US\$326) for a Diploma programme and MK275,000 (US\$407) for a degree programme in public universities per year. Needy students will be required to obtain a loan from the Higher Education Students’ Loans and Grants Board. In the proposed 2016/2017 national budget, the Board has been allocated MK3 billion (US\$4.29 million). Assuming all this money is disbursed as students’ loans and grants, about 10,000 university students can be covered at the current fees rate, which is about 65% of the current public university students population. This excludes students in other higher education institutions such as training colleges and institutes.

The introduction of non-residential programmes in the universities and paying students money to find their own accommodation was introduced without proper guidelines and standards and this affects quality of learning. Students sleep in very unhygienic places, sometimes a room meant for 4 people would accommodate up to 10 students. One UNIMA alumina had this to say:

“It seems like it was introduced more to punish some people not to complete their education than to solve the problem of capacity of the universities. I know of a colleague who was selected to Chancellor College but never reported for his studies. Of late students are being told that they can find own accommodation and we have seen some students withdrawing from campus on health grounds”

Relatedly, Government has recently introduced community colleges as one way of addressing shortage of artisans and technical vocational skills. The community colleges have been rolled out and some are running in places with inadequate infrastructure and equipment. One educationist in Mangochi observed the following:

“We now have community colleges but do we have the right teachers, the right places and the right resources? Technical skills training require hands on experience and already TEVETA says there are shortages of trainers and yet we have rolled out this program. We should learn lessons from things like free primary education. The effects of that decision which was made without proper consultation are still with us today”.

The other example cited was the TVET levy which was resisted by some private sector organisations. It was noted that the resistance from the private sector came mainly because they were not fully involved and engaged. Some added that even within the public sector, some concerns were not taken on board as a result remitting the levy became a problem.

4.2 Financing the 2030 SDGs on education in Malawi

The cited challenges clearly show that the country has an uphill task to provide every child with access to free basic and secondary education by 2030 especially to mobilize adequate resources to effectively roll out such an ambitious target. Based on 2014 national budget allocation to the education sector and the projected learner population by 2030 in Malawi, this research estimated the budget requirements needed to fulfill the SDGs on education by 2030 (Table 13).

Table 13: 2030 SDGs on Education Financing Requirements for Malawi

Year	FOCUS OF SDGs			TTC (US\$)	Technical (US\$)	University (US\$)	TOTAL BUDGET (US\$)	% increment
	ECD (US\$)	Primary (US\$)	Secondary (US\$)					
2015	34,761,630	132,915,987	46,084,475	14,033,326	1,570,313	51,965,676	281,331,407	
2016	37,859,674	139,685,093	54,478,281	15,352,977	2,199,735	65,185,055	314,760,816	12%
2017	41,233,824	146,798,935	64,400,931	16,796,724	3,081,446	81,767,269	354,079,129	12%
2018	44,908,687	154,275,068	76,130,889	18,376,236	4,316,569	102,567,778	400,575,227	13%
2019	48,911,063	162,131,943	89,997,336	20,104,280	6,046,762	128,659,661	455,851,046	14%
2020	53,270,141	170,388,952	106,389,411	21,994,825	8,470,461	161,388,972	521,902,762	14%
2021	58,017,711	179,066,470	125,767,132	24,063,151	11,865,642	202,444,187	601,224,293	15%
2022	63,188,396	188,185,915	148,674,303	26,325,975	16,621,698	253,943,304	696,939,591	16%
2023	68,819,906	197,769,792	175,753,775	28,801,589	23,284,106	318,543,114	812,972,282	17%
2024	74,953,310	207,841,754	207,765,491	31,510,002	32,616,978	399,576,259	954,263,794	17%
2025	81,633,338	218,426,658	245,607,807	34,473,106	45,690,709	501,223,162	1,127,054,779	18%
2026	88,908,708	229,550,627	290,342,705	37,714,851	64,004,729	628,727,689	1,339,249,308	19%
2027	96,832,477	241,241,114	343,225,599	41,261,439	89,659,482	788,667,677	1,600,887,788	20%
2028	105,462,433	253,526,970	405,740,559	45,141,538	125,597,326	989,294,277	1,924,763,104	20%
2029	114,861,512	266,438,518	479,641,967	49,386,509	175,939,989	1,240,957,625	2,327,226,120	21%
2030	125,098,260	280,007,620	567,003,746	54,030,665	246,461,296	1,556,640,792	2,829,242,379	22%
Total	1,138,721,071	3,168,251,416	3,427,004,407	479,367,192	857,427,243	7,471,552,497	16,542,323,826	

The research assumed that by 2030, the country will have a population of about 26 million (NSO, 2009). Of this, 19% will be children eligible for ECD education and 30% will be eligible for primary education. There will approximately be 5 million children and 8 million pupils eligible for ECD and primary education, respectively, by 2030. The study further assumed that only 75% of the primary school kids will survive up to Standard 8, and of these, 50% will enroll in secondary schools resulting in 3 million students in secondary schools by 2030. Thus, with this number of pupils, the country will need at least 133,333 primary school teachers to achieve pupil to teacher ratio of 60 and 75,000 secondary school teachers to achieve student to teacher ratio of 40 by 2030. The number of teachers also assumed attrition rate of 25% due to death, retirement, acute illness and resignation.

The study further assumed that secondary schools will register a maximum of 15% dropout rate against the current 8% and that MSCE pass rate will be at 50%. Of these, 6% (80,000) are expected to be enrolled in TTCs as primary school teachers, 54% (688,500) are expected to be

enrolled in technical colleges and 35% (446,250) are expected to enroll in universities, of which 17% (75,000) will graduate as secondary school teachers and 4% (20,000) will graduate as technical college teachers by 2030 to achieve student to teacher ratio of 40 in secondary schools and technical colleges, respectively (Appendix I).

Using these assumptions, the cost of providing universal and free access to basic and secondary education by 2030 in Malawi covering ORT, teaching and learning materials, rehabilitation, bursaries, cash transfers and PE was estimated at US\$7.7 billion; with US\$1.1 billion for ECD, US\$3.2 billion for primary and US\$3.4 billion for secondary education. In 2015, the entire national budget was about US\$1.5 billion with 17% (US\$255 million) spent on education sector (MoEST EMIS, 2015) and in 2016, the proposed entire national budget is US\$1.7 billion with 12.4% (US\$210.8 million) allocated to the education sector.

Table 13 shows that it is possible to finance the entire education sector if funding allocated to the sector is gradually and systematically increased by at least 12% in 2016 to reach 22% by 2030. To the contrary, the proposed 2016/2017 national budget allocation to the education sector regressed from 17% to 12% and the nominal allocation in US\$ terms actually decreased by 17%. Already, the proposed 2016/2017 national budget allocation to education sector falls short of the estimated 2016 education sector financing requirement by 33% despite the fact that the estimates are conservative because they did not include capital expenditure such as construction of classrooms, hostels, laboratories, teachers' houses, etc which are equally important to ensure quality of learning.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Reform areas to bring about improved educational access, learning, equity and financing

The research findings show that critical reforms are required in the area of political economy, institutional arrangement and management in the education sector in order to bring about improved access, learning, equity and finance in ECD, primary, secondary, technical and university education.

5.1.1 Political leadership

Regarding political leadership, the research has established that different political regimes have had a particular focus on a preferred education sub-sector rather than dealing with the entire education sector holistically. For instance, during the one party rule of Dr. Kamuzu Banda, policy focus was on improving primary education between 1964 and 1972; secondary and tertiary education between 1973 and 1984 and back to primary education between 1985 and 1994. During the multiparty regime, Dr. Bakili Muluzi's education policies paid great attention to free primary education and community day secondary schools between 1995 and 2005; Prof. Bingu wa Mutharika's policies focused more on early childhood development, boarding for girls in secondary education and equitable access to university education between 2005 and 2012; Dr. Joyce Banda put more emphasis on girl child education between 2012-2014; while Prof. Peter Mutharika has put more emphasis on technical education through the community colleges. The lack of holistic approach to the education sector has resulted in some sub-sectors to advance while others lag behind despite the fact that the NESP (2008-2017) covers all subsectors of education. As a result, except for primary education, gross enrolment rate in secondary, technical and university education for Malawi remains one of the lowest in the SADC region.

In order to make progress in the education sector, the political leadership should:

- 1) Make compulsory, universal and free all public ECD, primary and secondary education through a directive. This was already included in the Malawi Vision 2020 that was adopted in 2000 but up to now no political leader has fulfilled it. The fear has always been that Malawi does not have resources to make public ECD, primary and secondary education compulsory, universal and free after the experiences with FPE. Although this is valid, in essence the issue is more of perspective on quality versus quantity. Either one looks at the cup as "*half empty*" or "*half full*". Due to high illiteracy rate in Malawi, it is better to have a "*half full*" cup than wait for generations to have a "*full*" cup and in between contend with the political cost of illiteracy for the majority of the population. It is unlikely that, Malawi can attain a "*full*" cup in the next two decades given the fact that the poverty prevalence has worsened over the last three decades.
- 2) Issue a directive to make all constituent colleges of UNIMA independent and challenge them to expand their Degree programmes and also introduce Diploma programmes like the case with Bunda College of Agriculture which has now become LUANAR. The infrastructure development at LUANAR and the expansion in terms of programmes and intake within the 3 years it has existed is phenomenal. This could also be the case with UNIMA colleges like Chancellor College, College of Medicine, College of Nursing and

the Polytechnic if these were declared autonomous universities.

- 3) Revamp and reinvigorate literacy programmes to ensure universal access to basic education in Malawi by directing that each village should have a functional literacy programme using existing school blocks or religious establishments and using retired teachers or other retired officers or educated but unemployed people within the localities as instructors. This was done during the one party system where 2 million learners were trained in new farming technologies through farmers club, train and visit programmes, lead farmers and adult literacy classes.
- 4) Pass a directive to abolish divisions/zones and fully embrace the dictates of the Local Government Act of 1998 which mandated local councils to manage basic, primary and secondary education with the aim to curb corrupt practices. The research established that the multiparty regime bureaucracy in the education sector is a breeding ground for corruption, rent seeking, ghost teachers, fraud and financial mismanagement which drains financial resources and negatively affects the learners and teachers. For instance, key informants bemoaned that when learning and teaching materials are centrally procured, prices are always inflated. A textbook of US\$0.5 can be paid at US\$2 for the sake of kickbacks. There is need for complete adoption of fiscal devolution from the headquarters and expansion of the school improvement grant to be managed by the local councils not headquarters or divisions. Fiscal devolution and decentralization of procurement will reduce the sheer size of the money involved in procurement and also increase oversight at grassroots level.
- 5) Introduce a week of National Community Service where the communities can revert to providing materials, labour and experts especially on the construction of public ECD, primary and secondary schools infrastructure. This can complement the ongoing programmes by LDF, CSOs and other development partners. This will lessen the financial burden for government if it implements compulsory, universal and free ECD, primary and secondary education in line with the SDGs. The research found that during the one party regime, 70% of the school infrastructure needs were constructed by the communities through the National Youth Week every year and some of the structures still stand today yet those constructed by contractors during the multiparty regime have collapsed.
- 6) Adopt a holistic multi-sectoral strategy rather than sector specific strategies in order to speed progress in poverty reduction in view of the high levels of income poverty and other dimensions of poverty in Malawi, especially in rural areas where the majority of the population resides. The research findings showed that the performance of the education sector depends on improvement in other sectors such as household income generating activities, connectivity to electricity, internet, water, roads, health, trade, nutrition and agriculture, among other sectors. If there is no progress in these other sectors, the education sector is likely a major casualty.
- 7) Be more affirmative and use decrees to eliminate all forms of disparities due to gender, rural-urban and disabilities in the education sector; require policy makers to review teaching and learning materials to ensure that they are free of gender stereotypes and take an affirmative action to allocate at least 30% of the leadership positions in government and within the communities to qualifying and deserving women.
- 8) Maintain a stable macroeconomic environment which is key to attract participation of the private sector to invest in the education sector at all levels and to spur economic activities

in income generating activities at household level.

- 9) Genuinely curb corruption and strengthen the public financial, procurement and human resources management systems as these are critical to bring about efficiency gains in domestic resource utilization and attracting back the lost direct budgetary support which is needed most in the education sector.

5.1.2 Institutional arrangement

The research has established that the institutional arrangement in the education sector has evolved with the political dispensation. While the one party regime had local education authorities to manage access and quality of learning; planning, budgeting and capital investment was centralized. The multiparty regime has adopted a hybrid of decentralization with so many administrative and fiscal authority layers in between headquarters and the actual point of impact: the schools. The argument has been that there is no capacity at local council level to manage the education sector budget effectively yet no one is willing to take action to build that capacity.

The research has also noted that there is fluidity in the ministry responsible for ECD, adult learning and technical education. One political regime would prefer to have all the education subsectors within the Ministry of Education while another regime would prefer to have ECD and adult literacy within the Ministry of Gender and technical education within the Ministry of Labour. It is not the location of the subsector that is a concern but the lack of coordination between different ministries to holistically advance the education subsectors.

From the perspectives of education experts, the research found out that there are serious reservations with PCAR at primary education level. This has even necessitated the MoEST to change the naming of the directorate of advisory services which had primary education advisors back to inspectorate and advisory services with primary education inspectors and advisors. This change in institutional arrangement is unlikely to resolve the quality concerns raised by the education experts as it does not address the inherent causes of low quality which were noted by this research, such as high pupil to teacher ratio, high pupil to classroom ratio and inadequate teaching and learning materials due to inadequate funding. This research opines that PCAR is the realistic way of advancing learning in Malawi by balancing quantity and quality because addressing the inherent causes of low quality is not one dimensional solution. PCAR will even become more relevant at the point the political leadership will issue the directive for compulsory, universal and free public ECD, primary and secondary education. PCAR is also applicable where the focus of education should be to gain skills and knowledge rather than memorization to pass examinations. The adage, *'think global, act local'* is still relevant in as far as PCAR is concerned. Good foreign concepts and practices such as PCAR should be blended with local context in order to sustain progress in the education sector in Malawi.

Going forward, the institutional arrangement in the education sector should include:

- 1) Reviving the Local Education Authority to look at both inspectorate and advisory roles, among others, at ECD, primary and secondary education in local councils. The research found out that local education authorities were instituted during the one party regime and this contributed to high quality of education in public schools during that period which is still admired to-date. During the one party regime, children of Ministers and Senior

Public officials enrolled in public schools because there was no disparity in terms of quality of education with private schools unlike during the multiparty regime.

- 2) Establishing a National Council for Basic and Secondary Education to develop and enforce standardized quality assurance system for basic and secondary education for both public and private schools in Malawi to eliminate disparities in quality of education between public and private schools. Better still; reconfigure NCHE to become National Education Regulatory Authority which can develop and enforce a harmonized and independent quality assurance system from ECD, primary, secondary, technical up to university education levels in both public and private education institutions in Malawi.
- 3) Demonstrating serious commitment to the education SWAp where all education subsectors such as ECD, primary, secondary, technical and university collaborate and coordinate in terms of planning, budgeting, implementation, monitoring, resource mobilization and communication for results.
- 4) Transforming the SMCs into independent Boards backed by a necessary regulatory framework in line with the Local Government Act (1998) and the amended Education Act (2013). The Board's mandate and scope should be broadened to include resource mobilization beyond the current passive oversight role.

5.1.3 Management

Evidence from the research demonstrates that management of the education sector has largely been influenced by the political economy landscape. During the one party rule, the management style focused on the four corner stones of the political regime – unity, discipline, loyalty and obedience which ensured service delivery with quality and nationalism. In the multiparty era, management has been riddled with corruption, nepotism, patronage, mismanagement, indiscipline on the pretext of human rights but without responsibilities, among other shortfalls, which has led to individualism at the expense of pursuing national goals and common good.

Several key informants also bemoaned the tendency by management in the education sector to embark on policy changes without adequate consultation. Each political regime has at one point or another attempted to change curricula, teacher recruitment and promotion system, selection policy, school calendar, among others, without due diligence with the concerned key stakeholders especially teachers and parents. The ambitious 2030 SDGs on education require a holistic and consultative approach to planning and implementation, effective coordination in undertaking advocacy to maintain political commitment; facilitate policy dialogue and knowledge-sharing; setting standards and monitoring progress towards the education targets.

Management in the education sector should:

- 1) Solicit the support of all stakeholders, including CSOs to establish appropriate mechanisms and procedures to drive, coordinate, finance and stimulate interventions for the achievement of education goals at various levels, by genuinely involving all stakeholders in the planning, implementation and monitoring of education policies and strategies. This should be done through a devolved sector wide approach at local council where all stakeholders actively participate in planning, implementation, financing, monitoring and evaluation and communication for results.

- 2) Promote the principles of open, inclusive and participatory policy dialogue, planning, implementation and mutual accountability among key stakeholders in the education sector.
- 3) Develop a successor to the NESP (2008-2017) to localize 2030 SDGs on education that will empower local councils to develop District Education Investment Plans (2018-2030) with clear local resource mobilization strategy. These district education investment plans should be streamlined and harmonized into the National Education Investment Plan (2020-2030) with a National Resource Mobilization Strategy for the achievement of the SDGs on education. These district education investment plans should be developed in line with the yet-to-be developed national development plan that localizes the 2030 SDGs. There is need for management at all levels in the education sector to guide the process of contextualizing, localizing and implementing the 2030 SDGs on education.
- 4) Review the school calendar to evenly spread out the financial burden for poor households especially in critical hunger months where the demand for food at household level overrides the need to pay school fees for children. For instance, most kids drop out due to lack of fees between the months of December and March, when households are pressed with immediate food needs, farm inputs and farming labour. MoEST management might need to consider changing the long term holiday that occurs between August and October to occur between December and March.
- 5) Ensure a transparent and inclusive process with other key partners to regulate standards, improve quality and reduce disparities between regions, communities and schools as well as proper integration of education planning into sustainable development strategies and ensure that policies are aligned with their legal obligations to respect, protect and fulfill the right to education, human rights and responsibilities.
- 6) Undertake continuous review and assessment of policies to sustain quality and relevance of learning and efficiency in the education system.
- 7) Incorporate risk assessment, preparedness and response to disasters like floods, hunger and epidemics in the Education strategy to ensure uninterrupted access to education by children, youth and adults in disaster prone areas.
- 8) Establish prudent financial management and output based accountability on finances and prioritize core areas when budgeting such as learning and teaching materials, bursaries, scholarships, teacher welfare, infrastructure and trim on non-core areas like workshops, travel and allowances.

5.2 Balance between quantity and quality of education in Malawi

5.2.1 Access

The research findings show that the aftermath of ECD, FPE and CDSSs exposed Government's unpreparedness to cope with demands in access to education. Since the aim of SDGs on education is also making access free and universal for not only primary but also secondary education, policy makers and implementers should clearly think through what such policy changes would mean in terms of resource requirement for conducive teaching and learning environment. Thorough analysis need to be made in terms of cost implication for universal and free access to ECD, primary and secondary education.

It is clear from the research that the country can never achieve universal access to free ECD, primary and secondary education using the brick and mortar model of education facilities and the direct pupil and teacher contact teaching approach. The research found out that Malawi has one of the highest primary school gross enrolment rate in the SADC region resulting in the highest pupil to teacher ratio and pupil to classroom ratio and the lowest pupil to textbook ratio in the region. As a result, transition rate to secondary education is one of the lowest in the region. There is need to think beyond the traditional approaches to education access and consider more open facility, distance learning, mobile teaching, mass teaching, ICT-based and e-learning approaches by both the public and private sector training institutions which should be augmented with a robust quality assurance system.

For instance, the research results show that by the year 2030, there will be at least 5 million learners in ECD, over 8 million learners in primary schools, over 3 million learners in secondary schools, over 4 million learners in adult literacy, over 80,000 learners in TTCs, over 688,500 learners in technical colleges and over 446,250 learners in universities, *ceteris paribus*. At the pace of education infrastructure development in Malawi, it will be a far-fetched dream to expect that all these learners will be learning in a brick and mortar classroom and with direct pupil and teacher contact. On top of this, there is financial demand for teachers' houses, hostels, desks, chairs, beds, halls and laboratories, among others.

In order to increase access without necessarily compromising on quality, there is need to:

- 1) Provide incentives to the private sector and religious institutions to invest in technical, teacher training and university education where the private sector can build, operate and manage the education infrastructure and charge subsidized fees to students while government provides guarantees through long term security coupons/bonds that will pay off by installments over time the investment made by the private sector.
- 2) Transfer responsibilities for infrastructure development especially for public ECD and primary education to the communities and for secondary and technical education to the local councils while public universities should be autonomous and should be challenged to mobilise infrastructure development financing independently from government.
- 3) Focus more on open environment learning, mobile teaching (visit & train), mass teaching especially for public education using prerecorded teaching materials which can be played on videos, television or radios; e-learning through digital libraries and e-books, open and

distance learning, among others. However, there is need to develop a quality assurance system that should be enforced in both public and private training institutions undertaking open, mobile, e-learning and mass teaching to maintain education quality standards.

- 4) Make it mandatory that every village should have multipurpose schools for ECD and primary education and a clear linkage to secondary school selection based on geographical proximity but Government should ensure that public schools in rural areas receive equal treatment in terms of funding, qualified teachers, teaching and learning materials. This model is already existent in the private sector and some religious organisations where one centre provides ECD, primary, secondary and tertiary education as a continuous package.
- 5) Focus more on open and distance learning, teaching by visits, audio learning, video learning, mobile teaching, mass learning, e-learning and ICT-based instruction by opening satellite learning centres, e-libraries and weekend programmes in rural areas using the CDSSs as training centres to improve access to tertiary education.
- 6) Re-orient curricula of technical education and ensure that the community colleges focus more towards other non-traditional fields where the youth and adults can learn economic and business skills such as in baking, trading, retailing, hairdressing, designs, tailoring, agri-entrepreneurship, ICT, etc which currently absorbs the majority of school leavers and school dropouts. The community colleges, both public and private, can use CDSSs as places for proving teaching and learning.
- 7) For the **Education Commission** to impress on the largest International ICT Companies such as Apple, Samsung, Foxconn, Amazon, HP Inc., Microsoft, IBM, Alphabet Inc., Sony, Panasonic, Huawei, Dell, Toshiba, Intel, among others, to embark on joint and collaborative research as global corporate social responsibility aimed at reducing the cost of ICT education technologies and developing Open Source programmes such as Android, solar charged cellphones and other ICT education gadgets which can be used by learners in rural areas in developing countries if preloaded with learning and teaching materials.

5.2.2 Learning

It is clear from the research findings that ECD services support children's well-being and progressive preparation for primary school entry; an important transition that is often accompanied by increasing expectations of what children should know and be able to do; lays the foundation for children's long-term development, well-being and health; builds the competencies and skills that enable people to learn throughout life and to earn a livelihood; and it also enables early identification of disabilities and children at risk of disability which allows parents, healthcare providers and teachers to better plan for the needs of children with disabilities thereby minimizing developmental delays and improving learning outcomes.

The research has also noted that primary and secondary school curriculum of the future should strive to impart essential skills and knowledge on a broad range of issues including new basic skills; critical thinking and analytical skills, civic and democratic values, computer skills, entrepreneurial skills, life skills, environmental and climate change education. The teaching of science and mathematics also deserve more attention in the re-oriented curriculum. Thus, the nature of examining students should also focus more on testing the ability of students to apply

skills and knowledge rather than regurgitating the materials without grasping the learning points.

This will require changes in the systems and practices for assessment of learning that should include evaluation of teaching and learning processes, environments and outcomes. Learning outcomes should be well-defined in cognitive and non-cognitive domains, and continually assessed as an integral part of the teaching and learning process.

There are also several broader socio-economic issues that affect learning outcomes of students including income, nutrition, health, water and sanitation, among others. The research found out that more students drop out of school due to financial and social related challenges such as lack of money to pay for non-fees requirement like examinations, textbooks, writing materials; and early marriages, pregnancies and sheer laziness. These factors also increase repetition rates resulting in low transition rates.

In order to improve learning and achieve the 2030 SDGs on education in Malawi, there is need to ensure:

- 1) Attainment of household food security or provision of universal school feeding programmes especially at ECD and primary education. This can be championed by the communities, CSOs, adoption of schools by the private sector and development partners.
- 2) Attainment of good health at household level and of learners through massive vaccination campaigns, deworming programmes, provision of mosquito nets and anti-malarial preventive drugs to reduce sickness which increases school absenteeism.
- 3) Perfection of the PCAR for continuous assessment as it is cheaper and focuses on grasping skills and knowledge rather than memorization for exams. Teaching and learning should focus on training job creators and not job seekers.
- 4) Making English language compulsory throughout the entire education system from ECD (just like private schools in Malawi) and make it a policy that all primary enrolment should be through ECD centres. Otherwise, reverse the policy on Chichewa as a language of instruction and adopt local vernacular languages for instruction in basic education and use PCAR for assessment to ensure fairness.
- 5) Empowerment of communities by CSOs to take an interest and a leading role in the education of their children through sending their children to child corners; play grounds and local education events and parents should be encouraged to mobilise and contribute locally available learning and teaching materials especially for ECD and primary education.
- 6) Borrowing lessons from grant aided schools or schools owned by religious organisations where quality standards have been sustained over the years regardless of the political regime through – discipline of both teachers and students and retention of qualified teachers. The same strategy can be adopted by government in public schools.
- 7) Introduction of crush programmes to train teachers for ECD, primary, secondary and technical education in order to maintain acceptable pupil to teacher ratio for the 2030 SDGs on education. The research has shown that the country will require at least 133,333 primary school teachers, 75,000 secondary school teachers and 20,000 technical college instructors by 2030. This cannot be achieved using the current approach to teacher training.

- 8) Development of standards and guidelines for open and distance learning, online and outreach programmes to maintain quality and relevance of learning.
- 9) Commitment of more resources to improve teachers' welfare through training, promotions and better salaries; increase teacher training through ODL, online and outreach programmes in TDCs to reduce high levels of student to teacher ratio and design non-discriminatory monetary and non-monetary incentive schemes to enroll more female teachers, rural-oriented teachers and special needs teachers.
- 10) The **Education Commission** should engage the world's largest solar energy makers in China, USA, Canada, Germany, etc to develop low cost solar panels that can be used to electrify education establishment in rural areas in developing countries so that students and teachers have more time for learning during both day and night.
- 11) The **Education Commission** should also engage the world's largest education publishers to publish education materials especially those meant for developing countries at a subsidized rate as part of global corporate social responsibility.

5.2.3 Equity

The findings of the research showed that despite efforts to bridge the gender gap, it is still a challenge to maintain gender parity especially in senior classes of primary school, and the gap progressively widens into secondary and tertiary education.

Gender equality in education must continue to be relentlessly emphasized with the aim to ensure boys and girls experience same advantages and disadvantages in attending all levels of school and in accessing learning, curricula, academic orientation, credentials and life opportunities. Overall, urban residents have more access to education opportunity than do their rural counterpart. Children with special needs are also not fully integrated into the education system either due to lack of appropriate facilities and also special needs teachers.

The research also found out that the current quota system although it is called equitable access policy to tertiary education is not all that equal. Students who are in well-resourced secondary schools like district and grant aided secondary schools compete on equal terms with those in CDSSs and night schools which are poorly resourced.

In order to improve equity in education in Malawi, there is need to:

- 1) Upgrade education facilities to make them more child, disability and gender sensitive and provide safe, non-violent, inclusive and effective learning environments for all. The MoEST should develop guidelines to set minimum standards for inclusive learning environments.
- 2) Institute a fair secondary school selection system based on equal competition among students within the same locality and same type of secondary school by reviewing the implementation of quota system to compare "*like with like*".
- 3) Expand public universities' degree programmes and introduce more diploma programmes through open and distance learning to increase access and equity to tertiary education by those who fail to make it into the university due to limited space.

- 4) Ensure strong collaboration and coordination among sectors dealing with children such as health, nutrition, gender, social welfare, child protection, disability, parents, CSOs, etc to eliminate disparities in access to education.
- 5) CSOs should empower communities to encourage their children especially girl child to enroll and remain in school.
- 6) The *Education Commission* should engage both female and male celebrities in music, sports, arts and other international celebrities as champions and contributors to a global fund that can be used to support education of girls in low income countries such as Malawi.

5.3 Effective cost sharing mechanisms for financing investments in education in Malawi

The study shows that well-targeted financing and efficient implementation arrangements are required to achieve the 2030 SDGs on education. Alternative and innovative funding approaches are needed in addition to fulfill the international benchmarks of allocating at least 6% of GNP to education or allocating 20% of public expenditure to education.

In Malawi, closing the funding gap due to donor's withdrawal of direct budgetary support will pose a challenge as donors contributed about 40% to the national budget and about 80% to the development budget. There is, therefore, need for political will and leadership for policy change to ensure more domestic funding goes to education sector. Thus, the policy orientation should focus towards increasing efficiency of domestic resource utilization by cutting unnecessary wastage and reducing expenditure on non-core activities.

In order to achieve the 2030 SDGs on education for universal and free access to basic and secondary education, the country will need to spend at least US\$7.7 billion in these subsectors by 2030 excluding capital expenditure. Funding will have to be gradually and systematically increased by at least 12% in 2016 to reach 22% by 2030 from the budget of 2015 as a baseline. The research, however, found out that the proposed 2016/2017 budget has allocated only 12% of the national budget to the education sector compared to 17% allocated last fiscal year. In essence, the nominal value of the proposed education sector budget in US\$ terms has actually declined by 17% and is 33% below the conservative minimum budget estimated for 2016 for the SDGs.

As such, a number of cost sharing mechanisms have to be put in place, including:

- 1) Progressively increasing student contribution towards their education by classifying students based on the income levels of their guardians. Students from needy households should be provided free access to education, bursaries, scholarship or loans. It is common in Malawi where a student who was paying more than US\$1,500 per year in high school would also want to be considered as a needy student when they enroll in public tertiary institutions where the fees is less than US\$500 per year. This tendency must be stopped by the Higher Education Students' Loans and Grants Board.
- 2) Reducing on management costs in the education sector by devolving power and authority to local councils in line with the Local Government Act. This will reduce the financial burden on government for paying salaries and overheads just for management and also reduced expenditure on infrastructure since these will be taken up by the communities at

local council level.

- 3) Widening the tax base by eliminating tax avoidance and evasion and corruption in order to increase tax revenue collection which can be used to finance education.
- 4) Prioritizing funding to those most in need based on gender, location and disability particularly the needs of children, girls, youth and disadvantaged adults.
- 5) Increasing efficiency and accountability by instituting robust result-based financing and accounting mechanisms.
- 6) Strengthening oversight responsibility and involvement of other stakeholders such as communities, private sector individuals, CSOs in grassroots accountability.
- 7) Expanding the scope for cost-sharing and cost-recovery targeted at students who benefit most from education and who are most able to pay for it.
- 8) Enhancing higher levels of private sector financing and community contributions through public-private partnerships; build, operate and management arrangement especially in secondary and tertiary education.
- 9) Maintaining the Sector Wide Approach to financing education should be the main focus on future financial planning for the MoEST.
- 10) Introducing a special education levy in telecommunication, aviation, tourism, fuel, tobacco and alcohol industries which can be used to create a Public Education Infrastructure Development Fund.
- 11) Creating a national education trust fund where other foundations, development partners and trusts can contribute funding for financing education in Malawi.
- 12) Instituting a diaspora school adoption mechanism and alumina associations for resource mobilization.
- 13) Increasing teacher volunteers from overseas through private sector, CSOs and religious partnerships to reduce the burden on teachers' salaries.
- 14) Development partners should directly procure learning and teaching materials, hire constructors for infrastructure development and directly pay suppliers for major learning and teaching consumables like writing materials and textbooks.
- 15) Development partners should develop a parallel financing modality with its own financing, accounting and procurement entity to support the education sector and to increase direct technical assistance but with proper identification of the local needs and sustainability mechanisms.
- 16) Allowing each community to introduce sponsorship programmes for needy learners to source funding from development partners, trusts and foundations.
- 17) The **Education Commission** should champion the development of a global community of interest on education that can fundraise in order to provide scholarships and bursaries to needy students in low income countries like Malawi. The current researchers working with the Commission should be supported to pioneer fundraising activities within their localities.

5.4 The political cost of not reforming the education sector in Malawi

The benefits of literacy, in particular for women, are well documented. They include greater participation in the labour market, delayed marriages, and improved child and family health and nutrition. These, in turn, help reduce poverty and expand life opportunities thereby reducing the political cost of illiteracy. However, the research found out that improving youth and adult

literacy remains a challenge in Malawi and hence posing high political cost in terms of subsidies that have to be paid by government in health, education, agriculture, water, public order and security, among sectors. Adults with poor literacy skills face multiple sources of disadvantages. They are more likely to be unemployed, and those who are employed receive lower wages. They find it more difficult to make use of opportunities in society and to exercise their rights. They are also more likely to be in poor health and unable to enjoy the rights and freedoms enshrined in the Constitution and other policy frameworks.

Thus, the integrated approach to rural development as a policy choice will go a long way in reducing political cost of illiteracy. The performance of the education sector depends on improvement in other sectors, such as:

- 1) Finance to provide funding, bursaries and scholarships.
- 2) Health to reduce morbidity and mortality.
- 3) Agriculture and nutrition to provide school feeding programmes.
- 4) Energy to provide electricity.
- 5) Telecommunication to provide internet and phone connectivity.
- 6) Transport to ensure good roads and efficient transport systems.
- 7) Buildings to ensure safe and inclusive school facilities.
- 8) Sanitation to ensure hygiene.
- 9) Water to ensure sanitation and hygiene and good health.
- 10) Trade to inculcate entrepreneurship.
- 11) Labour to mainstream technical education.

Going forward, Malawi has to embrace a holistic approach to its development agenda especially in the wake of the SDGs regardless of the political regime. There is need to have a long-term shared vision that can be sustained and implemented by successive political regimes. It will be naïve to expect the education sector to perform wonders when each political regime seeks to introduce its own policy agenda with no regard to previous efforts. As a country, time is ripe to learn from the past, manage the present and plan for the future in a consistent and systematic manner regardless of the political regime. Politics will drive the education agenda and good politics will yield the desired results from the education agenda.

REFERENCES

- AfDB. (2009). Skills for Private Sector Development Malawi Study Report. African Development Bank.
- Al-Samarrai, S. (2002). The Changing Distribution of Public Education Expenditure in Malawi. In Africa Region Working Paper Series No.9.
- Baker Tilly. (2014). Report on Fraud and Mismanagement of Malawi Government Finances. 1st April – 30th September, 2013. Lilongwe, National Audit Office of Malawi. www.bakertilly.co.uk.
- Barrett, A. *et al.* (2006). The Concept of Quality Education: A Review of the International Literature on the Concepts of Quality in Education. EdQual Working Paper No.3
- Chimombo, J. P. (1999). Implementing Educational Innovations: A study of Free Primary Education in Malawi. Unpublished DPhil thesis: University of Sussex.
- Chiwoko, W. P. (2010). Educational Background in Malawi, www.mapsofworld.com, Retrieved on: 6th March, 2016, Posted on: 24th June, 2010.
- Emmanuel, N. G. (2013). Democratization in Malawi: Responding to International and Domestic Pressures. *African and Asian Studies* 12 (2013) 415-434.
- GoM. (2016). 2016/2017 National Budget Statement. Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development. Lilongwe, Government of Malawi.
- GoM. (2012). Malawi Growth and Development Strategy II. Lilongwe, Government of Malawi.
- _____. (2010). Building National Capacity for Sustained Growth and Development. State of the Nation Address on the Occasion of the State Opening of the 2010/11 Budget meeting of Parliament. Lilongwe, Government of Malawi.
- _____. (2005). Malawi Growth and Development Strategy I. Volume 1: Main Report. Lilongwe, Government of Malawi.
- _____. (2002). Malawi Poverty Reduction Strategy. Lilongwe, Government of Malawi.
- Hall, N. and Mambo, M. (2015). Financing Education in Malawi: Opportunities for Action, Oslo, Norway.
- Hermannson, K. (2010). The overall economic impact of higher education in Malawi: A CGE analysis of human capital accumulation, University of Strathclyde, Business school.
- Heyneman S.P. (1980). The Evaluation of Human Capital in Malawi. Washington: World Bank.
- Hyde, K. (1993). Gender Streaming as a Strategy for Improving Girls Academic Performance: Evidence from Malawi. Zomba: University of Malawi Centre for Social Research.
- Kadzamira, E. and Ross, P. (2001). Education Policy Choice and Policy Practice in Malawi: Dilemmas and Disjuncture, IDS.
- Kainja, J. (2015). Malawi: 50 Years After Independence Education Remains a Big Challenge, <http://seangeddes.wordpress.com>, Retrieved on: 2nd March, 2016, Posted on: 06th July, 2014, Modified on: 29th December, 2015.
- Kamlongera, A.F. (2012). Reforms in the Education Sector in Malawi: Challenges and Opportunities to Support the National Development Agenda.
- Lambert, T. (2013). A Short History of Malawi, www.localhistories.org/malawi.html, Retrieved on: 4th March, 2016, Modified on: 26th July, 2013.

- M'bwana, L. (2015). TEVETA Awards 16 Young Malawians for Their Credible Business Proposals and Successful Enterprises, www.maravipost.com, Retrieved on: 6th March, 2016, Posted on: 23rd August, 2015.
- MoEST. (2015). Education Management Information System Data, Lilongwe. Ministry, of Education, Science and Technology.
- _____. (2014). Education Management Information System. Lilongwe. Ministry, of Education, Science and Technology.
- _____. (2014). Key Education Indicators Analysis, 2009-2014. Lilongwe. Ministry, of Education, Science and Technology.
- _____. (2012). Education Management Information System. Lilongwe. Ministry, of Education, Science and Technology.
- _____. (2008). Education Management Information System. Lilongwe. Ministry, of Education, Science and Technology.
- _____. (2007). Education Management Information System. Lilongwe. Ministry, of Education, Science and Technology.
- _____. (2007b). National Education Sector Plan (NESP), 2008-2018. Lilongwe: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology.
- _____. (2005). Education Management Information System. Lilongwe. Ministry, of Education, Science and Technology.
- MoE. and UNESCO. (2004). The Development of Education in Malawi. 2004 Report. Presented at the 47th Session of International Conference of Education, Geneva, 2004.
- Munthali, A., and Mvula, P., et al. (2014). Early Childhood Development: The Role of Community Based Childcare Centers in Malawi, www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov, Retrieved on: 6th March, 2016, Posted on: 24th June, 2014.
- NCHE. (2016). Harmonised Selection System into public universities for 2016/17 Intake. Lilongwe, National Council for Higher Education.
- National Economic Council. (2000). Vision 2020. The National Long-term Development Perspective for Malawi. A summary, Lilongwe.
- Ngwira, N. (2010). Gender and Poverty in Malawi, Economist
- NSO. (2012). Third Integrated Household Survey (IHS) 2010-2011 - Household Socio-economic Characteristics Report. Zomba: GoM, National Statistical Office (NSO).
- _____. (2009). Malawi Population Census Main Report. National Statistical Office, Zomba. Malawi. <http://www.nso.malawi.net>.
- Sharra, S. (2015). Malawi at Fifty One: The Legacies of Malawi's Presidents Hitherto, www.nyasatimes.com/2015/07/06/malawi, Retrieved on: 4th March, 2016, Posted on: 6th July, 2015.
- Steer, L. and Smith, K. (2015). Financing Education Opportunities for Global Action. Center for Universal Education, Brookings.
- Sturges, P. (1998). The Political Economy of Information: Malawi under Kamuzu Banda, 1964-1994. *International Information and Library Review*, 30, pp. 185-201.
- World Bank. (2010). The Malawi Education System. World Bank Working Paper No. 182. Washington DC, The World Bank.
- UNDP. (2015). Human Development Report. Work for Human Development. Statistical Annex. New York, United Nations Development Programme.
- UNESCO. (2014). Teaching and Learning: Achieving Quality for All in Malawi: Fact Sheet: In EFA Global Monitoring Report.

Appendix I: Financing requirement for Malawi to achieve 2030 SDGs on Education

THE 2030 SDGs ON EDUCATION FINANCING MODEL FOR MALAWI								
Year	FOCUS OF SDGs			TTC (US\$)	Technical (US\$)	University (US\$)	TOTAL BUDGET (US\$)	% increment
	ECD (US\$)	Primary (US\$)	Secondary (US\$)					
2015	34,761,630	132,915,987	46,084,475	14,033,326	1,570,313	51,965,676	281,331,407	
2016	37,859,674	139,685,093	54,478,281	15,352,977	2,199,735	65,185,055	314,760,816	12%
2017	41,233,824	146,798,935	64,400,931	16,796,724	3,081,446	81,767,269	354,079,129	12%
2018	44,908,687	154,275,068	76,130,889	18,376,236	4,316,569	102,567,778	400,575,227	13%
2019	48,911,063	162,131,943	89,997,336	20,104,280	6,046,762	128,659,661	455,851,046	14%
2020	53,270,141	170,388,952	106,389,411	21,994,825	8,470,461	161,388,972	521,902,762	14%
2021	58,017,711	179,066,470	125,767,132	24,063,151	11,865,642	202,444,187	601,224,293	15%
2022	63,188,396	188,185,915	148,674,303	26,325,975	16,621,698	253,943,304	696,939,591	16%
2023	68,819,906	197,769,792	175,753,775	28,801,589	23,284,106	318,543,114	812,972,282	17%
2024	74,953,310	207,841,754	207,765,491	31,510,002	32,616,978	399,576,259	954,263,794	17%
2025	81,633,338	218,426,658	245,607,807	34,473,106	45,690,709	501,223,162	1,127,054,779	18%
2026	88,908,708	229,550,627	290,342,705	37,714,851	64,004,729	628,727,689	1,339,249,308	19%
2027	96,832,477	241,241,114	343,225,599	41,261,439	89,659,482	788,667,677	1,600,887,788	20%
2028	105,462,433	253,526,970	405,740,559	45,141,538	125,597,326	989,294,277	1,924,763,104	20%
2029	114,861,512	266,438,518	479,641,967	49,386,509	175,939,989	1,240,957,625	2,327,226,120	21%
2030	125,098,260	280,007,620	567,003,746	54,030,665	246,461,296	1,556,640,792	2,829,242,379	22%
Total	1,138,721,071	3,168,251,416	3,427,004,407	479,367,192	857,427,243	7,471,552,497	16,542,323,826	
Key Assumptions:								
Baseline Year	2015/2016 Budget	Average (2009-2012)	Average (2009-2012)	2014 Budget	Average (2009-2012)	2014 Budget		
Unit cost per learner (US\$/learner)	25	35	189	675	358	3,488		
# of learners (2015)	1,400,965	4,804,194	358,033	20,800	9,456	14,900		
# of projected learners (2030)	5,000,000	8,000,000	3,000,000	80,000	688,500	446,250		
% of total population (2030)	19%	30%						

Survival rate (2030)		75%						
Transition rate (2030)			50%					
Dropout rate			15%					
MSCE pass rate			50%					
% TTC intake by 2030				6%				
% Technical intake by 2030					54%			
% University intake by 2030						35%		
# current teachers (2015)		71,363	14,506					
# primary teachers by 2030 (1:60)		133,333						
# secondary teachers by 2030 (1:40)			75,000					
# technical teachers by 2030 (1:40)				20,000				
Teacher attrition rate		25%	25%	25%				
% secondary teacher students by 2030 (1:40)						17%		
% technical teacher students by 2030 (1:40)						4%		
Ln budget growth (2015-2030)	9%	5%	18%	9%	40%	25%		
Capital Investment	Public, Private, Communities, Trust, Foundations, Development Partners, CSOs, Individuals, etc)							

Based on MoGCDSW (2015) and MoEST, EMIS (2015) Budget data; NSO (2009).