The Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MoBSE)

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 1: Demographic, Social and Macroeconomic Contexts

1.1 Social and Demographic Indicators

The country remains one of the poorest countries with more than 48 percent of the population living on less than $1.90 a day with large inequality among population groups. The percentage of population living on less than $1.90 a day (PPP/day) declined from 70.5 percent in 1998 to 45.3 percent in 2003 which slightly lower than SSA (55.6 percent in 2002). 48.4 percent of the population live under the national poverty line with the proportion being higher in rural areas (74 percent) in 2010. The Gini index of 45.8 in 1998 and 47.3 in 2003 indicates significant inequalities among The Gambians and inequality has not improved (even worsened slightly) over the last decades.

Malnutrition remains a challenge with 1 in 4 children stunted (see Table 1). This has significant implications for cognitive development and learning outcomes. Sever wasting which is the result of acute malnutrition is higher in The Gambia compared to SSA. Malnutrition poses significant challenge in terms of educational outcomes. The three nutritional indicators for children show that the proportion of malnourished children has not improved between 2000 and 2013. Malnutrition in addition to being an indicator of children wellbeing has an impact on student learning and achievement. Pupil’s absenteeism and attention deficit in class are associated with low level of nutrition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Prevalence of Malnutrition in Children under five years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of wasting, weight for height (% of children under 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of severe wasting, weight for height (% of children)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of stunting, height for age (% of children under 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of underweight, weight for age (% of children under 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of anemia among children (% of children under 5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prevalence of undernourishment (% of population)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WDI

The Gambia has seen a steady increase in its population in the past five decades (demographic census of 1963, 1973, 1983, 1993, 2003, and 2013) The total population grew from 1.3 million to over 1.8 million equivalent to annual average growth rate of 3.16 percent between the last two censuses (2003-
Children under the age of 16 accounting to 57 percent and women representing a very slight majority in 2013. The population growth over the last three decades led to a high population density—from 66.5 people per sq. km in 1983 to 184.5 people per sq. km in 2013. Population density has a direct impact on education logistics by lowering the cost of providing education services and reducing the distance children need to travel to reach the nearest school. Higher population density allows the education system to provide infrastructure and staff at a relatively lower cost to large group of students. This also improves the quality of education as densely populated areas do not require multigrade teaching or multigrade classrooms. This population growth is also accompanied by high level of urbanization over the last decades. The proportion of population residing in urban areas increased from 31 percent in 1983 to 58.4 percent in 2013 which is higher relative to many Sub-Saharan African countries (SSA) of 36.7 percent. Urbanization eases the constraints of providing education services to large segment of school aged population and reduce the distance traveled by children to reach school. High level of urbanization also leads to an increase in demand for education (why? I do not understand why one should expect higher demand because of urbanization).

Table 2 provides the evolution of the total and school aged population for the last three census periods and projections for the years to come. The population of children in Basic Education (7-15 years) increased from 320,646 in 2003 to 411,575 in 2013 implying an annual average growth rate of 2.5 percent which is slightly lower than the growth rate from the previous decade (1993-2003) in which population of basic education school aged children grew at an annual average of 2.8 percent. This rate is also lower than the growth rate of the total population (3.16 percent), suggesting a demographic transition.

In 2013, the basic school aged population (7-5 years) accounted to 22 percent of the total population declining form 24 percent in 2003. Based on our estimation the trend will continue reducing the share of basic school aged population both in the short run (to 21 percent in 2020) and the long run (20 percent in 2030) making the demographic pressure on basic education lighter than in the past. The demographic pseudo –dependent ratio for the group of basic school aged children (7-15) year is 24 percent in 2003 declining to 22 percent in 2013; the ratio is expected to drop further 21 and 20 percent in 2020 and 2030 implying that the proportion of the population in need of education is not rising in the short run or the long run. Table 3 reflects the same pattern where the demographic pressure on the education system is stable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1993 Census</th>
<th>2003 Census</th>
<th>2013 Census</th>
<th>2020 projection</th>
<th>2030 projection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td>1038145</td>
<td>1360681</td>
<td>1857181</td>
<td>2308994</td>
<td>3151524</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-6 years</td>
<td>150862</td>
<td>178322</td>
<td>211624</td>
<td>238570</td>
<td>283124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-12 years</td>
<td>170522</td>
<td>224770</td>
<td>283290</td>
<td>333101</td>
<td>419825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-15 years</td>
<td>71632</td>
<td>95876</td>
<td>128285</td>
<td>157297</td>
<td>210481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-18 years</td>
<td>64734</td>
<td>86319</td>
<td>119319</td>
<td>149669</td>
<td>206887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>457750</td>
<td>585287</td>
<td>742518</td>
<td>878637</td>
<td>1120317</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: DWI
The adult literacy rate improved over the last decade from 36.8 percent in 2000 to 55.6 percent in 2015 (WDI) though it is lowest compared to SSA (57 percent in 2000). The overall improvement in adult literacy rate masks the gender gap in adult literacy rate. The adult female literacy rate increased from 25 percent in 2000 (47.6 for SSA) to 47.6 percent in 2015 and adult male literacy rate increased from 49 (67.2 for SSA) percent in 2000 to 63.9 percent in 2015 (Figure 1). Though the country’s literacy rate (both male and female) improved over the last decades, it is still lagging compared to SSA average. The improvement in adult literacy rate implies past achievements of the education system and an improvement in the socioeconomic environment in which children are raised today. Children of literate parents are more likely to attend schools and achieve better learning outcomes.

**Table 3: The evolution of the School aged population, by age group, 2012-2015**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School level</th>
<th>1993</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
<th>2014</th>
<th>2015</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total population</td>
<td>1038145</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1808000</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>857181</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECD (3-6 years)</td>
<td>150862</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>208029</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>211624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LBS (7-12 years)</td>
<td>170522</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>276795</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>283290</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UBS (13-15 years)</td>
<td>71632</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>124629</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>128285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic Education (7-15 years)</td>
<td>242154</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>401424</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>411575</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSS</td>
<td>64734</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>115512</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>119319</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>457750</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>724965</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>742518</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: DWI

Adult Literacy

The adult literacy rate improved over the last decade from 36.8 percent in 2000 to 55.6 percent in 2015 (WDI) though it is lowest compared to SSA (57 percent in 2000). The overall improvement in adult literacy rate masks the gender gap in adult literacy rate. The adult female literacy rate increased from 25 percent in 2000 (47.6 for SSA) to 47.6 percent in 2015 and adult male literacy rate increased from 49 (67.2 for SSA) percent in 2000 to 63.9 percent in 2015 (Figure 1). Though the country’s literacy rate (both male and female) improved over the last decades, it is still lagging compared to SSA average. The improvement in adult literacy rate implies past achievements of the education system and an improvement in the socioeconomic environment in which children are raised today. Children of literate parents are more likely to attend schools and achieve better learning outcomes.

**Figure 1: Adult literacy, The Gambia and SSA, 2014**

Source: WDI, 2014
Linguistic Context and medium of instructions

Despite being the smallest country on the African mainland, The Gambia is characterized as linguistically diverse society where 10 local languages are spoken of which five are stated as main local languages - Mandinka, Fula, Wolof, Jola and Serahulleh. (Juttermans and McGlynn, 2009). Mandinka is widely spoken as a first and second language as it is the languages of the largest ethnic group representing 35.9 percent of the total population in 2003. Fula is the language of the second largest ethnic group (21.9 percent of the population) followed by Wolof representing 14.5 percent of the population. Juttermans and McGlynn (2009) argued that Mandinka and Wolof being the two most widely spoken languages, are the lingua franca of The Gambia (Figure 2). It is observed that, The Gambians are also increasingly becoming multilingual in local languages. English is the official language and a medium of instruction at all levels of education though local languages are used in non-teaching activities. The education policy (2004/2015) stated the importance of using local languages as a medium of instruction at early grades of primary education. There is an ongoing effort to develop curriculum, prepare teaching and learning materials in local languages and training teaching staff. Mandinka and Wolof are used in adult literacy classes.

![Figure 2: Distribution of ethnic group by region](image)

**Source:** HIS 2015

Child Mortality

The Gambia recorded a marked improvement in infant and child mortality between 2005 and 2015 where under five mortality dropped from 98 to 69 and infant mortality declined from 52 to 48 (Error! Reference source not found.). Although The Gambia significantly reduced both under five and infant mortality rates over the last decades and performed better than SSA average, the country failed to reach the MDG targets of 43 and 28 by 2015.
1.2 Macroeconomic Context

Economic Growth

The Gambia, like many SSA countries, is very poor with 48 percent\(^1\) living under the national poverty line and with an estimated 2015 real GDP per capita of 395 USD (Table 4). Although the country has successfully lowered the poverty incidence from 58 percent in 2003, the country still faces important development challenges as reflected by the relatively low ranking on the Human Development Index in 2015 (175\(^{th}\) out of 188 countries) (UNDP, 2015). In addition, there are some concerns about the increasing trends in inequality between 2003 and 2010\(^2\) with the share of the richest quintile in total household consumption increasing from 38 to 46.5 percent whereas the share of the lowest quintile fell from 8.8 to 5.6 percent over the same period. The socio-economic challenges have been compounded by the severe drought in 2011 which significantly negatively affected the agricultural sector resulting in a contraction of the economy (-4 percent) followed by a slow economic recovery (Table 4).

The Gambia is currently facing a serious financial crisis. Overvaluing the Dalasi policy by pegging the exchange rate against the US$ and other currencies and Ebola crisis in neighboring countries have led to fiscal pressures. Although pegging the exchange rate against the US$ was lifted in January 2016, controlling exchange rates other currencies remain as of January 2016. The Gambian economy is largely dependent on its agricultural sector and tourism. Although

\(^{1}\) Headcount ratio, IHS 2010 (WDI)
\(^{2}\) IMF Title IV (2013)
Ebola cases were not found in The Gambia, the 2014/15 tourism is projected to experience a 60 percent reduction due to tourists avoiding the entire West Africa region. This has had a tremendous impact on the country’s GDP as services compose the largest share (65.5%) of The Gambia’s GDP followed by agriculture (22.8%) and industry (11.8%). Combined with the substantial fall in crop production due to delayed rains in 2014\(^3\), the impact of the regional Ebola outbreak is expected to lead to a contraction of the economy with real GDP growth of -0.2 percent in 2014 (Table 4).

The negative impact of Ebola shocks on The Gambia’s external and fiscal accounts is substantial. Although some of the effects of this shock were partly offset by the globally lower oil prices which had a positive impact on the BOP since oil is a major component of The Gambian import bill, the net increase in the current account deficit from the Ebola crisis is expected to reach 40 million USD over 2014 and 2015. The BOP impact of this external shock, net of the substantial decline of international oil prices, is expected to reach 3½ percent of GDP in 2015, while the fiscal impact is estimated at 1½ percent of GDP\(^4\).

The fiscal deficit expanded sharply, from 8.8 percent in 2013 to 14.0 percent of GDP in 2014, with heavy reliance on domestic borrowing which accounts for half of the public debt. Interest payments are expected to be 50 percent of 2016 revenues, up from 40 percent in 2016. Given the difficult economic context, the government has undertaken additional spending\(^5\) in order to meet its fiscal commitments. The government has committed to addressing the urgent BOP needs through significant internal reforms as well as a Rapid Credit Facility (RCF) assistance from the IMF. The fragile fiscal medium and long term outlook, highlights the public spending limitations facing all sectors of the economy, including education, and emphasizes the need to better understand the efficiency of public spending and the potential efficiency gains which could help achieve the sector goals without adding to the fiscal burden.

Table 4: Key macroeconomic indicators

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\(^3\) Source: IMF Country Report No. 15/104

\(^4\) Ibid

\(^5\) Emergency spending 5.25% of GDP and other unbudgeted spending of 1.75% of GDP (IMF country note 15/104)
Until 2007, management of the public education system at the central level fell under one ministry of education - the Department of State for Education (DOSE), responsible for both basic education as well as higher and tertiary education. Following the expansion of responsibilities of DOSE and driven by the need to devote adequate resources to each level of education, the central ministry split into two separate entities in 2007, namely the Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education (MoBSE) and Ministry of Higher Education, Research, Science and Technology (MoHERST). MoBSE operations are partially decentralized with its 6 Regional Educational Directorates (RED) which facilitate region-level operational and management issues although the sector remains highly centralized with respect to financial dealings. MoHERST, on the other hand, is highly centralized at all levels of operation. Overall, there are about 1,116 registered basic and secondary education schools (55.5% public, 27.1% Madrassa and 17.4% other private schools) that are managed or guided by MoBSE. Similarly, there are about 97 registered higher education institutions including 14 public higher education institutions. The MoBSE serves about 411,433 (about 73.4% in public school 16.3 percent in private Madrassa, and 10.3 percent in other private schools) children where enrollment in higher education is estimated to be close to 46,000 of which about 28,000 enrolled in public schools (61%) in 2014.6

6 Data source for basic and secondary schools info is EMIS and MoHERST for post-secondary info
The two Ministries developed a joint Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP 2014-2022) which outlines the sectors’ strategies, targets and priority areas to ensure coherence across all levels of education. The ESSP articulates the implementation policy priorities for MoBSE and MoHERST, discusses sector-wide issues on education and training, and the linkage of two Ministries on cross cutting activities such as teacher training, and post-basic technical vocational education and training. The main policy focus areas are (i) access and equity, (ii) quality and relevance, (iii) research and development, (iv) science, technology and innovation, and (v) sector management.

The Gambia’s current formal education system follows a 6-3-3-4 structure with six years of Lower Basic (LBE) which officially begins at age 7, followed by three years of Upper Basic education (UBE). Together, LBE and UBE cover grades 1-9 and constitute the basic education level. This is followed by three years of senior secondary education and four years of tertiary or higher\textsuperscript{7} education (Figure 4). The government encourages participation in the ECD level and has been proactive in expanding access as highlighted in its sector strategy 2004-2015, reiterated in joint Education Sector Strategic Plan (ESSP 2014-2022, although this level of education remains facultative. The government strongly supports at least three years of ECD/preschool before starting LBE.

\textsuperscript{7} Higher education refers to degree awarding institutions whereas tertiary tends to refer to non-degree or diploma awarding institutions.
*Grant-aided schools are managed by school boards and the government provides the teachers’ salaries.

**Madrassa schools cover the same curriculum as government schools plus religious classes.
The current basic education structure was introduced in 2002, replacing the previous primary-junior secondary-senior secondary system, and effectively phasing out the primary cycle examination as well as the Primary School Leaving Certificate. Instead, the new structure promotes a unified basic education level with automatic promotion for grades 1-9 with continuous assessment at the school level. In order to provide periodical assessment of performance through the basic education cycle, mandatory exams for grades 3, 5 and 8 (National Assessment Test or NAT) have been instituted in all schools. These exam results serve largely as indicators of performance and are intended to assess and highlight any existing issues to service providers. The end of the basic education cycle is marked by an examination (The Gambia Basic Education Certificate Examination- GABECE) in up to 10 subjects compulsory for all students in grade 9. The results from GABECE is used to determine entrance into senior secondary schools and is therefore considered a competitive exam.

All government and grant-aided institutions under basic or secondary education are principally financed by Government and are therefore considered public schools whereas the private schools are privately funded. Grant aided schools are managed by School Boards, and Government funds the teachers’ salaries who are paid at the same level as in conventional Government schools. 60 percent of Madrassa schools are recognized and are mostly present at the basic education level. Although Madrassa schools are officially recognized as private schools, about 70 percent of the Madrassa expenditures are coming from government subventions. This is done with the intention of facilitating the integration of such schools to make the system through an integrated learning curriculum. The University of The Gambia (UTG) and other public higher education institutions are mainly funded from public resources but are managed by parliamentary appointed bodies.

At the end of the senior secondary cycle, students sit for the West African Secondary School Certificate Examinations (WASSCE) (or The International General Certificate of Secondary Education (IGCSE) in private schools) and results are used for the selection of students into higher and tertiary education. The public sector is an important service provider of higher and tertiary education in The Gambia, with the University of The Gambia (UTG), The Gambia College and The Gambia Technical Training Institute (GTTI) being the three leading institutions. The University of The Gambia, created in 1999, offers programs which lead to a Bachelor's Degree after four years of study in Humanities and Social Studies, Economics and Management Science, and Nursing and Public Health; and six years in Medicine and Surgery. The Gambia College, offers non-degree certificates and diplomas in Agriculture, Science, Education, Nursing and Midwifery and Public Health, Catering, Management Development and vocational training. Higher technical and vocational education is offered at The Gambia.

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8 of which are compulsory for all candidates- English Language, Mathematics, Science and Social and Environmental Studies. In addition, candidates opt for one, two or three General Subjects out of seven and one, two or three Pre-Vocational Skills subject out of five Pre-Vocational subjects (WAEC)  
9 The recognized Madrassa have met the standards established by MoBSE and are officially registered. Unrecognized Madrassa, are not however considered to be a significant issue.  
10 Mission finding from head of Madrassa school management interview
Technical Training Institute which offers courses leading to the examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute and the Royal Society of Arts.

2.1. Evolution of enrollment number

ECD

The Early Childhood Development education is a formal school system for children aged 3 to 6 years, and last for two years with no examination for the purpose of promotion. Until 1995, the number of pre-school centres registered was 125, found mainly in the Capital City, Banjul and the immediate surroundings. In recent years ECD centres expanded and by 2014 there were 1014 centres located in all regions of the country. Region 1 and 2 account for 54 percent of the ECD centres with region 4 having the lowest number of ECD centre. With the expansion of ECD centres, the number of children enrolled increased from about 43 thousand in 2008 to 76 thousand in 2013 and by 2016, 100 thousand children in The Gambia are enrolled in pre-primary schools.

The Gambia Education policy 2004/2015, with an agenda to ensure equitable access to quality Education at all levels of education, set the target to increase ECD gross enrolment rate from 36.4 percent to 50 percent (Figure 6). Through the policy of attaching ECD centres to existing Lower Basic Schools in deprived communities, an unprecedented growth in ECD enrolment is observed - 26 percent in 2006, 36 percent in 2009 and 46 percent in 2016. The average annual growth rate of ECD enrollment between 2013 and 2016 was 9.7 percent and despite continued consolidation of the gains made by government, the GER for ECD currently stands at about 46 percent, still falling short of the policy target by 4 percentage points.

It is important that a special study of the mapping of ECD centres across the country is undertaken with a view to determining the impacts of this system or level of education on access and quality at primary level. It must be said that even though ECD is not part of the public education system cycle, it has grown significantly and a lot of resources are being spent on it by parents (Figure 7). This is therefore indicative of some important educational and/or social benefit which needs to be studied more significantly to determine how it impacts on access to quality education and child retention.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Total ECD centers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>37,004</td>
<td>38,845</td>
<td>75,849</td>
<td>35.40%</td>
<td>37.50%</td>
<td>36.50%</td>
<td>892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>42,625</td>
<td>44,396</td>
<td>87,021</td>
<td>40.10%</td>
<td>42.10%</td>
<td>41.10%</td>
<td>1014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>48,118</td>
<td>49,436</td>
<td>97,554</td>
<td>44.50%</td>
<td>46.10%</td>
<td>45.30%</td>
<td>1115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>49,255</td>
<td>51,094</td>
<td>100,349</td>
<td>44.80%</td>
<td>46.80%</td>
<td>45.80%</td>
<td>1141</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: DWI

Table 6: Number of ECD centers by region
Basic education

Lower basic enrolment has progressively increased from 228,105 tin 2010 to 308,729 in 2016 at an average annual growth rate of 5.9 percent. The average annual growth rate varies across school type, the highest being for private institutions (14.4 %) followed by Madrasas (5.6 percent) and government (5.3 percent). Though average annual growth rate is higher for private institutions, 65 percent of students in 2016 are enrolled in government schools (Table 7).

Upper Basic enrollment grew steadily from 75,635 in 2010 to 90,838 in 2016 at an average annual growth rate of 3.4 percent. Madrasa upper basic schools grew at an average annual growth rate of 8.5 percent followed by grant-aided upper basic schools with an average annual growth rate of 6 percent. Although average annual growth rate is higher for madrasa schools, 63 percent of students in 2016 are enrolled in government schools. The period under review witnessed the creation of many Upper Basic Education places in all regions in the country to allow room for entry into UBE level. The policy allowed many Lower Basic Schools to be upgraded into Basic Cycle Schools for the purpose of access.

Senior Secondary

Senior Secondary enrollment grow considerably from 35,532 to 56,001 in 2016 at an annual average growth rate of 9.6 percent, 72 percent of students being enrolled in government and grant-aided senior secondary schools.
2.2. Gross enrollment ratios

The Gross Enrollment rate is an indicator of the education system’s physical capacity. It highlights the education demand faced by the sector.

Figure 5 presents GER for all school levels for which school aged population are well-defined. The evolution of gross enrollment ratio between 2010 and 2016 indicate that GER increased considerably at all school levels with the exception of upper basic schools. UBE enrollment increased in 2013, but returned to its previous level in 2016. Gender parity in GER is achieved at all levels of education. The Gambia is lagging behind SSA average GER in UBE and SSE.

Table 7: Enrolment Trends, by Education Level and Type of Provider of The Gambia, 2010-2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Enrollment</th>
<th>Avg. Annual Growth rate 2010-2016</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ECD(Including Private)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>228,105</td>
<td>228,495</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grant-Aided</td>
<td>151,217</td>
<td>149,436</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>17,419</td>
<td>17,379</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madrasas</td>
<td>44,225</td>
<td>44,277</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upper Basic</td>
<td>75,635</td>
<td>77,408</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>51,377</td>
<td>53,058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grant-Aided</td>
<td>10,749</td>
<td>12,015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>6,396</td>
<td>5,309</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madrasas</td>
<td>7,113</td>
<td>6,576</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subtotal</td>
<td>303,740</td>
<td>305,903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Secondary</td>
<td>35,532</td>
<td>37,790</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>3,208</td>
<td>3,861</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grant-Aided</td>
<td>18,359</td>
<td>20,570</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>11,275</td>
<td>10,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Madrasas</td>
<td>2,690</td>
<td>2,659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade total</td>
<td>339,272</td>
<td>343,693</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: EMIS
The Gambia Education policy 2004/2015 target of increasing LBE gross enrolment rate from 88.2% to 100% has been achieved and The Gambia surpassed SSA average in primary education. The education sector has made tremendous gains in the enrolment of children into a formal education system. With continued enrolment campaign in affected regions and measures taken against children dropping out of school, gains on the GER will continue to be registered especially in the wave of the school improvement grants.

The Gambia Education policy 2004/2015 target of increasing UBE gross enrolment rate from 66.2% to 75% has not been achieved but GER in UBE stagnated over the years. The period under review witnessed the creation of many Upper Basic Education places in all regions in the country to allow room for entry into UBE level. The policy allowed many Lower Basic Schools to be upgraded into Basic Cycle Schools for the purpose of access. The growth in UBS from 99 in 2010 to 160 in 2016 is not matched with growth in enrolment. The Education policy target of Increasing SSE Gross Enrolment Rate from 34.5% to 35% has been met, GER in SSE increased from 40 percent in 2010 to 44 percent in 2016.

In 2016, grade 1 gross intake rate is 121.6 percent indicating The Gambia achieving the target of universal primary education access as stated in The Gambia Education policy 2004/2015 (Increase LBE gross intake rate from 93.8% to 122%). The Gross Intake Rate for the Lower Basic Education has shown an impressive increase during the period under review. As a common indicator used to measure the rate of intake in grade one regardless of age, the GIR steadily grew from 94 percent in 2006 to 101% in 2010 with a slight drop to 99.6 in 2011. The GIR continue to increase reaching a peak of 124.6 in 2015 and levelling off to 122 in 2016 (Figure 6).
Cross country Comparisons

Figure 7 and Figure 8 present cross country comparison in primary and lower secondary gross enrollment rate and completion rate. Though cross country comparison provide an overall picture of enrollment and completion rate, care must be exercised in interpretation as duration of primary and secondary schooling differ across countries. The Gambia’s performance in primary gross enrollment and completion rate is below SSA but the country surpassed SSA average in lower secondary gross enrollment and completion rate.
Figure 7: Primary gross enrollment and completion rate, cross country comparison, 2014

Source: DWI

Figure 8: Lower secondary GER and completion rate, Cross country comparison, 2014

Source: DWI
2.3. Internal efficiency

Repetition and dropout

The internal efficiency rate is useful for evaluating the education system in terms of student flows. The overall repetition rate is lower in The Gambia 5.2 in LBS, 3.07 in UBS and 4.43 in SSS. The Gambia’s repetition rate is lower than SSA average at LBS and UBS level. Repetition varies by level and grade level. The above average repetition is observed in the first two grades of lower basic school, 7.8 in first grade and 6.6 in second grade with repetition declining with successive grade levels reaching the lowest percentage of 2.4 percent in grade 6. Repetition at a lower level (grade 1 and Grade2) might be of concern to policy makers to provide remedial support to ensure repeaters’ mastery of foundational skills especially numeracy and literally skills that are necessary for success in higher grades. Similarly, there is significant regional variation in repetition rate, though it has declined in the past six years. Region one has the lowest repetition rate at all levels and region 4 has the highest repetition rate in LBS. Repetition rate varies across management type of the school system. Figure 9 shows the percentage of repeaters by management type and grade level. Madrassa schools have a higher repetition rate at LBS, followed by government schools, with conventional private schools having the lowest repetition rate. Further improvement in lowering repetition rate at LBS requires policy makers to look into both regional variation (region 4 having the highest repetition rate) and across school management types (with Madrassa schools having the highest repetition rate). There is no significant variation across male and female students at all levels: female students having similar repetition rate to that of male students especially at LBS and UBs levels. Girl’s repetition rate is slightly above boy’s repetition rate at SSS in 2010 and 2016, with the highest rate being at grade 10 level.

The Gambia has achieved success in lowering the dropout rate significantly over the last decades. The average dropout rate (grade 1-5) in LBS declined from 8.5 in 2010 to 4.8 in 2013 (Figure 10). Figure 9 also shows the relative performance of The Gambia in dropout rate for grade 1 of primary education. In 2012, 8.3 percent of children enrolled in 1st grade of primary education drop out of school which places The Gambia in the middle section across SSA countries.
Figure 9: percentage of repeaters by management type and grade level, 2016

Source: EMIS

Figure 10: Dropout rate at LBS by level, 2010 and 2013

Source: EMIS
2.4. Out-of-school

About a third of primary and lower secondary school age children were out-of-school in 2015. The vast majority of the out-of-school category in all levels of education are those who never been in school. For example, for LBS school age (age 7-12), never attended category accounts for 28.8% and dropout for 1.5%. The dropout category increases with the level of education reaching 16.2% at the SSS (Figure 11). This clearly implies that without addressing the out-of-school issues achievement of key MDG and SDG indicators is unlikely. The detailed analysis of out-of-school including characteristics, determines and costs associated with on boarding them will be presented in the latter section.

![Figure 11: Out-of-school rate for LBS, UBS and SSS age cohort children (%)](source: IHS 2015)

From estimated 330,749 LBS school age children in 2015, about 100,000, children were out-of-school with the highest out of school district located in region 2. In some districts, out-of-school number are small mostly driven by population distribution whole also some of the districts have lower out-of-school rate. For example, population of school age children in region is 39% of the total school age children in the country and it also hosts 27% of out-of-school primary school age children which is the highest (Figure 12 and Figure 13). However, the share of out-of-school distribution in region 1 to region 3 are less than their school age population share while in region 4- region 6 the former is higher indicates the high severity of out-of-school incident in these areas.
Figure 12: Total number of out-of-school children of primary school age by district

Source: DWI

Figure 13: Out-of-school rate for LBS, UBS and SSS age cohort children (%)

Source: DWI
Chapter 3: Quality, System Capacity and Management

3.1. Quality and Learning outcomes

The quality of education system can be assessed by learning outcomes in addition to education inputs. Overall four types learning assessments can be identified: assessment of literacy levels, National assessments, and national examination and admission tests and standardized international assessments. At each school level a combination of formal examinations, ad hoc diagnostic tests, continuous assessment at each grade level and curriculum based assessments are used to assess student learning. In The Gambia, learning outcome assessments include two primary level assessments and two post primary level national examinations.

Adult literacy learning outcomes

Adult literacy rate is lower in The Gambia compared to SSA, but youth literacy rate is similar to SSA average and female youth literacy rate is higher than SSA.

The adult literacy rate and youth literacy rate can be used as a first assessment of learning outcomes. In 2014, 54 percent of adult The Gambians are literate compared to 61 percent in SSA. While the adult literacy rate of men in The Gambia (63 percent) is at par with SSA (64 percent), the female adult literacy rate is lower 46 percent compared to SSA average of 53 percent (Figure 14). However, the expansion of the education service in The Gambia, improved the youth literacy rate closing the gender gap and achieving the youth literacy rate similar to SSA average. The Gambia lagged behind SSA in terms of male youth literacy rate (75 percent) compared to SSA average (77 percent) (Figure 15).

Figure 14: Adult and Youth literacy learning outcomes

Source: DWI
Basic Education learning outcomes

Two assessments are used to measure learning achievements at the primary level: Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) and National Assessment Test (NAT).

EGRA: Early Grade Reading Assessment (grade 1, 2 and 3): EGRA is introduced in 2007 to assess the most basic foundational skills of literacy acquisition in Grade 1, 2, and 3. It is administered on the basis of a representative sample of students every two years and is designed to assess students’ specific knowledge or skill, thus is criterion-referenced test. EGRA is aimed to evaluate the literacy skill acquired by students and shed light on student’s mastery of curricula. The assessment inform policy makers the quality of instruction and helps to identify a need for corrective measures early in the educational cycle. EGRA is individually administered test and covers letter recognition, word reading, oral reading fluency and reading comprehension.

While overall EGRA results show improvement over time, reading comprehension score remains poor and not improving over time. Table 8 show improvements in EGRA score at all three levels in the first three components of the test. In 2007 1st grade students on average are able to correctly read 13 letters per minute and read less than a word per minute but by 2016 they were able to read 33 letters and 5 words per minute. Improvements in oral reading fluency is observed at all three levels,
1.35 to 5.1 in 1st grade, 5 to 11 in 2nd grade and 13 to 17 in 3rd grade. The reading comprehension component of the test has not improved in grade 1 and worsened in grade 2 and 3 between 2007 and 2016. Out of 5 question total, 1st grade and 2nd grade students on average get less than one correct answer while 3rd grade students answered 1.4 question correctly out of five. The last two assessments show an overall decline for grade 2 and 3 students in all four components of EGRA test while grade 1 students show improvement in 2016 relative to 2013 assessment result. The EGRA test results as a measure of learning outcome overtime has to be interpreted with caution especially when enrolment expanded over time as the case in The Gambia. During 2013-2016, enrollment have increased by 17, 25 and 28 percent in grade 1, 2 and 3 respectively. With increase in access and wider coverage of the education system, more and more vulnerable children with less favorable socio economic and family backgrounds become part of the school system and thus included in EGRA test. The latest ERGA result of 2016 shows improvement in grade 1 unlike grade 2 and grade 3 where EGRA scores declined, grade 3 scores being the lowest from scores of previous assessment.

| Table 8: Mean EGRA Scores, Grade 1 students in all schools, 2007-2016 |
|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
|                | 2007 | 2009 | 2011 | 2013 | 2016 | % change 07-16 | % change 13-16 |
| Grade 1        |
| Correct letter read per minute | 13.1 | 26.1 | 25.7 | 28.8 | 33.2 | 153.4 | 15.3 |
| Correct words read per minute  | 0.86 | 2.5  | 2.3  | 4.4  | 5.3  | 516.3 | 20.5 |
| Oral reading fluency           | 1.35 | 4.7  | 2.8  | 3.6  | 5.1  | 277.8 | 41.7 |
| Reading comprehension (number correct, 5 question in total) | 0.5  | 1.3  | 0.1  | 0.3  | 0.5  | 0     | 66.7 |
| Grade 2        |
| Correct letter read per minute | 26.7 | 37.4 | 42.1 | 45.1 | 45.1 | 68.9  | 0    |
| Correct words read per minute  | 2.95 | 5.6  | 8.7  | 12.4 | 9.5  | 222   | -23.4 |
| Oral reading fluency           | 4.95 | 10.5 | 10.9 | 15.1 | 10.8 | 118.2 | -28.5 |
| Reading comprehension (number correct, 5 question in total) | 1.1  | 2.1  | 0.8  | 1    | 0.9  | -18.2 | -10  |
| Grade 3        |
| Correct letter read per minute | 40.5 | 49.4 | 54   | 62.6 | 58   | 43.2  | -7.4 |
| Correct words read per minute  | 6.29 | 12.8 | 15.6 | 21.4 | 15   | 138.5 | -29.9 |
| Oral reading fluency           | 13.37| 24.9 | 22.9 | 26.6 | 17.3 | 29.4  | -34.9 |
| Reading comprehension (number correct, 5 question in total) | 2    | 3.1  | 1.6  | 1.7  | 1.4  | -30   | -17.7 |

Source: DWI

There are large disparities in EGRA results across management type and region. The annex tables summarize EGRA scores disaggregated by management type and region. In 2016, the number of correct letter read by grade 1, 2, and 3 public students is 31, 42 and 56 while private school students in grade 1, 2 and 3 students are able to read 51, 66 and 75 letters per minute respectively. Similarly
public school grade 1, 2 and 3 students read 5, 8 and 14 words per minute while private school grade 1, 2, and 3, are able to read 9, 19 and 26 words per minute. The oral reading frequency and reading comprehension follows similar pattern, though the level of reading comprehension for both private and public schools are low overall.

The gap across regions continue to narrow over time. Grade 1 student in public and grant aided schools reading of correct letters per minute varies from 21 in region 5 to 40 in region 1; by grade 3 students in region 1 are able to read 67 letters per minute while students in region 4 are able to read 47 letters per minute. The reading of correct word per minute by grade 1 students vary from 7 in region 1 to 3 in region 3 and 3 grade students ability to read correct words per minute varies from 18 in region 1 to 9 in region 3 (Table 9). A further analysis of the cumulative distribution of EGRA test scores is necessary to identify the frequency and distribution of low performing students across schools and regions to design appropriate policy measures to improve overall performance as well as close disparities across and within regions. Previous assessment (CSR 2010) found that attending preschool, double shifting, improved teaching practice and better student-teacher interaction have contributed to better EGRA scores. Repetition, absenteeism, large class size (>40/teacher) and being female are found to be associated with poor EGRA scores. (Data on EGRA score at School level, is required for this regression analysis)

National Assessment Test (NAT)

The NAT, is a comprehensive test covering all students in Grade 3, 5 and 8 in all schools (private, Government and grant aided schools) and is introduced in 2008 for Grade 3 and 5 and in 2012 in grade 8. The NAT is used to evaluate the knowledge and skills acquired by students in light of curriculum content and thus monitor learning achievement at grade 3, 5 and 8 level. NAT for grade 3 and 5 reflects how children perform in Lower basic school and while NAT for grade 8 measure learning achievement at upper basic schools.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>year</th>
<th>% achieving mastery</th>
<th>% achieving minimum requirement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Maths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>19.75</td>
<td>10.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>14.45</td>
<td>17.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>14.98</td>
<td>13.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>27.69</td>
<td>15.29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WAEC

Performance is improving over time in all three subject both in mastery of the materials taught as well as reaching the NAT minimum requirement. The percentage of students achieving mastery as well as meeting the minimum requirement improved over time. In all the three subjects that students are tested, over half of grade 3 students scored above the minimum requirement in 2016 compared to about 24 percent in 2010 (Table 10). Progress in improvement is not even across subjects, the percentage of student achieving mastery or minimum requirement in mathematics being the lowest.
The Gambia achieved gender parity in grade 3 NAT scores both at mastery and minimum requirement level consistently over time. The grade 3 NAT test scores at both mastery and minimum requirement achievement level is similar to the percentage of female students taking the test (52 percent) (Table 11).

Table 10: Share of grade 3 students achieving the mastery and NAT result minimum requirement by subject, year and gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>English %</th>
<th>Maths %</th>
<th>Integrated studies %</th>
<th>English %</th>
<th>Maths %</th>
<th>Integrated studies %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>52.72%</td>
<td>52.29%</td>
<td>51.61%</td>
<td>51.30%</td>
<td>51.41%</td>
<td>51.81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>53.52%</td>
<td>51.83%</td>
<td>51.73%</td>
<td>52.38%</td>
<td>51.49%</td>
<td>52.17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>54.82%</td>
<td>52.69%</td>
<td>52.24%</td>
<td>52.99%</td>
<td>52.28%</td>
<td>53.02%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>54.65%</td>
<td>51.84%</td>
<td>51.58%</td>
<td>52.58%</td>
<td>52.60%</td>
<td>53.69%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WAEC

Table 11: Share of grade 3 students achieving NAT result minimum requirement by subject, year and region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>56</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>67</td>
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<td>55</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WAEC

Despite improvement in percentage of students achieving NAT result minimum requirement in all regions, disparities across regions in all subjects persist over time. In 2015, the percentage of students achieving minimum requirement varies from 69 percent to 47 percent, 58 to 37 percent and 57 to 39 percent in English, Mathematics and Integrated studies respectively. The percentage of students achieving NAT minimum requirement in all subject fall below the national average in region 3, 5 and 6 (Table 12).
Progress is especially slow in Grade 5 NAT requirements in Mathematics. The percentage of students meeting the minimum Grade 5 NAT requirement in Mathematics and science is less than 50 percent in 2014. NAT grade 5 test scores reveal lower performance of grade 5 students especially in mathematics and science. The percentage achieving mastery in mathematics is less than half of that of social development and the figure for science is even worse with the figure for social and environment being nine times higher than that of science.

While The Gambia’s success in gender equality is impressive, disparity across regions persist over time in all subjects. The Gambia achieved gender parity in learning achievement in Grade 5 in all subject where female students on average represent 52 percent of those that meet the minimum requirement. Table 13 shows regional disparity in achievement by subject. While 60 percent of The Gambian children in region 1 achieve the minimum requirement in English, only 39 percent of students residing in region 3 do so. While English and social and environment science achievement improved in all regions, student’s achievement in mathematics and science declined in 2014 relative to 2012.

### Table 12: Share of grade 5 students achieving mastery and NAT result minimum requirement by subject and grade

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Maths</th>
<th>Science</th>
<th>Social and Env science</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Maths</th>
<th>Science</th>
<th>Social and Env science</th>
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<td>23</td>
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<td>2013</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WAEC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<td>60</td>
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<td>38</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WAC
Since its introduction in 2012, the number of students taking the NAT increased from 23,166 to 24,385 in 2015 and the share of female students sitting for the exam remain fairly consistent over time (Figure 16).

The percentage of students achieving NAT result minimum requirement does not show any clear pattern in terms of improvement over time and across subjects with the exception of Mathematics. The share of students achieving minimum requirement in Mathematics consistently declined between 2012 (48 percent) and 2015 (32 percent). The share of students achieving NAT minimum requirement in Science declined from 56 percent in 2012 to 38 percent in 2015. The share of female students remain lower compared to the share of students taking grade 8 NAT. In grade 8, girl's performance in NAT is lower than boy's though improvement has been observed in 2015. Table 14 shows regional disparities that persist over time and across subjects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>%F</th>
<th>Mathematics</th>
<th>%F</th>
<th>Science</th>
<th>%F</th>
<th>Social and Env</th>
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<td>2012</td>
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<td>49</td>
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<tr>
<td>2014</td>
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<td>31</td>
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<td>51</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>50</td>
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</table>

Source: WAEC

The percentage of students achieving NAT result minimum requirement does not show any clear pattern in terms of improvement over time and across subjects with the exception of Mathematics. The share of students achieving minimum requirement in Mathematics consistently declined between 2012 (48 percent) and 2015 (32 percent). The share of students achieving NAT minimum requirement in Science declined from 56 percent in 2012 to 38 percent in 2015. The share of female students remain lower compared to the share of students taking grade 8 NAT. In grade 8, girl's
performance in NAT is lower than boy’s though improvement has been observed in 2015. Table 15 and Table 16 show regional disparities that persist over time and across subjects.

Table 15: Share of grade 8 students achieving NAT grade 8 results minimum requirement by region

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<td>45</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: WAEC

Figure 17: Share of grade 8 students achieving NAT result minimum requirement by subject and region, 2015

Source: WAEC

Post Primary Level Learning outcomes

Two examinations are used to assess post primary outcomes: GABECE (grade 9), national examination used as a certification of completion of basic education and entry requirement to senior
secondary, and WASSCE (Grade 12), regional examination used as a certification of completion of senior secondary and used for admission for higher education.

The Gambia Basic Education Certificate Examination (GABECE) (Grade 9)

Introduced in 2003, testing on four core subjects (Math, English, Science and social and environmental studies) and 3 to 5 optional subjects, with final grades composed of core subject grades and two best optional grades. It is used as basis for admission to senior secondary education, where a cutoff mark is established every year by MOBSE. Students who achieve the cut-off mark based on aggregate score are enrolled in grade 10 in senior secondary school. (Cut-off used for this analysis taken from CSR, 2010)

3.2. Management Issues, Administrative Issues in Basic and Secondary schools

This section reviews resources provided to schools in relation to the learning assessments presented in part 1. Two major categories of factors are identified that are believed to influence learning outcomes: contextual/non-school factors and school factors. The first sets of factors falls beyond the scope of education policy and include socio economic background of students, children’s personal characteristics and family context. The school factors on the other hand, fall within the scope of education policy including teacher’s qualification, learning materials, infrastructure, teaching practices and monitoring of teaching staff.

Consistency of teacher posting

Teachers are the most important resources required to ensure quality education and contribute to learning achievements. Furthermore, teacher’s salary constitute the largest volume in education sector budget. Estimation of potential future needs indicates that meeting education demand requires the number of teachers to increase by 13 percent in lower basic schools and about 10 percent in upper basic schools by year 2020 (Figure 18).

Figure 18: Comparison of past and future required growth in teacher numbers, (2010-2016)
The number of teachers and qualified teachers shows a steady growth over time. Total number of teachers in all schools increased from 7971 in 2010 to 14,943 by 2016 with 70 percent working in government and grant aided schools. The percentage of qualified teachers working in government and grant aided schools shows significant improvement from 85 percent in 2010 to 96 percent in 2016. In 2016, the share of teachers holding qualification in lower basic school, upper basic school, basic cycle school and senior secondary school is 72.45, 80.15, 48.89 and 59.73 respectively. The share of qualified teachers is above average for both lower and upper basic schools, with more qualified teachers in UBS. The share of qualified teachers in SSS is lower than average and the BSC have the lowest percentage of qualified teachers (Figure 19, Figure 20 and Figure 21).

Source: EMIS

Note:* 2010-2016, PTR, 2016

**Figure 19: Number of teachers by level, 2010-2016**

Source: DWI

**Figure 20: Percentage of qualified teachers by level, 2010-2016**
The percentage of qualified teachers vary by school type, Madrassa having a lower percentage of qualified teachers at all levels pulling the national average down. However, the improvements seen in public schools have been observed in Madrassa schools where the percentage of qualified teachers increased from 29.8, 36.5 and 78.8 in 2010 to 54, 63.6 and 91.5 in 2016 in LBS, BCS and SSS respectively. The percentage of qualified teachers in Madrassa LBS (54) is below the national average (89) (Figure 22).
Figure 22: Percentage of qualified teachers by level, 2010-2016
Female teachers represent 37.5, 23.7 and 11.3 percent of LBS, UBS and SSS public schools teaching staff (government and Grant-aided), their representation in private schools (conventional and Madrassa) is lower at 25, 11 and 9.1 percent respectively in LBS, UBS and SSS. The percentage of female qualified teachers follow the general pattern, female qualified teachers in public schools constitute 37.3, 23.8 and 11.1 percent of all qualified teachers in LBS, UBS and SSS. The percentage of female teachers in total and the share of female qualified teachers varies across regions, region 3, 4, 5 and 6 have female teacher’s representation below the national average in both LBS and UBS and Region 6 having the lowest percentage of female teachers both in total and qualified teachers (Figure 23).

Figure 23: Percentage of female teachers by level, qualification and region, 2016
Regional disparities in the percentage of qualified teachers decline between 2010 and 2016 with region 6 having lowest percentage of qualified teachers (Figure 24)

Figure 24: Percentage of qualified teachers by level, 2010-2016

Source: WAEC

3.3. Provision of adequate school input ()
The provision of adequate school input has an impact on the quality of education and achievement of learning outcomes. These include the quality of the teaching workforce, the availability of adequate educational resources, a supportive learning environment, and suitable access to basic services in instructional settings (e.g. sanitation, clean water and electricity) and distance travel to schools among other things. The Ministry of Basic and Secondary Education has continued to pursue programs that ensure the availability of physical facilities and basic services among other things, to promote access to quality education. This section presents pupil teacher ratio, consistency in the deployment of teachers, text book distribution and provision of basic amenities (Table 16, Figure 25 and Figure 26).

Pupil teacher ratio improved at all levels between 2010 and 2016 and the same pattern is observed for pupil to qualified teacher ratio. The UBS have a lower PTR and PQTR followed by SSE and the highest ratio LBS.

![Figure 25: Pupil to Teacher ratio by level, 2020-2016](image_url)

Source: WAEC

![Figure 26: Pupil to Teacher ratio by region, 2020-2016](image_url)
Source: WAEC
Consistency in teacher deployment at the school level

The allocation of teachers to schools is relevant for both efficiency and equity reasons. Teachers posting at school level reveals policy coherence based on the principle that the number of teachers in schools be proportional to the number of students. The following figure shows the relationship between the number of students enrolled and the number of teachers at school level for LBE in 2016. The R2 value of 0.869 reveals the consistency of teachers deployment in The Gambia which is similar to previous estimate (R2=0.869, CSR, 2010 for government funded schools). 87 percent of teacher postings in LBE in The Gambia is based on student enrollment (Figure 27).

### Table 16: Pupil teacher Ratio, public schools by level, 2010-2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>LBS</th>
<th>LBS</th>
<th>UBS</th>
<th>UBS</th>
<th>SSE</th>
<th>SSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>PQTR</td>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>PQTR</td>
<td>PTR</td>
<td>PQTR</td>
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<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>63</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
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<td>62</td>
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<td>59</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>43</td>
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<td>36</td>
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<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>38</td>
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<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>27</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>29</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: EMIS
Textbook management

Figure 28 presents English and Math textbook distribution in lower basic government schools by grade level. Compared to 2010 where there is a book for every 1.7 students, few students have access to text books in 2016. In 2016, there is an English text book for every 3.6 students and a mathematics textbook for every 2.48 students. There is significant variation in pupil to text book ration across grade levels, higher grades having better consistency in the allocation of text books than lower levels.

Basic Amenities: electricity, water points and separate toilets

The Gambia education policy, as part of the program to improve access, improved the number of schools with gender sensitive toilets with separate facilities for boys and girls, water points within the school or close to the school, electricity among other physical facilities. Figure 29 presents the proportion of school with basic amenities between 2010 and 2015.
Figure 29: Number of schools with basic amenities, 2020 and 2015

Source: DWI
Chapter 4: Costs and Financings

4.1. Sources and trends of public spending on education

➢ In 2015, the government funded 32% of total education spending (US$29.3 million). 59% of total education spending (US$53.4 million) are provided by households and the remaining 9% (US$7.8 million) by donors.
➢ Share of public contribution decreases with the level of education while share of donors diminishes.
➢ HH contribution is higher in all levels of education.

Figure 30: Sources of education sector finance and the breakdown by level of education, 2015

Distribution of public budget by level of education is in line with GPE recommendation—75% to basic (enrolled 86%), 13% to SSS (enrolled 10%) and 12% to post-secondary (5% enrolled).
➢ Share of private enrollment is slightly higher at the lower level of education, 36%, 32% and 25% in basic, SSS and post-secondary education, respectively. Share of HH payment in private schools also follows the same pattern—51% in basic, 42% in SSS and 7% in post-secondary.
➢ HH pays a higher share at SSS level as primary is heavily subsidized by the government.
➢ Overall, 45% of HH spending goes to SSS followed by 41% in Basic and 14% in post-secondary.

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015 and MoF Budget Data.
Nominal budget allocation to the education sector has been increasing mostly driven by the spending at the MOBSE.

Rate of increase is high and step after 2012.
➢ Spending on education as share of GDP is low with slight increase over time
➢ The Gambia allocation is lower than the recommend level of 4-6% GDP depending on country situations
➢ Higher education spending relatively increased in 2014 then stabilized at 0.3% of GDP

Figure 33: Education spending as share of GDP by ministry and total (%)

Source: MoF Budget Data

➢ Spending on education as share of public spending is on a decreasing trend between 2011 and 2013 and then it has been increasing thereafter.
➢ Decrease in 2013 could be associated with the negative effect of Ebola outbreak
➢ Share of education budget in both ministries were decreased in 2013 albite the normal budget allocations were increasing
➢ Education spending as share of public spending is at the recommended range of 17-25%
International comparison reveals that The Gambia’s spending as share of GDP is at the lower edge (lower than SSA average by 1.4 percentage points) while as share of public spending it is slightly above the SSA average of 17%.

Figure 35: International comparison so education spending as share of GDP and total public spending (%)
More than 75% of education spending is allocated at basic education and the remaining portion almost equally split between senior secondary and post-secondary education with some fluctuation overtime.

Although basic education (primary and lower secondary) budget management is combined, estimate based on enrollment reveals that share of primary is higher than 50%, which is in line with the GPE recommendation.

Figure 36: Budget allocation by level of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Basic</th>
<th>Secondary</th>
<th>Post secondary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>78.0%</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>12.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>79.9%</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>78.2%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>79.7%</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
<td>10.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>73.0%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>16.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>74.7%</td>
<td>12.8%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MoF Budget Data

Economic classification of budget reveals that share of personnel spending is in line with the recommendation of 80% to leave enough room for quality related spending.

However since non-salary budget is managed at central level and a significant share of non-salary spending executed at central level including local and international travels, some allowances and scholarship abroad, it is not possible to estimate how much of the non-salary spending is allocated to schools.
Breakdown of economic allocation at basic and senior secondary levels reveals a similar pattern with sharp drop in the share of personnel spending between 2014 and 2015.

Budget execution rate for both ministries reveals that the ministries have high capacity.
Execution rate for higher education slightly decreasing overtime mainly due to capital spending

Figure 39: Budget execution

Although the difference is not large, despite most of the senior secondary personnel budget allocated directly to school through school management board, the execution level is slightly lower than the basic education level.
Subvention to grant-aided senior secondary schools are on decreasing trend and reached 53% in 2015 albeit still more than 75% of public senior secondary enrollment is in grant-aided schools.

Source: MoF Budget Data

Figure 41: Share of subvention in personnel cost by level of education

Source: MoF Budget Data
4.3. Unit cost analysis

- Unit cost in all levels of education has been increasing since 2011
- Unit cost in basic education and senior secondary school are very close except in 2015 where the cost difference increased by more than 3 folds (from 449 to 1313 dalasi)

**Figure 42: Trends of public unit cost by level of education**

As shown in budget distribution above (high share of allocation in basic education), public unit cost in basic education is higher than HH unit cost in public schools but public unit cost is less than HH unit cost in post basic level

- Due to high subside to public schools in MOBSE, HH unit cost in private school are high both in basic and senior secondary levels but post-secondary unit cost of HH both in public and private schools are the same.

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015 and MoF Budget Data
In all levels of education resources available per child is low for children from the poorer households, which implies, children from the same area, seating in the same classroom would have different resources available to them.

**Figure 43: Unit cost comparison**

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015 and MoF Budget Data

**Figure 44: Recourses available for children by household wealth quintile and level of education**

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
4.4. Public-private partnership and role of households

➢ Overall, 48% of the household unit cost is allocated to private schools while only 35% of students are enrolled in private schools.
➢ 65% of the students are enrolled in public schools while 52% of household unit cost is allocated to public schools.
➢ Households spend less per student in public school compared to private schools and this reflects the fact that public schools are more affordable than private schools.

Figure 45: Share of HH spending and enrollment in private schools

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015

➢ At pre-primary level, HH total spending is nearly 6 times higher in private schools than in public schools. In contrast, in tertiary education, HH total spending is more than 3 times higher in public schools compared to private schools. This is a reflection of where most children enrolled as shown above.
➢ Overall household spending is high at the primary level similar to the public because the level of education is more accessible to all.
Figure 46: Distribution of HH spending by level of education and school type (Check currency)

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
Chapter 5. Equity

5.1. Enrollment inequalities (all levels of education)

- There exists gender disparities in GER, NER and completion rates at all levels of education.
- At LB and SS levels, females register higher GER and NER but completion rates are higher for males. In other words, although females are advantaged in terms of enrollment in LBS and SSS levels, males are more likely to complete their studies compared to females.

Figure 47: Gender equity in GER, NER and completion rates, 2015

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015

- Rural population are disadvantaged in terms of access to education and completion of education cycles at all levels of education. GER, NER and completion rates are lower in rural area compared to urban area, at all levels of education.
Access to education services is overall pro-rich in The Gambia and poor households are disadvantaged at all levels of education.

Overall, GER, NER and completion rates are lower for poor quintiles compared to rich quintiles at all levels of education.

GER varies across ethnic groups meaning that policies that aim to provide equitable access to education should consider targeting children coming from particular ethnic groups.
➢ There are regional disparities in access to education as illustrated by variations in GER across regions
➢ Region 2 registers the highest GER level in preschool and in UB education while Region 1 has the highest GER in LB and in SS education.
Within each region, access to education, varies across districts. In many regions, districts with low GER at preschool level also register a low GER level at LB education although it varies by region.

Lowest access both at preschool and LBS levels registered in region 5 within the same district, 3.5% and 24.4%, respectively.

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015

Figure 52: Equity in Pre-primary and LBS GER at district level, 2015
Similar to the Preschool and LBS access, districts with better access and UBS have also better access in SSS with some vibrations across region.

UBS access rate is low in region 5 (10.5%) while SSS access rate is low in region 6 (5.3%)

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
5.2. Out-of-school and key factor behind

- 30.3 % of children of LBS age are out of school. The out-of-school rate is particularly high among males and children living in rural areas.
➢ 28.8 % of children of LBS age group have never been to school while 1.7 % dropped out of school
➢ The incidence of out-of-school is slightly lower at UBS level (28.9 %) but increases at SSS level (42.8 %) with a higher proportion of drop-out.

Figure 54: Out-of-school rate by gender and areas of residence by level of education

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015

➢ The incidence of out-of-school is particularly high among children from poor socio-economic background. For instance, at LBS level, while 43.6 % of children from the poorest wealth quintile are out-of-school, only 16 % children from the richest wealth quintile are out school
➢ At SSS level, the out-of-school rate in the poorest wealth quintile is driven by the proportion of children that have never been to school while in the richest wealth quintile, it is driven but the dropout rate.
The out-of-school rate varies across ethnic groups and is particularly high among the Wolof ethnic group at LBS and UBS levels. Children from the Serahulleh ethnic group experience the highest out-of-school rate at SSS level.

Overall, the out of school rate decreases with the education level of the household head.
➢ Children from households in which the household head work in the service sector face a lower out of school incidence.
➢ Household with wage employment also associates with lower out-of-school rate

Figure 57: Out-of-school rate by household head education level, employment status and sector of employment by level of education

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015

➢ The out of school incidence varies across districts within region reneging from low of 5.8% in Banjul City council distract (10) in region 1 thigh 80% in Upper Saloum district in region 5.
➢ There is at least a district in each region with out-of-school rate below the national average as well as except in region one all regional also have a district with out-of-school arte above national average
➢ Religion is the most important reason for out of school at all levels of education.
➢ The proportion of children reporting religion as the main reason for out-of-school is particularly high among males and population leaving in urban area.
The extent to which religion explains out-of-school varies across wealth quintiles, regions, ethnic groups and depends on the level of education of the household head. The importance of religion for out-of-school is high among children coming from the richest quintile, children leaving in region 5, children from the Wolof ethnic group and children coming from households in which the head has no education.

Figure 59: Reason for out-of-school by level of education breakdown by gender and area of residence

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015

Figure 60: Reason for out-of-school by wealth quintile, region, ethnicity and head education breakdown by gender and area of residence, LBS (age 7-12)
➢ Religion explains out-school to varying extents across districts within each region
➢ In Region 1, while religion is not an important reason for out-of-school in Banjul City Council, close to 100% of out of school is due to some religious reasons in Banjul City Council

**Figure 61: Out-of-school by district**
Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
5.3. Analysis of equity in the distribution of public education resources

- Public spending on education is more equitable in primary education, compared to other levels of education.
- Equity in public education spending decreases with levels of education with higher education registering the lowest level of equity.
- Distribution of public spending by quintile shows that at primary level almost all quintile receives spending proportional to their population share (20%) while in post-primary school the poorer receives less proportions than their population share.
- Primary level is poverty neutral while post basic spending is pro-rich
However, given that poorer families have larger family size with the lower per capita, account for family size would remove the poverty nature of primary spending.

Overall, public spending is pro-rich in The Gambia—the poorest quintile receives 16% of public funds (4% less than their population share), while the richest quintile receives 24% (4% above their population share).

**Figure 63: Results of Benefit Incidence Analysis (BIA)**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Q1</th>
<th>Q2</th>
<th>Q3</th>
<th>Q4</th>
<th>Q5</th>
<th>Overall</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015

Compared with income inequality, public spending on education in the higher education sector is higher than the inequality in income distribution while the lower lover is better than the income inequality.

**Figure 64: Equity in the provision of public resources to the education sector**
➢ Overall, access to public schools is relatively pro-poor especially in pre-primary and in primary education. While 20% of students at all levels of education belong to the poorest quintile, 17% of students belong to the richest quintile.

Figure 65: School participation by quintile, public

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015

➢ Access to private schools is pro-rich. Only 7% of students that attend private schools belong to the poorest quintile while 70% of them are coming from the richest quintile.

Figure 66: School participation by quintile, public
Access to Madrasa schools is pro-poor at all levels of education. Overall, 29% of students attending madrasa schools belong to the poorest quintile while only 12% belong to the richest quintile.

Figure 67: School participation by quintile, private

High share of education spending from the household goes to primary level while the well to due families spend relatively very high share in post basic education. This implies that given the returns on education is high for better educated people, affiliate families

Figure 68: Share of household allocation by level of education and wealth quintile
Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
Chapter 6: External Efficiency

6.1 Education attainment of labor force

As at 2015, educational attainment in The Gambia is quite weak. On average, an individual in the country has only 3.7 years of schooling. This implies that most people in the country do not complete primary education. As such, the labor market would be mainly composed of workers with low skills and the productivity of the country will be minimal. The educational attainment is worse among the poorest communities and the Serahulleh ethnic group. For instance, the average years of schooling for the poorest quintile is 1.2 years and 2 years for the Serahulleh. This suggests that the education system is unable to attract and retain the underprivileged. Finally, individuals employed in the public sector have a higher average years of education (11.4 years) than those working in the private sector (5.2 years). This supports the fact that the informal sector is vibrant in The Gambian labor market (Figure 69).

![Figure 69: Average Years of Schooling (year)](image)

The distribution of the working population in terms of age group shows that there is an improvement in the educational attainment. Even though more than half of The Gambian working population has not received any education, more of the youth cohort (15-24 years) is getting an education. For instance, 34% of the youth cohort has not received any education and this percentage is much lower than the percentage of the adult cohort with no education which is at 87%. Next, the distribution of the working population is disaggregated in terms of gender and geographic location: (i) Women have the highest rate of no education which is at 61% as compared to men 53%. This gender gap is likely going to be a constraint where most women can work only in unproductive sectors where high skills are not required. In order to increase economic growth, women need to be encouraged to obtain an education; (ii) Individuals residing in rural areas and region 5 have the highest rate of no education.
81% of the population in region 5 has not received any education and 72% of the rural population has no education (Figure 70).

To provide further insights on the external efficiency of The Gambian education system, an analysis of the distribution of the working population is provided by household wealth and ethnicity. Key highlights from the figure (Figure 71) below are: (i) The amount of people who have no education increases as the wealth decreases. For instance, the poorest quintile has the highest level of people with no education which is at 73% while the wealthiest quintile has the lowest which is only 40%; (ii) Compared to people employed in the private sector, those working in the public sector have the lowest rate of no education. 60% of the labor force in the private sector has not received any education meanwhile only 18% of individuals working in the public sector have not received any education. This reflects the fact that the public sector is more formal than the private sector and a set of higher skills is required to work within the formal sector; (iii) Regarding ethnicity, the Serarullah have the highest proportion of individuals with no education (73%) while the Jola/Karoninka have the lowest (44%). This could be explained by religion which make ethnic groups such as the Serarullah reluctant to go to conventional schools.

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
International comparison of educational attainment reveals that The Gambia has one of the lowest educational attainment in SSA. The figure below shows the distribution of the adult population by level of education attained in 37 SSA countries. The Gambia has the lowest educational attainment with a 58% of the population who have never been in school while in some countries the percentage is as low as 0.7%. The SSA average is around 33%. The comparison shows that The Gambia needs to improve on ways to attracting underprivileged communities and finding opportunities for second chance education (Figure 72).
6.2 Relevance of education to the labor market

About 73% of The Gambian labor force is active and working. When we disaggregate the distribution of the employment status by level of education and area of residence majority of the working labor force are those who has never been to school and those coming from the rural areas. For instance, 99% of the population with no education are working. This highlights the fact that most people work in unproductive sectors where skills required for human capital is at least lower basic education. Additionally, there are more men (84%) employed than women (67%); and individuals in region 5 and 6 have a higher likelihood of being employed than individuals in the other regions (Figure 73).
The agriculture sector is prevalent within The Gambia. It employs 58% of the youth (15-24 years), 51% of women, 75% of the individuals living in rural areas and the remote region (region 5&6) and 54% of the uneducated population. The above identified categories employed in the agricultural sector are those with basic skills or living in underprivileged areas. As depicted in figure 4, the importance of this sector decreases as the level of education attainment increases. As people accumulate more education, they work in more productive sectors such Services (Figure 74).
Despite the prevalence of the agriculture sector in The Gambia labor market, these rates are in fact lower than the average of SSA countries. The Gambia is less dependent on the agriculture with 39% of employment in agriculture as opposed to the SSA average which is at 61%. Therefore, to be competitive, there is a need to improve the skills for a labor market whose primary sector of activity is not agriculture. Such skills are acquired during senior secondary and post-secondary education (Figure 75).
The distribution of the employed adult population by type of job shows there is room for improving the competence of the work force. Wage employment is relatively lower at 27% of total employment. It increases with the level of education attained from 16% at LBE to 85% at higher education. This shows that a stronger (more formal) labor market requires at least some secondary education. In terms of gender and area of residence, figure 6 shows: (i) men have the highest wage employment as opposed to women. The gender gap in wage employment is equal to 16%; (ii) individuals living in urban areas and region 1 also have the highest wage employment. For example, the gap in wage employment between urban-rural is equal to 30% and 41% for region1-region5 (Figure 76).

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
The labor market is slightly developed in The Gambia than in most African countries. The wage employment in The Gambia (27%) is comparatively higher than the wage employment in Sierra Leone (2.5%) and Burkina Faso (6%) and even above the SSA average (24%) (Figure 77).

**Figure 77:** Distribution of employment by status and type of job, The Gambia and selected SSA countries (%)
Education leads to better livelihoods as illustrated by the figure 8. Overall in The Gambia, the average monthly income in The Gambia is D3413. It increases from D2971 to D4529 as the level of education attained increases from LBS to post-secondary education. However, there is not a significant difference between monthly income from LBS to SSS. This could imply that the benefits of education in terms of earnings are more significant after SSS therefore to further productivity and economic growth, individuals should invest in higher education (Figure 78).

Figure 78: Average Monthly Income by level of education attained
6.3 Rate of returns on education

Overall, one additional year of schooling yields six percent return. Key highlights from figure 9 include: (i) Agriculture is the least productive sector. The rate of return in agriculture is 4% lower than in Services. To be competitive and increase growth, the economy needs to move towards high returns sectors such as services; (ii) There is no difference in rate of returns between the public and the private sector. An individual is equally better off working in the public or private sector for a 6% return. This depicts the idea that both sectors are equally investing in education; (iii) For the same amount of education, the women have a higher rate of return (7%) than men (5%). This suggests that there are less educated women than men (Figure 79).

The breakdown by level of education shows that education is a key determinant of livelihoods in The Gambia. It increases earnings – the rate of returns on education increases with each successive level of education attained. At the national level, the rate of return ranges from 15% for LBE to 87% for higher education. Higher education is the level that leads to remarkably higher returns in all categories: 79% for male, 97% for female, 100% if you work in the private sector and 101% if you are in the Services industry. This emphasizes the positive impact of education on livelihoods and education is worth investing in especially higher education (Figure 80).
Education is a strong predictor of wage employment and employment in more productive sectors. It increases the chances of employment in sectors with high returns, and of gaining contract employment which offers greater stability. For instance, an additional year of education increases the probability of working in wage employment and in non-wage-non-agricultural by 37% and 21% respectively, compared to agricultural activities. Similarly, an additional year of education increases the likelihood of working in industry and services by 20% and 31% respectively, compared to agricultural sector. Additionally, differences in employment opportunities are found by gender and the sector of activity. For example, a man with an additional year of education has a higher probability than a woman to find employment in industry (7% more) and services (5% more) (Figure 81). Relative to working in the private sector, an individual has a 34% chance of working in the public sector. A woman has 10% less probability than a man to be employed in the public sector.

**Figure 80:** Rate of returns of education by level of education attained (%)

**Figure 81:** Probability of Employment by education status

Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
Source: Estimations based on IHS 2015
Chapter 7. Prospects of Education Sector Access and Finance

7.1. Projection of enrollment path under different scenarios
7.2. Cost of expansion for each scenario
Chapter 8. Conclusions and Recommendations

8.1. Conclusions
8.2. Recommendations