

GIRL CHILD EDUCATION AT THE PRE-TERTIARY LEVEL IN THE
BUNKPURUGU/YUNYOO DISTRICT; ISSUES, CHALLENGES AND THE WAY
FORWARD

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FORWARD

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IN DEVELOPMENT STUDIES



FEBRUARY 2022

Student

I hereby declare that this thesis 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.

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

Supervisor's Signature..... Date.....

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ABSTRACT

The study sought to investigate the issues, challenges and find the way forward for female education at the pre-tertiary level of education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. To achieve this objective, the descriptive research design was employed to collect data from 153 respondents using questionnaire, interview schedule and interview guide. The study found that lack of parental care and encouragement of females at home by fathers is a critical factor affecting female education in the area. Rather, it is mothers that are more responsible in taking care of their female wards at home. In this regard, whereas majority (57.3%) of the mothers care for their female wards at home, only a few (32.7 %) of the fathers do same. The study also revealed high parental preference of male education to female education. The study revealed low level of awareness of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and Capitation Grant among students and parents. Most female students at the pre-tertiary level in the District were ignorant about some educational policies in Ghana, particularly the Free and Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and the Capitation grant policies as majority ((80.9%) of the female students have never heard of FCUBE. Campaign for female education (CAMFED) was the only found vibrant non-governmental organisation (NGO) in the District. It is the only NGO most (70.9%) of the respondents are aware of in the district, which suggests that it is widespread in the area. It is therefore recommended that community-wide education should be carried out by both the Ghana Education Office and Non-Governmental organisations like Camfed to educate parents, especially fathers, on the need to educate their girl-child.



DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late mother, Adisah Afisi; my wife, Rabi Biiduki as well as my children, Abdul-Hafis, Amshau, Samiratu, Rachiatu and Abdul-Mukadas.



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INTRODUCTION

This chapter comprises the background to the study, statement of the problem, research objectives and questions, purpose of the study, scope of the study, limitations of the study, and organization of the study. Generally, this chapter prepares the basis for an in-depth research into the topic as indicated above.

1.1 Background to the Study

Education, generally, and formal education in particular, has become the bedrock of development. If a nation will have to develop, it must necessarily develop its human resources; but human resources cannot be effectively developed without first concentrating on giving them some reasonable amount of formal education. Education helps to prepare and strengthen people’s analytical and reasoning ability, putting them in a position that gives them self-confidence, self-esteem and self-respect. Children without education are deprived of many things including income, health and opportunities, and a society that turns a blind eye to education risks losing the economic productivity and social welfare of its people in the future (Anderson, 1992). Education is a human right and a fulfilling experience that helps girls and boys reach their full potential in society. It is for this reason that Education for All (EFA) and the education targets of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were put in place specifically to address concerns linked to education and development.

Despite all these importance of education, millions of children in Africa are still out of school, a majority of them being girls. Gender inequalities in education persist in Sub-Saharan Africa to the detriment of girls. This is evidenced by disparities in access to school as well as in enrolment, retention, completion, and performance rates. These disparities point



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to structural and systemic gender inequality which is partly reflected in education, as was reported by The State of the World's Children in 2007 (FAWE, 2009).

It is, indeed, regrettable that society has skewed education along gender lines, to the extent that educating a boy has almost become a right but rather a privilege to the girl; with most parents reluctant to send their female children to school. Even when they do, the levels of retention, completion, and transition of girls at various levels of the formal education system strata also worsen progressively. This has resulted in the under representation of the needs and concerns of women and girls in the socio-economic and political development processes of Ghana (Ghanaian Chronicle; Monday September 16, 2013). This defeats the aim of the framers of the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy which preaches 'Education for All'; especially, at the basic level in Ghana.

A nation can prosper only with the united efforts of men and women. If both of them are educated, they can work hand in hand for the progress of the nation. The women population in Ghana is about 51% of the entire Ghanaian population (GSS, 2010). If these women are not educated, the implication is that the nation will be losing more than half of its potential productive labour, but no country can progress with half of the population being uneducated.



Many of the concerns and constraints in girls' education are rooted in deep-seated gender inequalities. Entrenched assumptions about girls' roles as caretakers, mothers, brides and household labourers influence perceptions of the value of girls' education and the life and career choices that are available to them. Changing these attitudes and behaviours is one of the greatest challenges facing girls' education and also one of the most complex issues to address (Plan RESA, 2011).

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The systematic exclusion of girls and women from school and the labor force translates into a less educated work force, inefficient allocation of labor, lost productivity, and consequently diminished progress in economic development. There is, indeed, a multiplier effect to educating girls and women. More educated women tend to be healthier, participate more in the formal labor market, earn more income, have fewer children, and provide better health care and education to their children, all of which eventually improve the well-being of all individuals and can lift households out of poverty. These benefits also transmit across generations, as well as to communities at large (World Bank, 2012).

According to the UN (2010), the education of parents is linked to their children's educational attainment, and the mother's education is usually more influential than the father's. An educated mother's greater influence in household negotiations may allow her to secure more resources for her children. More so, educated mothers are more likely to be in the labor force, allowing them to pay some of the costs of schooling, and may be more aware of returns to schooling. Educated mothers, averaging fewer children, can concentrate more attention on each child. Besides having fewer children, mothers with schooling are less likely to have mistimed or unintended births, as this has implications for schooling, because poor parents often must choose which of their children to educate.



It was for similar reasons that Dr. Kwagyir Aggrey stated that “if you educate a man you educate an individual but if you educate a woman you educate a nation” (Buah, 1980). Dr Aggrey’s statement summarizes the essence of education to the girl-child and indeed, to every educable human being, and so calls for special attention to be focused on education of the girl-child. This call and several others across the world made governments to formulate and implement policies that promote child, especially girl-child, education and Ghana is no exception to that.

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The government's policy on girl-child education in Ghana is documented in the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme of 1995. The third component of the programme (Access and Participation) stresses the need to have gender equality in enrolment of all children of school going age, and to ensure high retention rate for the girl-child during the period of basic education. The objective of promoting girl-child education is to achieve women empowerment to solve gender imbalances that exist in our social set up. This gender gap or imbalance is attributed to social and cultural barriers that have discouraged women and girls from seeking equal opportunities in all aspects of life (Sekyere, 2010).

The Government of Ghana has also demonstrated its commitment to the education of girls and young women by creating a special unit within the Basic Education Division devoted to girls' education in 1997. The Unit's aim is to ensure Ghana achieves gender parity within Basic Education, in line with the Millennium Development Goal 3 (i.e., the elimination of gender disparity in primary and secondary levels of education) and to raise the social capital of girls for national development.

The government has further demonstrated this commitment at other levels. Indeed, the abolishment of school fees, in combination with the introduction of a capitation grant in 2005, has been one of the most effective interventions in years to increase girls' access to education. Other activities include providing scholarships and bicycles for girls; training and deployment of female teachers to rural areas; promoting girls' clubs and camps; capacity-building with Girls' Education Officers in all districts and regions; and the publication of a national status report on gender parity in education.

A UN report in 2011 stated categorically that "With the abolition of school fees in many countries, the last decade has seen a rapid increase in primary school enrolment rates. In sub-



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Saharan Africa an additional 52 million children enrolled in primary education from 1999 to 2008, and during the same period, girls' primary enrolment increased from 54% to 74%. Despite this progress, 29 million children remain out of school in the region, 54% of whom are girls. The likelihood of achieving universal primary education in Africa by 2015 thus looks increasingly remote.”

A 2011 World Bank survey of young people in Ghana aged 21 to 24 found that the gender gap is significant from the start, with only 84.1% of girls starting primary school, versus 90.7% of boys. 86.5% of those girls completed primary school, compared with 92.7% of those boys. The transition rate from primary to junior high was again lower for girls (91.5%) than for boys (96.7%), although among those who started junior high, girls had a higher likelihood of completing (89.4%) than boys (88%). The transition from junior high to senior high was however much lower for girls (51.2%), than for boys (65.1%), with few differences between boys and girls in completion rates amongst those who started senior high.

1.2 Problem Statement

Even though recent statistics, including the 2010 population census in Ghana show that females form over 51% in most parts of the world, research has shown that the rate of female enrolment at all levels of education remains remarkably lower than boys. It is also noted that among those that enrol into elementary school, few succeed in proceeding to second cycle institutions and fewer to the tertiary level. Statistics also show that out of over 51% enrolment, less than 10% of women actually make it to the very top of the educational ladder.

According to Buvinic et al (2008) “In a World Bank report in 2007, an update snapshot on the status of countries' progress at midpoint (2007) in meeting MDG3 indicate that 82 out of 122 countries achieved the official MDG midpoint target of parity in primary and secondary schooling by 2005. Some 19 countries are off track or unlikely to achieve the target by 2015.



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Of these 19 countries, 13 are in sub-Saharan Africa. So unless these countries significantly intensify action on girls' school enrolment, the official MDG3 goal will not be attained. A challenge is to increase the completion rate of education for all along with a specific focus on keeping girls in school". In 2008, in primary schools specifically, Sub-Saharan Africa had yet to achieve gender parity. Gender disparities were largest in rural areas and among poor households. In secondary school, only 30 percent of boys and 25 percent of girls were enrolled. Redressing this situation demands serious investment in getting more children, both boys and girls, to secondary school and achieving gender parity.

The World Bank's statement did not look different from what was revealed by the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS 2010). In fact, it was revealed in the 2010 Population and Housing Census that "23.4 percent of the population aged three years and older in Ghana has never been to school. The proportion currently attending school and those who have attended school before are 39.5 percent and 37.1 percent respectively. The proportion of the population which has never attended school in the rural area (33.1%) is more than two times that of the urban area (14.2%). There is also a marked difference between males (9.1%) and females (14.3%) who have never attended school". It further states that "among the regions, there are variations in the levels of school attendance. The proportions of the population who have never been to school in the three northern regions range between 44.5 percent in Upper East and 54.9 percent in the Northern region while in the other regions, it ranges between 10.1 percent in Greater Accra to 26.4 percent in Brong Ahafo".

The GSS 2010 report did not end there; it also indicates that "of those currently attending school, close to half (46.4%) are in primary school while 18 percent are in JSS/JHS. Only nine percent are in SSS/SHS. For those who had attended school in the past, 53.7 percent of them had Middle or JHS/JSS as their highest level of education while a smaller proportion (15.5%) had attended SSS/SHS or Secondary School. There are relatively more females



(53.0%) than males (40.5%) with Primary and JSS/JHS as their highest level of education.

This implies that females are more likely than males to drop out at the primary and JHS level” (GSS, 2010). In terms of enrolment, more males are enrolled especially in schools than their female counterparts. Table 1.1 below shows the league table of girl and boy child enrolments in basic schools in the Northern Region from 2010-2016. The table shows that for a period of six years, more males are enrolled than their female counterparts in the basic schools further attesting to the disparity of between boy child and girl child education.

Table 1.1: Percentage of Boys and Girls Enrolments in Basic Schools in Northern Region From 2010-2016

year	Boy (%)	Girl (%)	Total (N)
2010	54	46	656,693
2011	54	46	695,514
2012	54	46	725,861
2013	53	47	752,271
2014	53	47	796,302
2015	53	47	842,811
2016	52	48	831,856

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2018).

Furthermore, disparities in education can also be observed through various distributions. It is interesting to note that within regions, towns and even communities, a consistent feature is



widespread gender disparity in educational attainment. Looking at the following figures of registration of candidates for the 2014 WASSCE examination (region by region) posted by WAEC on their website, it is interesting to note that northern region ranked last among the regions in terms of gender disparity in secondary education for the year as presented in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: May/June 2014 West African Senior School Certificate Examination (WASSCE) Entry Figures by Region

Region	Male	Female	Total
GREATER ACCRA	13,768(50.6%)	13,436(49.4%)	27,204
EASTERN	17,694(49.4%)	18,088(50.6%)	35,782
CENTRAL	13,265(51.5%)	12,502(48.5%)	25,767
WESTERN	8,154(50.8%)	7,887(49.1%)	16,041
ASHANTI	31,960(51.2%)	30,462(48.8%)	62,422
BRONG AHAFO	12,110(53.7%)	10,452(46.3%)	22,562
VOLTA	11,441(54.7%)	9,462(45.3%)	20,903
NORTHERN	10,893(61.1%)	6,951(38.9%)	17,844
UPPER EAST	4,688 (53.5%)	4,076(46.5%)	8,764
UPPER WEST	2,946 (60.5%)	1,922(39.5%)	4,868
Total	126,919	115,238	242,157

Source: West African Examinations Council (WAEC), 2014.

The WAEC figures above go a long way to confirm the Savannah News report in 2011 that “Several regions of Ghana experienced significant gaps between the number of boys and girls in school. Disparities were particularly sharp in the Northern Region due to early or forced marriages and lack of parental care (Fant, 2008). In this region only about 65% of girls are



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enrolled, compared to 77% of boys. In several districts of the Northern Region fewer than half of primary school-age girls are enrolled”. The situation is not different in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District.

It is therefore important to help more girls and young women in the district and for that matter this region to get enrolled; make the transition from primary to secondary school; and successfully complete Senior High School with flying colours. In that case a good number of them will find their way into tertiary institutions and hence the job market. This will give us the leverage we need in our fight against poverty.

From the foregoing therefore, it is clear that the problem of gender disparity in education is not only one of enrolment but also of retention and continuity. So the question then is: what are the issues and challenges behind the low female enrolment, retention and continuity in schools at the pre-tertiary level of education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District? *The aim of this study therefore, is to find out the issues, challenges and the way forward for female education at the pre-tertiary level in the Buunkpurugu/Yunyoo District.*

1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 Main Research Question

What are the issues, challenges and the way forward for female education at the pre-tertiary level of Education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District of the Northern Region?

1.3.2 Specific Research Questions

The specific questions the study seeks to answer are:

1. How are parental and students’ attitudes and perceptions of female education affect female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district?
2. To what extent are people aware of the National Educational policies and other stakeholders’ interventions in education in the district



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3. Are the policies and interventions having any positive impact on the education of children, especially females, in the district?
4. What interventions can help improve female enrolment, retention and progression in education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district?

1.4 Research Objectives

1.4.1 Main Research Objective

To investigate the issues, challenges and find the way forward for female education at the pre-tertiary level of education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District in the Northern Region.

1.4.2 Specific Research Objectives

1. To examine how parental and students' attitudes and perceptions are affecting female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district.
2. To assess people's awareness of the national educational policies and NGOs' interventions in education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district.
3. To determine if those policies and interventions have any positive impact on the education of children, especially females, in the district.
4. To identify some interventions that will help improve female enrolment, retention and progression in education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district.




1.5 Significance of the Study

The researcher decided to carry out the research on this topic because women have often been discriminated against. There is a vast gap in terms of the gender disparity in education; with females at the disadvantaged end. Northern Region, as disclosed by the summary report of the Ghana Statistical Service (2010) census report on education, has the highest number of people out of school and the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District represents a clear picture of that situation.

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Many training opportunities as well as career ladder have been either closed to women or considerably less opened to women than men. In traditional societies, it is believed that women's place is in the kitchen and therefore they need not be educated. It is a general belief that the female always survive without formal education. The only hope for the male child is to be educated. Therefore, if this problem of discrimination is eradicated, it would help women appreciate their values so that they would not be discriminated against in their day-to-day life, and illiteracy too would be eradicated. If this happens, it means that the 62,351 females as compared to the 60,240 males in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district (GSS, 2010) will be alleviated from poverty, and it will go a long way to benefit the district in particular and the nation at large. There is therefore the need to carry out this research to find out the factors that affect female education in the district and hence inhibiting their contribution towards national development.

As a nation, it is clear that failure to find answers to low female education means; high dependency rate, children being used as economic assets, low human resource base of the country, and difficulty in eradicating negative cultural practices among others. The unanswered question is; how many of the females in the witches' camps are educated and how many of those subjected to the disgusting female genital mutilation are educated? The answers to these questions make female education an area that should not be overlooked. It is therefore the researcher's expectation that this study when completed and made public will;

- 
- (a) Enable educational and political authorities to know how to direct their efforts towards achieving gender parity in education within the district;
 - (b) Enable parents know and understand the importance of female education;
 - (c) Enable society understand the effects of gender discrimination and apply corrective measures to facilitate/accelerate development;
 - (d) Enable teachers know their role in encouraging females to continue in school.

(e). contribute academic literature in the area of girl-child education.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The study is limited to the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district of the Northern Region of Ghana. The Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District is located in the eastern part of the Northern Region. It shares borders with the East Mamprusi and Gushegu Districts in the Northern Region as well as the Garu/ Tempani District of the Upper East Region. More so, and very importantly, the district shares border with the Republic of Togo. Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district has been purposefully chosen for this study because, just like any other deprived district, majority of the females in the district are either not schooling or are unable to school up to the tertiary level if they find themselves in school. Contextually, the study focused on the factors that hinder female enrolment and retention in schools at the pre-tertiary level in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district. Specifically, the study assessed factors such as parental attitude and perceptions, students' attitude and perception of education, policy/initiatives, religious, geographic, socio-cultural, school environment, and socio-economic factors that affect female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District of Ghana.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

As it has always been with most research works, it is expected that the researcher will encounter some limitations in the course of the study. One of such limitations was financial constraints as the study involved printing of questionnaires and other materials, the use of internet, traveling around, and seeking the support of extra hands in questionnaires administration. All these constituted cost which the researcher could not avoid.

Another limitation encountered by the researcher in collecting field data had been chieftaincy and ethnic (Konkombas and Bimobas) conflicts. As result of the conflict, curfew was imposed on most parts of the district with the time starting from 4pm to 6am in some



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areas and 10pm to 4am in other areas. This created some difficulty in questionnaire administration as there was limited time in the day for questionnaires administration. Besides the curfew, there was also the danger of research assistants being harmed by some unscrupulous persons, may be by mistake, in the conflict-prone areas.

Time constraint was also a limitation that is worth mentioning. The time given for the submission of the work coupled with the researcher's busy schedules at the work place put much pressure on the researcher. The other limitation too was the difficulty in getting respondents to readily answer questionnaires. For the fear of something untoward happening to them, not everyone, especially in the rural areas, was willing to give out the information being solicited from them. Sometimes inaccurate information was given just to please the interviewer. Notwithstanding these impediments, the researcher was able to calm them and made sure that the right data was elicited from respondents.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The study is organized in five distinct chapters. Chapter one deals with the general introduction to the study comprising background to the study, problem statement, research objectives and research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, the limitations of the study, and the organization of the study. Chapter two constitutes a review of related literature. This assessed and analysed various research works carried on the importance of female education and the factors affecting female education. It further elaborated on the theoretical, conceptual and empirical review of other researchers' works on the topic, giving rise to some key findings and conceptual framework that guided the study. Chapter three describes the research methodology adopted in data collection and analysis. It included the research design, sources of data, study population, sampling frame and sample



size, sampling techniques and www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh procedure, data collection, and methods of data analysis. Chapter four deals with the results and discussions of the analysed data as this presented according to the study objectives. Chapter five captures a summary of the key findings, conclusion and recommendations.



LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews relevant and related literature on the study topic girl-child education. This encapsulates the theoretical framework, overview of girl-child education in developing countries in general and the specific situation in Ghana. The review further outlines conceptual issues and empirical review as discussed in the various sub-sections below. The chapter also concludes with a summary that guides the design of appropriate methodology to collect field data for analysis and discussion.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

There are so many theories of education. However, for the purpose of this study a few of them were seen to be relevant; the Poor Family Socialization Theory, the Radical Feminist Theory, and the Human Capital Theory were seen to be more relevant than others and so adopted since these aforementioned theories are widely used by authors such as Bako (2016) and Ankalibazuk (2017) as the basis to conduct their studies. These theories are briefly outlined and discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.2.1 Poor Family Socialization Theory

The Poor Family Socialization goes back to a child's development within his/her family. A student's performance in school is directly affected by his family history including divorce, stress and parental behavior. The most critical aspects of this theory are the education level of the students' parents and their future plans for the child. Highly educated parents demand more education for their children (Ngau, 1991 in Ankalibazuk, 2017). Many illiterate parents



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have low academic expectation for their daughters and therefore do not want to spend more on them. Some believe that higher education is for boys only and that boys are more brilliant than girls and perform better than girls (Ankalibazuk, 2017).

2.2.2 Radical Feminist Theory

According to Cain et al (1979) in Ankalibazuk (2017) it is believed that African patriarchal societal viewpoint favors boys over girls because boys maintain the family lineage. African societies are characterized by gender inequality between males and females. The ideological foundation for gender inequality is their patriarchal structure. Social roles are classified as superior or inferior, and the bases of these classification are age and sex. Women's activities are largely confined to the household or the female sections of family compound. Thus, women are expected to get married and care for their families, formal education is not regarded as a prerequisite for being a wife and mother. Boys are rather expected to have formal education (Ankalibazuk, 2017).

2.2.3 Human Capital Theory

In order to understand the issue of girl-child education and its challenges, we adopted the Human capital formation and Manpower planning model by Jhingan (2007) in Bako (2016).


According to Jhingan (2007) in Bako (2016), human capital formation refers to the process of acquiring and increasing the number of persons who have the skills, education and experience which are critical for the economic and political development of a country. Human capital formation is thus associated with investment in man and his development as a creative and productive resource. According to Schultz in Bako (2016), there are five ways of developing human resources: (i) health facilities and services, broadly conceived to include all expenditures that affect the life expectancy, strength and stamina, and the vigor and vitality of



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the people; (ii) on-the-job training, including old type apprenticeships organized by firms; (iii) formally organized education at the elementary, secondary and higher levels; (iv) study program for adults that are not organized by firms or government; including extension program, notably in agriculture; (v) migration of individuals and families to adjust to changing job opportunities.

In its wider sense, investment in human capital means expenditure on health, education and social services in general; and in its narrower sense, it implies expenditure on education and training. It has become conventional to talk about investment in human resources in its narrower sense because expenditure on education and training is capable of measurement as compared to the expenditure on social services. Now it is increasingly recognized that the growth of tangible capital formation is the —process of increasing knowledge, the skills and the capacities of all people of the country. Jhingan (2007) further stated that manpower planning relates to the long-range development of semi-skilled and skilled manpower requirements of the economy, and to plan educational priorities and investments in human resource development so as to enlarge employment opportunities in the future.



The general approach to manpower planning in LDCs is in threefold: first, to identify the skilled manpower shortages in each sector of the economy and reasons thereof; second, to identify the power surpluses in both the modernizing and traditional sectors and the reasons for such surpluses; and third, to lay down a strategy for manpower planning.

Harbison, in Bako (2016), points towards a three-pronged strategy for human resource development to overcome the manpower shortages and surpluses in LDCs. The essential components of such a strategy are:

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1. Building of incentives: in the LDCs, people should be encouraged to engage in such productive activities which are needed to accelerate the process of economic development. Since all skills are critically scarce, scientists, engineers, doctors, managerial and administrative personnel, etc. should be encouraged and given due status. In the majority of LDCs due recognition in the form of good salary and high social status is not given to persons possessing such critical skills. Often political pressures, caste, creed and regionalism result in a tragic waste of precious talent, low morale and undermining of efficiency. The building of incentives is crucial for both the accumulation and investment of human capital. In fact, investments in education may be wasted unless men and women have the will to prepare for and engage in those activities which are needed for accelerated growth. Moreover, the market mechanism should be made more effective for the optimum allocation of manpower (Bako, 2016).

2. Training of employed manpower: the second important plank for the strategy of human resource development is to upgrade the qualifications and improving the performance of employed manpower in strategic occupations. For this purpose, efforts should be made to develop management-training programs, supervisory-training courses, productivity centers, institutes of public administration, etc. To meet the expanding manpower needs of firms, on-the job training and apprenticeship programs should be started. Universities and vocational institutes can start part-time extension and evening classes. The greatest need is for massive agricultural extension services and rural community reorganization and development programs for the transformation of traditional agriculture and rural life. These require the training of local young men at village-level and extension workers so that the farmers are provided basic education in rural development and their skills are upgraded. But these measures are dependent upon basic programs of land reforms (Bako, 2016).



3. Development of formal education: the third component of the strategy for manpower planning is the building of the system of formal education. —In planning the development of formal education, the LDCs are faced with difficult choices. Since education of all kinds is underdeveloped, it would be desirable to expand it rapidly at every level. A strong case could be made for a crash program to extend and improve primary education. Secondary education is, of course, the most critical bottleneck in providing new additions to the desperately short supply of high-level manpower of all kinds. Expansion of higher education is indispensable if foreigners are to be replaced by local nationals. So far as the primary education is concerned, the emphasis should be not only on increasing the number of pupils enrolled but also on improving the quality of education by employing qualified teachers (Bako, 2016).

Another element in the strategy for formal education is adult education. The programme of formal adult education should include —agricultural and cooperative extension work, fundamental education and other organized programmes to enable men and women to participate more effectively in their country's economic development. Investment on adult education is time-saving and cost-reducing and provides more lucrative returns than any other kind of educational investment.



These three elements of manpower strategy are interdependent and progress in one is dependent upon progress in the other two. Therefore, LDCs should plan an integrated attack on all three fronts simultaneously.

The theoretical framework adopted for the study is derived from the Needs Hierarchy Theory developed by Abraham Maslow, an American psychologist (Maslow 1954). This theory relates to human growth and personal development and is also referred to as Theories of

motivation. Maslow came up with five ladders of needs which are arranged in hierarchical form as follows:

1. Physical needs: hunger, thirst, shelter, sexual drive and sleep
2. Safety needs: security and protection from physical and emotional harm
3. Social needs: affiliation, belonging, acceptance and companionship.
4. Esteem needs: Internal esteem factors such as self- respect, autonomy and \achievement; and external esteem factors such as status, recognition and attention
5. Self-actualization: growth, achieving one's potential and fulfilment: The drive to become what one is capable of becoming (Bako, 2016).

As each need is substantially satisfied the next need becomes dominant. At the base level of need hierarchy are the physiological needs essential for the survival of human life. These are supposed to be socio-economic set up or rural areas tend to deprive children of these basic needs and in such a situation the girl-child is more disadvantaged than the boy-child (GCN, 2004). This is because of the preferences accorded to the boy child.

Maslow's theory is therefore relevant in this study because its emphasis and considerations are on the provisions of the basic needs for one to achieve the higher needs. The theory is concerned with achievement of self –actualization at the top of the pyramid which can only be attained through education.



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Unfortunately the girl-child is not always motivated at home and at school. They are often deprived of these basic needs by the society. The schools and the entire environment's settings should endeavour to provide all the learners with these physiological needs or else the individual may end up in disillusionment. In school setting teachers should be careful to guide girls to divert their sexual libido at adolescence to some vigorous school activities and games like soccer, rugby or basketball rather than the in-door games and stereotype daily routines that the girl child is permanently engaged in at home; such vigorous activities should be extended also at home. This could be reducing the problem of early pregnancy which happens to be one of the causes of school dropout for girls.

When girls feel that they are not secure at school, proper learning may not take place. The buildings, toilets and other physical structures and even the distance to school should be secure and adequate. According to Maslow safety needs come, after hunger has been satisfied and clothing provided.

Another level of needs that the girl-child seems to lack is the love and affiliation need according to Ouma (2013). The girl-child is often given names and made to feel that they are worthless. They are often grouped separately from boys and made to compete with them in



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activities that are likely to favour boys to win making the girls a laughing stalk. Teachers should therefore facilitate and encourage fair groupings and group activities that favour on the learners and award the good effort made by them towards their education. Such negative comments common at home that sound negative to girls' motivation should be avoided in order to encourage the girls to work hard in academics for attainment of self-actualization. The teachers and parents should show acceptance to the girl-child so that she can feel recognized, have a sense of self-worth and belongingness (Ouma, 2013).

2.3 Overview of Girl-Child Education in Developing Countries

The problem of low level girl-child educational achievement relative to boys in developing countries has been established by number of studies. According to Ankalibazuk (2017) comparative data for Latin America, Asia and the Middle East indicate that both the gross primary and the secondary enrolment ratios were significantly lower in sub-Saharan African region than in developing regions. It explains further that as many as 36 million girls in sub-Saharan Africa are missing from school, and those who gain access to education are often poorly served. While the same number of boys and girls enrolled in first grade, by fourth grade, 50% of the female students have dropped out. In other words, enrolment decreases, the higher one ascends the educational hierarchy. Some factors responsible for imbalances in female access to education according to Ankalibazuk (2017) are wage discrimination, quality of education offered to girls, type of school, religion and ethnicity. He further indicated that studies in West Africa indicated that parents, unless wealthy, preferred to educate their sons on the assumption that education "pays off" in life time wages more handsomely for males than for females. According to Mumba (2002) in Ankalibazuk (2017) among the major problems identified in the research studies were that in primary school, the enrolment, retention and completion rates of girls were lower than that of boys; and many



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parents prefer to spend the little money they have on the education of boys rather than of girls.

According to Bako (2016) female education is recognized as one of the critical pathways to promote social and economic development. Evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa indicates that although there have been improvements in female participation, girls' and women's access to education remains limited in several countries across the region. It is evident that, once enrolled, girls are more likely to drop out of school than boys; that their educational achievement is poorer than that of boys and that few girls for math or science-related fields of study. In Nepal for instance, there are number of obstacles to girl-child education. This includes the following:

- Parents and guardians are generally illiterates, with little awareness of the importance of education, particularly for girl children
- Financial constraints including lack of government scholarship for the girl-child
- Domestic responsibilities of cooking and washing, coupled with trading to earn extra income for the family
- Difficulty to reconcile situation at home with need to study, i.e. no parental support, densely populated houses with bad lighting.
- Peer pressure from non-school going friends
- Lack of aspiration as the only professional option is the traditional sweeping job.
- Parents and guardians unable to follow the school application process.
- Discrimination or the perception of discrimination, by higher caste peers and teachers at school.



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- Finances drained by other sources (religious festivals and in some cases, alcohol) rather than education of children. (Bista, 2004 in Bako 2016).

Many of the causal factors affecting school enrolment in Nepal according to Bako (2016) are deeply entrenched in social problems related to the caste and associated financial and empowerment issues. These require long term, sustainable initiatives to help develop the perception of women within the community. Nepal's approach to education however, is fast changing with the aim of increasing girl-child friendly education in the country. As a result, Nepal's National Development Plan (2002–2007) prioritized girl-child education. Unlike the case of Ghana, where girl-child education is merely by campaigns and publicity the case of Nepal is by real action. Bista (2004) in Bako (2016) indicated that the Government of Nepal had instituted several measures to promote girl-child education in the country. This encapsulates the use of scholarships as a means of promoting access to primary education for girls and children coming from poor households. There also exist a number of scholarship/incentive schemes such as the Primary Girl Scholarships, Dalit Scholarships, Local School Scholarships, and Upgrading Scholarships for Girls, Campus Girls' Scholarships, Martyrs _Children Scholarships and the Scholarships for Disabled Children. In addition, two other initiatives, such as the Education Incentive Program for Girls and Education for Special Focus Groups are being implemented as pilot scholarship programmes.

The provision of scholarships is believed to boost the educational participation of girls and disadvantaged children by mitigating economic barriers. Although girls' participation in primary education has steadily increased over the last two decades, a substantial proportion of all primary age girls is still outside the school system. In particular, girls living in remote and rural areas, and in the districts of the Midwest and Far West, as well as those belonging to Dalit (_untouchable') and disadvantaged communities, are excluded.



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The incidence of school dropout is higher for girls than for boys. There are cases in urban and suburban areas where this incidence is higher for boys than girls because parents pull their sons out of public schools to put them in expensive, private boarding schools. The school attendance of girls is irregular owing to their involvement in domestic activities. The studies surveyed in this review seemed to confirm the national, regional and district level educational statistics that show the much lower participation of girls at all levels of education as compared to that of boys (Bako, 2016).

Unlike the case of Nepal where the Government instituted real actions, Uganda's case is quite different. In Uganda, the government provides basic education free of charge through the Universal Basic Education Programme. This has led to improvements in enrolment, retention and completion rates for girls especially. However, as indicated by World Bank Technical Report (1995) in Bako (2016) in Uganda, poorer parents are not enrolling or are withdrawing their children when financial burden become too great. Indeed, parental difficulty in paying school fees is reported to have resulted in delays in opening schools for two consecutive years. The beginning of the school year was pushed back to allow parents raise the required fees and to allow children to work to raise their fees. School fees are a delicate and complex issue in Uganda and almost at par with the issue of teachers' salaries. The introduction of statutory fees at the primary level, which are more than ten times greater than the previous fees has fuelled the on-going debate, and also provides another excuse for the non-participation of girls in schools. Though the introduction of the Universal Basic Education Programme in Uganda has attempted to resolve the problem of fees generally at the primary level, it remains a problem at higher levels. After primary education, most girls drop out of school because their parents and guardians cannot afford to pay for their secondary education, or some who choose to, pay for their boy children at the expense of their girl-children. In the particular case of Kanungu District, girl-child education beyond primary school is lagging.



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Consequently, some girls are even forced into early marriages in order to get dowries to pay for their brothers' education (Bako, 2016). The resulting situation is pathetic. Reproductive health problems as a consequence of early marriages include too early pregnancy, direct obstetric complications, and obstructed labour among others. The early marriages may not work, violence becomes the order of the day, and poverty becomes a vicious circle in the family, characterized by poor health, lack of shelter, poor access to water and sanitation, malnutrition, disease and a high infant and maternal mortality rate. In general, it appears that educational prospects for the girl-child in Uganda is bleak compared to the boy-child.

In a study conducted on Girls and Schools in Sub-Saharan Africa by the World Bank, the gender disparity currently existing in educational access and achievement between boys and girls was identified. —The net primary enrolment ratio for the region has declined from 68 in 1970 to 48 in 1991 (World Bank 1994 in Bako, 2016), a clear indication of the large number of children who remain outside the formal education systems. Indeed, about 36 million girls are out of school in Sub-Saharan Africa region (UNESCO/UNICEF 1993), the report states. The report goes on to state that female enrolment ratios in Niger rose from 3 percent in 1960 to 18 percent in 1980 and then 21 percent in 1990. The corresponding numbers for Somalia were 3, 14 and 7.



In Sub-Saharan Africa, the gender gaps appear widest in the Sahelian countries of Chad, Burkina Faso, Niger and Mali where overall enrolments are also low by regional standards. It claims that significant gender gaps persist despite the growth in female enrolment ratios, widening as one goes up the educational ladder. Girls made up 45 percent of primary students in 1990, 40 percent of secondary students and 31 percent of tertiary students. The same report asserts that an analysis of female education in Cote D'ivoire concludes that once girls have completed primary school, they are 37 percent less likely than boys to attend secondary school. Once girls complete lower secondary school, they are 14 percent more likely than

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boys to proceed to upper secondary schools. Though, the statistics cited by various authors may be old, the situation still persists in some developing countries despite the promulgation of the MDGs and of late SDGs by the United Nations. Ghana is not exempted in this case and for that matter the Bunkpurugu District.

Also, access to primary education by the girl-child is problematic in other African countries including Ethiopia, Kenya and Nigeria. For example, in Ethiopia, girls' performance in all three national examinations is reported to have been poorer than that of boys and generally, more girls repeat and drop than boys (Bako, 2016). The situation is not different from what pertains in Kenya as reports suggest that girls' performance except in languages, is far lower than that of boys. The disparities are more pronounced in the area of mathematics and the sciences. Generally speaking in Sub-Saharan Africa, —The enrolment rate of girls remain lower than that of boys, their drop out and absentee rates higher and their achievements and performance poorer particularly in mathematics and science (World Bank 1995 in Bako, 2016).

According to Bako (2016) the case of Nigeria is not different. For example, in 1999 the literacy rate was estimated to be 52%. Also, statistics showed that of the 21 million children of school age, only 14.1% of children were enrolled in schools. The completion rate of primary school was 64%, while transition to junior secondary school was only 43.5%; matters were worse when gender and geographical correlates were considered (Mabi, 2005 in Bako, 2016). Against this background, the Universal Basic Education (UBE) program was launched in 1999. Among the objectives of the program was the provision of free, Universal Basic Education for every Nigerian child of school going age. The implication of this provision was the elimination of gender disparities in primary and secondary education by 2005, and achieving gender equality in education for girls by 2015, with a focus on ensuring full and equal access to and achievement in basic education of good quality. These latter



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goals are articulated by the Dakar Framework of Action (2000) of the Education for All (EFA). These are also consistent with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which the Nigerian Government was committed to.

According to the World Bank (2008) in Ankalibazuk (2017), gender disparities against girls are higher in Benin, Cote d'voire, Ethiopia, Guinea, Mali and Togo, with fewer than 60 girls per 100 boys entering secondary education. In the report, factors affecting participation of girls in secondary education include policy and direction of aid flows at the international level, economic policies at the national level, family level economic decisions, and socio cultural norms. The report concluded that impact of dominant economic regimes such as structural adjustment has been noted for its effect on girls' education. School fees for instance as part of cost-sharing regime have been observed to lead to dropouts with families opting to forgo the education of the girls' where there are severe financial constraints. However, current trends in Ghana show that there has been parity in terms of enrolment of girls and boys at the primary school level even up to the secondary level probably due to the introduction of capitation grant and currently the Free Senior High School policy.

2.4 Educational Reforms in Ghana

Ghana's education has gone through a lot of amendments since independence. According to Agyenim-Boateng (2011) in Armah (2012), as soon as Ghana gained independence, the Education Act of 1961 came into being and the Dzobo Report also gave birth to the Junior Secondary School (JSS) Concept in 1973. In 1974, the New Structure and Content of Education designed by the Dzobo Committee were implemented. There was also an Education Commission Report on Basic and Secondary Education which also brought about the 1987/ 88 Education Reform Programme.



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The Free Compulsory Universal Basic Programme which was enshrined in the 1992 Constitution was introduced in 1996 and the Ghana Education Trust Fund set up by the GET Fund Act 581 was implemented in 2000 to make sure that every child gets access to basic education in Ghana. The 1992 Constitution was introduced in 1996 and the Ghana Education Trust Fund set up by the GET Fund Act 581 was implemented in 2000 to make sure that every child gets access to basic education in Ghana. The Jophus Anamuah-Mensah's Committee which was set up by the former president of Ghana, H. E John Agyekum Kuffour in 2001 also reviewed the education system and proposed a new structure to resolve the flaws identified by the Committee. The 29 member Anamuah-Mensah Committee report brought about the 2007 Educational Reform which is still in use but with a slight change to that of Senior High School (Ghana Government Official Portal website, 2010 in Armah, 2012).

The new Education Reform had the following elements: two years of Kindergarten, six years of Primary School and three years of Junior High School and four years of Senior High School education. This makes up a total of eleven years Universal Basic Education. From the JHS, students who pass the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) are expected to enter the SHS for four years. The current government has reverted this from four to three years. At the SHS, students are expected to offer any course of their choice for a period of four years (now three years). The Anamuah-Mensah Committee also placed emphasis on Literacy, Numeracy, Creative Arts, ICT and Problem Solving Skills at the Basic level. Apart from the Kindergarten and Lower Primary where the Ghanaian Language of the school's location is used alongside English, at all other levels the medium of instruction is English.

The New Education Reform also introduced Creative Arts to the Primary school curriculum and Basic Design and Technology to the Junior High School (JHS) curriculum. Both constitute the nine-year Basic Education system in Ghana. These subjects were introduced in the basic school curriculum to enable both primary and JHS students to exhibit their inherent



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skills so that these skills could be used to solve problems in the society in which they live. The reform designed the JHS curriculum to consist of nine subjects which are English Language, Mathematics, Integrated Science, Social Studies, Ghanaian Language, Information and Communication Technology, Religious and Moral Education, French and Basic Design and Technology. The Basic Design and Technology comprise Pre-Technical Skills, Home Economics and Visual Arts and students can choose to study one of these areas. The general aim of the JHS courses is to equip students with basic life skills which can help them to solve some problems in life (Armah, 2012).

2.5 Trends of Girl-Child Education in Ghana

Gender equality, quality and the effects of socio economic and socio cultural differences in the provision of learning opportunities are some of the major concerns in education development in many developing countries (Alhassan & Odame, 2015). One particular concern is unequal or the disadvantaged position of women as compared to men and by extension girls as compared to boys in basic education participation in terms of enrolment and school attendance. According to the goals of Education for All (EFA) and Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), many countries were faced with challenges of eliminating gender inequality in basic education by 2010 and are still not sure of achieving gender equality in enrolment and attendance in basic education by 2015 (UN Report, 2012 in Alhassan & Odame, 2015).

To achieve this target, informed strategies to improve the participation of both male and female citizens in various socioeconomic activities including education are necessary. In most developing countries, gender differentials in education are more pronounced in terms of participation and internal efficiency and in cognitive performance with girls being the most affected. While enrolment rates to some extent do not differ greatly, more boys than girls complete schooling, especially at the basic school (Kane, 2004 in Alhassan & Odame, 2015).



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The impact of gender and home-based factors on enrolment and attendance cannot be over emphasized. Policy initiatives towards achieving gender equality in enrolment and attendance have included abolition of all forms of fees charged at the basic levels. When Kenya abolished all fees at the primary level, the primary gross enrolment reached 7.2 million pupils (48.6% female) having risen from 5.4 million pupils in 1989 to 56.3% in 2010. Interventions aimed at promoting girls education include taking affirmative action in support of girl-child education; expansion and improvement of classrooms, boarding facilities and water and sanitation facilities to create conducive and gender responsive environments particularly in arid and semi-arid lands and providing support to non-formal education institutions (UN Report, 2012 in Alhassan & Odame, 2018).

Despite the impressive gains in access to education, issues of gender equality and participation in enrolment and attendance, progression and performance at the basic education level require further analysis. Customs and circumstance at home lead to a range of cultural practices which cause differences in schooling outcomes. For instance, at the time of the 2010 population census in Ghana, 36 percent of all males aged 6 and above were attending school compared to 38 percent of females (GSS, 2012). More glaring gender differences were observed among the population who never attended school. Female participation in education dropped from 38 in 2010 to 24 percent in 2012, while that of males dropped from 18 percent in 2010 to 14 percent in 2012 (GSS, 2012). The gender gap had also narrowed during these years implying that participation rates are close to gender equality.

According to Asare-Danso (2015) the colonial government built upon the foundation that was laid by the Basel Mission by promoting girl-child education in the Gold Coast in the 1880's. Under the governorship of Major Stephen John Hill who was the Commander-in-Chief and was popularly called Commander Hill, the 1852 Educational Ordinance was promulgated. Its preamble was stated, among others, that: "... it is essentially necessary that

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some effort should be made to educate the rising generation of females within Her Majesty's forts and settlements on the Gold Coast" (Educational Ordinance, 1852, p. 37 in Asare-Danso, 2015). The 1852 Education Ordinance also provided for the setting up of teacher training colleges to train both males and females to become professional teachers. Similarly, the 1887 Education Ordinance under the administration of Colonel Frederick Benjamin Price White sought to promote girl-child education. Article VII, (5) provided: "That the subjects taught include reading, writing of English language, arithmetic, and, in the case of females, plain needlework ..." (Educational Ordinance, 1887, p. 2 in Asare-Danso, 2015). These were indications that the 1852 and the 1887 Education Ordinances sought to promote girl-child education in the then Gold Coast. Colonial governments continued to promote girl-child education after the period of the ordinances. In the 1900's, the colonial government decided that education in all African territories was meant to serve the following purposes:

- (i) To spread education as widely as possible among the people in order to give them both the desire and the capacity for social, economic and political progress; and
- ii. To train as many African men and women as possible for higher posts in production, industry, commerce, the professions and the government services; and as leaders in politics, local government, trade unions and the Co-operative Movement.



This was contained in a communiqué that was issued by the colonial government to the joint Provincial Council of Chiefs at their meeting at Dodowa in the Greater Accra region of Ghana in November 1948 (Asare-Danso, 2015). Under the governorship of Sir Gordon Guggisberg, he formulated sixteen principles of education. Three of these principles sought to promote girl-child education as follows:

2nd Principle: The provision of secondary schools with an educational standard that will fit young men and women to enter a university. 4th Principle: Equal opportunities to those

given to boys should be provided for the www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh education of girls. 5th Principle: Co-education is desirable during certain stages of education (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975, p. 57 in Asare-Danso, 2015).


In the 1950's under the era of the nationalists, girl-child education continued to receive the support of governments. At the secondary level, following the establishment of the Ghana National College, Dr Nkrumah began expanding the frontiers of education with the establishment of the Ghana Education Trust, which was charged to open secondary schools and teacher training colleges (Asare-Danso, 2015). The secondary schools that were established included Ofori Panyin Secondary School, Techiman Secondary School, the Winneba Secondary School, Swedru Secondary School, Apam Secondary School, Dormaa Secondary School, Tema Secondary School, Oda Secondary School, and the Labone Secondary School. All these were co-educational institutions. Besides, an all-female secondary education was provided at the Mfantseman Secondary School at Saltpond in the Central Region of Ghana. Indeed, students who entered those secondary schools would need teachers to impart knowledge. And in ensuring that this became a reality, the country's First President went to initiate the setting up of about 16 teacher training colleges, to be added to the existing ones that were provided by Christian missions. The 16 included the Atebubu Training College, Berekum Training College, Fosu Training College and the Enchi Training College (Asare-Danso, 2015). The 1987 Education Reform promoted equitable male and female education for all children, youth and adults (UNESCO, 1990). Subsequently, in 1987, Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STME) Clinics for girls were opened to encourage girls to pursue science-related courses in tertiary institutions. The Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) programme was another educational policy that was introduced in Ghana to increase access, participation and retention in basic schools (MOE, 1996 in Asare-Danso, 2015). In 1997, Girls' Education Unit (GEU) was created



www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh under the Ministry of Education to give girls access to education. Currently, a Minister of State responsible for Primary, Secondary and Girl-child Education has been appointed to deal with issues affecting female education in Ghana (Asare-Danso, 2015).

Generally, literature on current trends of girl-child education in Ghana is highly limited. However, Sutherland-Addy (2002) did a trend analysis of it. According to her the rate of improvement in the situation of girls' education is very slow. As regards attaining the national (FCUBE) targets set for improvement in girls' education in 1997, it is clear that 2005 may prove illusory. The enrolment rate of girls at primary level has decreased by 0.5% over the 4 year period since 1998. The dropout rate at this level is stagnant while at the JSS level it is 1.1%. Transition from JSS 3 to SSS is also stagnant (33% to 32.8%). At the secondary and tertiary levels it seems that policies and programmes specifically addressing questions of gender equity have stimulated a response in the target population. There is evidence of improved performance. There is also improved performance in a few schools and communities where interventions have been effected at basic level. However, with the implementation of the MDGs and currently the SDGs initiated by the United Nations, there seems to be significant improvement of girl-child education in Ghana (Asare-Dansi, 2015).

2.6 The Root Causes for Low Level of Education among Girls in Ghana



Though there are different perspectives and opinions to what causes the low participation of girls in education from pre-independence to date, Asigri (2012) has given a comprehensive analysis of the factors that seem to have caused the problem as outlined in the following paragraphs.

Forced marriage is one of the major factors affecting girls' education. It prevents girls from completing basic education as victims who are usually forced into marriages fall between the ages of 10 and 17 years. The Ghanaian Times for instance reports on Wednesday, May 5,

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2010 on page 23 with the headline *Fulani* before court for offering step-daughter, 12, for marriage. According to the report Alhaji Maaju Abubakari offered his step-daughter to his brother Alhaji Aliu Gariba who is based in Nigeria and aged 52. The report further indicates that Alhaji Gariba performed the customary rites without the consent of the girl and attempts to forcibly send the girl to Nigeria became fruitless when the girl screamed at a police checkpoint and the culprits were arrested. Though forced marriage, to some extent, has declined in most communities in Ghana today, it still rears its ugly face in some communities in the rural areas such as the Bunkpurugu area. Perpetrators of this act are men who claimed they had invested in the upbringing of the girl and with the connivance of the girl's parents she is forced into marriage. Another cause of this phenomenon is the issue of debt bondage where parents of the girl demand money or land and offer their daughter in return for marriage irrespective of her age. This practice is common in the three northern regions.

However, forced or child marriages is an offence in Ghana under the Children's Act. It has been criminalized under Section 14 of the Children's Act and it states that No person shall force a child: (a) To be betrothed; (b) To be the subject of a dowry transaction; or (c) To be married. Section 15 prescribes the penalty for offenders of Section 14 by stipulating that "Any person who contravenes a provision of this sub-part commits an offence and is liable on summary conviction to a fine not exceeding GH¢500 or to a term of imprisonment not exceeding one year or both. In spite of the criminalization of forced marriage, there are reports that the practice is still being enforced in some parts of the country. Again the Ghana News Agency reports on February 16, 2010 that "the Acting Northern Regional Director of the Commission on Human Rights and Administrative Justice (CHRAJ). According to her (Asigri, 2012), Mr. Alhassan Seidu had expressed concern about the increasing rate of forced marriages in the Eastern Corridor of the region".



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A nation-wide research conducted in Ghana by Coker Appiah and Cusack in 1999; reported in Asigiri 2012, revealed that girls in schools have either experienced physical or sexual violence including, being forced to touch a man's private parts against their will and forced sex. The Report also revealed that adolescent girls had been touched against their will and experienced this form of violence 21 more times than their adults and majority of the respondents were between the ages of 15 to 18 when they experienced the abuse; another 40 percent were between the ages of 10 and 14. In terms of the categories of offenders, one of the main offenders was school associates including school mates and teachers; these constituted 14 percent, with school mates representing 12 percent of the offenders. Seven (7) percent of the women and girls had been forced to touch the private parts of a man and majority of the women and girls experienced this form of abuse between the ages of 15 and 18; and 37 percent were between the ages of 10 and 14. In 93 percent of the cases in which they were forced to touch a private part of a man, the girl knew the perpetrator. 9 percent were school associates. For the adolescents who suffered this form of violence school associates were likely to be the offenders.

Socio-economic violence or non-maintenance affects the child education. This means failure to provide funds for the child's upkeep and well-being. It could also be described as deprivation. For example, funds for medicine, clothing, food, school. This results in increased vulnerability among children especially girls and exposes them to several abuse and exploitation. Article 27 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child stipulates that 'State Parties recognize the right of every child to a standard of living adequate for the child's physical, mental, spiritual, moral and social development. 'The parent(s) or others responsible for the child have the primary responsibility to secure, within their abilities and financial capacities, the conditions of living necessary for the child's development (www2.ohchr/.org/english/caw/arc.htm).



In spite of the law, child maintenance is still a challenge in the country and has contributed to streetism and other social vices. CHRAJ received a total of 3,317 non-maintenance cases indicating the prevalence of the failure of fathers to maintain their children. The Ashanti Regional Office of the Department of Social Welfare in 2009 recorded a total of 1,067 child maintenance cases, up from the previous year's (2008) figure of 950, according to the Ghana News Agency report on April 14, 2010.

DOVVSU from the year (1999-2007) defined Child labour to include all children below 12 years of age engaged in any economic activities that affects their education, health and development (Asigri, 2012). When chores or work force students to miss class time, expose students to dangerous or unhygienic substances, or are beyond a child's strength, this is abusive behaviour. The Constitution 28(2) and the Children's Act, prohibits all forms of child labour that are injurious to the health, education and development of the child. The Ghana Statistical Service survey on child labour in March 2003 reveals that 2,474,545 children out of a total of 6,361,111 were estimated to have engaged in some economic activity. This means that 2 in every 5 children had engaged in some economic activity. 66.7 percent were females between the ages of 5-17 in the Upper East region and 100 percent in the Upper West region (Asigri, 2012).



Because the axiom “spare the rod and spoil the child” still holds in Ghana, children are often beaten when they are perceived to have committed error. Physical abuse commonly involves hitting, smacking, slapping, or spanking children, with the hand or with an implement. However, it can also involve having children hit each other; kicking, shaking, scratching, pinching, or biting a child; pulling on a child's hair or ears; forcing a child to strip or stay in uncomfortable positions; preventing a child from using the bathroom or eating; burning or scalding a child; According to a survey on Violence Against Women and Children in Ghana and edited by Dorcas Coker Appiah and Kathy Cusack (1999) 61 percent of respondents

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think it is acceptable to beat a child and 8percent think it is unacceptable to beat a child. The use of cane in schools and the fear of it usually prevent girls from going to school (Asigri, 2012).

On September 11, 2009 news trickled in that the proprietor of Great Lamptey Mills, 42 was arrested by the Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit of the Ghana Police Service for allegedly impregnating and forcing to marry a 16-year-old former student of his school. According to both print and electronic publications including ‘Daily Graphic’, ‘Daily Guide’, Ghana News Agency, ‘myjoyonline.com’ and ‘peacefmonline.com’, the proprietor began having affair with the victim who was then in the boarding house of the school at Kasoa, and when the girl became pregnant and informed him and her parents about it, Mr. Lamptey Mills approached the family to abort the pregnancy because of his reputation. Reports indicated that the victim’s family declined the suggestion compelling Mills to perform the marriage rites after asking the girl to stay out of school to take care of the pregnancy. The reports further indicated that Mills promised to take care of the girl, build a house for her and support her to return to school to continue her education (Asigri, 2012).

On March 9, 2010 media reports made the rounds that an Accra-based pastor, Nana Kofi Yirenkyi, head pastor of the Jesus One-Touch Church at Oblogo near Weija in the Greater Accra Region has been arrested by the police for allegedly defiling his 10 year old daughter whom he (the pastor) has been staying with. According to the ‘Daily Guide’ newspaper report, the victim is reported to have disclosed to an aunty that on Saturdays, Sundays and Tuesdays when she did not go to school, her father had sex with her after the said auntie confronted the victim when she detected some changes in the bahaviour of the girl, and lodged a complaint with the police (Asigri, 2012)



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According to the Daily Graphic accounts of the incident the victim, who was born out of wedlock, lived with her mother at Dawu in Akuapem until 2005 when she relocated to Accra to live with her father at Mc Carty Hill to attend school. It said in the latter part of 2007, the accused person began to have sex with the victim each time before he organized church service. In November 2009, the accused person gave the victim's mother, who happened to be the complainant in the case, an opportunity to hold discussions with the victim about a bad behaviour she was exhibiting. During the interaction with her mother, the victim revealed her ordeal to her mother. The victim disclosed to her mother that after raping her, the pastor would use a white handkerchief to wipe the sexual fluids, which he took with him to the church. Although the pastor has denied ever committing the act and pleaded not guilty to two counts of incest and defilement, available evidence tendered in Court including doctors, teachers of the victim and relatives have all implicated the suspect, and had been asked to open his defence instead of filing for no case (Asigri, 2012).

2.7 Major Strategies of Girl-Child Education

One major strategy for girl-child education is the use of stipend in many countries worldwide. A frequently used strategy internationally; there is a reasonable amount of high quality research which shows a positive impact on girls' education, at least in terms of enrolment and retention. This includes Randomised Control Trials (RCT) and independent peer reviewed contributions, as well as a number of internal programme evaluations (Camfed, 2012).

Strong evidence shows it to be more effective for girls than boys and more effective at secondary school level. For example, a host of independent and internal studies corroborate the positive impact of Bangladesh's Female Stipend Programme (FSP) which saw girls' enrolment rise to around double the national average (Camfed, 2012). As of 2003, the programme was nationwide and 55–60 % of girls and boys were enrolled in secondary school. Rigorous research on the Columbia Voucher Scheme indicates a 25% increase in



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secondary school completion. Other documented international impact includes: King and Bellew (1991) in Camfed (2012), showing girls 30% more likely to enrol on the basis of free textbooks at primary school in Peru.

The program showed female enrolment increasing by 9% over two years in stipend-eligible middle schools (grades 6–8). Only one study found no gender difference: an NGO in rural Kenya that awarded free uniforms to both boys and girls saw a 44% reduction in absenteeism but no significant difference between boys and girls in the effects (Camfed, 2012).

This strategy has a positive effect on retention. Independent research on Brazil's Bolsa Escola stipend programme shows that it virtually eliminated dropouts. Schultz (2003) in Camfed (2012), in a randomised trial evaluation of the Mexican Progress Scholarship Program (issued with conditions – see below) showed girls' enrolments improved, especially for children finishing primary school and entering secondary school. The most significant increase (15%) was for girls completing grade six. An RCT on a Kenyan programme; providing free uniforms, textbooks and, notably, in tandem with classroom construction, showed increased years of schooling attained by 15% (Camfed, 2012).

Also, in some cases, this strategy has been proven in terms of achievement. Patrinos (2007) in Camfed (2012) explores this in detail at the international level. He highlights a randomised evaluation which found that voucher lottery winners were 15–20 % more likely to attend private school, 10% more likely to complete eighth grade, and scored the equivalent of a full grade level higher (0.2 standard deviations) on standardised tests compared to students in the control group. He also notes: 'The costs of the programme were similar to the costs of providing places in public schools.' However, Patrinos also notes that on the Bangladesh FSP, of those female scholarship recipients that took the secondary school certificate exam, only 54 % received a passing 9th grade, similar to the national pass rate. More encouragingly,



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a peer reviewed study of a small, randomised evaluation of a girls' scholarship programme at primary level⁹ showed eligible girls had significantly higher test scores and school attendance rates. Test-score improvements persisted even when the girls were no longer eligible to compete for the scholarships. Schools where girls were eligible for the scholarships saw significant increases in teacher attendance (Camfed, 2012).

In Malawi, a cash transfer experiment targeted at adolescent girls has explored the difference between conditional (CCT) and unconditional (UCT) cash transfers on girls' schooling and non-schooling outcomes. School enrolment improved in both groups, though significantly more in the CCT arm which also saw a significant gain in learning. The condition on schooling proved costly in terms of non-schooling outcomes, however, with rates of pregnancy and early marriage being substantially higher in the CCT compared with the UCT arm. The findings suggest that a CCT approach for early adolescents that transitions to a UCT for older teenagers, would improve schooling outcomes while avoiding the potential adverse impacts of conditionality on early marriage and pregnancy (Camfed, 2012).

Some evidence is appearing on the positive impact of scholarships on girls' empowerment. Lloyd in Camfed (2012) points to evidence from a five-year longitudinal follow-up of a randomised girls' merit scholarship programme in Western Kenya resulting in improved test scores and increases in secondary enrolment among girls attending schools in the intervention¹⁰. Crucially, in terms of 'beyond access' issues, 'five years on, young women attending schools that had participated in the merit scholarship programme had fewer arranged marriages and were less likely to accept domestic violence as legitimate than young women who had attended schools that had not participated in the programme'.

In terms of scholarship programmes, there have been a number specifically for girls which have operated in Ghana. For the most part, these programs have been components of wider



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interventions. It is, therefore, hard to attribute impact to the scholarship/stipend element of the program. The following section looks at these on a ‘by project’ basis.

The Child Scope (CS) project has had some success; an evaluation (Chapman and Osei, 2003) looked at its impact; which can be summarised as follows: - Overall increase in girls’ primary school enrolment in program areas over those nationally was 0.6% (1.1% compared to 1.7%); - Difference in enrolment rates boys to girls in programme primary schools was narrowed to 14.2% from 18.4%; - The same pattern was seen at JHS level, though initial disparities were greater and the reduction in the disparity was smaller. Overall, the difference in enrolment rates for boys and girls decreased by 2.2%. From a 1999/00 gap of 31.6%, it dropped to a 29.4% gap in 2001/02; - Retention among boys and girls actually declined in programme schools though in CS schools drop-out among girls was at a lower rate (though drop-out exceeded gains in enrolment); - Transition from P6 to JHS actually declined – though this data varied significantly by district; - Based on cohort examination¹², results indicate that, at the primary level, survival rates improved for girls in CS districts at the same time they have declined for boys. The same pattern occurs at the junior secondary level, but to a smaller extent. - Achievement scores (BECE) in most CS districts improved between 1998 and 2001 but did not keep up with national gains (data was not available by gender).

Disparities in achievement between CS districts and others increased (Camfed, 2012).



Integrated Social Development Centre (ISODEC): According to its 2005 report, ISODEC has spent USD453, 565 on both project activities and administrative costs at the rate of USD150,000 per annum. It notes that a total number of 1,173 girls have benefited from scholarships in the five districts in Ashanti and Brong Ahafo. Tewa Secondary School has 10 scholarship recipients enrolled, and the report outlines additional activities in this particular school, such as remedial classes in Mathematics, English and Integrated Science for beneficiaries and a staff member to monitor girls’ progress. According to one head teacher’s

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comments cited in the report, there have been some improvements on girls' enrolment, confidence and achievement. Quantitative evidence on achievement suggests no sustained positive impact, however, with male and female BECE pass rates in evaluation schools fluctuating considerably year to year (Camfed, 2012).

Camfed Scholarships are a core part of its programme, which incorporates a holistic approach to tackling obstacles to girls' enrolment, progression and achievement. As with CS, it is not possible to disaggregate the impact of the scholarship dimension of the programme from others. However, it is worth noting some impact from their extensive baseline exercise and some evaluation reports for donors. Impact on enrolment, retention and transition looks promising – e.g., in the two districts sampled between 2007 and 2009, enrolment has increased by 17%; completion rates have increased by 18% and progression into the next grade has increased by 22%. The baseline study shows that in schools where Camfed's programme is well-established, enrolment in the last two years of primary school increased by 19% between 2007 and 2009 – the same as the district-wide enrolment. Enrolment in schools which are new to the programme increased by 5%; lower than the district increase which was 15%, though the report highlights that Camfed is intentionally focusing on schools that lag behind the district norm. Joseph and Wodon's 2012 study (2012b) provides some evidence on a broader take of this strategy – provision of textbooks not to individual girls but to the school as a whole. Their preliminary findings (on primary schools only) - show that the availability of textbooks does not seem to make a difference for English test scores, but it does for mathematics (though not a large effect). There is no significant difference between boys and girls. However, it is worth noting that this study is only at primary level, where the gender gap in learning is extremely small, with girls doing slightly better in English, and boys in Maths (Camfed, 2012).



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The companion study on enrolment, drop out and repetition in relation to the same variables (at JHS as well as primary) notes that at primary school, availability of extra maths textbooks increases first grade enrolment and reduces drop out, but only at a marginally significant level (10%); and an increase in overall enrolment associated with more textbooks for English. At JHS, their findings are somewhat surprising in that changes in availability of textbooks in English show a negative correlation with changes in enrolment. Accompanying qualitative research which looks at how teachers and pupils (by gender) use textbooks (by subject) in practice might be a valuable to help understand the reality and implications of resource constraints and their impacts on learning. In their paper on learning outcomes, the authors also include data on parental perceptions of schools, and note that in districts where these perceptions relate to complaints concerning a lack of textbooks, these are associated with higher test scores. The authors conjecture that this may be because parents with such complaints may be those who are more likely to be active in supervising their children's studies, and are therefore aware of and concerned about the lack of a textbook (Camfed, 2012).

Mumba (2002) in Armah (2012) explains education as a tool which helps human beings to develop very well. Education for girls in Zambia was not encouraging so the Programme for Advance Girls Education (PAGE) was instituted in 1994 to focus on capacity building, gender sensitization, and quality education for all children especially girls. This was done to empower girls and women to fully participate in economic and social development of the nation. Pigozzi (1999) in Armah (2012) thinks an important aspect of the measures that can be taken to mediate girl child education is to check the mental and physical health of the girl, her economic needs and educational needs. The author insists that life skills such as safety and sanitation are very important to the girl-child so she must be taught this. To Pigozzi attention must be paid to skills training to increase the livelihood of girls and women.



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To increase the participation of girls in secondary school in Malawi, the government of Malawi in 1993 adopted a policy which allowed girls who had become pregnant to return to school one year later (Aramah, 2012). This was because 585 girls were dismissed from school due to pregnancy from 1997 to 2000 while 541 were readmitted within that same period as a result of the policy. Bernard (2000) in Armah (2012) is of the view that making education free and compulsory is the keystone of any national plan to eliminate gender disparity in education and achieve universal education. Bernard emphasizes the need to make the classroom more child-centred and gender sensitive so that there will be high enrolment rate for girls. Bernard adds that both male and female teachers must receive training in gender awareness in the classroom and be given regular salaries so that they can help implement the policies that will be introduced. Furthermore, the author adds that allowing young mothers to return to school and providing alternative education for girls also increase girls' participation in education. Bernard (2002) cites an example that in 2000, Chile allowed girls who had dropped out of school due to pregnancy to continue and complete their education after they have given birth while in Turkey, learning centres were opened in five provinces to enable girls who did not get formal education acquire alternative education (Aramah, 2012).

Another strategy that Bernard (2002) in Armah (2012) talks about is to recruit more female teachers who can serve as role models and make the girls feel more comfortable in school.

Besides, girls must be given the opportunity to participate in sports because female athletes gain recognition and they become mentors to others. Through sports, girls are given the chance to be leaders and improve their confidence and self-esteem. According to Vescio (2005) in Armah (2012), sports play a major role in girl-child education. That is when girls are involved in sporting activities it helps them to stay in school and the sports also broaden their minds. He suggests that girls should be forced to engage in sports so that it can be used as a strategy to boost girl-child education. Similarly, Bernard (2002) in Armah (2012), says



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sports can contribute to achieving gender parity in education because as girls participate in sports, they acquire new interpersonal skills. And through additional social networks, the girls gain access to different opportunities which allow them to become more engaged in school and community life. The author cites an example that in Romania, sports has increased school participation among girls and their academic performance as well. Lincove (2006) agrees with Bruce (1997) in Armah (2012) that educating girls produces considerable social and welfare benefits, such as lower infant mortality and fertility rates.

2.8 Conceptual Issues and Framework

This section of the review presents conceptual definitions of key terms of the topic which includes education and girl-child education as discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.8.1 Meaning of Education

Education has been variously defined. According to Afful Broni and Ziggah (2006) and Offorma (2009) in Armah (2012) see education as the process of providing information to an inexperienced person to help him or her develop physically, mentally, socially, emotionally, spiritually, politically and economically. These authors say that the definition given means that the individual has to acquire adequate and appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes and values known as cognitive, psychomotor and affective behaviours to be able to function optimally as a citizen. These behaviours are the focus of training individuals in institutions of learning

Again, Bishop (1995), Annor (1997) and Shafritz (1988) in Ankalibazuk (2017) are of the view that education is what happens to human beings from the day they are born to the day they die. They perceive education beyond schooling and think it is a process that covers the total lifespan of every human being. This implies that education is more than a formal process and amounts to something more than formal learning as well.



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Education is the impartation of knowledge, skill and values into a person to enable him or her fit well into the society (Farrant, 1980 in Ankalibazuk, 2017). From the above, it is clear that education provides information to a person to help him/her develop physically, mentally, socially, emotionally, spiritually, politically and economically in his/her society. Education is one of the fundamental rights of individuals. Nwangwu (1976) in Ankalibazuk (2017) Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly in December, 1949 stipulated that: Everyone has the right to education. This shall be free at least in the elementary and primary stages. Elementary education shall be compulsory while technical and professional education shall be made generally available.

Antwi (1992) also sees education as sharing, transmission or imparting of knowledge that is worthwhile. He adds that education is a process which involves helping those who are taught to become aware of what is happening. (Arends 2002 in Akhtar 2016) views education to cover these four important aspects of how we become educated: These are:

1. The necessity of having and manipulating knowledge, skills and information.
2. The helpfulness of teachers, without requiring them.
3. The constant need to see through the inherent illusion that arises from our
unconscious mind.
4. Our inability to influence our states of mind.

Based on the four criteria given, (Arends 2002, in Akhtar 2016) sees education as a process of cognitive cartography which is explained as what all learners do to develop a map of reliable methods of getting from negative state of mind to positive state of mind. It can be inferred from the various definitions that education is the process of creating the awareness which leads to critical thinking and in effect leads to human development. In other words,



education opens one's eyes about something for the person to get an interest in it and then develop a positive attitude towards that.

2.8.2 Types of Education

It is well established that there are two main types of education namely formal and informal. However, further search has revealed that education has just gone beyond formal and informal to include non-formal as espoused by Fant (2008), Armah (2012), Asigri (2012) and Bako (2016). In this regard, Armah (2012) and others have given a more comprehensive distinction of the three types of education as presented in the following sub-sections.

2.8.2.1 Formal Education

Norris (1999) in Armah (2012) explains formal education as a process which helps one to acquire verbal and cognitive proficiency so that he/she would be able to construct his/her own ideas and thoughts critically. The definition above indicates that formal education aims at opening people's minds so that knowledge and skills acquired can be used profitably. Farrant (1996) and Krueger and Mikael (2001) support that formal education is a process whereby children are provided with the tools for learning, such as reading, writing and manipulating numbers. It also introduces the children to the richness of the wider world and gives them the chance later on to obtain work and make a meaningful contribution to society. The authors imply that when children are given the necessary tuition, they will be able to read and write. When they are able to do so, it will help them to develop themselves and the society as a whole. Annoh (1997) in Armah (2012) has the same view that formal education is the process of acquiring new knowledge and skills through the benefit of structured teaching. They further explain that formal education is that which is deliberately planned and is guided by specific aims and objectives, it should be time bound.



2.8.2.2 Informal Education

Annoh (1997) and Shafritz (1988) in Armah (2012) have indicated that informal education is the process of acquiring new knowledge and skills without the benefit of structured teaching. Thus, it is based on a style or approach in which desired skills or behaviours are reached through means that are not intentionally organized, structured or planned. The authors simply see informal education as a way of behaviour that has been traditionally accepted by the society and does not necessarily take place in the conventional classroom although some aspects of informal education do occur in the classroom.

Roy and Woodcock (2010) further indicated that informal education is that it is the kind of learning which goes on outside of a formal learning environment such as a school, a college or a university. In other words they view informal education as learning which occur outside the classroom or lecture theatre. Smith (1997) adds that informal education is just the learning that goes on in our daily lives or learning projects that we undertake for ourselves. It can be seen that informal education is incidental as it does not occur in the formal classrooms and is not planned. It occurs unintentionally and the education can come from anywhere including one's home and church.

2.8.2.3 Non-Formal Education

Carron and Carr-Hill (1991) and Spronk (1999) view non-formal education as any skill that one acquires while he or she is growing. They further see non-formal education as all educational activities organized outside the formal system and designed to serve identifiable clientele. Farrant (1996) sees non-formal education as any organized activity, outside the structure of the formal education system that is consciously aimed at meeting specific learning needs of particular groups of children, youths or adults in the community. Addison (2009) adds that non-formal education takes many forms like adult education, continuing



education, on-the- job training, www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh accelerated training, farmer or work training, functional literacy, extension services and second-chance schools. These three types of education reviewed are relevant to the study in the sense it will help the researcher to know how to explore the selected visual art activities with the girls.

2.8.3 Girl-child Education

According to Evans-Solomon (2004) in Armah (2012), girl-child education is any formal education that the girl-child receives to enable her acquire knowledge, skills, good habit, values and attitudes. The values that the girls acquire through education can help them to exhibit their talents. Offorma (2009) in Armah (2012) explains girl-child education as education girls receive through learning and it can be formal or informal. She adds that it is very important that girls are given equal opportunities as boys to enable them use what they have learnt to solve problems in their society. Girl-child education has since been given a boost in some parts of Ghana (Evans-Solomon, 2004 in Armah, 2012).

2.8.4 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework of the study is presented in relation to certain critical factors that are more likely to hinder girl-child education as also as adopted from Odaga and Heneveld (1995) by Armah (2012). These are: school related factors, institutional factors, socio-cultural factors and socio-economic factors as diagrammatically presented in Figure 2.1.



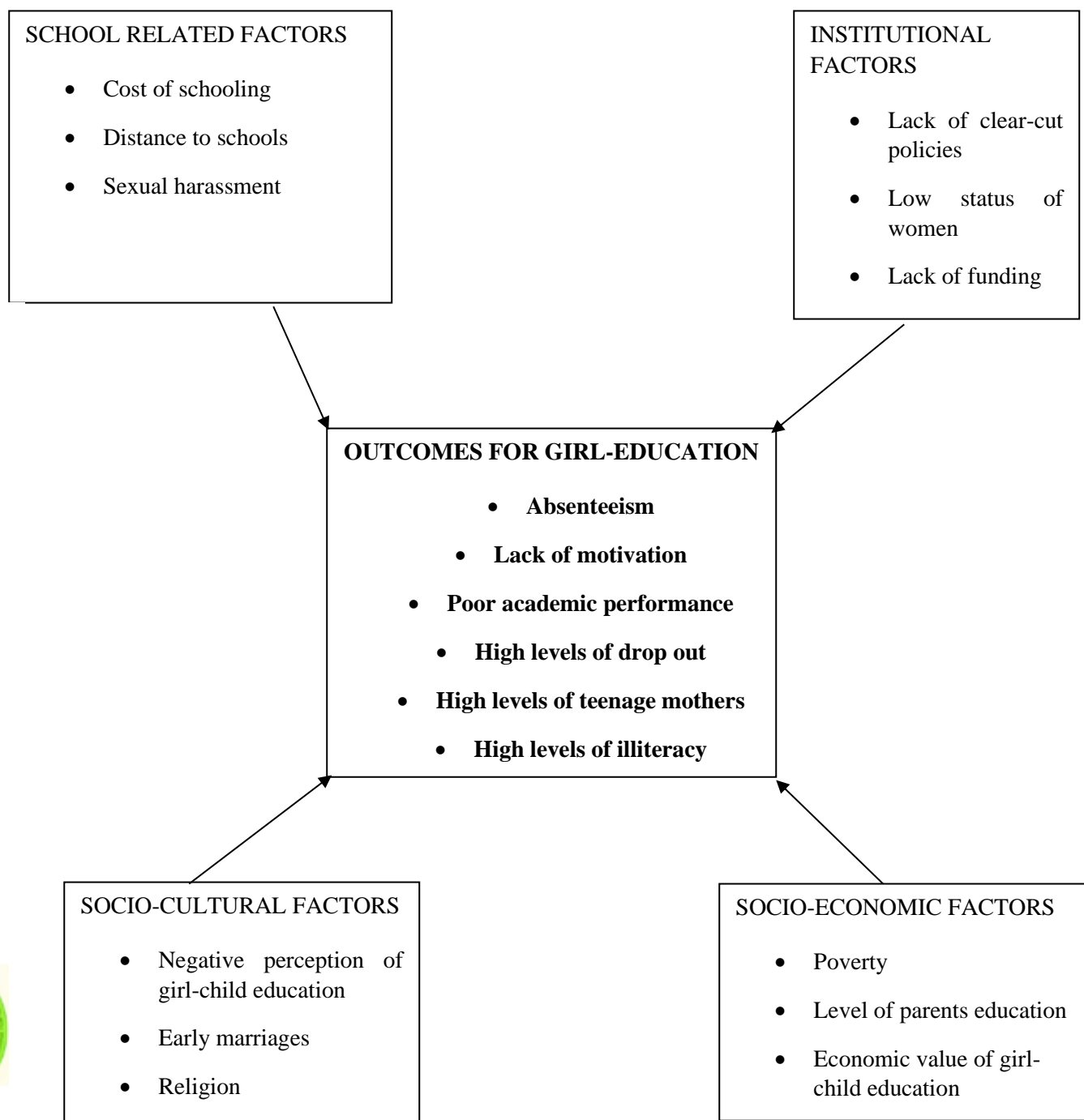


Figure 2.1: Factors that hinder girl-child education

Source: Odaga and Heneveld (1995) in Armah (2012) and modified by author.

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Figure 2.1 presents the conceptual framework of the study which is hinged on four key issues that hinder girl-child education not only in Ghana but the study area. These are; school related factors, institutional factors, socio-cultural factors and socio-economic factors.

Firstly, the school environment has a great influence on girl-child education in that if certain factors such as Cost of schooling which encapsulates school fees, textbooks, and other learning materials that can help the girl-child is high, definitely it will negatively impact on her attendance in school and can culminate in the girl dropping out. Furthermore, if schools are not closer by and are far away from the reach of the girl-child, it will also lead her to dropping out. Other issues like sexual harassment either from her colleague male students or male teachers could also hinder her attendance to school and hence could curtail her education.

Secondly, institutional factors such lack of clear-cut policies coupled with inadequate budgetary support that are directed at promoting the girl-child could negatively impact on the enrolment and completion rates of the girl-child in the school system. For instance, if policies like free uniform, textbooks and quota systems are not clearly spelt out to motivate girls to go to school; it could keep a lot of the girls out of school.

Thirdly, socio-cultural factors particularly early marriages could negatively affect girl-child education. This is particularly pronounced in the rural areas/communities where teenage girls are married off without due consideration of her education and future. If this happens, the girl-child education would end abruptly and ruin her future.

Last but not the least socio-economic factors such as severe poverty could influence negatively the ability of the girl-child to educate herself and reach her full potential. If the girl-child's parents/guardians, in any way, cannot afford her uniform, school sandals, textbooks, pens, school bag and other materials that will support her in her education, she



may not be able to continue since she cannot afford these materials on her own to support her learning in school.

Therefore, the combination of these four factors could eventually lead to the girl-child not only dropping out but marrying early or getting pregnant and consequently becomes a societal burden. The study therefore uses these four factors as basis to assess the situation of girl-child education in the Bunkpurugu District in the now North-East Region of Ghana.

2.9 Empirical Review

This section of the study reviews previous studies carried out by various scholars within the field of girl-child education. Firstly, Asigri (2012) conducted a study on using education as a tool for girl-child empowerment with focus on Garu-Tempani District, Ghana. The study aimed at examining traditions and cultures that hindered girl-child education in the study area. In collecting field data, the researcher employed the case study research design in collecting both primary and secondary data for analysis. In the light of the analysis the study found that in terms of why the girl-child stayed out of school, several cultural practices contributed to this. These included: Practice of 'kont', operation of night markets, practice of 'Dung' in funeral ceremonies and practice of exchange marriages. The rest are: early marriages, child betrothal, dowry system of marriage and practice of Female Genital Mutilation (FGM). Besides, the cultural factors, other factors also militated against girl-child education in the district. These are: low education level of parents plays a major role in the girl child education; geographic location of the child; poverty as well as girl child used as a source of labor by the parents on the farm.

With regard to enrolment patterns between boys and girls in schools the study found that girl-child enrolment and retention was nothing to write home about even though enrolment for the past five academic years has been on the increase. Enrolment of the girl-child in the primary



schools far outweighed that of JHSs which can be attributed to the differences in the divisions in the primary and Junior High Schools. Also, male enrolment in basic schools outweighs that of the females which is attributed to the cultural practices in the district that affect girl child education thereby suggesting a poor retention rate in the basic schools especially among the females in the district.

Generally, enrolment of the girl-child in the primary schools in the district had seen an increase but with a discouraging transition rate to the Junior High School. The transition rate was also skewed towards the male than the females. On the average, about 17% of pupils out of which majority are females dropped out of school annually after completing primary six of the basic school level. In relation to factors affecting pupils' school attendance the study found that agricultural activities affected pupils' school attendance especially in the rainy season attributable to the fact that parents needed their children's support in farming since their major livelihood support system is on agriculture. Additionally, the study revealed that some communities practiced a form of dance known as 'deck' in funeral ceremonies which did not only lead to poor school attendance but also resulted in teenage pregnancies, alcoholism and finally school dropout. Broken homes which were much evident in the district led to single parenthood affected pupils' school attendance since children from these homes find it difficult to secure their basic needs.



The survey indicated that the distance pupils cover to school affect their school attendance which serves as a contributory factor to the girl child staying out of school.

As part of the factors that affect pupil's school attendance, the survey revealed that punishments contribute to pupil's absenteeism thus contributing to poor school attendance in the district.

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A study by Ouma (2013) on factors affecting participation of the Girl-Child in Secondary School Education in Migori District, Migori County, Kenya Oguta also revealed the following findings.

The study used the descriptive survey design to collect data from principals of 33 public secondary schools in Migori district, 66 class teachers and 66 head girls and deputy head-girls. The census sampling was used to get 33 principals and 66 head girls and deputy head girls but systematic random selection was used to get the 66 class teachers two from every school. The response rate of the respondents was 100 percent. The study used questionnaires for data collection. The findings from the study showed that socio-economic factors affected participation of the girl-child in secondary education. This resulted to lack of school uniform, lack of school fees, lack of teaching learning materials, high rate of drop-out and lack of personal effects for those with poor socio-economic background. The socio-cultural factors result to early marriages, male preference in family, community initiation into adulthood, negative attitudes of girls in education, cultural practices and feeling of being adults which do affect participation of girl child in secondary education. Parents' level of education as a factor affects girl child participation in secondary education because it can promote or lower their participation in education. Educated parents did support their girls in their educational requirements. They also became role models to their daughters' participation in education; they most understand what their daughters want and they did provide them with unlike the uneducated parents. Distance from school as a factor affected girl child participation in education. The wider the distance the more insecure the girls are in their participation in secondary education. Distance from school, made the girl-child to become fatigued due to long walking. This also resulted in early pregnancies as the girls met a lot of challenges on their way to school when they walked to and fro as in case of day scholars or when they are sent home as in cases of boarders.



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Odomore (2015) also conducted a desk study on the challenges to female education in the developing world using Nigeria, Pakistan, India, Nepal, China, Yemen, Uganda and South Africa. In the study, he assessed factors such as poverty, child marriage customs, menstruation, war conflict and patriarchal traditions as discussed in further details in the following sub-sections.

With regard to poverty, Odomore (2015) pointed out that the first major challenge that females in developing countries confront in regards to attaining an education is poverty. Females are a majority of the world population and surveys show that in 2011, there were 774 million illiterate people in the world, ranging from age fifteen to twenty-four; and that two thirds of these illiterate souls (493 million) are females. Even though the size of the global illiterate population is shrinking, the female proportion has remained virtually steady at sixty-three percent to sixty-four percent with a majority of them in developing nations. It is difficult for students (male and female) to obtain an education when they do not have the essential resources, such as pencils, pens, books, desk, computers, electricity, and trained teachers. However, poverty poses a greater threat to females in the developing world in regards to attaining an education. This is because, although females, like males, are born into poverty, females are regulated to a secondary position in the home and the community in developing countries which are organized as patriarchal societies and dominated by gender biases. This condition inhibits their participation in many areas of education, which are available even to persons born into poverty. This condition holds true in spite of the fact that studies show the education of females is a way to increase economic development in developing nations.



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Poverty, according to the World Bank, is living under \$1.25 a day. When translated into communities, the patriarchal cultures benefit males over females, so that in effect, poverty, while a shared challenge for both sexes, is worse for females. This is because males, according to traditional culture, receive an education before females because males are viewed as the breadwinners and are supposed to provide for their families, which includes the females in the persons of wives, daughters, sisters, mothers and aunties.

Direct fees according to Odomore (2015) associated with schooling, such as tuition and books, can consume from about five up to ten percent of the income of a middle-class family household and from twenty up to thirty percent of the income of a poor household. The expense is often seen as an unnecessary expense for females when other basic needs are yet to be met. In addition, indirect fees, such as supplementary parent-teacher fees or bursary fees, add up to a considerable amount and put a strain on the income of a poor household. Then there is the indirect cost of transportation, clothing, food, as well as the opportunity cost of sending a female child to school instead of her working to earn money that might support the family. At the end of the day when all of these fees and costs are levied on a poor household with maybe five children, many times the females are left at home, while their brothers attend school, and thus miss a fundamental part of life's development, namely learning in a formal educational setting. Ironically, studies show that educating females is the way to eradicate poverty. In addition, the promotion of educational equality between males and females in all age groups may improve the condition of families and communities. According to the Organization for Economic Co-operation and development (OECD) females are more likely than males to invest a higher proportion of their earnings in their families and communities.



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Odomore (2015) also indicates that equal education boosts economic growth for females. According to him, education not only helps females to escape poverty by developing the skills they need to improve their livelihoods, but it also generates productivity gains that boost economic growth substantially. According to Chaaban and Cunningham (2011), a female with an extra year of education can earn twenty percent more income as an adult and if all females were given an additional year of education, they will add more than twenty-five percent to the GDP.

However, what often happens with a few exceptions in developing countries is that children from poor households, especially females, are subjected to child-labour, which is one of the reactions to the symptoms of poverty. Needless to say, when females in developing countries are made to work, they cannot be enrolled in school. They are engaged in a variety of tough jobs both in the rural and urban areas, including baby sitters, sales persons, and sex workers. The females are also funnelled into informal sectors where “labour laws are neither monitored nor enforced.” Additionally, many of the females from rural to urban areas are trafficked and exploited. One example of this abuse is seen in Nigeria where street hawking is the largest form of child labor and accounts for more than fifty percent of all urban child labor. This demand for female labor is prevalent in societies like Nigeria because females are perceived as “more obedient hardworking, submissive and trustworthy” than males. This situation contributes to females being held back from attaining an education and, when they do go to school, it interrupts school attendance or any scholastic achievement that would have been possible. But poverty is just one limitation to education for females in the developing world. There are other challenges, which even females who come from privileged backgrounds encounter.



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In terms of religious customs, he indicated that another major challenge to female education is cultural discrimination disguised as religion. Despite the many benefits of educating females as listed above, many females are blocked from school and suffer inequalities due to interpretation, often misinterpretation, of religious tenets or the perceptions of such tenets by parents. Using Pakistan as a case study, this section outlines how religious interpretation affects the education of females in developing countries. In Pakistan, which is a Muslim majority country, Sharia law is the law of the land.

Sharia law, which is derived from the Quran and the Hadith, is the legal system that guides public and, in some cases, private life. It is not based on natural law and generally opposes secular law, which is predominant in many Christian and secular societies around the world. It is important to note that in many Christian societies where natural law exists, there is a clear separation of church and state; however, in Islamic communities, both secular and religious entities are subject to Sharia law and it is through that lens that many Muslims view education as a whole as well as education for females (Odomore, 2015). Today, thirty-five countries have adopted Sharia law into their civil law including Pakistan, which has created many interpretations and applications of the law that affect society and people. This state of affairs has greatly affected the education of female in Pakistan, particularly in the rural area.



Kristof and WuDunn (2010) wrote that religion is not to be blamed for many of the discriminations and oppressions that females face, especially in Muslim societies, but, rather, that culture should be blamed. However, it is difficult to separate religion and culture and to distinguish between mosques and the state when religion and politics are viewed as one. In the development of Islam, the teaching of the Prophet (S.A.W.) and verses of the Qur'an help improve the state of females. Females were given rights to own property, obtain an education,

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and to choose their marriage mates. The Prophet is said to have written numerous chapters that helped shape civilization and one of those verses dealt with education, including this verse: “the pursuit of knowledge is a duty of every Muslim, man and woman.” Those religious words instructed Muslims as a religious duty to pursue knowledge and education and that gender, race, or culture should not prevent people, including females, from attaining an education.

Therefore, in 2013, the Organization of Islamic Cooperation noted that many Islamic member nations restrict education opportunities for females based on local and tribal traditions, often disguised as religious teachings. It condemned these actions, including the interpretation on the veils, and such scourges as honour killings, child marriages, and female genital mutilation. In the case of Pakistan, which has in its constitution that education is a fundamental right to every citizen, there is a huge gender gap in education and it relates in part to misinterpretation of Muslim tenets. According to Kainuwa and Yusuf in Adomere (2015), these socio-cultural beliefs further contribute to females having inaccessibility to an adequate education. In addition, many of these parents have the idea that Western education is occupation driven, and, therefore, not appropriate for their daughters, who, instead, had to attend Qur'anic schools because they believed that their daughters were going to get married and would not need a job that a Western education would provide. The conclusion is that religion itself does not limit education for females in developing nations. Rather, it is a perversion of religion's tenets by culture and people coupled with certain misinterpretation and false religious perception that restrict female education.

In terms of child marriage customs, the third challenge to female education in developing nations is child marriage. Child marriages occur in many developing societies around the



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world and prevent females from obtaining an education. According to a United Nations Population Fund article in Odomore (2015) “Marrying Too Young end Child Marriage,” one in three females became married before their eighteenth birthday in developing countries, excluding China. In addition, one out of nine will be married before they are fifteen. It is also probable that, although child marriages are on the decline among females under age of fifteen, “fifty million females could still be at risk of being married before their fifteenth birthday in this decade.”

The custom of child marriage is present in numerous societies, but it is most predominant in Muslim societies. In places, such as in Yemen, the education of females is greatly hindered because of child marriage. Females are subject to marriage especially to men who are twice or three times their age. The story of Tahani in Yemen, pictured above at age six who was married to Majad, who at the time was twenty-five, illustrates this situation. Many females are put into this condition which can cause psychological distress. In the case of Tahani, she recalled, “whenever I saw him [my husband], I hid. I hated to see him.” There are many females in Northern Nigeria with the same story as Tahani. In Hausa land in Northern Nigeria, child marriage is the rule. In towns, girls and boys marry at the age of twelve, and often at younger ages in the villages. Subsequently, due to a tradition called “*pardah*,” which is a seclusion of wives indoors, in order to protect her from meeting other men, many of the females are ordered to stay home, leaving them uneducated. Child marriage is a big barrier to the education of females in developing nations because even if they attend school initially, many of the females drop out to get married at such young ages, and “they never go back to school, learn a trade, or master vocational skills that would economically empower and make them self- reliant.



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Sometimes, when females are engaged at an older age, they are immediately pulled out of school. In some countries, parents sell their daughters to be married in exchange for money due to poverty. They fail to recognize that that marriage is not a matter of one or two days, but a matter of life. They give their daughters to men who these females do not know; and these females then have to spend all of their life with these men. This is the reality for many unfortunate females in several developing countries throughout the world, again with exception to China.

Menstruation; another challenge to female education in developing nations is the issue of menstruation. Monthly, females worldwide, experience their menstruation cycles. With their monthly period comes some added stress on their wellbeing mentally and physically, including pains associated with migraines, cramps, or PMS. Females in developing countries face an even bigger challenge during their menstrual period than females in developed countries due to a lack of access to sanitation products, washrooms with toilets, and privacy. They also sometimes confront bullying and embarrassment from ignorant persons (Adomere, 2015). Studies therefore have found that the provision of sanitary products is linked to female attendance in school and have proven to be important to the education of females. They further discovered that in places like Uganda, females miss because of menstruation one to three days of primary school per month, which, when added up, is eight to twenty-four days of not attending school per year. This translates into missing eleven percent of study days out of the 220 study school days in a year due to menstrual periods.

Although outlawed in 2005, the tradition called *chhaupadi* is still very alive in many rural areas of Nepal. This tradition involves the isolation of women and girls during their menstruation period into dark rooms away from everyone and everything else because they



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are regarded as unclean. Reeti (2015) reported that such practices as *chhaupadi* are mainly found in poor and illiterate communities where centuries old myths and superstitions limit the activities of menstruating women and girls because their choosing to be active or to learn will anger a Hindu goddess.

Finally, there is the existence of patriarchal societies. They pose another challenge to the education of females in developing nations. In the case of South Africa, females are largely discriminated against and conferred lower status in society. Females are restricted to those courses that are stereotypically feminine like cooking classes, home economics, art, and social studies, while males study mathematics, physics and similar related courses. When it comes time to specialize or take entrance exams, the females cannot compete with the males who are more knowledgeable and comfortable with courses that deal with higher critical thinking such as the sciences and technology. This situation contributes to females lagging behind and dropping out of school, which puts females inescapably on the path to factory and other menial jobs. Alternatively, little education is better than no education. Although, such poor education as described above lead females to having poor paying jobs, at least it can help them navigate this complex world on their own. When parents send their daughters to school and for however long, these females learn how to count and how to read. These simple abilities give females the basis of understanding and reaching for higher goals if they wish to do so. It is best said by Paulo Friere, the Brazilian revolutionary educator, “I can read. Therefore I can control the world.” There is much powerful evidence that points to why females should be educated. As one authority wrote, “education is one of the most potent ingredients, in a mix of advantages, for changing the lives of females in the developing world.” (Odomore, 2015).



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Fant (2008) conducted a study on education and girl-child empowerment in the Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo District which came out with the following findings. Firstly, the study found that local culture has marginalized and discriminated against girls in terms of access to attainments of formal education. It came out that, the discrimination of girls in the study area begins at birth. Unless it is a couple that has been eager to have a girl the ordinary reflexive reaction against the baby girl is a big frown: 'it is someone else's property'. It was realized that girls are denied education because formal education is an investment to be reaped tangibly in the future by which time they would have been married. It also came out that boys are preferred to girls because the boys will plough back into family any benefits associated with formal education. The local culture perceives formal education as a time wasting as it delays marriage and the related bride price and children the ultimate symbol of womanhood.

Secondly, the study found that early marriages are common practice in the study area. These practices do not allow the girl-child to enrol and complete schooling. The field data revealed that some parents were giving their daughters hands in marriage and also replacing girls with boys at the primary level. According to a key informant, the enrolment and retention of girl-child in schools was not encouraging due to early marriages. One female informant in her mid-20s also did not get the opportunity of going to school, because she got married at the age of 14.

Thirdly, the study further revealed that the local culture has assigned certain roles to girls. All that has to do with childcare, with the handling of what the family eats, with firewood and water, cleaning and washing, traditionally was and still is within women's domain. A parent informant said it is the creation of God that girls are made to do whatever they do in the home. The findings further revealed that because they are girls, there is the need to teach



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them how to do these domestic works. It came out that when girls are not taught, they would bring disgrace to their family. Indeed, girls in the study area are faced with different roles within the household where they have to combine these works and academic work.

Ever increasing teenage pregnancy also result in increasing issue of dropout rate of girls was another critical impediment to girl-child education in the area. The study revealed that most parents had fears of their girls becoming pregnant. A statement by a parent informant revealed that fear of pregnancy is always a worry to them, since this brings disgrace and frustration on the family and waste of resources. Land on which families cultivate have been continually cultivated and has lost its nutrients; thus families, as it were, cannot get the same yield as compared to first. Therefore, some parents cultivate the habit of removing their girls from the classroom to farm during farming seasons. The study further showed that girls absented themselves from school during the term because they were asked by their parents to accompany them to the farms.

2.10 Summary

As revealed by the literature, generally, there is gender disparity as far as girls' and boys' education is concerned in developing countries such as Ghana. This is what has prompted the study in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District in the North-East Region. The study therefore is underpinned by three relevant theories namely the Poor Family Socialisation Theory, Radical Feminist Theory, and Human Capital Theory.

Conceptually, the study is guided by four key factors that could either hinder or promote girl-child education. These are: school related factors, institutional factors, socio-cultural factors and socio-economic factors. Empirical review further revealed that girl-child education is impeded by these aforementioned factors. However, certain gaps have been



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identified which were not covered by the literature or by various authors. For example, parents' perception of girl-child education particularly the different roles fathers and mothers play in educating their girl-child as well as the girl-child's own perception towards her education. The issues not vividly captured or considered by various authors as a consequence to girl-child education is poverty levels of parents.

Another literature gap identified is awareness level of parents or guardians about the FCUBE policy that could promote girl-child education in Ghana. In the light of this, appropriate research methodology is designed to collect empirical data to fill this literature gap.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter highlights the procedures followed to unravel the issues, challenges and the way forward for female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District of the Northern Region. It entails the research design, sources of data, study population, sampling frame and sample size, sampling techniques and procedure, data collection, and the technique of data analysis.

This chapter also captures the profile of the study area.

3.2 Profile of the Study Area

This section of the study describes the context of the study in terms of its location, population, people and social organisation, marriage system among others as discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.2.1 Location

Bunkpurugu-Yunyoo is one of the twenty-eight newly created districts in 2004. The district capital is Bunkpurugu. It was carved out of East Mamprusi district. The district is located in the north eastern corner of Northern Region. It shares boundaries with Garu-Tempani District in the Upper East Region to the north and the Republic of Togo to the east. Gusheigu and Saboba/Chereponi Districts border it to the west and East Mamprusi to the south. (Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District Assembly Medium Development Plan, 2006-2009 in Fant, 2008).

3.2.2 Population

The population of Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo is estimated at 153,329, with an annual growth rate of 3.1 %. This is made up of 73,598 males and 79,731 females constituting 48 % and 52 % respectively. The average density of population is 59 persons per square kilometre. There are



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five urban settlements with population of 5,000 and above. They are Bunkpurugu, Nakpanduri, Binde, Bimbagu and Nasuan. The people in the urban settlement constitute about 18.1 % of the total population of the District. Thus, the District is mainly rural of about 81.9 % of the total population. (Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District Assembly Medium Development Plan, 2006-2009 in Fant, 2008) There are one hundred and ninety one (191) communities in the District.

3.2.3 People and Social Organization

The district is a heterogeneous society consisting of many ethnic and religious groups. The main ethnic groups are *Bimobas*, the *Konkombas* and the *Mamprusis*. They speak *Moar*, *Komba* and *Mampruli* respectively. Other groups found include *Moshi*, *Talensi*, *Hausa*, *Fulani*, *Dagombas* and *Chokosi*. Traditional and Christian religions are the main religions practice by the people. There is also Islamic religion that is usually practiced by settlers. There is high communal spirit among the people especially, the small communities. The factors that account for this are the size of the communities, high functional literacy and education by Community-Based Organizations and local Non-Governmental Organizations such as Bimoba Literacy Farmers' Co-operative Union (BILFACU) (Fant, 2008).

The major festival celebrated by almost everybody is Christmas. This brings families and friends both home and abroad together. Others are Damba, Fire festivals and funeral celebrations. These are opportunities to mobilize the citizenry for development, such as communal labor, information dissemination, organize development seminars and investment promotion. The celebration of expensive funerals that run into midnight comes with some attendant problems such as waste of food, sexual promiscuity and poor performance of students. Other traditional and religious practices militating against development are widow inheritance, child betrothal and wife exchange as well as ethnic, land and chieftaincy disputes.



3.2.4 Marriage System

Bimoba people are basically polygamous and this is buttressed by the saying that ‘a man with one wife is considered as a bachelor’. The Bimoba people also called Moab (Moa singular) live in the north-eastern part of Northern Region, Eastern Upper East Region and Northern western Togo. There are two major distinct groups that are Bem and Dagbam with different facial markings. These are further subdivided into smaller clans that have their independent areas. According to Konlan (1988), there are, however, considerable intermarriages between them. Both the Bem and Dagbam are exogamous except some clans among the Bem (Buak and Konduak which practice both exogamy and endogamy) (Fant, 2008).

3.2.5 Child Betrothal

Bimoba practice the betrothal of infant to men. Infant betrothal is a situation where parents promise to give their daughter to men to marry when she comes nubile. The promise may be made even when the would-be wife is not yet conceived, let alone born. Betrothal is formally done at the house of the lineage head (Konlan, 1988 in Fant, 2008). If a girl is betrothed to a particular young man, it means that the girl in that case knows her husband. On the other hand, an elderly man with many sons who has a girl betrothed to him does not always specify the son who is going to marry the girl even though consideration is always given to seniors.

Under such a situation whichever son the elderly man instructs the bride to heat water for him to bath and to sweep his room becomes her husband (Ibid).

3.2.6 Wife Exchange

An exchange marriage comes about when two men exchange girls. The girls exchanged may either be ‘sisters’ or ‘daughters’; actual or classificatory, to the men. The girls are usually not the same age because it is believed that if they both marry the same year some misfortune will befall one of them. Among the Bimoba an elderly man without son is especially likely to



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seek to exchange some of their daughters for a wife for him with the hope of giving birth to males. According to Konlan (1988) in Fant (2008) all Bimoba marriage are centered on exchange marriage because whether you elope with your wife or she is betrothed to you, it is considered a 'debt' which you are supposed to 'settle' by giving your in-laws a girl for marriage at any point in time you have one. As head of the family it is one's incumbency to make sure that if boys elope their wives the 'debt' is 'settled' by betrothing a daughters to one's in-laws. Under this circumstance they cannot allow their daughters free choice of spouse while they have 'debts' (Ibid).

3.2.7 Socio-economic Infrastructure

The bedrock of every nation's development is education and yet the first primary schools were established in 1950 and 1951 at Bunkpurugu the district capital and Nakpanduri respectively and the first secondary school was in 1993. The district has, in all, 44 Day-care centres, 101 primary schools, 24 Junior High Schools (JHS) and 2 Senior High Schools (SHS) at Nakpanduri and Bunkpurugu. Most of these schools are concentrated in the big towns and the structures are dilapidated. About 63.3 % of primary schools do not have permanent structures and 91.6 % JHS suffer the same fate (Fant, 2008).

There is no general hospital in the district, but there are 8 health centres in Bunkpurugu, Yunyoo, Kambagu, Gbingbani, Binde and Nakpanduri that provide primary health and child care services. Four of the centres are private owned and the rest are public owned. The ratio of people to a health centre is more than 1 to 22000. The district, as of 2004 had 10 nurses but had an additional number of 8 nurses in 2005 and this shows a significant increase of 80 %. The district has only one doctor serving the entire population. Number of midwives also shows an increase of 22.2 % but notwithstanding the increase, 11 midwives in the district is certainly inadequate. Mothers who sought antenatal and postnatal care at various health centres in the district give an aggregate figure of 554 in 2004 and a figure of 607 in 2005.



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The district has a total road network of 284.43km. 233.63km of the network are engineered roads, representing 74.40 %. The rest are non- engineered roads. Only 17 % of the roads are in good shape. Most of the non- engineered roads are not motorable during the rainy season. The commonest means of transport are bicycle, motorcycle and donkey cart. The only regular transport services are commutations between Bunkpurugu-Tamale, Bunkpurugu-Nalerigu and Bunkpurugu-Kumasi. The other areas have transport services only on market days.

3.3 Research Design

Research design has been variously defined. According to Akhtar (2016) research design can be considered as the structure of research; it is the “Glue” that holds all of the elements in a research project together, in short it is a plan of the proposed research work. It also refers to the arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy and procedure. It is also the plan, structure, strategy and investigation concaved so as to obtain ensured search question and control variance (Akhtar, 2016). Henry Manheim in Akhtar (2016) says that research design not only anticipates and specifies the seemingly countless decisions connected with carrying out data collection, processing and analysis but it presents a logical basis for these decisions. Zikmund in Akhtar (2016) defined it as a master plan specifying the methods and procedure for collecting and analysing the needed information. The definitions stress systematic methodology in collecting right information for interpretations with economy and procedure.

In fact, the research design is the conceptual framework within which research is conducted:

(1) The blueprint for the collection (2) Measurement and (3) Analysis of data. A research design should be based more or less on some methodology. The research design should be made once the topic and problem of research have been selected and formulated, objectives have been properly outlined, concepts have been properly defined and the hypothesis have been properly framed. A research design is a basic plan that guides the data collection and



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analysis. It provides the framework that specifies the type of information to be collected, its sources and collection procedure.

In the light of this, a descriptive research design, with a cross-sectional survey methodology was adopted in this study, using questionnaires in particular. The study also made use of key informant interviews, observations and focus group discussions. As the study tries to survey and describe the opinions of a large number of people on the issues, challenges and the way forward for female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District of the Northern Region, it was important that the descriptive research design was considered. The descriptive research design was chosen over other research designs because it also allowed the researcher to obtain a lot of information from many respondents in a short time, and at a relatively low cost through description. As supported by Kelley *et al.* (2003) a descriptive research aims at examining a situation by describing the important factors associated with that situation.

In view of the above, both quantitative and qualitative research methods were employed in collecting field data for analysis. Although these two methods are different in many ways, they complement each other (Neuman, 2006). More so, one cannot answer all the questions and provide insights on all issues (Osuala; 2007). Therefore, the qualitative method was used to gather data that involved text whilst the quantitative method was used to gather data that concerns numbers.

3.4. Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary data were obtained from primary and secondary sources respectively for the study as explained in further details in the following sub-sections.

3.4.1 Primary Data

The primary data was sourced directly from the respondents through questionnaires, focus group discussions, key informant interviews and observations. The data collected was centred



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on parental attitude and perceptions of female education, policy/initiative, religious, geographic, socio-cultural, school environment, and socio-economic factors affecting female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District of Ghana.

3.4.2 Secondary Data

The secondary data was obtained from journal articles, internet, newspapers, the records of the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District Education Office and other schools included in the study sample. The secondary data sourced included the findings of other researches that are related to the study which encapsulates enrolment figures per school, school dropout rates per school, staffing capacity per school, quality of teachers per school, and logistic figures per school. Also, each selected student's average terminal results were also obtained from selected schools in the District.

3.5 Study Population

According to Zikimund; in Akhtar (2016), one of the challenges of any type of research is the definition of the sample population from which the respondents are selected. Therefore, the population of the study refers to the entire set of relevant units that fit into a certain specification (Oteng-Abayie, 2011). The study population constitutes girls in school at the primary, Junior High School (JHS) and Senior High School (SHS), Ghana Education Service (GES) staff, Head teachers, teachers, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) (Camfed) staff, School Management Committees (SMCs) and parents and guardians. These categories of respondents were targeted because they were concerned about female education in the District as well as provided relevant in-depth information about the subject matter of investigation.



3.6 Sampling Frame and Sample Size

According to Puopiel (2014) sample size refers to the selected number of people/population/units/cases to be surveyed. Therefore, in determining the sample size for a study, the researcher must first of all know his/her sampling frame of the study population. In line with this, the Ghana Statistical Service 2010 Population and Housing Census estimated the population of Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District to be 122,591. This implies that the sampling frame for the study was 122,591. However, due to financial and other resource constraints, a sample size of 150 respondents was chosen from the sampling frame. According to Saunders et al (2009), a sample size of 50 reduces biasness, but if a sample size is 100 or more, the degree of accuracy of findings is high. Drawing the 150 respondents from the lot in the district required the application of some sampling techniques and procedures which are discussed below.

3.7 Sampling Techniques and Procedure

To ensure a fair representation of the study population a multi-stage sampling technique was employed. The multi-stage sampling technique was adopted in this study because it is convenient, economical and efficient. It is convenient because it is simple, it does not require the listing of all members of the target population to obtain a sample. It is economical because listing only a few members of the target population at the final stage helps to reduce sample preparation cost and time. It is efficient because it helps solve some of the problems which individual sampling techniques could not solve; e.g. it produces smaller variances than other alternative sampling techniques and sample selection bias is also checked. However, this technique could lead to lower accuracy due to higher sampling error.

Following from this, the multi-stage sampling technique was used to arrive at selecting the 150 respondents. The techniques employed included cluster sampling, stratified sampling,



proportionate sampling, simple www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh random sampling and purposive sampling. These sampling procedures are further explained below.

First, using the cluster sampling technique, the study area was zoned into nine circuits, namely: Bimbagu, Nasuan, Nakpanduri, Binde North, Binde South, Yunyoo, Bunkpurugu East, Bunkpurugu West and Gbankurugu; following the District education office classification.

Second, the schools in each cluster were further stratified into Primary Schools (PSs), Junior High Schools (JHSs), and Senior High Schools (SHSs) as illustrated in Table 3.1.



Table 3.1: Stratified Schools per Circuit in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District

No.	Circuit	Strata			Total
		Primary	JHS	SHS	
1	Bimbagu	17	3		20
2	Nasuan	19	4		23
3	Nakpanduri	12	4	1	17
4	Binde North	9	4		13
5	Binde South	13	5		18
6	Yunyoo	13	2		15
7	Bunkpurugu East	13	5		18
8	Bunkpurugu West	10	4	1	15
9	Gbankurugu	11	2		13
	Total	117	33	2	152

Source: GES – Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District.

Third, using a target school population of 22 due to resource constraint to cover all the schools, a decision was taken to draw the study sample from 11 PSs, 9 JHSs and 2 SHSs across all the enlisted communities in the district. The proportionate sampling technique was then used to draw schools from each cluster to make up for the 11 PSs, 9 JHSs and 2 SHSs; giving rise to the following school distributions per cluster as in Table 3.2.



Table 3.2: Sampled Schools for the Study

No.	Circuit	Strata			Total
		Primary	JHS	SHS	
1	Bimbagu	2	1		3
2	Nasuan	2	1		3
3	Nakpanduri	1	1	1	3
4	Binde North	1	1		2
5	Binde South	1	1		2
6	Yunyoo	1	1		2
7	Bunkpurugu East	1	1		2
8	Bunkpurugu West	1	1	1	3
9	Gbankurugu	1	1		2
	Total	11	9	2	22

Source: Author's Computations, 2015.

Fourth, purposive sampling technique was used to select the highest class in each school. This was meant to help the researcher determine if a student could successfully progress to the next level of the academic ladder or not. In this regard, class 6 was chosen at the primary level whilst JHS 3 and SHS 3 were chosen at the JHS and the SHS levels respectively.

Fifth, with the aid of the class attendance register, each selected class was stratified into girls and boys, giving rise to two lists – one for boys and the other for girls.



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Sixth, using the girls' list in each class, a total of 4 girls were randomly selected from a class at both the Primary and JHS levels, using the simple random sampling technique. At the SHS level, a total of 15 girls were randomly selected from the form 3 classes in each school, taking into consideration the courses being offered in each school. This brought the total number of selected students/pupils to 110. It should be noted that efforts were made to capture school absentees and dropouts in the study sample. Among the selected students in each school, a student was randomly selected for home observation. This was meant to monitor how pupils/students went about their activities, especially studies, at home.

Also, 9 head teachers (i.e. 4 from the PSs, 3 from the JHSs and 2 from the SHSs), 9 classroom teachers, 2 GES staff (i.e. the Assistant District Director of Education - Human Resource, and the District Girl-Child Education Officer), and 2 Officials of an NGO (Campaign for Female Education – Camfed) in the District were purposively selected for key informant interviews.

Again, purposive sampling technique was used to select 15 parents and members of the school management committees (SMCs) for focus group discussion on the subject under study.

Lastly, the purposive sampling technique was used to select 6 dropped-out female students (2 from each level of the pre-tertiary schools) for focus group discussion on the subject under study.

Summarising the numbers of all the respondents outlined above gave a figure of 153 respondents, which constituted the total sample size for the study presented in Table 3.3.



Table 3.3: Participants in the study

Participant	Number
Primary Pupils (Girls)	44
JHS Pupils (Girls)	36
SHS Students (Girls)	30
GES Staff	2
Head Teachers	9
Teachers	9
Dropped-out Students	6
NGO (Camfed) Staff	2
Parents/SMC	15
Total	153

Source: Author's Computations, 2015.



3.8 Data Collection Process

This section covers the data collection instruments, data collection procedure and data analysis.

3.8.1 Variables

The study considered the following variables worthy of investigation because of the ample support they received in the literature review as some of the factors that militate against female education. In all, 8 categories of variables which were considered relevant to the study, namely: Demographic Variables, Socio-cultural Variables, Socio-economic Variables,

Geographic Variables, Policy/Initiative Variables, Religious Variables, Parental Attitude and Perception of Female Education Variables, and School Environment Variables.

3.8.2 Data Collection Instruments

The study employed the following instruments in gathering the data for the study. These are:

1. *Students' Questionnaire*: This is a self-designed structured questionnaire that is used to capture students' information relevant to the study. It is mainly composed of closed-ended questions, with few open-ended questions. It was divided into eight sections, ranging from section A-H. Section A sought to obtain demographic information of the respondents, Section B sourced information on parents' attitude and perception of female education, Section C sought to obtain information on educational policies/initiatives that affect female education, Section D comprised questions of religious factors that affect female education, Section E sought to obtain data on geographic factors that affect female education, Section F obtained information on socio-cultural factors that affect female education, Section G obtained information on socio-economic factors that affect female education, and Section H obtained information on school environment factors that affect female education.
2. *School Information Questionnaire*: This type of questionnaire was designed to gather data on the school profile. It provided information on school logistics, teacher quality and availability, student drop-out rates, student pass rates, and support systems for the school.
3. *Focus Group Discussion*: This type of instrument constituted a number of questions that will serve as guidelines during discussions with groups of participants on the factors that affect female education. It captured the general views of each community on the factors affecting female education as it mainly dwelled on parental attitude and perception of female education, educational policies/initiatives that affect female



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education, socio-cultural and socio-economic factors that affect female education in the district under study.

4. *Key Informant Interview Guide*: This instrument was used as a guide by the researcher during interviews to unearth in-depth information relevant to the study from people that are well-versed in education in the district under study. Practically, it contained pre-determined questions aimed at unearthing information on the factors that affect female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District.
5. *Home Observation*: This instrument was used to gather information on how each participating girl went about her activities at home. This was intended to determine if her work schedule and other activities at home had influence on her performance at school. The information gathered centred around the workload of each girl at home, the study environment at home, the child's effort towards studies at home, and her parents' attitude towards her studies at home. The instrument was also designed to capture the time spent on each activity by the participating girl at home.

3.8.3 Data Collection Procedure

The entire data collection exercise was completed within one month. A period of one month was used because it allowed the researcher to revisit participants who were not present at the time of the first visit. Prior to the administration of questionnaires in each community, permission was sought from each school's head teacher, the community leaders and other stakeholders. The school information questionnaire was administered to the head teachers whilst the students' questionnaire was administered to the students.

Also, the key informant interviews and focus group discussions was conducted after seeking permission from the participants concerned by way of letters and personal visits, depending on the literacy level of the participant.



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For the key informant interviewees (i.e. the GES staff, head teachers, teachers and the NGO staff), permission was formally sought from them, after which dates were fixed for the interviews.

In the case of the focus group participants (i.e. parents/SMCs), a consensus was reached with them on a date for the discussion, after visiting and inviting them informally with the aid of the head teachers of the schools concerned.

For the interviews with the dropped-out students, the students were identified with the help of the teachers of their various schools, after which dates were fixed informally for the interviews.

In conducting the home observation, the households of the selected girls (participating students) were identified first, with the aid of the community members. After the identification, a household was observed each day for information on how the students went about their activities at home until all the households selected were exhausted.

3.9 Methods of Data Analysis and Presentation

Data analysis as explained by Puopiel (2014) is a process of inspecting, cleaning, transforming and modelling data with the goal of discovering useful information, suggesting conclusions and supporting decision making. In the light of this, there are a number of tools and statistical software that can be used for data analysis. Thus, the Statistical Product and Service Solution (SPSS) was used for the analysis of data. In this regard, the researcher first edited the data to ensure that the data collection tools, particularly the questionnaire, were properly administered. A code book was then prepared for data entering and cleaning of data to ensure that all errors made during the data entering were corrected. The researcher then generated the data into tables, graphs and charts for interpretation and presentation. The qualitative data from the interviews were synthesized into various thematic areas of the study



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as this was used to support the quantitative data in a descriptive format. Frequency of responses was harmonized into the study objectives for discussion. Therefore, data was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.



RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

This chapter presents the results and discussions of the study in thematic areas, which include the parental attitude and perceptions affecting female education, policies/initiatives affecting female education, religious factors affecting female education, geographic factors affecting female education, socio-cultural factors affecting female education, socio-economic factors affecting female education and factors in the school environment affecting female education. The triangulation method of analysing data is employed, where data from five different sources—students’ questionnaire, key informant interviews, interviews with school dropouts, focus group discussions, and home observations— were analysed to ensure validity of the results. Thus, both quantitative data and qualitative data are analysed separately and the results cross-checked against each other to ensure validity of the results. In all, 153 respondents were targeted, but 152 of them participated in the study, representing 99.3 percent response rate. This comprised 110 survey respondents, 42 qualitative interviewees and focus group discussants.

4.1 Perception and Attitudes of Parental and Student of Female Education

A critical look at the separate contributions of parents and students by way of their attitudes and perceptions that affect female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District is necessary to ascertain whether the problem is from the parents or the students or both, so that better solutions could be proffered accordingly to address the issues. This section therefore, discusses the attitudes and perceptions of parents that affect female education and the attitudes and perceptions of female students that affect their education.



4.1.1 Attitudes and Perceptions of Parents that Affect Female Education

This sub-section looks at the various contributions parents make towards the dropping out or failure of their female wards in schools in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. After analysing the data, parents were faulted for contributing in diverse ways to the dropping out of their female wards from schools in the district.

Lack of parental care and encouragement of females at home by fathers: Among the female student respondents, the study reveals that mothers are more responsible in taking care of their female wards at home than their fathers in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. Whereas more than half (57.3 percent) of the mothers care for their female wards at home, only 32.7 percent of the fathers do same (see Table 4.1 below). Also, already informed about the difficulty in caring for children and accepting it as a role, more than half of the mothers (55.5 percent) encourage their female wards to go to school in order to become responsible mothers in future. Unlike the mothers, only a few (21.8 percent) of the fathers of the female students show interest in their education (see Table 4.2 below). All these show the poor leadership role played by the fathers as heads of families in the district. Recognized as heads of families and by the inheritance system practised in the North, one would have thought that the fathers would have been more responsible towards all their wards, irrespective of their sex, since they own them and must equip them with whatever that will make them responsible persons in future. Such poor leadership does not motivate the female wards to learn harder to achieve greater results, as they turn to feel that they are left behind by their fathers. Also, lack of care and encouragement from the parents (fathers) exposes the female students to the danger of seeking care and support from some men outside the family, who end up impregnating and forcing them out of school. These findings are in tandem with the study findings of Asigri (2012) on using education as a tool for girl-child empowerment with focus on Garu-Tempani District, Ghana. The study established that low education level of parents played a major role



in the girl child education. This further supports Ouma (2013) findings on causes of girl-child education. The study found parents' level of education as a factor affecting girl child participation in secondary education because it can promote or lower their participation in education. Educated parents did support their girls in their educational requirements.

Table 4.1: Persons who look after female students most at home

Relation	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Father	36	32.7
Mother	63	57.3
Grand parent	6	5.5
Auntie	1	.9
Elder sister	1	.9
Uncle	2	1.8
Elder brother	1	.9
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.



Table 4.2: Persons who encourage female students to go to school most

Person who encourages female education	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Father	24	21.8
Mother	61	55.5
Grand parent	6	5.5
Auntie	1	.9
Elder sister	6	5.5
Uncle	9	8.2
Elder brother	3	2.7
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

The poor attitude of the fathers towards the education of their female wards is corroborated by the responses of key informants involved in the study, who asserted that parents in the district generally have poor attitude and perception towards female education. They held that parents discriminate against female education and that has resulted in the poor academic performance of females in schools in the district. One of the participants raised the following observation.

“The attitude and perception of parents towards girl child education in this district and in some areas in particular is not the best. Parents have been observed to have less attention and support to their female children in education than their male children. This lack of parental care, support, motivation and encouragement to female



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in education is what results in huge differences in performance of male and female students in examinations over the years. Female children are special and need special and unique treatment from parents regarding their needs.”

A similar observation was also made in the focus group discussions.

“Parental neglect is one of the main reasons why children of school going age are not in school. Most parents in this district don’t bother about the welfare of their children. Mostly, females from this type of families may engage in some adverse activities in order to earn a living and this mostly lead them into situations which can force them out of school.”

The drop-out students blame their drop out on lack of parental care, death of a parent and poverty, confirming the observations of the students, the key informants, and the focus group members. One of the drop-out students gave her testimony of parental neglect as follows:

“My parents’ attitude dropped me out of school. They refused to take care of me in terms of providing my needs such as books, uniforms, sandals, bags, and even food was a problem. I followed my aunty down south and that ended my education.”

Another also gave her testimony of lack of parental encouragement as follows:

“None of my parents gave me encouragement to go to school.”

High parental preference of male education to female education: More than half of the participants in the key informant interviews upheld that most parents will prioritize male education to female education, given that the family is faced with scarce resources. The major reason given for this sex preference is that females are temporary members of the family and that their education will only benefit their matrimonial homes, not the parents. According to



them, it is the parents' belief that the males are the ones that will stay with them and look after them in future. One participant had this to say:

“Many of the parents in the district will choose to educate their male children at the expense of their female children, should resources be limited. What they often and commonly say is that the males are their heirs and will ever remain with the family to take care of them while their female counterparts leave the parents to marry elsewhere.”

The above revelations support the research findings of Ouma (2013) as the study found male preference in education than their female counterparts. Other reasons given for parental preference of male education to female education include the perception that ‘males are more intelligent than females and could easily fit into the educational environment than females’; that educating a female is waste of resources since she would eventually get married and live with another family that will be responsible for her or she will get pregnant and drop out of school.

In a focus group discussion with some parents and SMCs, the questions “What is your position on which sex should be educated, given scarce resources in the family? What are your reasons for this position?” were asked. The responses were similar to those of the key informants, confirming the observations of the key informants. Below is the response of a participant in the discussions.

“I will choose to educate the male rather than the female, should I be faced with the problem of limited resources. This is because the females have never proven to us that they are capable of going higher in education. There is no single female from here who has ever schooled pass SHS even though they have equal opportunities with their male counterparts. So we have lost confidence in investing in female education.”

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To find out about the authenticity of the assertions made by the key informants and the focus group members, some drop out students were asked “Did your parents’ attitude inform you to drop out of school? If yes, what was their attitude towards your education?” All six participants confirmed that their parents’ attitude made them drop out of school while their brothers continued. A drop out student gave the following statement.

“Yes, my parents asked me to stop school and learn a trade when I was in JHS form 2. They said that we were many and they could not take care of all of us in school. My sister and I dropped out of school while the boys were allowed to continue; now they have completed SHS.”

However, there were some few participants who also share the view that parents will prefer educating both sexes under any given circumstance. The choice of the parents as to who to maintain in school, given scarce resources will only depend on the academic performance of the student at school.

Lack of role models due to high illiteracy rate and low level of education of parents: As shown in Table 4.3 below, more than half (54.5 percent) of the parents of the female students are illiterates, followed by their fathers only (24.5 percent), both parents (11.8 percent) and mothers only (9.1 percent). Among the few educated parents, only 2.7 percent and 8.2 percent have been able to school at the post-secondary (college) and tertiary levels respectively while the rest have failed to cross the SHS level (see Table 4.4 below). This implies that the pupils/students virtually lack parents as role models in their communities to serve as a motivating factor for them to strive for greater results at school. The female students do not see many educated females in the community and that is enough to dampen their spirits and make them fall prey to early marriage and other social vices. Seeing only a



few educated mothers in the community, it makes them feel that it is a norm for mothers not to make it at school, and so it will not be a problem if they fail.

Table 4.3: Parents who are educated

Educated parents	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Father	27	24.5
Mother	10	9.1
Both	13	11.8
None	60	54.5
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

Table 4.4 : Highest educational level of your parent(s)

Highest level of education of parents	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Primary	4	3.6
JHS	14	12.7
SHS	20	18.2
Post-Secondary (College)	3	2.7
Tertiary	9	8.2
None	60	54.5
Total	110	100



Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

Without many female role models in the community as a motivating factor, many parents turn to discourage their female wards from schooling and rather push them into early marriage as a result of poverty. These issues came up several times in the key informant interviews and the focus group discussions. The evidence is provided in the extracts from the key informant interviews and the focus group discussions, which are presented below in their respective order.

“Poverty, lack of role models, and the belief that females can be taken by men for marriage make some parents to ignore female education. Ladies do not also see their colleagues who have made it in school to inspire them to go to school.”

“Most children of school going age are not in school because of poverty and ignorance on the part of their parents. The illiteracy level of parents in the district is high, so most parents don't see the need for their children to be educated especially in the rural areas of the district.”

High parental preference of higher education for males to females: Although majority of the parents are illiterates, they are not oblivious of the importance of education, as most (71.8 percent) of them wish that their female wards school up to the tertiary level (see Table 4.5).



Table 4.5 : The highest level of education parents wish for their female wards

Parents preference of highest level of education for their wards	Frequency	Percent
Primary	1	.9
JHS	3	2.7
SHS	2	1.8
Vocational/Technical	9	8.2
Post-Secondary (College)	16	14.5
Tertiary	79	71.8
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

However, most of the parents wish that their male wards are always ahead of the females in education; with reasons being that highly educated females do not respect their husbands and elders, they only need education to manage a home, and that they will finally marry and leave their patrilineal homes – their education will not benefit the parents compared to their matrimonial homes. The following were the accounts given by a key informant interviewee, a focus group discussion member and a school drop-out interviewee respectively.

“Surely, parents will wish that their male children are always ahead of their female children in education. While they wish their male students attain the highest possible level of education, they wish that their female children acquire Diploma, and at most degrees behind their male counterparts.”



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“Male children should be educated to the university level while the female is left far behind. When females are highly educated, they don’t respect their husband and elders.”

“At the time I was in school, my parents wished that I was educated up to the university level.”

Given this high parental preference of higher education for the male students than the females, the female students are left with no incentive to struggle to pass well at school, since they turn to feel their efforts will not be appreciated much at home. After all, it is their parents wish that the males pass well, not them.

The dichotomy of parents neglecting the education of their female wards and at the same time wishing that they attain tertiary levels of education raises questions as to whether it could be the fault of the female students. Therefore, there is the need to probe into the attitudes and perceptions of the female wards that affect their education. Section 4.1.2 takes a look at the attitudes and perceptions of the female wards that affect their education.

High poverty level of parents: Poverty, according to the World Bank, is living under \$1.25 a day. When translated into communities, the patriarchal cultures benefit males over females, so that in effect, poverty, while a shared challenge for both sexes, is worse for females. This is because males, according to traditional culture, receive an education before females because males are viewed as the breadwinners and are supposed to provide for their families, which includes the females in the persons of wives, daughters, sisters, mothers and aunties. Odomore (2017) also pointed out that the first major challenge that females in developing countries confront in regards to attaining an education is poverty. Females are a majority of the world population and surveys show that in 2011, there were 774 million illiterate people



in the world, ranging from age fifteen to twenty-four; and that two thirds of these illiterate souls (493 million) were females.

Following from the above, high poverty level of parents therefore had been identified as one of the major causes that influence parents' decision as to who should be educated and who should not in the study district. Majority of the parents in the district are poor peasant farmers, who can hardly afford school fees and educational materials for their wards. This situation has forced some students, especially females to travel to other parts of the country in search of money at the expense of their education. Sometimes some of such students don't return to continue their education. The following statements were culled from key informant interviews, focus group discussions and interviews with some school drop-outs respectively as evidence supporting this point.

“The most basic reason for recording dropouts, especially females in the district is just poverty. Most can't even afford to buy uniform/books, talk less of paying school fees; hence the student finally drops out.”

“Some children of school going age are not in school or have dropped out because their parents cannot take care of them by providing them with their educational needs. Some children too dropped out by their own just because they want to look for money in a quick manner.”

“My parents did not inform me to drop out of school. My mother died when I was 10 years old and so I was taken by my aunty and being cared for by her. When I completed JHS, my aunty said she could not sponsor my SHS education because she also had her own children attending the same school. My father too had no money.



Even taking care of my other siblings that remained with him was a problem. So I stayed at home for two years until I became pregnant and got married.”

4.1.2 Attitudes and Perceptions of Female Students that Affect their Education

Early pregnancy: The study found evidence of early pregnancy among the female students as one of the reasons they are unable to complete their education. The evidence was profound in the key informant interviews, the focus group discussions and the interviews with the school drop-outs. Below are some extracts with the evidence from the key informant interviews, focus group discussions and interviews with the school drop-outs respectively.

“Most students/pupils of schooling age, particularly females, are out of school due to pregnancy during their early ages... As said earlier, females do not school pass their male counterparts because they get pregnant early, mostly.”

“I will prefer educating the male to the female because of what my female children did to me in the past. They refused to listen to my advice while the 3 of them were still in JHS. The result was that all of them got pregnant at different times and had to drop from school to go and marry. In fact, that made me give less attention to the rest of my female children and that is why none of them has gone beyond JHS.”

“... I was impregnated and had to stop school to deliver. And ... after delivery they refused to send me back to school. They asked me to go and marry the boy who gave me the pregnancy. Even though they were ready to marry me, I refused and travelled down south for money. I have come back yet to be married. I am thinking of learning a trade this year.”

This implies that some of the female students spend their quality time in having sexual affairs instead of concentrating on studies. The end result is that they get pregnant and forced into an



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unplanned marriage, which halts their education. Infuriated by these acts, parents turn to feel that their investment will go waste if they should invest in female education, hence their decision not to invest on their female wards' education.

Early marriage: According to Asigri (2012) early marriage is one of the major factors affecting girls' education. It prevents girls from completing basic education as victims who are usually forced into marriages fall between the ages of 10 and 17 years. Ample evidence was found about how school girls dropped out of school and eventually got married after they got pregnant while at school. It was found as a norm for impregnated girls to get married to males who impregnate them in the district. This norm has ended the educational career of some girls in the district who got pregnant while at school. Presented below are some testimonies given by a key informant and a focus group discussion member respectively.

"Females dropout or sometimes do not go higher in education because they are most vulnerable to a lot of risks such as pregnancy, early marriage, etc."

"... females in this district, per my experience, drop out of school early as compared to male children due largely to teenage pregnancy and early marriage."

Even those girls who deliver and wish to continue their education are not readily put through formal education again. They are forced into marriage or are ignored to their own fate by their parents when they refuse to budge. A drop-out student presented her experience as follows:

"... I was impregnated and had to stop school to deliver. ...after delivery, they refused to send me back to school. They asked me to go and marry the boy who gave me the pregnancy. Even though they were ready to marry me, I refused and travelled down



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south for money. I have come back yet to be married. I am thinking of learning a trade this year.”

Once a female student agrees to marry, she is not put through formal education again, and that ends her educational career. While in marriage, the most paramount thing for the girl is to start raising a family, which also comes with its attendant problems that will not permit her to concentrate at school if she succeeds in attending any.

Stubbornness of the female students: Some female students have been left to their fate by their parents due to their stubbornness. Such students don't heed to any pieces of advice from their parents, elders and teachers regarding their education. They engage in other activities other than studies and the end result is that they either fail at school or they drop out due to early pregnancy. Some are not even interested in formal education. They only go to school to please their parents. This has been one of the reasons why some parents have ignored their female wards' education.

“... The female students feel reluctant to put in much interest in education as compared to the opposite sex.”, stated by a key informant.

“Some children of school going age are just stubborn. All the necessary material for education will be there but he/she will just refuse to go to school. I have had such experience.” said by a focus group discussion participant.

Summary of findings in this section: In summary, the attitudes and perceptions of parents and students identified as factors limiting female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District are Lack of parental care and encouragement of female students, High parental preference of male education to female education, Lack of role models due to high illiteracy rate and low level of education of parents, High parental preference of higher education for males to



females, High poverty level of parents, Early pregnancy, Early marriage and Stubbornness of the female students.

4.2 Awareness Level of the National Educational Policies and NGOs' Interventions and their Impact on Education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District

This section comprises two sub-sections, namely, citizens' awareness level of national educational policies and their impact on female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District; and citizens' awareness level of NGOs' interventions and their impact on female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District.

4.2.1 Awareness Level of the National Educational Policies and their Impact on Female Education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District

Low level of awareness of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and Capitation Grant among students and parents: Most female students at the pre-tertiary level in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District are ignorant about some educational policies in Ghana, particularly the Free and Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and the Capitation grant policies. The study reveals that 80.9 percent of the female students have never heard of FCUBE while 61.8 percent have never heard of Capitation grant (see Tables 4.6 and 4.7).



Table 4.6: Educational policies heard by the respondent - FCUBE

Educational policies heard-FCUBE	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
No	89	80.9
Yes	21	19.1
Total	110	100.0

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

Table 4.7: Educational policies heard by the respondent - Capitation grant

Educational policies heard-Capitation grant	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
No	68	61.8
Yes	42	38.2
Total	110	100.0

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

Apart from the SMC members in the focus group discussion group, not even a single parent in the same group was aware of both FCUBE and Capitation grant policies in the district.

“I only know of school feeding program which feeds our children once a day at the primary level. I think the target of this policy is to encourage children to be in school and also reduce food burden on parents. As a result of the feeding program enrolment of children at the basic level is great as compared to the past.” Said by a parent in the focus group.

Some few parents in the focus group did not even know of any educational policy in the district.

“I am not aware of any educational policy in Ghana that is working here.” said a parent in the focus group.

All the school drop-outs were not aware of FCUBE and Capitation grant either.

“I don't know of any educational policy.”, said a school drop-out.

On one hand, the unawareness of these policies implies that children of school going age (both pupils and those yet to be enrolled) and most parents in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District



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are unaware that they can take advantage of such policies by getting enrolled or by getting their wards enrolled onto the basic schools and continuously attend such schools for free. On the other hand, it implies that such policies are not fully implemented in the district for pupils/students to benefit from them. It also implies that some forms of school fees are still being paid in the district.

Although, most pupils/students are unaware of FCUBE and capitation grant in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District, they are much aware of the Ghana School Feeding Programme and the Free School Uniform Program in the district. It was found that 87.3 percent and 82.7 percent of the pupils/students are aware of Ghana School Feeding Programme and Free School Uniform Program respectively (see Tables 4.8 and 4.9).

Table 4.8: Educational policies heard by the respondent - School feeding program

Educational policies heard-School feeding program	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
No	14	12.7
Yes	96	87.3
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.



Table 4.9: Educational policies heard by the respondent - Free school uniform

Educational policies heard-Free school uniform	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
No	19	17.3
Yes	91	82.7
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

The Ghana School Feeding Programme is the most well-known program by both pupils/students and parents in the district, as 87.3 percent of the pupils/students and 86.7 percent (i.e. 13 out of 15) of the focus group members (parents/SMC) are aware of it. In addition to the Ghana School Feeding Programme, parents are aware of the Free School Uniform Programme in the district.

“I know of Free School Uniforms distribution and School Feeding Programme as Ghana’s educational policies. Our school here enjoys the feeding program and our children were once given uniforms for free. I think the policies try to put all children under school going-age in school by putting interest in them.”, said a parent.

The Ghana School Feeding Programme was the only policy known to the school drop-outs. Whereas half of them acknowledge the awareness of Ghana School Feeding Programme in the district, the remaining half is not aware of any educational policy operating in the district.

“I know of school feeding programme, which provides daily meals for pupils at the primary”, said a school drop-out.

The Ghana School Feeding Programme and the Free School Uniform Programme are known among pupils/students and parents because of the fact that they are physical activities



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happening for everyone to see in the district. So if one school is implementing such policies and the others are not implementing them, then questions would be asked by community members and those who embezzle such funds would be revealed. Unlike the capitation grant which is controlled by some few people—the school head teachers, their assistants and the PTA chairmen and the SMC—and cannot be easily monitored by community members, the School Feeding and Free School Uniform Distribution programs can easily be monitored; hence the difficulty of embezzling or mismanaging such funds or materials. With these policies in place, one still wonders why female students drop out of school. Some attributable reasons are chiefly; early pregnancy, early marriage, lack of interest in education and the quest for money due to poverty.

It must be noted that most of the key informants are aware of all the educational policies in the district, justifying why they were chosen as key informants.

“There are a lot of educational policies operating in the district here. For example, School Feeding, Free Uniform, FCUBE, and Capitation are operational and doing well. They aim at promoting quality education and making basic education compulsory and accessible to all. They have actually helped to increase enrolment at the basic level while also ensuring quality. However, a lot has to be done on the quality and affordability of education.”, stated a key informant.



Low impact of FCUBE and Capitation policies in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District: Generally, all the educational policies in Ghana are intended to make education less expensive and attractive in order to promote the enrolment, retention and attendance of children of school-going age in schools. For instance, FCUBE seeks to increase enrolment in basic schools by making basic education free and compulsory for all children of school-going age—school fees was eliminated (Akyeampong, 2009); Capitation grant was introduced in

2005 as a US\$3 grant for every enrolled child at the basic education level and was meant to abolish all forms of fees at that level (Akyeampong, 2009); the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) was also introduced in 2005 with the intermediate objective of reducing hunger and malnutrition, increasing school enrolment, retention and attendance and to boost local food production (ECASARD/SNV Ghana, 2009 in Irene 2010); the Free School Uniforms Policy (FSUP) targets pupils from deprived communities as part of efforts to relieve the burden on their parents and encourage attendance in schools (Modern Ghana, 2009).

Although the policies were implemented with good intentions, not all of them achieved their intended purpose. The study found both FCUBE and the Capitation grant policies as failed policies in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District, as 94.5 percent and 84.5 percent of the pupils/students have not benefited from these policies respectively as in Tables 4.10 and 4.11.

Table 4.10: Educational policies that benefited respondent or family - FCUBE

Educational policies benefited-FCUBE	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
No	104	94.5
Yes	6	5.5
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.



Table 4.11: Educational policies that benefited respondent or family - Capitation grant

Educational policies benefited-Capitation Grant	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
No	93	84.5
Yes	17	15.5
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

This finding corresponds with the unawareness of both policies by the poor parents and their female wards; for if they were fully operational and beneficiary to pupils/students in all schools across the district, they would have been well known and acknowledged by them. The capitation grant, for instance, has been in existence since 2005, but remains unknown to most of the beneficiaries (see Table 4.11) even though it is paid to the school authorities. Its implementation is noted to be fraught with mismanagement (embezzlement) of funds by basic school authorities. Key among those holding this position against the school authorities are the key informants.

“Capitation grant has also helped in the management of some basic schools in terms of maintenance of school infrastructure and equipment. However, capitation has been described as a failed policy because the funds released are often mismanaged and embezzled by authorities who have access to it.”, stated a key informant.

This confirms that the capitation grant does not reach its real targets in the district. The inference from this, therefore, is that basic education is not yet completely free in the district. It means parents and pupils/students still pay some forms of fees in the district. Such fees have deterred some poor parents in the district from sending their children to school, with



some withdrawing their wards, particularly females from school. A female victim of such failed policies (FCUBE and capitation) gave her experience as

“...my parents asked me to stop school and learn a trade when I was in JHS form 2. They said that we were many and they could not take care of all of us in school. My sister and I dropped out of school...”

The conclusion reached regarding the FCUBE and the capitation is in tandem with the conclusion reached by Akyeampong (2009), which states that “FCUBE and other policies before it, did not offer completely free education by abolishing all forms of fees even though this appeared to be the early intention.” Capitation has low pro-poor credentials, which may make it inadequate to increase and sustain enrolments through into higher grades (Ibid).

Unlike the FCUBE and capitation, the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) and the Free School Uniform Programme (FSUP) are benefiting female pupils/students in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. As shown in Tables 4.12 and 4.13 below, more than half of the pupils/students benefited or their family members benefited from these two policies. From the tables, 76.4 percent of the pupils/students benefited or their family members benefited from the school feeding programme while 77.3 percent of same benefited or their family members benefited from the free school uniform programme.



Table 4.12: Educational policies that benefited respondent or family - School feeding program

Educational policies benefited-School feeding program	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
No	26	23.6
Yes	84	76.4
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

Table 4.13: Educational policies that benefited respondent or family - Free school uniform

Educational policies benefited-Free school uniform	Frequency	Percent (%)
No	25	22.7
Yes	85	77.3
Total	110	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

This implies that the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) and the Free School Uniform Programme (FSUP) are impacting school enrolment, retention and attendance of pupils/students, particularly females, positively in the district. More so, they have relieved parents of female educational cost and eliminated the difficulty of uniform acquisition by females (see Table 4.14).



Table 4.14: Changes educational policies brought to female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District

Changes of educational policies	Frequency (N)	Percent (%)
Increased female enrolment and retention in schools	177	34.5
Policies brought realization of equal education for both sexes	23	4.5
School uniform is no longer a barrier to female education	56	10.9
Reduction of female educational cost for parents	102	20.0
Increased female school attendance	154	30.0
Total	512	100

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

*Multiple responses but N=110

From Table 4.14, 34.5 percent of the pupils/students contend that the educational policies in Ghana have increased female enrolment and retention in schools in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District, 30 percent contend that the policies increased female school attendance in the district, 20 percent contend that the policies have reduced female educational cost for parents while 10.9 contend that the policies have eliminated school uniform as a barrier to female education. Only a few (4.5 percent) of them contend that the policies have brought about the realisation of equal education for both boys and girls, meaning that the policies have done a little in bridging the educational gap between boys and girls in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. All these changes can, largely, be attributed to the GSFP and the FSUP, since evidence has been found that both the FCUBE and the capitation did not benefit the



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pupils/students in the district much. This implies that the GSFP and the FSUP are achieving their intended purpose and could be strengthened in the district to achieve greater results. Suffice it to say there is a positive linkage between the awareness level of the two policies (GSFP–87.3 percent and FSUP–82.7 percent) and the benefits drawn from same by the pupils/students in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District (see table 4.14). Evidence of pupils/students benefiting from the two policies is also rife in the testimonies of the key informants, the focus group members, and the school dropouts.

“Free School Uniform: This policy seeks to provide free uniform to female students in order to encourage/persuade them to always be in school. From my point of view, I think the policy has achieved its intended purpose. School Feeding Program: This policy aids primary schools under the program to feed pupils freely. This policy just wanted to always make pupils to have interest in school, because they know when they go to school daily, there will be something for them to eat. And really, it is very phenomenal in the retention of female pupils in schools.”, stated a key informant.

“I think the free feeding policy has put interest in children to always be in school; enrolment has also increased drastically.” said a focus group member.

“Yes, the school feeding program has actually increased school enrolment, including the females. It has also reduced some burden on parents.”, said a school dropout.

Generally, the study found a positive correlation between the awareness level of the Ghana educational policies and the benefits derived from them, which is significant at 1 percent significance level. It implies that increasing the awareness level of the Ghana educational policies in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District will automatically trigger an increase in the benefits derived from them.



4.3 Interventions to improve female enrolment, retention and progression in education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District

Only one vibrant NGO supporting female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District: Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED) was the only found vibrant non-governmental organisation (NGO) in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. It is the only NGO most (70.9 percent) of the respondents are aware of in the district (see figure 4.1 below), which suggests that it is widespread in the area. The other minor non-governmental organisations (NGOs) operating in the district include GPAD Girls (1.8 percent), World Food Programme (0.9 percent) and Gift of Canada (0.9 percent). 25.5 percent of the respondents did not know any NGO operating in the district, which presupposes that the NGOs do not cover all schools in the district. Only one NGO operating in the district puts its resources under stress, making it impossible to cover all schools in the district. Also, the few females that are supported may not get support that is enough to cater for all their educational needs because of pressure from pupils/students and their parents, which may compel the NGO to expand its quota to a number that it originally did not plan for. What this means is that, since the poor parents of the female pupils/students cannot afford the extra support needed, they will end up soliciting for that support from men outside their family, which could land them in early pregnancy or early marriage, which are conduits for dropping females from school. By extension, the case of poor pupils/students without such support is even worse off.



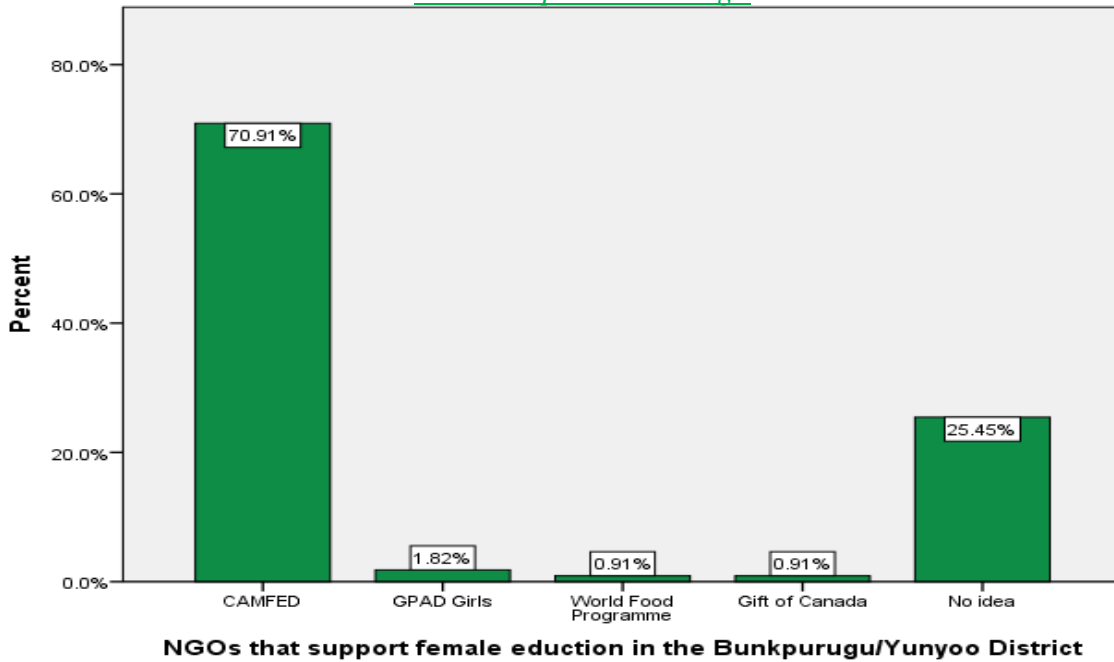


Figure 4.1: NGOs supporting female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District

Source: Author's Field Survey, 2016.

Summary of findings in this section: In summary, the study found that most of the respondents are not aware of FCUBE and Capitation grant in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. However, majority of them are aware of the Ghana School Feeding Programme and the Free School Uniform Programme. The FCUBE and Capitation policies were identified as failed policies in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District while the Ghana School Feeding Programme and the Free School Uniform Programme were identified as the policies impacting positively on school enrolment, retention and attendance in the basic schools, particularly the primary schools. The GSFP and the FSUP also helped to reduce educational financial burden on parents, somehow eliminated school uniform as a barrier to female education, but did little in bridging the educational gap between boys and girls.



SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter of the thesis summarizes findings of the study, concludes on the findings and gives recommendations to enhance female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. In this regard, the study sought to investigate the issues, challenges and find the way forward for female education at the pre-tertiary level of education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. The presentation is done according to the specific objectives of the study which are:

- 1 To examine how parental and students' attitudes and perceptions are affecting female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district.
- 2 To assess citizens' awareness level of the national educational policies and NGOs' interventions in education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district, and to determine if those policies and interventions have had any positive impact on the education of children, especially females, in the district.
- 3 To identify some interventions that will help improve female enrolment, retention and progression in education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo district.

The study used the survey descriptive research design to collect data from 153 respondents. Questionnaire, interview schedule and focus group guide were used to collect the field data. Based on the analysis and discussion of the field data, the key findings of the study are summarized below.



5.2 Parental and Student Attitudes and Perceptions affecting Female Education

The study found that lack of parental care and encouragement of females at home by fathers is a critical factor affecting female education in the area. Rather, it is mothers that are more responsible in taking care of their female wards at home. In this regard, whereas majority (57.3 percent) of the mothers care for their female wards at home, only a few (32.7 percent) of the fathers do same. Also, already informed about the difficulty in caring for children and accepting it as a role, more than half of the mothers (55.5 percent) encourage their female wards to go to school in order to become responsible mothers in future. Unlike the mothers, only a few (21.8 percent) fathers of the female students show interest in their education.

The poor attitude of the fathers towards the education of their female wards is further corroborated by majority (11 out of 21) of the key informants involved in the study, who asserted that parents in the district generally have poor attitude and perception towards female education. They held that parents discriminate against female education and that has resulted in the poor academic performance of females in schools in the district as a key informant stated:

“The attitude and perception of parents towards girl child education in this district and in some areas in particular is not the best. Parents have been observed to have less attention and support to their female children in education than their male children. This lack of parental care, support, motivation and encouragement to female in education is what results in huge differences in performance of male and female students in examinations over the years”

The study also revealed high parental preference of male education to female education: More than half (12 out of 21) of the participants in the key informant interviews upheld that most parents will prioritize male education to female education, given that the family is faced



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with scarce resources. The major reason given for this sex preference is that females are temporary members of the family and that their education will only benefit their matrimonial homes, not the parents. According to them, it is the parents' belief that the males are the ones that will stay with them and look after them in future. One participant had this to say:

“Many of the parents in the district will choose to educate their male children at the expense of their female children, should resources be limited. What they often and commonly say is that the males are their heirs and will ever remain with the family to take care of them while their female counterparts leave the parents to marry elsewhere.”

Other reasons given for parental preference of male education to female education include males are intelligent than females and could easily fit into the educational environment than females; that educating a female is waste of resources since she would eventually get married and live with another family that will be responsible for her or she will get pregnant and drop out of school.

Another critical factor that affects girl-child education in the study area is lack of role models due to high illiteracy rate and low level of education of parents: As supported by the field data more than half (54.5 percent) of the parents of the female students are illiterates, followed by their fathers only (24.5 percent), both parents (11.8 percent) and mothers only (9.1 percent). Among the few educated parents, only 2.7 percent and 8.2 percent have been able to school at the post-secondary (college) and tertiary levels respectively while the rest have failed to cross the SHS level. As a result, many parents turn to discourage their female wards from schooling and rather push them into early marriage as a result of poverty. As evidently indicated by participants of key informant interviews and the focus group discussions.



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“Poverty, lack of role models, and the belief that females can be taken by men for marriage make some parents to ignore female education. Ladies do not also see their colleagues who have made it in school to inspire them to go to school. Most children of school going age are not in school because of poverty and ignorance on the part of their parents. The illiteracy level of parents in the district is high, so most parents don’t see the need for their children to be educated especially in the rural areas of the district.”

However, most of the parents wish that their male wards are always ahead of the females in education; with reasons being that highly educated females do not respect their husbands and elders, they only need education to manage a home, and that they will finally marry and leave their patrilineal homes – their education will not benefit the parents compared to their matrimonial homes. Given this high parental preference of higher education for the male students than the females, the female students are left with no incentive to struggle to pass well at school, since they turn to feel their efforts will not be appreciated much at home.

Besides, the study found high poverty level of parents as one of the barriers to girl-child education in the area. High poverty level of parents has been identified as one of the major causes that influence parents’ decision as to who should be educated and who should not.

Majority of the parents in the district are poor peasant farmers, who can hardly afford school fees and educational materials for their wards. This situation has forced some students, especially females to travel to other parts of the country in search of money at the expense of their education. Sometimes some of such students don’t return to continue their education. As stated by a key informant and focus group discussion:

“The most basic reason for recording dropouts, especially females in the district is just poverty. Most can’t even afford to buy uniform/books, talk less of paying school

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fees; hence the student finally drops out. Some children of school going age are not in school or have dropped out because their parents cannot take care of them by providing them with their educational needs. Some children too dropped out by their own just because they want to look for money in a quick manner.”

“My parents did not inform me to drop out of school. My mother died when I was 10 years old and so I was taken by my aunty and being cared for by her. When I completed JHS, my aunty said she could not sponsor my SHS education because she also had her own children attending the same school. My father too had no money. Even taking care of my other siblings that remained with him was a problem. So I stayed at home for two years until I became pregnant and got married.”

The study further revealed that students themselves perceived early pregnancy as a hindrance to girl-child education in the study area. In this case, the study found evidence of early pregnancy among the female students as one of the reasons they are unable to complete their education. The evidence was profound in the key informant interviews, the focus group discussions and the interviews with the school drop-outs as extracts are stated below:

“Most students/pupils of schooling age, particularly females, are out of school due to pregnancy during their early ages... As said earlier, females do not school pass their male counterparts because they get pregnant early, mostly. I will prefer educating the male to the female because of what my female children did to me in the past. They refused to listen to my advice while the 3 of them were still in JHS. The result was that all of them got pregnant at different times and had to drop from school to go and marry. In fact, that made me give less attention to the rest of my female children and that is why none of them has gone beyond JHS.”



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“... I was impregnated and had to stop school to deliver. And ... after delivery they refused to send me back to school. They asked me to go and marry the boy who gave me the pregnancy. Even though they were ready to marry me, I refused and travelled down south for money. I have come back yet to be married. I am thinking of learning a trade this year.” [Female student]

Tied to early pregnancy was early marriage, which was also found as a limiting factor to female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District. Ample evidence was found about how school girls dropped out of school and eventually got married after they got pregnant while at school. It was found as a norm for impregnated girls to get married to males who impregnate them in the district. This norm has ended the educational career of some girls in the district who got pregnant while at school. Even those girls who deliver and wish to continue their education are not readily put through formal education again. They are forced into marriage or are ignored to their own fate by their parents when they refuse to budge. A drop-out student presented her experience as follows:

“... I was impregnated and had to stop school to deliver. ...after delivery, they refused to send me back to school. They asked me to go and marry the boy who gave me the pregnancy. Even though they were ready to marry me, I refused and travelled down south for money. I have come back yet to be married. I am thinking of learning a trade this year.”



5.3 People Awareness Level of the National Educational Policies and NGOs' Interventions and their Impact on Girl-Child Education

The study revealed low level of awareness of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and Capitation Grant among students and parents. Most female students at the pre-tertiary level in the District were ignorant about some educational policies in Ghana,

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particularly the Free and Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and the Capitation grant policies as majority ((80.9 percent) of the female students have never heard of FCUBE. Apart from the SMC members in the focus group discussion group, not even a single parent in the same group was aware of both FCUBE and Capitation grant policies in the district as one of the parents stated:.

“I only know of school feeding program which feeds our children once a day at the primary level. I think the target of this policy is to encourage children to be in school and also reduce food burden on parents. As a result of the feeding program enrolment of children at the basic level is great as compared to the past.”

Although, most pupils/students are unaware of FCUBE and capitation grant in the district, they are much aware of the Ghana School Feeding Programme and the Free School Uniform Program in the district. In this regard, it was found that 87.3 percent and 82.7 percent of the pupils/students are aware of Ghana School Feeding Programme and Free School Uniform Program respectively.

The Ghana School Feeding Programme is the most well-known program by both pupils/students and parents in the district, as 87.3 percent of the pupils/students and 86.7 percent (i.e. 13 out of 15) of the focus group members (parents/SMC) are aware of it. In addition to the Ghana School Feeding Programme, parents are aware of the Free School Uniform Programme in the district.

“I know of Free School Uniforms distribution and School Feeding Programme as Ghana’s educational policies. Our school here enjoys the feeding program and our children were once given uniforms for free. I think the policies try to put all children under school going-age in school by putting interest in them.”, said a parent.

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The Ghana School Feeding Programme was the only policy known to the school drop-outs. Whereas half of them acknowledge the awareness of Ghana School Feeding Programme in the district, the remaining half is not aware of any educational policy operating in the district.

“I know of school feeding programme, which provides daily meals for pupils at the primary”, said a school drop-out.

The Ghana School Feeding Programme and the Free School Uniform Programme are known among pupils/students and parents because of the fact that they are physical activities happening for everyone to see in the district. So if one school is implementing such policies and the others are not implementing them, then questions would be asked by community members and those who embezzle such funds would be revealed. Unlike the capitation grant which is controlled by some few people—the school head teachers, their assistants and the PTA chairmen and the SMC—and cannot be easily monitored by community members, the School Feeding and Free School Uniform Distribution programs can easily be monitored; hence the difficulty of embezzling or mismanaging such funds or materials. With these policies in place, one still wonders why female students drop out of school. Some attributable reasons are chiefly early pregnancy, early marriage, lack of interest in education and the quest for money due to poverty.



The study further found low impact of FCUBE and Capitation policies in the study district. Generally, all the educational policies in Ghana are intended to make education less expensive and attractive in order to promote the enrolment, retention and attendance of children of school-going age in schools. The policies were indeed implemented with good intentions. However, not all of them achieved their intended purpose. The study found both FCUBE and the Capitation grant policies as failed policies in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District, as 94.5 percent and 84.5 percent of the pupils/students have not benefited from these

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policies. This finding corroborates the unawareness of policies by both parents and their female wards; for, if they were fully operational and beneficiary to pupils/students in all schools across the district, they would have been well known and acknowledged by them. The capitation grant, for instance, has been in existence since 2005, but remains unknown to most of the beneficiaries even though it is paid to the school authorities. Its implementation is noted to be fraught with mismanagement (embezzlement) of funds by basic school authorities. Key among those holding this position against the school authorities are the key informants.

“Capitation grant has also helped in the management of some basic schools in terms of maintenance of school infrastructure and equipment. However, capitation has been described as a failed policy because the funds released are often mismanaged and embezzled by authorities who have access to it.”, stated a key informant.

This confirms that the capitation grant does not reach its real targets in the district. The inference from this, therefore, is that basic education is not yet completely free in the district. It means parents and pupils/students still pay some forms of fees in the district. Such fees have deterred some poor parents in the district from sending their children to school, with some withdrawing their wards, particularly females from school. A female victim of such failed policies (FCUBE and capitation) gave her experience as;

“...my parents asked me to stop school and learn a trade when I was in JHS form 2. They said that we were many and they could not take care of all of us in school. My sister and I dropped out of school...”

Unlike the FCUBE and capitation, the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) and the Free School Uniform Programme (FSUP) benefited female pupils/students in the District. In this case, the study revealed that more than half of the pupils/students benefited or their



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family members benefited from these two policies. As supported by the field data, 76.4 percent of the pupils/students benefited or their family members benefited from the school feeding programme while 77.3 percent of same benefited or their family members benefited from the free school uniform programme.

This suggests that the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) and the Free School Uniform Programme (FSUP) in one way or the other impacted on school enrolment, retention and attendance of pupils/students, particularly females, positively in the district. More so, they have relieved parents of female educational cost and eliminated the difficulty of uniform acquisition by females.

Generally, the study found a positive correlation between the awareness level of the Ghana educational policies and the benefits derived from them, which is significant at 1 percent significance level. It means that increasing the awareness level of the Ghana educational policies in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District will automatically trigger an increase in the benefits derived from them.

5.4 Interventions to improve female enrolment, retention and progression in education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District

Campaign for female education (CAMFED) was the only found vibrant non-governmental organisation (NGO) in the District. It is the only NGO most (70.9 percent) of the respondents are aware of in the district, which suggests that it is widespread in the area. The other minor non-governmental organisations (NGOs) operating in the district include GPAD Girls (1.8 percent), World Food Programme (0.9 percent) and Gift of Canada (0.9 percent). 25.5 percent of the respondents did not know any NGO operating in the district, which presupposes that the NGOs do not cover all schools in the district.



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Only one NGO operating in the district puts its resources under stress, making it impossible to cover all schools in the district. Also, the few females that are supported may not get support that is enough to cater for all their educational needs because of pressure from pupils/students and their parents, which may compel the NGO to expand its quota to a number that it originally did not plan for. What this means is that, since the poor parents of the female pupils/students cannot afford the extra support needed, they will end up soliciting for that support from men outside their family, which could land them in early pregnancy or early marriage, which are conduits for dropping females from school. By extension, the case of poor pupils/students without such support is even worse off.

5.5 Conclusion

The study aimed to assess the issues, challenges and the way forward for female education at the pre-tertiary level in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District in the then Northern Region of Ghana. In this case, they sought to achieve three main objectives. Objective one intended to examine how parental and students attitudes and perceptions are affecting female education in the district. Following from this, it can therefore be concluded that lack of parental care and encouragement of females at home by fathers is critical factor affecting female education in the area. Rather, it is mothers that are more responsible in taking care of their female wards at home. The second objective sought to assess citizens' awareness level of the national educational policies and NGOs' interventions in education in the district, and to determine if those policies and interventions have had any positive impact on the education of children, especially females, in the district. In this regard, the study concludes that there is low level of awareness of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and Capitation Grant among students and parents. Most female students at the pre-tertiary level in the District were ignorant about some educational policies in Ghana, particularly the Free and Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and the Capitation grant policies as majority of the



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female students have never heard of FCUBE. The third objective intended to identify some interventions that will help improve female enrolment, retention and progression in education in the district. The study concludes that Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED) was the only vibrant non-governmental organisation (NGO) in the District that championed girl-child education.

5.6 Recommendations

The following are recommended as measures to improve girl-child education in the district.

These are:

- With regard to lack of parental care and encouragement of females at home by fathers, it is recommended that community wide education should be carried out by both the Ghana Education Office and Non-Governmental organisations like Camfed, Plan Ghana and Christian Children Fund Of Canada (CCFC) in collaboration with traditional authorities to educate fathers about the relevance of girl-child education. Various strategies could be used such as community durbars, drama series and animations to convey the message of the importance of girl-child education in the area. Issues such as early marriages and the negative perception of girl-child education should be top of the agenda in educating parents especially fathers. If all these strategies are well executed it will help improve the way fathers care for their girl-child in school.
- With reference to the fact that there is low level of awareness of Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and Capitation Grant among students and parents, intensive educational campaigns should be carried out; not only by the Ghana Education Service but also the District Assembly through its Assembly Members and Unit Committee Members in their respective communities. With this grassroots



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campaign strategy, the general population within the district will get to know the existence of the FCUBE and its benefits to the girl-child.

- There is strong evidence to suggest that it is more effective for girls than boys and more effective at secondary school level. For example, a host of independent and internal studies corroborate the positive impact of Bangladesh's Female Stipend Programme (FSP) which saw girls' enrolment rise to around double the national average (Camfed, 2012). As of 2003, the programme was nationwide and 55–60 % of girls and boys were enrolled in secondary school. Rigorous research on the Columbia Voucher Scheme indicates a 25% increase in secondary school completion. Other documented international impact includes: King and Bellew (1991) in Camfed (2012), showing girls 30% more likely to enrol on the basis of free textbooks at primary school in Peru. Following from this example, at the national level, government should formulate deliberate specific policies that are directed at promoting girl-child education in the country. Specific policies as Free School Uniform and Material support for girls only. This policy should also fit into the broader Social Development Goal four (Quality Education) and five (Gender Equality). With this it will bridge the gender parity gap of boys and girls who have enrolled and completed at the various stages of the education ladder.
- It is also recommended that since it is only one vibrant NGO (CAMFED) that champions girl-child education in the area, an alliance should be formed among NGOs to champion the course of girl-child education. NGOs like Plan Ghana, World Vision, CCFC and Camfed could form a very strong alliance that could serve as an intervention force in promoting girl-child education in the district.



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APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction:

The researcher is a student from the University for Development Studies carrying out a study titled: Female Education at the Pre-Tertiary Level in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District: Issues, Challenges and the Way Forward. This questionnaire is purely for the study purpose. Thus, your responses are only to help the researcher complete a dissertation for the award of MPhil Development Studies. Every piece of information provided in this survey will be treated as anonymous and confidential. You are free to opt out of the survey if the need arises to do so.

Thank you for accepting to participate in this study.

This questionnaire is made up of eight sections (i.e, sections A – H). Please fill in the blank space, tick, or circle where applicable in each section.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Gender: a. Male [] b. Female []
2. Age: years.
3. Religion: a. Islam [] b. Christianity [] c. Traditional []
 d. Other (specify)
4. Educational level: a. Primary School [] b. JHS [] c. SHS []
5. Ethnicity:
6. Marital status: a. Married [] b. Single [] d. Cohabiting []

SECTION B: PARENTAL ATTITUDE AND PERCEPTION OF EDUCATION



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7. Who looks after you most at home?
- a. Father [] b. Mother [] c. Grandparent [] d. Auntie []
- e. Elder sister [] f. Uncle [] g. Elder brother [] h. Myself []
8. Who encourages you to go to school most?
- a. Father [] b. Mother [] c. Grandparent [] d. Auntie []
- e. Elder sister [] f. Uncle [] g. Elder brother [] h. Myself []
9. Which of your parents is educated? a. Father [] b. Mother [] c. Both []
10. What is his/her highest level of education?
11. What is the highest level of education your parents wish you attain? (You may find out from your parents).
- a. Primary [] e. Post-Secondary (College) []
- b. JHS [] f. Tertiary []
- c. SHS [] g. Other (specify)
- d. Vocational/Technical []

SECTION C: POLICY/INITIATIVE INFORMATION

12. Which of these educational policies have you ever heard of? Circle as many as you know.
- a. FCUBE
- b. Capitation grant
- c. School feeding program
- d. Free school uniform
- e. None of the above
13. Which of them (the policies) have you or any of your relatives ever benefited from? Circle as many as applicable to you.



- a. FCUBE
- b. Capitation grant
- c. School feeding program
- d. Free school uniform
- e. None of the above

14. What changes have these policies brought to the education of females around your community?

.....
.....

15. Which NGOs support female education in your community?

.....
.....

16. What support do they provide?

.....
.....

17. Has the support achieved its intended purpose in your community?

- a. Yes []
- b. No []

SECTION D: RELIGIOUS INFORMATION

18. Does your religion support formal education for females? a. Yes [] b. No []

19. If “No”, what are some of the reasons?

.....
.....

20. If “Yes”, what support is it/are they?

- a. Provision of school structure(s)



- b. Provision of stationery and other logistics
- c. Highlighting the importance of education, especially for females
- d. Other (specify)

21. Would you go for a religious program even if it is held during schooling hours?

- a. Yes []
- b. No []

SECTION E: GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

22. Does your geographical location affect female education? a. Yes [] b. No []

23. Indicate whether where you live is a city, town or village.

- a. City []
- b. Town []
- c. Village []

24. Which type(s) of school(s) do you have in your community?

- a. Primary school []
- b. JHS []
- c. SHS []
- d. Other (specify)

25. Are you satisfied with the number of schools in your community?

- e. Yes []
- b. No []

26. How would you describe the distance from your home to the school(s) in your area?

- a. Very far []
- b. Far []
- c. Moderate []
- d. Short []
- e. Very short []



Caring of livestock

Caring for siblings

Vending/trading

Sweeping

Washing clothes

Washing bowls

Collecting firewood

Going on errands

Grinding food at the
mill

31. Would you stay at home instead of being in school during a ceremonial occasion (e.g. naming ceremony, wedding, etc.) in the house/family/community?

a. Yes [] b. No []

32. What is the appropriate marriage age for a girl in your area?

33. Say whether you agree (Yes) or disagree (No) with the following perceptions

a. Females and males need to have equal educational opportunities.

a. Yes [] b. No []

b. Females are usually younger than males when they drop out of school.

a. Yes [] b. No []



- c. Educating a female is waste of resources; she will get pregnant and drop out.
a. Yes [] b. No []
- d. Females don't need higher education as compared to males.
a. Yes [] b. No []
- e. The best place for a female is the kitchen. a. Yes [] b. No []
- f. Highly educated women don't get men to marry. a. Yes [] b. No []
- g. If you educate a female, you educate her for her husband and his family.
a. Yes [] b. No []
- h. A girl should not school at a place far away from her parents. a. Yes [] b. []

SECTION G: SOCIO-ECONOMIC INFORMATION

34. Do socio-economic activities affect female education? a. Yes [] b. No []
35. Do you travel during holidays to look for school fees? a. Yes [] b. No []
36. If "Yes", where do you travel to?
37. What work do you go to do?
- a. Farming []
- b. head portage []
- c. work in a bar []
- d. to relatives []
- e. 'galamsey' []
- f. Other (specify)
38. Do those who travel often come back to continue with their education?
- a. Yes [] b. No []
39. In your opinion, what should be done to make sure that those who travel come back to continue their education?



40. How many of the three square meals are you able to afford a day?

- a. 1 b. 2 c. 3

SECTION H: SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT INFORMATION

41. On a scale of 5, with 1 being very good and 5 very bad, how would you rate the quality of your school?

- a. Very good
b. Good
c. Neutral
d. Bad
e. Very bad

42. What were the terminal marks you earned in each subject last term?

Subject

Mark



43. What motivates you to come to school most?

- a. Food served in the school []
- b. Knowledge acquisition []
- c. Certificates after school []
- d. Well-paid jobs after school []
- e. Knowing how to read and write []
- f. Playing with friends in the school []
- g. Other (specify)

44. What discourages you from coming to school most? Circle as many as applicable to you.

- a. Teachers' absenteeism
- b. Lack of sanitary facilities
- c. Attitude of boys towards girls in school
- d. Bullying of students
- e. Difficulty in understanding what is being taught
- f. Distance to school is too great
- g. Lack of encouragement from parents
- h. Poverty
- i. Fear of failing like my outgone seniors

45. Were you in school throughout last two weeks? a. Yes [] b. No []

46. If "No", what was/were your reason(s) for being absent?
.....
.....

47. Have you ever been repeated in school? a. Yes [] b. No []

48. How many times were you repeated? a. Once [] b. Twice [] c. Thrice []



49. What was the reason for repeating you? Fill the table below with your reasons.

Repetition time	Reason
-----------------	--------

First

Second

Third

50. Do you consider dropping out of school? a. Yes [] b. No []

51. If “Yes”, what is/are your reason(s) for this decision?

.....

.....



APPENDIX II: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSIONS GUIDELINE (For Parents/SMC)

Introduction:

The researcher is a student from the University for Development Studies carrying out a study titled: Female Education at the Pre-Tertiary Level in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District: Issues, Challenges and the Way Forward. This group discussion is purely for the study purpose. Thus, your responses are only to help the researcher complete a dissertation for the award of MPhil Development Studies. Every piece of information provided in this discussion will be treated as anonymous and confidential. You are free to opt out of the discussion if the need arises to do so.

Thank you for accepting to participate in this discussion.

SECTION A: PARENTAL ATTITUDE AND PERCEPTION OF FEMALE EDUCATION

1. What are the reasons why some children of school going age are not in school or have dropped out of school?
2. What is your position on which sex should be educated, given scarce resources in the family? What are your reasons for this position?
3. What is your position on the highest level of education each sex group should attain?
4. On a scale ranging from 1 to 5, with 1= Very good, 2= Good, 3= Undecided, 4= Bad and 5= Very bad, how would you rate the school(s) in your community?
5. In your view, what are the solutions that could help change parental attitude and perceptions about female education?



SECTION B: POLICY/INITIATIVE INFORMATION

6. Which educational policies, particularly those making education compulsory for every child of school going age, are you aware of in Ghana? What do they (the policies) seek to achieve? Who has benefited from these policies or whose family member(s) has/have benefited from these policies?
7. In your view, what changes have educational policies brought to the education of females in your community?
8. Which NGOs are present in your community? What support do they give regarding female education? Has the support achieved its intended purpose? If yes, what are some of their achievements? If no, what were the challenges?
9. What policies/initiatives should be put in place to improve female education in the district?

SECTION C: RELIGIOUS INFORMATION

10. Which religion supports or does not support formal education for females, or which religion favour's male education than that of the female? Why would some religions not support female education?
11. What type of support does each religion give to female education?
12. Should a student be allowed to go for a religious program even if it is held during schooling hours?
13. What solutions will you recommend to help change the religious activities that affect female education?

SECTION D: GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

14. Is your community a city, town or village? Which school(s) is/are present in your community?
15. What is your position on the number of schools in your community?



16. How will you describe the distance from your location to the school your children attend? What will this distance be in km (if you know)?
17. What are your views on the impact your geographical location has on female education?
18. What solutions will you recommend to help address geographic factors that affect female education?

SECTION E: SOCIO-CULTURAL INFORMATION

19. What are your views on the perception that some traditional/socio-cultural practices affect female education? In your view, which socio-cultural practices affect female education in your community?
20. Would you allow your child to stay at home instead of being in school during a socio-cultural activity in your house/community (e.g. naming ceremony, wedding, funeral, festival, initiation etc.)? Which sex is mostly involved in these activities?
21. Marriage age: what is the appropriate marriage age for a girl, and also for a boy? Take note of participants that may want to give account of their ages when they first got married.
22. What is your position on the following perceptions?

- a. Females and males need to have equal educational opportunities.
- b. Females are usually younger than males when they drop out of school.
- c. Educating a female is waste of resources; she will get pregnant and drop out.
- d. Females don't need higher education as compared to males.
- e. The best place for a female is the kitchen.
- f. Highly educated women don't get men to marry.
- g. If you educate a female, you educate her for her husband and his family.
- h. A girl should not school at a place far away from her parents.



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23. In your view, what should be done to help address the socio-cultural factors that affect female education?

SECTION F: SOCIO-ECONOMIC INFORMATION

24. What are your views on the perception that socio-economic activities affect female education? Which socio-economic activities affect female education in your community?

25. What are the after effects of students, particularly females, traveling to Southern Ghana in search for money for school fees?

26. What should be done to ensure that all students that travel to the South during holidays come back to continue their education?

27. Is affordability of the daily three square meals a problem for female students in your community? If yes, how serious is this problem?

28. What do you propose to be done in order to help address the socio-economic factors that affect female education?

Do you have any questions to ask me or other comments to add?



THANK YOU FOR ACCEPTING TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS DISCUSSION!

APPENDIX III: HOME OBSERVATION RECORDING SHEET

Introduction:

The researcher is a student from the University for Development Studies carrying out a study titled: Female Education at the Pre-Tertiary Level in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District: Issues, Challenges and the Way Forward. This observation is purely for the study purpose. Thus, your responses are only to help the researcher complete a dissertation for the award of MPhil Development Studies. Every piece of information provided in this survey will be treated as anonymous and confidential. You are free to opt out of the observation if the need arises to do so.

Thank you for accepting to participate in this study.

Please fill in the blank space, tick, or circle where applicable in each section.

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

1. Name of Student
2. Age: years.
3. Religion: a. Islam [] b. Christianity [] c. Traditional []
d. Other (specify)
4. Educational level: a. Primary School [] b. JHS [] c. SHS []
5. Name of School:
6. Community:
7. Ethnicity:
8. Marital status: a. Married [] b. Single [] d. Cohabiting []
9. Family size:



10. Number of females in the family:

11. Number of males in the family:

SECTION B: ASSESSING THE STUDENTS WORKLOAD AND LEARNING HABIT AT HOME

12. Assessing the student's workload at home: Indicate the sex that performs each of the following tasks, the time of the day each task is carried out and the time spent on each task.

Task and Time Observations Recording Sheet

Task	Sex	Time of the Day	Duration
------	-----	-----------------	----------

Cooking

Working in crop field

Fetching water

Fishing

Herding livestock

Caring for siblings/the sick/the aged

Vending/trading

Sweeping

Washing clothes

Washing bowls

Collecting firewood

Going on errands



Grinding food at the mill

Study/Do Home Work

Play/Relax

Social activities e.g. traditional functions,
parties, family meetings and religious
functions

Other (specify)

13. Assessing the Student's Learning Habit at Home: Indicate by ticking if any of the following items is available, if it is used for study purposes, and the sex that uses the item most.

Activity	Item	Item Availability		Is the Item used for Studies?		Item User by Gender		
		Yes	No	Yes	No	Boys	Girls	Both
Assessing the Student's Learning Place at Home	Chair							
	Stool							
	Table							
	Other (specify)							
Assessing the Student's Learning Materials at Home	Text Books							
	Pamphlets							
	Exercise Books							
	Papers							
	Pen/pencil							



Other www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh
(specify)

14. What were the parents reaction towards the student's learning or doing homework at home?

Write additional notes on other observations relevant to the study (i.e. if any is available).



APPENDIX IV: INTERVIEW GUIDE (For Dropped-out Female Students)

Introduction:

The researcher is a student from the University for Development Studies carrying out a study titled: Female Education at the Pre-Tertiary Level in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District: Issues, Challenges and the Way Forward. This interview is purely for the study purpose. Thus, your responses are only to help the researcher complete a dissertation for the award of MPhil Development Studies. Every piece of information provided in this interview will be treated as anonymous and confidential. You are free to opt out of the interview if the need arises to do so.

Thank you for accepting to participate in this interview.

SECTION A: PARENTAL ATTITUDE AND PERCEPTION OF FEMALE EDUCATION

52. Did your parents' attitude inform you to drop out of school? If yes, what was their attitude towards your education?
53. What is the highest level of education of your parents/guardian – both father and mother or guardian?
54. Who used to encourage you to go to school most?
55. What is your parents' position on which sex should be educated, given scarce resources in the family? What are their reasons for this position?
56. At the time you were in school, what was your parents' position on the highest level of education you should attain?
57. In your view, what are the solutions that could help change parental attitude and perceptions about female education?



SECTION B: POLICY/INITIATIVE INFORMATION

58. Which educational policies, particularly those making education compulsory for every child of school going age, are you aware of in Ghana? What do they (the policies) seek to achieve? Who has benefited from these policies or whose family member(s) has/have benefited from these policies?
59. In your view, what changes (positive or negative) have these educational policies brought to your education?
60. On a scale ranging from 1 to 5, with 1= Very good, 2= Good, 3= Undecided, 4= Bad and 5= Very bad, how would you rate the school(s) in your community?
61. Which NGOs are present in your community? What support do they give regarding female education? Has the support achieved its intended purpose? If yes, what are some of their achievements? If no, what were the challenges?
62. What policies/initiatives should be put in place to improve female education in the district?

SECTION C: RELIGIOUS INFORMATION

63. What contribution did your religion or any other religion make towards your success or failure in education (state the religion that affected you)? Why would some religions not support female education?
64. Were you allowed to go for a religious program even if it was held during schooling hours?
65. What solutions will you recommend to help change the religious activities that affect female education?



SECTION D: GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

66. Is your community a city, town or village? Which school(s) is/are present in your community?
67. Do you consider the number of schools in your community enough?
68. How will you describe the distance from your location to the school your children attend? What will this distance be in km (if you know)?
69. What are your views on the impact your geographical location had on your education?
70. What solutions will you recommend to help address geographic factors that affect female education?

SECTION E: SOCIO-CULTURAL INFORMATION

71. What are your views on the perception that some traditional/socio-cultural practices affect female education? In your view, which socio-cultural practices affected your education?
72. At the time you were in school, did you use to stay at home instead of being in school during a socio-cultural activity (e.g. naming ceremony, wedding, funeral, festival, initiation etc.) in your house/community? Which sex is mostly involved in these activities?
73. Marriage age: what is the appropriate marriage age for a girl, and also for a boy? Were you ever asked to marry at the time you were in school? Take note of participants that may want to give account of their ages when they first got married.
74. What is your position on the following perceptions?
 - i. Females and males need to have equal educational opportunities.
 - j. Females are usually younger than males when they drop out of school.
 - k. Educating a female is waste of resources; she will get pregnant and drop out.



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- l. Females don't need higher education as compared to males.
- m. The best place for a female is the kitchen.
- n. Highly educated women don't get men to marry.
- o. If you educate a female, you educate her for her husband and his family.
- p. A girl should not school at a place far away from her parents.

75. In your view, what should be done to help address the socio-cultural factors that affect female education?

SECTION F: SOCIO-ECONOMIC INFORMATION

76. What are your views on the perception that socio-economic activities affect female education? Which socio-economic activities affected your education?

77. What are the after effects of students, particularly females, traveling to Southern Ghana in search for money for school fees?

78. What should be done to ensure that all students that travel to the South during holidays come back to continue their education?

79. At the time you were in school, did you face any problem obtaining the daily three square meals? If yes, how serious was this problem?

80. What do you propose to be done in order to help address the socio-economic factors that affect female education?

Do you have any questions to ask me or other comments to add?

THANK YOU FOR ACCEPTING TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS INTERVIEW!



APPENDIX: KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW GUIDE (For GES Staff, Head Teachers, Teachers and NGOs)

Introduction:

The researcher is a student from the University for Development Studies carrying out a study titled: Female Education at the Pre-Tertiary Level in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District: Issues, Challenges and the Way Forward. This interview is purely for the study purpose. Thus, your responses are only to help the researcher complete a dissertation for the award of MPhil Development Studies. Every piece of information provided in this interview will be treated as anonymous and confidential. You are free to opt out of the interview if the need arises to do so.

Thank you for accepting to participate in this interview.

SECTION A: RESPONDENT'S BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Name:

Organisation/Institution:

Title/Position:

Date of Interview:

SECTION B: PARENTAL ATTITUDE AND PERCEPTION OF FEMALE EDUCATION

1. How would you describe parental attitude and perception of female education in the Bunkpurugu/Yunyoo District?
2. Why are some children, particularly females, of school going age not in school or have dropped out of school? Why is it that most of the female students are unable to school pass the pre-tertiary level, compared to their male counterparts?



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3. In your view, which sex do parents prefer to be educated, given scarce resources in the family? What reasons do they attach to such decisions?
4. What is the highest level of education parents prefer for each sex group in the district?
5. On a scale ranging from 1 to 5, with 1= Very good, 2=Good, 3=Undecided, 4=Bad and 5= Very bad, how would you rate the school(s) in the district?
6. What are your views on solutions that will help change parental attitude and perceptions of female education?

SECTION C: POLICY/INITIATIVE INFORMATION

7. Which educational policies are operational in the district? What do they (the policies) seek to achieve? Have they (the policies) achieved their intended purpose, especially with regards to female education? If no, what has gone wrong? If yes, what impact have they had on the education of females in the district?
8. Which NGOs support female education in the district? What are their achievements or failures?
9. Which policies will you recommend to help improve female education in the district?



SECTION D: RELIGIOUS INFORMATION

10. In your view, how does religion impact female education in the district – what are the negatives or positives?
11. Why will any religion impact female education negatively?
12. What support do the various religions give to female education?
13. Does the district experience cases where students attend religious programs at the expense of their education? If Yes, why would they do so?

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14. Which solution(s) will you recommend to help change some religious activities that affect female education?

SECTION E: GEOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

15. Does the Geographic location of females affect their education in the district? How does it affect their education?
16. How will you describe the distribution of the schools in the district? Are they fairly distributed?
17. What is the average distance a student walks to school in the district?
18. What are your views on the solutions that will help address geographic factors that affect female education?

SECTION F: SOCIO-CULTURAL INFORMATION

19. What are your views on the perception that some traditional/socio-cultural practices affect female education? Which socio-cultural practices affect female education in the district?
20. How frequent is the case where students abandon school to attend some socio-cultural activities (e.g. naming ceremonies, weddings, funerals, festivals, initiations etc.)? Which sex is mostly involved in these activities?
21. How often does your office get reports on female students, with regards to force marriage and teenage pregnancy? Could you share some reported cases with me?
22. What are the general misconceptions of female education in the district?
23. What solutions will you propose to help address the socio-cultural factors that affect female education?

SECTION G: SOCIO-ECONOMIC INFORMATION

24. How do socio-economic activities affect female education in the district? Which socio-economic activities affect female education in the district?



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25. What are the after effects of students, particularly females, traveling to Southern Ghana in search for money for school fees?
26. Which solutions will you recommend to ensure that all students that travel to the South during holidays come back to continue their education?
27. Is affordability of the daily three square meals a problem for female students in the district? If yes, how serious is this problem?
28. What should be done to help address the socio-economic factors that affect female education?

Do you have any questions to ask me or other comments to add?

THANK YOU FOR ACCEPTING TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS INTERVIEW!



