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IMPLEMENTING GENDER INCLUSIVE EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES IN THE  
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOLS: OPPORTUNITIES AND THREATS IN THE  
BEREKUM MUNICIPALITY OF GHANA

ORTIS KUMI

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2019

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BEREKUM MUNICIPALITY OF GHANA

BY

ORTIS KUMI

(UDS/MSA/0208/15)

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL POLITICAL AND  
HISTORICAL STUDIES, FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT  
STUDIES, UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, IN PARTIAL  
FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER  
OF PHILOSOPHY DEGREE IN SOCIAL ADMINISTRATION

MARCH, 2019



## DECLARATION

### Student,

I hereby declare that this thesis, with the exception of references to other people's works, which have been duly acknowledged, is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere:

Name of Student: Ortis Kumi

Signature..... Date.....

### Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Name of Supervisor: Dr. Felicia Odame (Mrs)

Signature..... Date.....



## ABSTRACT

Investing in education that is gender inclusive is indispensable to economic empowerment of the people. Even though gender inclusive education is at the heart of international conventions and protocols, the desired quality is yet to be achieved. Consequently, the study seeks to investigate the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in SHSs in the Berekum Municipality of Brong Ahafo Region. A convergence mixed method design was adopted for the study. Questionnaires and interview guides were used to obtain the primary data while the secondary data were sourced via the internet, published dissertations and journals. In all, 527 respondents (students, teachers, headmasters, and municipal education officers) were sampled using both probability and non-probability sampling techniques. It was revealed among others that guidance and counselling, co-curricular activities, teachers' teaching methods and scholarships were the major strategies and practices available for gender inclusion in the SHSs. The study also revealed that there was not enough effort in the implementation of the gender inclusive educational strategies as a result of factors such as funding, supervision, and insufficient resources. Therefore, the study concludes that unless the identified challenges in the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices are resolved head-on by policy authorities, effective gender participation in the SHSs will for long remain a mirage. It is recommended that the Government, in collaboration with the Non-Governmental Organisations should pool resources together to support the implementation of gender inclusive programmes in the Senior High Schools.



## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my sincerest gratitude to Dr. Felicia Odame (Mrs), my principal supervisor for the advice and assistance she rendered to me. I thank her profoundly for her support, directions and patience in helping me through this work. I am also thankful to my beloved wife Gladys Kyeraa and my children for their encouragement and support throughout this thesis.

I am also grateful to all the headmasters in the selected schools in Berekum Municipality, who did not hesitate to grant me the opportunity to carry out the study in their schools. My singular gratitude goes to all and sundry who agreed to form my sample and participated in the study.

Again, my sincere gratitude goes to all the lecturers and staff of Faculty of Integrated Development Studies (UDS) for their openness, patience, calls to duty, attitude, support, co-operation and encouragement during the pursuit of this programme. Finally, I duly acknowledge all authors of the books, journals, and other sources I gleaned information for this research. However, I humbly concede that any errors, shortcomings or omissions remain my responsibility and not the personalities mentioned in this work.



## **DEDICATION**

This research project is dedicated to the Almighty God and my lovely family who have been my source of inspiration as I struggled with my academic achievements.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

BMA	Berekum Municipal Assembly
GES	Ghana Education Service
GOG	Government of Ghana
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
JHS	Junior High School
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MoE	Ministry of Education
SHS	Senior High School
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
HIV/AIDS	Human Immune Virus / Acquire Immune Deficiency Syndrome
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WHO	World Health Organization



## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background of the Study

Education is said to be worthwhile when it attempts to develop and uphold the values of gender inclusive practices at all levels of the educational process (Gudhlanga, Chirimuuta, & Bhukuvhani, 2012; Booth & Dyssegaard, 2014; Shapiro & Stefkovich, 2016). It should aim at ensuring full participation of both male and female students in the teaching and learning process (Noddings, 2015; UNESCO, 2012). These expert pronouncements to a very large extent go to espouse the need to ensure inclusiveness in the teaching and learning process. Investing in education is seen as one of the fundamental ways nation states and their citizens can move toward long-term development goals (Ogaro, 2015; Jha & Subrahmanian, 2006).

According to Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] (2010), and UNESCO (2012), educating the male and their female counterparts alike do not only build the human capital that is essential for economic empowerment, but also generates and sustains gains in health, nutrition and life expectancy choices. Similarly, in examining the merits of gender inclusive education, Diprete and Buchmann (2013) observed that failing to complete high school or obtaining a high school diploma certificate puts the individuals' quality of life and that of their children at substantial risk. The authors further suggest that the benefits acquired through education can also be passed down from one generation to the other, since educated parents have more resources to invest in their children. To them, better



health and more stable marriages and family lives are as a result of a comprehensive implementation of gender inclusive practices in our educational system.

Similar observations reported by Maluwa-Banda (2003), Barmao-Kiptanui, Kindiki and Lelan (2015) indicate that investment in education for both males and females manifest as the most important determinants of development, with positive implications for all other measures of progress. It is no wonder that education of both males and females with a gender-based framework is widely recognized as being a single and most influential vehicle of self-advancement and fulfilment of developmental outcomes for present and future generations. Furthermore, investing in education that is gender sensitive is not only essential to promoting equality of employment opportunities and strengthen economic growth but increases cognitive and non-cognitive skills, improves productivity and provides individuals with a greater ability to further develop their knowledge and skills throughout their lives (Jones & Chant, 2009; OECD, 2011). In short, education is one of the most powerful instruments known for reducing poverty and inequality and for laying the basis for sustained economic growth, sound governance, and effective institutions.

However, the reality is that millions of children especially females worldwide have been excluded from enjoying quality education despite the fact that it is their inherent rights. According to the Global Gender Gap Report (2017) and Hartjen & Priyadarsini (2012), 31 million primary and secondary school students dropped out of school for apparent reasons including ineffective implementation of gender sensitive programmes in the various academic institutions. These studies further suggest that if





care is not taken to address the situation, the retention of those still in school will be a difficult one.

Similarly, Rieser (2012) mentioned that progress towards achieving the goals of 'Education for All' is painfully slow and much more needs to be done if it is to be achieved. Global Education Monitoring Report 2011 as cited in Rieser (2012) indicated that seven low income countries including Chad, Ghana, Niger and Senegal made cuts in education spending in 2009. These reported cuts have some 3.7 million children out of school. Again, Schwab et al. (2016) posited that women make up a marginally larger proportion of out-of-school children and a much larger proportion of youth not in school or in education (23% compared to 15%). It is therefore not out of place to suggest that if gender inclusive educational policy strategies are well coordinated and effectively implemented at the SHSs, the seeming inequalities that have permeated educational systems could be resolved. For that reason, any attempt to revive the dwindling fortunes of education begins with the implementation of gender inclusive strategies not only at the basic education level but also at the Senior High Schools.

It is worth noting that the phenomenon of gender inequalities has both historical and theoretical explanations. According to Dickman and Goodfriend (as cited in Lindsey, 2015), functionalism offers a reasonable explanation for the origin of gender roles and demonstrates the functional utility of assigning tasks on the basis of gender in subsistence economies where men, women, and children's roles were defined. Structural functionalism is based on the premise that society is made up of interdependent parts, each of which contributes to the functioning of the whole



society. The specialization of household tasks by gender was the order of the day and women were restricted to family roles whilst their men counterparts were expected to maintain the physical integrity of the family by providing food and shelter for the family. Perhaps functionalism theory was apt in explaining the circumstances of the medieval period. It has no place in contemporary societies as men and women have overlapping roles now.

In practice, gender inclusive education began when the need to address the marginalization of girls from science education emerged. The term “gender-inclusion” originated in the 1980s in Australia with the work of a group of teachers that formed the McClintock Collective (Rudman & Glick, 2008). The use of this term marked a shift in focusing on teaching practice that was “non-sexist” and aimed at eliminating inequity and bias for girls in science to focusing on teaching practice that made central the social construct of gender and its impact on boys’ and girls’ experiences and learning in science (Harding & Parker, 1995). In the same vein, Egbo (as cited in Annin, 2009), strongly argues that colonial education in Sub-Saharan Africa, was essentially prejudiced. This was reflected in the lack of the colonial administration’s investment in education for all, which resulted in high levels of inequality in education for boys and girls. The magnitude of gender exclusion has prompted calls at both national and international levels through policy framework and strategies to address the phenomenon (Ramachandran, 2009). Some of the conventions and protocols adopted in this regard include the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948; the Jomtien World Conference on Education for All (1990) which set the goal of Education for All (Ramachandran, 2009). For the purpose of this study, much emphasis is placed on the UN Millennium Development Goals report (2014) which



stipulates the need to address gender disparities in primary and secondary education, preferably by 2005, and in all levels of education no later than 2015. This declaration has also been emphasised in the recent policy framework of Sustainable Development Goals, specifically, goals four and five. At this summit, the world leaders adopted agenda 2030 to end poverty, fight inequality and injustices.

Moreover, in Ghana gender inequalities in education continue to exist at all levels of the educational system especially in the rural communities where Berekum Municipality is no exception. Article 25 (1) of the 1992 constitution of Ghana stipulates “All persons shall have the right to equal educational opportunities and facilities and with a view to achieving the full realization of that right”. This, coupled with the policy document on Social Protection against vulnerabilities from the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection, set the pace to address the gender inequalities and exclusion in the educational system in Ghana. Government of Ghana, through the Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service, has embarked on several efforts to address the inequalities and exclusion of gender in education.

Mention could be made of the creation of girl-child education unit, the pursuance of affirmative action, the campaign against early marriages, lower cut-off points for girls in admissions, science clinics for both genders, and the recent introduction of free senior high education for all qualified students. Irrespective of government’s efforts in ensuring gender inclusion in the educational system, completion and achievement rates remain unequal for boys and girls in Senior High Schools.

Data from Ghana Education Sector Performance report (2016) indicates that in 2015/16 academic year, females had a higher transition rate at 69% than males at



66%, making female JHS graduates slightly more likely to have entered SHS than males. The data however showed that more boys finish SHS than girls (48% and 44%), giving credence to the study conducted by Kane (2004). The rising gender gap in terms of completion and achievement rates in the Senior High Schools raise some key questions concerning the implementation of gender inclusive educational programmes in the schools.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

According to McKeown (2009), the absence of gender inclusion in our educational system has unpleasant consequences on the development of individual and society since exclusion from education touches on all aspects of a child's life. Children who are excluded from education are probably also living in conditions of poverty, marginalisation, geographic isolation, racial discrimination or gender bias. The Global Educational Monitoring Report by UNICEF as cited in Aikman and Unterhalter (2005) estimates that across all developing countries the gender gap is 10 percentage points.

In sub-Saharan Africa, 54 per cent of all girls do not even complete primary education, and only 17 per cent go on to secondary education. At least one in every three girls who completes primary education in South Asia cannot read, write, or do arithmetic (Chapman & Miske, 2007; Herz & Spurling, 2004). Again, Schwab et al. (2016) posited that women make up a marginally larger proportion of out-of-school children and a much larger proportion of youth not in school or education (23% compared to 15%). These global findings are not different from what is contained in the Ghana Educational Sector Report (2016) that suggests the need to pay attention to



gender, especially the girl child education. In a similar vein, Jones and Chant (2009) and OECD (2011) asserted that in many developing countries, including Ghana, girls still have poorer educational attainments, especially at the secondary and tertiary levels.

Government of Ghana, through the Ministry of Education and Ghana Education Service, has embarked on several efforts to enhance gender inclusive education as a means of removing all impediments to gender parity, completion and achievement rates in secondary education and beyond. Mention could be made of the creation of girl-child education unit, the pursuance of affirmative action, the campaign against early marriages and the recent introduction of free senior high education for all qualified students. Despite these interventions, disparities continue to persist in our education system.

Statistics from Berekum Municipal Education Directorate indicate that the completion rates of males at the SHS are higher than females which stood at 90.1% and 85% respectively as at 2014/ 2015 academic year. In the same vein, the completion rate for males was 81.6% and that of females stood at 73.6%. In terms of achievement in WASSCE, the records indicate that males perform better than the females (53.4% and 45.5% pass in 2014/15 and 26.6% and 17.4% pass in 2015/16). One would wonder why there are still gender disparities in terms of achievement and completion rates at the SHS in the Berekum Municipality.

Could it be attributed to the non-existent or silent implementation of gender inclusion strategies in the various SHSs in the Berekum Municipality? Or is it the case of



improper implementation and supervision of gender responsive practices in the schools? Perhaps the challenges confronting the implementation of gender inclusive education have overshadowed its prospects. It is the quest to finding answers to these questions that the study has been conducted to fill the knowledge gap that exists in gender inclusive education at the Senior High Schools in Berekum Municipality.

### **1.3 General Research Question**

What are the opportunities and threats of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality?

#### **1.3.1 Specific research questions**

1. What are the gender inclusive educational strategies available in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality?
2. How are these gender inclusive strategies implemented in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality?
3. What are the opportunities of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in the SHSs in Berekum Municipality?
4. What are the threats of implementing gender inclusive strategies in the Berekum Municipality?

### **1.4 General Research Objective**

To examine the opportunities and threats of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices available in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality.

#### **1.4.1 Specific Research objectives**

1. Assess the gender inclusive educational strategies available in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality.



2. Determine how gender inclusive educational strategies are implemented in the Berekum Municipality.
3. Ascertain the opportunities of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in the Berekum municipality.
4. Investigate the threats of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in the Berekum municipality.

### **1.5 Significance of the Study**

The essence of this study is mainly to investigate the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the senior high schools in Berekum Municipality. The implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in SHSs in the municipality is appalling. Thus, the study provides a valuable insight into the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the senior high schools in Berekum Municipality. This is important because the study lays a foundation for future research into this phenomenon in the Berekum Municipality and beyond.

Similarly, there is an on-going debate about the impact of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies on SHS education in the Ghanaian educational context. This study, by identifying the opportunities and threats to the implementation of gender inclusive strategies and practices could contribute to the debate.

Again, the results of the study could offer assistance to the school administrators, teachers and students in understanding the issues affecting gender participation in the teaching and learning process. This could help students to harmoniously co-exist in the schools and support each other in the teaching and learning process.



Lastly, the findings of this study could add up to the existing literature relating to gender inclusive education, as it makes original contribution to knowledge. This will help future researchers to get more literature to either refute or back their own findings.

### **1.6 Delimitation of the Study**

The study area was delimited to the Public Senior High Schools in the Berekum Municipality. These schools were chosen for the study because the public schools by their mandate supposed to provide education for all whilst the private schools may have other reasons for their establishment other than providing education for all. The public senior high Schools in the municipality include: Berekum Presbyterian SHS, Berekum SHS, Jinijini SHS, and Methodist SHS/TECH.

The population for the study was made up of teachers, students, education officers and headmasters of the public SHSs in the study area. These groups of people have been identified as part of the participants of this study because each of them plays a peculiar role in the teaching and learning process in the schools. The scope of the content of this study is also delineated to inclusive education in terms of gender participation in teaching and learning process.

### **1.7 Limitations of the Study**

Despite the fact that I decided to put in much effort, energy, passion and resources to thoroughly conduct this study, some limitations envisioned could not be easily evaded. As the study area was limited to only the four public senior high schools in the Berekum Municipality, it would be difficult to generalize the findings to cover the





other private schools. It may be likely that other interesting findings would emerge if the study area was extended. However, the Senior High Schools which share similar characteristics with those in the study area can adapt the findings to suite their institution. Again, the data collection procedures did not include direct observation of the functionality of gender inclusiveness in the teaching and learning process in the selected schools. But then, the questionnaire and interview guides were developed to adequately cover the intended topics for the study.

### **1.8 Organization of the study**

The study was organized into five chapters. The first chapter gave the general introduction highlighting the background to the study. It covered the statement of the problem, objectives and the research questions, significance, scope and the limitations of the study. The second chapter focused on literature review in line with the objectives and other relevant issues of the study. The areas covered were operationalization of key concepts such as gender, and inclusive education, theoretical framework of the study, gender inclusive educational strategies and practices, implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies, and benefits and challenges of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies. It also had a section for empirical review under which studies related to the study were reviewed. Chapter three presented the details of the study area and the methodology which included research design, population, sample and sampling procedures, instruments for data collection and data analysis. The fourth chapter was designated for the presentation of results and discussions. Finally, chapter five constituted the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations for practice and for further research.



## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter critically examines literature related to the study. This helped the researcher to identify some observations made by other researchers and writers on the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the senior high schools as a direction for the study. Literature was reviewed in line with the objectives and other relevant issues of the study. This included: Operationalization of key concepts, theoretical perspectives of gender, Gender inclusive educational strategies, Implementations of gender inclusion strategies, Threats of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies, and Opportunities of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices.

#### 2.2 Operationalization of Key Concepts

##### 2.2.1 The Concept of Gender

According to Lindsey (2015), gender refers to those social, cultural, and psychological traits linked to the males and females through particular social contexts, whilst Sex refers to the biological characteristics distinguishing male and female. This definition emphasizes male and female differences in chromosomes, anatomy, hormones, reproductive systems, and other physiological components. Sex makes us male or female, and ascribed status because a person is born with it. On the other hand, gender makes one masculine or feminine, and it is also achieved status because it can be learned. It is also observed by Butler (1990) and Lykke (2009) that gender is not a personal trait but one that develops through the process of interaction within the environment, and educational institutions have become important arenas for the



construction and reconstruction of these norms that shape the perceptions of gender. In this study both the terms gender and sex are construed to be male and female dichotomy and a participant is selected for the study based on the fact that one is male or female. According to Safdar, and Kosakowska-Berezecka (2015), the main theme visible within the definition of gender concept is derived from the assumption that gender constitutes an important element of one's identity, often developed by the social expectations embedded in a given culture, which has significant influence on an individual's quality of life, aspirations, and opportunities.

### **2.2.2 Concept of Inclusive Education**

There are varied interpretations and dimensions of the term inclusive education. Ainscow et al. (as cited in Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2010) make distinction between narrow and broad definitions of inclusive education. Narrow definition of inclusion education refers to the promotion of the inclusion of specific group of students, mainly but not exclusively disabled students or students with special education needs in mainstream or regular education. Broad definition of inclusion, on the other hand, do not focus on specific groups of students, but rather on diversity and how schools respond to the diversity of all students and every other member of the school community. Another dimension to this distinction is called fragmented definition which target specific groups of people including males and females, minority ethnic and faith groups, travellers, asylum seekers and refugees. For the purpose of the study, gender inclusion is defined as the practice of giving equitable opportunities to the male and female students regardless of their background to realize their full potentials in the teaching and learning environment.



## 2.3 Theoretical Framework

Within the broad spectrum of feminism lie various types of orientations. The general objective of feminism as a movement is virtually the same. However, feminists differ among themselves with respect to their perceptions of the causes of women's subordination and how it could be addressed (Nehere, 2016). Mackenzie (1993) classifies feminism into cultural, ecofeminism, global, liberal, socialist and radical. Similarly, Acker (1987) and Basow (1993) categorized feminism into three main types namely; liberal, socialist and radical. This study will apply liberal feminist theory in the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies in the senior high schools; the following is a brief discussion of some of the feminist theories.

### 2.3.1 Socialists' Theories

According to Buechler (2016) and Wall (2010), socialists' theories have the tendencies to eliminate or reduce material and status inequalities from society. In line with this postulation, socialists theory usually anticipate that the lesser the differentials in standards of living or property in a society, the slighter also the status differentials between men and women. Marxism traces the origins of all inequality more specifically to the private ownership of the means of production by one class and contends that the elimination of all inequalities will be achieved by the expropriation of the privately owned means of production by the revolutionary proletariat and by their subsequent administration by society for the benefit of all.

It was also envisaged by Engels as cited in Hensman (2011) that the cause of women's lesser status is class society and the forms of family organization it creates. Once class society is abolished, and the state withers away, the patriarchal



family will also disappear. According to Engels, capitalists want to keep women reproducing the labour force without pay, while serving as a cheap reserve army of labour. However, Engels did not assume that the socialist revolution and the elimination of the capitalists as a class would automatically overcome all the obstacles to women's equality. The story is not different from what goes on in our contemporary times, even though society today has gone through metamorphosis where women engage in productive services with good wages to support their spouses and families. Society tacitly tend to give favours to the males at the expense of their female counterparts in all spheres of human endeavour, therefore it is envisaged that the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies will not only eliminate barriers and obstacles to females' participation in the teaching and learning process but also place females in their rightful positions in the society.

### **2.3.2 Modern Liberal Feminist Theories**

Modern liberal feminist theories of gender equality are based on the assumption that in order for women to achieve equal status, all stereotyped social roles for men and women have to be abolished. Conventional women's work roles assign to them the major responsibility for unpaid domestic and especially child-care work, and thus handicap them in their occupational roles. Despite legal rights of women to equality in employment, men use women's actual or presumed domestic handicaps in order to perpetuate de facto discrimination by forcing women into a small number of occupational roles that are segregated according to labour-market types and working-time schedules and that have lower pay and prestige than comparable men's occupations (Banks & Milestone, 2011) . Employed women's inferior income is used as a justification for the perpetuation of their unequal burden of domestic and



child-care work and their inferior power within the family. Their isolated and inferior occupational roles also impede their acquisition of economic and political power. It is in the short-term interest of men of all levels to use the unpaid domestic services of women and to prevent women from competing with them for the better jobs (Agassi 1977; Reskin 1988).

The liberal feminists' theory includes the claim that the abolition of gender segregation of occupational roles is necessary for the achievement of women's equality. It follows that for the acquisition of gender equality, all domestic consumption work and all child-care work as well as the responsibility for their performance must also be freed of gender stereotyping and must be shared equally between partners and between parents. The liberal feminists' failed to appreciate the fact that men and women are unique in their own right and are defined by what they can do and do best. This notwithstanding, the theory gives insight into how gender roles can be eliminated from the teaching and learning process to pave way for inclusivity through the implementation of inclusive educational strategies.



### **2.3.3 Modern Anthropological Non-Materialist Theory**

A different contemporary anthropological non-materialist theory of gender roles is that of Schlegel (1977), who claims it is of no importance whether work activities are gender segregated as long as the creation myths and ritual system of the society evaluate and celebrate women's activities as highly as men's. According to Schlegel, neither segregation of work roles nor participation in production determines the status of women or men, but only the spiritual evaluation of their activities. All gender

stratification theories mentioned until now agree that gender equality is both desirable and feasible.

According to Lindsey (2015), Feminist theory and its attention to diversity offer a sound framework for organizations working to change women's inferior social position and the social, political, and economic discrimination that perpetuates it. Many of these organizations come together in networks under the umbrella of feminism, an inclusive worldwide movement to end sexism and sexist oppression by empowering women (Breines, 2006). Global social change presents new and on-going challenges for women, so a feminist agenda addressing the needs of all women is never in a finalized form. Feminists accept the goal of ending sexism by empowering women, but there is a great deal of disagreement about how that goal is to be accomplished. The view to empowering the women in order to rise to the occasion is not out of place; however, it must be done cautiously in order not to displace their men counterparts who are also partners in development. In this regard, both males and females in the school environment will be accorded the same privileges to explore their potentials. Karl Marx (1818-1883) as cited in Slott (2011) noted that free development of each is the condition for the free development of all.

#### **2.3.4 Radical Feminism**

Radical feminism is said to have emerged when women who were working with men in the civil rights and anti-Vietnam War movements were not allowed to present their positions on the causes they were engaged in (Ocasiones, 2007). These women became aware of their own oppression by the treatment they received from their male cohorts, who insulted and ridiculed them for their views. Contemporary radical



feminists believe that sexism is at the core of patriarchal society and that all social institutions reflect that sexism (Hill-Collins, 2008). Whereas liberal feminists focus on the workplace and legal changes, radical feminists focus on the patriarchal family as the key site of domination and oppression (Pitts, 2010). Women's oppression stems from male domination, so if men are the problem, neither capitalism, nor socialism, nor any other male-dominated system will solve the problem. Therefore, women must create separate institutions that are women centred—those that rely on women rather than men. A society will emerge where the female virtues of nurturance, sharing, and intuition will dominate in a woman-identified world. The ideals and ethos of the Radical Feminists are however inimical to the common interest of gender, and therefore calls for a common platform where both males and females can explore their potentials in the society.

### **2.3.5 Multicultural and Global Feminism**

This feminist branch focuses on the intersection of gender with race, class, and issues related to the colonization and exploitation of women in the developing world. Global feminism is a movement of people working for change across national boundaries (Zalewski & Runyan, 2013). Global feminism contends that no woman is free until the conditions that oppress women worldwide are eliminated (Bunch, 1993). Multicultural feminism focuses on the specific cultural elements and historical conditions that serve to maintain women's oppression. In Latin America, for instance, military regimes have devised specific patterns of punishment and sexual enslavement for women who oppose their regimes (Bunster-Bunalto, 1993). Global feminism works to empower South Asian and Middle Eastern women who are restricted from schooling, health care, and paid employment simply because they are women. This





school of thought failed to appreciate that the same conditions that affect women in one jurisdiction also affect men in another jurisdiction, therefore there is the need to find a common ground to address gender disparities in order to foster win-win conditions for males and female's participation in the schools.

### **2.3.6 Ecofeminism**

Some women are drawn into feminism by environmental activism. The Eco-feminists saw men's control over land as responsible for the oppression of women and destruction of the natural environment (Prabhakar, 2015). Drawing on earth-based spiritual imagery, ecofeminism suggests that the world's religions have an ethical responsibility to challenge a patriarchal system of corporate globalization that is deepening the impoverishment of the earth and its people (Mount, 2011; Ruether, 2005). The planet can be healed and ecological harmony restored through political action emphasizing the principle of equality of all species.

### **2.3.7 Liberal Feminism**

This study is grounded on Liberal feminism theory advanced by John Stuart Mill (1806) which focused much on issues of education and equal rights of men and women. Mill (1806) avowed that all people are created equal and should not be denied equality of opportunity because of gender. Generally, advocates of liberal feminism predict that when both males and females are treated equally at home and at school and given equal opportunities in policy implementation in education, women are capable of closing the disparity gap which has existed in Africa for years (Alhassan, 2013; Lachover, 2013). Education has the competence of perpetuating inequality if meticulous measures are not put in place. Therefore, feminist theoretical



framework probes into how women's subordination arose, why it is perpetuated and how it might be altered (Prasad, 2011).

In the school, socialization process made through instructional materials, curricula counselling, school organisation and the general school atmosphere, sometimes leads into girls and boys being socialised into traditional attitudes and orientations, which upsets gender inclusiveness (Ifegbesan, 2010; Stromquist, 1990). This socialization process does not only disadvantage females but the males as well. This is because females are conditioned to nonparticipation and subservience whilst males end up taking dominion over the females. An example is given of males being forced to suppress their emotional and caring potentials, which are essential for the growth and creation of positive relationships. This development is inimical to inclusiveness in the teaching and learning process as well as the democratic values of students.

According to Mkuchu (2004) as far as liberal feminism is concerned, true equality of opportunity can only be brought about through elimination of gender roles and stereotyping in the schooling system and the society at large. The best way to achieve this end is through education. It is through education that traditions and beliefs, which reinforce inequality between the sexes, are challenged thereby helping to break down the legacy of discrimination handed over from one generation to the next. Furthermore through education, attitudes of students, teachers, parents and employees can be changed. In order to achieve the objectives of their movement, liberal feminists have deployed different techniques aimed at removing all barriers that prevent girls from reaching their full potentials. Strategies adopted by liberal feminists to change attitudes of teachers and learners have included: Establishing guidance and



counselling units in the schools, re-admission of teenage mothers after delivery of their babies, scholarships, promotion of culture of respect and dignity, regular in-service training on gender related issues for teachers, and inclusive teaching and learning strategies among others.

Liberal feminist theory was adopted for the study because it espouses the notion of equity, fairness, and support in environment of harmonious living which seeks to eliminate all forms of impediments to gender inclusion in the teaching and learning process. This would enable both males and females to explore their potentials for both personal and national development. Despite the apparent usefulness of the theory, liberal feminism has been criticized for weaknesses inherent in the theoretical framework itself. The critiques of this theory lament that it fails to appreciate the values of communities and groups, and disregards social and historical differences ((Liu, 2007). Despite these denigrations, liberal feminism continues to be the most important avenue for guaranteeing gender inclusive education at all levels. It has contributed to gender justice policy formulation and implementation in the countries across the world to shape education.



## **2.4 Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

Gender inclusive education can be achieved through the adoption and implementation of certain policy strategies. Several studies have identified professionalism, curriculum development and class-room organization, favourable assessment methods, collaboration between the teaching staff, class size, involvement by school leadership, continuous and intensive in-service staff training, social and physical set-up of the school (in-school support systems), pedagogical methods, parental

involvement in decision-making among the practices that underpin gender inclusion in educational environment ( Arends, 2014; Benton & Benton, 2008; Berhanu, 2011).

In a similar vein, Mlama et al. (2005) and Meyer (2015) opined that in ensuring gender inclusiveness in the school system, practices such as training teachers in the skills for making teaching and learning process responsive to the specific needs of girls and boys, empowering both girls and boys with skills for self-confidence, assertiveness, speaking out, decision making and negotiation in order for them to overcome gender-based constraints to their education, empowering boys with skills to de-link them from gender oppressive attitudes and practices such as macho-ism, bullying and sexual affronts and to develop the self-confidence needed to accept gender equality positively must be upheld.

Their studies further suggested the need to embark on training the school community to manage sexual maturation issues of both girls and boys with particular emphasis on menstruation management, establishing guidance and counselling desks in order to provide services for the social and psychological development of girls and boys, providing scholarships and support to needy girls and boys to ensure that they do not drop out of school, providing gender responsive infrastructure including boarding facilities in case of long distances from school, separate and adequate toilets for girls and boys, adequate and clean water and sanitation, especially to enhance menstruation management and the overall health of the school community among others.

Burden and Byrd (2015) and Connell (2003) took note of several points raised in the Beijing Platform for Action under the theme "education and training of women".



These include the need to provide adequate sexual and reproductive health education, ensuring effective teaching and learning methods that meet the needs of all students, the importance of non - discriminatory curriculum content, and the need to give boys the skills for housework and care work, as the beginning of an educational strategy towards effective gender inclusion. The success of inclusive education lies in partnership and not the single efforts of an individual.

According to Maluwa-Banda (2003), the broad educational policy strategies and programmes of the Government of Malawi that have been introduced to address the educational needs of both males and females include non-discriminatory education as an essential tool for achieving the goals of equality of access to and attainment of educational qualifications for boys and girls, women and men, revision of the curricula to make it more gender sensitive, the re-admission policy that allows school aged mothers to return to school after delivery of their babies, the establishment of Gender Appropriate Curriculum unit at Malawi Institute of Education to offer training on gender sensitivity and ensure that curriculum textbooks have been engendered, and social mobilisation campaigns whose aim is to change attitudes and behaviours affecting girls' education at grass-root level. The most effective way to ensure inclusive education for all children is to eliminate the barriers for girls' education such as schools that are far from home, school fees and other hidden costs, lack of safe water and sanitation, discrimination and the threat of violence (UNICEF, 2005).

In examining gender inclusive practices in schools, UNESCO (2013) confirmed what has already been identified by various studies that the need to ensure equal and maximum students' participation in extracurricular activities, provision of both pre -



and in-service teacher training on gender-sensitive pedagogies, establishment of formal career guidance programmes with professional counsellors who are sensitive to the needs of both girls and boys, investments in school infrastructure, resources and materials, and the involvement of parents in career related initiatives as essential in assessing quality education and influential in shaping student perceptions of gender roles.

The study further reiterated the need to review and enforce re-entry policies for pregnant school-girls to enable them continue their education after delivery. According to the Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection working document on National Gender Policy [MoGCSP] (2015), there is the need to enforce the teaching of age-appropriate education to girls and boys on sexuality and reproductive health and rights in school curricula, including issues of gender relations and responsible sexual behaviour, focused on preventing early pregnancies, develop and implement scholarship schemes for the girl child and ensure girls are retained in school to complete and move on to the next levels to avoid being victims of child and early marriages and motherhood situations that disempowered them, develop and implement national programmes and district based projects to facilitate continuous education and livelihood for young boys and girls trapped in the transitional gaps between JHS and SHS, and SHS to Tertiary Levels, and provide standard sanitary facilities for the girl-child in schools and educating them on personal/menstrual hygiene. Writing on gender inclusive strategies in schools, UNICEF (2005) asserted that schools should implement school health programmes that include deworming treatment, micronutrients and immunization, provide care and support for orphans and other vulnerable children, establish hygiene and health education that encourages



practices for disease prevention, establish safe and protective environments for children to learn and play.

In a related development, African Union [AU] (2006) resolutions to facilitate gender inclusion in educational system identified the following policy strategies and practices: Development of systems to monitor and evaluate gender inclusive practices in the schools, proper documentation of gender records in schools for review, advocacy for the abolition of negative cultural practices that impede female participation, establish affirmative action in admissions, financial support to increase women participation, build capacity in gender analysis and mainstreaming among others. To enable all learners to reach their full potential, it is essential to examine all aspects of a learning institution environment, and determine where improvements need to be made to eliminate gender stereotypes and promote gender inclusiveness. This is achieved through the promotion of culture of respect and dignity in the school environment, the use of guidance and counselling, extracurricular activities, scholarships specifically to encourage female learners, teaching and facilitation methods that are free from gender stereotypes among others (Pulizzi & Rosenblum, 2007).

### **2.5 Implementation of Gender Inclusive Education Strategies**

Several studies have been conducted to investigate how gender inclusive strategies are implemented. In ensuring an effective implementation of gender policies and strategies, Magno and Silova (2007) argued that the legal framework as defined by the national government, political will within organisations, the use of management tools, the allocation of resources (personnel, financial), the acceptance and commitment at



top level (directors as promoters), self-responsibility concerning the strategy and operational goal, transparency and communication (open communication, reports, trainings), clear role responsibilities, professional gender expertise, patience, insistence and long term perspective should be upheld as a practice.

In the same vein, Akyeampong et al. (2012) noted that in implementing the gender inclusive educational strategies, the plans outlined in the gender policy document should be strictly followed. They further asserted that proper supervision needs to be carried out in the implementation process, as well as ensuring accountability. On the same tangent of thought, Baric and Bouchie (2011) have identified four steps for designing and implementing education programmes that support gender inclusion. These include conducting a gender analysis to identify disparities, investigate why such disparities exist, determine whether they are detrimental, and, if so, look at how they can be remedied. They further insisted on integrating findings from the gender analysis into solicitation document, and monitoring project implementation to ensure appropriate responsiveness to gender. Regular review and discussion on gender-sensitive indicators and sex-disaggregated data with the implementing agency are essential to promote learning.

In order to fully measure and appreciate the level of gender sensitivity and responsiveness to the different needs of male and female students in the school environment, one has to do a critical assessment based on simple indicators such as security and health issues surrounding the school, school and classroom facilities, the nature of the curriculum, guidance and counselling, teaching and learning materials, students participation in decision making, teachers knowledge and community





members and parents contribution towards gender education (UNESCO, 2009). According to Pulizzi & Rosenblum (2007), written policies are ineffective if they are not implemented. Once a policy has been developed and approved, it needs to be publicized, supported, and enforced. Planning and resource allocation are also important to ensure implementation. In developing and implementing policy strategies to guide gender inclusion, Pulizzi and Rosenblum further mentioned that it is important to involve stakeholders such as teachers, students, parents, administrators and government, who can all provide valuable ideas.

One can also get buy-in from them at the same time, which will help ensure their compliance with the strategies when it is implemented (Pulizzi, & Rosenblum, 2007). In an instance where code of conduct is written and implemented to guide gender inclusion, the following steps are crucial to ensuring that it is successfully implemented: disseminate the code of conduct to all learning institutions, publicise the code of conduct to all stakeholders, train teachers and students about the code of conduct, and provide opportunities for discussing it and enforce the code by reporting and investigating all violations, punishing the offenders, and supporting the victims.

However, early studies by Verloo (2005) identified the concept of strategical framing as a dynamic concept that enables an individual to see how different actors adapt existing policy framework to pursue their respective goals. Strategical framing is defined as attempting to construct a fit between existing framework and the framework of the change agent. By so doing, one is able to measure the outcomes of the implementation process. It is also observed that the implementation of gender



policies, frameworks and initiatives need to be carefully planned, continually monitored and regularly evaluated (UNESCO, 2013).

In terms of supervision, Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection working document on National Gender Policy [MoGCSP] (2015), stipulates that the Ministry of Education together with Ghana Education Service is responsible for the implementation of gender inclusive policies and programmes at all levels of our educational system. They are to promote mainstreaming of gender into the Ministry's budget, programmes and plans, introduce gender into its curricular at all levels of education within the country, train teachers through conferences, short courses, and seminars, to effectively handle gender issues at various levels of tuition/education, co-operate with MoGCSP and MoFEP to draw up and sponsor programmes that will draw and keep needy children in school, co-ordinate with MoGCSP to mobilise resources for GE and WE issues in schools.

At the school based level in the SHSs, the headmaster and members of staff are directly responsible for both implementation and monitoring of gender policies and programmes. School management systems normally do not include gender considerations in their design and implementation. School policies and regulations often do not provide for action and sanctions for gender related concerns such as sexual harassment and bullying, which affect both girls and boys. Where such rules exist, they may not be enforced. It should be noted that while these policies are useful in their own rights, implementations have been problematic. For one thing, the procedures for application are not clearly laid out. As a result, head teachers interpret it differently (MoGCSP, 2015).



According to Bryan (2008), many policies and interventions to guide gender inclusive education fail at the implementation stage because of myriad of reasons such as the gender bias of institutions, lack of influence and voice of women's activists within organizations, lack of accountability, and support of top leadership as well as lack of clarity around what gender inclusive education entails. In terms of implementation, Bryan further asserted that gender inclusive education efforts such as gender training, organizational development efforts, and planning for gender equality often have no clear connection to change that is meant to occur on the ground, and more so when strategies to promote gender equity have not been linked to the institutional cultures and agendas.

Systems of assessment, monitoring, evaluation and documentation of effectiveness in terms of learning outcomes and equity in inclusive education remain lacking and need attention (Berhanu, 2011). Constant flow of monitoring, evaluation and inspection and a stronger partnership between the central system and the local level, and even parents and schools, as well as between municipalities, must be established in order to mitigate variance and inequalities. Stronger central government authority over educational priority funding will be critical for at-risk groups, either in the form of targeted central budgets, or in terms of regulatory power over municipal education outlays (OECD, 2005).

In examining the proper ways of implementing gender inclusive educational policy strategies, AU (2006) maintained the need to establish a strong and effective mechanisms for monitoring and evaluation. They believed that any effective strategy implementation incorporates the development of gender sensitive training and



mainstreaming, promotion and preservation of positive cultural values, development of strategy for resource mobilization, documentation of events for review and sharing, and establishment of a review committee for monitoring.

### **2.5.1 Guidance and Counselling**

Jackson (2015) advocates for guidance and counselling in schools as it is in adolescence that the students begin to think more seriously about their future careers and education. This is based on the notion that schools are in a better position to glean comprehensive and reliable information concerning an individual, that is his/her health and scholastic records and general intelligent that has the capacity to transform the individual to greatness. This position is equally shared by Chikwature and Oyedele (2016) that there is the need to include guidance and counselling in the educational curriculum of the schools because of its importance. To them, a well-planned guidance and counselling can provide assistance to individual boys and girls in deciding upon their future careers and education and other personal problems. Guidance and counselling is an instrument which should be used and encouraged by both teachers and school administrators to motivate learners.

However, Makore-Rukuni (2013) asserts that guidance and counselling imparts knowledge and awareness of foreseen circumstances that may not be helpful for a person to take rightful decision that may be good for him/her. He advocates that guidance and counselling has a negative effect on students since students can become obsessive and can neglect everything else, like their social life, family and friends. It denies students' desire to follow their hearts' pre leading that everything



else said by the counsellor is true and what they think and wish for does not exist. It is doubtful if indeed guidance and counselling can be classified as irrelevant, looking at its contributions to individuals and societal development.

In related studies, it was revealed that guidance and counselling departments are ineffective in enhancing school discipline. Guidance and counselling teachers are inadequately trained, motivated and faced with many challenges such as lack of facilities and financial support by school administration, conflict with school discipline policy and lack of clear government policies to guide guidance and counselling services in secondary schools (Kamore & Tiego 2015; Mlalazi, Rembe, & Shumba, 2016; & Kirangari, 2014).

### **2.5.2 Culture of Respect and Dignity**

Human Dignity in the Learning Environment focuses on how to provide children with tools to prevent problems from starting, dealing with the problems that occur and creating a milieu conducive to learning (Tuomi, 2016). It is generally acceptable as the fundamental principle of respect for the dignity of persons. Students certainly feel the need for a just environment in schools so as to maximise the benefits of peace to concentrate on their academic endeavours. It is therefore incumbent on school authorities to be committed to the realisation of this dream by pursuing school policies and programmes that protect the dignity and rights of all students. Respect for the dignity of all persons in the school environment encompasses the ethical obligation to ensure fairness, non-discrimination, safety and justice (Jacob, Decker, & Lugg, 2016). All forms of harassment that impede on students participation should be



reduced. However, most of the punishment meted out to students for violation of rules and regulations tend to derail and deprive them of their human dignity.

### **2.5.3 Re-Admission of Teenage Mother after giving Birth**

According to Brady et al. (2012), teenage motherhood is a situation in which a girl in her teenage years becomes a mother as a result of getting pregnant. Teenage motherhood is a worldwide concern affecting both developed and developing countries and is a complex reality of contemporary society (Lucker, 2010). Teenage motherhood continues to limit girls and young women from participating in education and is the leading reason girls give for dropping out of school. Zachry (2005) as cited in Barmao-Kiptanui, Kindiki, and Lelan (2015) found that supporting teenage mothers in their academic endeavours may be the step that will help them gain the education and skills they need to build a successful future for themselves and their children.

### **2.5.4 Affirmative Action**

Martiniello as cited in Alothman and Mishra (2014) highlights Affirmative Action as a broad set of social policies aimed at reversing historical trends that have located minority groups in disadvantaged positions mainly in work, education and political institutions. To Kurtulus (2013), the principal objective of Affirmative Action policies is to equalize opportunities and raise minority representation across workplaces and educational institutions as well as fight racism and other racial disparities. Thus Affirmative action in this regard is a set of measures adopted by educational institutions to address a historical imbalances and exclusion of particular social groups or to encourage the efforts of particular social groups in the interests of certain development goals in that institution.



According to Tsikata (2009), affirmative action measures to improve educational imbalances have not been effective as a result of institutional weaknesses. A situation exacerbated by the fact that the underpinning for affirmative action is not shared or properly understood. This creates fatigue and resistance among the political and bureaucratic classes and the general population towards affirmative action programmes. Burger and Jafta (2010) presented a similar view that in fact, there is evidence to suggest that Affirmative Action has failed to reduce the employment or wage gap, and that discrimination still exists. The Ministry of Education was to designate more schools in rural areas as science centres to enable more students, especially girls to benefit from science education. The coverage of the Science Clinics for girls was to be increased and the campaign on the need to educate girls and retain them in school to enable them acquire the skills to compete on an equal footing with men in the labour market was also to be intensified. A special fund in a form of Scholarship schemes was to be set up for girls' education to address the needs of girls from poor families (Tsikata, 2009).



### **2.5.5 Regular In-Service Training for Teachers on Gender**

The quality, status, and performance of teaching profession are boosted through professional development of the teachers (Tariq & Jumani, 2016). It organizes teachers' continuous learning, exchange of successful ideas and observations and construction of reciprocal feedback with colleagues that groom their trust and commitment (Meirink, Imants, Meijer & Verloop, 2010) and to improve students' educational achievements, assessment techniques, specific behaviour, and parents participation and professional development of teachers (Mazur & Doran, 2010).

It was concluded that the in-service training was ineffective for developing values of collaborating with other teaching colleagues for the improvement of the practices (Tariq & Jumani, 2016).

It was established by Kosgei (2015) and Safi (2015) that most of the teachers fell short of the expected expertise for their line of duty. This is an indication of the need for more in-service training for serving teachers, especially on gender related issues in the schools. The study also recognized many factors hindering teachers' participation in the existing staff development and training programmes. Lack of professional trainers and funds were the predominant issues affecting effective implementation of the programme.

Many schools do not set aside enough funds to cater for the teachers' participation in staff development programs. The study recommends that in-service training should be structured, regularized, institutionalized and made compulsory for all teachers. According to Pirmehtar and Omidian (2014) in-service training should be continuous, increase teachers' job skills, and provide the basis for knowledge. Competences of teachers acquired through the initial education are seen as insufficient for the challenges awaiting them in the education system. This has a direct impact on the in-service training needs of novice teachers who need additional knowledge and skills, particularly in the areas of pedagogy, psychology, didactics, teaching methodology and assessment of learning outcomes with gender lens (Musset, 2010)





### 2.5.6 Gender Friendly Teaching Methods and Practices

In examining the measures to enhance effective teaching of students in an inclusive setting, (Department of Education and Science, 2007, p.105.) as cited in Winter and O’Raw, (2010) revealed that teachers as a matter of professionalism should adhere to the application of teaching principles outlined by the council which includes a variety of teaching strategies and approaches, clear learning objectives outlined at the beginning of the lesson, reference made to them during the lesson, and a review with the students of what has been learned at the end of the lesson. Formative assessment strategies for identifying the students’ progress that are used to help inform teaching approaches, and the content of lessons should match the needs of the students in terms of their levels of ability, materials, including concrete materials appropriate to their ages, interests, and aptitudes of the students. Appropriate time should be allowed for practice, reinforcement, and application of new knowledge and skills in practical situations so as to reinforce and affirm knowledge and skills learned.



Opportunities should be taken throughout the curriculum to develop personal and social skills, homework is designed to consolidate and promote independent learning. Monitor individual students’ and class progress, and to evaluate the effectiveness of the teaching and learning. According to Nilson (2016) students learn better when they are actively engaged in an activity than when they passively listen to an instructor talk. Similarly, Borich (2016) maintains that teachers should plan and structure lessons to meet the interests and needs of students, and promote lessons that allow all students to be active and successful learners through activities. The teachers should use multiple methods of teaching and assessment to engage students, thus effective

teachers select an appropriate mix of instructional approaches to support particular learning objectives. All these shapes of opinions on effective teaching techniques confirm that of Orlich et al. (2016) that teachers should select content and processes of teaching on the basis of developmental appropriateness and educational equity.

### **2.5.7 Scholarships**

Scholarships are one of the avenues through which money is secured for educational funding. According to Bray and Lillis (2016) local government bodies, village development associations, religious bodies, political bodies, business organisations, alumni organizations, parent-teacher associations, board of governors, students and individuals are some major avenues or sources of funding for education. Cameron (2009) evaluates the role played by Indonesia's Social Safety Net Scholarships Program in reducing school drop-out rates during the Asian financial crisis. The expectation was that many families would find it difficult to keep their children in school and drop-out rates would be high. It emerged that scholarships were found to have been effective in reducing drop-outs at the level of schooling at which students were historically most at the risk of dropping out—lower secondary school. Kremer et al. (2009) as cited in Masino and Niño-Zarazúa (2016) indicates that a Kenyan merit-based scholarship programme awarded to primary school girls with funds to progress to secondary education, was not only effective in improving student performance but also generated positive effects among boys.

McCaig (2016) analysed the impact of reforms to the student financial support system in English higher education. Comparative analysis of financial support mechanisms and patterns of outreach engagement with groups underrepresented in higher



education was done. The findings show a marked deterioration in the levels of cash support available and an increasingly focus on the brightest poor students (in the form of merit aid) at the expense of the generality of poorer students since the new support programme came into place. The work of Gajigo (2016) estimates the impact of a school fee elimination program for female secondary students in the Gambia to reduce gender disparity in education. It was found that the program increased enrolment for secondary school female students by 5 percentage points. This is an indication of the relevance of funding for education that supports the vulnerable group of people. Scholarships should be promoted in schools to give opportunities to students especially the girl child to complete their education. Stotsky (2016) stated that governments should allocate more financial packages in their successive national budgets to boost the females in science, technical and vocational education

### **2.5.8 Gender Friendly School Facilities**

Experts have suggested that an inclusive education should be encouraged by governments by way of providing infrastructure and other facilities that enhance learning, socialization and the overall development of children (Chika, 2011). Governments around the world recognise the importance of education for economic and social development and invest large shares of their budgets in it. The main product has been the expansion of schooling all over to sustain the educational needs of society by recognizing the inclusiveness of both male and female. This is largely the result of supply-side growth, thus governments build schools and pay teachers.

This requires central government intervention in regional and community education systems. But this expansion has not reached all members of society equally (Patrinos,



2000). Other supply-side concerns such as overcrowded classrooms, lack of teaching and learning materials, and poor infrastructure are also obstacles for good learning environments (Masino & Niño-Zarazúa, 2016). It is observed by Preiser, Nasar and Fisher (2016) that schools as a matter of importance should incorporate quality architectural designs into the designs and construction of schools to make them gender sensitive. To them, this could attract quality teachers, donors, male and female students.

### **2.5.9 Gender Inclusive Extracurricular Activities**

In exploring the understanding of the concept of extracurricular activities in the schools, Bartkus et al. (2012) assert that the meaning is ambiguous depending on how the activity is performed. It is believed that extracurricular programmes provide students with the opportunity for learning that may not be available during the regular academic school day.

Extracurricular programmes enable students to explore areas of interest, develop leadership, build friendship and enhance character for development of well-rounded citizens (Schaefer, et al, 2011) and Simpkins et al. (2013). To them, extracurricular activities in the schools are too important to be ignored by schools. Miller and Almon (2009) indicate that there is a direct relationship between academic performance and positive engagement in extracurricular activities in the schools. Wood (2013) presents play as context in which children are able to demonstrate their own learning. A study by Wood (2010) questioned whether teachers are able to know if learning is actually taking place through the use of play. According to Abdulai (2016) there is the need to



incorporate traditional games into the extracurricular activities of schools because of its benefits to students' academic endeavours.

#### **2.5.10 Resources Mobilisation for Gender Programmes**

It emerged from the findings of Koramoah (2016) that social accountability mechanisms to monitor how heads of schools utilised their allocated funds are highly ineffective due to lack of transparency and weak internal controls and monitoring systems. The releases of the subsidy have been unduly delayed due to government inability to release the funds on time. The subsidy as a mechanism of financing Secondary Education in Ghana is quite inequitable; giving students with different needs the same amounts of resources. Mahuro and Hungi (2016) mentioned that for students to reap maximum benefits in an education system, the learning should not be solely left to the student–teacher relationship but should be extended to include active parental involvement among other education stakeholders. Parental involvement involves time and resource commitment towards children's academic performance.



#### **2.5.11 Proper Gender Records Keeping**

Adequate and holistic record keeping of the human and material resources is needed to address the issue of ever-increasing enrolment in the schools. The intricacies in school management, its constraints, contingencies, and other difficulties make gender records keeping a necessity (Ololube, 2011). School managers rely on the short and long-term data captured in records to make effective decisions about immediate issues and more comprehensive school policies such as gender trend analysis with respect to issues like re-admission and transfers of teenage mothers, enrolment, achievement and

completion rates (Okpetu & Peretomode, 1995). Ibara (2010) asserts that without records there can be no accountability.

He further maintains that quality performance, task accomplishment, and measurable outcomes are increasingly important responsibilities, all of which depend on the accessibility of usable records. According to Osakwe (2011), school records are official documents, books and files containing essential and crucial information of actions and events which are kept and preserved in the school office for utilization and retrieval as needed. Such records are kept by principals, teachers, counsellors and administrative staff. According to Oloolube (2013), school records comprise all existing and accessible records, books, files and other documents containing useful information that relates to what goes on in the school system.

These records may also be in the form of reports, letters, memos, pictures, films, journals, diaries, among others. Thus school records include those pertaining to personal details of students, along with those of their academic performance; assessments and examination results; school policies; minutes of school-based meetings; including information received from Ministries of education and other education bodies, solicitors, press organisations and public bodies. Again, Oloolube (2013, p. 103) says that “the importance of good record keeping transcends into short and long term benefits and affects the overall achievement of educational objectives”. Records provide raw data that enable coherent, balanced and objective decisions on issues such as promotion, student and staff discipline, and teaching and learning performances.



The scarce resources in schools may be wasted if their utilization and underutilization is not properly recorded (Usen, Udofia, & Offiong, 2012; Ololube, 2009). The purpose of record keeping for effective school management is to ensure that accurate and proper records are kept of student achievement and growth, school activities and matters that will promote school efficiency and effectiveness (Akanbi, 1999). It emerged from the findings of Amanchukwu and Ololube (2015) that poor records management in the schools results in difficulties in administering, development and supervision of educational systems. In fact, poor school records management and the lack of staff development with regards to the entire information cycle are responsible for a number of management and policy implementation problems in schools.

## **2.6 The Threats of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

The threats linked to the implementation of gender inclusive education are multifaceted. They are both external and internal in nature (Pivik, et al., 2002). Pivik, et al. explained that the external barriers are confronted before coming to and getting enrolled in schools, which includes physical location of schools, non-availability of schools, social stigmatization or economic conditions of the learners, while the internal barriers are mostly imposed by the external factors on the teaching and learning process.

According to Baric and Bouchie (2011), the internal factors impeding the realization of gender inclusive education include proportion of female teachers, proportion of teachers trained/sensitized to gender issues, poor teaching, incidence of gender insensitive behaviour in a classroom, harassment or insecurity in schools, quality and



quantity of hygiene facilities, malnutrition, and proportion of schools with female leadership involved in school management. This view is equally shared by Ramachandran (2009) in identifying the barriers to gender inclusive education. In a similar vein, Berhanu (2011) is of the view that the ideals of neo-liberal philosophies that place greater emphasis on devolution, marketization, competition, standardization, individual choices and rights, development of new profiles within particular school units, among other factors threaten the values of diversity, equity and inclusion.

The National Gender Policy of Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection [MoGCSP] (2015) outlined some challenges to the implementation of gender inclusive policies which include competing government priorities and political will to disburse resources needed to implement gender programmes, lack of coordination as a result of budgetary constraints, lack of professional knowledge, expertise, and understanding of gender sensitive issues, socio-cultural, traditional beliefs and socialization that set the stage for discrimination, slow implementation and enforcement of laws against women, lack of effective monitoring and evaluation systems within institutions, among others. In a related development, it was envisaged that girls face numerous difficulties in accessing education. These factors are categorized into socio-cultural factors such as child betrothal, early marriages, Female Genital Mutilation and fostering as reported by Oladeji (2010), Ouma (2013) and Keme (2015). Political and institutional factors which include funding and policies on gender issues in education as well as school based factors limit students' participation in education (IREX, n.d.).







Parents' level of education is one of the challenges to effective participation of students in educational system. Okwara (as cited in Ouma, 2013) observes that those children whose parents had received formal education tend to have positive attitude in participation in secondary education than those girls whose parents did not go to school at all. Illiterate parents are less able to assess the benefits of schooling for their children, especially, their daughters and are therefore less inclined to put their children through school. It is also observed by Ani-Asamoah (2016) that parents' educational and income levels are factors that determine the unequal opportunities among children as these resources are transferred from parents to children. However, low level of education on the part of parents is not the only factor that undermines the education of children. It may play a role among several factors which the author has failed to highlight. Fawe (2009) and Omare (2007) asserted that another socio-cultural factor that works to the disadvantage of girls is the cultural perception concerning their role in the family and society and the preference to invest in boys' education. Traditional society's predilection for boys' education confines girls' ability to access formal education systems.

Their studies further identified early marriages and pregnancies as among socio-cultural practices that exacerbate the realization of inclusive and gender sensitive education in the schools. The negative attitude of the society towards women in general and to females' education in particular has contributed to low participation of females in our educational systems especially in the SHSs. This behaviour is antithetical to liberal feminist theory which provides a guide to this study. This theory espouses the ideals of fairness in terms of roles and participation of males and females in the society. According to Kloh and Wisdom (2016) and Leach (2003), pregnancy

and child bearing has the potential to end female's school career especially when the girl child is not properly guided by their parents. The teachers in the schools are supposed to introduce the students to adolescent reproductive health education as well as guidance and counselling in order to assist them to acquire the requisite knowledge needed to enhance their retention in school. Similarly, Omare (2007) Cheplilan (2011) and FAWE (2009) maintained that in Kenya, early marriage influences children's dropout, especially, with regard to the girl child as it is perceived by parents that marrying off the girl child is an escape route from poverty.

Magwe (2006) noted that school related factors could be an important determinant of whether girls entered and remain in school. According to him, the quality of the schools, especially the courses offered and the messages about sex roles conveyed by educational materials and teachers could influence how parents as well as students make schooling decision. Au (2011), Gay (2010), and Eshiwani (2000) indicate that schools of poor quality inhibit the educational attainment of girls and affect the choices about what to study.

Aggarwal (2006), Health (2012), and Howard (2010) clarified that education is a lifelong process of development from infancy to maturity. They explained that education is regarded as a process involving the interaction of the personality of the teacher and the student in a social setting which affect the modification of the behaviour of the student. It is clear from Aggarwal et al. explanations that the teacher and the environment play an important role in educating the child at all levels of the education system. Sociologically, the teacher must also interpret the behaviour



of the child in a social setting; this implies that the interaction between the teacher and the child is crucial in the development of the child.

If a family decides to send their daughters to school, then a second set of contributing factors relating to the school may come into play to determine if they can actually get to school (school location) and remain in a high quality, safe, meaningful, and gender responsive learning environment. All these variables affect gender participation in the SHSs in Ghana. Fredman, Kuosmanen, and Campbell (2016) explained that in many parts of sub Saharan Africa, teachers continue to harass girls sexually or impede on their learning time by sending them on errands during and after school hours. Casely-Hayford (2000) and Aggarwal (2006) assertions recognized the important roles that teachers play in helping to address gender disparity in Ghana.

Studies by Schaeffer (2000) and (Jones & Chant, 2009) suggested that despite the increasing numbers of children gaining access to the formal school system, the disparity between boys and girls in SHSs in Ghana cannot be overemphasized. The authors maintained that the mixed system of education alone will not improve the achievement rates of both boys and girls in SHSs. No study has attempted to measure the impact of such stereotypes on girls in this region but one can conjuncture that the educational and occupational aspirations of girls will be those of mother and wife when those roles are portrayed as the only appropriate ones for women.

Research on the relationship between gender and achievement yields mixed results. For example, Björkman-Nyqvist (2013) found that gender was the single most important variable in explaining differences in achievement in Ugandan schools with boys performing notably better than girls. Using a national sample of secondary



school leavers in Tanzania, Björkman-Nyqvist again found that boys out-performed girls in secondary schools in almost every subject. Majority of teachers have negative perceptions on girl's education and this leads to differential treatment based on gender. A number of studies have shown that teachers have the belief that boys are more intelligent than girls and that girls are not interested in subjects such as engineering and medicine (Subrahmanian, 2002). This corresponds with Scott et al. (2017) and Samuel (2000) who noted that schools propagate a "hidden curriculum" which is operational in the school environment and seen in the differential treatment given to boys and girls and roles each is assigned. Females are advised to take undemanding subjects such as history and languages and boys tough subjects like Mathematics and Physical Sciences (Ganley, et al., 2013).

This is an example of fortification of gender roles by schools as argued by the Harvard framework of gender analysis where educational organizations reinforce gender discrimination and stereotyping. Teachers give priority to boys when allocating textbooks and when facilities such as desks are not enough, boys get the priority. There are also cases of maltreatment by teachers who also give girls little or no attention (FAWE 2001). This differential treatment is an indication that teachers are not adequately trained to provide gender-sensitive education (Zaman, 2008). Achola and Pillai (2016) identified poor training of teachers as a major contributing factor to low enrolment of girls. It is argued that textbooks further portray sex roles by references to women and men in the roles they play in the society, the work they do and the traits that characterize them. According to Persson (2016) and Persson (2016), textbooks and other learning materials have perpetuated a stereotyped view that woman have little contribution to the economy. It is interesting to note



that teachers in Ghana are reported as saying that girls feel and act inferior to boys and that there is a common belief that boys do better in school work.

UNICEF (2012) noted that distance to school is a hindrance to school enrolment to both children and parents. A study conducted by this organization in Ghana indicates a correlation between distance to school and girls school attendance. This is also corroborated by Subrahmanian (2002) who found distance as a formidable barrier to girls' education. Distance to school brings about some concerns; there is insecurity of girls' seen in the exposure to attacks and thus, parents have concerns about the sexual safety of their daughters and attacks by bandits in the remote areas of Ghana. The study by Subrahmanian is further supported by the World Bank report (2001) and UNICEF (2012).

In a nutshell, it is observed among others that lack of access to scholarships, no proper guidelines for providing a need-based curriculum, inaccessible schools and local transport, lack of awareness and educational facilities that support gender, no clear guidelines on gender inclusive education or concrete commitments in terms of budget allocation and shortage of trained staff and resourced teachers are some of the major glitches still existing in the implementation of gender inclusive strategies in most countries around the globe including Ghana (Rieser, 2012).

### **2.7 The Opportunities of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies**

In spite of the challenges and threats that undermine the effective implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies, there are some potential opportunities and prospects that are worth examining. These opportunities exist at both the individual



and family level as well as the community and country level. Hehir et al. (2016) postulates that gender inclusive education can provide a range of academic and social benefits for students, such as improving rates of high school graduation, and developing more positive relationships among students.

According to IREX (n.d.) and Power (2015), gender inclusive education develops the potential of all children, improves confidence, quality of education, effective learning, employment and income earning opportunities, poverty reduction, healthier mothers and children, inter-generational education effects, social development, and promotes civic participation. In a similar vein, UNICEF (2005) and Tuwor and Sossou (2008) observed that educated women are less likely to die in childbirth; more likely to have healthy babies; more likely to send their children to school; are better able to protect their children and themselves from HIV/AIDS, trafficking and sexual exploitation; and are more likely to contribute fully to political, social and economic development.

This report by UNICEF failed to appreciate that it is not always the case that educated women excel in all these factors enumerated above. There are instances where educated women die during childbirth and also have been affected by a myriad of diseases including HIV/AIDS. It was also observed by Chandler-Olcott and Kluth (2009) that inclusive education has benefits for all members of the classroom community including the teachers who are positioned as inquirers. It is also recognized by Jacob & Olisaemeka (2016) that tolerance, sociability, positive attitude and respect are the values of implementing gender inclusive education. This is in consonance with the proposal of Winter & O'Raw, (2010) that gender inclusive education not only offer students an opportunity to participate effectively in and



contribute more fully in classroom activities and complete assignments independently but also allow positive interaction to a greater extent with their typical peers, improving social skills and enhancing acceptance.

OECD (2011) recognized that reducing persistent gender inequalities is necessary not only for reasons of fairness and equity but also out of economic necessity. Greater economic opportunities for women will help to increase labour productivity, and higher female employment will widen the base of taxpayers and contributors to social protection systems which will come under increasing pressure due to population ageing. More gender diversity would help promote innovation and competitiveness even in business. It is also upheld by Mrunalini and Vijayan (2014) that gender inclusive education avoids wasting resources, and “shattered hopes,” which often occurs in classrooms that are one size fits all. Studies have shown that systems that are truly inclusive reduce drop-out rates and repetition of grades, and have higher average levels of achievement, compared to systems that are not inclusive.

According to Ogaro (2015) an increase in access, retention and quality of education relative to the national population is critical to social economic growth and productivity, increased individual earning and subsequently reduced income inequalities. It also contributes significantly to improved health, reduction of poverty, enhanced democracy, good governance and effective leadership. As the time frame for achieving the Millennium Development Goal of 2005 for gender parity in primary and secondary education elapsed, Societies have begun to experience some positive results with regards to gender participation in education.



In terms of actual achievements on the ground, UNICEF (2005) postulates that there has been growth in enrolment, and all the data show that girls' enrolment has risen faster than boys' enrolment in most countries which is a laudable idea for development. Even though there are still some gaps to be filled, some countries have made progress, in terms of overall increase in enrolment, as well as in closing the gender gap. The study further mentioned that the major success story is the fact that gender inclusive education as a phenomenon is now viewed as topmost priority in many agendas at the national level. UNICEF maintained that advanced nations have increased their investments in less developed nations as a result of their adherence to gender parity and gender issues. In most cases, gender parity issues are used as one of the conditions for supporting countries. In a similar vein, Annan (2001) mentioned that there is also a growing concern of democratic participation among nations since it is the surest way of investing in basic services that benefit children. Berhanu (2011) reported that the Swedish system of education offers a possibility for youngsters who fail at some stage to move on into further education via individual or tailored programs.

It is also observed by Union (2006) that the extent of prospects of gender inclusive education depends on the level of advocacy tools for resources mobilization in order to reduce gender disparities in access, retention and performance in basic and secondary school levels. However, Lewis (2014) asserted that even though enrolment rates in primary and secondary schools have improved considerably, many children are still deprived of their right to quality education. According to Salend (2015) gender inclusive education provides a better quality education for all children and is instrumental in changing discriminatory attitudes which enable the development of





social relationships and interactions among students. Respect and understanding grow when students of diverse abilities and backgrounds play, socialize, and learn together. Salend (2015) further explains that an inclusive education espouses the concepts of civic participation, employment, and community life.

## **2.8 Studies on Gender Inclusive Education**

Several researches have been conducted on gender participation in teaching and learning process. These studies have been variously conducted by various researchers whose purposes were varied but similar. The first of such studies discussed under this review is that of Alhassan (2013). Alhassan's study was titled "gender access gap: factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the northern region of Ghana". A cross-sectional design and exploratory procedure were the research designs adopted for the study. Multi-stage cluster sampling technique was used to select the respondents and both questionnaires and interview guides were used for the data collection.

However, considering the large population size of the Northern Region (2,479,461) according to Ghana Statistical Service (2012), where Alhassan studied, the sample size of 291 and how they were selected is not representative. Alhassan (2013) found among other things that socio-economic factors such as households' income, resources, household chores, market days and cost associated with schooling have affected females' enrolment and attendance more than males. It also came out evidently clear that large class size, and teacher absenteeism in many instances discouraged females from attending school more than males.

In a similar vein, Lambert, Perrino and Barreras (2012) conducted a study on the topic "Understanding the barriers to female education in Ghana". The study adopted both



quantitative survey data and qualitative interview data. A sample of 130 students participated in the study, among which 69 females and 61 males were selected for the study. Once again, Lambert, Perrino and Barreras failed to provide the population size from which the sample size of 130 was selected. For that matter, there is difficulty in ascertaining the representativeness of the sample. There is also the likelihood of misinterpretation of information as the assistance of translators were sought to interpret the questionnaires in the students' local language. Lambert, Perrino and Barreras (2012) similarly found out among others that poverty, harassment, and cultural mind-set are the factors that devalue female education. Students frequently cited lack of money as a hindrance to continuing their education, female students often undergo uncomfortable harassment from their male peers and teachers, which creates an unwelcome environment at school, and discourages the girls from attending school and a pervasive mind-set in Ghanaian culture that undermines the value of female education and of women in general.

Again, Columbia, Kadzamira and Moleni (2007) also conducted a qualitative study on school-related gender-based violence in Malawi. The purpose of the study was to create safe environments for both girls and boys that promote gender-equitable relationships and reduce school-related gender based violence (SRGBV) by working in partnership with children, youth, parents, teachers, schools and communities. 952 pupils participated in the study. The focus group discussions included more than 2,000 participants. In addition, 370 key informants including traditional leaders, initiation counsellors, members of school management committees and parent teacher associations, head teachers, government Primary Education Advisers, religious



leaders, members of the school disciplinary committees (where these existed) and club patrons were interviewed.

Even though the sample size was large, the study failed to indicate how the participants were selected for the study. There was no clue on the population that the sample was taken, hence raises doubt on the representativeness of the sample size. Columbia et al. (2007) found out from their study that was supported by the literature they reviewed that when asked to discuss the effect of SRGBV on victims, boys and girls indicated that pupils drop out of school from fear of punishment that can be categorized as SRGBV and, in the case of girls, they experience further consequences for refusing teachers' propositions, and in some cases attempted rape.

Echoing students' perspectives, the majority of teachers agreed that high absenteeism and dropping out were common outcomes of gender-based violence in schools. Pupils identified the most common form of abuse in schools as corporal punishment. This includes caning, whipping, painful touching and assigning harsh physical labour (for example, digging a hole for a latrine or uprooting a tree stump).

Moreover, Mkuchu (2009) undertook a study on "Gender roles in textbooks as a function of hidden curriculum" in Tanzania primary schools. The objectives of the study were to explore in textbooks the presence of gender biased language; investigate the extent to which and in what forms power relations between female and male characters are reflected in textbooks; examine the means, strategies and programmes that have been put in place by institutions charged with the production of textbooks; and to establish baseline data in the analysis of the depiction of gender



roles in textbooks that would be used in future to guide in textbook writing or research on the depiction of gender roles.

Mkuchu's study design was based on a Liberal Feminist Framework, using content analysis method to examine the extent to which gender roles had been portrayed in the 40 textbooks in the six subjects taught in Tanzanian government primary schools. Interviews were also employed to examine mechanisms instituted by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) and Publishers to ensure that the production of textbooks is not gender biased. However, the use of content analysis from textbooks alone does not give a comprehensive analysis of gender bias or inequality in educational system.

There are other factors such as pedagogy, classroom interaction structure, extracurricular activities and students' counselling services; which have a bearing on gender role acquisition but ignored. Mkuchu (2009) found out among other things that female compared to male characters were being underrepresented in frequency of appearance and power related aspects such as leadership, ownership of property and association with technology, leisure and sports activities; the depiction of reproductive and productive roles is biased into traditional femininity and masculinity; gender biased language is minimal; and personality traits are differentiated between traditional masculinity and femininity groupings; and the mechanisms to eliminate gender stereotyping in producing textbooks are inadequate as the emphasis is on producing textbooks that matched with the official curriculum.



Also, Amoako (2015) investigated the perceptions of tutors in colleges of education in Ghana on pre-service teacher preparation for effective inclusive education. The purpose of the study was to examine the extent to which teacher trainees are equipped with inclusive-oriented knowledge, skills and attitudes to manage individuals in an inclusive education setting. A descriptive survey design was adopted using a sample of 235 tutors from 13 Colleges of Education in Ghana. The colleges were drawn from Central, Ashanti and Brong Ahafo regions. The lottery method was used to select three regions out of ten and the purposive sampling technique was used to select all the Colleges within the three regions, while convenience sampling technique was used to select the actual respondents for the study. Questionnaire was used to gather the research data. Percentages and frequencies were used as statistical tools to analyse the data.

Amoako (2015) revealed that the curriculum offered in Colleges of Education in Ghana enabled pre-service teachers to identify and assess children with special educational needs. It also equipped pre-service teachers with the skills to manage children with special educational needs in inclusive classroom. However, from the findings, pre-service teachers had difficulties collaborating with other professionals and parents in managing children with special educational needs in the inclusive classroom. It was therefore recommended that measures that could help pre-service teachers to effectively and efficiently collaborate with parents and other professionals should be put in place. From this review, it could be seen that Alhassan (2013) and Lambert, et al. (2012) have all used similar research design (mixed method) to gather data from their respondents.



However, Columbia et al. (2007) and Mkuchu (2009) employed qualitative design, while Amoako (2015) on the other hand used descriptive survey design. All of these researches agreed to the fact that there is unhealthy gender participation in the teaching and learning process as a result of several factors. Again, the review points out that most researchers employed the mixed method approach for the studies into gender participation in the teaching and learning process. Bryman (2012) argues that mixed method approach ensures the completeness of data gathering. Therefore, the same approach will be used to investigate the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies in the SHSs in Berekum Municipality.



## CHAPTER THREE

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### 3.1 An Overview

This chapter presents the research methodology. Research methodology entails a systematic and objective process of planning, gathering, analysing and reporting of data, which may be used to solve a specific problem or exploit an opportunity facing an organisation (Creswell, 2013). This section essentially covers information on the profile of the study area and the research methodology highlighting the research design, the target population, sample size and sampling techniques, sources of data, data collection instruments and procedure, data analysis and research ethics.

#### 3.2 The Study Area

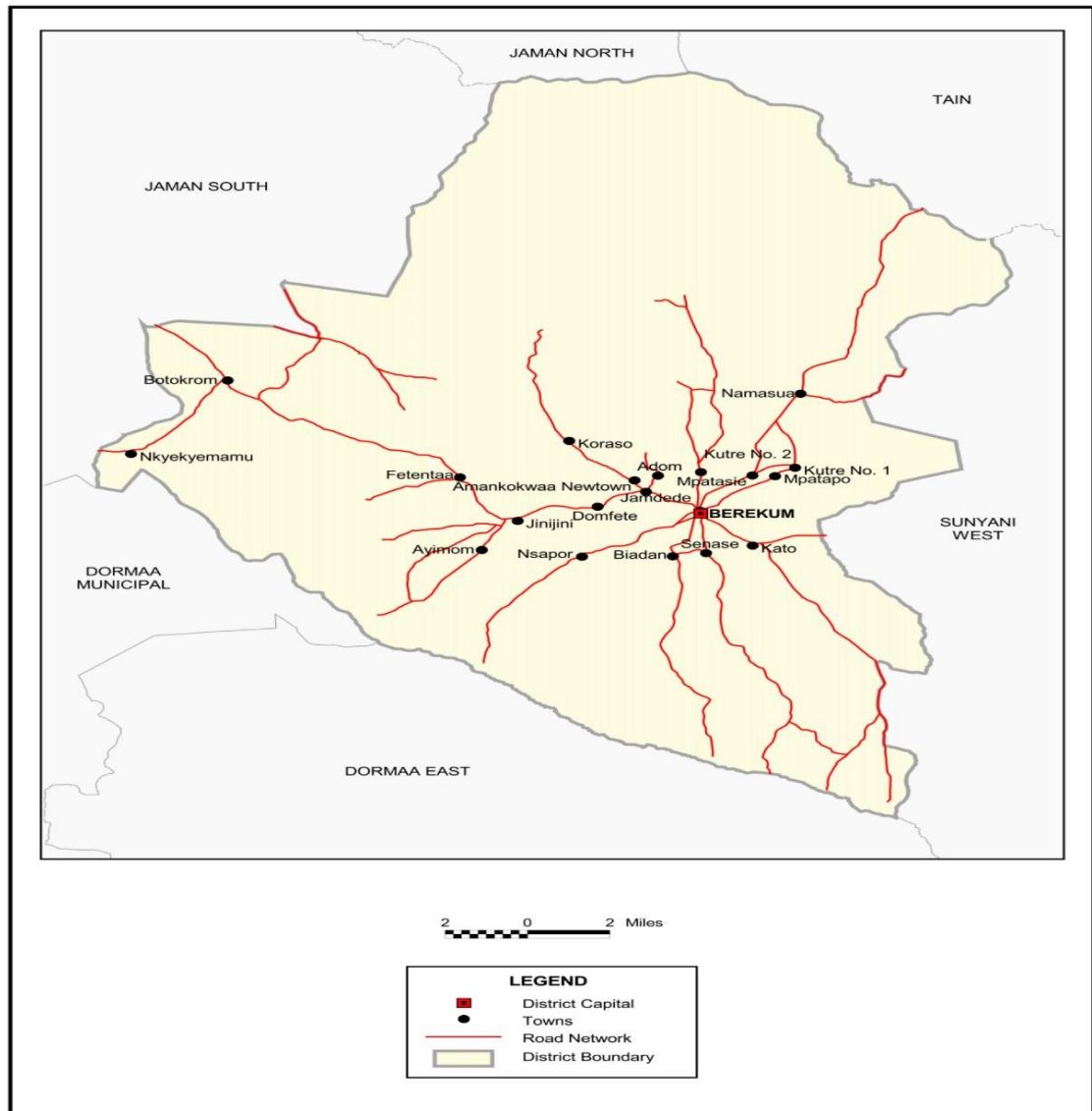
The study was conducted in Berekum Municipality of Brong Ahafo region of Ghana where the need for gender inclusion in education is crucial. Berekum Municipality is one of the twenty-seven (27) administrative districts of the Brong Ahafo Region. It was established by Legislative Instrument (LI) 1874 of 1988. Berekum serves as both the traditional and administrative capital of the Municipality.

The town is strategically located where roads from Sunyani, Dormaa, Drobo and Seikwa meet. It lies between latitude 7°15 South and 8°00 North and longitude 2°2 East and 2°50 West. Berekum Municipality lies in the North-western corner of the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana. The Municipality covers a total land area of about 863.3q.km. It is bordered to the North-east and North-west by Tain District and Jaman South Districts respectively, South-west by Dormaa East District and to the



South-east is Sunyani West District (BMA report, 2013). The major ethnic group is the Akan with Mole-Dagbani, Guan and other ethnic groups coexisting peacefully.

**DISTRICT MAP OF BEREKUM**



**Figure 1: District Map of Berekum**

**Source: Berekum Municipal Assembly**

The population of Berekum Municipality, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, is 129,628 representing 5.6 per cent of the region's total population.

Males constitute 46.2 per cent and females represent 53.8 per cent. More than half



(65.5%) of the municipality's population live in the urban areas. About two-fifth (41.6%) of the population of the municipality is youthful (0-14 years) depicting a broad base population pyramid which tapers off with a small number of elderly persons (3.7%). The total age dependency ratio for the municipality is 74.8, and males have a higher dependency ratio of 82.8 compared to females who have a dependency ratio of 68.4.

One of the pertinent issues affecting the development of Municipality which needs to be addressed is education. Berekum Municipality of Brong Ahafo region was selected for this study because it is among the districts in the region with the highest population of children between the ages of 3 and 18 years who were out of school in 2010 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). In a study on the reasons for the high rate of school dropouts in Asutifi District of the Brong Ahafo region, Imoro (2009) identified poverty, shortage of teachers, broken homes and single parenthood, teenage pregnancy, peer influence, unattractive school environment, poor examination results and poor image of school due to poor academic performance, as the main causes.

Moreover, being centrally located, the population of this Municipality is generally heterogeneous, comprising people from all over the country. Hence the views of study participants will provide a fair understanding of how gender inclusive practices are being implemented in the senior high schools in the Municipality (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012).



### **3.2.1 Features of the Municipality**

The Total Fertility Rate for the municipality is 2.8 with a General Fertility Rate of 83.1 births per 1000 women aged 15-49 years which is above the regions rate of 105.9. The Crude Birth Rate (CBR) is 23.4 per 1000 population. The crude death rate for the municipality is 6.6 per 1000. The death rate for males is highest for age 70 and above than for females in the same age group. Accident/violence/ homicide/suicide accounted for 9.2 per cent of all deaths in the municipality. Majority of migrants (56.2%) living in the municipality were born elsewhere in the region while 42.8 per cent were born elsewhere in another region. Most migrants (23.2%), born elsewhere in another region were born in the Ashanti Region.

#### **Household Size, Composition and Structure**

The municipality has a household population of 125,803 with a total number of 31,129 households. The average household size in the municipality is 4 persons per household. Children constitute the largest proportion of the household structure accounting for 40.4 per cent. The nuclear households system (head, spouse(s) and children) constitute 22.8 per cent of the total number of households in the municipality.

#### **Marital Status**

About four in ten (38.7%) of the population aged 12 years and older are married, 45.7 per cent have never married, 5.0 per cent are in consensual union, 4.7 per cent are widowed, 4.8 per cent are divorced and 1.4 per cent are separated. Among the married, 23.4 per cent have no education while about 4.7 per cent of the never married have never been to school. About 8 in 10 (82.5%) of the married population are



employed, 4.2 per cent are unemployed and 13.4 per cent are economically not active.

### **Literacy and Education**

Of the population 11 years and above, 83.5 per cent are literate and 16.5 per cent are non-literate. The proportion of literate females (52.2%) is slightly higher than that of males (47.8%). Seven out of ten people (77.3%) could read and write both English and Ghanaian languages. Of the population aged 3 years and above in the municipality, 14.1 per cent has never attended school, 45.0 per cent are currently attending and 40.9 per cent have attended in the past. The municipality also has the following facilities: kindergarten (96), primary (93), JHS (74), SHS (8), a College of Education, and a Nursing Training College (BMA, 2013).

### **Occupation and Economic Activities**

About 67.3 per cent of the population aged 15 years and older is economically active while 32.8 per cent is economically inactive. Of the economically active population, 92.3 per cent are employed while 7.7 per cent are unemployed. For those who are economically inactive, 60.4 per cent are students, 18.8 per cent perform household duties and 4.1 per cent are disabled or too sick to work. Of the employed population, 43.4 per cent are engaged as skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers, 22.4 per cent as service and sales workers, 12.8 per cent in craft and related trade, and 10.0 per cent are engaged as managers, professionals, and technicians.



## **Employment Status and Sector**

Sixty- three point three per cent of persons aged 15 years and above out of the total population in the Municipality are self-employed without employees. Employees constitute 17.6 per cent, 6.0 per cent are contributing family workers, 1.4 per cent are casual workers and 0.5 per cent are domestic employees (house helps). Overall, men constitute the highest proportion in each employment category except for self-employed without employees, contributing family workers and apprentice. The private informal sector is the largest employer in the municipality, employing 86.6 per cent of the population followed by the public sector with 7.1 per cent and the private informal engaging 5.8 per cent.

## **Agriculture**

More than half (57.0%) of households in the municipality are engage in agriculture. In the rural localities, seven out of ten households (73.0%) are agricultural households while in the urban localities, 49.9 per cent of households are into agriculture. Most households in the municipality (97.6%) are involved in crop farming. Poultry (chicken) is the dominant animal reared in the district.

## **Housing**

The housing stock of Berekum Municipality is 16,905 representing 5.1 per cent of the total number of houses in the Brong Ahafo Region. The average household size in the municipality is 4.0.



### 3.3 Research Design

Convergence mixed method design was adopted for the study. This enabled the researcher to gain insight into how gender inclusive education strategies are being implemented in the senior high schools in the Berekum Municipality. Convergence mixed method design is where by the researcher converges or merges quantitative and qualitative data in order to provide a comprehensive analysis of the research problem (Creswell, 2009). Mixed methods research has become an increasingly used and accepted approach to conducting social research (Bryman, 2012). The method was adopted for this study because both the questionnaires and interview guide were used. Quantitatively, questionnaires were given out to the students and teachers whereas qualitatively, interview guides were used to solicit information from various headmasters and education officers.

This design has been adopted due to its ability to provide answers to a broader and more complete range of research questions because the researcher is not confined to a single method or approach (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Again, mixed-methods can provide stronger evidence for a study's conclusions through convergence and corroboration of findings (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Thus, the main rationale for the use of mixed methods for this study is for the sake of completeness of data gathering, in that a more comprehensive picture would be generated (Bryman, 2012).

It is also believed that the inherent biases in any single method could be neutralized through mixed method approach (Jick, as cited in Creswell, 2009). Also, mixed methods design allows the use of triangulation to collect data to answer the research



questions posed. In triangulation, two or more data collection instruments are administered within the same time frame (Bryman, 2012, Sarantakos, 2013) to gather data. Some of the instruments used to gather data in a mixed methods design include questionnaires and interviews.

### 3.4 Target Population

In social research, the researcher always has an interest in a group of people from whom data is gathered and conclusions drawn. According to Babbie (2005), the population for a study is that group (usually of people) about whom we want to draw conclusions. The target population for this study comprised education officers, all students (i.e. SHS 2 & SHS 3), teachers and headmasters/mistresses of the senior high schools in the Berekum Municipality. Table 3.1 gives details of the population.

**Table 3.1: Distribution of the Study Population.**

Schools	No. of Stds	No. of Trs	Total
Berekum SHS	1077	72	1149
Presby SHS	1422	86	1508
Jinijini SHS	1439	80	1519
Methodist SHS/TECH	750	57	807
Grand total	4688	295	4983

**Source: Municipal Education Office, Berekum 2016. Note: Stds=Students, Trs=Teachers.**

### 3.5 Sample size

A sample size, according to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) can be determined in two ways, either by the researcher exercising prudence and ensuring that the



sample represents the wider features of the population or by using a table which forms a mathematical formula. On the basis of this, the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for determining sample size was used. In all, 520 respondents (355 students and 165 teachers) were selected for the study according to Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table, in addition to 4 headmasters and 3 education officers, making a total sample size of 527 respondents.

### **3.6 Sampling Techniques**

Sampling techniques provide a range of methods that enable a researcher to reduce the amount of data needed to be collected by considering only data from a subgroup rather than all possible cases or elements (Saunders et al. 2007). In order to get the respondents, both probability and non-probability sampling methods were employed. Purposive sampling technique of non-probability sampling was used to select both education officers and the headmasters. With purposive sampling, the researcher uses his or her own judgment about who to include in the sample based on certain characteristics (Payne & Payne, 2004; Babie, 2010; Osuala, 2005). The headmasters and education officers are involved in the implementation of gender inclusive strategies. They also have knowledge of the existing educational facilities that support or impede gender inclusion in the schools. Therefore their selection for involvement in the study was due to the position they held and special information they could provide for this study.

The simple random sampling technique of probability sampling was employed to select 355 students for the study. Firstly, a list of all the four (4) SHS in the Berekum Municipality was obtained from the Berekum Municipal Education Office. Secondly,



the numbers of all the students in each school were obtained. The third phase involved proportional allocation of the sample size among each school such that schools with large population size obtained large sample size (i.e. the total population of students in each school was divided by the total population for all four SHS and the result was multiplied by the total sample size of 355 students for the study). This procedure was applied to all the four (4) SHSs until the total sample of students for each school was obtained.

Finally, stratified sampling technique was applied to select the students from their respective schools. Here, the population in each school was stratified into two, thus males consisted of one stratum and females another stratum, after which individual respondents were then selected from the strata with the help of lottery method of simple random sampling technique. Simple random sampling technique gives equal opportunity to participants to be selected (Sarantakos, 2013).

In selecting the teachers for the study, the simple random sampling technique was employed to select 165 teachers for the study. Firstly, a list of all the four (4) SHS in the Berekum Municipality was obtained from the Berekum Municipal Education Office. Secondly, a list of all the teachers in each school was obtained. The third phase involved proportional allocation of the sample size among each school such that schools with large population size obtained large sample size (i.e. the total population of teachers in each school was divided by the total population for all four SHS and the result was multiplied by the total sample size of 165 teachers for the study). This procedure was applied to all the four (4) SHS until the total sample of teachers for each school was obtained. Finally, stratified sampling technique was applied to select





the teachers from their respective schools. Here, the population in each school was stratified into two that is males consisted of one stratum and females another stratum, after which individual respondents were then selected from the strata with the help of lottery method of simple random sampling technique. Simple random sampling technique gives equal opportunity to participants to be selected.

The procedure used in the lottery method is as follows: the researcher first identified a sampling frame for both teachers and students. The sampling frame for the teachers was a staff list while class register represented the students' sampling frame. The researcher assigned numbers to all the names on both registers (students and teachers), and asked students to pick the numbers randomly from the container one at a time without looking into it after the papers were mixed up.

The researcher recorded the name of the students and teachers selected and when a paper was selected and recorded, it was thrown back into the container before the next one was picked. This process continued until all the required respondents were selected for the study. Table 3.2 gives details of the selected samples from the various schools.



**Table 3.2: Details of Sample**

Schools	No. of Stds	No. of Trs	Proportional share With 165 and 355 resp.		No. of Male Trs.	No. of Female Trs.	No. of male Stds	No. of female Stds
Berekum SHS	1077	72	40	82	21	19	42	40
Presby SHS	1422	86	48	108	25	23	55	53
Jinijini SHS	1439	80	45	109	23	22	55	54
Methodist SHS/TECH	750	57	32	56	18	14	28	28
<b>Grand Total</b>	<b>4688</b>	<b>295</b>	<b>165</b>	<b>355</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>180</b>	<b>175</b>

**Source: Municipal Education Office, Berekum 2016. Note: Stds=Students, Trs = Teachers.**

### 3.7 Sources of Data

The study relied on both primary and secondary sources to assess the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies in the Senior High Schools. Primary data according to Malhotra and Birks (2007) is a data originated by the researcher for the specific purpose of addressing the research problem. It is what the researcher originally collects from the sample or target population. In this study, the primary sources of data came from the field mostly termed as field information. This included answers that came from questionnaires administered and interviews to relevant respondents who were involved in teaching and learning processes.

The secondary data on the other hand is a data collected for some purposes other than the problem at hand (Malhotra & Birks, 2007). The secondary sources involved information gathered from other peoples' work which formed the bulk of the researcher's literature review. It includes journals, articles, paper publications,



research works (published and unpublished), books, newspapers and Periodicals, and many others on gender education that helped the study to achieve its stated objectives.

### **3.8 Data Collection Techniques**

Data was collected using both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods. Tools and techniques used included questionnaires, and semi-structured interview guides. This approach was used in order to determine how gender inclusive educational strategies are being implemented in the Senior High Schools.

#### **3.8.1 Questionnaires**

The researcher used questionnaires for the study. A questionnaire was used for the study because it offered the researcher the opportunity to sample the views of a larger population. Questionnaires were particularly suitable since gender inclusive education is a policy issue; teachers and students were free to give their views without fear of victimisation. In this way, it gave the respondents ample time to think about the answers, make reflections and organise his/her thoughts and opinions (Leedy, 2010).

The respondent may also be given space to write his/her comments and feelings which might help the researcher to get insights into the opinions of the respondents. The instrument is also cheap to use over a large geographical area. Oyedele (2011) propounded that it is a cheap and quick instrument for collecting data. Therefore, if properly distributed, the questionnaire instrument may be used to minimize the costs of carrying out a research. Leedy (2010) pointed out that the questionnaire



technique gives the respondent time to respond freely without fear of victimisation as anonymity is granted and confidentiality guaranteed.

However, according to Sarantakos (2005), questionnaires do not allow probing, prompting and clarification of questions. They do not offer opportunity for motivating the respondents to participate in the survey. Moreover, they do not provide an opportunity to collect additional data. In order to compensate for these limitations, the questionnaires were made clear and simple to read and understand. That is simple language was used to construct the items on the questionnaires to avoid ambiguity. Easy flow and logical progression was ensured in the construction of the questionnaires (Sarantakos, 1998). The questionnaires consisted of both closed-ended and open-ended questions. Two sets of questionnaires were developed for teachers and students. Each set of questionnaires comprised of four parts that is section A, B, C and section D. The Section A solicited information regarding respondents' demographic data. The Section B, C and D dealt with research questions 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively.

These sections dealt with the following variables: Gender inclusive educational practices available in SHSs in the Berekum Municipality. Both teachers and students were asked to tick either yes or no for the existence of the gender inclusive educational strategies in the schools. How are gender inclusive educational practices implemented in SHSs in the Berekum Municipality? Teachers were asked to indicate by tick whether they strongly agreed, agreed, disagreed or strongly disagreed to the implementation of the educational strategies in the schools. The benefits of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in SHSs in the Berekum



municipality? The respondents were asked to confirm with a tick the benefits of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies to students, teachers, the school and the community. The challenges of implementing gender inclusive education in SHSs in the Berekum municipality? The respondents were asked to tick the challenges facing effective implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the schools.

### **3.8.2 Interviews**

The interview was selected as appropriate method for gathering primary data from individual participants. Interview was aimed at exploring individual beliefs, perceptions, attitudes and opinions using interview guides. Interviews were conducted among the four headmasters of the senior high schools selected and three education officers for the study, which lasted for an average of 45 minutes. Gill and Johnson (2010) define a personal interview as a systematic way of gathering information through asking the same set of questions in a consistent manner to all selected respondents on a face to -face basis. Interviews are particularly useful for getting a story behind a participant's experiences, beliefs and feelings.

A personal interview is unique in that it involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction between the interviewee and the interviewer (Ghosh, 2015). It is different from ordinary or everyday conversation in that it has a specific purpose where the interviewer asks leading questions to arrive at the specified goal which could be formal or informal. However, when the interview is not structured, it bears resemblance to an informal conversation. Therefore, Drever (1995) classified interviews as formal, semi-formal or informal; (i.e. structured, semi-structured and



unstructured). Thus the researcher used semi-structured interview guide because of its advantages over the others.

The interview guide was structured in consistent with the objectives and themes across all categories of respondents. The researcher interviewed three education officers at the Berekum Municipal Education Office. The headmasters were also interviewed independently at their various schools. Each interviewee felt at home to give responses during the interview.

### **3.9 Data Analysis**

To address the research questions that were formulated to guide the study, the type of statistics that was employed in the analysis of the data was descriptive. Specifically the data was analysed through the computation of frequencies, and percentages. This was done with the use of computer software called Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS) version 20. The data for teachers and students were analysed separately. The data was analysed under four headings as indicated in the four research questions. The qualitative data, namely data from the headmasters and Municipal gender coordinator were analysed using the thematic content analysis approach. Thematic data analysis according to Kusi (2012) is an analytical strategy that requires the researcher to organize or prepare the data, immerse himself in and transcribe the data, generate themes and code the data, and describes them.

Also, Van Manen's (1997) analysis technique of 'selecting and highlighting' was applied to all transcripts. This approach required reading and rereading transcript to identify statements and phrases that revealed what the respondents experiences were



like. These statements or emerging themes were highlighted and coded using either a key word or words from that statement. As theme reoccurred or became common among respondents recall of their experiences, essential or main themes were developed in order to grasp the true meaning of the experiences of the participants. In conducting this analysis steps were taken to ensure confidentiality of the data and the anonymity of the interviewee were protected through the use of pseudonyms.

### **3.10 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument**

Validity is the degree to which an indicator accurately measures a concept (Fielding and Gilbert, 2000). The emphasis of validity is not on the instrument itself but on the interpretation and meaning of the scores derived from the instrument (Ary, Jacobs & Razavieh, 2006). That is, an indicator of some abstract concept is valid to the extent that it measures what it is supposed to measure.

O'leary (2004) described reliability as related to internal consistency. Internal consistency meant that data collected, measured or generated remained the same under expert trials. It was therefore necessary to ensure that research instruments were reliable in case the research method was repeated elsewhere in different samples. According to Wallen and Fraenkel (1991), the content validity and face validity of research instrument must be determined by expert judgment. Therefore, to ascertain the content validity and reliability, the items constructed in the questionnaires and interview guide were shown to senior members in the Department of Social, Political and Historical Studies, University for Development Studies, Wa campus including the supervisors. This was to scrutinize: whether they were related to the research questions; whether they elicit the appropriate



responses from the respondents; whether the vocabulary structure were appropriate; whether the items were properly arranged; if items fitted into sections they had been placed in; and whether any of the items were ambiguous and misleading. The suggestions they gave were used to improve the instrument and thereby helped to establish the face and content validity.

### **3.11 Research Ethics**

In order to ensure that this study was based upon the good conduct and code of ethics of the University for Development Studies, the researcher strived not to interfere with the physical, social, and mental welfare of all the respondents throughout the research process. Neither was there any question asked for the purpose of diminishing or demeaning the self-respect of the participants. None of them was misinformed or deceived as to the true purpose of the research. The names of the interviewees were numerically identified without any indication of traceability. The researcher desisted from the act of utilizing their emotional vulnerabilities, simply to gain data.





## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### 4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the results obtained from the study. The study was designed to investigate the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies in the senior high schools in Berekum Municipality of Ghana. Questionnaires and interview guides were used to gather the requisite data for the study.

The data gathered from the teachers and students via questionnaires were analysed quantitatively using frequencies and percentages. Thus descriptive and inferential statistics were employed in the analysis of the data. The interviews were analysed under themes. Thus similar responses were put under same themes. The results have been presented in two sections. Section A dealt with the demographic characteristics of the respondents and Section 'B' has been organized under the research questions posed, to guide the study, of which responses have been elicited to answer.



The questions include:

1. What are the gender inclusive educational strategies available in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality?
2. How are these gender inclusive strategies implemented in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality?
3. What are the benefits of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in the SHSs in Berekum Municipality?
4. What are the challenges of implementing gender inclusive strategies in the Berekum Municipality?

Details of the analysis and explanations of the study are discussed in ensuing sections in this chapter.

## **4.2. SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS**

### **4.2.1 Characteristics of Sampled Students**

Table 4.1 shows the demographic characteristics of students in Senior High Schools in Berekum municipality of Brong Ahafo Region, who served as respondents for the study. The study sought to identify the characteristics such as sex, age and department of affiliation – in other words programme of study of the students. The headings considered in Table 4.1 are variable, subscale, frequency, and percentage. On the students' demographic characteristics, the researcher sent 355 questionnaires to collect data. All the questionnaires were returned. This represented 100% response rate of the questions.



**Table 4.1: Characteristics of Students**

<b>Variable</b>	<b>Subscale</b>	<b>No.</b>	<b>%</b>
<b>Form</b>	SHS 2	185	52.1
	SHS 3	170	47.9
<b>Sex</b>	Male	180	50.7
	Female	175	49.3
<b>Age</b>	10-15 years	8	2.3
	16-20 years	271	76.3
	21 years and above	76	21.4
<b>Department</b>	Agric Science	60	16.8
	Science	76	21.5
	General Arts	115	32.3
	Technical	9	2.4
	Visual Arts	12	3.4
	Home Economics	76	21.5
	Business	7	2.1

**Source: Field Data, 2017**

From Table 4.1, out of the 355 students who were involved in the study, 52.1% were in SHS 2 whereas 47.9% were in SHS 3. Thus the majority of the students were in SHS 2. In relation to the gender of the respondents, 50.7% were males whilst 49.3% were females. Therefore majority of the respondents were males. This is in conformity with the Berekum Municipal Education office's Annual School Census



Records of 2015/2016 academic year which shows 53.0% male students' dominance as against 47.0% females in the Senior High Schools in the municipality.

It can also be seen from Table 4.1 that, 2.3% of the students fell within the age range of 10-15 years, 76.3% were within the ages of 16-20 years old and 21.4% fell within the ages of 21 and above years. Therefore overwhelming majority of the respondents fell within the age range of 16-20 years. This establishment confirms Ghana Education Service categorization of the school age groupings as 4-5 for KG, 6-11 for primary, 12-14 for JHS and 15-17 or 15-18 for Senior High Schools. In the study area, Senior High School students attend school in their right age of schooling. However, 76 representing 21.4% of the students were aged 21 and above.

Such late enrolment according to Madjitey (2015) is as a result of children engaging in work. In the same vein, Akyeampong (2009) found that, the incidence of late entry, over-age attendance and poor households' need for child labour posed threat to the benefits of FCUBE. Akyeampong further found that, most of the male students hawk to support their education in the study area.

Table 4.1 shows that 32.3% of the respondents study General Arts, 21.5% read Science and same for Home Economics whilst 3.4%, 2.4% and 2.1% study Visual Arts, Technical and Business respectively. Therefore the majority (32.3%) of the students in the study area study General Arts in the senior high schools. It was further revealed that majority of the male students study Science whilst Home Economics was female dominated. This means that some courses such as science and home economics are not gender inclusive. Surprisingly, only 2.1% of the students study



Business. According to the students, those who graduate from business class are usually unable to have access to both Colleges of Education and Nurses training colleges which are deemed as sources of ready-made employment in the country.

### **4.3 Characteristics of Sampled Teachers**

Table 4.2 shows the demographic characteristics of teachers in Senior High Schools in Berekum Municipality, who served as respondents for the study. The teachers were made up of form masters, heads of department (HODs), house masters/mistresses as well as teachers who had no added responsibilities. The demographic variables under discussion were sex, age, department, marital status, number of years in current school, and the position of teacher in the school.



**Table 4.2: Characteristics of Teachers**

Variable	Subscale	No.	%
Sex	Male	91	55.0
	Female	74	45.0
Age	25-29 years	3	1.7
	30-34 years	30	18.3
	35-39 years	38	23.3
	40 years and above	94	56.7
Department	Agric Science	41	25.0
	Science	58	35.0
	General Arts	44	26.7
	Business	22	13.3
Marital Status	Married	151	91.6
	Single	8	5.0
	Divorce	3	1.7
	Widower	3	1.7
Number of years in current school	1-5	11	6.6
	6-10	36	21.7
	11 and above	118	71.7
Position of teacher in the school	Teacher	54	32.7
	Form Master	83	50.3
	Head of Department	17	10.4
	House Mistress/Master	11	6.6

**Source: Field Data, 2017**



From Table 4.2, out of the 165 teachers who were involved in the study, 55.0% of them were males while 45.0% were females. Therefore majority of the respondents in this category were males. The cause of males' dominance could still be attributed to larger number of females ending their education at the lower rungs of the educational ladder, leaving few to further to the higher levels, as compared with their male counterparts whose dropout rate is low. This does not make it possible for more females to take up teaching jobs that require higher qualification.

Eventually, this development does not encourage the girl-child to look up to their female teachers as their role models in their academic pursuits. Again, with respect to the age of the respondents, 56.7% were 40 years old and above constituting the majority of the respondents, 38 teachers representing 23.3% fell within 35-39 years, 18.3% fell within 30-34 and only 1.7% fell within 25-29. This gives an indication that most of the secondary school teachers in the study area are likely to have good understanding of gender inclusive policies and practices in education as a result of experience from both within and outside the teaching environment.

On the issue of marital status of the respondents, 151 respondents representing 91.6% were married, 5.0% were single, 1.7% were divorced and widows/widowers. This suggests that majority of the respondents are married, and therefore understand human relations and interactions that underpin gender inclusive education.

With respect to how long teachers have served in their respective schools, Table 4.2 shows that 6.6% of the respondents fell within 1-5 years, 21.7% of the teachers have also served for 6-10 years whilst overwhelming majority representing 71.7%



indicated that they have served for 11 years and above. This means majority of the Senior High School teachers had more years of working experience and so they had fair knowledge as to how gender inclusive educational strategies are implemented in their various Senior High Schools.

With regards to positions held by teachers in the schools, Table 4.2 shows that 83 representing 50.3% were form masters/mistresses, which constituted the majority of the respondents. Fifty-four (32.7%) teachers were with no added responsibilities, 17 (10.4%) were heads of departments and 11 (6.6%) were house masters/mistresses. This means that most of the teachers were conversant with the students' affairs in the schools and were in better positions to respond to gender inclusive issues.

#### **4.4 Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies Available in the Senior High Schools**

This research question sought to find out from the respondents which gender inclusive educational strategies are available in their schools.





**Table 4.3: The Views of Students and Teachers on Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices Existing in the SHSs**

STRATEGIES	Students' responses				Teachers' responses			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%
Guidance and counselling	251	70.7	104	29.3	266	74.9	89	25.1
Culture of Respect and Dignity	245	69.0	110	31.0	254	71.5	101	28.5
Gender Inclusive Co-curricular Activities	249	70.3	106	29.7	272	76.6	83	23.4
Gender friendly teaching methods and practices	256	72.1	99	27.9	248	70.0	107	30.0
Readmission of teenage mother after birth	197	55.5	158	44.5	290	81.7	65	18.3
Scholarships	323	90.9	32	9.1	325	91.5	30	8.5
Open Gender Records keeping	67	18.9	288	81.1	148	41.7	207	58.3
Existence of Affirmative action	60	16.9	295	83.1	89	25.0	266	75.0
Gender Friendly Facilities	235	66.2	120	33.8	278	78.3	77	21.7
Regular in-service training for teachers on Gender	45	12.7	310	87.3	83	23.4	272	76.6
Resources Mobilization for Gender Programmes	54	15.2	301	84.8	89	25.0	266	75.0

**Source: Field Data, 2017, F= Frequency and %=Percentage**

The responses given by the students and teachers are presented in frequencies and percentages as shown in Table 4.3. Students are generally affected by the quality implementation of educational policies and programmes such as gender inclusive educational strategies and practices. For that matter they always want to ensure that authorities implement these strategies to the fullest so that they can maximise the benefits associated with it. It can be seen from Table 4.3 that both students and



teachers agreed to several strategies as ways of promoting gender equity and participation in the teaching and learning processes.

Pertaining to the existence of guidance and counselling in the SHSs, Table 4.3 shows that, as high as 70.7% of the students answered in the affirmative whilst only 29.3% of them held a dissent view that guidance and counselling does not exist in their schools. In the same vein, 74.9% of the teachers held the view that it exists in their schools whilst 25.1% of them dissent to this view. Therefore, the majority of the respondents believed that guidance and counselling is one of the ways to include both genders in the SHSs in the study area. This does not only corroborate the outcome of an interview with one of the headmasters, who stated that,

*“Yes, guidance and counselling is one of the strategies to promote gender inclusiveness in the SHSs. It gives both the males and females the opportunity to appreciate their personal problems that threaten their participation in the school environment”.*

This is in line with Kloh and Wisdom (2016) and Leach (2003) that the teachers in the schools are supposed to introduce the students to adolescent reproductive health education as well as guidance and counselling in order to assist them cope with their academic challenges and enhance their retention in school.

With respect to the existence of culture of respect and dignity as a means of measuring the extent of gender inclusiveness in the teaching and learning process, Table 4.3 shows that 69.0% of students agreed to its existence in the schools whilst 31.0% of them disagreed. In a similar vein, 71.5% of the teachers held the view that it



exists in the schools whilst 28.5% of the teachers thought otherwise. This means that the majority of the respondents shared the view that culture of respect and dignity is one of the strategies to include gender in the schools. One of the municipal education officers mentioned in an interview that,

*“If you want to understand the level of gender sensitivity in the schools, then find out how the culture of respect and human dignity prevail in the school”* (Informant Interview, 2017).

According to Pulizzi and Rosenblum (2007), culture of respect and dignity is the surest means of measuring the level of gender inclusiveness in the schools. With regard to the use of co-curricular activities in the school to advance gender inclusiveness and equity, Table 4.3 shows that 70.3% of the students answered in affirmative, whilst 29.7% of them showed disapproval. On the part of the teachers, as high as 76.6% of them answered in affirmative, whilst 23.4% showed disapproval. Thus, majority of respondents opined that co-curricular activities in the school can be used as a strategy to include gender. This confirmed the information gathered from the interviews with education authorities. One sports master noted that,

*“Yeah, both male and female students participate equally in all extracurricular activities under a very strict supervision, and it is compulsory. This is so because it is a moment of socialisation and identification of talents necessary for the development of both males and females especially those students who are not academically brilliant”* (Informant Interview, 2017)

Again, regarding the use of friendly teaching methods and practices as a way of fostering gender inclusiveness in the schools, it could be seen from Table 4.3 that



72.1% of the students responded in affirmative whilst 27.9% of them rejected the claim. Similarly, 70.0% of the teachers agreed to the fact whilst 30.0% of them held a divergent view. This means that majority of teachers and students appreciate the fact that teaching methods and practices can be used as an inclusive tool for gender awareness in the schools. Teachers are therefore advised to devise a more gender friendly teaching methods that are student-centred to ensure students inclusion in the classroom learning. Kosgei (2015) and Safi (2015) have found out that most teachers fell short of the expected expertise for their line of duty. This therefore calls for more in-service training for serving teachers, especially on gender related issues in the schools.

Concerning the re-admission of teenage mothers after birth, Table 4.3 gives an indication that 55.5% of the students agreed to the fact that the readmission of teenage mothers after birth gives them the opportunity to be included in the educational process whilst 44.5% of them rejected the claim. It also appeared that 81.7% of teachers agreed whilst 18.3% of them held a contrary view. Consequently, both students and teachers opined that readmission of teenage mothers is a reality in the schools. In an interview with one of the headmasters concerning the use of readmission of teenage mothers as an inclusive tool, he emphasized that,

*“But for readmission of teenage mothers, it would be very difficult to control and maintain the retention rate of students especially the girl child because of frequent pregnancies among the females”* (Informant Interview, 2017).



This supports the popular assertion by Lucker (2010) that teenage motherhood is a worldwide concern affecting both developed and developing countries and is intricate reality of contemporary society.

Scholarship is one of the means of ensuring inclusivity in the teaching and learning process. Most often, Government and other stakeholders of education deploy it to assist the brilliant but needy students. The findings from Table 4.3 shows that as high as 90.9% of the students agreed to its existence in the schools while only 9.1% of them disagreed to the claim. In the same vein, 91.5% of the teachers agreed to its existence whilst only 8.5% of them disagreed to it. Hence, the majority of respondents believe that scholarships can be used to enhance gender participation in the teaching and learning process. This reinforces the call by Stotsky (2016) that governments should allocate more financial packages in their successive national budgets to boost the females in science, technical and vocational education.

Certainly, proper records' keeping in the schools is an essential aspect of gender inclusive education. However, 18.9% of the students maintained that it is a necessity to gender inclusiveness whilst a whopping majority of them (81.1%) disagreed to this assertion. Likewise, 41.7% of the teachers shared a similar view whilst 58.3% of them refused to accept the fact. So, majority of the respondents refused to accept its existence in the schools. This presupposes that much emphasis was not placed on gender records keeping in the schools, notwithstanding the opinion of Ololube (2011) that intricacies in school management, its constraints, contingencies, and other difficulties make gender records keeping a necessity.



With reference to the existence of affirmative action in the schools, Table 4.3 shows that 16.9% of the students agreed to it whilst as high as 83.1% of them disagreed to its existence. Equally, 25.0% of teachers accept the fact that it exists whilst 75.0% of them refused to accept its existence. Thus, majority of the respondents disagreed to its existence in the schools. This lay credence to popular assertion by Tsikata (2009), that affirmative action measures to improve educational imbalances have not been effective as the underpinning for affirmative action is not properly shared or understood by those who matters in both policy formulation and implementation agenda.

A look at Table 4.3 also indicates that 66.2% of the students shared the view that “gender friendly facilities” such as separate and clean washrooms and dormitories are needed to support gender inclusivity in the various schools whilst 33.8% of them held a contrary view. In the same way, as high as 78.3% of the teachers agreed to this assertion whilst 21.7% of them refused to accept this claim. This means that gender friendly facilities are accepted by the respondents as an inclusive strategy in the schools.

It is also noticeable from Table 4.3 that 12.7% of students agreed that in-service training for teachers on gender is necessary to foster inclusiveness in the schools whilst 87.3% of them disagreed. Also, 23.4% of the teachers shared a similar view whilst 76.6% of them disagreed. This means that majority of the respondents disagreed to its existence in the schools. Perhaps this might explain why most teachers have lost touch with the skills of handling gender in all aspects of their teaching profession as a result of the dearth of seminars and in-service trainings. It could also



be due to insufficient wherewithal at the disposal of the education directorate in the Berekum Municipality, which obstructs its efforts in organising frequent in-service training on gender related issues for teachers. This is antithetical to the assumptions of Pirmehtar and Omidian (2014) that in-service training should be continuous, increase teachers' job skills, and provide the basis for knowledge.

Finally, resources are deemed as the backbone for effective implementation of all other gender strategies. Table 4.3 shows that 15.2% of the students answered in affirmation whilst as high as 84.8% of them disagreed to its existence in the schools. Congruently, 25.0% of the teachers held a similar view whilst 75.0% of them rejected the claim. Hence, majority of the respondents doubt the existence of resources for the promotion of gender programmes in the schools. This affirms the challenges of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies put forward by [MoGCSP] (2015) which include competing government priorities and lack of the political will to disburse resources needed to implement gender programmes.



The researcher asked the education authorities in an interview the existence of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the senior high schools in Berekum. The education officers responded that all the gender inclusive educational strategies and practices that the GES policy approves are being practised in all senior high schools. It was summarised by one officer that;

*“Students are put in the same class during delivery of lessons and at assembly. Students are also made to perform every cultural activity together. During sporting activities, most of the disciplines are performed by both sexes. Guidance and*

*counselling services are offered to all sexes. All the schools have gender friendly toilet and urinals.”*

The Headmasters in the four Senior High Schools also had similar views, as summarised by one of them;

*“Oh, guidance and counselling, culture of respect and dignity for both male and females, gender inclusive co-curricular activities such as sports and culture, gender friendly school facilities like separate dormitories, toilets and urinals, we readmit teenage mothers after birth, scholarship packages for both boys and girls. There are even many we want to practise but financial constraint is limiting us.”* (Informant Interview, 2017).

From the foregoing discussions, it is clear from the responses of the participants that the gender inclusive educational strategies and practices available in the senior high schools in the Berekum Municipality include guidance and counselling, culture of respect and dignity for both male and females, gender inclusive co-curricular activities, gender friendly school facilities, re-admission of teenage mothers after giving birth, scholarships among others. The two strategies that received higher percentages from the respondents for their existence in the schools are scholarships and guidance and counselling.





#### **4.5 Implementation of Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies in the Senior High Schools**

To assess how gender inclusive educational strategies and practices are implemented in senior high schools in the study area, it is evident from Table 4.4 that, the inclusive strategies exist in the schools, however, to what extent, how regular or effective are the strategies carried out? The teachers' responses on how gender inclusive strategies are implemented in the SHSs are shown in Table 4.4.



**Table 4.4: Response on Implementation of Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies in the SHSs by teacher respondents**

Strategy	S. Agree		Agree		Disagree		S. Disagree	
	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%
Guidance and counselling services in the school is regular and effective	11	7.0	20	12.0	63	38.0	71	43.0
Culture of respect and dignity in the schools	13	8.0	8	5.0	116	70.0	28	17.0
Admission of teenage mother after 1	8	5.0	13	8.0	8	5.0	136	82.0
Existence of Affirmative action	13	8.0	17	10.0	30	18.0	105	64.0
Service training for teachers on gender	8	5.0	28	17.0	20	12.0	109	66.0
Gender friendly teaching methods and practice	50	30.0	5	3.0	36	22.0	74	45.0
Gender inclusive co-curricular activities	86	52.0	0	0.0	8	5.0	71	43.0
Scholarships	28	17.0	13	8.0	13	8.0	111	67.0
Provision of gender friendly facilities	41	25.0	28	17.0	28	17.0	68	41.0
Proper gender records keeping	0	0.0	20	12.0	36	22.0	109	66.0
Resource mobilization for gender programmes	3	2.0	46	28.0	50	30.0	66	40.0

Source: Field Data, 2017, F = Frequency, % = Percentage, SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, D = Disagree and SD = Strongly Disagree.



With regards to the implementation of guidance and counselling in the schools, Table 4.4 shows that 7.0% of the teachers strongly agreed that guidance and counselling is working in the schools; 12.0% agreed; 38.0% disagreed; whilst overwhelming respondents (43.0%) strongly disagreed to this assertion. Therefore, majority of the teachers (81.0%) disagreed to the fact that guidance and counselling in the schools are working. In an interview with the municipal education officers and headmasters concerning how guidance and counselling is being practised in the schools, one headmaster retorted that;

*“In my school, the guidance and counselling coordinator submits the programme of activities for the term, after which she organizes a talk show every two weeks for the students. Similar work is done by both the form masters and the house masters at their respective departments. However, this is not the case as guidance and counselling coordinator is a classroom teacher who has little time for the job, besides there are no funds to organise programmes frequently.”*

Similarly, another education officer said; *‘Factors such as limited time for counsellors, inexperienced or unprofessional counsellors, bias and favouritism and lack of office on school campuses militate against the successful implementation of guidance and counselling in the schools.’* (Informant Interview, 2017).

This confirms the findings of Waweru, Nyagosia & Njuguna (2013) that guidance and counselling departments are ineffective in enhancing school discipline as a result of factors such as inadequately trained-counselling teachers, no motivation for teachers, lack of facilities and financial support by school administration, conflict with school



discipline policy and lack of clear government policies to guide guidance and counselling services in secondary schools.

Again, on the issue of how culture of respect and dignity as a tool to ensure effective gender participation in the schools is being carried out, Table 4.4 demonstrates clearly that 8.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that it is functional in the schools; 5.0% agreed to this fact; 70.0% disagreed; whilst 17.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed. This is an indicative that 87.0% representing majority of the respondents expressed doubt about its implementation in the schools. In an interview with the headmasters regarding how culture of respect and dignity is being practised in the schools, one headmaster countered that;

*‘Culture of respect and dignity is inherent in the school philosophy, however, there was no laid down procedure for its implementation. I have personally instructed and insisted that my teachers avoid the use of foul languages on students, especially the females and be mindful of the punishment meted out to the students. This notwithstanding, there are still reported cases of abuse by both teachers and students.’* (Informant Interview, 2017).

This revelation supports Columbia et al. (2007) findings that most students drop out of school from fear of punishment and insults. Students identified the most common form of abuse in schools as verbal (insult) and corporal punishment which includes caning, whipping, painful touching and assigning harsh physical labour (for example, digging a hole for a latrine or uprooting a tree stump).



In connection with the readmission of teenage mothers after birth (drop-in students), it was found out from Table 4.4 that 5.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that it is implemented in the SHSs; 8.0% also agreed to this fact; 5.0% disagreed; whilst a vast majority of 82.0% strongly disagreed to this fact. Thus, majority of the respondents (82.0%) held the view that teenage mothers and their male counterparts who dropped out of school for a serious offence such as substance abuse in the Senior High Schools are not readmitted. The fact of the matter is that these students are given transfers to different schools. In an interview with one of the headmasters concerning some reasons for refusing to readmit these students, he noted that;

*“This is done to serve as a deterrent to the rest of the students, especially females and to redeem the affected students from further embarrassment from their peers”.*

This explanation offers the need to strengthen the implementation of gender policies in the schools. Further checks from students’ Code of Conduct (2014-2015) in these schools reveals that it is explicitly stated that,

*“A pregnant student shall be withdrawn or transferred to another school”.*

This affirms the finding of Chigona and Chetty (2008) and Karimi (2015) that teenage mothers who return to school after the birth of their children experience intimidation, marginalization and lack of support from educators.

Concerning the implementation of affirmative action in the SHSs, Table 4.4 shows that 8.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that it is applied in the schools. About 10.0% of the respondents also agreed to this statement; whilst 18.0% and 64.0% disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. This is an indication that the concept of



affirmative action is challenged in the senior high schools. Therefore the call for the passage of National Affirmative Action Bill is not out of place since it is meant to ameliorate historical imbalances between genders in all human endeavours. This is in line with the opinions of Tsikata (2009) and Burger & Jafta (2010) that affirmative action measures to improve educational imbalances have not been effective as a result of institutional weaknesses and lack of understanding of the concept. On the contrary, one of the headmasters via interview mentioned that;

*'In my school, I have always insisted that at least one female student should be included in all the teams representing the school for competitions. Similarly, affirmative action is also applied in the selection of leaders of all school authorised clubs. Again, at the administrative level, female teachers are encouraged to occupy positions to serve as motivation to the female students.'* (Informant Interview, 2017).

On the implementation of in-service training for teachers on gender, Table 4.4 shows that 5.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that in-service training for teachers on gender is done frequently in the schools; 17.0% of the respondents also shared a similar view; 12.0% on the other hand disagreed to this assertion, whilst a vast majority of respondents (66.0%) strongly disagreed that in-service training for teachers on gender is done often. This means that majority of the respondents (78.0%) disagreed to it. The extent of the problem was identified through interviews with education officers and the headmasters. One of the headmasters stated that;

*'Teachers are sometimes invited to national and regional levels for in-service training, after which they come to their respective schools with the view to training*



*the rest of the teachers, however, these teachers refused to organize trainings for the rest of the teachers upon their return due to resources constraints.*’ Also, one of the municipal education officers confirmed in an interview that; *“We only organized in-service training for teachers whenever headquarters bring money for such purposes.”* (Informant Interview, 2017). This corroborates the assertion of Tariq & Jumani (2016) that in-service training for teachers to upgrade their teaching skills has not been effective due to the dearth of resources.

Moreover, when it comes to gender friendly teaching methods and practices in the schools, teachers are supposed to apply teaching methods such as role play, debate, group work, case studies and exploration in lessons delivery in order to ensure maximum participation of both male and female students. A look at Table 4.4 shows that 30.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that teachers apply the inclusive teaching techniques in the classroom; 3.0% also agreed to this fact; whilst 22.0% of the respondents disagreed. Forty-five per cent (45.0%) constituting the majority of respondents strongly disagreed to this view. This gives an indication that majority of the teachers do otherwise in the classroom. The teachers’ inability to apply gender friendly teaching methods and practices in the schools was explained by one of the municipal education officers interviewed as;

*“It could be attributed to reasons such as poor supervision by headmasters, the presence of non-professional teachers, limited duration for lessons and lack of in-service training for teachers.”*



This does not only negate the ideals of the theoretical base of the study but also the findings of Nilson (2016) and Borich (2016) that students learn better when they are actively engaged in activities than when they passively listen to an instructor talk. Therefore teachers should plan and structure lessons to meet the interests and varied needs of students.

In relation to gender inclusive co-curricular activities, it could be observed from Table 4.4 that 31 representing 52.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that it is being used effectively to ensure gender inclusiveness in the schools; 5.0% disagreed to this view, whilst 26 of the respondents representing 43.0% disagreed in strong terms. This means majority (52.0%) of the respondents are convinced that co-curricular activities in the schools are organised in such a way that inclusiveness in terms of gender is assured. It was further revealed from the interviews conducted that almost all co-curricular activities in the schools are gender inclusive, for instance, one headmaster who happened to be a sports master indicated that;

*‘We ensure that in all co-curricular activities such as sports, cultural display, cadet corps, entertainment, debating clubs, leadership forums among others are gender inclusive.’ (Informant Interview, 2017).*

This disclosure gives strength to the liberal feminist theory that supports this study.

Findings from Table 4.4 show that 17.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that scholarships implementation in the schools are gender inclusive. Eight per cent (8.0%) also shared a similar view; whilst same 8.0% disagreed to this fact. However, 67.0% of the respondents strongly agreed. Therefore, majority of the respondents





constituting 75.0% disagreed to the fact that scholarships implementation in the schools are gender inclusive. It was also revealed via interview that the number of scholarships in the schools is inadequate and the qualifications are based on merit and not gender. Again, some of the scholarships were given to the females at the expense of their male counterparts. This reinforces the call by Stotsky (2016) that governments should as a matter of urgency allocate more financial packages in their successive national budgets to boost the female numbers in science, technical and vocational education. It is important to note that the implementation of Free Senior High School policy by the government is a step in the right direction.

With reference to the availability of facilities in the schools to contain both males and females, Table 4.4 reveals that 25.0% of the respondents strongly agreed that the facilities are capable of containing both males and females in the schools. Seventeen per cent (17.0%) shared similar view, whilst same 17.0% disagreed to that assertion. However, 41.0% of the respondents strongly disagreed to this assertion. Thus, majority of the respondents (58.0%) totally disagreed that the facilities in the schools are gender friendly. This result is not surprising because the introduction of the government policy of free education has increased enrolments in all SHSs, and therefore gender friendly facilities in the schools are inadequate as the population outweigh the existing facilities, thereby putting much pressure on the facilities.

Records' keeping is an essential facet of inclusive education. However, it emerged from Table 4.4 that only 12.0% of the respondents agreed that effective records keeping exist in the schools. Twenty-two per cent (22.0%) of the respondents disagreed, whilst overwhelming respondents (66.0%) indicated strong objection to



this assertion. It can therefore be confidently said that majority (88.0%) of the respondents disagreed that effective records keeping exist in the schools. One of the headmasters interviewed on the nature of records keeping in the schools stated that;

*“Basic data such as records in the registers are available but advanced data such as number of physically challenged students, number of readmitted teenage mothers, among others are yet to be recorded into the schools’ records books.”*

Likewise, in venting his frustration on the difficulties encountered in accessing data from the schools, one municipal education officer has this to say; *“Charlie, it is not easy ooh, the schools are making it difficult for us here to get students’ information, and I do not know what at all they are doing in the schools”*.

This further espouses the findings of Amanchukwu and Ololube (2015) that poor records management in the schools results in difficulties in managing, developing and supervising educational systems.

Finally, Table 4.4 shows that only 30.0% of the respondents averred that financial resource mobilization for gender programmes in the schools are effective. Thirty per cent (30.0%) of the respondents disagreed to this statement; whilst 40.0% strongly disagreed. This means as high as 70.0% of the respondents disagreed that resources mobilisation for gender programmes are effective in the schools. It came to light from the interviews with both headmasters and education officers that resource mobilization for gender programmes is a major challenge in the municipality. PTA levies, government subventions, and external sources are not forth coming. This gives credence to the findings of Koramoah (2016) that social accountability mechanisms to monitor how heads of schools acquired and utilised their allocated funds are highly



ineffective due to lack of transparency and weak internal controls and monitoring systems, coupled with government's inability to release funds on time.

The general impression from the preceding discussions shows that the gender inclusive educational strategies and practices have received little efforts in its implementations in SHSs in the Berekum Municipality. This confirms the popular notion of Bryan (2008) that many gender policies and interventions fail at the implementation stage because of myriad of reasons including gender bias of institutions, lack of influence and voice of women's activists within organizations, lack of accountability, and support of top leadership as well as lack of clarity around what the policy entails.

#### **4.6 The opportunities of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies**

This objective sought to ascertain whether there are benefits of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices to the respondent, and the community in general. Fifteen items considered to be the benefits were listed, and the respondents' views on it are presented in Table 4.5 below.



**Table 4.5: Responses on opportunities of Gender Inclusive Strategies and Practices**

Beneficiaries	Opportunities	Students' Response				Teachers' Response			
		Yes		No		Yes		No	
		Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%	Frq	%
<b>Students</b>	It instils discipline among students	116	32.7	239	67.3	49	30	116	70
	Builds students' socialization	238	67	117	33	88	53.3	77	46.7
	It enhances students' academic performance	229	64.6	126	35.4	143	86.7	22	13.3
	Makes students assertive	151	42.4	204	57.6	52	31.7	113	68.3
<b>Teachers</b>	It guides and develops teachers' teaching skills and methodology	157	44.1	198	55.9	80	48.3	85	51.7
	It improves teachers' perception on gender	140	39.4	215	60.6	80	48.3	85	51.7
	It motivates teachers	133	37.4	222	62.6	69	41.7	96	58.3
<b>School</b>	It increases enrolment	325	91.6	30	8.4	102	61.7	63	38.3
	It facilitates infrastructure development	73	20.5	282	79.5	61	36.7	104	63.3
	Maintenance of law and order	90	25.3	265	74.7	52	31.7	113	68.3
	It enhances the good image of the school	56	15.8	299	84.2	36	21.7	129	78.3
<b>Community</b>	It fosters peace and harmony in the community	128	36	227	64	44	26.7	121	73.3
	It improves literacy rate	287	80.8	68	19.2	124	75	41	25
	It fosters foreign direct investment in education	315	88.6	40	11.4	110	66.7	55	33.3
	Reduction in teenage pregnancy and early marriages	88	24.9	267	75.1	63	38.3	102	61.7

Source: Field data, 2017, F=Frequency and %=Percentage

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With regards to the opportunities that students derive from implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality, the results from Table 4.5 indicate that majority of students (67.3%) said it does not instil discipline among students, whilst 32.7% of them held a contrary view that it instils discipline in students. Similarly, 30.0% of the teachers answered in the affirmative to the statement, whilst 70.0% of them answered in the negative. This therefore indicates that generally the respondents hold the view that it does not instil discipline among students.

When it comes to building students' socialisation drive, 67.0% of them answered in affirmative that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices build students' socialisation drive, whilst only 33.0% of them held a contrary view to this statement. In a similar vein, 53.3% of the teachers answered 'yes' to the statement, whilst 46.7% of them answered 'no' to it. This means that the majority of the respondents approved of the fact that proper implementation of gender inclusive strategies in our schools results in building students' socialisation.

Again, majority of the respondents held the view that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices enhance students' academic performance. This registered the percentage scores of 64.6% and 86.7% from students and teachers respectively.

This revelation gives credence to the findings of Hehir et al. (2016) that gender inclusive education can provide a range of academic and social benefits for students, such as improving rates of high school graduation, and develop more positive relationships among students.



It could also be seen from Table 4.5 that only 42.4% of the students shared the view that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices encourage students, especially the females to be assertive. Thirty-one point seven per cent (31.7%) of the teachers held a similar opinion. Similar views were also gleaned from the school authorities (headmasters) by way of interview. It was established that gender inclusive education does not in any way make students assertive. One of the headmasters has this to say;

*“Gender inclusive educational strategies and practices do not in certain terms encourage students’ assertiveness. However, students’ assertiveness is dependent on two major factors, thus, hereditary and environmental factors. For example, a trait such as mental ability is inherited from parents and so if a student has a high level of intelligence that makes him confident in answering questions in class does not mean it is the gender inclusive strategies provided in his school environment that have made him so.”*(Informant Interview, 2017).



With respect to the opportunities that teachers derive from implementation of gender inclusive education, the results from Table 4.5 show that 55.9% of students and 51.7% of teachers held a contrary view to the fact that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices guide and develop teachers' teaching skills and methodology. Similarly, it was also overruled by majority of the respondents that it develops teachers' perception on gender related issues. This received 60.6% and 51.7% responses from the students and teachers respectively. Again, it was also noted that both students and teachers failed to approve of the fact that gender inclusive

educational strategies and practices motivates teachers. This received 62.6% and 58.3% response rates from both students and teachers respectively. This is an indication that perhaps inclusive strategies in the schools are not adequately implemented. On the contrary, Chandler-Olcott & Kluth (2009) has observed that inclusive education has opportunities for all members of the classroom community including the teachers who are positioned as inquirers and researchers to improve teaching and learning.

In relation to the opportunities that the school communities derive from implementation of gender inclusive education, it emerged from Table 4.5 that only 20.5% of students and 36.7% of teachers answered in the affirmative that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices facilitate infrastructural development in the schools. Similarly, only 25.3% of the students and 31.7% of the teachers shared the view that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices enhance the maintenance of law and order in the schools. Likewise, only 15.8% of the students and 21.7% of the teachers shared the view that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices enhance the good image of the school. This means that majority of the respondents held a dissenting view to this assertion and this is contrary to the findings of Mrunalini and Vijayan (2014) that gender inclusive education reduce drop-out rates and repetition of grades which is good for the image of the school.

However, a whopping 91.6% of the students and 61.7% of the teachers answered in the affirmative that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices have increased enrolment in the schools. This confirms the outcome of an interview



conducted with one of the headmasters who said *'Free for all education programme has increased enrolment of both male and female students drastically'*.

The study also examined some opportunities that the communities where these schools are located derive from the implementation of gender inclusive education, and again, Table 4.5 shows that only 36% of students and 26.7% of teachers held the believe that gender inclusive education facilitate peace and harmony in the communities. Similarly, only 24.9% of the students and 38.3% of the teachers answered in the affirmative that gender inclusive education helps to reduce teenage pregnancy and early marriages in our communities. However, the majority of the students (80.8%) were of the view that gender inclusive education improves literacy rate in the community. Seventy-five per cent (75%) of the teachers also held a similar view. Likewise, about 88.6% of students and 66.7% of teachers gave an indication that gender inclusive education encourages foreign direct investment in education. It emerged from the interview with the school authorities that gender inclusive educational strategies had positive impact on the various communities. One headmaster noted that;

*"International NGOs and organisations for education invest heavily in education that is gender sensitive in order to ensure parity in terms of enrolment, retention, completion and achievement rates for both male and female students. They do these by building schools, hospitals, scholarships and other relevant facilities to promote education in the communities"*

These findings emphasize what Ogaro (2015) and Salend (2015) revealed about inclusive education as critical to socio-economic growth and productivity, increased individual earning and subsequently reduce income inequalities among others.





In a nutshell, the study revealed a few opportunities in the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the SHSs. This is so perhaps as a result of inadequate implementation of gender inclusive education strategies in the SHSs. The respondents could have identified many opportunities of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies should the implementation be effective in the schools. Some of the opportunities found include; increased enrolment, attraction of foreign direct investment in education, and enhancing academic performance.

#### **4.7 Threats of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

The study sought to find out the threats of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the SHSs. Data gleaned from the respondents indicated some threats to effective implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality. The distribution of threats according to both students and teachers are displayed by Table 4.6.



**Table 4.6: Threats Facing Implementation of Gender Inclusive**

**Educational Strategies and Practices by Students and Teachers**

Threats	Students' Response				Teachers' Response			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Low level of family income	240	68	115	32.3	124	75	41	25
Parents' low level of education	234	66	121	34	110	66.7	55	33.3
Household chores and agricultural tasks	218	61	137	38.7	104	63.3	61	36.7
Poor infrastructural development	302	85	53	14.8	127	76.7	38	23.3
Early marriages and pregnancies	180	51	175	49.2	96	58.3	69	41.7
Lower priority for girls' education	179	51	176	49.5	85	51.7	80	48.3
Distance to school	185	52	170	47.8	104	63.3	61	36.7
Budgets constraints (funding)	180	51	175	49.2	154	93.3	11	6.7
Improper Supervision	214	60	141	39.7	85	51.7	80	48.3
Sexual Harassment from peers and teachers	229	65	126	35.4	83	50.5	82	49.5
Improper teaching methods and practices in the classroom	240	68	115	32.3	74	45	91	55
Insecurity as a result of gender violence	184	52	171	48.1	77	46.7	88	53.3
Lack of effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms	204	58	151	42.4	83	50.5	82	49.5

**Source: Field data, 2017, F=Frequency and %=Percentage**



The results from Table 4.6 indicate that students regarded low level of family income as one of the challenges to their effective participation in teaching and learning process in the schools. The students affirmed this with a response rate of 67.7%. In the same vein, 75% of the teachers pointed out that low level of family income affect students' effective participation in school. This indicates that both respondents share the same opinion that low family income is a challenge to the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies. It was acknowledged by one of the headmasters who was interviewed that;

*“Parents who have low income levels tend to renege on their responsibilities towards educating their children. This sometimes results in school dropout, inability to pay school fees, poor academic performance and absenteeism.”*

This authenticates the findings of Mahuro and Hungi (2016) that for students to reap maximum benefits in an education system, the learning should not be solely left to the student–teacher relationship but should be extended to include active parental involvement in the form of time and resource committed towards children's academic performance.

Similarly, the findings from Table 4.6 show that both students and teachers considered parents' low level of education as a challenge to gender participation in teaching and learning process. This received 66.0% and 66.7% response rates from both students and teachers respectively. This is worrying because formal education is a concern to all members in the Municipality. In an interview with the education officers in the municipality on how parents' low level of education affects their children's education, one officer has this to say;



*“Illiterate parents are less able to assess the benefits of schooling for their children, especially, their daughters and are therefore less inclined to put their children through school. This has serious repercussions on the students’ academic work as they are unable to assist their wards in doing their homework, paying of school fees, and providing motivation.”* (Informant Interview, 2017).

This validates the observations made by Okwara as cited in Ouma (2013) that those children whose parents had received formal education tend to have positive attitude towards education than those students whose parents did not go to school at all.

In connection with household chores and agricultural tasks as a major hindrance to effective gender participation in the teaching and learning process, both respondents opined that it was a major challenge. This recorded 61.3% and 63.3% response rates from both students and teachers. Explanations given to this phenomenon is that most of the students are over engaged in the performance of domestic activities such as cooking, washing, pounding of ‘fufu’, and in extreme cases get involved in menial jobs to cater for their education after school. Consequently, most students are caught up in the traps of lateness to school, stress, absenteeism, health risk and poor academic performance.

These developments tend to disengage the students from active participation in the teaching and learning process. One of the headmasters engaged in an interview to that effect whispered that;

*“Some of the students cater for themselves and even their younger siblings so they over burden themselves to meet that demand after school.”*



This confirms the findings of Alhassan (2013) that socio-economic factors such as households' income, resources, household chores, market days and cost associated with schooling have debilitating effects on students participation in the teaching and learning process.

Again, the respondents confirmed that poor infrastructural development is one of the challenges impeding the effective implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies in Senior High Schools in the study area. The results of the data analysed in Table 4.6 shows that as high as 85.2% of the students believed that poor infrastructural development affects gender participation. Seventy-six point seven per cent (76.7%) of the teachers also shared a similar sentiment. The percentage scores of respondents in this regard indicate the extent of infrastructural deficit in the schools. In all the schools visited, the students' population outweigh the infrastructure in the schools leading to high rate of absenteeism, poor academic performance, lack of accommodation and low students and teachers' retention rate in the schools. This is in agreement with the view of Masino and Niño-Zarazúa (2016) that other supply-side concerns such as overcrowded classrooms, lack of teaching material, and poor infrastructure are obstacles for good learning environments in the schools.

Furthermore, Table 4.6 shows clearly that early marriages and pregnancies are major threat to effective gender participation in the schools. This generated 50.8% response from the students as against 58.3% response rate by teachers. This is an indication of the existence of the phenomenon in the study area that needs to be addressed. Most of the headmasters and education officers shared a common view that teachers should introduce the students to adolescent reproductive health education as well as guidance



and counselling in order to assist them to acquire the requisite knowledge to overcome unexpected pregnancies and its related consequences such as health risk, indiscipline, neglect from parents and peers, school dropout and unemployment on the students. This revelation supports the assertions of Kloh & Wisdom (2016) and Leach (2003) that pregnancy and child bearing has the potential to end female's school career especially when the girl child is not properly guided by their parents.

Also, low priority for girls' education was identified by the respondents as one of threats affecting gender inclusive education even though rated low among other items under consideration. This received percentage scores of 50.5% and 51.7% respectively from both students and teachers. Generally, traditional society's predilection for boys' education confines girls' ability to access formal education systems if not checked. This has dire consequences such as teenage pregnancies among the females, inferiority complex, child abuse and prostitution on the students and the community at large. These conditions do not create enabling environment for effective teaching and learning in the senior high schools. In a similar vein, one of the headmasters contacted via interview made it known that;

*“Yea, the issue exists though at a lower rate, and they become clear when parents have opportunity to pay their wards fees. Most parents normally pay their male wards school fees first before the females.”*

This revelation confirms the findings of both FAWE (2009) and Omare (2007) that one of the socio-cultural factors that works to the disadvantage of girls is the cultural perception concerning their role in the family and society and the preference to invest in boys' education.



In addition, Table 4.6 shows that both students and teachers agreed to the fact that distance to school is indeed a challenge pertaining to the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices. Fifty-two point two per cent (52.2%) of the students and 63.3% of the teachers answered in affirmation. Distance to school brings about some security concerns especially to the girl child who is likely to be exposed to attacks and thus, parents have concerns about the sexual safety of their daughters. It was explicated that distance to school does not only expose the students to attacks such as rapes and robbery but also cause lateness to school, stress, absenteeism, and poor academic performance. It appeared that almost all the Senior High Schools in the study area were situated at the outskirts of the town and therefore was not out of place to identify distance to school as a problem. UNICEF (2012) noted that distance to school is a hindrance to school enrolment to both children and parents. This is also corroborated by Subramanian (2002) who found distance as a formidable barrier to girls' education.

With regards to budget constraints (funding) of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices, Table 4.6 shows that both respondents indicated their agreement to it as a challenge. Fifty point five percent (50.5%) of the students as against 93.3% of teachers held a similar view that funding is a major challenge to implementation of gender inclusive education. Both the headmasters and the education officers in the municipality interviewed agreed to it in strong terms. One education officer mentioned that; *“We do not have a pesewa to run the municipal office let alone organise programmes.”* One headmaster retorted that;



*“The disbursements of government funds for the management of the schools always delay to the extent that we have to borrow money with exorbitant interest before we can sometimes organise programmes for students.”*

This confirms the findings of the [MoGCSP] (2015) that some challenges to effective implementation of gender inclusive policies include competing government priorities and political will to disburse resources, lack of coordination, and budgetary constraints, among others.

As illustrated in Table 4.6, improper supervision was recognised by the respondents as one of the problems militating against the implementation of gender inclusive education in the study area. This recorded 60.3% response rate from students as against 51.7% of the teachers. This was identified to be a general problem not only distressing inclusive education but also the overall administration of the SHSs. One of the municipal education officers interviewed posited that;

*“Supervision becomes worst when the headmaster was picked from among his or her colleagues in the same school.”*

This has the tendency to not only destroy the inclusive culture of the school, but also leads to embezzlement of funds and indiscipline on the part of the students and teachers.

With respect to sexual harassment from peers and teachers as a challenge to gender inclusive education, it is seen from Table 4.6 that 64.6% of students and 50.05% of teachers answered in affirmative that it is a problem. The headmasters confirmed through interview that there were instances of reported sexual harassment from both teachers and students which were referred to the guidance and counselling





coordinators for proper measures to be taken. Female students often undergo uncomfortable harassment from their male peers and teachers, which creates an unwelcome environment at school, and discourages the girls from attending school. This backs the findings of Lambert, Perrino and Barreras (2012) that poverty, harassment, and a cultural mind-set are the factors that devalue female education.

Likewise, Table 4.6 indicates that improper teaching methods and practices in the classroom is one of the challenges to gender inclusive education. Most teachers continue to hold on to old teaching methods and practices that they acquired during teacher training education. Interestingly, only the students approved this fact by registering percentage score of 67.7% as against 45.0% score of the teachers. One headmaster indicated via interview that;

*“This phenomenon leads to poor academic performance, lack of motivation, absenteeism and lack of understanding among students.”*

Therefore the purpose of inclusive teaching methods which demands the application of multiple teaching strategies at a time to meet the varied needs of the students is affected. This gives meaning to the findings of Nilson (2016) that students learn better when they are actively engaged in activities than when they passively listen to an instructor talk.

Table 4.6 shows that 51.9% of the students and 46.7% of the teachers answered in affirmation that it is real in the schools. Gender violence causes fear, absenteeism and low retention rate among students. This supports the findings of Columbia et al. (2007) that students drop out of school from fear of punishment that can be



categorized as gender based violence and, in the case of girls, experience further consequences for refusing teachers' propositions.

Finally, Table 4.6 shows that 57.6% of students and 50.5% of teachers shared a similar view that lack of effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms in the schools affect the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies in the schools. Lack of effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms in the schools result in absence of data, poor planning and inaccurate report on students. This gives meaning to the observation made by UNESCO (2013) that the implementation of gender policies, frameworks and initiatives need to be carefully planned, continually monitored and regularly evaluated by the policy actors.

In conclusion, the study exposed several threats confronting effective implementation of the gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in Senior High Schools in Berekum. The dominant impediments according to the participants of the study include budgets constraints (funding), poor infrastructural development, improper supervision, low level of family income, parents' low level of education, household chores and agricultural tasks, early marriages and pregnancies, distance to school, sexual harassment from peers and teachers, improper teaching methods and practices in the classroom among others.



## CHAPTER FIVE

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the summary and conclusions drawn on the findings of the analysis and discussions of the respondents' views on "the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the senior high schools in Berekum Municipality". Recommendations as well as suggestions for further studies have also been offered.

#### 5.2 Summary

As already noted, the focus of this study was to investigate the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the senior high schools in Berekum Municipality. Therefore, the four objectives that were set out to guide the study were to: assess the gender inclusive educational strategies available in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality; determine how gender inclusive educational strategies and practices are implemented in the Berekum Municipality; ascertain the benefits of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in the Berekum Municipality; and to investigate the challenges of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in the Berekum Municipality.

Extensive literature was reviewed on gender theories after which liberal feminism theory was adopted to underpin the study. This was so because Liberal feminist theory espouses the notion of equity, fairness, and support in environment of harmonious living which seeks to eliminate all forms of impediments to gender inclusion in the teaching and learning process. The knowledge acquired from that theoretical



framework guided and influenced the process of data collection and the development of themes.

Convergence mixed method design was adopted for the study. All the four public senior high schools in the Berekum Municipality were involved in the study. They were Berekum Presbyterian SHS, Berekum SHS, Jinijini SHS, and Methodist SHS/TECH. Krejcie and Morgan table for sample size determination was used to select the sample size of 520 respondents for the study. Questionnaires and interview guide were the main instruments used for the study. The questionnaires consisted of two parts. The first part dealt with demographic data of respondents. The second part was sub-divided into four parts in agreement with the themes addressed by the research questions as follows: gender inclusive educational strategies available in the SHSs, implementation of gender inclusive strategies in the SHSs, benefits of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies in the SHSs, and the challenges of implementing gender inclusive strategies.



Direct approach was used in the collection of data rather than engaging the services of others. Descriptive as well as inferential statistical tools such as frequencies and percentages were used for the analysis. This was done with the help of computer software called Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), now Statistical Product for Service Solutions.

### **5.3 Summary of Findings**

#### **5.3.1 Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices available in the Senior High Schools**

It was revealed that guidance and counselling, culture of respect and dignity, co-curricular activities, teachers' teaching methods and scholarships were the major strategies and practices available for the inclusion of gender in the SHSs in Berekum Municipality. However, readmission of teenage mother after birth, proper gender records keeping, existence of affirmative action, regular in-service training for teachers on gender and resources mobilization for gender programmes were less prevalent on the school campuses. Interestingly, it was discovered that resources mobilization for gender programmes was extremely low in the schools. This had repercussions on the usefulness of the other inclusive strategies prevailing on the schools environment.

#### **5.3.2 Implementation of Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies in the Senior High Schools**

The findings from the field generally show that there was not enough effort in the implementation of the gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the SHSs in the Berekum Municipality. Almost all the schools assessed had some implementation gaps that need to be addressed as a matter of urgency. A few strategies that received some attention in their implementation include provision of: guidance and counselling, gender friendly teaching methods, co-curricular activities, and culture of respect and dignity in the schools.



Nevertheless, a great chunk of the inclusive strategies that are core to effective gender participation in the teaching and learning process were not given serious attention. With respect to in-service training on gender related issues, it emerged that some few teachers are always selected to attend the training with the hope that they will in turn train the rest of the teachers upon their return, but this is hardly done due to the dearth of resources. Similarly, it was revealed that guidance and counselling coordinators were full time teachers who had little time for the job. They therefore rely on inexperienced form masters and house masters for assistance. Again, it was established that most teachers refuse to apply gender friendly teaching techniques as a result of limited time assigned to the various subjects on the school time table.

This development is not only inimical to the theoretical framework of the study (Liberal feminist theory) which seeks to eliminate all forms of impediments to gender inclusion in the teaching and learning process in the schools but also the recommendations of Anamuah-Mensah National Education Review Committee Report (2002) and Akyeampong et al. (2012) that in implementing the gender inclusive educational strategies, the plans outlined in the gender policy document should be strictly followed.

### **5.3.3 The Opportunities of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies**

Although it has been reported that inadequate effort was put in the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies in the SHSs in the study area as stipulated by policy guidelines, the study revealed a few opportunities in the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the SHSs. These include



increased enrolment, attraction of foreign direct investment in education, and improvement in students' socialisation. This indicates that there would be more opportunities if these gender strategies were well implemented.

#### **5.3.4 Threats of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices.**

The study uncovered several threats confronting implementation of the gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in Senior High Schools in Berekum Municipality. These threats were identified to be socio-economic, cultural, and political/institutional or factors linked to the school.

With regards to the socio-economic factors that impede effective gender participation in the teaching and learning process, it was found out that low level of family income, household chores and agricultural tasks were the dominant challenges in this category.

Similarly, some of the cultural factors that the study identified as barriers to effective gender participation were parents' level of education, early marriages and pregnancies, and lower priority for girls' education.

Again, on the issue of political/institutional challenges, it emerged that budgets constraints (funding), lack of effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms, improper supervision and poor infrastructural development were the main problems.

Finally, it was revealed that factors such as distance to school, sexual harassment from peers and teachers, improper teaching methods and practices among others were



identified by the respondents as school based factors affecting successful gender participation in the schools.

#### **5.4 Conclusions**

Based on the findings of the study, the following conclusions could be drawn:

First, due to the fact that gender inclusive educational strategies and practices available and functional in the Senior High Schools in the Municipality are not sufficient, it can be concluded that gender awareness in the schools is limited.

Second, the inadequate efforts attached to the Implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies presupposes that gender inclusion in the senior high schools in the Municipality is low. This might be due to improper supervision from national down to the school based level.

Third, a few opportunities of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies were identified due to the unsatisfactory efforts put in place to implement these strategies.

Finally, due to the myriad of threats identified by the study, the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the schools may not be as effective as it should be. Therefore, this study argues that unless the identified challenges in the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the SHSs are resolved head-on by policy authorities, effective gender participation in the teaching and learning process in the SHSs and more especially those in the Berekum Municipality will for long remain a mirage.





## 5.5 Recommendations

The following recommendations have been made based on the conclusions drawn from the findings of the study.

To begin with, the Ministry of Education, Ghana Education Service and Curriculum Research and Development Division, should as a matter of importance design and organise regular in-service training for all teachers and students on how to be gender sensitive in their daily teaching and learning practice. This has the predisposition to augment gender awareness and participation in the senior high schools, especially in the Berekum Municipality.

Similarly, the Government, in collaboration with the Non-Governmental Organisations should help provide adequate funds from their budgets to support the funding of gender programmes in senior high schools. This should be done in such a way that, Government as a major financier of public education ought to take the first initiative of satisfying the basic responsibility of releasing funds for implementation of gender educational programmes whilst looking forward to donors' support.

Again, the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Education Service (policy makers) should consider the benefits of gender inclusive education and create enough space in future policies to ensure effective implementation. This should incorporate supervision which is necessary for both students' and teachers' compliance to gender responsiveness.

Also, it emerged from the study that dormitories, classrooms, toilet and bath facilities were not adequate in the schools. It is therefore recommended that Government, in



order to ensure effective implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in the schools, should collaborate with other stakeholders especially the PTAs and NGOs to build infrastructure in the schools.

Furthermore, it was uncovered from literature review that parents and students are major partners for inclusive education. Thus it will only be appropriate for the Municipal gender coordinators to extend the knowledge of gender inclusiveness to parents via PTA meetings.

Finally, the school authorities should collaborate with the gender coordinators to establish clubs in the schools where gender inclusive values would be upheld and disseminated among the students.

### **5.5.1 Recommendations for Further Research**

Based on the issues raised in this study, there is the need for further research on the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in another district, region or nationwide to establish more solid grounds for generalization. Similarly, there is the need for further research on the role of stakeholders in the implementation of gender inclusive educational strategies and practices which could provide a broader and varying view of the topic. Finally, similar study ought to be carried out in private SHSs to ascertain the nature of the problem.



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APPENDIX ONE

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES  
INFORMED CONSENT FORM  
QUESTIONNAIRES FOR STUDENTS

I am conducting a study on gender inclusive practices in the Senior High Schools in the Berekum Municipality of Ghana. This is in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Masters in Philosophy degree in Social Administration at the University for Development Studies, Ghana. I would be very grateful if you could help me achieve this aim by answering this questionnaire. You are sincerely assured of high confidentiality of information given.

Thanks for your co-operation.

(Please tick appropriately)

**Section A**

**Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

Please, respond to each of the items in this section by a tick [] appropriate to your case.

1. Sex: (i) Male [] (ii) Female []
2. Age: (i) 10-15 [] (ii) 16-20 [] (iii) 21 and above []
3. Department: (i) Agric sci [] (ii) Science [] (iii) Gen. arts [] (iv) Technical (v) Visual Arts (vi) Home economics (vii) Business

**Section B**

**Gender Inclusive Strategies and Practices in the Senior High Schools**

4. Please, **TICK** either yes or no to indicate your view on the existence of the following gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in your school.

No.	Gender inclusive educational strategies	YES	NO
i	Guidance and counselling		
ii	Culture of respect and dignity		
iii	Re- admission of teenage mother after birth		
iv	Existence of Affirmative Action		
v	Regular in-service training for teachers on gender		
vi	Gender friendly teaching methods and practices		
vii	Scholarships		
viii	Gender friendly school facilities		
ix	Gender inclusive extracurricular activities		
x	Resources mobilization for gender programmes		
xi	Proper gender records keeping		



5. Others (Specify) .....

**Section C**

**The Benefits of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

6. Please kindly tick either yes or no to indicate your view on the following benefits of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in your school.

<b>Benefits</b>	<b>YES</b>	<b>NO</b>
It instils discipline among students		
Builds students' socialization		
It enhances students' academic performance		
Makes students assertive		
It guides and develops teachers' teaching skills and methodology		
It develops teachers' perception on gender		
It motivates teachers		
It increases enrolment		
It facilitates infrastructure development		
Maintenance of law and order		
It enhances the good image of the school		
It fosters peace and harmony in the community		
It improves literacy rate		
It fosters foreign direct investment in education		
Reduction in teenage pregnancy and early marriages		

7. Others (Specify) .....

**Section D**

**Challenges of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

8. Please kindly tick either yes or no to indicate your view on the following challenges of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in your school.





No.	Challenges of implementing Gender inclusive educational strategies	YES	NO
i	Low level of family income (poverty)		
ii	Household chores and agricultural tasks		
iii	Parents' low level of education		
iv	Early marriages and pregnancies		
v	Lower priority for girls' education		
vi	Budget constraints (funding)		
vii	Improper supervision		
viii	Distance to school		
ix	Sexual harassment from peers and teachers		
x	Poor infrastructure development		
xi	Improper teaching methods and practices		
xii	Insecurity to and from school		
xiii	Lack of effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms for gender		

No.	Challenge	Brief Explanation
i	Low level of family income (poverty)	.....
ii	Household chores and agricultural tasks	.....
iii	Parents' low level of education	.....
iv	Early marriages and pregnancies	.....
v	Lower priority for girls' education	.....
vi	Distance to school	.....
vii	Sexual harassment from peers and teachers	.....
viii	Poor infrastructure development in the school	.....
ix	Bad teaching methods and practices by teachers	.....
x	Insecurity as a result of gender violence	.....
xi	Improper records keeping on gender	.....

9. Explain how each of the following you ticked in **Q8** affects negatively your education in the table below

10. What is the nature of the urinal and toilet facilities in your school?

11 Do you think the guidance and counselling in your school is effective in addressing your needs?



**APPENDIX TWO**  
**UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**  
**INFORMED CONSENT FORM**  
**QUESTIONNAIRES FOR TEACHERS**

I am conducting a study on gender inclusive practices in the Senior High Schools in the Berekum Municipality of Ghana. This is in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Masters in Philosophy degree in Social Administration at the University for Development Studies, Ghana. I would be very grateful if you could help me achieve this aim by answering this questionnaire. You are sincerely assured of high confidentiality of information given.

Thanks for your co-operation.

**(Please tick appropriately)**

**Section A**

**Demographic Characteristics of Respondents**

11. Sex: (i) Male [ ] (ii) Female [ ]
12. Age: (i) 25 - 29 [ ] (ii) 30-34 [ ] (iii)35-39[ ] (iv)40 and above[ ]
13. Marital Status: (i) Married [ ] (ii) Single [ ] (iii) Divorce [ ] (iv) Widow/ Widower [ ] Separated [ ]
14. Department: (i) Agric sci [ ] (ii) Science [ ] (iii) Gen. arts [ ] (iv)Technical [ ] (v) Visual Arts [ ] (vi) Home economics [ ] (vii) Business [ ]
15. Number of years in current school: (i) 1-5[ ] (ii) 6-10 [ ] (iii) 11 and above [ ]

**Section B**

**Gender Inclusive Strategies and Practices in the Senior High Schools**

16. Please, **TICK** either yes or no to indicate your view on the existence of the following gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in your school.

No.	Gender inclusive educational strategies	YES	NO
i	Guidance and counselling		
ii	Culture of respect and dignity		
iii	Re- admission of teenage mother after birth		
iv	Existence of Affirmative Action		
v	Regular in-service training for teachers on gender		
vi	Gender friendly teaching methods and practices		
vii	Scholarships		
viii	Gender friendly school facilities		
ix	Gender inclusive extracurricular activities		
x	Resources mobilization for gender programmes		
xi	Proper gender records keeping		





**Section C**

**The Implementation of Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

17. Please, kindly tick [√] in the appropriate boxes to indicate your view on each of these statements about how gender inclusive educational strategies and practices are implemented in your school.

strategies	Scale			
	Strongly agree	agree	disagree	Strongly disagree
Guidance and counselling services in the school is regular and effective				
There is a systematic way of maintaining and protecting culture of respect and dignity for gender in the school				
Re-admission of teenage mothers after birth is done in the schools				
Affirmative Action is applied in the school regularly				
There is regular in-service training for teachers and students on gender				
Teachers often use group work, role play, debates, case studies and exploration in lessons delivery.				
Scholarships in the school are fairly distributed among the students				
The facilities in the school have the capacity to contain both the males and females (well-maintained toilet and urinals)				
Gender is inclusive in all co-curricular activities				
Resources mobilization for gender programmes in the school is adequate				

18. Give reason to your choice in Q20

.....



**Section D**

19. Please kindly tick either yes or no to indicate your view on the following benefits of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in your school.

<b>Benefits</b>	<b>YES</b>	<b>NO</b>
It instils discipline among students		
Builds students' socialization		
It enhances students' academic performance		
Makes students assertive		
It guides and develops teachers' teaching skills and methodology		
It develops teachers' perception on gender		
It motivates teachers		
It increases enrolment		
It facilitates infrastructure development		
Maintenance of law and order		
It enhances the good image of the school		
It fosters peace and harmony in the community		
It improves literacy rate		
It fosters foreign direct investment in education		
Reduction in teenage pregnancy and early marriages		

20. Give reason to your choice in Q21



**Section E**

**Challenges of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

21. Please, kindly tick either yes or no to indicate your view on the following challenges of implementing gender inclusive educational strategies and practices in your school.

No.	Challenges of gender inclusive educational strategies	YES	NO
i	Low level of family income (poverty)		
ii	Household chores and agricultural tasks		
iii	Parents' low level of education		
iv	Early marriages and pregnancies		
v	Lower priority for girls' education		
vi	Budget constraints (funding)		
vii	Improper supervision		
viii	Distance to school		
ix	Sexual harassment from peers and teachers		
x	Poor infrastructure development		
xi	Improper teaching methods and practices		
xii	Insecurity to and from school		
xiii	Lack of effective monitoring and evaluation mechanisms for gender		

22. Give reasons for your answers in **Q23**.

.....



**APPENDIX THREE**  
**UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**  
**INFORMED CONSENT FORM**  
**INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEADMASTERS AND EDUCATION OFFICERS**  
**IN BEREKUM MUNICIPALITY**

I am conducting a study on gender inclusive practices in the Senior High Schools in the Berekum Municipality of Ghana. This is in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the award of Masters in Philosophy degree in Social Administration at the University for Development Studies, Ghana. I would be very grateful if you could help me achieve this aim by answering this questionnaire. You are sincerely assured of high confidentiality of information given.

Thanks for your co-operation.

**Gender Inclusive Strategies and Practices in the Senior High Schools**

- 1 a. Please, what are some of the gender inclusive educational strategies and practices existing in your school?
- b. Why do you practice the ones you have mentioned in **Q1a** and not others?

**The Implementation of Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

2. a. How is guidance and counselling practiced in your school?
- b. Are you satisfied with the way it is organized in the school?
- c. Give reason to your answer?
3. a. How is the culture of respect and dignity for both males and females implemented in your school?
- b. Who supervises its implementation?
- c. Are you satisfied with the level of respect and dignity accorded males and females in your school?
- d. Give reason to your answer.....
4. a. Are teenage mothers readmitted in your school after they have given birth?
- b. Give a reason for your answer in **4a** above
- c. Who supervises its implementation?
5. a. How is affirmative action applied in your school?
- b. Who supervise its implementation?
6. a. How often does your school organize in- service training for teachers on gender?
- b. Who supervises it?
7. a. How often do your teachers apply gender friendly teaching methods and practices such as role play, debates, group work, case studies and exploration in their classrooms?
- b. How can your teachers' methods of teaching be improved?
8. a. How does your school ensure the inclusion of both males and females in all extracurricular activities?
- b. Who supervises its implementation?
- c. Are you satisfied with how gender is considered in all co-curricular activities in your school?
- d. Give reason to your answer?



9.
  - a. How is scholarship schemes implemented in your school?
  - b. Who supervise its implementation?
- c. Are you satisfied with its implementation in your school?
- d. Give reason to your answer in **Q9c**?
10.
  - a. How does the school facilitate the provision of gender friendly facilities?
  - b. Who supervises its implementation?
    - c. Do you think the facilities in your school can adequately support gender needs?
    - d. Give reason to your choice?
10.
  - a. Does the culture of gender records keeping exist in your school?
  - b. How is it implemented in your school?
  - c. If no, why is it not implemented in your school?
11.
  - a. Where does your school get resources for the implementation of gender programmes?
    - b. Are the resources adequate?
    - c. Give reason to your answer in **21b**.
13. How do you ensure effective implementations of these strategies in your school?

#### **The Benefits of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

14. How does the gender inclusive educational strategies and practices benefit:
- a. The teachers?
  - b. Students?
  - c. The school?
  - d. The community?

#### **Challenges of Implementing Gender Inclusive Educational Strategies and Practices**

15. What are the challenges you face in implementing gender inclusive strategies in your school?
16. In your own view, how can these challenges be addressed?
17. What do you think can be done to improve female retention and completion rate in your school?

