

**AN EXPLORATION INTO THE IMPLEMENTATION AND OUTCOMES OF
NON-FORMAL EDUCATION: THE CASE OF COMPLEMENTARY BASIC
EDUCATION (CBE) IN PHALOMBE DISTRICT**

M.Ed. (POLICY, PLANNING AND LEADERSHIP) THESIS

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**UNIVERSITY OF MALAWI
CHANCELLOR COLLEGE**

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this thesis is my own original work which has not been submitted to any other institution for similar purposes. Where other people's work has been used, acknowledgements have been made.

Full Legal Name

Signature

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CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

The undersigned certify that this thesis represents the student's own work and effort and has been submitted with our approval.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late mother, Elube Kalenje - Samati, and my sister, Rhoda Joyce Samati (May Their Souls Rest in Eternal Peace), my husband Mandi Kamabali and wonderful children; Gloria, Golden, Richard, Gary, Baron and Michelle.

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ABSTRACT

Complementary Basic Education (CBE) was introduced in Malawi in 2009 to reach out to learners who dropped out or never attended primary education. The initial implementation followed non State provision mode with support from GiZ and local Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) service providers as the main implementers. However, in 2015 implementation mode changed from non- state to sole government provision also known as state provision using government structures. The study was therefore necessary to assess how the current implementation is meeting the objectives of the programme. Qualitative research approach and a single case study design was employed in the study. Stufflebeam's Context Input Process and Product (CIPP) conceptual framework guided the discussion of the findings. Five themes were generated, namely; access, equity, quality, outcomes and challenges in the current implementation of CBE. The study found out that access to education has been increased by addressing some barriers that marginalised children face in access to education. Use of qualified teachers in the CBE has positively contributed to the quality of learning through the pedagogy used in the classroom as perceived by grass root stakeholders. However, the quality of education is highly compromised due to poor resourcing of the CBE. Equity issues remain a challenge as the implementation fails to address issues of teen mothers, Special Needs Education (SNE) learners and children from ultra- poor families. Despite achieving some of the intended outcomes, learner retention still remains a challenge. Implementation is marred by inadequate resources, delays in payment and inadequate amount of teacher honoraria, lack of support and guidance. The current implementation will not fully realise the desired objectives if there is no involvement of local NGOs and if resources for CBE continue to be centralised.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACCO	Assistant Centre Coordinators
AGLIT	Adolescent Girls Literacy Project
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ALP	Accelerated Learning Programme
APEP	Afghan Primary Education Programme
BALP	Brazil's Accelerated Learning Program
BEPs	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committees Education Programs
BPSs	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committees Primary Schools
BRAC	Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committees
CBE	Complementary Basic Education
CBE	Complementary Basic Education
COBET	Complementary Basic Education and Training
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
DEM	District Education Manager
DEP	District Education Plan
EFA	Education for ALL
EMIS	Education Management System
ESIP	Education Implementation Plan
ESWAP	Education Sector Wide Approach
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
FPE	Free Primary Education
GoM	Government of Malawi
GPS	Government Primary Schools

HIV	Human Immune Virus
LANFE	Lesotho Association for Non-Formal Education
LCMC	Learning Centre Management Committee
LCs	Learning Centres
MACOHA	Malawi Council for the Handicapped
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MDHS	Malawi Demographic Health Survey
MGDS	Malawi Growth and Development Strategy
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoEST	Ministry of Education Science and Technology
MPRSP	Malawi Poverty Reduction Paper
NAC	National Aids Commission
NALP	National Adult Literacy Programme
NEPO	National Education Policy
NESP	National Education Sector Plan
NFE	Non-formal education
NGO	Non -Governmental Organisations
NRP	National Reading Programme
NSCPPSM	National Strategy for Community Participation in Primary School Management
ORT	Other Recurrent Transactions
PEA	Primary Education Advisor
PSIP	Primary School Improvement Programme
SCD	Single Case Design
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals

SFL	School for Life
SIP	School Improvement Plan
SNE	Special Needs Education
SEN	Special Education Needs
SOMEs	Self Organized Mediation Environments.
TDC	Teacher Development Centre
TEVET	Technical Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education Training
TEVETA	Technical Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education Training Authority
TLMs	Teaching and Learning Materials
UNESCO	United Nation Education and Scientific Cooperation
UNICEF	United Nations International Children Fund
UPE	Universal Primary Education
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WHO	World Health Organization
ZIP	Zonal Improvement Plan

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Chapter Overview

This chapter presents background to the study. The background is followed by the Statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and finally the rationale and significance of the study. The definitions of key terms have also been provided in this chapter.

1.2 Background to the study

The background to the study provides the socio-economic context, educational context, and political context in order to put the study in its perspective. This is followed by a presentation and discussion of the rapid expansion of education system which gave the impetus for introduction of CBE programme.

1.2.1 Socio Economic Context

Malawi is a densely populated country with the population estimate of 18 million (World Bank, 2017). Literacy level is currently at 83% for males and 75 % for females (MDHS, 2015). Life expectancy was reported at 63.9 years with fertility rate at 4.4.. HIV aids remains a challenge in Malawi with the prevalence rate of 8.8 % for age range of 15- 49, which includes the school going age range (MDHS, 2015). Malawi is an agro based economy affected negatively by adverse weather conditions, leading to high inflation rates in 2015/16 (World Bank, 2017). This affected the lives of 80% of the

population which lives in rural areas who depend on Agriculture for their livelihood. Poverty is wide spread in rural areas (Jere, 2012), with the proportion of poor and ultra-poor in rural settings estimated at 43 percent and 17 percent respectively, (NSO, 2009).

The country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was registered at 4% in 2017. The economic performance of the country has historically been affected by high population growth, policy inconsistencies, macro-economic instability, poor infrastructure, poor health and education outcomes which constrain labour productivity. The current CBE implementation started around the same time when donor confidence for the country had decreased due to fiscal discipline, and when the country was not performing well in Agriculture, affecting most rural Districts where CBE is being implemented. These conditions have a bearing on the implementation of programmes including CBE.

1.2.2 Political Context

In 1994, during the transition from one party rule to a multiparty democracy, the newly elected United Democratic Front (UDF) government introduced Free Primary Education (FPE) as a way of reinforcing its legitimacy. FPE policy abolished all forms of fees in primary schools and school uniform ceased to be a requirement for attending school. Since the Policy arose from a political agenda and there was no systematic analysis of the education sector, implementation became a major challenge leading to many children dropping out of school (Kadzamira, Banda, Kamlongera, & Swainson, 2001); Chimombo, 2001).

1.2.3 Educational Context

The constitution of Malawi and Education Act (2013) provide for the right to education for all Malawian children. The Education Act mandates the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MoEST) to promote education in Malawi irrespective of race, gender, ethnicity, religion and any other discriminatory factors (MoEST, 2015). The Malawi Sustainable Development Goal (MGDS) number 4, aims to ensure inclusive and equitable access to quality education. The National Education Sector Plan (NESP) stresses on strategies to ensure provision of equitable access to education. One of the key areas in equity provision of education is to ensure that learners with various special needs are accommodated in the regular classrooms with appropriate support from teachers. EMIS (2015) reported that 2.4 % of the total enrolment in primary schools are learners with special education needs. In 2015, 8.8% of learners enrolled in primary school were orphans. Gender Parity Index was recorded at 1.0 in 2015, an improvement from 0.98 in 2014. Quality indicators for the primary sub-sector include Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR). The EMIS (2015) reported a PTR of 75: 1, this is above the 60:1 PTR target set in the NESP. Education Budgetary allocation in 2014/15 financial year was 23 %, out of which 49% of the total education budget was allocated to Basic Education. This shows that despite economic challenges, education sector gets a substantial share of the national budget and Basic Education, where CBE is housed, gets the biggest share of the total education budget.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Malawi CBE was initially designed in such a way that there would be shared responsibility between government and local NGOs in its implementation. Sulemana (2012) contends that State agencies and civil society organisations involved in

education have comparative advantages in implementing different components of the complementary education models. In line with this thinking, it was envisaged that the Ministry of Education would provide policy guidance and supervision of local NGO service providers through the District Education Managers while the local NGO service providers would take up the actual implementation. This mode of arrangement was followed during the pilot phase and some more five years later. Many success stories were registered during this period. A study by Katonda (2013) recommended policy initiative to adopt best practices employed by CBE facilitators which enable learners to acquire literacy and numeracy skills more easily.

However, in 2014 the Ministry changed the implementation mode to sole State provision by engaging mainstream primary school teachers to teach in CBE centres and stopped engaging local NGOs in CBE implementation. A report by MoEST (2016) indicated that the Pupil Teacher Ratio in the mainstream primary was at 90:1 which is higher than the recommended 60:1 as stipulated in the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) and the Education Sector Implementation Plan II (ESIP II). These same teachers, who are seemingly overloaded, are also expected to teach CBE learners. The mainstream primary school teachers are expected to teach in their mainstream school in the morning which means they can only teach CBE learners after the mainstream primary learners have knocked off irrespective of the needs of the CBE learners.

Additionally, the Ministry of Education introduced a National Reading Programme (NRP) for standard 1 to 4 learners which is aimed at accelerating acquisition of literacy and numeracy skills in the lower primary school classes. The introduction of NRP has necessitated the increase in learning hours for the lower classes in the Primary Schools.

The removal of local NGO service providers and engagement of mainstream primary teachers implies that the implementation of CBE has changed from partnership between the government and NGOs to sole government provision. This is a deviation between policy and practice which needs to be explored to establish how the current government provision of CBE also known as State provision is fairing.

Studies done by Nampota (2009) and Malcom (2009) revealed that there is a disconnect between policy makers and beneficiaries in the perception of CBE which would ultimately undermine the implementation and outcomes of CBE. This study therefore delved into the implementation and outcomes of CBE to inform policy and practice

1.4 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to assess whether the current implementation mode of CBE, through State provision, is meeting the needs of the marginalised children and the youth and achieving the objectives of the programme.

1.5 Research Questions

The study was guided by the following main and specific research questions.

1.5.1 Main research question

The main research question guiding the study was: How is the current implementation mode meeting the needs of the marginalised children and the youth?

1.5.2 Specific research question

The study addressed the following specific questions:

1. How is the implementation of CBE through the learning centres addressing the issues in access to education?

2. How are learning centres promoting equity in the provision of CBE?
3. What factors are affecting the quality of CBE in the learning centres?
4. What are the challenges in the current implementation of CBE?

1.6 Significance of the study

CBE scholarly studies conducted in Malawi have looked at integration of learners into formal education (Katonda, 2013) and what influences the children to return and remain in the programme (Malcom, 2009). Other studies conducted in other sub-Saharan African countries have dwelt much on the participation of local NGOs in the provision of education also known as non-State provision (Rose, 2007). There is, however, a dearth of knowledge on implementation and outcomes of CBE using existing government structures also known as State provision.

Primarily, this study would add to the body of knowledge on implementation and outcomes of State provision of CBE and therefore increase potential areas for further CBE study which would inform policy. The findings would inform CBE policy in terms of better policy options that are responsive and relevant to the needs of the beneficiaries hence improve the implementation and outcomes of CBE programme. Policy makers and development partners would be assisted in coming up with proper designs of educational programmes which are diverse and customised to meet the needs of specific target groups from the study findings.

The findings of the study would help to strengthen collaboration between relevant government departments, NGOs, and other stakeholders involved in implementing CBE in order to improve access to quality basic education in Malawi. Other policy

makers in the Ministries of Women Children Gender and social Welfare, Agriculture and Health who implement community-based interventions would also draw lessons and possibly replicate the most effective and efficient designs and modes of social programmes that meet the needs of the beneficiaries.

1.7 Definition of Terms

Complementary Basic Education (CBE): It is a non-formal means through which basic education is offered to the children and youths excluded from the formal basic education for various reasons (MoEST, 2008).

Formal Education: Formal education is defined as the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded system, usually arranged by institutions, guided by a curriculum, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialised programmes and institutions for fulltime technical and professional training (Eaton, 2010).

Implementation: It is the carrying out, execution, or practice of a plan, a method or any design, idea, model, specification, standard or policy for doing something. Specified set of activities designed to put into practice an activity or programme.

Non-Formal Education: Is defined as any organised educational activity taking place outside the formal system which is usually flexible, learner centred, contextualised and intended to serve identified learning needs and objectives (Rogers, 2005).

State Provision: This refers to the implementation of programmes by government (Power, 2014).

Non-State Provision: It refers to the implementation of programmes by non-governmental organisations and interventions (Power, 2014).

Outcomes: Are specific, measurable changes in individuals, systems or institutions you expect after implementation of activities.

1.8 Structure of the Thesis

This research report is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 is as described, whilst Chapter 2 provides literature review on the CBE in general, and implementation and outcomes of CBE as implemented in India, America, Sub-Saharan Africa and Malawi. The chapter also presents the CIPP conceptual framework that guided the study. Chapter 3 describes the methods used in conducting this study and justification for choosing them. Issues of credibility and trustworthiness as well as ethical considerations have also been highlighted in this chapter. Chapter 4 discusses the research findings through themes and the CIPP conceptual framework. The themes respond to the four research questions that guided the study. Finally, chapter five provides conclusions, implications and potential areas for further research in CBE.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Chapter Overview

The chapter discusses related literature pertaining to formal education (FE) and non-formal education (NFE) and placing CBE in the realm of NFE. CBE implementation strategies through state provision, non-state provision and apatrtnership of the two have also been presented. The chapter also outlines policy frameworks and protocols that guide CBE implementation. Further, the chapter presents CBE models at both national and international level and their outcomes, including some research that has so far been done on CBE. Finally, the chapter discusses the CIPP Stufflebeam conceptual framework that guides the study.

2.2 Review of Related Literature

2.2.1 Formal and Non-Formal Education

There are three forms of education namely formal, informal and non-formal. Formal education is defined as the hierarchically structured, chronologically graded system, from primary school through to university and including, in addition to general academic studies, a variety of specialised programmes and institutions for fulltime technical and professional training(Eaton, 2010). Informal education is defined as the lifelong process where people acquire attitudes, values, skills and knowledge from daily experience and educative influences and resources in the environment. Whereasnon-formal education has been defined as any organised educational activity taking place

outside the formal system which is usually flexible, learner centred and contextualised ((Eaton, 2010). According to Rogers (2005: 78) Coombs and Ahmed were the first to define NFE as “any organised educational activity outside the formal system whether operating as an important feature of some broader activity that is intended to serve identified clienteles and learning objectives”. Definitions of NFE are several and sometimes they overlap or contradict each other. Kriauciunas (2009) attributes this confusion in definition of NFE to lack of academic work in NFE and variety of forms and ways of NFE practice.

Currently, there is no single universally accepted definition of non-formal education (Hoppers, 2006; Rogers, 2004; Romi and Schmida, 2009). Smith (2012)& UNESCO, (2014) posits that NFE includes a broad spectrum of initiatives and programmes like adult literacy education, Accelerated Literacy Programmes (ALP) for school drop outs, agricultural extension trainings and health education as well as life skills, work skills programmes and social or cultural development activities

In spite the difference in forms and definitions of NFE, there are several characteristics that are shared across NFE programmes these are: learner centred and customised to their needs; flexible curriculum; focus on practical skills and knowledge; target disadvantaged youth, women, poor and marginalised groups, community participation and decentralised, more flexible organisation and management (Eaton, 2010).CBE is a form of non-formal education (NFE) offered to children who drop out of formal schooling (MoEST, 2016). The CBE model aims to provide a relatively cost-effective alternative to primary education, delivered in a more appropriate, flexible and relevant way for children and youth who faced difficulties in accessing formal schools, but

whilst ensuring equivalency with the formal system (Moleni & Nampota, 2006). Hence CBE fits very well with the definition of non-formal education.

2.2.2 Historical context of non-formal education

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, non-formal education became part of the international discourse on education policy (Smith, 2012). The term NFE appeared in 1968 when Phillip Coombs included a chapter of NFE in his book on World Education Crisis. Since then discussions and activities around NFE ensued mainly influenced by lifelong learning discourse which reintegrated the field of education (Rogers, 2005). Having evolved in the past decades, non-formal education has regained currency in recent years in light of changing educational and developmental landscapes (Rogers, 2004; Hoppers, 2006, 2007b; Rose, 2009; UNESCO Bangkok, 2012). NFE appeared in response to various context including dissatisfaction with formal education failures to adapt to rapidly changing socio economic conditions. It was realised that the global development of people is an extremely intricate matter hence greater diversity of strategies were required to address the needs of the people.

The main purpose of NFE introduction was to raise the economic and social standards of a large number of people belonging to various categories that had no opportunity to attend education to enhance their educational skills (Hopper, 2006). Policy makers and development experts were concerned with advancement and progress of education in areas such as food production, health and political participation which are important and a person could not wait until they finish their formal education for them to make a contribution to these important aspects of the economy (Hopper, 2006). Additionally, developing societies desired to have education system independent of Western

influence. However most economies were fragile and could not sustain the costs of the formal education. Most of the successful countries in NFE implementation engage facilitators recruited from within their locality with the help of local community members and mass media was used such as radio and television to support the programmes (Rogers, 2005)..

By the mid-1970s, education was viewed as part and parcel of the development process. Smith (2012) argues that the development process is an educational process or rather, it should be viewed as such. Donor agencies` previous emphasis was on provision of plants and implementation of prestigious projects. For the projects to be successful the people needed to have some basic knowledge and skills to be able to engage meaningfully. This called for new approaches to formal education and gave considerable impetus to non-formal basic education for those who had been largely neglected (Smith, 2012).

It was from this point of departure that planners and economists in the World Bank began to make a distinction between informal, non-formal and formal education. During the same period UNESCO was also moving towards lifelong education and the notions of the learning society (UNESCO, 2012). Lifelong learning was adopted as the master concept to guide educational systems (UNESCO, 2012). The resultant was the categorisation of education systems into the three main categories of formal, non-formal and informal education. Depending on country contexts, NFE programmes may include adult literacy, out of schoolchildren, life and work skills and general culture (UNESCO, 2019). In other countries the notion of NFE is not common in policy debates

hence these countries prefer alternatives like community education, community learning and social pedagogy.

Critiques of NFE have argued that it is synonymous to small-scale, short-term programmes with limited funding, as a result raises the question of equality and effectiveness and has limited impact and sustainability. It has been argued that non-formal programmes may not always be aligned with broader national education and development policies and quite often they do not induce learners to continue with formal education. UNICEF and UIS, (2014) posits that NFE tends to be perceived as somewhat inferior to formal education system. This perception comes in because NFE targets a specific group that are marginalized. Other criticisms include lack of specific definition, lack of clear conceptual framework, major differences between what NFE claims to do and what it actually does, no major change on the ground in terms of illiteracy and poverty alleviation despite being implemented for over 5 decades and limited contribution to literature (Blakey,2015).

UNESCO (2014) suggests that for NFE provision to be effective there is need to employ a combination of both system wide and targeted approaches. In system-wide approach, non-formal education is linked with broader development frameworks, it is an essential condition for sustainable and quality provision for the targeted group. Key areas in this this approach, include: positioning of non-formal education within national education systems in regard to of education governance, management and coordination; data and knowledge is used as a basis for provision; alignment to policies and legislation; availability of financial resources and capacities of institutions, professionals and practitioners. UNESCO & UNICEF (2014) identifies means to better position non-

formal education within national education systems. Crucial is the issue of governance and management structure in bridging non-formal education and formal education within the education system. Promoting inter-sectoral cooperation and strengthening collaboration among different levels of the education systems, central government, decentralised authorities, school and communities is also critical. Provision of adequate resources to support implementation of non-formal education is essential in ensuring successful implementation.

Non-formal education is strengthened by inter-sectoral cooperation supported by appropriate national systems, governance structure and management. (UNICEF and UIS, 2014). An example is that of children from rural ultra-poor families who may require curricular as well as corresponding learning materials to address their specific learning needs and better aligned to their context. This may require a more individualised approach with a multi sectoral lens as opposed to standardised approaches to adequately address their needs. At the same time, their families may need support such as social protection through, for instance, social cash transfers. Education systems alone cannot remove barriers obstructing many children from attending school. In some countries provision of non-formal education involves several sectors to ensure successful implementation. However, effective linkages and coordination among these sectors, remains a challenge (ADEA, 2012).

System enhancement and governance reforms are areas that deserve particular attention in provision of NFE. Enhancement of decentralised national education systems and improved coordination among different levels of these systems is paramount to effective delivery of NFE. This aids in reflecting local needs in policies and

interventions so that they are responsive. Decentralising education systems by transferring decision-making powers, resources, planning and monitoring functions from the ministries of education to local levels tend to improve efficiency in service delivery. In addition, establishing special departments for non-formal education at Ministry level and providing with adequate resources would enhance coordination. If these departments are not present at national or district level there is a challenge particularly when numerous small-scale activities are implemented at community and local levels. There is a danger of concentrating programmes in one area and duplication if there is no coordination (Rose, 2009). As such, enhanced decentralised non-formal education systems are required not only to ensure better coordination of these community-level activities but also to link those activities with the decentralised education systems for improved coherence in policies and practices (UNESCO, 2014).

Data and knowledge regarding NFE remain relatively weak and there is no comparable data which is collected in a systematic manner in form of mappings, surveys, censuses (UNESCO, 2014). However, development of the concept of NFE and establishing of criteria of content equivalency for the classification of NFE programmes and qualification frameworks to facilitate a classification of non-formal programmes by level (UIS and UNICEF, 2011a). Recently, there is a positive development where national Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) is gaining track in most developing countries. This is a clear indication that the need for data and information relating to non-formal education is increasingly recognised. As a result, most ministries of education include NFE departments which manage related programmes, including data collection. Several countries have developed NFE Management Information Systems (NFE-MIS) in the last decade. There is an increase in effort that has been

directed towards development of a more comprehensive EMIS with integration of both formal and non-formal education. Owing to the existence of multiple players in the implementation of non-formal education, there is a challenge where administrative data does not cover all data sources due to lack of single data source.

Data are useful but they are not always linked with education systems which makes decision making at that level a problem (UIS and UNICEF, 2011a) and may miss out some the population of the vulnerable groups (Carr-Hill, 2012). Additionally, little systematic monitoring has been conducted regarding learning outcomes and impact of non-formal provision for out-of-school children and youth (UNESCO, 2014). There exists a knowledge gap with regard to theoretical knowledge base and the richness of practical experiences by different players in NFE (Romi and Schmida, 2009). With the recent renewed focus on non-formal education for out of school children and youth, there is an improvement on the information and knowledge base (UNESCO, 2012)

2.2.3 Differentiation of Formal and Non-Formal Education

In recent years the terminology “Non -Formal Education” has become a prominent issue because of difficulties in drawing a line between non-formal and formal education due to diversity of forms and when some initiatives show the characteristics of both (UNESCO, 2016). This has led to some dropping the term and opting to use lifelong learning for basic education programmes and adult education for adult literacy programmes. The distinction made between formal and non-formal education provisions is largely administrative (Smith 2012). Some have moved away from the simple counter-positioning of non-formal and formal education, by which non-formal education tends to be treated as inferior to the latter (Robinson-Pant, 2014). Others

claim that boundaries between formal and non-formal education are blurred (Farrell & Hartwell, 2008). There is a thin line between these categories considering that people often organise educational events as part of their everyday experience. As Smith (2012) argues that the distinctions do not imply hard and fast categories but there may well be some overlaps.

Some countries have used this separation to reflect the gulf between government provision of education and the needs and interests of the marginalised populations (Smith, 2012). NFE was analysed in terms of purposes, timing, content delivery, systems, control, and contrasted these with formal educational programmes. The resulting ideal-types provide a useful framework and bring out the extent to which non-formal education initiatives, while emphasising flexibility, localness and responsiveness, remain located within a curricula form of education.

Table 1: Ideal-type models of Formal and Non-formal education

	Formal	non-formal
Purposes	Long-term and general Credential-based	Short-term and specific Non-credential-based
Timing	long cycle / preparatory / full-time	short cycle / recurrent / part- time
Content	standardised / input centred academic entry requirements determine clientele	individualised / output centred practical clientele determine entry requirements
delivery system	Institution-based, isolated from environment. rigidly structured, teacher- centred and resource intensive	Environment-based, community related. flexible, learner-centred and resource saving
Control	external / hierarchical	self-governing / democratic
Curriculum	Caferia, ptions, selections	Recommended, chronological

(Adapted by Fordham, 1993 from Simkins, 1977, pp. 12-15 cited in Smith,

2012)

2.2.4 Implementation of Non-Formal Education; ‘Top down’ and ‘bottom up’

Approaches

One of the enduring themes in the literature of non-formal education, according to Smith (2012), has been that the education provided should be in the interests of the learners and that the organisation and curriculum planning should preferably be

undertaken by the learners themselves. This type is known as 'bottom up' approach which aims at empowering the learners by meeting their diverse needs. Smith (2012) states that bottom up approach brings in a genuine sense of ownership by implementers and beneficiaries at community level. On the other hand, top-down implementation of non-formal education is a centralised approach where the curriculum and implementation is determined by those at the central Ministry. Examples of top-down non-formal programmes are very common in state provided programmes, (Smith, 2012).

2.2.5 Accelerated Learning Programmes (ALP)

Depending on the provider and context, non-formal education may also include accelerated learning programmes (ALP). ALPs are catch up initiatives designed to help children and youth who have missed out years of formal schooling, to complete their educational qualification within a relatively short period of time. ALPs cover the essential elements of the official curriculum planned in partnership with educational authorities. At the end of the catch-up period, the children are re-integrated into the formal schooling. ALPs targets are marginalised children who have missed out a significant portion of schooling. In emergencies, these include the displaced children, girls or child soldiers. In such cases, reintegration is strong support to demobilisation as these children miss out a significant portion of schooling (UNESCO, 2012). Based on the structure of CBE as outlined in chapter 2.1, CBE implementation falls within the ALP.

2.3 State and non stateprovision of CBE

Many countries around the world have introduced CBE programmes to increase access to education to all children. The programmes are diverse depending on the objectives they intend to achieve (Power, 2014) . They target out of school children who are in different and difficult circumstances like those who are unreached, underserved, who are in crises like war and are unable to access traditional schools, those whose geographical location limits their access, like remote areas or indigenous populations, and some who dropped out of the mainstream schools for various reasons like socio-economic and cultural (Suleman, 2012). Where government implements CBE programme it is termed as ‘State Provision’ (Power, 2014). Where the CBE programmes are solely implemented by local NGOs with support of resources from international NGOs they are termed as non-state provision (Power, 2014). Non-Governmental Organisations are defined as those organisations receiving funds from international aid agencies, but which are institutionally separate from the state machinery and are non-profit making (Tvedt, 1998, cited in Bano, 2006). Most often such NGOs are specifically established as a means to acquire donor resources (Miller-Grandvaux, Welmond, & Wolf (2002).

2.3.1 Non-State provision of CBE

Non- state provision has arisen due to changes in states priorities which are associated with the effects of the international economic and political agenda, which have necessitated integration of multiple providers of education into a system-wide approach. Additionally, pressure placed on international agencies and national governments to attain education targets set in international and national agendas has seen non -state actors gaining track in the provision of basic education since the early

1970s (Akyeampong, Rolleston, Ampia&Lewin, 2012). With renewed focus on expanding primary schooling more attention is being paid by donors and governments to recognise the role that non -state providers could play in supporting the state in achieving internationally and nationally set targets (Rose, 2007).

Non-state provision is a relatively recent phenomenon which has significantly grown in the context of the international policy agendas of the 1980s and 1990s associated in particular with the Washington and Post-Washington Consensus (Fine & Rose, 2001). Since the 1990s, the international agendas have paid attention towards economic liberalisation and democratic governance, which has resulted in a growing trend by donor agencies to channel aid to developing countries through international NGOs (Edwards & Hulme, 1995). In the mid-1990s, it was estimated that around 10-15 percent of all official aid to developing countries was channelled through NGOs (Rose, 2007).

There are different roles that NGOs play in supporting education service delivery one of which is advocacy role to ensure access for all children to quality education by putting pressure on governments (Mundy & Murphy, 2001). In some cases, NGOs may be the main provider of education, particularly where state willingness and capacity is weak, as in many conflict areas and ‘fragile States’. This is most common where the slacks legitimacy and accountability, and so international donor agencies are unwilling to support their budgets, as a result they channel resources directly to the lower level of implementation through local NGOs (Rose & Greeley, 2006). Non-state provision is also applicable when a programme is piloted in form of a project in order to draw lessons for better policy options. In some cases non-state provision serves to relieve pressure

on the public sector to maximize the returns on education for each financial investment on education (Patrinos & Sosale, 2007). Non-state actors also exist to fill void created by the state's inability to fully provide education for all (Rose, 2007; DeStefano & Schuh-Moore, 2010).

exclusion m

Other NGOs are directly involved in education provision, primarily with respect to reaching out to the excluded. Educational exclusion can take many forms, including those 'hard-to-reach' with respect to gender, street children, orphans, child soldiers demobilised children in post-conflict areas, pastoralists, indigenous groups, language, faith, disability, refugees and child labourers (Sayed & Soudien, 2003; UNESCO, 2004). These forms of ay interact with income-related poverty, socio-cultural and other demandside related reasons (Colclough, et al 2003.). Inadequate supply of schooling in remote rural areas can further exacerbate these constraints. Often times, some pockets of exclusion exist particularly in rural and sem-urban areas in countries where access to education is not an issue (Rose, 2007). In such countries, NGO provision is usually localised on a small scale, with the specific aim to develop innovative approaches to reach those excluded from the conventional State system to ensure no child is left out (Rose, 2007).

There are several countries which offer education through non-state provision. Bangladesh started offering CBE programmes in the mid 1980s. The programme which grew out of locally based relief NGOs is autonomous from government plans (Rose, 2007). Rural Advancement Committee (BRAC) Schools offers a four year programme that covers the five year standard curriculum to poor, rural, disadvantaged children and

drop-outs who cannot access Government Schools (Chabbott & Schuh Moore, 2006). BRAC implemented the programme in conjunction with other large NGOs, subcontracting smaller NGOs (Rose, 2007). These one-room schools are for children between eight and fourteen years of age. Each school typically consists of 33 students and one teacher. As of 2012, this model had been replicated in Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Uganda, Tanzania, South Sudan, Sierra Leone, Liberia, Haiti and The Philippines.

Afghan Primary Education Programme (APEP) in Afghanistan is USAID funded and implemented home based schooling CBE programme. APEP, through local NGOs, offer accelerated elementary education for out-of-school youth between ten and eighteen years of age, focusing on females (Intili & Kissam, 2006). The programme was developed and implemented by IRC, targeting mostly girls. In APEP, Children study for half day sessions in the local community. The end goal is to absorb the students into government schools when the Ministry has the capacity to effectively educate more children in their local communities (Nicholson, 2007).

In Zambia, non-profit organisations work with empowered communities to address the needs of orphans and vulnerable children aged 6-18. The programme aims to increase access, progression and retention in, quality basic education, as well as their transition to senior grades and tertiary education (Power, 2014).

The non-state actors provision often intend to bring benefits in terms of the alternative forms of pedagogy and accountability it aims to offer. However, there is very little systematic, critical analysis of who is gaining access to education offered by alternative providers, or what they are actually getting access to. This calls for proper analysis of

educational access to pay greater attention to diverse forms of access both in terms of who provides, and what is provided (Rose, 2007). This is where engagement of the state to monitor non-state providers becomes very crucial to ensure adherence to standards. The state would also coordinate the NGOs so that they reach out to the unreached and there is no concentration of NGOs in one area through a systematic mapping and monitoring.

2.3.2 State Provision of CBE

State provision refers to implementation of CBE using Government Structures (Power, 2014). Basic education is commonly regarded as a state responsibility relevant both given education's strategic importance in national identity formation, as well as due to the social and economic benefits that accrue (Colclough 1982; Lewin, 1995; Hannum & Buchmann, 2005). For individuals and households, these benefits are anticipated to develop over a lifecycle and across generations (Rose & Dyer, 2006; Harper, Marcus & Moore, 2003). In 'fragile States' affected by conflict and war, the demand for education is often even greater. In such states education is not only a right and a contribution to the development, but can also be important for ensuring security (Rose & Greeley, 2006). On the one hand, state involvement intends to promote its legitimacy where legitimacy is understood as the ability of the government to work in the interest of the public and demonstrate fairness to all groups in providing security and public goods and services (Rose, 2007). The reasons mandate states to be providers of essential services including education services.

An example of state provision in the field of Complementary Basic Education (CBE), in India, dates back to 1970. The CBE programmes in India are integral to government

plans and are state led (Government of India, 2002). In Angola, the state provided a second-chance learning opportunity to adolescents through Programme for Literacy and School Acceleration (PAAE). The programme was for literacy, numeracy and life skills for adolescents through a condensed and adapted primary school curriculum, which can be completed in two-and-a-half years rather than the full six years complete cycle of primary schooling. The out-of-school children are given a chance to complete primary education, come back into the school system and continue to the second level (Sulemana, 2012)

The government of Burundi with the help from Norwegian Refugee Council provided Teacher Emergency Package (TEP) to help get non-schooled children or dropouts (9-14 years) into the third grade of formal primary schools at the end of a 10 month intensive course (Obura, 2008). Similarly, in Cambodia, the state with support from USAID provides Educational Support for Children in Underserved Populations (ESCUP) aimed at non Khmer speaking highland minority groups. The programme is implemented through government primary schools to implement a supplementary Khmer language programme for grade one students in select highland communities. This is normally done in a way to complement an existing lesson in language or some other subject. Thus, the programme works within the framework of the existing curriculum as well as supplementing it (Obura, 2008)

Egyptian government with support from UNICEF implemented Community Schools Programme targeting out of school children in remote hamlets in Upper Egypt especially girls (Balwanz, 2006). In Kenya, the state implements Undugu Basic Education Programme (UBEP), an instruction to disadvantaged out-of-school children

and youth particularly street children. The accelerated learning takes three years to complete and graduates are expected to go into formal education at secondary level. In Tanzania, the state implements Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET) with UNICEF support. The programme provides basic education and life and survival skills to children – particularly girls who cannot access or who have dropped out of formal schooling. The programme has a condensed, three-year, competency based curriculum which prepares children to return to the formal education system and access secondary or other post-primary education opportunities. Delivery is flexible, so children can attend lessons when they are free to learn, and they do not have to wear uniforms (Musaroache, 2005).

The Ugandan government implements Community Oriented Primary Education Programme (COPE) in urban poverty areas. COPE is a 3 year programme that aims to bring the children to the level equivalent to grade 5, it is meant for out of school children and youth aged between 8 and 10 (Power, 2014). In Zimbabwe, the state gives a second chance to out of school children, particularly those affected by HIV AIDS to catch up. The state and NGOs offers a 3 year programme that links the national curriculum and allows the children to sit for grade 7 national examinations (Power, 2014). Having discussed the three approaches to the provision of CBE, it is worth noting that there is little or rather no concrete evidence available that one approach works better than another, it is what makes sense in light of the nature and aims of CBE (Rose, 2007).

Having accessed the literature on non-state and state provision, it is apparent that there are many examples of implementation of the two modes. However what is lacking in

the literature is the documentation of the outcomes of such provisions to draw on best practices for replication. As alluded to in literature review, there is lack of single source data and multiple data available is not documented.

2.3.3 Provision of education through state and non-state partnership

Rose (2007) notes that changes in priorities associated with the effects of the international economic and political agenda has given a window for integrating multiple providers of education into a system-wide approach. This has led to NGO-government collaboration and partnership to ensure sustainability of educational access for the marginalised children (Rose, 2007). However, the debate on how state and non-state collaboration can best increase access to quality basic education for out of school children in the population still continues (Casely-Hayford and Adom Ghartey, 2007).

Although there is substantial evidence about *why* it is important to establish innovative partnerships and cooperation between state and non-state actors, there is currently little evidence on *how* this can be established and maintained. This gives rise to the need for an analysis of the implications for NGO-government collaboration to ensure sustainability of educational access. Power (2014,) observes that the little evidence there is at hand, points to that the most effective ways to ensure cooperation between the Government and other actors is to have clearly defined roles and responsibilities based on what each partner does best. Sulemana (2012) asserts that policy space accorded by the state and willingness to establish innovative partnerships with non-state actors is present across many states.

As much as the partnership between state and NGOs may be an ideal way of implementing NFE programmes there are two issues that need to be taken into consideration. The first is the capacity of local NGOs to implement the programmes and on the other hand capacity of the state to monitor the NGOs to ensure adherence to standards. The second issue is the issue of funding modalities to the NGOs to enable them implement the activities. In most cases government payment systems are lengthy and tedious, as a result delays in payment are inevitable which eventually impacts implementation negatively. However according to Rose (2007), state involvement brings about legitimacy. In this case legitimacy is understood as the ability of the government to work in the interest of the public and demonstrate fairness in distribution of resources to all groups when providing public services. In view of that need, alternative approaches to providing education should fall within the ambit of the state structures specifically Ministry of education. Another side of the argument is that, even though international protocols give mandate to the state to provide education at a free and compulsory scale, often times it is not possible to provide universal access through state provision alone. Hence non-state provision has grown by default to fill the gap (Lewin, & Sayed, 2005; Rose, 2005).

2.4 Empirical framework

There is diversity in the implementation of CBE programmes from one country to another. Some CBE programmes have been initiated by governments and others by Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). Some CBE programmes have been implemented as projects with specific duration while others are programmes which are ongoing. Most CBE programmes aim at increasing access and equity in education, improve completion rates and learning outcomes and integration into the formal

schooling. This section will discuss CBE models in India, Bangladesh, Afghanistan and the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) region. The discussion will help to place Malawi CBE model within the models that are implemented in other countries.

2.4.1 Implementation of CBE in India

In 2009, an innovation was developed in India to provide children in disadvantaged remote areas to learn English through interaction with mediators (Miltra, 2010). The innovation was termed Self Organised Mediation Environments (SOMEs). The sessions were not compulsory and did not follow any fixed curriculum and had no specified duration. Children learnt English and developed self-confidence through interactions with volunteer mediators. The children were provided with computers and free internet access. A link was given to them through which they would interact with their mediators. This innovation targeted 11 slums and remote areas where the mediators did not wish go or could not physically go.

2.4.2 Implementation and outcomes of CBE in Bangladesh

Bangladesh Primary Schools (BPSs) are one teacher-one class schools with the same teacher supporting the same class of learners over four years. The intention of BPS is not to develop a self-sustaining school but to educate underprivileged groups until more permanent schools are provided. Nevertheless, it currently remains a key component of Bangladesh's primary education provision. BPSs target underprivileged groups and dropouts, mainly in rural areas and especially girls. BPS class size is 25-33 students compared with an average of 61 for Government Primary Schools, GPS. The learners in BPS are overage 8-14 years compared to the 6-10 years old in GPSs. This helps reduce competition between the two systems. There is clearly a strong demand in BPS

as unpunctual or frequently absent students may be replaced during the first three months of year one.

BPS enrolment in 2004 was approximately 1.4 million, constituting 8% of total enrolment (Sabur & Ahmed, 2010). BPS follows the government curriculum so that the learners can sit for the secondary entrance exam just like students from the government primary schools. The curriculum is enriched with social values and financial information hence has greater relevance to the lives of learners and also recognises the importance of empowerment (Chabbott & Moore, 2006). Textbooks and other materials have been developed for the first three years while government books are used for grades 4 and 5. Instruction and materials are in the learners' own language up to grade 2 and Storybooks in these languages are also supplied.

Teachers receive an initial 12-day training followed by monthly, subject-based refreshers courses. Despite having less training, the teachers take on responsibilities often ignored by GPS teachers such as continuously assessing learner progress and using more active learning approaches (Chabbott & Moore, 2006). The level of supervision is very high with each BPS being seen twice a week for lesson observation, lesson plan review and record checking. BPS attendance and completion rates are generally higher than for GPS. This is attributed to the close location of the school and the sound relationship between teachers and learners. Neither physical punishment nor shaming is supposed to be used in BPSs.

EQUIP2 analysed the cost-effectiveness of BPS and discovered that the cost per student reaching a level of learning was almost 8 times higher than in GPS. The greater cost-

effectiveness of BPS was attributed to lower per student costs, the accelerated learning (four years instead of five) and higher completion rates.

2.4.3 Implementation of CBE in Brazil

Brazil's Accelerated Learning Program (BALP) operating from 1996-2001 attempted to address the high percentage of overage learners in elementary schools. Initially the program targeted the second cycle of elementary education, grades 5-8 where the proportions of overage learners were greatest but in some cases, it was extended to grades 1-4 (Lück & Parente (2007)). The programme arose from a concern with the costs of repetition which were leading to 44.5% of primary school learners in 1995 being at least two age grades behind where they should be. Learners were supported through supplementary classes to fast-track more than one grade level in a school year. Classes were small with an aimed average of 25 and a maximum of 30. Repetition itself, however, only reduced in the higher grades but not in the three earliest grades. Thus, early years' learning difficulties presumably remained. While accelerated learning was successful in the supplementary classes undertaken by overage learners, regular classes continued to produce repeaters, necessitating more supplementary classes. What had been envisaged as a time-bound project to address a limited issue would have needed to become an on-going programme until such a time that early repetition had also been addressed. In effect, considering the endemic nature of the issue, it needed to become a policy with long-term provision (Lück & Parente, 2007)

Unlike most ALPs which use community-based facilitators trained on the job, the BALP used committed, qualified teachers of the regular classes who had volunteered for this additional work. In most cases, the teachers were sufficiently motivated by the

additional training opportunities; in four states, additional payments were made. The programme required a new role for the teacher as a facilitator of learning more than an instructor. According Lück and Parente (2007), training was found to be successful as it was pragmatic, focusing on the specific tasks to be performed by teachers in classrooms. Insufficient attention, however, was paid to behavioural aspects. Key aspects of the programme in all states were the specific methodology, the special materials and the training of teachers. The materials were the factor with the highest correlation with programme results (Lück & Parente, 2007). The assessment of students was also innovative with students' developing portfolios of work with any teacher evaluation discussed with the student.

2.4.4 Implementation and outcomes of CBE in Afghanistan

Afghanistan Primary Education Program (APEP) was implemented from 2003 to 2006. It targeted 170,000 children and youth between 10-18 years old. It was implemented in a post crisis situation and was aimed at reaching out to underserved population with a particular emphasis on girls excluded from the formal education system (Intili, et al., 2006). The shortage of female teachers was the biggest obstacle to female enrolment in the formal schooling. APEP engaged 34-41% female mentors to encourage more girls to attend. This resulted in 56% enrolment of females, one and a half greater than the rate in state schools (Nicholson, 2007). Learners were taught by mentors who were provided 312 hours of training conducted during holidays prior to teaching a particular grade. The mentors were also drilled on effective methods for language and maths learning. One innovative pedagogical idea was that of peer-to-peer classroom networks; these were mostly initiated by teachers though females were more disposed than males to initiating collaborative work, (Intili & Kissam, 2006).

APEP registered low dropout rate which was attributed to four factors: community sensitization, the application of interesting and useful classwork, suitable school location and the monitoring and supervision process (Intili& Kissam., 2006). The provision of student kits to individuals may have also been a motivating factor in retention (Nicholson, 2007). Intili&Kissam, (2006) contend that females in APEP generally performed as well as males and outperforming them at grade two. Older learners tended to achieve higher scores (Intili & Kissam, 2006).

2.4.5 Implementation and Outcomes of CBE in Ghana

The Ghana Complementary Basic Education (CBE) programme seeks to provide out-of-school children with the literacy, numeracy and life skills in order to access primary education. The broad policy goals and objectives of the Ghana CBE programme are to provide the disadvantaged children with the opportunity to have full cycle of basic education (Farrell & Hartwell, 2008). It aims at increasing access, gender equality and participation in Basic Education. The Government of Ghana through the Ministry of education Basic Education Department is implementing the innovation in collaboration with development partners. CBE in Ghana targets 800,000 school going age children estimated to be out of school accounting for 25 percent of school going children. Of the estimated out-of-school children, 70% are in the ten poorest districts which tend to be in Northern Ghana (UNESCO UIS, 2008; Ghana Demographic Health Survey, 2009; Ghana EMIS, 2010). The innovative approaches to pedagogy, use of vernacular language and adaptation to the needs of communities by providers of CBE have delivered consistently strong results in Ghana.

School for Life (SfL) is an example of a successful complementary education programme in Ghana initially funded by DANIDA and later in 2008 DFID joined. SfL has since 1995 been offering CBE to deprived communities for children aged 8-14 who have no access to formal education (Adam- Issa, Eleden, Forson & Schrofer, 2002). The programme targets deprived rural children in Northern Ghana who are unable to attend school due to socio economic reasons. The programme is designed to ultimately help learners rejoin and integrate into formal schooling upon graduation from CBE schools (Adam- Issa, Eleden, Forson & Schrofer, 2002). The national curriculum has been adapted to local circumstances with each lesson based on a familiar issue related, for example, to agriculture, hygiene or the environment; cultural activities such as stories, games and songs are interwoven in the active learning approaches adopted. The three subjects of language, numeracy and environmental studies are integrated into each lesson (Hartwell, 2006). Issues of relevance from the learners' environment are used to structure the language course.

2.3.5.1 Major Characteristics of School for Life

According to Farrell and Hartwell (2008), the major characteristics of the SfL programme has made it successful. SFL targets children between the ages of 8-14 years with girls constituting 50% of enrolment. Facilitators recruited within and by the communities where the CBE centres are located and volunteer to do the work. They are motivated by professional gains with the potential for opportunities for becoming a teacher than the meagre financial rewards. Facilitators are trained by the Ghana Education Service, both for the initial 3-week induction and for the refresher courses every three months. Supervision of faclitators is conducted at least once per month. Classroom observation show that facilitator-learner relationships are open, leading to a

higher rate of participation than for public schools . Facilitators are literate in the language of the community which is used as a medium of instruction and literacy language. There is strong community involvement or animation. The school calendar and learning hours are flexible and adapted to the community where off days are typically the market day and Friday or Sunday depending on major day of worship. This allows children to maintain daily duties and to contribute to everyday activities in the communities.

SfL lessons are conducted in primary school classrooms in the afternoon or other suitable places (Hartwell, 2006). SfL has so far reached out to 150,000 children out of which 80 % have been integrated into formal schooling (DFID Ghana, 2012). Out of the total mainstreamed, about 41% were girls and 59% boys (Hayford, 2003). Learner attendance rates of 90% compared with an estimated 75% in public schools might be attributed to a school location closer to the community as well as strong community ownership (Hartwell, 2006). One third of the students can read fluently after nine months (Adam-Issa, Eleden, Forson & Schrofer.,2005). The performance of SfL graduates in the grade 6 English and Mathematics was reported as being in the upper 50 percentile substantiating the claim that focusing first on literacy in one's own language is a solid base for literacy in English (Hartwell, 2006).

A service provider was engaged to play the role of Management Unit and work in collaboration with Ministry of Education at national, regional and district level. The Government takes on full responsibility for the oversight, coordination and management of the CBE programme. One of the most distinctive features of CBE in the Ghanaian context is the use of mother tongue instruction; public schools use English as

the medium of instruction. The Ministry of Education, Ghana Education Service, Assessment Services Unit Report (2012) indicates significantly better performance in English of grade 6 learners who had attended National Literacy Acceleration Program schools where students learn in their own local language before starting English in grade 3.

2.4.6 Implementation of CBE in Tanzania

Tanzania conceived the Primary Education Development Plan (PEDP) in 1998 as the outcome of efforts in formulating international commitment; the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and EFA process, into feasible strategies and actions (MoEV, 2008). The Government of Tanzania realised that the formal education system could not adequately serve all children who have diverse needs. To ensure diversity in the provision of education, the Government of Tanzania decided to put emphasis on alternative learning as a complement to basic education. It was observed, for example, that by 1997 more than 2 million children of school age were out of school (MoEV, 2008). Most of these children came from poor families and hard to reach communities.

The objective of COBET was to mainstream school-age children into the formal system and give them a chance to complete Primary School Leaving Examination and thereafter be free to compete for selection into secondary schools. COBET aims at providing basic education to children who dropped out or never entered primary education. The target group in COBET was divided into two cohorts. Cohort one comprised 11 to 13 year-olds and Cohort Two comprised 14-18 year-old children and youth. This differentiation in age serves the needs of the two groups which are diverse.

A study conducted in 2006, indicated that 84% of cohort 1 learners passed the IV national examinations and joined the mainstream education in Standard V, while the remaining 16 % joined standard IV. COBET has so far reached out to half a million children between the age of 11 and 18.

2.4.7 Implementation of CBE in Zambia

Zambian Complimentary Basic Education is identified as one of the successful initiatives. The CBE in Zambia came to address the education needs of HIV patients and the vulnerable children. The growing population of adults living with HIV/AIDS has led to an increase in the number of orphaned children. More than 700,000 children have lost one or both parents, amounting to 15 percent of the population who are under 15 years old (Zambia Community Schools Secretariat, 2005). In response to the increase in the number of orphaned children and the cost associated with government provided schools, communities started building their own schools . The Community schools have helped offer opportunity for accessing schools to individuals who would not had the means of affording education especially the orphans (CARE Zambia, 2005). Eventually NGOs and government started recognizing the community schools. As a result, in 2004, the community schools enrolled twenty percent of the basic education enrolment (CARE Zambia, 2005). Achievement of Free Basic Education for Zambia would not be possible without community schools for orphans and vulnerable children (Zambia Community Schools Secretariat, 2005).

2.4.8 Implementation of CBE in Lesotho

Alternative education provision in Lesotho is implemented by Lesotho Association for Non-Formal Education (LANFE) with support from government. LANFE has been operating since 1980 to provide literacy, life skills and human rights education. Fifty-eight percent of learners in these literacy programmes are herd boys (Mokuku, 2004). In 2006, LANFE embarked on a project targeting children in remote mountain regions where other forms of non-formal education are not available. Apart from Literacy, life skills LANFE provides HIV/AIDS support groups in areas of need. Fifty-eight learning centres were established in Mokhotlong district. The area was selected because it was one of the most difficult to reach districts in Lesotho and children were not attending school in this part of the country.

Based on the literature on implementation of CBE in different countries, what is clearly coming is that all CBE programmes target a specific group of people and they come to address a specific issue. The initiatives are either state or non state provided and in some cases they are implemented in partnership. The successful initiatives are the ones that are flexible, involve communities in their implementation and based on developing skills for integration or livelihood. Additionally most of them are accelerated learning programmes or catch up initiatives.

2.5 Implementation of CBE in Malawi

The education system in Malawi has experienced a lot of inefficiencies since the introduction of Free Primary Education. The number of children and youths dropping out of the formal primary schooling gave an impetus to the Malawi government to seek alternative ways of addressing the needs of learners who dropped out for various reasons including the push out factors within the system.

2.5.1 Factors that affect dropout in the mainstream primary school

There is a large proportion of children who drop out of primary schools despite the adoption of UPE policies in many African countries. This shows that the cost of schooling is just but one of the many factors that make children dropout of school. Cassidy and Bates (2005) categorised the factors which make children dropout of school into two namely: “pull outs” and “push outs”. Cassidy and Bates (2005) described pull out factors as those which exist outside the education system, within the community or family set up which hinder children from attending school. The “Push out” factors are defined as those within the school system which make children to stop attending school.

Ananga (2011) described the factors as demand and supply factors. Where demand factors he classified as socio-economic factors such; as household poverty, direct and indirect cost of schooling, structure and arrangement in the house hold pertaining to gender, family size , education level of parents, type of house hold head and health status of family members and child labour. According to Chapman, (2004) learners living in low in come families are six times more likely to drop out than those in from high in come families. In this case the porverty level of a house hold affects learners chances of learners to remain in school.

The supply factors he defined as conditions within the school system which include; education resources, quality of education, academic performance and overage enrolment which makes school unappealing due to unfriendly environment. Culture and environment of the school can infuence learners to either drop out or remain in school. Learners who drop out perceive the school as non supportive, where teachers have low expectations of the students, poorly organised academic programmes and ineffiecient

teachers (Averitt, 2008). A school environment which is gender responsive, rights based, disability friendly, good and adequate infrastructure is more likely to retain a good number of learners (Chisanga, 2013). Ananga, (2011) observed that these factors interact in a complex manner to cause dropout and often function simultaneously (Ananga, 2011). Drop out has serious consequences which include limited employment opportunities, high risk behaviours like premature sexual activities, drug and alcohol abuse, burden on social welfare programmes. The high dropouts cause a problem to the social economic growth of the country because the children and youths who drop out can not contribute meaningfully to the development activities.

Education policies like UPE which emphasise on access and enrolment in education while neglecting issues of retaining learners within the school system also contribute to large numbers of learners to leave school (Zeelen et al., 2010). Zeelen et al., (2010) alludes to the fact that most African Countries have adopted the UPE policy with less regard to issues of retention. Verspoor (1994) described this type of ideology applied in UPE as a fundamental tenet of traditional blue print planning models. These planning models are designed to expand enrolment and increase coverage of proven education interventions whilst neglecting issues of retention (Verspoor, 1994).

Until the late 1980s, the primary concern of education policy makers was to create conditions for rapid expansion of education system and increase coverage of well-established programmes (Verspoor, 1994). This was done majorly due to political reasons as governments sought to seek legitimacy and gain popularity. Currently, there is a paradigm shift where early drop out has replaced expansion of access as a priority.

Globally, 263 million children, are out of school, out of which 63 million are children aged 6 and 11; 61 million aged 12 to 14 years ; 139 million between the ages of about 15 to 17 and 55 percent are girls. (UNESCO, 2014) In Sub-Saharan countries, school dropout is a common phenomenon despite most of these countries adopting Universal Primary Education (UPE) policies (Rose, 2007). Sub-Saharan Africa has the highest rates of education exclusion where over one-fifth of children between the ages of about 6 and 11 and one-third of youth between the ages of about 12 and 14 are out of school and 60 percent of youth between the ages of about 15 and 17 are not in school (UNESCO, 2014). This is making Sub-Saharan Africa lag behind in achieving EFA goals and the goal of UPE, (Rose et al., 2014). In view of these dropout trends, most governments, international agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) have developed CBE policies to reach out to these excluded and marginalised children. Similarly, the Malawi government designed a programme for addressing the learning needs of the excluded and marginalised children and the youth through CBE (MoEST, 2009).

Adoption of the FPE policy in Malawi has increased access to education whilst neglecting issues of retention. Only about 50% of the children that enrol for standard 1 survive up to standard 4 (Kadzamira & Nell, 2004). The primary completion rate is 35% and it is estimated that there are 600,000 children of school-going age who are not in school out of which 4% never enrolled and 96% are drop outs (MoEST, 2009). The Government of Malawi Demographic and Health Survey (MDHS), 2000 reported higher dropout rates for girls than boys in primary school. This was estimated at 9.5 % for boys while 14.1 % for girls.

Education Management Information Systems (EMIS), 2008, shows that dropout rate is still high in both primary and secondary schools. On average, 10.5% of girls and 6.7% of boys dropped out of primary school in 2008 (MoEST, 2008). This gender disparity implies that girls are more marginalised in access to education than boys. MDHS (2010) reported 2.1, 2.4, 3.0, 4.0, and 4.7 percent of children drop out of school after attending Standard 1 to Standard 5 respectively. The most recent report shows that drop out in primary school has risen to 12.3% and 8.6% for boys and girls respectively from 10.5% and 6.7% as reported in 2008, (MoEST, 2013).

These dropout rates suggest that dropping out of school is not purely a decision by learners. The gap between UPE policies and realities on the ground also pushes learners out of school. It is for this reason that the use of the word dropout is considered a negative connotation. This is because some learners do not solely choose to leave school but rather circumstances within school setting and outside force them to leave school (Conen & Rutten, 2003). This understanding has brought about the adoption of other words like early school leavers, out of school youths, excluded youths and marginalised youths (Zeelen, et al 2010) to replace the word drop out. Malawi has adopted the term out of school youth to refer to boys and girls who between age 7-24 years, who have never enrolled or dropped out of school, (MoEST, 2016). To reach out to the education needs of these youth, NFE has been deployed as a means of ensuring that these youths gain knowledge and skills to be productive citizens and contribute to the social economic development of the country.

The education sector in Malawi has been addressing the needs of out of school children and youth. This is done through an Accelerated Learning Programme (ALP) known as CBE (Chiuye, 2009). The objective of CBE is to improve equitable access to basic education programme for out-of-school children and youth including girls, children from ultra-poor families, Special Education Needs (SEN) learners, orphans and all vulnerable children (MoEST, 2008). CBE aims at providing essential knowledge, skills and values to promote self-reliance encourage lifelong learning and full participation in societal development (MoEST, 2009). The Ministry of Education reports that there is a higher proportion of orphans and other vulnerable and hard to reach children participating in CBE than in primary schools (MoEST, 2009).

2.5.2 The Concept of CBE programme in Malawi

CBE targets children and youth aged between 9 and 17 years who dropped out before completing standard 5. It also targets those who have never attended primary school. The course content is equivalent to the first five standards of primary school. It is expected that completers of the CBE programme should have sufficient literacy, numeracy and other basic skills to return to primary school in Standard 6. The age range for Primary school in Malawi is 6 to 13 years. The Malawi constitution provides for 8-year primary school cycle and the Education Act (2013) states that the primary school entry age is 6 years. The age range for the CBE programme goes beyond the primary school age range of 6 to 13 years despite the course content being equivalent to primary school. This poses questions as to whether CBE is meeting the needs of those that are beyond the primary school going age range of 13 to 17 years.

CBE design adopts a flexible learning time to suit the needs of the learners. To increase accessibility, Community Learning Centres (CLCs) are established within the communities. Smith, (2012), contends that CLCs which are run by the communities themselves, aim to enhance basic education, train teachers, develop local businesses, strengthen municipal administration and civil society organisations. The learning centres are run by Learning Centre Management Committees (LCMCs) who are chosen by the community and work as volunteers. This is in line with the Malawi Decentralisation policy (1998) and National Strategy for Community Participation in Primary School Management (NSCPPSM). Both the Decentralisation policy and the NSCPPSM advocate for community participation in the delivery of education services. Despite these policies advocating for community engagement, there are challenges in trying to engage, motivate and retain volunteers. One critical issue is identifying members who can become active and follow through with the assignments. On the other hand once the right members are identified issues of motivation and retention are also a problem to the extent that maintaining the required numbers in a committee becomes a challenge.

The CBE programme envisaged recruitment of facilitators from within the community. The recruitment of facilitators from within the community strengthens school community partnerships. These partnerships can serve to strengthen and support programmes towards improved quality and better alignment of goals and the curricula (Harvard, 2010). To enhance quality the facilitators undergo a three-week training and subsequent three weeks refresher course every term (Chiuye, 2009).

The objectives of CBE are achieved through making sure that the existing learning centres are in operation and opening new centres. As an incentive to increase participation, ESIP1 outlined and intended to provide monthly support payments to children of qualifying families that regularly attend CBE classes. This, however, has been modified aiming at providing monthly support payments to CBE completers once they are integrated into the formal schooling. This is a way of encouraging the CBE learners to return to primary school and continue with their education. ESIP 1 envisages to provide safety nets for those vulnerable children who cannot afford to meet the indirect cost to schooling once they return to school and reduce the probability of them dropping out of school again (MoEST, 2012).

Stakeholder involvement is critical in successful implementation of CBE. Ideally, education reforms that are effective involve a wide variety of persons, from those at school level, through the middle level of educational officers, to leadership at the Ministry of Education, (Hartwell, Saaka, Horsbrugh, Huhein, & Carsely-Hayford, 2004). CBE implementation adopted this line of thinking and hence involves 2.5.3 Stakeholders' Roles and Responsibilities in the Implementation of CBE

several level stakeholders in the implementation as stipulated in CBE implementation guidelines (MoEST, 2009). The key stakeholders are the beneficiaries and grass root implementers of CBE. The first are the learners who directly benefit from the programme. Learners can be regarded as the major stakeholders in the implementation of CBE. Existence of the centres depends on the availability of learners and their regular attendance. As stipulated in the CBE guidelines, learners in CBE are children between the age 6 and 17 who have either dropped out or have never attended school. Their major responsibility is to attend classes and participate in the lessons. CBE guidelines further stipulated that when making decisions on what time classes should begin they

must be consulted so that the time suits their needs. Teen mothers are allowed to bring along their children or child household heads to bring their siblings with them when studying (Malcom, 2009).

The next group of stakeholders are parents and guardians of the children who attend CBE classes. Their responsibility is to ensure that their children attend classes; they play a crucial role in encouraging and supporting the children (MoEST, 2009). Another critical group of stakeholders are teachers who are known as CBE facilitators. Their major responsibility is to prepare for lessons and teach. Their minimum qualification is a Junior Certificate. They are recruited from within the community. They undergo a three week orientation Course and in between term trainings. CBE recognises the importance of community involvement in the implementation of CBE activities. Evans, Richard and Christopher, (1994) contends that the local community plays a paramount role in any successful reform strategy. In line with this notion there is a Learning Centre Management Committee (LCMC) which is elected to oversee operations of the learning centre. Tandon (2011) observes that community structures such as associations and committees support education of children and adds that these structures should be an integral part of delivering education in general and complimentary basic education in particular. LCMC is responsible for monitoring what is happening at the CBE centre this includes attendance of learners and facilitators, settling disputes and storage of materials. The LCMC is responsible for identifying space for learning centre, construction and maintenance of CBE centres, (Mollen, Nampota & Kadzamira, 2005).

Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) compliment imperfect education models which are creative, flexible and community based, (Leonard, 2012). Brinkerhoff and

Crosby (2002) observe that a new education innovation or reform like CBE requires considerable modification to existing tasks of responsible officers working at the middle level of Ministry. New organisations may need to be involved not because the existing Ministry of Education professionals may not be capable but may shift their roles to monitoring quality of services (Brinkerhoff & Crosby, 2002). This is the basis of engaging local NGOs who are responsible for running the learning centres. The local NGO's responsibilities include: identifying facilitators, training them and providing teaching and learning materials to the learning centres. They are also responsible for monitoring attendance of both learners and facilitators and monitoring performance of learners.

Tandon(2011) contends that many NGOs today have acquired capacity in designing and delivering education unlike one or two decades ago. He concludes that it is important to have an explicit focus on strengthening the capacity of such NGOs to compliment government efforts in increasing access to education to the marginalized (Tandon, 2011).The other stakeholders are the education officials at District level who help in identification of suitable local NGO to be engaged in CBE implementation. Through the Primary Education Advisers the District Education Office monitors quality of service delivery by the local NGO.The other stakeholder is the Ministry of Education whose responsibility is to provide policy direction and lobby for support from international NGOs. The Ministry works with international NGOs whose main responsibility is to provide financial and technical support to Ministry of Education to facilitate implementation of CBE. However, International NGOs are viewed as external forces that can also influence policy. Funding agencies advocate for policies and when the pressure is strong enough the issue becomes a policy problem to which government

must respond (Evans et al, 1994).Almazan-Khan (2005) sites an example of Fast Track Initiative (FTI) which is a global financing partnership for basic education is perceived as a donor driven initiative. Its decision-making structures are not inclusive hence do not give a wider set of stakeholders' real stake and reflect a true global partnership(Almazan-Khan, 2005).

2.5.3 Implementation of Non – Formal Education in Malawi

The Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) sets out the government's current development programme. It puts economic growth at the centre of the government's agenda for reducing poverty. Though the MGDS does not highlight education as a policy priority, it recognises it as a catalyst for socio-economic development and industrial growth, as well a means of empowering the marginalized and promoting their participation in society (MoEST, 2008).

To operationalise the MGDS, the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) gives the responsibility for the education and skills development of out-of-school youth to Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST). Prior to NESP and the commencement of CBE, the provision of 'second-chance' basic education for out-of-school youth, fell under functional literacy programmes or literacy classes integrated into development projects designed to improve economic, social or health-related outcomes in target communities. Few of these were specifically designed for young people (Meke, 2007). For example, the government-initiated National Adult Literacy Programme (NALP) targeting men and women over the age of 15 years. Chimombo and Chiuye (2002) contends that NALP effectively opened to many out-of-school youths. However, there has been little acknowledgement of this group within the

programme, or consideration of their specific needs. In contrast to NALP's traditional primer-based adult literacy classes, programmes such as the Sustainable and Economic Empowerment Programme (SSEEP) use a REFLECT approach to improve the literacy, numeracy and life-skills of participants alongside the development and implementation of interventions to promote sustainable livelihoods (Ministry of Women and Child Development, 2008).

An innovative approach to functional literacy provision that specifically targets the youth is the Adolescent Girls Literacy Project (AGLIT). AGLIT is a locally-run NGO project established to address illiteracy and poor health indicators amongst adolescent girls (Hogg et al., 2005). With input from surrounding communities and regularly refined in response to local realities, a combined literacy and health curriculum was designed to meet the needs of rural girls, aged 10-18 years, who have missed out on school.

Another initiative is the skills development programme by the quasi-autonomous Technical, Entrepreneurial and Vocational Education Training Authority (TEVETA). Although entry to foundation level Technical Entrepreneurial Vocational Education and Training (TEVET) courses are theoretically open to all who can demonstrate basic prerequisite competencies, in practice, a shortage of places makes admission to government technical colleges highly selective. Thus, opportunities for skills development and vocational training for out-of-school youth have been very limited, often restricted to small-scale projects implemented by NGOs and FBOs. One such example is the Samaritan Trust that supports the welfare, education, skills development and reintegration of street children in Blantyre, Malawi's largest city in the South. The

Trust has established a Skills Centre for young people that provides TEVETA accredited training in a trade (e.g. welding, carpentry, tailoring) alongside basic education in literacy and numeracy, allowing those with little or no schooling to participate without first acquiring formal qualifications (Samaritan Trust, 2009).

Provision of vocational training has been criticised for not matching the needs of young people working in the informal sector, nor being accessible or relevant to artisans and crafts people in rural areas (MoEST, 2008). The recent NAC funded TEVETA programme ‘Technical, Vocational and Skills Training for Orphaned, Vulnerable and affected Youth’ (TVST-Ovay) has attempted to address some of these concerns. Under the Skills Development Initiative (SDI), TEVETA has supported informal sector training for vulnerable youth through local communities and district-run skills development centres. Young people with formal qualifications received training and were enrolled in technical colleges, the remainder, the majority of beneficiaries, received training through short courses and attachments with skilled artisans, themselves trained as master trainers by TEVETA. A less well-documented route to skills acquisition for young people is through their participation in the voluntary sector. In Malawi, international and local NGOs as well as donor-funded government initiatives rely heavily on community-based volunteers to implement their development-orientated projects.

A study of the role of youth in volunteering in Malawi (Moleni & Gallagher, 2007) highlights several youth-specific projects that provide training for peer educators in a range of transferable skills such as, leadership skills, communication skills and other life skills. In turn, these peer-educators work with youth clubs and networks supported

by the national ‘Youth and Participation’ programme. During CBE needs assessment activities, several of the out-of-school-youth interviewed said they wanted to improve their literacy skills to stand a better chance of being recruited into such development projects (Moleni et al., 2005). However, projects involving peer educators generally expect volunteers to have completed their primary education, and often at least two years of secondary, thus excluding many young people (Moleni & Gallagher, 2007).

The provision of non-formal basic education through CBE is a relatively new innovation in Malawi (MoEST, 2008). To contextualise and draw best practices, three pilot Districts of Chikwawa, Lilongwe and Ntchisi were selected with the aim of conceptualising and adapting a model suitable for Malawi (Mollen, et al, 2005). The Government of Malawi (GoM) is now rolling out within an education District, and to other education Districts on incremental basis. Thus, its implementation is phased out where few centres are opened in one year and the number of centres increase in subsequent years within the District and number of Districts added each year. It was envisaged that by 2015, CBE will have rolled out to all 34 Education Districts. The Ministry of Education Science and Technology (MoEST) had intended to provide CBE in partnership with the Ministry of Youth Development and Sports (MoYDS), Development Partners (DPs) and local NGOs (MoEST, 2008).

There are reports indicating some achievements and progress made in implementing activities of CBE outlined in Education Sector Implementation Plan (EISP) 2009-2013 (MoEST, 2009).The report indicates that in 2008, 117 centres were in operation and in 2009 a further over 240 centres were added making a total of over 357 centres. By the end of September 2011, the process of establishing 600 CBE centres was underway.

An achievement was also registered to improve equity in accessing CBE in the country through establishment of 30 new CBE centres in urban education Districts. These centres were opened in 2010 in Lilongwe and Blantyre urban. This was to give an opportunity to the urban population to have access to CBE services which were predominantly targeting the rural population. It is also recorded that 240 centres successfully graduated their students at the end of the 2010/2011 school year in the rural Districts (Mambo et al., 2012). The first cohort of the urban centres graduated in 2013 and some of them have been integrated in primary schools (MoEST, 2014).

2.5.4 CBE Policy Framework

Education is regarded as a fundamental human right and a tool for reducing illiteracy levels and promoting economic development (Tukundane, 2009). In addition, African countries look at education as a way of addressing new demands concerning knowledge and capabilities of the people in line with increasing impact of globalisation (Zeelen, etal, 2010). As such, most governments and international agencies have renewed their commitment to promoting education. The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) 2000 – 2015; Education for All (EFA) 2000 – 2015; the United Nations Literacy Decade (UNLD) (2003–2012); the Girls and Women Education Initiative (2005) and the United Nations Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD) 2005–2014 all stipulate the need for educating the masses of all categories.

The most recent United Nations ratified Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, has also highlighted the need for ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promotion of lifelong learning for all. One of the targets in the SDGs stipulates that all levels of education have to be equitably

accessed by children in vulnerable situations. UNESCO (2013) reports that there are over 104 million children and youth who are out of school. If all these children and youth are to be accommodated in the mainstream education system, it will mean a lot of resources for governments to ensure inclusive and equitable education. This will translate into hiring more teachers, building more classes, supplying more teaching and learning materials. This is where Complementary models support the formal system which can not sustain the growing demand for education. If the sustainable goal on education is to be achieved ODL forms of education have to be expanded and this includes CBE.

To comply with worldwide development policy commitments such as the MDGs and EFA, Sustainable Development Goals, most countries in the developing world have adopted the use of NFE (UNDP, 2004). CBE which is one form of NFE is based on the assumptions that the formal education system is inherently exclusionary and aims at providing education to the excluded. (Malcom, 2009). With the widespread evidence on the positive relationship between education, wealth creation and realisation of basic human needs (Lewin, 2007), it is not surprising that the Malawi Government has recognised the need to address the learning needs of the out-of-school children and youth in recent years. This is evident in the Malawi Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (MPRSP) sub-goal on basic education which aims at improving the functional literacy, numeracy and skills of out-of-school youth, (Malawi Government, 2001). This commitment is echoed in Malawi Education For All (EFA) Goal 3 (Malawi Government, 2005).”

The Constitution of the Republic of Malawi recognises the right to education. The National Education Policy (NEP) 2016, sets out Education for out of school children

and youth as one priority area (MoEST, 2016). It further states that CBE is one way of reaching out to the children and youths with diverse needs in order for them to acquire basic education to be productive citizens in their society. MoEST has set out CBE as one priority area under basic education in the National Education Sector Plan 2008-2017 (NESP). The NESP supports the Government of Malawi commitment to realisation of Malawi Growth and Development Strategy (MGDS) and international protocols arising from EFA and MDGs (MoEST, 2008). To operationalise the NESP, MoEST has set out targets and goals in the achievement of out of school children and youth programme in the Education Sector Implementation Plan 1 (ESIP1). In terms of access and equity, the goal of ESIP1 is to provide equitable complementary modes of education to out-of-school children and youth, which is in line with the objectives of CBE. This emphasises the importance that both the international and national communities have placed in the out of school youth education.

As stipulated in the NESP, the purpose of CBE is for out-of-school children and youth to acquire the essential knowledge, skills and values to promote self-reliance, encourage life-long learning and enable them to participate fully in society and its development (MoEST 2008). Tukundane and Blaak (2007) contend that early school leaving threatens one's quality of life as it results in a lack of knowledge and skills in relation to the labor market and gainful employment. From the discussion of policy framework it is evident that implementation of CBE in Malawi is aligned to broader international protocols and national education and development policies hence assured sustainability and scaling up prospects. Both international and local policy frameworks agree recognise the need to educate the masses. The only challenge that exists is what strategies have been put in place to realise these policies. This is where the

implementation of most seemingly sound policies become a challenge. Most nations have the vision to increase access to education but the means to realising the vision is what remains a challenge.

2.5.5 CBE Research Studies

Various researches have been undertaken by foreign scholars on provision of non-formal education in different countries. Akyeampong (2009) highlight the specific contexts and needs of marginalised and disadvantaged areas in Ghana. The research touches upon the debate around private-sector participation in basic education and the calls for greater public-private partnerships to ensure access for poor and disadvantaged groups. Casely-Hayford, Akyeampong, Ahadzie (2007) examines the School for Life Programme in Ghana, in particular the impact assessment delves into the management of the programme and its replication and mainstreaming possibilities, including integration into the formal system. Rose (2007) conducted a study on the route for marginalised children into education through Non-Governmental Organisations as providers. Rose highlights the shift in priorities of these organisations from one of support for parallel, alternative systems of education independent of the state system to trying to provide options that complement and ultimately integrate children into state-provided education. Rose (2008) examines the types of relationships that non-state providers (NGO/CBO) develop with the government in India, Pakistan and Bangladesh.

Ilon and Kyeyune (2002) examine five programmes in Uganda to assess the cost of CBE initiatives both within the framework of their existing operations as well as if they were to be enhanced to a standard that would be sustainable country-wide. The study points to the difficulties in measuring the success of CBE programmes, particularly if

comparing to formal schools, and to the inconsistencies in available data on dropout and attendance rates. Nonetheless, the paper highlights the community benefits of CBE schools and the potential for the state to integrate CBE programmes into the regular Education Management Information Systems work undertaken by the Ministry of Education.

Helgesson (2001) carried out an evaluation of Complementary Basic Education in Tanzania (COBET) whose purpose was to understand why few girls registered in COBET, despite the deliberate aim to enrol girls. Special interest was girls' and boys' access to basic education, the performance and participation of girls and boys in primary education and the reasons behind these indicators. Fletcher, Abreh and Davis (2012) evaluated CBE in Ghana but their study did not cover enrolment drivers in the project. Furthermore their evaluation did not establish what influences quality and provision of educational access in the provision of CBE. Similarly Farrell and Hartwell (2008) described in detail the various traditional forms of schooling and described over 200 forms of alternative schools. The study hailed alternative schooling approaches without articulating its influence on access, retention and completion. Also, Mfum-Mensah (2009) investigated the curriculum development process in SfL and pointed out that it lends itself to contextual and political setbacks. Again, this study did not establish whether development process could derail or improve access to education. In a study on the route for marginalised children into education through NGOs as providers, Rose (2007) related the zones of inclusion and exclusion to access and what meaningful access to education is. Here again, factors causing access, retention and transition were not revealed in that study.

In Malawi, both scholarly and commissioned studies have been undertaken in CBE. Katonda (2013) explored a study in the academic and social experiences of learners from CBE who were being integrated into primary schools in Chikhwawa District. The study showed that a good background in literacy and numeracy skills played a bigger role in successful academic integration of learners from CBE in the mainstream primary schools. The study also revealed that while in some cases a mismatch between experiences of learners at CBE schools and academic and social experiences in primary schools disturbed their successful integration into primary schools, in other instances the mismatch acted as a motivation which enhanced their integration (Katonda, 2013). Nampota (2009) evaluated Malawi's three-year cycle pilot Complimentary Basic Education programme highlighting the challenges affecting its implementation. Overall, she concludes that there is a 'mismatch' between the demands and needs as perceived by beneficiaries who are learners and community members versus the perceived curriculum requirements and needs that are understood as core by the providers. Nampota concludes that the disconnect between these perceptions would ultimately undermine the success of implementation of CBE programme in increasing access to education in poor communities.

Malcom (2007) examines the pilot cohort of the initial stages of the CBE. The study sheds light on experience with alternative education initiatives as seen from the student perspective and provides insight into influences, motivation and successful non-formal programming. The study revealed that there is a disconnect between student opinion and policy level perspective of CBE. While the dominant view prioritises education as a means of economic development (Samoff, 1999; Malcom 2009), students have their own personal goals. These include an aspiration to improve their quality of life through

having increased confidence and individual power to be informed and aware of life around them (Malcom, 2009).

Just like the international studies, the studies done in Malawi have not delved into issues of access, equity and quality. Consequently, this study looked at the drivers of access, equity and quality in the implementation of CBE. Deducing from the findings of the studies conducted, another issue that is coming out is that of a disconnect in perceptions of the CBE policy makers, implementers, beneficiaries which includes students which may have a bearing on CBE implementation and outcomes. With that backdrop this study delved into the implementation and outcomes of CBE.

Additionally studies which have been conducted, both locally and internationally, have looked at the provision of CBE through non- state actors. Both commissioned and scholarly studies in Malawi have delved into the issues surrounding the pilot phase of CBE implementation where local NGOs were the main implementers. Since the Government took over implementation of CBE in 2015 there has been no study conducted to explore the implementation and outcomes of CBE through government structures i.e state provision of CBE. This gap has created a dearth of knowledge on implementation and outcomes of CBE using existing government structures. This study therefore delved into implementation and outcomes of CBE using existing government structures to inform policy and practice.

2.6 Conceptual Framework

This study will be guided by CIPP conceptual framework as developed by Stufflebeam in the late 1960s. CIPP is an acronym standing for Context, Input, Process and Product which are the four components of the Stufflebeam's model. CIPP is commonly used during planning phases of a new programme, however, it can usefully be adopted for retrospective evaluation of a completed or running programme, (Frye & Hemmer, 2012). Stufflebeam's CIPP model is a comprehensive framework commonly used as a formative and summative programme evaluation model, (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The model which was initially developed to evaluate social and education programmes has been refined and applied in a wide range of disciplines, (Alkin, 2004; Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The fundamental tenet of CIPP model is not to prove whether a programme is working but to improve (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The fundamental tenet is in line with the one of the purposes of the study which is to inform policy on CBE. The strength of CIPP model is that it recognises the complexity and dynamics of education programme implementation.

2.6.1 Component 1: Context evaluation

According to Stufflebeam (2003), context evaluation assesses the environment, examines whether goals and priorities are aligned to and responsive to the needs of the beneficiaries. Context evaluation helps assess problems, assets, and opportunities within a designed community and environmental context. The methods used in this regard includes system analysis, document reviews, secondary data analysis, demographic data analysis and interviews, (Dalkey & Helmer, 1963). This component was used in the study to evaluate the context in which CBE is being implemented that is looking at the economic issues that facilitate or hinder access to education and educational context

of CBE implementation in terms of pull and push factors and how CBE is addressing these issues to increase access.

2.6.2 Component 2: Input Evaluation

Input evaluation gives programme prescription. Input evaluation main orientation is to assess and identify the capabilities of the current system, relevant approaches and alternative strategies. Input analysis involves analysis of inventory, human resources, material resources, budgets, schedules, strategies and designs. This component was helpful in the study as it was used to assess the resourcing of CBE as a major input in CBE implementation. The analysis included budgets, availability and quality of facilitator teachers as a critical human resource.

2.6.3 Component 3: Process Evaluation

Process evaluation assesses whether implementation is being carried out appropriately and effectively. Process evaluation monitors implementation of a programme and provides feedback on the extent to which planned activities are carried out, whether adjustments are necessary and the extent to which implementers accept and carry out their roles (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The principles for process evaluation includes monitoring procedural barriers, identifying needed in process adjustments , getting additional information for corrective programmatic changes, documenting implementation process, regular interactions with participants and observing activities. Techniques employed in process evaluation includes; on site observation, participant interviews, questionnaires, rating scales, records analysis, photographic records, case studies of participants, focus groups and self- reflections with members of staff. This component was useful in assessing the actual implementation process against what was

set out in the CBE policy. Capacity of implementers to discharge their roles effectively. This is also where the recommendations , policy implications were based on.

2.6.4 Component 4: Product Evaluation

Product evaluation assesses and identifies outcomes including both intended and unintended, positive and negative, long term and short term outcomes of the programme. In this respect the outcomes of CBE were assessed against the intended objectives to ascertain to what extent they have been achieved. Product Evaluation examines the degree to which targeted educational needs were met. By looking at the contextual issues and what is being provided in the CBE, an assessment was made as to what extent CBE is addressing the contextual issues to meet the needs of the learners. This evaluation also examines sustainability of intended outcomes and how programme elements can be adopted by other education programmes in similar needs. Product evaluation uses the following data collection methods and data sources: Stakeholders judgement of the programme, comparative studies of outcomes with those of similar programmes, group interviews, case studies of selected participants' experiences, surveys and reports. This study employed the grassroots stakeholder judgement of the programme through Focus Group Discussions and case study design was applied to get a more in-depth understanding of the issues.

2.7 Chapter summary

The chapter has discussed the concept of formal and non-formal education, non-state and state provision of CBE , empirical framework, implementation of CBE in Malawi and Conceptual framework which guided the study. There are characteristics that

successful programmes designed to meet the specific needs of adults, children and the youth have in common. Some of them are: the programmes focus on developing skills and in early grade numeracy and literacy; locally spoken language is used as language of instruction; subjects, more practically oriented to the specific needs of underserved learners in different circumstances. Additionally the programmes that are implemented by non-state actors in strong collaboration with government within the policy framework of education ministries and at decentralised level with more community participation are more likely to thrive.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Chapter overview

This chapter details the research design and methodology. It starts by discussing the research paradigms and positions the study within the philosophical orientation that guided the study. Thereafter, the chapter presents the design of the study and methodology which includes data collection, sampling, data analysis, trustworthiness and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Philosophy/Paradigm: Interpretivism

“Research philosophy refers to the development of knowledge and nature of knowledge” (Saunders, et al , 2007, p.107). Johnson and Clark (2006) note that there is need for researchers to be aware of the philosophical commitments because this has significant impact not only on what we do but we understand what it is we are investigating.

This study is premised on interpretivist orientation whose goal is to to understand the meanings of human behaviour, motives, reasons and other experiences which are time and context bound (Neuman, 2000; Hudson and Ozanne, 1988).Thus based on this belief, implicit in policy implementation are issues of multiple realities and subjectivity. This is so because implementation of policy is affected by so many variables on the ground including the context in which the policy is being implemented, inputs, the

process itself. Policy implementation depends on these realities on the ground and there is no absolutely one single way of implementation that can guarantee the desired outcomes.

Interpretivist theoretical perspective looks for culturally and historically situated interpretations of the social world (Crotty, 1998). Thus, this research sought to understand the context of setting of participants through visiting and gathering information personally through face to face interviews and focus group discussions. The findings were interpreted and shaped by the researchers' own experiences and backgrounds.

The researcher entered the social world of the research subjects to understand how the implementation is fairing from the beneficiaries' point of view and triangulated with the views of the implementing agencies and the policy makers. Whether implementation of CBE is meeting the needs of the beneficiaries depends on perceived benefits from their point of view, in other words, it's subjective. Emanating from the idea of subjectivism, the study intended to establish knowledge about the implementation of CBE that is constructed by subjects who create their own meaning.

3.3 Research Approach: Inductive

There are two main methods of reasoning in research approach namely inductive and deductive approaches, (Trochim, 2006). Creswell and Clark,(2007) contends that inductive research is a 'bottom up' approach used to develop themes using participant views, this principle is in line with CBE implementation approach as discussed in chapter 2. 8 4.This study followed an inductive approach by drawing experiences and

views of CBE participants and drawing conclusions out of emerging themes. Soiferman, (2010) argues that arguments based on experience or observation are best expressed inductively, while arguments based on laws, rules, or other widely accepted principles are best expressed deductively. This study was exploring on implementation of CBE, that's it sought to delve into the experiences of beneficiaries of CBE in the current implementation through observing what is happening in CBE centres and interviews with the participants. The use of an inductive approach in this study allowed use of small sample of subjects as source of qualitative data as pointed out by Zikmundetal.(2010).

3.4 Research Design: Single Case Study

Kothari (2004) defines a research design as the conceptual structure within which the research is conducted; it constitutes the blue print for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. The study used a single case study design which Yin, (2003, 2009, 2011) defines as an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within real life context especially when the phenomenon and context boundaries are not clearly evident. The fundamental goal of case study research is to conduct an in-depth analysis of an issue, within its context with a view to understand the issue from the perspective of participants (Merriam, 2009; Simons, 2009; Stake, 2006; Yin, 2014).

In education, development of case study focuses on determining implementation and impact of education programmes and interventions to provide evidence for policy and practice (Merriam, 1998, 2009; Stake, 1995; Harrison, et al 2017). The ultimate goal of this research is to explore the current implementation of CBE so as to inform policy and practice hence the use of case study is more appropriate in this research.

Additionally, the study adopted a case study strategy because CBE programme is contemporary as it is not based on historical event but what is happening at present in the current CBE implementation and it was studied in its natural setting, the CBE centre.

The use of case study helped to cover contextual conditions which are highly pertinent in the successful implementation of CBE. To have a true picture of whether CBE implementation is meeting the needs of the marginalised children, it was ideal to carry out the study within the context in which it is being implemented. In addition, it would have been impossible to have a true picture of whether the current CBE implementation is meeting their needs without considering the context within which the implementation is taking place. Another consideration in the choice of use of case study strategy, is the issue of time and financial constraints, as contended by Denzin and Lincoln (2000). The use of case study was therefore helpful to this researcher to save both on time and carry out the research within the minimum resources available.

There are two types of case study designs, namely single and multiple case designs. A multiple case design is when two or more cases are used to contrast cases or replicate findings (Yin, 1994, 2009, 2011). According to Baxter and Jack (2008), and Stake (1995), in multiple case study the researcher studies multiple cases to understand the similarities and differences between the cases. A single case study is when one case is used to have an in depth understanding of a phenomenon (Yin, 1994, 2009, 2011). This study adopted a single case study design covering Phalombe Education District. The rationale for using a single case design is that CBE implementation mode is a typical case applicable to Districts implementing CBE throughout the country. In other words

what is happening at one District is not unique to that particular District. In which case the intervention is similar, hence no basis for comparison. The used a single case to have an in depth understanding of issues in the current CBE implementation so as to inform policy (Ryan & Felene 2014) .

3.5 Research Method/Choice: Qualitative

Creswell (2005) refers to research methods as specific methods for data collection and analysis. He further categories them into three namely: quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods. A qualitative approach is one in which the inquirer often makes knowledge claims based primarily on constructivist/ interpretivist perspectives from multiple meanings of individual experiences which are socially and historically constructed (Creswell, 2005).

Bryman, (2008), asserts that qualitative data may be considered non-numeric data, for instance, categorical information that can be systematically collected and presented in narrative form, such as word tables. Thus, qualitative procedure is fundamentally interpretive which is in line with the research paradigm adopted for this study. The researcher filtered the data through a personal lens that is situated in a specific context (Creswell, 2005).

Case study research is most often described as qualitative inquiry (Creswell, 2014; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Merriam, 2009; Miles et al., 2014; Stake, 2006). This study adopted a qualitative approach where individual experiences of the participants were used to construct knowledge about the implementation of CBE. Through these interactions with participants in their natural setting and document analysis, the

researcher was able to personally derive meanings and interpretations. In this case, the researcher's perceptions and interpretations became part of the research and as a result, a subjective and interpretive orientation flowed throughout the inquiry (Creswell, 2014). Meaning that the results and interpretations are researcher dependent and hence subjective (Zikmund, et al., 2010). Which is consistent with the approach as well as the philosophical paradigm adopted by the study.

3.6 The case for the study

Miles and Huberman (1994) defines a case as, “a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context. The case is, “in effect, the unit of analysis” (p. 25). The unit of analysis (case) in this study was the District where the process of implementation of CBE programme is taking place. In case study there is a tendency for researchers to attempt to answer a question that is too broad or a topic that has too many objectives. To avoid this problem, several authors have suggested way of binding a case which includes: time and place; time and activity; and by definition and context (Miles & Huberman, 1994, Stake, 1994, Yin, 2003). Binding the case will ensure that the study remains within scope and limit the number of many objectives (Yin 2003, Stake 1995). This case was bound by time and place to ensure that from occurring. In terms of time, the study only covered the implementation within the past three years and place was restricted to one District. Baxter and Jack (2008) assert that the boundaries also indicate the breadth and depth of the study and not simply the sample to be included.

3.7 Sampling

The participants in this case study were purposefully selected thus the participants were drawn from the stakeholders that were involved in the implementation of CBE. The idea behind qualitative research is to purposefully select participants or sites or documents or visual materials that will best help the researcher understand the problem and research question (Creswel, 2005). Silverman (2005) asserts that purposive sampling helps in choosing a case that has features of interest to the researcher and field of study. This study purposefully selected Phalombe District because it is one of the districts that has been exposed to both modes of implementation and because of its proximity to the researcher. Purposive sampling also helped to identify individuals who were willing to take part in the study. Table 1, shows the categories and numbers of participants disaggregated into gender.

Table 1: Sample Participants

Participant	Female	Male	Total
Learners	5	5	10
Parents/ Guardiand	5	5	10
LCMC Members	3	2	5
Village leaders	1	2	3
Facilitator / Teacher	0	1	
Head teacher	0	2	2
PEA	1	0	1
CPEA	0	1	1
DEM	0	1	1
Inspector of School	0	1	1
Ministry Officials	1	1	2
TOTALS	16	22	38

Source: Researcher summary of participants, 2017

The study sample consisted of 38 participants who are stakeholders in the implementation of CBE. Learners parents / guardians who are the direct beneficiaries to the programme and critical in the implementation of CBE. Without learners, CBE cannot operate and without support of their parents/ guardians the learners will enrol or attend CBE classes. The CBE facilitator teacher was one of the key informant who was interviewed and provided other necessary documents. The head teacher of the mainstream school was a key informant who was interviewed and also provided data of the school in terms of enrolment and number of teachers.

The CBE centres are operating within a community hence the community benefits indirectly from the CBE programme hence it will be ideal to hear from community leaders as well. In this case, the group village head and village head were interviewed. These are also key in mobilising support for any programmes within their communities. The National Education Sector Plan NESP (2008), the Local Government Decentralization Policy (1998) encourage community participation in Education programmes. In the learning centres, Learning Centre Management Committees (LCMC) help in the actual implementation of the CBE programme by identifying learning space and ensuring that teaching and learning is taking place. Thus, members from the LCMC were also be interviewed.

The education zone through the Primary Education Advisor (PEA) helps in monitoring and advising teachers in the zone on best practices for quality education. Hence, the PEA of the zone was also interviewed and provided documentations like data and reports. Currently the Ministry of Education has revived inspectorate at District level. The Inspector is there to ensure education standards are maintained, hence one Inspector was interviewed as well as the District Education Manager (DEM). The DEM and the Inspector were also key in providing documents like data and reports for both CBE and mainstream school. Ministry of Education is a policy holder, resource provider and also monitors implementation of policies on the ground. The Ministry appoints a coordinator for such programmes, in this case, the CBE coordinator was key in providing necessary information for the study.

3.8 Data Generation methods and Instruments

When considering time horizon in collecting data, attention is either given to cross-sectional or longitudinal design. Coldwell and Herbst (2004) narrate that cross-sectional study data collection is conducted once and reveals a snapshot of one point in time whereas in longitudinal data is collected repeatedly over an extended period of time thus tracking changes in variables over time.

This study deployed cross-sectional method to collect data at a single point in time to ensure that the Case is bound by time. One cohort of beneficiaries who graduated in 2017 from CBE centres formed an interesting Case because they have been taken through two different modes of implementation; thus, both non-state and state provision of CBE. These were able to share their experiences through to the transitioning period which helped to illuminate implementation issues to inform policy and practice.

Data generation process followed a backward mapping approach which Elmore (1979), posits that it explicitly questions the assumption that policymakers do exercise the determinant influence over what happens in policy implementation process. Backward mapping begins at the last possible stage of implementation process, the point at which administrative actions intersect with private choices. A statement of the specific behaviour at the lowest level of the implementation process generates the need for policy and policy is not assumed to be only, or even the major, influence on the behaviour of people engaged in the implementation process (Elmore, 1979). The underlying assumption of backward mapping is that the closer one is to the source of the problem, the greater is one's ability to influence it hence problem solving ability lies on maximising discretion at the point where the problem is most immediate (Althaus,

Bridgman. & Davis, 2013). The use of backward mapping is also consistent with the concept of non-formal education which uses a bottom up approach as discussed in Chapter 2.

Following the notion of backward mapping, the grass root stakeholders were interviewed first since they are the level of influence of the actual implementation of CBE hence can better inform policy. The subsequent levels of implementers were interviewed as a way of validating the findings from the grass root stakeholders. Thus, data generation sequence followed that it started with the grass root implementers and beneficiaries of the programme, then officials involved in the implementation. Data generation started with the learners because they are the key beneficiaries to the programme and are also directly involved in the implementation of CBE. Their parents followed to triangulate what the learners were saying.

The next group was the Learning Centre Management Committee members who monitor implementation at community level. Their views also helped to triangulate the findings from the previous groups. Community leaders were followed by the teachers who are key in the implementation of CBE. The head of the school where the teacher comes from was also interviewed to find out what challenges and support they provide to the teacher. The PEA, Inspector of Schools, DEM and MoEST were also interviewed in that order. These were part of the key informants who directly support policy implementation.

The researcher personally visited the CBE Centres to interact with the participants in their natural setting and collect data. This helped the researcher to get immersed in the data generation process while understanding the context of the participants. Two other data collectors were engaged to generate data for purposes of triangulation.

Interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis were used in the study to facilitate achieving the aim of co-constructing data (Merriam, 2009; Simons, 2009; Stake, 1995; 2006; Stewart, 2014; Yin, 2014). Additionally, the researcher used the three methods to generate data for the purpose of triangulation. Stringer (2004) defines triangulation as the use of multiple and different sources, methods and perspectives to corroborate, elaborate or illuminate the research problem and its outcome. This helps to clarify meaning by identifying different ways the phenomenon is being perceived (Stakes, 1994). Miles and Huberman (1984) state that the greater the contrast between the methods of data generation and instruments used, the more trustworthy the data will be. In this study, the researcher used face to face open- ended interviews, Focus Group Discussions document analysis methods and interview schedules, structured questionnaire, and documents as data generating instruments.

3.8.1 Face to Face Open-Ended Interviews

An interview is a data collection strategy that involves the exchange of views between the researcher and the respondent in order to generate relevant information Cohen, Manion & Morrison, (2007).). The study used face to face interviews to allow participants to freely express their opinion and enable the researcher to gather in-depth data, (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006). In addition, interviews were appropriate for this study because they allowed understanding of the context as well as some understanding

of the implementation of CBE at all levels. The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with key informants like the CBE teacher, the head teacher, traditional leaders, Primary Education Advisor, Inspector of Schools and District Education Manager, MoEST officials. In total, ten face to face interviews were conducted and each lasted approximately one hour.

.Open - ended questions were used to gather rich data during the interviews, this allowed the researcher to probe more on ideas raised by the respondents. Yin (2009) notes that interviews offer richer and more extensive material than data from surveys or even the open -ended portions of survey instruments. Open-ended questions allowed the researcher to ask follow-up questions basing on the response given as well as to probe further basing on non-verbal cues. The flexible of open-ended interviews allowed to reveal how case study participants construct reality and think about situations, not just to provide the answers to a researcher's specific questions and own implicit construction of reality (Yin, 2009). The participants' construction of reality provided important insights into the case.

However, during face to face interviews the reseracher encountered a challenge. some key informants manipulated their responses.This was especially on the part of the Learning Centre Management Committee Members. The reasearcher discovered at the beginning of the interviews that the participants thought this was an evaluation of CBE that will lead to either continuation of the programme or not. As a result they were only concentrating on the good side of CBE in trying to justify the continuity of the programme. Immediately this was discovered, the reseacher clarified the purpose of the study and the importance of highlighting what is not working inorder for to inform

policy so as to improve the programme. This was also resolved during the focus group discussions where individual responses were triangulated with the group responses. Hence, all irrelevant information was discarded during data cleaning stage. The use of open ended questions also helped because the data collectors were able to pose more questions seeking more clarification.

Five different interview schedules were used where groups of participants were categorised accordingly. The use of the interview schedule helped to ensure that all the participants were subjected to similar questions hence this also helped to bind the case and avoid digressing. Simpson and Tuson (1995) posit that any tool for gathering data provides one picture of the social world, thus use of different tools enrich understanding of what is going on.

3.8.2 Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

Blanche, Terre and Painter (2007) defines a focus group as a group of people who share similar experience but not naturally constituting an existing social group. Focus group creates room for free interaction among the members hence offers access to construction of meaning (Sarantakos, 2005). The researcher conducted three focus group discussions with three different groups of people with similar experiences. These FGDs were conducted with learners, parents and LCMC members separately to create free interaction. The researcher was engaged in focus group discussions with a group of 10 learners, 10 parents and 5 Committee members. Each group was separately interviewed to allow openness and triangulate the findings from different groups as well as from individual face to face interviews. In total 6 focus FDGs were conducted 3 for each category of people.

The first FDG for each group was conducted with the whole group then the next second was conducted with the same group which was disaggregated by gender to probe more on some gender sensitive issue and allow for openness. The learners' group was also disaggregated by age. Open ended questions were used in the interviews and focus group discussions to give participants an opportunity to air out their views on CBE implementation. Each FDG took two hours. Open ended questions were used. One challenge faced during the FDGs, was that when the question was posed, it was mostly the same individuals that were quick to start responding, hence bulldozed the discussion. In some cases, some individuals were not free to talk especially on some gender sensitive issues, for instance, issues of sanitary facilities, especially for girls. This was however mitigated by the regrouping of the teams based on age and gender.

Interview guides for both face to face and FDG (appendix 4-8) were developed with some open-ended questions to allow the participants to freely express themselves. The FDG sessions, which took almost two hours, were conducted in the form of a conversation and participants were left to respond without any constrain or interruption. The responses were captured through note taking and tape-recording. This was done in order to safeguard the accuracy of the information obtained and to reduce biasness in selection of the responses during the analysis stage (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison 2007). This was good as it allowed free flow of issues some of which were irrelevant and were teased out during the data cleaning stage. This had an advantage as it allowed the researcher to ask follow-up questions basing on the response given as well as to probe further basing on non-verbal cues. Thus, the study used interviews because of its ability to gather in-depth data as respondents are allowed to express their opinion on the topic being studied (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006).

3.8.3 Documentsreview

Implementation progress was assessed through review of EMIS data, MoEST quarterly and annual reports. The budget documents at central and District level were also analysed to ascertain how CBE programme is being resourced to drive implementation. Though scanty, District, School and Zonal level reports were also reviewed and these included monthly reports, enrolment records, attendance registers, note books of learners and teachers' mark books in order to triangulate the findings during interviews and FGDs. According to Cohen (2007), documentary analysis is important as it allows the researcher to check the subjectivity of the participants. One major challenge encountered in document analysis was the availability of the documents; especially at District, School and Zone level. The records were either not available or they were very scanty. To overcome the challenge, the researcher depended on MoEST headquarters records like the EMIS bulletins and CBE Desk reports which gave an overall picture of the CBE implementation progress.

3.9 Data Analysis

The process of data analysis involves making sense out of text and image data Creswell (2005). According to Cohen et al. (2007) qualitative data analysis involves organising, accounting for, explaining and making sense of the data in terms of the participants, definitions of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities. The data analysis followed a generic process of qualitative data analysis (Creswell, 2005), thus, firstly, data was prepared for analysis by transcribing interviews, typing field notes and sorting data. Data was organised into themes which appeared later as major findings of the study. The themes were discussed using the four components of

Stufflebeam' CIPP conceptual framework supported by some quotations from the interviews.

Numeric data like enrolment figures, funding figures, were displayed in tables and graphs, where patterns were interpreted accordingly. One challenge associated with the data analysis from multiple sources is that each data source would be treated independently and the findings reported separately, which is not the purpose of a case study (Baxter & Jack, 2008). To avoid this, multiple data sources were converged in the analysis process which happened concurrently with data generation process. The convergence added strength to the findings as various strands of data were raided together to bring a greater understanding of the case. Each piece of data contributed to the researcher's understanding of the whole CBE implementation process which the phenomenon under study.

One challenge faced in the data analysis was the bulkiness of data collected. Data cleaning helped to discard unnecessary data. The other issue was that it was difficult to merge themes from different sources of data, especially from interviews. However, categorising the data into themes from each source and merging themes helped to resolve this challenge.

3.10 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness suggests determining whether the findings are accurate from the standpoint of the researcher, the participant, or the readers (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Research is deemed as worthless, fictitious and not useful if it lacks rigour which comes with trustworthiness of the research (Morse, 2002 & Bashir, 2008). Triangulation of

data sources, data types or researchers is a primary strategy that can be used and would support the principle in case study research that the phenomena be viewed and explored from multiple perspectives (Baxter & Jack, 2008). This study used triangulation of data sources through use of multiple data sources and use of two independent data collectors. The multiple sources of data essentially provided multiple measures of the implementation of CBE. The multiple sources of data helps in triangulating the findings. (Yin 2009, 2011).

Duneier (1999) asserts that multiple sources of data creates an important opportunity during case study data collection which helps to constantly check and recheck the consistency of the findings from different as well as the same sources. In so doing, the researcher was able to triangulate and establish whether there were converging lines of evidence to make the findings as robust as possible (Duneier, 1999).

This study therefore used multiple sources of data which included interviews, focus group discussions and documents. Additional strategies included tape recording all interviews and focus group discussions, maintaining of field notes, and use of reflection. The participants were given an opportunity to listen to the recorded interviews to cross check the data generated so as to ensure that the data reflected their views.

3.11 Ethical Consideration

MacMillan and Schumacher (2006,p.16) describe ethics as “a consideration of fairness, honesty, openness of intent, disclosure of methods, respect of integrity of the individual, individual privacy and informed willingness on the part of the subject to participate

voluntarily in the research activity”. Discussions on ethical principles in research, and transgressions of them, tend to revolve around certain issues that recur in difficult guises (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The principles have been usefully broken down by Diener and Crandall (1978) as cited by Bryman and Bell (2007), into four main areas; whether there is harm to participants; whether there is a lack of informed consent; whether there is an invasion of privacy; and whether deception is involved. According to Cohen et al. (2007), observing ethics and guaranteeing privacy is the responsibility of the researcher.

To uphold ethical principles in the research the following steps were undertaken: Consent was sought from the Ministry and DEM through writing. The consent was on seeking authority to collect and use secondary data and seeking authority to conduct the study in institutions within their jurisdiction.

The principle of informed consent arises from the subject’s right to freedom and self-determination, (Cohen,et al., 2007). Prior to the interviews all the participants were briefed on information regarding the research, its purpose, issues of privacy and confidentiality and their right to choose whether to participate or not and also the right to withdraw if they felt so at any point. Creswell (2003) points out that the purpose for the study needs to be made clear to participants, in order for them to understand the nature of the research and its likely impact on them. The researcher explained to the participants the importance of their involvement in the study. This helped to eliminate suspicion and uncertainty on the part of the participants and enhance their willingness to participate.

Secondly, all data collected was treated with due confidentiality to uphold the participants their right to privacy. To ensure anonymity, no names were used when presenting the study findings. This is in conformity to Cohen et al(2007) who contends that the principal of ensuring anonymity is not using the names of the participants or any other personal means of identification.

Lastly, utmost care will be taken on interpreting data so that it presents a true reflection of participants' views and to ensure that it does not draw on misleading conclusions which can falsely impact on policy and practice.

3.12 Limitations to the Study

Inavailability of records at all levels was one of the setbacks to study. There was poor record keeping right from the CBE Centre to the District Education Manager's (DEM) office. The official at the Ministry lamented that DEMs do not submit reports despite several reminders sent to them. As such, it was difficult to triangulate the findings using available record. The study therefore depended on central level records through Education Management Information System (EMIS) and MoEST monitoring and evaluation reports. Triangulation was also achieved through cross checking information given by one group or individual interviewee against the other. Data was also collected by three different data collectors and all interviews were recorded using recorders.

Another limitation was that data was collected at the time when the cohort had come to an end, as such it was very difficult to find all respondents, more especially those learners who did not re-join the primary schools. The researcher had to follow the

learners to the mainstream primary school. the researcher also managed to get two older learners who had not re-joined the primary school by following them to their homes.

3.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the research design and methodology. The chapter shows qualitative research approach was used to collect and analyse data. Furthermore, the chapter outlined the sample the sample comprised of 10 CBE learners, 10 parents and guardians, 5 LCMC, 3 village heads, 2 head teachers from the mainstream primary school, 4 education officials at District level and 2 education official at the Central Ministry. Backward mapping techniques was used in the data collection process. Interviews and Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) were methods used for generating data from participants and the instruments used were interview guides with open ended questions, questionnaire and archival documents and reports. Data was analysed by using qualitative methods, through thematic analysis, codes were identified from which categories were developed. From the categories themes were generated, emerging from the qualitative data.

This chapter also described ethical issues and trustworthiness of the study. Participants were asked for their consent before participating in the study, and to achieve confidentiality, no names were written on the interview guides and the questionnaires. To ensure trustworthiness, the instruments for collecting data were scrutinised by the supervisor. Rigorous triangulation was done through use of 3 different data collectors, backward mapping technique and participants were given an opportunity to listen to the recorded interviews to cross check the data generated so as to ensure that the data

reflected their views. Limitations to the study included the unavailability of records at the lowest implementation level.

The next chapter outlines the results and discussion of findings from the stud

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF STUDY RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Chapter Overview

The chapter presents and discusses findings from the key informant in-depth interviews, focus group discussions and document analysis. The findings are presented in relation to the research questions that guided the study. The first question focused on how CBE implementation addressed the challenge of access to education through the learning centres. The second question focused on how learning centres were promoting equity in the provision of CBE, the last question unveiled factors that affected the quality of CBE implementation in the learning centres. The findings are concurrently discussed using CIPP model frame work as developed by Stufflebeam.

4.2 Access to Education

The first question sought to establish how the current mode of implementation is addressing the challenges that marginalised children face in access to education. According to CIPP model, the context in which a programme is implemented is critical in assessing the educational needs and impediments to meeting the needs (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The study first of all sought to find out issues that affected the learners which acted as a hindrance for them to enroll in the mainstream school or drop out of school. This helped in determining whether the issues are being addressed in the current mode of CBE implementation.

The study revealed that the common factors that were hindering the learners from enrolling in the mainstream and causing drop out were indirect cost to schooling, distance to school which Cassidy and Bates (2005) categorised as “push out” factors and poverty, and family responsibilities which he described as “pull out factors”. EMIS (2015/16) document review highlighted family responsibilities, lack of interest, pregnancies, and long distances to school as the major factors leading to learners dropping out of the mainstream school (MoEST, 2017). These factors interact in a complex manner to cause dropout and often function simultaneously, (Ananga, 2011).

4.2.1 Distance

During the focus group discussions both parents and learners corroborated that the CBE centre was closer to their home than the primary school, hence it was easy for them to attend classes. One of the girl learners explained,

“Ndinasiya sukulu ku Pulayimale ndili kalasi 1 chifukwa kunali kutali kwambiri, sindimakwanitsa kupita tsiku lililolonse, ndinkatopa. CBE itayamba mmudzi mwathu ndinayamba kumapita chifukwa panali pafupi kusiyana ndi ku Pulayimale.” (I dropped out of school because the school was too far, when the CBE opened in my village I registered and started attending because it is closer)

And one parent remarked that: *CBE ili pakatikati pamidzi inayi yozongulira, kusiyana ndi sukulu ya pulayimale yomwe ili kutali. (The CBE centre is centrally located to all the four feeder villages unlike the mainstream primary school, this encourages the learners to attend).*”

From the findings it is clear that distance is no longer an issue in as far as CBE implementation is concerned. This is so because the schools are conveniently located hence more learners are able to attend.

4.2.2 Responsibilities at home

Some of the learners cited responsibilities at home like house hold chores and taking care of their sick parents and guardians as a hindrance. The CBE programme was designed in such a way that the starting time be flexible to meet the needs of the learners. The findings revealed that unlike the previous mode, more learners enrolled in the current mode of CBE because classes were starting in the afternoon which was more convenient to their needs as indicated by one boy.

“Ndimatha kupita ku CBE yapanoyi chifukwa imayamba masana, CBE yakale inkayamba mmawa ndiye ndinkalephera kupita. Kuyamba masanaku kumandipatsa mpata oti ndigwire zintchito zina zapakhomo monga kuweta Mbuzi, Ng’ombe ndi kupita kumunda. (I am able to attend the current CBE because it starts in the afternoon unlike the previous CBE which was starting in the morning. This gives me time to go goat herding and cow grazing in the morning and also go to the garden before attending classes)”

In addition, another learner had this to say:

“Sindimakwanitsa kupita ku CBE yakale ija chifukwa inkayamba mmammawa, ndimasamalira adzakhali anga amene akudwala, koma pano ndinayamba kupita chifukwa timapita masana komanso timasinthana ndi mchemwali wanga amene amapita ku primary school mmammawa “I was not able to enroll in the previous CBE because it was starting in the morning, I take care of my sick aunt, but the current mode am able to attend in the afternoon and we take turns in taking care of my sick aunt with my sister who goes to the primary school in the morning.”

This is a clear indication that CBE has provided an alternative form of access to education which is suitable for learners in difficult circumstances like the boy quoted

above. Which means if it was not for CBE this boy could not attend any schooling hence access to basic education would have been denied.

On the same, one parent corroborated that *“CBE yapanoyi ilibwino kwambiri, chifukwa ikumayamba masana ana atathandiza kugwira ntchito zapakhomo.”* (The current CBE is much better because it starts in the afternoon and gives chance for children to help us with house hold chores).

On the contrary, a PEA explained that starting classes in the morning was better than in the afternoon, because in the morning both the teacher and learners are fresh hence effective teaching and learning would take place. The PEA observed that :

“The previous cohort was better because classes were starting in the morning, but this current mode is starting in the afternoon while the teacher is tired with teaching in the mainstream and learners are not as fresh as they would be in the morning”

Despite the observation made by the PEA, the study revealed that the current implementation mode is meeting the needs of the direct beneficiaries of the programme who are the learners and parents. However, the study revealed that no consultations were made on the starting despite the policy guidelines stipulating the need to do that.

When asked who determined the starting time, one parent stated that :

“Panalibe kukambirana za nthawi yoyambira CBE, anangotidziwitsa kuti idziyamba masana aphunzitsi akaweruka ku pulayimale sukulu. Komabe tikuona kuti nthawi yoyambirayi ili bwino kwa ana athuwa komanso ife makolo (The starting time for the current and the previous CBE was just dictated to us, we were not consulted, however we prefer the current arrangement where the learners go to school in the afternoon it is good for both the children and us as parents).”

These findings indicate that it was a mere coincidence that the current mode suits the needs of the learners because the teacher has to attend the primary school learners in the morning and the CBE learners in the afternoon.

4.2.3 Indirect Cost to schooling

The findings revealed that many learners were not able to enrol in the mainstream primary school because of their socio-economic status. The learners come from poor families as such they could not afford to buy learning materials, school uniform and pay school fund. The study sought to find out as to whether the current CBE mode is meeting the needs of learners in this respect.

4.2.3.1 School Uniform

The findings revealed that most of the learners are able to enrol in the CBE programme because school uniform is not a requirement for attendance. One of the learners testified that:

“Ndikamapita ku CBE ndimatha kuvala chovala chilichonse samandibwenza ayi kusiyanana ndi ku pulayimale komwe amandibwenza ngati sindivala unifolomu, komanso ophunzira anzanga amandiseka ngati sindinavale bwino, zomwe zimandipangitsa kusowa mtendere .(At the CBE centre I can put on what I have and am allowed to attend classes unlike at the primary school where we were being chased if we don't wear school uniform and sometimes my fellow learners would make fun of my dressing therefore am more comfortable attending CBE)”

While government policy on school uniform remains that it is not a requirement for attending primary school, what is obtained on the ground is different. MoEST (2017) indicates drop out due to lack of uniform constitutes 17 percent of the total of the

learners that drop out of the mainstream primary school. This disconnect between policy and what is being practiced is bringing in exclusion of learners based on their socio-economic-status in the mainstream primary school. In this regard, the study established that CBE has opened access to learners with poor socio-economic background who cannot afford school uniform.

4.2.3.2 School Fund

The study findings revealed that learners are able to attend CBE because there is no any form of fees charged to the learners. One learner lamented that:

“Ndinasiya kupita ku pulayimale sukulu chifukwa makolo anga sankakwanitsa kulipira sukulu fandi, ndinakalowa CBE komwe samandifunsa kupereka sukulu fandi. (I dropped out of the primary school because my parents could not afford to raise 500 Malawi Kwacha for school fund, when I joined CBE they did not demand any payment and am able to attend without being sent back home)”

In 1994, Malawi adopted Free Primary Education (FPE) Policy, which abolished all forms of fees in primary schools. The policy objective was to increase access to education especially for the children with poor socio economic status. The study revealed that despite the FPE policy primary schools are still demanding school fund. Learners that are not able to pay the school fund are chased from the primary school. This act is marginalising the learners that come from ultra- poor families. CBE implementation has therefore given an alternative schooling for such learners to be able to attend basic education.

4.2.3.3 Teaching and Learning Materials

According to Stufflebeam's CIPP model, in put evaluation strives to have designs that meet the needs of the learners. CBE programme had envisaged provision of adequate teaching and learning materials as a critical input to encourage learners who cannot afford, to attend. However the study found out that lack of teaching and learning materials is one of the major reasons that make children not to attend the current CBE and eventually drop out. CBE was meant to provide necessary teaching and learning materials to open doors for all learners to attend. Context evaluation contends that many pitfalls associated with needs assessment are attributed to failure to adequately articulate in advance critical issues like resources that would be required to successfully implement a programme (Zhang, G., Zeller, N., Griffith, R., Metcalf, D., Williams, J 2011). The study revealed that failure to address the need of learning resources affected attendance of most of the learners which eventually led to drop out as explained by one learner:

“Tinalandira kope limodzi lokha chiyambireni cha CBE yapanoyi, anzathu ena anasiya kubwera ku CBE chifukwa zolembera analibe ndipo analibe oti angawagulire (We were only given one note book since the Ministry took over, some of our friends stopped coming because they don't have writing materials, the teacher did not give them and their parents are so poor that they could not afford to buy for them either. This demotivated them and they stopped coming).”

The teacher also lamented that: *“Am not given any chalk , flipcharts , I have to ask from the primary school, the PEA gave me 15 note books only once to give to learners which were not even enough for each one of them, sometimes I have to use my own money to buy writing materials for some learners”*

One parent explained emotionally that: *“Anawa zolemba samawapatsa, nthawi zina ife a committee timasonkherana ndikuwagulira, chonsecho sitilandira khobili”* (These children are not given any writing materials, sometimes we contribute to buy for them yet we don't receive any money).

The PEA at the TDC agreed that since they took over the running of the centres they had not been supplied with teaching and learning materials except for a few notebooks. The DEM attested that they were not provided with enough resources to procure all necessary TLMs, the only thing they could afford were a few notebooks.

The study went on to find out how the resourcing of the current mode is being done to support provision of the teaching and learning materials. CIPP model identifies budget as a critical input to execution of a programme (Sufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The findings revealed that budget for CBE was reduced to almost half in the current implementation. Which means the funds allocated to CBE were inadequate to support execution of programme activities including provision of TLM.

The MoEST official explained that:

“The budget for CBE was halved after GIZ stopped funding the activities, we had a budget of 1.3 billion Malawi Kwacha when GIZ was funding the programme, but when they pulled out our budget dropped to 800 million Kwacha in the first year and then 700 million Kwacha, and we had no choice but to cut the funding to the Districts”

a) CBE Budgets from 2014 to 2018

The study went further to analyse resources allocated to CBE budget and how this is affecting provision of teaching and learning materials for CBE at the centre. Table 2

shows the funding figures for CBE programme from 2014 to 2017 the years under study.

Table 2: CBE Funding Figures

Year	Amount	Source of funding
2014/15	1,300,000,000	GIZ
2015/16	800,000,000	GoM
2016/17	700,000,000	GoM
2017/18	700,000,000	GoM

Source; MoEST, CBE desk, 201

The figures in Table 2 were presented in graphical forms shown in figure 1.

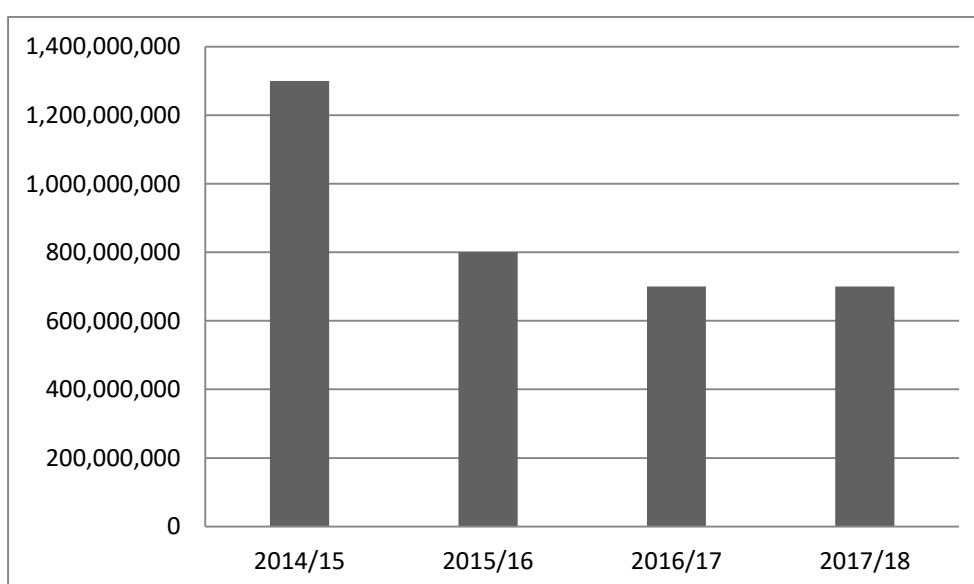


Figure 1: The CBE Budget over time

Source: MoEST CBE Desk, 2017.

Figure 1 shows the trend in the resource allocation to CBE programme from 2014 to 2017. As seen from the graph there is a down trend in resources allocated to CBE. This

implies that the programme was not adequately supported because the budgetary allocations had reduced hence this affected provision of resources for CBE implementation. The CIPP model advocates for adequacy of funding as a critical input to support programme needs, (Zhang et al., 2011). Funding is the most important factor in the implementation of the CBE programme. This is so because all other factors relating to provision of resources hinges on funding. The need for improved funding for CBE at central and local government through DEMs cannot be overemphasised if CBE implementation is to be successful. This could be done by lobbying government to allocate substantial amount in the budget towards CBE. MoEST has to also commit a good proportion of the budget to CBE and ring fence it to avoid diversion of the same. Virtually, all of the financing necessary to support and expand CBE is from the government. While the Ministry of Education endorses the program and sees it as an important element in meeting its Education Sector Plan targets for access and quality in basic education, it does not expend enough funds to support it.

b) Distribution of resources

The study also sought to establish how the minimum available resources are being distributed to support effective and efficient implementation of CBE activities. Table 3 shows how the resources are distributed between the central ministry and the districts.

Table 3: Budgetary allocations to Districts and Central Ministry.

Location	Amount
Districts	68,000,000
Central Ministry	632,000,000

Source: MoEST CBE Desk, 2017.

The information in Table 3 is presented in a pie chart to show the proportion of the share of the total budget for CBE between the Ministry and Districts.

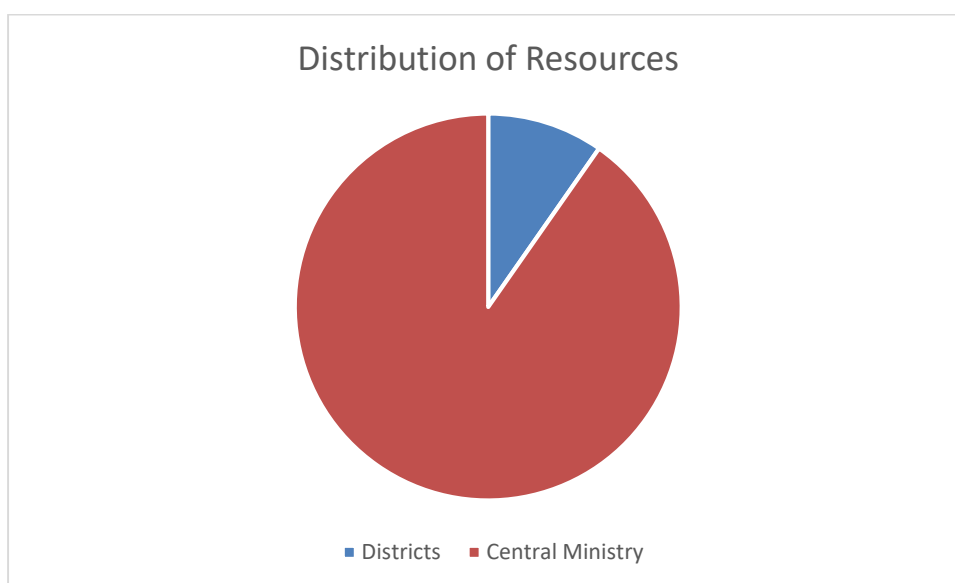


Figure 2: Distribution of CBE Resources between the Ministry and District

Source: MoEST, CBE Desk, 2017.

The analysis from the pie chart in Figure 2 shows that only 10 % of the total CBE budget is allocated to support activities at district level while 90% remains at the central ministry. The study established that the budget at the ministry is used to support quarterly monitoring activities, procuring some TLMs and training core trainers of

CBE. The skewness in the distribution of resources is affecting the availability of resources at the implementation level which is the CBE centre. One would expect that a good percentage of the resources be allocated to the lowest level of implementation. According to Althaus, et al (2013) emphasised by backward mapping implementation of policies , stress the dispersal of control and and the strategic use of funds to affect discretionary choices. As long as this skewness in the distribution or resources continues, implementation of CBE activities at the grass root level will remain a challenge.

The study went further to analyse how the available resources were allocated to various activities at district level. Table 4 shows resource distribution at district level.

Table 4: CBE Resource allocation at District level

ITEM	Amount
Teachers Honoraria	48,000,000
Learners material	725,500
Teaching resources	2,095,000
CPD	1,179,500
Monitoring	16,000,000
Grand total	68,000,000

Source: MoEST CBE Desk, 2017.

The information in Table 4 was presented in a pie chart to further analyse resource prioritisation at District level.

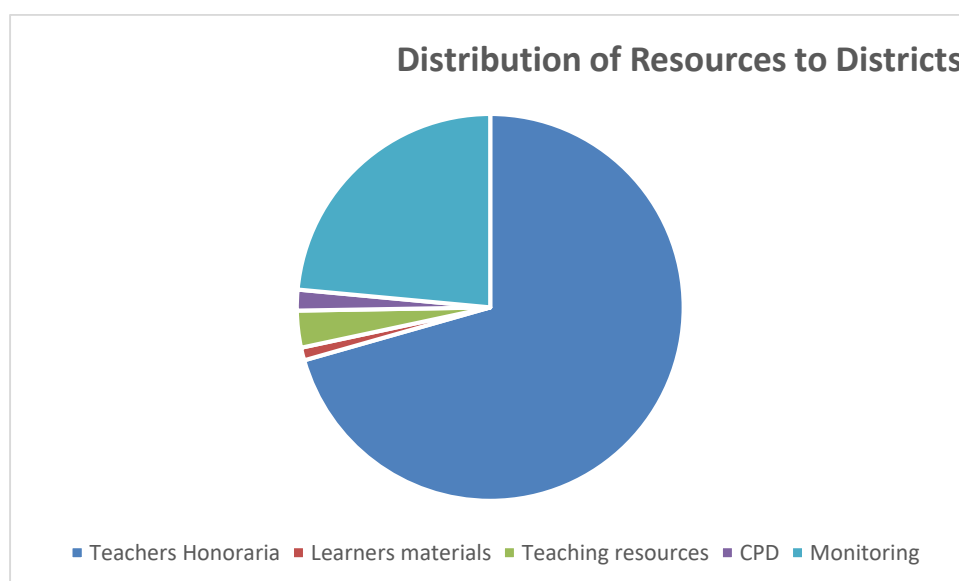


Figure 3: Pie chart showing Distribution of CBE Resources at District level

Source: MoEST, CBE Desk report, 2017.

From the analysis in Figure 3, out of total budget devolved to districts, 71 percent of the resources are allocated to honoraria for teachers, 24 percent to monitoring, 2 percent to CPD, and 3 percent to teaching and learning materials. This implies that availability of TLM will remain a challenge in the implementation of CBE hence issues of access will remain a challenge. This shows that the CBE is accommodating those that can afford to buy their own learning resources hence marginalising those who cannot afford. This implies that if the children were excluded from the mainstream, they also face the same exclusion at the CBE centre due to lack of Teaching and Learning Materials.

c) Budget implementation

Another finding was on the utilisation of the budget. Document analysis revealed that at Ministry level CBE was budgeted for as a sub programme under basic education.

Districts including Phalombe were allocated CBE funds however the budget documents at District level did not contain CBE activities. The findings revealed that the CBE budget in actual fact was centralised, which means payment processes were done at Ministry headquarters.

The official at the Ministry had this to say:

“We have problems with the centralized payment because of the competing demands versus the inadequate monthly funding at the central office and we have not been able to pay the Districts in time. This centralisation of the budget created delays in funding to the districts hence affected implementation of activities which includes procurement of TLMs.”

In summary, on the issue of access, the study has revealed that the current mode of implementation is addressing the issue of distance to school since the centre is conveniently located. The study also revealed that family responsibility is no longer a hindrance since classes at the CBE centre start in the afternoon. However the study revealed that the current mode is falling short of addressing some issues of indirect cost to schooling by failing to provide TLMs. As contended by Zhang et al. (2011), that pitfalls associated with needs assessment are attributed to failure to adequately identify and articulate needs of the beneficiaries, from the findings it is clear that the current CBE is not adequately addressing the needs of the learners.

The CBE programme implementation has been negatively affected by poor resourcing and centralisation of budgets and payments. According to Abu-Duhou (1999), decentralisation improves the operations of the education system by increasing the efficiency and effectiveness in allocation and utilisation of resources. Decentralising resources to the District level, where decision makers are closer to the beneficiaries,

would improve efficiency and effectiveness in CBE implementation. Decentralisation would have also helped to minimise delays created due to long procurement processes at central level. While there is no solid evidence that financial decentralisation improves outcomes, there is anecdotal evidence that learning centres derive considerable educational and social benefits.

4.3 Equity

The study sought to find out how inclusive the CBE centres are in ensuring that all children regardless of their diverse needs are encouraged to attend and participate at CBE centre. The National Education Sector Plan (NESP) and Inclusive Education Strategy, recognises the integration and inclusion of children from ultra- poor households, children with disabilities and girls as a major principle in increasing access to marginalised children (MoEST, 2017). CBE is one great opportunity to help MoEST to realise this principle of integration and inclusion.

4.3.1 Gender Equity

The study sought to find out how issues of girls and teen mothers are being addressed in order to allow them to attend CBE.

One of the girl learners lamented that:

“Mmene tinkayamba tinalipo atsikana ambiri, koma ena ayisiya chifukwa pa centre pano palibe chimbudzi ndi madzi. Tikafuna kudzithandiza timachita kukapempha kunyumba kwa eni, nde atsikana ena amachita manyazi kukapempha ndi chifukwa chake ambiri anangosiya kubwera. (when we started, there were many girls but some dropped out because there are no toilets and water here at the centre. Whenever we want to relieve ourselves, we go to neighbouring houses

and ask to use their toilets. Others were not comfortable with this and they simply stopped coming to the centre).”

One parent corroborated that:

“Atsikana ambiri atamva za CBE anabwera kudzalembetsa, koma ambirianasiya chifukwa chakusowa kwa zimbudzi ndi madzi, komanso atsikana omwe ali ndi ana ankayembekezera kupatsidwa zipangizo zomwe analonjezedwa monga makina osokera, kuluka, kuti zikawathandizire pa moyo wawo. Ataona kuti izi sizinachitike ambiri anakhumudwa ndikusiya chifukwa tsogolo lake samaliona (when they heard about CBE, many girls came to register but most of them dropped out because of lack of water and toilets. Some of the teen mothers were promised to be provided with sewing and knitting machines to assist them in their day to day lives. When this was not done, they dropped out because they lost hope)”

Apparently, the absence of these facilities are acting as push out factors that lead to drop out. The teacher at the CBE centre also added that *“I registered 25 learners; 10 boys and 15 girls at the beginning of the year, I however had only 15 learners out of which 5 were girls and 10 boys when we were closing the 2016/17 academic year.”*

There is a clear indication that more girls drop out in CBE centre just like the mainstream.

On the issue of vocational skills materials, one official at the Ministry explained that:

“Provision of facilities for the technical subjects is beyond the scope of basic education, as such the programme only covered the theoretical aspect, in addition it would require a lot of resources for us to make such a provision because these materials are expensive”

These findings show that the girls were given an opportunity to enrol but they could not stay in the system because of the challenges that they were meeting like lack of sanitary

facilities and the failure by the programme to meet their expectation of provision of materials for vocational subjects for the teen mothers and older boys who have no desire to return to the mainstream primary school but are looking at ways of sustaining themselves and supporting their children. In relation to CIPP model the contextual issues surrounding girls access to education can act as either drivers or inhibitors to girls education. Implementation of initiatives needs to be responsive to such issues in order to increase access to education for girls. For young people in Malawi aspiring to take up a trade, traditional apprenticeships remain a common route, particularly for those in the rural areas and without formal qualifications (Kadzamira & Nell, 2004). CBE could help young people access such apprenticeships through provision of vocational skills materials and maintaining links established with artisans and master crafts persons like in the previous CBE implementation. There is clear indication that the programme did not address the gender issues hence inhibited access to education for the girls.

4.2.1.1 Enrolment of Girls

Enrolment is one indicator of access to education, the study went further to analyze the enrolment of girls in CBE through document review. This helped to triangulate the findings from the interviews. Hallman (2013) contends that there is disparity between sexes in access to education. Girls figure disproportionately among the children who do not attend school in all low-income countries. The bias against girls is especially more pronounced in South Asia and Africa whereas in many other countries, boys and girls attend school in roughly equal numbers, and, in some, the male-female ratio slightly favors girls (Hallman, 2013). The findings revealed that there are more girls enrolled in CBE centres than boys. For instance in 2017, 8,550 females enrolled in CBE against 7,350 males (MoEST, 2017). Similarly, at Namichere CBE centre, 10 boys

enrolled against 15 girls within the same period. Table 5. shows the overall enrolment of girls against boys in CBE and gender parity index.

Table 5: CBE enrolment by sex and gender parity index

Year	Boys	Girls	Total	Gender parity index
2015/16	8,300	10,700	19,000	1.3
2016/17	7,800	11,390	19,190	1.5
2017/18	7,350	8,550	15,900	1.2

Source: MoEST, 2017

The enrolment in Table 5 has been presented in a graph in figure 4 to compare enrolment of boys and girls and see trend in the 3 years.

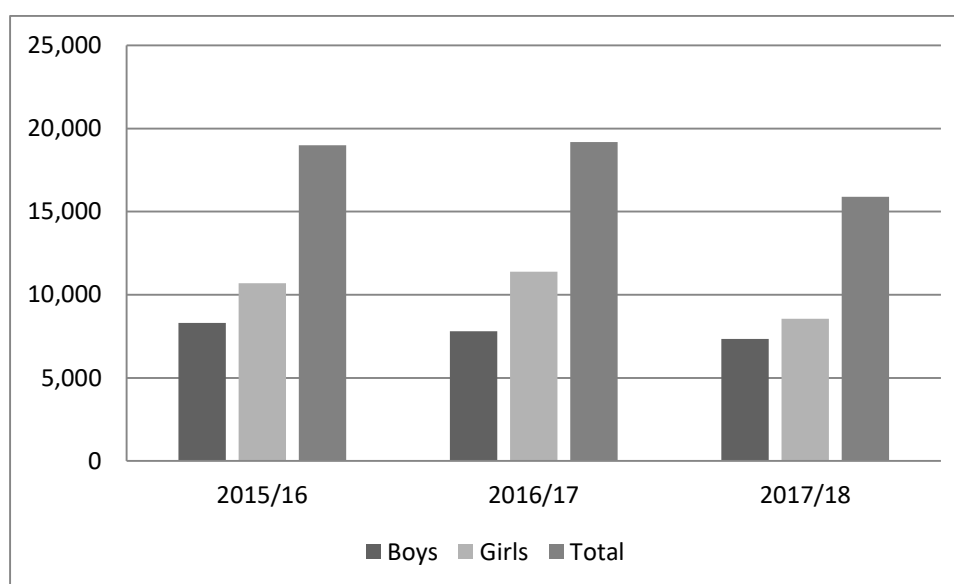


Figure 4: Graph showing Enrolment by Sex

Source: MoEST, 2017

The graph in Figure 4 indicates that more girls are enrolling in CBE than boys. MoEST (2017) indicates that girls have more confidence and courage to join CBE than boys.

The graph also shows that 2016/17, the second year of the current mode, had the greatest number of girls enrolled with gender parity index of 1.5. These results show that the CBE is achieving gender equity by opening access to more girls who are marginalised in the mainstream, thereby giving them an opportunity to access basic education. It should also be noted that the more numbers of girls enrolling indicates that more girls drop out of the mainstream than boys. EMIS (2015) indicates that 4.0 % girls dropped out of primary school against 3.6 % boys. The higher dropout rate of girls clearly shows the vulnerability of girls in the mainstream primary school which leads to more of them dropping out than boys. Which means CBE is offering an alternative to schooling for more girls who are marginalized from the mainstream. Though more girls enrol as indicated from the interviews and document review, retention of the girls in the CBE centre remains a challenge.

4.3.2 Learners from ultra-poor house hold

The study sought to find out how equity issues regarding poverty and family responsibilities are being addressed. The findings revealed that learners from ultra poor house hold continue to face marginalisation. This is in line with literature reviewed which indicated that disparities exist in educational attainment between different groups within countries and regions, in most low-income countries, children from poor families are much less likely to be in school than children from more affluent families (Hallman & 2004 Jenkins) , except in countries like Uzbekistan that have a strong legacy of universal education. In Pakistan, in the early 1990s, 86 percent of rich children aged 6-14 were in school, compared with 37 percent of poor children, making for a rich-poor gap of 49 percentage points; the gap was 52 percentage points in Senegal, and 63 percentage points in Morocco. The gap is narrower but still wide in countries like Bangladesh, Ghana, and Indonesia.

One parent explains in the following quote:

“Ngankhale ku CBE kulibe kuvala uniform, ana ena ndiosauka kwambiri, zovala alinazondi zong’ambika amachita nazo manyazi kunkhala nazo, mkalasi, ife a komiti tinkayesetsa kuthandiza ana oterowo, komabe sitikwanitsa chifukwa zosowa zawo ndi zambiri, tikanakonda pologalamuyi ikanamawaganizira ana oterowo” (even though we are not required to put on uniform at the CBE centre, some are very poor that they even ashamed to be in class in their tattered clothes. As a committee we try as much as we can to help them but still their needs are so enormous. We wish the programme had a way of assisting such needy learners.)

On inception, the CBE programme had envisaged to incentivize the CBE learners by providing safety nets through social cash transfers which was later changed to supporting the learners that joined the mainstream, (MoEST, 2009). In the absence of the social cash transfers within the CBE programme, it would have been necessary if those in need of such support were linked to other social cash transfer programmes with the Ministry of gender. The findings revealed that there were no efforts made to collaborate the relevant Ministry to provide support to the ultra-poor learners.

In this regard, the CBE programme missed out on collaboration of other interventions like targeted social cash transfers by Ministry of Gender Disability and Social Welfare which would have supported those learners in the CBE programme. Hillman (2004) contends that cost is one obvious reason that deters learners from attending school, given that poor families must meet their essential needs like food and shelter first, some parents might not be able to afford an education for their children. Access to credit facilities for many poor people in low-income countries is a big challenge (Hillman , 2004). Hence, the need for social cash transfers cannot be overemphasised.

4.2.2.1 Provision of porridge

Food is one of the basic needs of a human beings, children inclusive. Children from ultra- poor household may not be able to afford three meals a day especially breakfast and this can act as an exclusionary factor. The study revealed that despite the centre not providing porridge as it is in the school feeding programme at primary level most of the learners were still able to attend because starting classes in the afternoon enabled them to have their lunch before going to school. One of the learners had this to say:

“Kwathu sitimadya chakudya cha mamawa chifukwa makolo anga sangakwanitse, kuyamba ma kalasi masana kumandithandiza kuti ndidye chakudya chamasana ndisanapite ku sukulu, ine ndikuona kuti sikofunikira kumatipatsanso phala ku CBE chifukwa kuphika komanso kudya phala ku CBE kukhoza kumationongera nthawi yathu yoti tiphunzire (I come to school while already full, I cannot afford breakfast but at least starting in the afternoon helps me to have my lunch before going to CBE. In my opinion the process of providing porridge at school would consume much of our time for learning)”.

However, the PEA was of a different opinion on the provision of porridge, he justifies his opinion in this quote:

“The learners who come from poor families would have been assisted if the CBE programme had included provision of porridge to the learners, this would encourage a lot of them to attend just like in the primary school where more learners are attending because of the school feeding programme”

From the findings, it is clear that there is a difference in opinion on the provision of porridge. In any case providing porridge would mean taking away the already little time that learners have to learn at the CBE centre. Besides, these learners come in the afternoon and it is assumed that they must have taken their lunch by then. The only

challenge would be with those learners who cannot afford lunch in their homes as explained by one of the parents:

“Ana enawa ndiwovutika zedi, olo chakudya amachita kusaukira, zikanakhala bwino ana amenewa akanamathandizidwa mwapadera kuti apeze chakudya, akhale ndi mphamvu zopitira ku sukulu, ena a anawa amakhalira kujomba chifukwa amakhala atapita kozisakira zakudya”
(some of the learners come from such ultra-poor households where it is even hard to afford a meal. It would have been better if such learners were assisted with a means to find food in order to have the energy to attend school CBE. Most of such learners abscond from school because they spend most of their time looking for a way to find food.)

As indicated by the learners, provision of porridge would not be a solution to such kind of learners. This is where the social cash transfers would have been ideal to empower the families to buy food on their own. Alternatively the families of these learners would have been linked to targeted farm input subsidy programme in the Ministry of Agriculture, so that they are able to grow their own food.

4.3.3 Learners with Family responsibilities

The study sought to find out how the needs of learners who dropped out due to various family responsibilities are being addressed. According to the Demographic Healthy Survey (2010), Malawi registers a lot of deaths of parents due to high HIV / AIDs prevalence rate which is at 12 percent. In African countries afflicted by AIDS, children may stay out of school to care for sick parents or orphaned siblings (Hallmn, 2004). Additionally, parents may prefer that their children work to supplement household income, do household chores, or care for sick family members. One learner who is an

orphan and taking care of a sick aunt who is his guardian, explained that CBE was the best alternative of schooling for him.

The learner had this to share,

“Makolo anga anamwalira, ndimakhala ndi aunt anga omwe nso akudwala ineyo ndi mlongo wanga ndiamene ndimawasamalira , ndikugwirantchito zonse zomwe zingatibweretsere chakudya pakhomomonga kupita kumunda, CBE isanabwere ine ku sukulu sindikapita ayi, koma pano ndimapita chifukwa tmasintha ndi mulongowanga iye akaweruka ku pulayimale sukulu ine ndi mapita ku CBE.(I lost both parents and stay with my aunt who is also sick .I wake up in the morning go to the garden, take care of my sick aunt, then in the afternoon we take turns with my sister who goes to primary school in the morning and I go and attend CBE lessons whilst she stays home to look after our sick aunt, had it not been for CBE would not have been able to go to school)”

Another learner explained,

“Ine ndimatha kupita ku CBE chifukwa imayamba masana, izi zimandipatsa mpata kuti ndipite kunsika kukagulitsa malonda a masache kuti tipeze chakudya cha ine ndi azing’ono anga omwe ndimawayang’anira chifukwa makolo athu anamwalira. (I am able to attend CBE because it gives me time to look for food for my siblings through selling brooms at the market in the morning, since we lost both of our parents and I am the head of the family and they all look up to me for support).”

The findings show that learners with family responsibilities are able to attend CBE classes whilst they still maintain their homes as required.

4.3.4 Learners with Disabilities

The study sought to find out how CBE programme is taking care of those learners with special education needs. Children with disabilities are the most disadvantaged, it is estimated that only 5 percent of learning-disabled African children who need special education go to school, whereas 70 percent of them could attend if the schools had the right facilities. Even where better facilities are offered, parents may send disabled children out to beg rather than enrol them in school (Hallman 2004). The findings revealed that there were no special needs learners in the CBE centres despite the parents indicating the presence of disabled children who are out of school.

One parent stated,

“Alipo mwana mmodzi amene ali wolumala miyendo ndiposangathe kuyenda kubwera ku sukulu, pakankhala mwayi wa njinga mwana ameneyu akanatha kumabwera ku sukulu.Vuto lina ndilakuti aphunzitsi a CBE alibe ukadaulo wapadera woyang'anira ana amaulumali osiyana siyana, ndiye olo anawo atapekeza pakhonzabe kukhala vuto(There is one learner with physical impairment who cannot come to school because of mobility challenges. We wish this learner could have provided with a wheel chair or bicycle. The other problem is that the facilitator teacher is not a specialist teacher who can handle learners with various disabilities)”

On inception, the programme sought to collaborate with MACOHA in its existing interventions of community based rehabilitation to help children with disabilities to attend school. However, the findings revealed that this opportunity was not explored at national district and community level. There is need to collaborate with relevant Ministries and Organisations to ensure SNE learners are encouraged to enrol in CBE. The programme should have leveraged on the existence of SNE institutions and a deliberate effort should have been made in the programming to include such

institutions in the implementation of CBE. These institutions would assist in assessment and provision of the appropriate devices to the learners. In addition parents of SNE children and LCMC should have been oriented on support structures at District level who could provide assistive devices to the learners. In the absence of specialist teachers at the CBE centre, regular teachers facilitating CBE centres should undergo a special short training to equip them with knowledge and skills in Special Needs Education (SNE) for them to be able to support SEN learners.

From the findings, it is clear that CBE has achieved equity in terms of gender by enrolling more girls than boys. However, retention of the girls still remains a challenge because of lack of proper infrastructure especially sanitary facilities. Teen mothers and older youths are not motivated to attend because of the lack of vocational skills equipment hence they found the programme not responsive to their needs. The programme implementation has also missed out on the collaboration of different stakeholders in responding to issues of disability and poor social economic status. Children with disability were not able to attend because there were no support mechanisms at community level and even at school level. Learners from ultra-poor families have no safety nets to support their needs to enable them to attend CBE.

The study has also revealed that there is no effort to link the graduates of CBE to Community Technical Colleges so that those who cannot join the mainstream primary can be absorbed in the community colleges. This is a clear indication that CBE missed out on the opportunity to explore the linkage and collaboration with other relevant Ministries in the programming. Entry into formal technical and vocational training is highly selective. However, TEVETA has introduced a modular, learner-centred system

of Competency- Based Education and Training (CBET). CBET is designed to create more flexible pathways to training and qualifications, and support previously disadvantaged groups by recognizing skills acquired outside of formal education and training (Technical Entrepreneurial Vocational Education and Training Authority, 2008). CBET supports youth employment through widening access to trade certification in areas such as general fitting, tailoring, joinery, plumbing and electronics and promotes participation of girls in non 15 traditional areas. This has important implications for out-of-school youth who have acquired pre-vocational and entrepreneurial skills through participation in non-formal education, traditional apprenticeships and income-generating projects. Programmes like CBE should be at the forefront of advocating for established links and clear referral systems such as TEVETA.

With a weak industrial base in Malawi, waged employment opportunities in a trade are limited. Under the MGDS, economic growth and poverty reduction strategies place emphasis on the small and medium enterprise (SME) sector development. However, trained youth often lack the financial and social capital to translate their skills into self-employment or business opportunities and earn an income (World Bank, 2009). In Malawi, efforts to support self-reliance amongst youth through technical and vocational training can prove unsustainable if funds for tools and set-up cost are not available (Kapyepye and Saiti, 2009). Again, through strengthening wider, multi-sector linkages, exit strategies could be built into programme design to refer learners to existing schemes that provide funds to support young entrepreneurs wishing to set up commercial enterprises, such as the Youth Enterprise Development Fund (YEDF) (Table 5). A few organisations have done just that, albeit on a relatively small scale,

ensuring their livelihood training matches the priorities and expectations for YEDF funding, and assisting young people in the application process. One such example is the Temwa project, which provides train

4.4 Quality

The third research question sought to find out the factors affecting quality of education at the CBE centre. The study established that there are four factors that are affecting the quality of education at the CBE centre. These are quality of teachers, orientation of both teachers and LCMC members, teacher learner interaction time and supervision and monitoring.

4.4.1 Teacher Quality

One major change in the current implementation is that unqualified facilitators were replaced by qualified teachers from the primary schools in the delivery of CBE lessons. The study sought to establish the perception of stakeholders on how the quality of teachers at the CBE centre is affecting the quality of education. The study findings show that the grass root stakeholders and education officials hold different opinion on how the quality of teachers is affecting the quality of education at the CBE centre. The parents and learners were of the view that the quality of education offered by a qualified teacher in the current implementation mode is much better than the facilitators who are not qualified teachers. Whereas the education officials hold that previous mode of implementation which was using facilitators offer better services at the CBE centre, one learner argued that:

“Aphunzitsi apanowa amaphunzitsa bwino kwambiri, amaphunzitsa modekha, amafotokoza bwino lomwe kuti ife timvetsetse, tingakonde atapitiliza kutiphunzitsa, (The current teacher is good, he teaches

slowly and explain things in such a way that we understand, we would like him to continue teaching us)”

One of the parents remarked:

“Aphunzitsi omwe akuphunzitsa ochokera ku pulayimale wa ali bwino kwambiri, chifukwa ntchito yawo amayidziwa, pano palibenso kusiyana aku pulayimale ndi aku CBE chifukwa aphunzitsi ake ndiomwewo, amewa amadziwa kusula ana athu chifukwa ali ndi upangiri oyenerera, ndipo apitilize, (We prefer our learners being taught by a teacher who is qualified to teach because he understands the learners better, we would prefer this teacher to continue teaching our children)”

This finding is consistent with literature which shows that grassroot stakeholder perceive education offered by unqualified teacher as inferior (Chimombo, 2009). Literature review revealed that grass root stakeholders perceive education offered by unqualified teacher as inferior (Chimombo, 2009). This perception was confirmed by the study when learners and parents opinion was sought on the use of qualified teachers in the current CBE implementation. They were of the opinion that qualified teachers offer better education than the unqualified teachers. In addition, NESP and EMIS review reports note that engagement of community facilitators in CBE compromised the quality of CBE service delivery (MoEST, 2017). On the other hand, evidence from both literature and reports of service providers point to high attrition rate of CBE facilitators due to movement to other employment which offer better remuneration and incentives (MoEST, 2017).

Researchers have contended that failure of programmes that are tailor made to address specific needs is attributed to the way stakeholders perceive and respond to the programme (Halloway, 2003). Each stakeholder approach an innovation from their own

perspective with personal set of concerns (Halloway, 2003). Being aware of the concerns allows those in charge of an innovation to tailor aid given to stakeholders to help in the successful implementation of an innovation. NESP and EMIS review report notes that engagement of community facilitators in CBE compromised the quality of CBE service delivery, (MoEST, 2017).

On the contrary, the education officials at district and MoEST were of the view that the CBE centres are better handled by school leavers who are not qualified teachers. The District official argued that :

“The facilitator was handling the learners better and they were passing with good grades, they didn’t have problems when integrated in the mainstream, we would want them to come back, we only need to strengthen monitoring mechanisms like the ODL teacher training which had special team supervising them”

The MoEST official shared the same opinion as the District official and explained that

“Quality of education in the CBE has gone down since the teachers took over. We are in the process of writing a concept paper to request the Ministry to bring back facilitators, even primary school leavers as they are doing in Rwanda where we went for a learning visit.”

Another Ministry official emphasised that,

“Implementing the programme using primary school teachers and PEAs has faced a number of challenges which have negatively affected the quality of education offered in the learning centres. Primary school teachers do not have adequate time to prepare for both primary school and CBE learners since the primary school day has been extended by one hour. As a result, learners’ performance across the learning centres in

the districts is deteriorating. In addition, support provided by PEAs as Supervisors has proven to be inefficient as they are engaged in many other activities in the districts. It is therefore deemed necessary that an alternative way of implementing CBE be adopted so that the programme can effectively be delivered.”

Much as it may be noted that these sentiments have some truth in them, there was no evidence to discredit the unqualified CBE facilitators as being poor quality teachers nor was there any evidence to substantiate the claim that the qualified teachers are of good quality. This is so because no comparative study has been conducted to establish the effectiveness of the qualified teachers and the facilitators. However deducing from the findings it is clear that the qualified teacher is preferred by the grass root beneficiaries on the basis of pedagogy, on the one hand, the qualified teacher is not being recommended by the education officials at all levels because of huge workload that they are already handling in the primary schools which is affecting their performance at the CBE centres. On the other hand, evidence from both literature and reports of service providers point to high attrition rate of CBE facilitators due to movement to other employment which offer better remuneration and incentives (MoEST, 2017). In this case, it will be costly on the part of the Ministry to be replacing the facilitators every now and gain.

From the findings, engaging the qualified teachers would be ideal as it would help legitimatise the programme at grass root level hence realise maximum support for the programme. However, for the qualified teachers to be effective there is need for the Ministry to supply enough teachers to the schools which are supporting CBE implementation so that quality is not affected by their absence or workload they have in the mainstream primary school.

4.3.1.1 Teacher- learner interaction time

Another factor, that all participants pointed out, is the less time that the teacher interacts with the learners. The study findings revealed that the availability of the teacher and the duration of the CBE classes are aspects that determine the teacher- learner interaction time. All respondents agree that the less time that the teacher spends with the learners is affecting quality of education in terms of acquisition of knowledge. On this, there were different views as to why the teacher is spending less time with the learners. While grass root stakeholders attributed it to lack of motivation, the education officials at District and Ministry attributed it to lack of commitment on the part of the teachers and introduction of other programmes in the primary schools.

One of the learners testifies that:

“Aphunzitasi athu ndiabwino,amadziwa kuphunzitsa koma amajombajomba kwambiri, komanso nthawi zambiri amabwera mochedwa izi zimachepetsa nthawi yomwe ife timaphunzira,(The teacher does not come to the centre frequently, when he comes he comes late and we only have less learning time before we knock off” he teacher does not come to the centre frequently, when he comes he comes late and we only have less learning time before we knock off’

This was corroborated by one of the parents who notes that:

“Aphunzitsi sakulimbikitsidwa ayi, amalandira ndalama mochedwa komanso zochepa, pachifukwa ichi samabwerabwera ku CBE, ana amangobwerera osaphunzira masiku ambiri, (There is no incentive for the teacher, he gets very little amount of honoraria which is also not paid on time, he spends less time with the learners, he is absent in most of the days, the learners go back without learning and this is affecting performance of the learners)”

The teacher justifies that:

“I love my job but I get discouraged because am not being paid hence it becomes difficult for me to go to the CBE centre as often as expected because my family also expects me to fend for them so I sometimes have to go out to search for money instead of being at the CBE centre.”

The PEA emphasised that:

“the teachers are not motivated because they get very little money as their honoraria as compared to the facilitators who were getting double for the same job hence they frequently absent from the centre”

On the other hand the District officials had a contrary view, one the District officials expressed that:

“the teachers lack commitment, they are only interested in getting the honoraria, our last visit to the centres showed that the teachers were not frequently coming to the centre and some of the centres had actually closed”

The MoEST officials, whilst admitting that the amount of honoraria is one of the factors affecting teachers’ attendance at the CBE, lack of commitment and other programmes introduced at Primary level have also reduced teacher learner contact time

The MoEST official emphasised that:

“the introduction of National Reading Programme which required that the primary time table be extended for one hour for the primary schools has negatively affected quality of education at the CBE centre by reducing teacher - learner contact time by 1 hour.”

This finding is in line with giving an idea of the complexity of education programmes implementation where Zhangetal. (2011) contends that education programmes are complex systems which cannot be explained by separately examining an individual component but rather relationship between components in the system. One strength of the CCIP model is that it does not look at input and output as having a simple linear

relationship but rather the context within which several other factors inter play(Sufflebeam, 2003). From the findings, it is not just teacher quality that matters but also issues of motivation, commitment and other engagements that determine the quality of the output.

From the findings, it is clear that the CBE quality of education can be achieved if qualified teachers were available, motivated and committed to teach at the CBE centre. The option to engage school leavers in the delivery of CBE is purely based on availability of teachers. However, any education policy which is not legitimatised by the grass root stakeholders, who are the beneficiaries of the policy, faces resistance in the implementation (Veerspoor, 2009). Hence, going back to using school leavers may make the programme unpopular and lose support from the grass root stakeholders. Additionally, the Rwanda experience by the education officials needs to be contextualized other than mere transportation.

4.4.2 Pupil Teacher Ratio (PTR)

Pupil Teacher Ratio is another indicator of quality in as far as classroom delivery is concerned. The lower the PTR, the more the interaction time between the teacher and learner. Unlike in the mainstream, the CBE centres are supposed to be operating with 25 to 40 learners per teacher. The findings revealed that the Pupil Teacher Ratio at the CBE centre was 25 to 1, which is in line with the guidelines. The teacher and PEA attributed the good performance of the learners at CBE to the small class sizes (PTR). The teacher remarked that: *“the learners are performing very well in class because the number in class is small I have enough time to help individual learners especially those who are slow learners”*

Similarly, the PEA commented that:

“The learners are doing very well in class and when integrated into the mainstream they perform much better than their counterparts in the mainstream, this is because at the CBE the PTR is very small and the teacher has ample time to interact with each individual learner unlike in the mainstream.”

Teaching a CBE class is almost similar to multi-grade teaching since the learners dropped out at different levels, therefore having a small PTR would really assist the teacher to take care of individual academic needs of the learners.

4.4.3 Supervision and Monitoring

Supervision and monitoring is one aspect which the participants highlighted as affecting the quality of education offered at CBE centre. The current set up is that monitoring should be done by LCMC, PEAs, District officials and MoEST. According to component three of the CIPP model, it prescribes monitoring as a means of ensuring that planned activities are being carried out (Sufflebeam, 2007). The study established that LCMC members visit the centre despite the challenges they face, however, there is inadequate supervision and monitoring of activities by education officials at all levels in the current CBE implementation. Grass root stakeholders indicated that unlike the previous CBE model the current one is not being supervised and monitored by education officials.

One of the LCMC members had this to say, *“Timapatsana masiku kudzayendera ku CBE, aliyense ali ndi sabata yake yomwe amayenera kumabwera ku CBE. (We take turns in visiting the centre on daily basis, we have a weekly roaster for all members).”*

One of the learners also explained that: *“akomiti amapezeka pa centre tsikulililonse, amatilangiza kuti tisamajombe, nthawi zina amawathandiza anzathu ena osowa powapatsa makope ndi zolemba”* (the committee members come to the centres regularly. They advise us to avoid absentism. Sometimes they assist those the needy with notebooks and pens)

The teacher corroborated what the LCMC member and learner had said and commended that: *“The committee members are very supportive, they come on daily basis and support the learners”*

However, the findings revealed that the PEAs who were given the supervisory role, are failing to fulfil their mandate as one parent explains in the following quote: *“The PEA does not visit the CBE centres as Mr Sumbuleta from CRECCOM used to in the previous mode of implementation. He used to come very often to encourage us.”*

This was corroborated by one PEA who agrees in the following quote: *“We do not visit the CBE centres as often as we are supposed to because we are not given the resources like fuel to enable us visit CBE centres”*

Equally, One District official lamented that, *“PEAs occasionally go to CBE centres and do not provide the necessary support to the teachers, as a result performance of learners is deteriorating”*.

The officials at the Ministry had this to say, *“P EAs are overwhelmed with a number of activities in the District and they hardly visit the centres, we wish we could engage the IPTE-ODL supervisors to assist in monitoring CBE”*.

For teachers to be effective in their work, they need professional support (Junaid, 2014) which can be obtained from such professional and skilled personnel as PEAs. The core function of a PEA is to supervise and provide professional support to the teachers

(MoEST, 2015). The PEAs, according to ministry, are adequately trained and have both in-depth knowledge and skills in supervision of all teachers, be it qualified or not. That is why in the current implementation, the Ministry decided to engage PEAs to do the monitoring and supervision other than the service providers who had no professional capacity to do so. By engaging the PEAs in the implementation of CBE through trainings, it was believed that the PEAs would be motivated and will own the programme and therefore support the CBE teachers and learners. The findings show that the PEAs have failed to fulfil their mandate by not offering supervisory role to the teachers and learners. One would have expected that the PEAs would own the programme by including CBE monitoring in their work plans which was not the case. The failure by the PEAs to integrate CBE monitoring and supervision in their work plans, leaves the sustainability of the programme questionable.

The PEAs should have thus, embraced the CBE programme and owned it despite the challenges they claimed to have experienced. Further probe on the PEAs visits revealed that the PEAs expected a special allocation for CBE. One would have expected the PEAs to integrate CBE monitoring in their daily work plans because in any case the PEAs visit Primary schools within the same vicinity and you would expect that they would take advantage of their visit to the primary schools to also visit the CBE centres. Additionally, the CBE centre starts in the afternoon when most of the classes in the primary schools have knocked off. If properly scheduled the PEA could visit the Primary school in the morning and CBE centre in the afternoon.

In a nut shell, the findings reveal that supervision and monitoring is a big challenge in the current CBE implementation as collaborated by all the participants. This

compromises the feedback on the extent to which activities are being carried out at the CBE centre. It also defeats the objective of documenting the implementation process and identification of areas of improvement or adjustments as stipulated by the CIPP model.

4.3.3.1 Monitoring Reports

Availability of reports is one aspect that gives evidence of monitoring. The study findings showed that there were scanty reports at the CBE centre and the Teacher Development Centre (TDC). However, there was no single report found at the District and Ministry headquarters. The official at the District commented that : *“The PEAs are not submitting reports to the District, as such it is difficult for us know whether activities are being implemented or not.”* The official at the Ministry had this to say on the same, *“We have not received any reports from the Districts despite several reminders to them, the only reports we have are from the service providers in the previous implementation and data captured by M and officers from the Ministry”*.

The unavailability of reports makes it very difficult for the officials to track implementation progress and bring in necessary support to the programme. Monitoring and supervision is paramount to enhancing quality of education, PEAs entrusted with this responsibility are overwhelmed with a number of activities in the district which include supervision of the primary schools they are assigned to. The absence of reports makes it difficult for policy makers to make relevant adjustments to the programme policy and implementation. From lessons drawn from the supervision provided by CRECCOM as one of the service provider, it would be ideal to have the local NGO service providers engaged and given the role that they can perform best, thus

monitoring day to day activities at the centre, supporting the teachers, learners and LCMC.

4.3.3.2 Involvement of other key stakeholders in monitoring and supervision

The study sought to find out about the involvement of other existing key stakeholders to strengthen monitoring and supervision. The findings revealed that there are some cadres within the system that were completely left out in CBE implementation yet they are within the system and they would have been utilised to support implementation. These included the head teacher, the School Inspectors and Assistant Centre Coordinators at the TDC. This forced most of them to shun the programme resulting in little or no professional support being provided to the CBE teachers. One of the objectives of component two of the CIPP model, context evaluation is assessment of current system capabilities through analysis of available human resource and materials. This finding indicates that thorough analysis of existing human resource for implementation of CBE was not done, hence the missing out of the critical cadres. When asked about their involvement in CBE, the head teacher commented that: *“I am not involved with the implementation of CBE, I was only requested to identify a committed teacher to teach at the centre”*. Similar sentiments were aired by the School Inspector who admitted that he has never visited the CBE centres. The inspector explained that: *“We have not been briefed about CBE, but given the opportunity we would be willing to support the centres”*

Involvement of the head teacher, .ACCO and School Inspector would have helped to strengthen monitoring and supervision of CBE implementation. Besides, these are the people that are more close to the implementation level and they would play a crucial

role in enhancing standards through monitoring and supervision. Engaging them would even be more cost effective other than having people from the Ministry to do the supervision and monitoring. Their engagement would also be in line with the Decentralisation policy which is being implemented by the Ministry where primary education is now fully devolved to Councils.

4.5 Trainings and Orientations

In the CIPP model, trainings and orientations are critical inputs to successful implementation of programmes. Trainings and orientations of grass root implementers of CBE were part and parcel of the implementation of CBE as outlined in the CBE guidelines (MoEST, 2009). Teachers who were to facilitate learning were supposed to undergo professional trainings on the pedagogy used in CBE. On the other hand, LCMC members were supposed to be oriented on their roles and responsibility in the implementation of CBE. The study sought to find out whether the relevant implementers were trained or oriented on their roles to enable them discharge their duties effectively.

4.5.1 Trainings

According to MoEST (2017), CBE teachers who are known as facilitators are supposed to undergo on the job training to prepare them to facilitate the learning process. The facilitators were supposed to receive an initial induction training for three weeks and thereafter a series of between term trainings and every Friday In service trainings (INSETs) at their respective zones (MoEST, 2017). The study found out that a cascade model was used where PEAs were trained by a team of trainers from the Ministry and in turn the PEAs trained the CBE teachers. However, the findings revealed that unlike the previous model the trainings were only conducted once and there were no in

between school term trainings and no arrangements were made to have the teachers come together every week to share experiences as stipulated in the CBE implementation guidelines.

One CBE teacher had this to say,

“We attended a 5 day training, to me that was not sufficient to enable us grasp all the principles of CBE, I wish we had several trainings throughout the implementation to equip us fully with the relevant knowledge and skills to enable us handle CBE learners who are have wider age range of 9 to 17, and also dropped out of school at various grades hence different capabilities I wish the induction had gone for three weeks and subsequent one week long CPDs in between terms. This would help us to interact and share knowledge and experiences and best practices at CBE centre”

The PEAs failed to offer continuous support to the teachers through refresher trainings.

One would have expected that the PEAs would own the programme by including CBE CPDs in their work plans which was not the case. On his part, the PEA justified that:

“We trained the teachers once, this is because the Ministry only provided resources for one training.” Sentiments similar to the PEA’s were also aired by the district official.

Further, document analysis showed that CBE was not included in the CPD work plan both at the Zone and District level. Under the Primary school Improvement Programme (PSIP), the Ministry provides resources to Districts and Zones for support of implementation of all the three thematic areas of access and equity, quality and relevance, governance and management in the Ministry. One would have expected that the District and Zone plan for CBE in their CPD work plan. Failure by the District and

Zone to include CBE CPD, is a clear indication that the District and Zones have not embraced CBE fully.

4.5.2 Orientations

The study sought to find out how communities are involved in the implementation of CBE. According to CBE guidelines, every centre was supposed to have LCMC members from the community to help identify suitable place for CBE Centre, monitoring day to day running of the centres, and encouraging learners to participate. To discharge their duties effectively, the guidelines stipulates that the LCMC members should undergo one week orientation on their roles and responsibilities (MoEST, 2017). The CBE guidelines included process and steps to establish and train LCMC. Ensuring orientation of the LCMC on their roles and responsibilities is done as a continuous process would strengthen capacity of the LCMC. This would help address the learner and facilitator absenteeism as well as support to the facilitators in class management.

The findings revealed that despite setting up the committees, orientations were not done. One LCMC member explained that:

“Atatisankha tinalonjezedwa kuti kukhala maphunziro otidziwitsa momwe tingagwirire ntchito, koma mpaka pano palibe wabwera kudzatiphunzitsa, timangogwira ntchito yathu opanda upangiri uliwonse, zina tikumangopanga tokha mwakuganiza kwathu, tikawafunsa a PEA amangoti mudikire kaye ma training akubwera, izi zimatigwetsa mphwayi, moti ena a committee anasiya kubwera chifukwa chokhumudwa.” (when we were elected, we were promised that there would be training for our work, but nobody came to train us, so we work without any expertise. We just use common sense. When we ask the PEAs, they say we should wait on for the trainings are coming. This

discourages us to the extent that some of the committee members stopped coming because of disappointment)

The members of LCMC work on voluntary basis as they do not get any form of payment for the work they do, orienting them on their roles in the implementation of CBE would serve the purpose of building capacity and motivating them to do the voluntary work. In this way, they would own the programme and support its implementation. On their part, the PEA and the DEM indicated that they did not have enough funds to orient the LCMC. The PEA indicated that they did not include CBE orientations in their CPD because their Zonal Improvement Grant (ZIG) would not accommodate them. The District Improvement Plan did not include CBE CPDs either. At MoEST, they indicated that funds for training were decentralized to District under a specific budget line. Whilst admitting that the funds for CBE implementation were not adequate, the MoEST official was quick to mention that: *“There is also a problem of attitude and perception of DEMs at District level while others have fully embraced CBE others have not, imagine other Districts completely left out CBE in their ORT budget despite being advised to do so”*

These findings show that there were no sustainability measures to incorporate CBE trainings in the Zonal and District plans. One would have thought that the District would take full ownership of the programme by including it in their plan just as they do with the PSIP.

4.6 Outcomes of CBE

According to Duerden and Witt (2017), implementation when combined with outcome evaluations facilitates the identification of effectiveness of programmes and practices. The combination promotes evidence based programmes and provides insights

regarding options for programme designs and implementation in order to achieve the desired results (Duerden &Witts, 2017). In this regard, the study sought to find out the outcomes of CBE with respect to the mode of implementation and based on the set objectives of CBE.

One of the objectives of CBE was to increase access to education for children and youths who had dropped out or never attended school. CBE allows children who dropped out of school to access basic education and transition to regular primary schools or acquire lifelong skills for a better livelihood (MoEST, 2017). Based on the objective, CBE had three intended outcomes which are to increase access, integrate into the mainstream and lifelong learning for livelihood. The product evaluation of CIPP framework examines sustainability of intended outcomes and how programme elements can be adopted.

4.6.1 Increasing access to education

To measure this outcome, the study looked at three dimensions of access, namely number of centres established which would be an indicator of proximity of the centres, the actual enrolment of learners and number of learners per centre. To achieve the set objectives, one of the outcome indicators of CBE was to increase in the number of CBE centres by 20 centres every year (MoEST, 2017). Document analysis revealed that by 2015 the target was surpassed as 600 centres had been opened from the initial 15 centres in the pilot phase, in 10 Districts. It was envisaged that by 2017, 720 centres would in operation in 10 Districts. However, further document analysis revealed that the number of centres dropped from 600 to 480 between 2015 and 2017. Since its inception in 2006, CBE has reached out to 67,750 learners out of which 56 percent are female.

Education sector performance report (2017) indicate that percentage of out of school children and youth increased from 15% to 16 % in 2015/16 and 2016/17 respectively.

Enrolment is one of the indicators of access, the requirement for CBE was that every learning centre was supposed to enroll a minimum of 20 learners and a maximum of 40 learners (MoEST, 2017). At Namichere CBE centre, 25 learners enrolled in the current mode which was within the requirement. Further document review showed that the total enrollment in CBE centres had dropped by 5.9 % in between 2015 and 2017 due to reduction in the number of centres from 600 to 480 centres. Similarly, at Namichere CBE centre, the enrolment dropped from 25 to 15 learners within the same period representing 40% drop in enrolment. The number of centres, enrolment and average number of learners per centre are shown in the Table 6.

Table 6: CBE centres, enrolment and average learners per centre by year

Year	Number of CBE centres	Total enrolment	Learners/centre
2006	15	450	30
2009	105	5,400	51
2012	240	7,200	30
2015	600	20,000	33
2016	540	19,000	35
2017	480	15,700	33

Source: MoEST Basic Education-CBE, 2017.

The data in Table 6 was analysed graphically to show trends and implication on access as indicated in Figure 5.

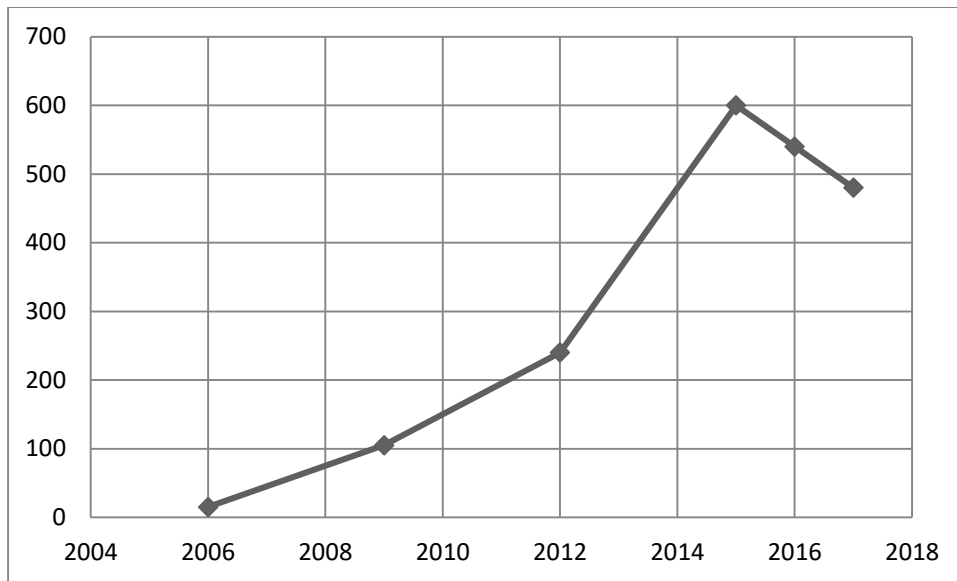


Figure 5: Graph showing Number of CBE Centres over 7 years.

Source: MoEST, Basic Education, 2017.

The graph in Figure 5 shows that during the pilot phase and previous mode of implementation using service providers, from 2006 to 2012, the number of centres and enrolment steadily increased showing increased demand hence increase in access to education for the marginalised 0 children. The steady increase shows that the pilot phase of the CBE programme was successful in increasing access to education for the marginalised children. From 2012 to 2015, the graph shows a steep gradient indicating a sharp increase in the number of centres and enrolment this is the time the programme was expanded to more centres, subsequently enrolment increased, hence increasing access to education for the marginalised children. However in 2015 there was a sharp decline in the number of CBE centres. This indicates a decrease in overall access to education .

Figure 6 shows the enrolment of learners in CBE as depicted in Table 6 to show enrolment trend over 7 years.

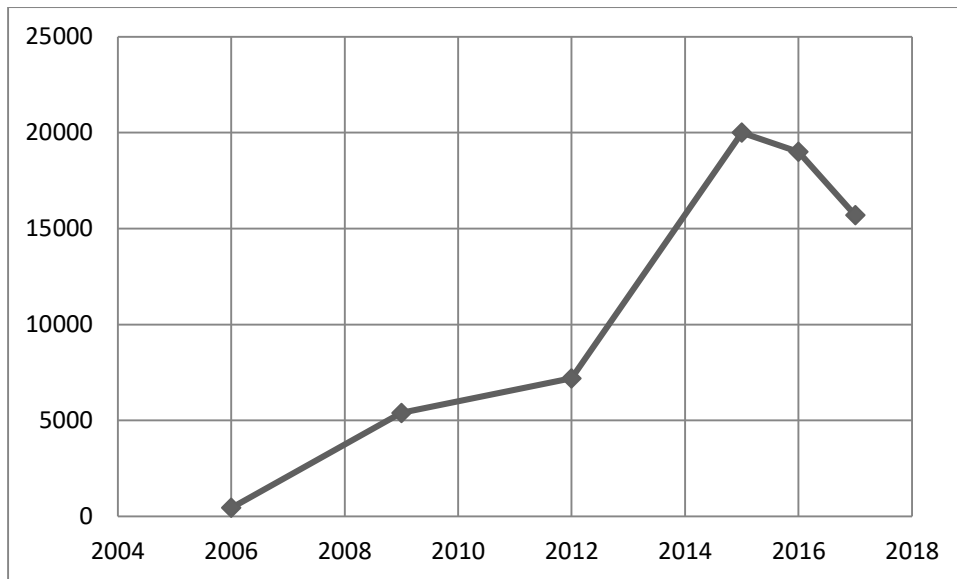


Figure 6: Graph of Enrolment

Source: *MoEST Basic Education-CBE, 2017.*

The graph on enrolment in figure 6 shows a slight declining gradient between 2009 and 2012 this could be attributed to this could be attributed loss of CBE popularity especially among the older youth who had no interest to return to primary but rather get practical skills for their livelihood as Nampota (2009) observed that there was a disconnect between the expectations of the beneficiaries and the service providers due to unfulfilled promises on provision of materials for vocational subjects. This means access decreased especially for the older youths which includes teen mothers. From 2015 to 2017, both graphs of number of centres and enrolment shows a downward trend. This shows that the transitional period of the two implementation modes is characterised by a decrease in the number of centres as well as total enrolment in the centre depicting a decrease in education access for the marginalised children. According to the key informant at MoEST, this the period GiZ pulled out their financial support to the programme. The MoEST officer explained that : “*When GiZ pulled out their funding we had to cut the CBE budget to almost half of what GiZ was providing as a result we had to scale down the programme by reducing the number of centres*”

Figure 7 is a graph of number of learners per CBE centre as extracted from Table 6. This graph gives a picture of trend in demand for CBE over 7 years.

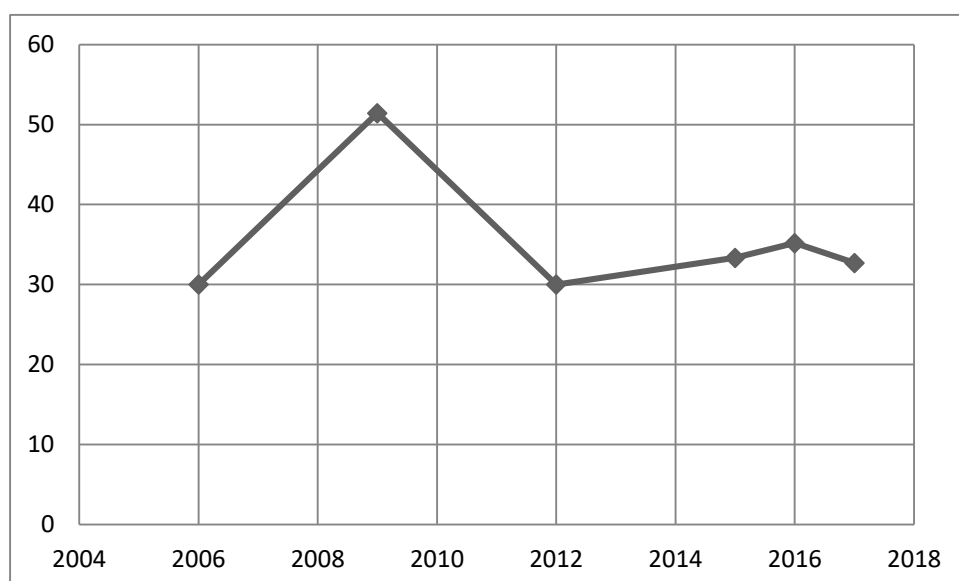


Figure 7: Graph showing average number of learners per CBE centre

Source :MoEST Basic Education-CBE, 2017.

The graph in Figure 7 shows that the average number of learners per centre, increased sharply from 2006 to 2009. Document review indicated that the programme had intended to cater for a minimum of 15 and maximum of 40 learners per centre. The graph shows that the number of learners per centre surpassed the recommended 20-40 per centre. According to Nampota (2009), this is attributed to high expectations that the beneficiaries had on the provision of equipment for vocational subjects which the CBE had intended to provide for the sake of the older ones that did not have the desire to go back to the mainstream primary school. However, from 2009 to 2012 the graph shows sharp decrease in the number of learners per centre though the graph on centres and enrolment shows a sharp increase within the same period. Though the programme was operating within the set limit of 15- 20 learners per centre as depicted in the graph, the sharp decrease is an indication that the programme was not meeting the diverse needs of learners, hence losing popularity. As observed by Nampota (2009), the

disconnect between the beneficiary expectations from the programme and the service providers demotivated the older children from attending CBE.

From 2015 and 2016, the transitioning period, the graph shows an upward trend indicating that the number of learners per centre increased entailing increased demand hence increased access despite the decrease in the number of centres and total enrolment.

The study findings revealed that more learners enrolled as observed by one of the parents who remarked,

“Ana tangomva kuti ku CBE kwabwera a phunzitsi a ku primary omwe adziwaphunzitsa, anabwera kudzalembetsa mwaunyanji, chifukwa amayembekezera kuti iwo adziphunziranso chimodzimodzi ndi ana omwe amapita ku primary sipakhala kusiyana” (When the children learnt that they will be taught by a teacher from a primary school, they all rushed to enrol. To them it meant that they will have the same experience and quality of learning just like in the primary school)

Parents attributed this increase to the involvement of the primary school teachers in CBE.

The graph in figure 7 further shows that between 2016 and 17 there was a decline in the number of learners per centre. The findings revealed that learners got frustrated by several issues like lack of materials, teacher’s absenteeism and they started dropping out.

One of the learners commented,

“Tinalipo ambiri m’kalasi, koma ena anasiya kubwera chifukwa aphunzitsi sankabwerabwera, komanso zolemba, makope samatipatsa, mipira yomwe tinkasewera inatengedwa ndi aphunzitsi akale momwe ankachoka ana ambiri anasiya kubwera chifukwa sikunkawasangalatsa.” (We were so many in class but the teacher was not coming regularly. We were also not receiving notebooks and pens. The balls we were using to play were taken away by the previous teacher. As such, other learners lost interest.)

Further records analysis showed that at this centre there were 25 learners who registered in 2015/16 but only 15 learners registered in 2016/17 which is in line with the trend as shown in the graph of number of learners per centre.

4.6.2 Transitioning of Learners into the mainstream primary school

As indicated, the programme had intended to give a second chance to the children who dropped out before completing the primary cycle to go back and be integrated into the mainstream primary school. This applied especially to the younger children who were within the Primary school age range of 9 to 13 years. The results indicate that most of the young children re-joined the primary school as intended. Document analysis indicate that 46 percent of learners who enrolled had transitioned into primary school by 2017, (MoEST, 2017). At Namichere CBE centre, all the 15 learners who graduated from CBE joined the mainstream primary school representing 100 % transitioning rate. However, the study revealed that the learners were not given enough guidance as to which class they were to join in the primary school as a result most of them ended going back to their last class they attended before dropping out.

This is what one of the learners explained;

“Ndinasiya sukulu ku pulayimale ndiri sitandade 3, ndinakakhala kunyumba chaka chimodzi, pano ndili sitandade 3 anzanga omwe

ndinawasiya pano ali sitandade 7”.(I dropped out from primary school when I was in Standard 3, I stayed at home for a year before joining CBE for 3 years and I enrolled back in my class standard 3. My friends I left in primary they are now in STD 7)”

All learners interviewed, indicated that they went back to their previous class and nobody guided them which class to join. When the teacher was interviewed, he indicated that the cohort ended abruptly and the learners were not guided on what class to join. In this cases the policy guideline was not followed as stipulated. Making learners go back to the same class in primary after spending three years in CBE would frustrate the learners and lead them to drop out again. On the other hand, this would mean the government spending twice on the learner for the same class which means a wastage of resources.

4.6.3 Outcomes in terms of learner achievement

The CBE programme was meant to equip learners with literacy, numeracy and vocational skills. The study sought to find out the extent to which the objectives pertaining to learning outcomes were achieved. When asked one of the learners remarked that, “*CBE ndiyabwino, ipitilire, chifukwa taphunzira kulemba ndikuwerenga, (We want this programme to continue, it is a good programme because we have learnt how read and write)*”. The study revealed that most of the learners attending CBE were able to read, write and excelled in numeracy. According to Katonda (2013), one of the pre-entry attributes of learners from CBE into the mainstream includes numeracy and literacy skills. Katonda, (2013) indicated that learners’ pre-entry attributes (knowledge and skills) which they acquired from CBE schools made them integrate into formal primary schools successfully. It can be noted here that the learners acknowledged that the level of knowledge and skills acquired in the CBE schools

enabled them to integrate easily into the formal primary schools. Additionally, Katonda, (2013) study also established that performance in terms of grades for the majority of learners from CBE was reasonably good as compared to that of regular learners (Katonda, 2014).

However one older learner lamented that:

“Ndinabwera kuno ku CBE chifukwa ndinamva kuti tidzalandira zipangizo za ntchito za manja, koma mpaka pano izi sizinachitike, ndizokhumudwitsa kwambiri, timangophunzira zantchito zamanja koma tilibe mwayi woti tiyesere, (I joined CBE majorly because I wanted to gain vocational skills and get a starter pack equipment to help me start my own business of carpentry, am frustrated because up to now this has not materialized, the skills we learn are based on theory and we have not been able to practice due to lack of necessary equipment and materials)”

One group village head remarked that :

“Pologalamu ya CBE ndiyabwino, ipitirire, ikuthandiza ana kudziwa kulemba, kuwerenga ndipo izi zikumathandiza kuti adzitenga nawo mbali pankhani za chitukuko chammidzi, iwo amatha kukhala a lembi nkumatithandiza kulemba, komanso pulogalamuyi yathandiza kwambiri kuthetsa mnchitidwe wakuba mmudzi muno chifukwa chiwerengero cha ana omangoyendayenda osowa chochita chacheperako,(The programme is good it has to continue, the children who have attended are able to read write and participate actively in community development activities because their understanding has improved and they are able to hold positions in village development committees where they contribute positively. This programme has also decreased thefts in our communities since now the children are busy attending CBE other than loitering in the village and stealing from people).”

According to the CIPP model, outcome evaluation involves evaluation of both intended and unintended outcomes both positive and negative. In this case the reduction in loitering and thefts is one of the positive unintended outcomes of the programme.

4.7 Challenges in the implementation of CBE

This question sought to find out from all participants what challenges the programme implementation was facing. A number of challenges were identified which included; Inadequate honoraria and delays in payment of honoraria, lack of mobility for the teacher, inadequate teaching and learning materials, lack of appropriate infrastructure, transitioning of the two modes, poor monitoring, inadequate support, lack of involvement of those close to the implementation level.

4.7.1 Inadequate and delays in payment of honoraria

The issue of honoraria for teachers featured prominently throughout the interviews. The teacher, LCMC, PEA, District education officials, and MoEST officials all highlighted honoraria as one of the major challenges affecting teachers' motivation in the implementation of CBE. The issue of honoraria was in two-fold, first the amount was not motivating to the teacher and secondly the payment was delayed as indicated in this quote from a teacher,

“The honoraria they give us is not enough, it is much less as compared to what the facilitators were getting, besides I go several months without getting the honoraria, right now I have not been paid for the past five months, it is demotivating. When the money comes they give me as a lump sum, up to now I don't know whether I am supposed to get MK10, 000 per month or MK5, 000 per month. They would rather be paying us on time every month.”

The LCMC member commended the teachers as follows:

“Aphunzitsi athu ndiodzipereka, koma amakhumudwitsidwa chifukwa makobili awo sawapatsa, angogwira ntchito yaulele, pamene ma facilitator akale aja makobili awo amalandira bwino bwino” (our teachers is committed but he is discouraged because he is not being paid but the previous facilitators were paid)’’

The findings also revealed that unlike rural teachers allowances the CBE honoraria is not included on the pay roll. The Districts were making separate submissions to the Ministry for payment yet these are permanent teachers who are already in the government payment system and could as well get their honoraria through their salaries. This system resulted in delays with the teachers spending up to six months without getting their honoraria. This delay, therefore, frustrated and de-motivated most of these teachers. Additionally the amount of honoraria was too little to enable them supply their

personal needs at the same time sacrifice to procure teaching and learning materials which was not their responsibility. It actually took passion for a teacher to make such kind of a sacrifice. So, depending on personalities some would just opt to stop going to the CBE centre which made some centres become non-functional.

4.7.2 Inadequate Resources

The other challenge was inadequate resources to support CBE implementation. All participants interviewed highlighted lack of teaching and learning materials as a major drawback on the implementation of CBE. These materials include chalk, flip charts, notebooks, text books, pens, pencils, buckets for drawing water, sporting equipment like footballs and net balls. Most schools did not have adequate teaching and learning materials such as textbooks and teachers' guides. Most of the times, the teacher has to borrow some of these materials from the primary school, sometimes the LCMC use their own meagre resources to buy some.

One LCMC had this to say,

“CBE yapanoyi yanyanya kusowa zipangizo zoti ana adziphunzirira, olo mphunzitsi alibe zipangizo. Nthawi zina timakakamizika kusonkherana kukagula zipangizo kuti ana aphunzire, Zipangizo zina zomwe tinkagwiritsa ntchito monga mipira , ndowa zamadzi, bolodi, zinapita ndi a phunzitsi akale aja ati kamba sanawapatse malipiro awo. Izi zikubwenzera maphunziro mmbuyo komanso ukhondo ukumavuta chifukwa tilibe ndowa, ana ena amene ankakopeka ndi mipira yomwe inalipo anasiya kubwera ku sukulu” (the current CBE lacks teaching and learning resources. Sometimes we are forced to contribute to buy these resources. The resources we had including balls were taken away by the previous teacher because he was not paid. This is a setback because sanitation has become a problem in the absence of the buckets and those learners who were motivated by sporting activities have also stopped attending)”

Teaching and learning resources are a critical input in as far as implementation of CBE is concerned. CIPP model contends that inputs facilitates implementation to generate desired results. Failure to provide the inputs would more likely affecting the outcomes of the programme. Letting the LCMC buy the resources using their money is putting unnecessary strain on them especially considering that they work on volunteer basis and they are not paid.

4.7.3 Lack of support

Lack of support also came out as one of the challenges affecting implementation of the current CBE. The grassroots stakeholders felt that the current CBE is not being fully supported by those in authority. The support is in terms of supervision visits by those in authority and material support that would facilitate their meetings.

One LCMC member lamented in the following quote:

“CBE yapanoyi chiyambireni palibe anabwera kudziyendera kusiyana ndi kale ija ankatiyendera pafupi pafupi, izi zikumagwetsa mphwayi a komiti, komanso tikumasowa upangiri oyenerera. Ngankhale anthu mmidzimu amatinena kuti tingotaya nthawi yathu mmalo mokagwira ntchito zathu”. (with the current CBE program, nobody has ever come to visit us like it was before. This discourages the committee members. We also lack expertise for the task. Even the people in the villages mock us saying that we are just wasting our time instead of working in our homes.)

Another LCMC member remarked that:

“Ife ngati a committee tinakakonda kuti tidzikumana pafupipafupi ndicholinga choti tidzigawana ukadaulo ndi upangiri, komabe izi sidzikutheka chifukwa palibe chithandizokumbali ya dzofewetsa kukhosi

panthawi ya nkumano wathu,Monga mukudziwa kukumana kwathu kumatenga nthawi komanso mamembala amasungidwa nthawi yayitali opanda chilichonse choti angathe kudya chimene sichili chinthu chabwino,zotsatila zake mamembala ambiri sabwera kumisonkhano tikawaitanazimene zikusiyana ndimisonkhano ya ma school a primary kumene mamembala akaitainidwa kudzapanga msonkhano amapatsidwa dzofewetsa kukhosi. "As a committee we would have loved to be meeting periodically to share experiences and best practices, however we don't do this often because there is no provision to support us in terms of refreshments for the meetings, you know meetings take along time and keeping members without anything for them to eat it is no fair, as a result most members don't show up when we call for such meetings, its unlike in the primary school where committee members are given refreshments when they attend meetings"

CBE centres are not provided with any funding and they do not collect any money from the learners. If community support through LCMC is to be sustained there is need to allocate some funding for governance and management issues just like it is done in the Primary schools in the School Improvement Programme(PSIP). The PSIP provides funding of which 10 percent goes towards all activities under governance and management whilst 40 percent goes to access and equity and 50 percent goes to support quality and relevance activities.

Apart from lack of support from relevant officials, the LCMC members also sited lack of support from the community. Other people were discouraging learners and LCMC members.

One of the learners had this to say,

"Anthu ena tikamabwera ku CBE amatiseka, amati ndi sukulu yopanda phindu, tikungotaya nthawi yathu mmalo mothandiza makolo ntchito za

pakhomo (Some people laugh at us, they mock us, they say there is no future in CBE, we are wasting our time instead of helping our parents at home)”

One of the LCMC members bemoaned that: “*Anthu ambiri a mmudzi amatiseka, amati tikungowononga nthawi yathu kuno mmalo moti tidzikasamala ma banja athu, amati ntchito timagwira ndichibalo. (Some members in the community laugh at us, they say we are wasting our time here instead of taking care of our families, they say the work we do is a punishment)”*

Community sensitisation meeting is paramount in ensuring successful implementation of community based programmes. The study revealed that there was one meeting that was held to elect the committee, but thereafter there were no subsequent follow up meetings where the community would be updated on implementation progress. The only people that were aware of the successes of the programme were those who were directly benefiting from the programme or those involved in the actual implementation. As a result other members in the community did not appreciate the importance of CBE.

4.7.4 Lack of guidance

Most of the learners went back to the standard from which they dropped out despite spending 3 years at the CBE centre which as per policy they were supposed to join the mainstream in standard 6. This is corroborated by the teachers in the mainstream who say that the learners are doing exceptionally well in class. It means they are misplaced in terms of standard.

4.8. Suggestions on how to improve implementation

On who should teach the CBE learners to make the implementation more effective, the parents and learners collaborated that the qualified teacher should teach at the CBE centre.

The participants suggested that there should be provision of safety nets for children from ultra-poor households for them to be able to buy some materials needed at school. Others suggested that they should get social cash transfers that can enable them to buy food and basic needs like clothes. On provision of porridge, both parents and learners indicated that this is not necessary as its time consuming and owing to the less time they spend at CBE centre this would deprive them of their precious time to learn.

To encourage participation of teen mothers who are currently not motivated to attend, all the participants interviewed indicated that the programme has to make a provision of materials necessary for them to practice vocational skills.

One of the parents explained that:

“Atsikana omwe ali ndi ana amagwa ulesi kubwera ku CBE chifukwa choti amaphunzira kuluka ndi kusema koma mwayi woti ayesere kugwiritsa ntchito luso lomwe aphunzira mkalasi sukhlapo. (teen mothers don’t want to come to CBE centre because they only learn on how to knit, sewing, making wooden spoons but they do not put this into practice because the materials are not there, this discourages them from attending)”

This was also corroborated by the PEA who said that unless the vocational skills are put to practice the CBE will not attract teen mothers and older boys who apart from learning how to read and write, they would also want to have skills that will contribute to their livelihood.

On who should support the implementation, all participants interviewed indicated that their political leaders, the District assembly should come in to support the CBE centre in the other areas like construction of shelters and provision of sporting equipment.

In terms of who should support in monitoring the CBE centres, all participants interviewed indicated that MoEST officials should once in a while visit the centres to encourage the learners and LCMC. One LCMC member remarked, “A CRECCOM *ankatiyendera kwambiri kusiyana ndi a boma chiyambire sanatiyenderepo, (the local NGO CRECCOM used to visit us frequently but since the Ministry took over no one from the Ministry has visited the centre*”

The CBE teacher and PEA suggested that the head teacher of the nearest school should be empowered to support the CBE centre. The PEA explains, “*the head teacher is closer to the CBE centre than the PEA, the head teacher should be oriented and given resources to support the CBE centre*”.

4.8.1 Recommendations of how implementation can be improved

The other question sought to solicit views of stakeholders on how CBE implementation can be improved. On this, grass root stakeholders were of the view that the current mode of implementation using mainstream teachers should continue. This was based on the pedagogy used in the classroom. Additionally, the mainstream teachers have the technical knowledge in matters of education hence will help to bring the best outcomes. They also added that all that needs to be done is to improve on resource allocation and support for the mainstream teachers and strengthen supervision for those that are close to the level of implementation.

On the other hand, the District and Ministry officials shared the view that implementation of CBE would be best done through other actors like service providers and facilitators and the Ministry assuming the policy and quality assurance role. The District official suggested that : *“The best way to implement CBE is engage service providers as before and have a special unit established other than PEAs to do the Monitoring and supervision because they are already overwhelmed with their day to day work”*.

On the other hand, the Ministry officials are of the view that engaging service providers is not sustainable because it requires a lot of resources. To cut on the resources, CBE would be best implemented by engaging facilitators directly and having a special unit comprising of education experts to do the monitoring and supervision.

Having looked at the views of the stakeholders, the researcher is of the view that engaging other implementers other than the mainstream teacher would negatively affect the direct beneficiaries of the programme who are learners and parents. Engaging the primary school teachers would be more cost effective than engaging facilitators since the facilitators would require double as much payment as the teachers receive, otherwise it will also affect their commitment to the programme. Setting up a special unit to do supervision and monitoring would also require a lot of resources. Strengthening the already existing structures, in terms of adding numbers and resources, would help the programme to be cost effective and at the same time legitimize the programme at grass root level for successful implementation. On the other hand establishing partnerships with Local NGOs would help strengthening the implementation and outcomes of CBE.

4.8.2 Areas of Improvement

The study sought to find out stakeholders' views on how the implementation of CBE could be improved. Most of the suggestions were based on the challenges that the stakeholders highlighted as earlier discussed.

The first suggestion was that the Honoria of the CBE teacher should be increased to twenty thousand kwachas (MK20, 000.00) per month to motivate them to teach the CBE learners. There was also a suggestion that the payment should be done through the salary system so that the teachers are assured of their honoraria at the end of the month. Secondly, the participant interview suggested that all involved in implementation facilitators should be supported through periodic trainings to help them continuously develop their skills. There was also a strong recommendation that the head teacher of the mainstream school should be involved in supervision since the PEAs are overwhelmed with their daily responsibilities. There was also a suggestion that District Management Information Systems Officer (DEMISO) be given the responsibility of collecting data from the CBE centre just like they do at the primary school and compile the data and submit to the Ministry for consolidation in the EMIS. This data would be used for decision making both at District and Ministry level.

On reports, the stakeholders suggested that Assistant Centre Coordinators (ACCOs) at Zone level should be given the responsibility to assist the PEA in monitoring and compiling reports and submit to the District on monthly basis just like they do in the primary schools. Officials from the Ministry and the District were of the view that engaging a special team of supervisors other than PEAs would help to improve

supervision and monitoring of CBE replicating what was happening in the implementation of IPTE- ODL programme.

On infrastructure, there was a suggestion that permanent shelters be constructed including sanitation facilities to encourage girls to attend. Some stakeholders were of the view that CBE should be hosted at the nearest primary school so that the learners use the same facilities as the primary school. This would help learners to access better facilities and also help the teacher not to waste a lot of time transitioning from primary to CBE. It would also help the head teacher to closely monitor what is happening at the CBE and submit necessary reports for improvement of CBE implementation. However, this suggestion would defeat the whole purpose of making the centres easily accessible to the learners and this would lead to drop out of learners especially those who dropped out of the mainstream because of long distance to school. There would be need for further analysis of the reasons for drop out from the mainstream so that a better option suiting the needs of the learners can be arrived at.

All stakeholders interviewed, suggested that another area of improvement was the provision of enough TLMS. This would help those learners that come from ultra-poor households. Another suggestion for improvement was that the CBE teacher should be provided with bicycle to enable him to move quickly from the primary school to the CBE centre. This will help the teacher to catch up on time for starting CBE classes and also reduce fatigue due to walking. The findings revealed that unlike the previous mode where facilitators were given bicycles to ease their travel, the current mode did not have such provision.

4.9 Chapter summary

This chapter has reported on the findings and discussed the results of the study. The chapter started by looking at the overview, thereafter, discussed the implementation of CBE programme in terms of increasing access to basic education where issues that hinder access to education are discussed and how they are being addressed to increase access to basic education for the marginalised children. Equity in the provision of CBE in the current mode of implementation, in respect to gender, socio economic status of learners and disability has been analysed. Assessment on quality of CBE with regard to teacher quality, pupil teacher ratio and supervision, trainings and orientations has been undertaken. Outcomes of the current CBE have been explored based on the objectives of the CBE programmes which include increase to access, transitioning of learners and learner achievement. The chapter has also looked at the challenges and suggestions on how implementation can be improved.

According to the findings, the current mode of implementation has increased access to education because the starting time meets the needs of learners that are in various circumstances. However the programme has failed to address issues on gender equity, socio-economic status and disability. These categories continue to face marginalisation in access to basic education. The engagement of qualified teacher in the current implementation has improved perception of the programme and motivated both learners and parents thereby increasing numbers that enrol in CBE. However, poor resourcing of the current CBE programme has negatively impacted on its implementation. This has resulted in most of the activities not being implemented. There is inadequate trainings, lack of orientation of relevant stakeholders in the implementation lack of Teaching and Learning Materials (TLMs).

On perceptions of the participants, some of them felt the programme is good as it gives a second chance to the children and youth to access basic education. Almost participants agreed that more resources need to be allocated to Districts to facilitate implementation process. The chapter concludes with a proposal on how to improve the CBE programme. Three areas, which are duration of orientation period, professional support and resources, have been identified as the main areas that need improvement.

The next chapter will provide a summary of the study findings, implications and conclusions. It will also highlight areas that require further studies in CBE to add value to CBE policy implementation.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

5.1 Chapter Overview

The purpose of the study was to assess the implementation of CBE through state provision and how it is meeting the needs of marginalised children in access to basic education. Specifically the study sought to find out the barriers that marginalised children face in access to education and how they are being addressed to increase access, how equity issues are being addresses, how quality of education is being improved, to what extent are the intended outcomes being met and challenges that are being faced by the state provision of CBE. To be able to carry out such analysis, this study was guided by the main research questions: how is CBE implementation addressing the challenge of access to education through the learning centres? How are the learning centres promoting equity in the provisiomn of CBE? What factors are affecting the quality of CBE implementation in the learning centres? What challenges is the current implementation mode facing? The previous chapter reported the results of this study. This chapter presents a summary of the findings of the study, conclusions and implications on policy and practice.

Building on the concept of CIPP model, the final stage involves measuring the actual outcomes and comparing them to the anticipated outcomes and enables decision makers decide if the program should be continued, modified , or dropped altogether. Thereafter

, the chapter provides some implications for consideration by responsible authorities and concludes by outlining areas essential for further study.

5.2 Barriers in access to education and how they are being addressed

The study found out that distance, socio economic status and family responsibilities came out as the major barriers affecting access to education. The study established that locating centres close to the communities and starting classes in the afternoon helped learners to be able to attend CBE classes hence increasing access. Learners with various family responsibilities are able to apportion their time appropriately so that they attend CBE classes at the same time fulfil their family obligations. The study established that learners from ultra poor families are still facing marginalisation in access to education since there are no safety nets provided in form of cash transfers within the programme and there is no effort to link such learners or their families to appropriate Ministry which provides Social cash transfers. As a result such learners fail to attend classes because they do not have basic needs like clothing and food. This is exacerbated by failure to provide appropriate resources like Teaching and Learning Materials (TLMs). This leads to most of them dropping out of the CBE centres.

5.3 Promotion of equity in the provision of CBE in the learning centres

Equity was assessed in terms of gender, ultra poor and disability. On gender equity, the study revealed that CBE achieved gender parity in the first year where gender parity index was greater than one, however, in the second year the gender parity index reduced. This means that despite enrolling more girls than boys in the first year retention of the girls remain a challenge. What is clearly coming out from this study is that the issue of social cash transfers, vocational skills and unavailability of sanitation

facilities is affecting retention of girls in the CBE centre. On disability, the study found that no effort is being made to encourage learners with disability to enrol in CBE. Besides, the centres are being managed by regular teachers who have no knowledge on how to handle learners with various disabilities. This implies that there are no systems or mechanisms in place to collaborate with the relevant Ministries and Organisations that can support the identification, assessment and management of Special Education Needs (SEN) learners.

5.4 Factors affecting the quality of CBE implementation in the learning centres

In regards to quality issues, the study unveiled the three main issues that are affecting quality of education in the CBE centres. These are: Quality of teachers, training of the teachers and monitoring and supervision of the CBE centres. On quality of teachers, the study established that grassroot stakeholders perceive that engagement of qualified teachers in CBE is contributing towards improvement of quality in CBE. This perception is based on the pedagogy employed by the qualified teachers in the delivery of lessons. On training of teachers, the study found that the trainings were inadequate in both duration and frequency. Hence the facilitators did not have enough knowledge to handle multi-grade classes which is typical of CBE classes. Additionally there was a gap in the training content as it did not include the aspect of special needs learners. As a result the teachers lacked basic knowledge to support learners with disabilities hence there was no effort made to enroll them. The study further indicated that CBE classes experienced weak oversight support from the LCMC leading to a decline in learners' and facilitators' punctuality and attendance. Additionally, the teachers are not regularly supervised which is also affecting the quality of education in the CBE centres. The implementation of CBE has failed to maximise the available human resource in the

system like the Inspector of Schools, Head teachers and ACCOs to help in the supervision of CBE.

5.5 Achievement of intended outcomes of CBE

The CBE had intended to equip learners with literacy and numeracy skills so that they are integrated into the mainstream primary school and also equip learners with vocational skills for their livelihood. In regard to equipping learners with literacy and numeracy skills, the study revealed that most learners are able to read and write which is one of the prerequisite for transitioning into the mainstream primary school. Most of the younger learners that graduated from the CBE transitioned into the mainstream primary school. However, there was no proper guidance given to the learners as to which class they would join in the mainstream. The study also found out that the CBE programme has not fully equipped learners with practical vocational skills as was intended. As a result, older learners and teen mothers are discouraged from enrolling in CBE as they will find it unattractive and those that enrol they would eventually drop out.

5.6 Challenges in the state mode of implementation of CBE

The study unveiled that one of the key challenges facing the current CBE implementation is lack of Teaching and Learning Materials. This is arising because of inadequate budgetary allocation for CBE implementation. Besides, the budget is highly centralised hence affecting efficiency in service delivery. Apart from the centralisation of the budget, the study found that there was less weighting TLMs budgetary allocation which is negatively affecting implementation of the CBE. All these issues have led to supply of teaching and learning resources almost impossible.

Another finding was on the issue of honouraria paid to teachers which is two fold. Firstly, the study discovered that the amount of honoraria being paid was insufficient. Secondly there are delays in payment of the honoraria due to the centralisation of the budget. This was affecting teachers' morale hence implementation of CBE had also been negatively affected.

The study also revealed that there was lack of support from MoEST and District officials in terms of visits to the centres. Visiting the centres would boost morale of the grassroots stakeholders, provide guidance and draw issues in practice to inform policy.

The study further disclosed that there was a gap in integrating programmes within the basic education hence creating competing demand on the availability of the teachers. This is the case where the same teachers are needed in the mainstream primary school at the same time they are required to attend to CBE classes. As a result, the CBE classes suffered a loss of some hours thereby reducing learner teacher contact hours which would eventually affect learning outcomes.

5.7 Conclusions

Conclusions from this study are drawn in line with four specific research questions that guided the study. On the first question which sought to find out how the CBE centres are addressing issues of access to basic education for the marginalised children, it can be concluded that CBE implementation has partially addressed the issues that act as barriers to access to education. However, non-availability of TLMs has hugely affected access to education for the marginalised youth and children who have to look for the

materials for themselves and some of them cannot even afford to do so which leads to some of dropping out.

On the question of how learning centres are promoting equity in the provision of CBE, it can be concluded that the CBE implementation has addressed gender equity especially for the young girls who have intentions to be integrated into the mainstream Primary school. However, the CBE has failed to address issues of teen mothers, SNE learners and children from poor social economic background. As such, these groups continue to face marginalisation in CBE implementation.

On the question of factors affecting the quality of the CBE implementation in the learning centres, the conclusion is that the availability of qualified teachers in the CBE centres has positively contributed to the quality learning. However, this researcher is quick to point that this assertion is based on the perception of the direct beneficiaries which is also backed by literature. The study did not go further to substantiate the perception with outcomes of CBE because that was outside the scope of the study. On the other hand inadequate training and supervision has negatively affected the quality of education in the CBE centres.

The implementation of CBE is partially achieving the intended outcomes as younger learners are able to acquire desired skills for integration into the primary school but it has failed to equip learners with practical skills for livelihood. Another conclusion from the study findings is that transitioning of the two mode of implementation was not properly managed and as a result, resourcing of the CBE programme and transitioning of learners into the mainstream has been affected. This is an indication that the Ministry

was not proactive in putting in place a proper exit strategy towards the end of the pilot phase.

On the question of challenges that the current CBE implementation mode is facing, it can be concluded that failure by the Ministry to identify other funding partners other than GiZ and centralisation of CBE resources has negatively affected the implementation of the current CBE. This has resulted in inadequate provision of resources to CBE centres. Teachers morale has been affected by the inadequate honoraria and delays in its payment. The introduction of NRP in the mainstream primary has also negatively affected the implementation of CBE as the same teachers implementing CBE are also implementing NRP.

In conclusion, the major finding of this study is that access to education in CBE has increased though equity and retention remain a challenge. The non-involvement of local NGOs, poor resourcing of the CBE centre and centralisation of the budget has negatively affected implementation of CBE. Use of qualified primary school teachers has improved the quality of instruction in CBE though this is offset by lack of support for the teachers in terms of trainings and supervision. As such the objectives of CBE are not fully met in the state provision of CBE. Unless Government finds a way of engaging local NGOs in implementation of CBE, mobilising resources and fully decentralising for the programme, the achievement of objectives of CBE will remain a challenge.

5.8 Implications on Policy and Practice

The grass root stakeholders perceive education offered by qualified teachers to be good based on pedagogy used in the classroom and this is supported by literature. This implies that CBE is in line with the needs of the beneficiaries hence implementation is legitimised at grassroots level hence supported. The policy issue is whether these qualified teachers should be directly engaged by the Ministry or sub contract a local NGO to recruit, train and support and manage the qualified volunteer teachers. NGOs have the right structures and capacity to mobilise communities (CREATE, 2010). However, there is no formal working relationship between the Ministry and local NGOs, hence existence of such relationship is a must.

The lack of involvement of all relevant stakeholders like the School Inspectors, Head teachers and ACCOs in the implementation is a missed opportunity in strengthening supervision and monitoring. These officers are already in the system and are closer to the lowest level of implementation, hence the need for their involvement.

The centralisation of the CBE budget implies that resources are not being allocated to the lowest level of implementation as required and in time. As a result the resources are not being efficiently utilised to support CBE implementation. The policy option worth considering is the full decentralisation of both functions and resources to District level. Decentralisation seeks to empower people at grassroots level to increase efficiency and improve support and sustainability through community ownership of the programme. This entails giving Districts full autonomy on how best to implement CBE in their context. The Ministry may remain with functions of policy guidance and monitoring implementation to ensure adherence to education standards. For CBE to be

successful, it is imperative that the government accelerates its decentralisation efforts to give more room for districts to manage education development like CBE. This will create the opportunities for working partnerships between NGOs and district councils. District education officials will be able to implement CBE with community engagement, which is central to the programme development and implementation. Distinct partnership arrangements between Councils and NGOs should take into consideration funding sources and modalities.

The budgetary allocations of the two tiers of government would be further reinforced with participation of the private sectors and civil society in the implementation of CBE. Through Education Sector Wide Approach (ESWAP) mobilisation of a cross section of development partners to support CBE would help in mobilising resources for CBE. The policy issue is whether CBE can be part of ESWAP funding just like the Primary school Improvement Programme (PSIP) programme for sustainability and expansion of the CBE programme.

Failure by the Ministry to collaborate and leverage on relevant Ministries and departments to support SEN learners, teen mothers and children from ultra-poor households entails that these groups will continue to face marginalisation in access to education just like the mainstream schools. This means inequalities in access to education will continue. This is retrogressive because CBE program was put in place to target such kind of learners so that they are given a chance to basic education.

Learners were not guided properly on which class to join, as a result, most of them ended going back to the last class they attended in the mainstream. This implies a

wastage of resources on the part of government as the learners will be going through the same classes and materials which they already covered in the CBE. On the part of the learners, they are unnecessarily delayed to complete their primary cycle and risk dropping out again especially girls due to over age. This, therefore, calls for proper guidance and procedures on their expectations upon completion of CBE programs.

5.9 Suggestions for Further Research Studies

This study was looking at the current mode of implementation and outcomes of CBE using existing government structures. Another area that may need exploring is a thorough stakeholder perception in the mode of implementation to inform policy. Further comparative research should also be conducted to establish the most effective way of implementing CBE between government and non- state actors' provision.

5.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter has interpreted the findings of the study and shown their practical implications. The discussions were mainly centred to fulfill four research questions:- (1) How is CBE implementation addressing the challenge of access to education through the learning centres? (2) How are learning centres promoting equity in the provision of CBE? (3) what factors are affecting the quality of CBE implementation in the learning centres? And (4) What challenges is the current implementation mode facing? According to the findings of the study, there are gaps in the current implementation mode to meet the needs of marginalized children and youth. Based on the interpretation of the findings and the discussion that ensued to deal with the shortfalls, the chapter has produced some desirable implications to eradicate them. This study has been concluded by outlining areas for further research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Letter of Introduction from Chancellor College School of Education



Appendix 2: Letter of Introduction from MoEST

Telegrams: MINED LILONGWE
Telephone: +265 1 789422/01788961
Fax: +265 1 788064/164

All correspondences should be addressed to The
Secretary for Education, Science and Technology



In reply please quote No.

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY
PRIVATE BAG 328
CAPITAL CITY
LILONGWE 3
MALAWI

REF.NO. BED/1/26

15th December, 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Ruth Samati-Kambali is a student pursuing a Master of Education Policy Planning and Leadership at Chancellor College, University of Malawi.

The Ministry of Education Science and Technology has granted her permission to conduct a research study on the Implementation of Complementary Basic Education in Phalombe District. She would like to collect data in your institution in fulfillment of her studies entitled "An exploration into the implementation and outcomes of non-formal education".

Your cooperation on this matter will be highly appreciated.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'Ellen Simango'.

Ellen Simango

For: SECRETARY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Appendix 3: Letter of Introduction from DEM

Telephone/Fax :
Cell: 0999 426 088
0888 980 170
Email : phalombedem@33gmail.com

All Communications should be addressed to:
The District Education Manager



In reply please quote No.

PHALOMBE DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICE

P.O. BOX 146

PHALOMBE

Date: 14th December, 2017

Madam R. SamatiKambali
MED/PPL/14/12
Chancellor College
P.O. Box 280
Zomba

Dear Madam
PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA IN PHALOMBE DISTRICT

With reference to your letter dated 11th December, 2018 where you requested the DEM's Office to grant you permission to collect data in the district, I hereby write to inform you that permission has been granted for you to collect the needed data on Complimentary Basic Education (CBE).

Any assistance you may need from our office pertaining to the process of collecting the data feel free to contact me, the Coordinating PEA or the DEMIS office.

Yours faithfully


14 DEC 2017
P.O. BOX 146, PHALOMBE
Hendrix B.E. Likeke
DEM FOR PHALOMBE

Appendix 4: Interview Schedule for Learners

1. Why did you drop out from primary school?
2. When did the CBE programme start? When did you join CBE classes?
3. How did you know about CBE?
4. Why did you decide to join CBE?
5. How are CBE classes conducted?
6. Who decided the starting time of CBE? Were you consulted?
7. What time do the classes start and what time do they finish? Are you comfortable with the start and finish times?
8. Does the start and finish times affect your other programmes? If yes explain how? What do you do to make up for the other programmes?
9. Which lessons are more beneficial to you? Explain.
10. What other lessons would you have loved to be learning?
11. What are you able to do that you were not able to do before joining the CBE programme? What else would you want to be able to do?
12. Are you ready to join the mainstream school after attending CBE? If not why?
13. Do you attend CBE classes every day? If not why?
14. Which category of learners are often more likely to be absent from school?
 - a. Girls
 - b. boys
 - c. older boys
 - d. older girls

Give reasons for your choice above.
15. Are there any learners who have dropped out of CBE classes? If yes why have they dropped out?

16. What kind of support do you give to learners who attend CBE? How else do you think they can be supported?
17. How are learners performing in CBE classes?
18. How useful are the lessons in CBE?
19. Who supports you to attend CBE classes? What kind of support do they give you? What other support would you have loved to be given to you?
20. What is the attitude of teachers / facilitators in CBE classes?
21. What kind of support do the teachers give to CBE learners in class? What other kind of support would love to be given.
22. Do you receive any teaching and learning materials? What are they? Are they provided timely? Are they sufficient? What else do you think should be provided?
23. What are the benefits of attending CBE classes?
24. What is your perception in the implementation of CBE? How do other people perceive the implementation of CBE?
25. How do you compare the previous CBE from the current CBE?
26. How do you compare the previous CBE facilitator and the current CBE facilitator/
27. What challenges do you face in implementing CBE? What do you do to overcome the challenges? What should other stakeholders do to help you overcome the challenges?
28. What is your opinion and recommendation on the implementation of CBE?

END OF INTERVIEW

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix 5: Interview Schedule for Parents/ Local Leaders

1. When did the CBE programme start?
1. How did you know about CBE?
2. What is your role in CBE implementation?
3. How are CBE classes conducted? Where are the classes conducted? Is it a conducive environment?
4. Who decided the starting time of CBE? Were you consulted?
5. What time do the classes start and what time do they finish? Are you comfortable with the start and finish times?
6. Does the start and finish times affect the learners' programmes? If yes explain how?
7. Do you know the lessons being offered in CBE classes? If yes do you think they are beneficial to learners? What other lessons would be beneficial to the learners?
8. What are the learners able to do that they were not able to do before joining the CBE programme? What else you think they should be able to do?
9. Are learners ready to join the mainstream school after attending CBE? If not why?
10. Do learners attend CBE classes every day? If not why?
11. Which category of learners are often more likely to be absent from school?
 - a. Girls
 - b. boys
 - c. older boys
 - d. older girls

Give reasons for your choice above.

12. Are there any learners who have dropped out of CBE classes? If yes why have they dropped out?
13. What kind of support do you give to learners who attend CBE? How else do you think they can be supported?
14. How are learners performing in class?
15. How useful are the lessons in CBE?
16. Do you receive any teaching and learning materials? What are they? Are they provided timely? Are they sufficient? What else do you think should be provided?
17. What is the attitude of learners/ teachers / facilitators in CBE classes?
18. What are the benefits of CBE?
19. What is your perception in the implementation of CBE? How do other people perceive the implementation of CBE?
20. How do you compare the previous implementation and the current one?
21. What are your opinion and recommendation on the improvement of CBE?
22. What challenges do you face in implementing CBE? What do you do to overcome the challenges? What should other stakeholders do to help you overcome the challenges?

END OF INTERVIEW

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix 6: Interview Schedule Headteacher and Teacher/Facilitators

SEX.....

DUTY STATION.....

POSITION.....

1. When did the CBE programme start?
2. How long have you been involved in CBE?
3. Did you under go any training on CBE ? yes,by who? How often?
4. What is your role in CBE?
5. Are you satisfied with your role in CBE? If not what other role do you think you can play?
6. What challenges do you face in discharging your role in CBE? What can be the possible solutions?
7. Which group of stakeholders do you support? What kind of support do you give?
8. Do you visit the CBE centres? If yes how often?
9. Which other stakeholders are involved in the implementation of CBE? What is their role?
10. Do other stakeholders perform their role as required?If your answer is no, what are some of the reasons which make them fail to perform their role?
11. Are you satisfied with the roles of other stakeholders in CBE?Are you satisfied with their roles? If not what other role do you think they should play?
12. How does your involvement in CBE is affected your work or daily life?
13. What are the benefits of CBE?
14. Apart from your usual source of income, do you get any honorarium or allowance for the work you do in CBE? If yes is it satisfactory? If no how does it affect you?

15. What resources are used in CBE? Who provides resources for CBE? Are they sufficient? What other resources do you think should have been provided for smooth implementation of CBE.
16. How is learner attendance to CBE classes? How is the attendance of girls and teen mothers? How is the attendance of young children? How is attendance of older children? Which group is registering low attendance and why?
17. Are there any children who have dropped out? Which group of children has registered high dropout rate and why?
18. What are the benefits of CBE?
19. What is your general perception of CBE programme? How do other stakeholders perceive CBE?
20. What kind of collaboration is there among stakeholders in the implementation of CBE?
21. What are the challenges in CBE implementation?
22. What should be done to improve the implementation of CBE?

END OF INTERVIEW

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix 7: Interview Schedule for DEM, PEA and MoEST Official

SEX.....

DUTY STATION.....

POSITION.....

1. When did the CBE programme start?
2. How long have you been involved in CBE?
3. Were you oriented on the CBE programme? If yes, by who?
4. What is your role in CBE?
5. Are you satisfied with your role in CBE? If not what other role do you think you can play?
6. What challenges do you face in discharging your role in CBE? What can be the possible solutions?
7. Which group of stakeholders do you support? What kind of support do you give?
8. Do you visit the CBE centres? If yes how often?
9. Which other stakeholders are involved in the implementation of CBE? What is their role?
10. Do other stakeholders perform their role as required? If your answer is no, what are some of the reasons which make them fail to perform their role?
11. Are you satisfied with the roles of other stakeholders in CBE? Are you satisfied with their roles? If not what other role do you think they should play?
12. How does your involvement in CBE affect your work or daily life?
13. What are the benefits of CBE?
14. Apart from your usual source of income, do you get any honorarium or allowance for the work you do in CBE? If yes is it satisfactory? If no how does it affect you?

- 15.** How are CBE activities funded?
- 16.** What resources are used in CBE? Who provides resources for CBE? Are they sufficient? What other resources do you think should have been provided for smooth implementation of CBE.
- 17.** How is learner attendance to CBE classes? How is the attendance of girls and teen mothers? How is the attendance of young children? How is attendance of older children? Which group is registering low attendance and why?
- 18.** Are there any children who have dropped out? Which group of children has registered high dropout rate and why?
- 19.** What are the benefits of CBE?
- 20.** What is your general perception of CBE programme? How do other stakeholders perceive CBE?
- 21.** What is the attitude of others towards the implementation of CBE? Explain.
- 22.** What are your concerns on the implementation of CBE? What are other peoples` concerns? How can they be addressed?
- 23.** What are other peoples` concerns in the implementation of CBE? How can they be addressed?
- 24.** What kind of collaboration is there among stakeholders in the implementation of CBE?
- 25.** What should be done to improve the implementation of CBE?
- 26.** What challenges do you face in the implementation of CBE?
- 27.** How can the challenges be mitigated?
- 28.** How can CBE implementation be improved?

END OF INTERVIEW

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

Appendix 8: Interview Schedule for Ministry Officials

SEX.....

POSITION.....

1. When did the CBE programme start?
2. How long have you been involved in CBE?
3. Were you oriented on the CBE programme? If yes, by who?
4. What is your role in the implementation of CBE?
5. Are you satisfied with your role in CBE? If not what other role do you think you can play?
6. What challenges do you face in discharging your role in CBE? What can be the possible solutions?
7. Which group of stakeholders do you support? What kind of support do you give?
8. Do you visit the CBE centres? If yes how often?
9. Which other stakeholders are involved in the implementation of CBE? What is their role?
10. Do other stakeholders perform their role as required? If your answer is no, what are some of the reasons which make them fail to perform their role?
11. Are you satisfied with the roles of other stakeholders in CBE? Are you satisfied with their roles? If not what other role do you think they should play?
12. How are CBE centres funded ?
13. Are there any funding challenges in CBE centres? If yes what are the challenges? How can they be resolved?
14. How is CBE implementation being monitored and supervised?
15. Who is mandated to monitor and supervise CBE?

16. Are there any challenges in supervision and monitoring of CBE?
17. What are the benefits of CBE?
18. What resources are used in CBE? Who provides resources for CBE? Are they sufficient? What other resources do you think should have been provided for smooth implementation of CBE.
19. How is learner attendance to CBE classes? How is the attendance of girls and teen mothers? How is the attendance of young children? How is attendance of older children? Which group is registering low attendance and why?
20. Are there any children who have dropped out? Which group of children has registered high dropout rate and why?
21. What are the benefits of CBE?
22. What is your general perception of CBE programme? How do other stakeholders perceive CBE?
23. What is the attitude of others towards the implementation of CBE? Explain.
24. What are your concerns on the implementation of CBE? What are other peoples` concerns? How can they be addressed?
25. What are other peoples` concerns in the implementation of CBE? How can they be addressed?
26. What kind of collaboration is there among stakeholders in the implementation of CBE?
27. What should be done to improve the implementation of CBE?

END OF INTERVIEW

THANK YOU FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION