THE IMPACT OF GHANA SCHOOL FEEDING PROGRAMME ON FEMALE ENROLMENT, ATTENDANCE AND RETENTION IN THE WA MUNICIPALITY OF THE UPPER WEST REGION OF GHANA

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BY

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

MARCH, 2017
DECLARATION

Student’s
I, Sumaila Mahama 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:

........................................ Date........................................

SUMAILA MAHAMA

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

........................................ Date: .................................

DR. CLIFF MAASOLE
DEDICATION

To my family, especially my wife and children.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I have been fortunate to have as my Supervisor; Dr. Cliff Maasole who carefully went through my work and gave me all the necessary comments and encouragement. May God richly bless you.

I also thank all Senior Members of the University for Development Studies, Wa Campus for the enormous contribution they made beginning from the presentation of the proposal through to the finalization of the report. Their comments in the form of criticisms have positively influenced the final product of my thesis.

My sincere thanks go to the Municipal Director of Education, Wa who gave me the permission to contact her staff as respondents for this study. To all headteachers of basic schools in the Wa Municipality, staff of the Municipal Assembly and Parent Teacher Association of the various schools who have dedicated their time to respond to the research questions I say thank you. I also thank my course mates and friend who have helped me financially to enable me complete this work.
ABSTRACT

This study seeks to assess the role of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in some basic schools in the Wa Municipality. Using a mixed design strategy, primary data were obtained from different members of staff of the Ghana Education Service, the programme implementing committee, and parents of school girls in the Wa Municipality. The results indicated that the programme has influenced girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in beneficiary schools. Attention was given to schools with low enrolment of females during the selection of schools. Besides, the meals provided for the students cuts down household expenditure on education for girls. The programme also reduces the incidence of sexual activities among girls. This occurs through its effect of reducing short term hunger that pushes girls into sexual activities in order to get money and buy food during school hours. Moreover, the programmes motivated parents to enroll and keep their girls in school by generating direct or indirect livelihood sources for them. By empowering parents and providing meals for girls during school socio-economic challenges such as poverty and sexual harassment which were affecting girls’ enrolment in basic schools have been minimized. The study recommends that management of the programme should give special attention for girls. Strong collaboration among stakeholder is also recommended in order to fight immoral activities among girls in basic schools in the Wa Municipality.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION....................................................................................................................... i

DEDICATION .......................................................................................................................... ii

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT ....................................................................................................... iii

ABSTRACT............................................................................................................................. iv

TABLE OF CONTENTS .......................................................................................................... v

LIST OF TABLES .................................................................................................................... xi

LIST OF FIGURES ............................................................................................................... xiii

LIST OF ACRONYMS ......................................................................................................... xiv

CHAPTER ONE ........................................................................................................................1

INTRODUCTION .....................................................................................................................1

1.1 Background .....................................................................................................................1

1.2 Problem Statement ...........................................................................................................5

1.3 Research Questions ..........................................................................................................9

1.3.1 Main Research Question...........................................................................................9

1.3.2 Specific Research Questions ....................................................................................9

1.4 Research Objectives .........................................................................................................9

1.4.1 General Research Objective .....................................................................................9

1.5 Significance of the Study ...............................................................................................10

1.6 Scope of the Study ..........................................................................................................11

1.7 Organization of the Study .............................................................................................12

1.8 Delimitations ..................................................................................................................12

2.1 Introduction ...................................................................................................................13
2.2 Theoretical Framework ........................................................................................................ 13
  2.2.1 The Change Theory ..................................................................................................... 13
2.3 The Significance of Female Education .................................................................................. 20
2.4 Interventions to Improve Female Enrolment ...................................................................... 22
2.5 Overview of School Feeding Programme ............................................................................. 26
2.6 School Feeding Programmes in Ghana ............................................................................... 34
2.7 Operation of the Ghana School Feeding Programe ............................................................ 38
2.8 The Conceptual Framework ............................................................................................... 43
2.9 School Feeding Programme and Enrolment ...................................................................... 46
  2.11 The Influence of School Feeding Programmes on Attendance and Retention .............. 50
2.12 Summary ........................................................................................................................... 51
CHAPTER THREE .................................................................................................................. 52
METHODOLOGY ..................................................................................................................... 52
  3.1 Introduction ....................................................................................................................... 52
  3.2 Study Area ........................................................................................................................ 52
    3.2.1 Location and communities ....................................................................................... 52
    3.2.2 Population distribution ............................................................................................. 54
    3.2.3 Religion .................................................................................................................... 55
    3.2.4 Climate and Vegetation ............................................................................................ 55
    3.2.5 Cultural activities ...................................................................................................... 57
    3.2.6 The Economy of the Municipality ............................................................................. 58
3.2.7 Support Organizations/Institutions ................................................................. 59
3.2.8 Educational attainment and literacy ............................................................... 61
3.3 Research design ................................................................................................. 62
3.4 Sources of Data .................................................................................................. 65
3.5 Study Population ............................................................................................... 66
3.5.1 Sample Size .................................................................................................... 67
3.5.2 Sampling technique and procedure ............................................................... 67
3.6 Data collection Instruments ............................................................................. 70
3.6.1 Questionnaire ................................................................................................. 70
3.6.2 Interview ........................................................................................................ 71
3.6.3 Focus Group Discussion (FGD) ............................................................... 72
3.6.4 Key informant Interview ............................................................................... 73
3.7 Data Analysis ..................................................................................................... 73
3.8 Validity and reliability ...................................................................................... 74
3.9 Ethical consideration ......................................................................................... 74

CHAPTER FOUR ....................................................................................................... 76

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS ............................................................................... 76
4.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................ 76
4.2 Background Information of Respondents ..................................................... 76
4.2.1 Gender of Headteachers ............................................................................ 76
4.2.2 Years Spent teaching in present school ...................................................... 77
4.3 How the GSFP addresses the needs of girls in basic schools ......................................... 78

4.3.1 The GSFP and reward for performance ................................................................. 78

4.3.2 Activities of the GSFP and Gender Sensitivity ...................................................... 79

4.3.3 Activities of GSFP with special attention for girls ................................................. 80

4.4 Influence of GSFP on Enrolment, Attendance and Retention ........................................ 82

4.4.1 Educational Enrolment between 2002, 2004 and 2016 in the Wa Municipality ... 82

4.4.2 Impact of GSFP on Enrolment ............................................................................. 86

4.4.2 Influence of GSFP on Attendance .......................................................................... 91

4.4.3 Influence of GSFP on Retention ............................................................................. 94

4.5 Factors Influencing Enrolment, Attendance and Retention in Basic Schools .......... 97

4.5.1 Teacher Attendance ............................................................................................. 97

4.5.2 Teacher Relationship with Female Pupils ............................................................ 99

4.5.3 Girls participation in curriculum activities ........................................................... 101

4.5.4 External support for girls in basic schools .............................................................. 101

4.6 The GSFP Motivation for parents to enroll and Keep their girls in School ............. 105

4.6.1 The GSFP cut down girls education expenditure .................................................. 105

4.6.2 Provision of nutritious food to girls in school ..................................................... 106

4.6.3 Increasing household income ............................................................................... 106

4.7 How the GSFP Addresses Socio-economic Factors Affecting Girls Enrolment,
attendance and retention in Basic Schools ................................................................. 107

4.7.1 Poverty ............................................................................................................... 107

4.7.2 School drop-out resulting from poverty ............................................................... 108
LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1: Years of Teaching Experience ................................................................. 77
Table 4.2: The GSFP Reward for Performance ....................................................... 78
Table 4.3: GSFP and Gender Sensitivity ................................................................. 79
Table 4.4: Educational Enrolment Statistics of Kindergarten and Primary in Wa between 2002 and 2004 ................................................................. 83
Table 4.5: Educational Enrolment Statistics for Males (Boys) and Females (Girls) .... 84
Table 4.6: Enrolment Statistics of Girls (6-11 years) Relative to the Girls Population (6-11 years) in Wa Municipality ................................................................. 85
Table 4.7: The Influence of GSFP on Enrolment of Girls .......................................... 86
Table 4.8: Enrolment rates of Rural and Urban Girls .............................................. 88
Table 4.9: Enrolment of boys and girls in 2015/16 academic year ............................ 89
Table 4.10: Influence of GSFP on Attendance of Girls .......................................... 91
Table 4.11: School attendance of boys and girls in 2015/16 academic year .............. 93
Table 4.12: Influence of GSFP on Girls Retention ................................................. 95
Table 4.13: Retention of boys and girls in 2015/16 academic year ............................ 96
Table 4.14: Dropout of boys and girls in 2015/16 academic year ............................ 96
Table 4.15: Teacher School Attendance ................................................................. 98
Table 4.16: Effect of Teacher Relationship with Girls in School ............................. 100
Table 4.17: Girls Participation in Curriculum Activities ........................................... 101
Table 4.18: Assistance from Civil Society Organization for Girls ........................... 102
Table 4.19: Effectiveness of support programmes for female education .................. 103
Table 4.20: Existence of government programmes for girls in basic school ............. 103
Table 4.21: Government activities that attract girls’ enrolment in school ............... 104
Table 4.22: Circumstances that lead to girls’ school drop out ............................... 110
Table 4. 23: Mechanism to ensure gender parity ................................................................. 111
Table 4. 24: Mechanisms to improve girls’ enrolment in basic schools ............................. 112
Table 4. 25: Reasons for having no mechanism to improve girls’ enrolment ..................... 113
Table 4. 26: School base policies to address gender disparity ........................................... 114
Table 4. 27: Effectiveness of school base policies ............................................................... 114
Table 4. 28: How effective school-based policies are ......................................................... 115
Table 4. 29: Suggestions to improve girls’ enrolment ....................................................... 116
LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Actors and Relationships of the GSFP ............................................. 42
Figure 2.2: Framework of the School Feeding Programme................................. 44
Figure 2.3: The Influence of GSFP on Enrolment, Attendance and Retention of Girls...................................................................................................................... 45
Figure 3.1: Map of Wa Municipality .................................................................. 53
Figure 4.1: Respondents’ Gender........................................................................ 76
Figure 4.2: Will Enrolment Drop if the Programme Stopped............................. 90
Figure 4.3: Respondents Opinion on the effect of GSFP on Attendance ........... 94
Figure 4.4: Respondents Opinion on the Influence of GSFP on Retention ........ 97
Figure 4.5: How absenteeism affects girls’ enrolment ....................................... 99
Figure 4.6: Category of people more likely to dropout from school ............... 109
**LIST OF ACRONYMS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADRA</td>
<td>Adventist Development Relief Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AU</td>
<td>African Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAADEP</td>
<td>Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAADP</td>
<td>Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRS</td>
<td>Catholic Relief Services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIC</td>
<td>District Implementation Committee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education for All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCUBE</td>
<td>Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FCUBE</td>
<td>Free Compulsory Basic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FFE</td>
<td>Food for Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FGD</td>
<td>Focus Group Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAIN</td>
<td>Ghana Agricultural Initiative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GES</td>
<td>Ghana Education Service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOB</td>
<td>Government of Bangladesh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPI</td>
<td>Gender Parity Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSFP</td>
<td>Ghana School Feeding Programmes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSS</td>
<td>Ghana Statistical Service</td>
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<tr>
<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MLGRD</td>
<td>Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MMDCE</td>
<td>Metropolitan, Municipal and District Chief</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Executive

MoE Ministry of Education
MoFA Ministry of Food and Agriculture
MoFEP Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning
MOU Memorandum of Understanding
MoWCA Ministry of Women and Children Affairs
NEPAD/HTFI New Partnership for African Development /Hunger Task Force Initiative

NGOs Non-Governmental Organisations
PESP Primary Education Stipend program
PHC Population and Housing Census
PREP Primary Education Project
PTA Parent Teacher Association
RCCs Regional Coordinating Councils
SEND Social Enterprise Development
SIC Schools Implementation Committee
UK United Kingdom
UN United Nations
UNICEF United Nations International Children Emergency Fund
UNMDG United Nations Millennium Development Goals
USA United States of America
USDA United States Department of Agriculture
UWR Upper West Region
WFO World Food Organisation
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Education plays a significant role in the development of many countries (Amon and Joviter, 2003). However, about 57 million children around the world are not going to school, most of who are found on the African continent (UNESCO, 2012). Besides, young females receive considerably less formal education than males in almost every developing country (Todaro and Smith, 2009). Discrimination against women in formal education hinders economic development apart from reinforcing social inequality.

It is contended that about 95% of children who live in low and lower-middle income countries do not get primary education, 44% in sub-Saharan Africa, 19% in South and West Asia and 14% in the Arab states. Out of this, girls constitute about 55% of the total and are often the victims of rape and other sexual violence (UNESCO, 2000; UNICEF, 2012). Todaro and Smith (2009) added that young females receive considerable less education than young males in almost every developing country. They further pointed out that women enrolment in primary and secondary education is lower than that of men by at least 10%.

In most communities, especially in developing countries, most parents do not really ensure that their daughters receive quality education (Gibson, 2004). Five main challenges have been identified which make it difficult for girls to access formal education. These are the cost of education, poor school environments, the weak position of women in society, conflict and social exclusion. These challenges are not exhaustive, but they are recurrent in Ghana and in many countries.
Governments, the international community and other development agencies have, therefore, focused their concentration through collaboration on strategies to improve girls’ access to formal education. In 1990, the Education for all Conference was held in Jomtien. It prompted over 100 governments to formulate various policies towards encouraging the education of all children especially the girl child. Plans of action and strategies to address inequities in girls’ educational participation were very much paramount to the objectives of the Conference. Donors such as the United Nations (UN) and World Bank pledged to be more committed, and as such, agreed to increase their spending on basic education (Swainson et al., 1998). It is important to indicate that despite the serious commitment made by various governments and donor agencies, statistics presented by United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) at the Amman Mid-Decade Review of the Jomtien Conference showed that the gender gap in literacy levels was still widening over the period under review (Leach, 1997).

In September 2000, the 189 member countries of the United Nations adopted eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), committing themselves to making substantial progress toward the eradication of poverty and achieving other human development goals by 2015 (Todaro and Smith, 2009). The focus of this development include the eradication of extreme poverty and hunger; achievement of universal primary education and promotion of gender equality and women empowerment. The purpose was to bridge social inequality through universal education of girls.
Ghana also recognized the crucial role of female education in national development. As acknowledged by many scholars, educated women are more likely to participate effectively in political discussions, meetings and decision-making, which in turn promotes a more representative and effective government than the uneducated ones. They also have a greater chance of escaping poverty, leading to healthier and more productive lives and raising the standard of living for their children, families, and communities. According to Kwegyir Aggrey (1875-1927), “the surest way to keep people is to educate the men and neglect the women. If you educate a man you simply educate an individual, but if you educate a woman, you educate a whole nation”. Consistent with this premises, past and present governments have therefore, given attention to female education in a number of ways.

There has been a Ministry responsible for educational development in Ghana. This body has over the years implemented various policies to influence girls’ access to basic education. For example, the Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy was implemented in 1995 to influence gross enrolment at the basic level. Under this policy the government of Ghana provides free tuition in basic public schools across the country as a way of addressing the problem of enrolment and attendance. Scholarships and other specific interventions have been designed in favour of girls to achieve gender equity in education.

In Ghana, successive governments have made attempts to influence female access to basic education by drawing their success stories from other third world countries. It is significant to note that the importance attached to basic education
has motivated its recognition in the 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana [Article 25 (1) (a)]. In support of this effort is the “Education for All” (EFA) campaign and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), initiated in the year 2000 to achieve universal primary education by 2015. Ghana, therefore, initiated specific interventions such as the Primary Education Project (PREP), Capitation Grant, Free Compulsory Basic Education (FCUBE), free books provision, free school uniforms, and school feeding (Akyeampong, 2009:176; Chachu, 2011:4; Ananga, 2011:20). The purpose of these reforms, among other things, was to address gender gap (in enrolment, attendance and performance), enhance quality of teaching, increase access to quality education and improve academic performance. The target of some of these interventions may be mixed, consisting of both male and female students. However, none has ever excluded the girl child as an effective beneficiary.

The need for universal basic education in Ghana has attracted concurrent interventions. Universal access to basic education involves resolute efforts and commitments to gender parity in education as well. Gains have been made in Ghana towards increasing the number of girls in the basic level of education. The Ghana Education Service in 1997 established a Girl’s Education Unit as part of its Basic Education Division to boost participation of girls in basic school education and other activities related to female education. With support from World Food Organisation (WFP), enrolment and retention of girls in the basic level were improved. The Upper East and Upper West Regions recorded an increase of 31.4% and 26.1% respectively compared to the national average of 12.8% (Adamu-Issah et al., 2007). An analysis of the intervention showed an improvement of the Gender Parity Index for Primary Gross Enrolment from 0.93
in 2004/05 to 0.95 in 2005/06. Notwithstanding these positive trends, the country has not been able to meet the MDGs target of achieving gender parity by 2015. The gaps are particularly sharp in northern Ghana (Adamu-Issah et al, 2007) and in the Wa Municipality in particular.

Furthermore, among some of the pro-poor programmes initiated by government to increase enrolment levels is the Ghana School Feeding Programmes (GSFP). School feeding is an in-school meal adopted over the years intended to provide meals or snacks at school with the hope of reducing children’s hunger during schooling days (Del Rosso, 2004). The World Food Programme (2004) recommended that it is a tool capable of enabling hundreds of millions of poor children worldwide to attend school both in developed and developing countries. Building on this strength, the government of Ghana with the support of the Dutch Government began the School Feeding Programme in 2005. The objectives include: reduction of hunger and malnutrition among school pupils, increasing school enrolment, attendance, and retention (Ministry of Education, 2010; Eliasu 2013). Since 2005, the coverage of the programme is being increased and sustained. This study seeks to assess the influence of the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) on girl’s enrolment, attendance and retention in the Wa Municipality.

1.2 Problem Statement
Government started the GSFP on pilot basis between 2005 and 2010. The Wa Municipality has equally benefited from the GSFP implemented to influence access to basic education. Ten (10) basic schools in the Wa Municipality were included at this stage. They were: Charia Primary School B, Dodiirty Primary
School, Danko Primary School, Konjiehi M/A Primary School, Kperisi KG, T.I Ahmadiyya Primary School A, Falahia E/A KG, Huria KG, Jonga E/A Primary School and Dapoha Primary School. The implementation of GSFP aims at providing food to school children with the view of increasing and sustaining enrolment, attendance and retention in schools. Now, the programme has been scaled up covering 78 schools in the Wa Municipality (Ministry of Gender and Social Protection, 2015).

The implementation of the GSFP can be said to have been successful considering some of it achievements. At least, the introduction of the GSFP has increased enrolment, attendance, and retention in various public schools across the country and government has often emphasized on its commitment to ensuring that children are well fed at school (Ghana Education Service, 2014). However, the observed increase in gross enrolment across the country is characterized by gender disparities in some localities.

First, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) of 1 for enrolment in basic schools in both the rural and urban areas was not achieved as at 2010 (Ministry of Gender and Social Protect, 2014). According to the Ghana Education Service, (2011), the participation of girls in schooling in the three regions of the North has been extremely low. In 2010 the enrolment figure for females in primary schools in the Northern Region was 40.6 percent against 59.4 percent for boys. In the Upper East Region, it was 42.7 percent against 57.3 percent and in the Upper West Region 40.3 percent against 59.7 percent for boys (GES Report, 2011).

In the Wa Municipality, the number of girls in school is lower as compared to the number of boys. The 2013 fiscal year report of the Wa Municipal Assembly
shows that a gross enrolment of primary school is 25,616 of which girls constitute 12,806 representing 49.99 percent, whiles boys are 12,810 representing 50.01 percent which clearly indicates that though enrolment figures are encouraging, that of the girls is relatively low. Besides, female population in the Wa Municipality is relatively higher than that of men In the Wa Municipality, out of a total population of 107,218, males constitute 52,996 representing 49.4 percent, whiles females constitute 54,218 representing 50.6 percent (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012). This suggests that even if girls’ enrolment had reached as high as 50%, yet that would have not been sufficient in achieving universal basic education. This situation has made stakeholders to question the role the GSFP has played since its inception on the enrolment, attendance and retention of the girl child in the basic schools within the Wa Municipality.

Besides, many empirical studies (e.g Ahmed, 2004; Dreze and Kingdon, 2001; Lazmaniah et al., 1999) have provided evidence of positive impact of school feeding programmes including the GSFP on school enrolment, attendance and retention. The evidences are only limited to gross outcomes. For instance, Integrated Social Development Center (ISODEC) [2015] argued that the GSFP has contributed to higher enrolment figures among all beneficiary schools throughout Ghana. However, it has not been able to completely settle the disparity matters thereby creating a gender access gap in enrolment. Various stakeholders (Ministry of Education, Ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection) of education are therefore, not sure whether the recorded positive effects of the programme can represent the solution to the problem of gender disparity in enrolment, attendance and retention.
In the Wa Municipality in particular, not enough scientific studies has been conducted on the influence of the GSFP on girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention. As a result, there is still a research gap on whether the programme, after increasing enrolment has an influence on gender disparity in school enrolment figure, attendance and retention. The influence of the programme on gender disparity in enrolment, attendance and retention is yet to be determined and this brings to the fore the need for this study to fill in the literature gap. Even where attempts have been made to evaluate the programme’s effect on enrolment, including the Wa Municipality, the case of gender disparity has not always received the desired attention. They have, more often than not left out its role on girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention among beneficiary schools.

Therefore, this study intends to fill in the literature gap and propose strategies to improve girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools in the Wa Municipality through the activities of the GSFP. In the process, several research questions are raised.
1.3 Research Questions

1.3.1 Main Research Question

What impact has the GSFP made on female enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools in the Wa Municipality?

1.3.2 Specific Research Questions

1. How does the GSFP address the needs of girls in basic schools?

2. What factors influence enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools?

3. How does the GSFP motivate parents to enrol and keep their girls in school?

4. How does the GSFP addressed socio-economic factors that affect enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools?

1.4 Research Objectives

1.4.1 General Research Objective

The main research objective of the study is to assess the influence of GSFP in girl’s enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools in Wa Municipality.

1.4.2 Specific Research objectives:

Specifically, the study seeks:

1. To examine how the GSFP addresses the needs of girls in basic schools.

2. To identify the factors influencing enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools.

3. To assess how the GSFP motivates parents to enrol and keep their girls in basic school?

4. To ascertain whether the GSFP addresses socio-economic factors that affect enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools?
1.5 Significance of the Study

Education has been recognized as the driver of innovation and economic prosperity to many nations across the world. Offering girls basic education is one sure way of giving them much greater power to enable them make genuine choices over the kind of life they wish to live. The Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women establishes it as basic human right. There are also important benefits for society as a whole because an educated woman has skills, information and self-confidence that she needs to be a better parent, worker and citizen (UNESCO, 2000). The results of this study will therefore, build on existing efforts in influencing female access to education.

The Ghana School Feeding Programme has been implemented to increase school enrolment, attendance and retention at the basic level. The results of the study will provide information for the assessment of the outcome of the programme. This will be useful to various stakeholders in the implementation process, such as, the District Implementation Committee (DIC) and the Schools Implementation Committee (SIC).

The absence of empirical studies on the role of the GSFP on girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools in the Wa Municipality is evident. The results of this study will therefore, fill the gap and suggest various solutions that can help increase the enrolment of the girls in basic schools. Relative to this, the study would examine and justify the role of the Ghana School Feeding Programme on the enrolment figures of girls. It will recommend other strategies that can be adopted to increase the enrolment figures and performance of girls in schools.
The results of the study would provide avenues for interventions, which would help to improve school attendance and retention of girls in public basic schools and consequently improve the academic achievement of pupils, particularly girls in the Wa Municipality. This is achievable through dissemination of the research findings to the programme implementation bodies.

The study will enable the researcher, educational psychologists, and other stakeholders to have a better understanding on how the GSFP has impacted on the enrolment and performance of pupils, especially girls in basic schools. This will provide a basis for further studies in the field of improving access to quality education.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The scope of the study is limited to enrolment of girls in basic schools in the Wa Municipality. It will entail an exploration into what influences girls’ enrolment in public basic schools in the Wa Municipality. In the process, more attention would be given to the role played by the GSFP in girls’ enrolment, attendance, and retention.

Enrolment of girls in school may be influenced by a myriad of factors. The scope of this study will exclusively concentrate on those factors associated with the GSFP, a development intervention. The units of analysis will therefore, be limited to people with knowledge of girls’ enrolment in public basic schools in the Wa Municipality and the operations of the GSFP.
1.7 Organization of the Study
The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter one; would constitute the introduction of the study covering the background, statement of the problem, research questions and research objectives, significance, scope, organisation of the study and limitation. Chapter two embodies the literature review. Chapter three deal with the research methodology. Chapter four caters for the findings and discussions from the study and Chapter five consists of the summary, conclusions and suggestions based on the study.

1.8 Delimitations
The study would have been conducted in both participants and non-participants schools to enables the researcher have treatment and control group. However, the challenge of controlling for other variables influencing enrolment, attendance, and retention in basic schools has limited the use of limits a comparative analysis between participants and non-participants groups. The outcome of the study was not affect because of views of respondents provided a better assessment of the effect of the GSFP on enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in the basic schools.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction
This chapter presents a review of existing literature on the role of school feeding programmes on enrolment of students. The review covers various issues related to how motivational programmes and interventions have influenced school enrolment in different places all over the world. Specific attention, however, is given to the role of the Ghana School Feeding Programme on female enrolment, attendance and retention. Main areas covered by the review include the relevance of female education, interventions to enhance female education, the theoretical framework, school feeding programs in Ghana and their efforts to enhance students’ enrolment.

2.2 Theoretical Framework
According to Vitahl, Jansen and Jansen (2013) theoretical framework is a well-developed, coherent explanation of an event/phenomenon. Theories assist in interpreting and understanding events in the world. Similarly, the purpose of a theory is to provide tools for the interpretation of collected data, prevent the fragmentation of knowledge by ordering, giving the inquiry a focus, and providing theoretical explanations and deeper understanding of what is being investigated. This study adopted the Change Theory to examine the effects of GSFP on enrolment, attendance and retention issues in the schools under study.

2.2.1 The Change Theory
Change theory was developed by kurt Lewin in 1935. The key contribution of Lewin’s 3-step model is that a successful change project involves
unfreezing, moving (Transition) and refreezing (freeze) (Lewin, 1947; Burnes, 2004a). Lewin (1947) suggests that to manage change processes, an organisation must ‘unfreeze’ its current state into a neutral position so that old behaviour can be unlearned and new behaviour can be successfully adopted. Then change should be implemented by utilising driving forces and minimizing resisting forces. The model provides a high-level approach to change. It gives a change agent a framework to implement a change effort, which is always very sensitive and must be made as unified as possible. The 3 phases of the Kurt Lewin model provide guidance on how to go about getting people to change: a change agent will implement new processes and re-assign tasks, but change will only be effective if participants embrace it and help put it into practice (Lewin, 1935).

Unfreeze are the forces that are striving to maintain the status quo, and dismantling the current mind set. This is usually by presenting a provocative problem or event to get people to recognize the need for change and to search for new solutions. Lewin believed that the stability of human behaviour was based on a quasi-stationary equilibrium supported by a complex field of driving and restraining forces. He argued that the equilibrium needs to be destabilized (unfrozen) before old behaviour can be discarded (unlearnt) and new behaviour successfully adopted. Given the type of issues that Lewin was addressing, as one would expect, he did not believe that change would be easy or that the same approach could be applied in all situations: This step may involve quite different problems in different cases.

Transition is a phase where new behaviors, values, and attitudes are adopted. This may be a period of some confusion as we switch from the old ways of doing
things to a new one. As Schein (1996: 62) notes, unfreezing is not an end in itself; ‘it creates motivation to learn but does not necessarily control or predict the direction’. This echoes Lewin’s view that any attempt to predict or identify a specific outcome is very difficult because of the complexity of the forces concerned. Instead, one should seek to take into account all the forces at work and identify and evaluate, on a trial and error basis, all the available options (Lewin, 1947a).

Freeze is the final stage of crystallizing and the adaptation of ownership of the new concept. The organization may revert to former ways of doing things at this point unless the changes are reinforced through freezing. This stage seeks to stabilize the group at a new quasi-stationary equilibrium in order to ensure that the new behaviours are relatively safe from regression. The main point about this stage is that new behaviour must be, to some degree, congruent with the rest of the behaviour, personality and environment of the learner or it will simply lead to a new round of disconfirmation (Schein, 1996). This is why Lewin saw successful change as a group activity, because unless group norms and routines are also transformed, changes to individual behaviour will not be sustained. In organizational terms, refreezing often requires changes to organizational culture, norms, policies and practices (Cummings and Huse, 1989).
This is seen in what the GSFP sought to do with the provision of food for students to enhance enrolment. When a structure has been in place for a while, habits and routine naturally set in. The organization as a whole will go in the right direction, so with the GSFP in place, the habit of going to school is developed and implementers of the programme will also do what is right. Even with provision of food to students, they may want to stay out of school since they are used to absenting themselves under the pretence of hunger without anyone questioning them. Same can be said of the parents of these children who may want to engage them rather than sending them to school. There could be managerial lapses. People might have learned to do things one way, without considering other more efficient methods. This behavior has to be checked, and thus the unfreezing nature of the theory. Unfreezing means getting people to gain perspective on their day-to-day activities, unlearn their bad habits, and open up to new ways of reaching their objectives (Lewin, 1935). This can affect the whole or part of the stakeholders of the GSFP. So there is the need for continuous communication and open door policy in order for the wheels of change to be set in motion. In order to gain efficiency, people will have to take on new tasks and responsibilities, which entails a learning curve. In order not to get people going back to old habits, performance and reward system must be established, success.
must be celebrated and force-field analysis be made to remove all possible barriers.

Conversely, some have argued that Lewin’s theory is too simplistic and mechanistic for a world where organizational change is a continuous and open-ended process (Dawson, 1994; Garvin, 1993; Kanter et al., 1992). These criticisms appear to stem from a misreading of how Lewin perceived stability and change. The food habits (culture) of a certain group at a given time is not a static affair but a live process like a river which moves but still keeps to a recognizable form. Food habits do not occur in empty space. Somehow all these factors affect food habits at any given time. They determine the food habits of a group every day anew just as the amount of water supply and the nature of the river bed determine the flow of the river, its constancy or change (Lewin, 1943).

Again, Dawson (1994) and Dunphy and Stace (1993) hold that Lewin’s work is only relevant to incremental and isolated change projects and is not able to incorporate radical, transformational change. This criticism appears to relate to the speed rather than the magnitude of change because, as Quinn (1982) pointed out, over time, incremental change can lead to radical transformations. It is also necessary to recognize that Lewin was concerned with behavioural change at the individual, group, organizational and societal levels (Dickens and Watkins, 1999). Also, Lewin’s stands accused of ignoring the role of power and politics in organizations and the conflictual nature of much of organizational life (Dawson, 1994; Hatch, 1997). Given the issues that Lewin was addressing, this seems a strange criticism. Anyone seriously addressing racism and religious intolerance, as Lewin was, could not ignore these issues.
Further, Lewin is seen as advocating a top-down, management-driven approach to change and ignoring situations requiring bottom-up change (Dawson, 1994; Kanter et al., 1992; Wilson, 1992). Lewin was approached for help by a wide range of groups and organizations: They included representatives of communities, school systems, single schools, minority organizations of a variety of backgrounds and objectives; they included labor and management representatives, departments of the national and state governments, and so on (Lewin, 1946: 201).

In addition, the model has been criticized for advocating a ‘top-down’, management-driven approach to change, rather than promoting employee-driven change (Dawson, 1994; Kanter et al., 1992; Wilson, 1992). The model may not be appropriate for organisations requiring continuous innovation for survival (Hock, 1999). However, the model tends to be more appropriate for organisations, such as city councils that are based on traditional top-down, command-and-control style of management, with segmented, small units and slow change timelines. Therefore, Lewin’s (1951) models are more appropriate for a ‘top-down’, management-driven approaches to change, which is similar to the change management processes employed in city councils (Dawson, 1994; Kanter et al., 1992).

Another criticism of Lewin’s model (1951) is that in today’s dynamic and frequently changing world, Lewin’s sequential model may not be applicable (Kotter, 1996). This is because the planned approach is only relevant to incremental and isolated change projects and is not able to incorporate radical or transformational change (Dawson, 1994; Pettigrew, 1990a). Hence, the model is
relevant only for small scale changes in stable conditions and fails to account for organisational politics and conflicts (Burnes, 2004a). However, most of the change initiatives in city councils are indeed incremental changes rather than radical and transformational change.

Howbeit, any successful programme creates change, and it comes as a result of the participants adopting solid knowledge of what works for others. SFPs are run worldwide and therefore are characterized with successes and failures. The variables of the change theory are; problem, community needs/assets, desired results, strategies, influential factors and assumptions. Problem as in the case of this study is the enrolment, attendance and retention and the influential factors are the availability of funds as enabling factor in the provision of meals, supervision and other related elements. Community needs/assets also have to do with the contribution(s) from the community in question accepting a change in their attitude towards enrolling their children who are school-going age in school. Additionally, local farmers are made to sell their farm produce to the school matrons. The desired result should reflect an increased enrolment, attendance and retention of school children in that community. The success story of other countries/organizations is adopted for the attainment of the objectives. All of the above elements can be summarized as implementation issues. In sum, though the theory is criticized for being outmoded and irrelevant to the needs of modern organizations amongst others, it was relevant in this study particularly in assessing the role of the GSFP in enrolment, attendance and retention of female students.
2.3 The Significance of Female Education

The relevance of female education has been a subject of discussion in many platforms in social campaigns and reports of empirical observations. Such discussions, therefore outline the significance of female education to females themselves, their household contribution and their role in community and national development activities.

It has been recognized that many interventions to reduce social vulnerability of girls, often target reducing their constraints in accessing education. The rationale is that educated girls maintain essential attributes consisting of self-confidence, the ability to justify their social inclusion, avoidance of sexual pressure and unwanted marriages (Amalu, 2003). Given their relatively higher level of orientation, formally educated girls are in a better position to weigh the consequences of pre-marital sex, teenage pregnancy and sexual transmitted diseases. This offers them the capacity to protest and defend themselves in many fields of exploitation.

Empirical studies associate the likelihood of children success in educational attainment to their parents’ level of education. Some specifically maintain that female education has greater influence on children than their male counterparts. Consistent with this proposition, Anderson (2002) points out that the educational attainment of female children has direct relationship with their mothers’ education. Even in the African continent where fathers often assume the role of households heads, yet female enrolment in school and performance according to Anderson report have direct connection with mothers’ educational attainment. Alhassan (2010), while agreeing to the argument put forward by Anderson (2002)
presents a measure of precaution on the extent of generalization on the effect of mother’s education on their daughters. He confirmed that in the Northern Region of Ghana, particularly girls who are highly educated had educated mothers in the past but not always true that only if one’s mother is educated that one can also be educated. This observation therefore, brings to the fore the controversy on what other factors can policy focus on to attain high standard of education among females.

While enhancing female education remains a challenge within sub-Saharan Africa, empirical studies consistently reports that a success in female education has development implications. Summers (1993) cited in Samuel (2000) defended this position in his report. He postulated that female education reduces the level of deprivation via participation in social programmes. The author maintains that educated females received on average, higher incomes than those not educated and this increased earning grant them the flexibility of social choice and inclusion such as decision making at the household level. Kwaresga (2002) agreed to this position with a justification that the contribution of educated women go beyond the family to the wellbeing of their communities and countries. This position may be true considering women effective participation in political and social activities at the community, regional and national levels in Ghana.

The relevance of female education (to personal, household, community and national level development) outlined by empirical studies highlights the need for various interventions towards improvement in female education. Different models and approaches have therefore, been adopted in Ghana over the years depending on the magnitude of challenge on female education encountered at a particular
period of time. The focus of attention of all interventions, however, is on strategies to motivate the female students towards enrolment, attendance and retention at school. The GSFP is one of such interventions that aims at increasing school enrolment, attendance and retention. However, its influence on curbing gender disparity gaps in schools enrolment, attendance and retention has not been assessed in the Wa Municipality. It is therefore, not certain whether such programmes have achieved the desired goal of minimizing gender disparities.

2.4 Interventions to Improve Female Enrolment

In the developing world, especially in Africa and South Asia, it is common to see girls of school going age that are not in school. Particularly in India, Bangladesh, Morocco, Senegal and Mali, low educational attainment emanate from the challenge of children not enrolling in school (Birdsall, et al., 2005). While this challenge requires an immediate attention, policy analysis realised the need for a holistic intervention to minimize its economic and social effect. To many of these countries, attainment of universal basic education became a necessary condition. Birdsall et al. (2005) pinpointed the need for such countries concurrently to increase access and improve the quality of education. Consistent with this proposal, many people call for the use of interventions such as the abolition of school fees, using school feeding programmes as an incentive to draw children to school, and implementing school health programmes to reduce absenteeism (Birdsall et al., 2005). Several efforts are being made to sustain these interventions despite their cost of implementation.

A monitoring exercise conducted by Education for All (EFA) in 2012 outlined the main drivers for educational development in developing economies. Their
findings suggest that there has been little policy support for the sector in most of the developing countries. For instance, the Netherlands is a top contributor to education in developing countries, but of recent she has reduced her support for education by 60%. This can further worsen the situation on beneficiary countries (EFA, 2012). Among these countries expenditure on education tend to be a barrier for achieving universal basic education. This is the trend in countries such as South Africa, Uganda, Iraq, Tanzania and Nigeria. Following the Dakar Framework commitment that primary education should be ‘free of tuition and other fees’, many countries have eliminated official school fees and put in place measures that support the efforts of parents and guardians in educating their wards (EFA, 2012).

The need for universal basic education in Ghana has attracted concurrent interventions. Universal access to basic education involves resolute efforts and commitments to gender parity in education as well. Gains have been made in Ghana towards increasing the number of girls in the basic level of education. The Ghana Education Service in 1997 established a Girl’s Education Unit as part of its Basic Education Division to boost participation of girls in basic school education and other activities related to female education. With support from World Food Organisation (WFP), enrolment and retention of girls in the basic level were improved. The Upper East and Upper West Regions recorded an increase of 31.4% and 26.1% respectively compared to the national average of 12.8% (Adamu-Issah et al., 2007). An analysis of the intervention showed an improvement of the Gender Parity Index for Primary Gross Enrolment from 0.93 in 2004/05 to 0.95 in 2005/06. Notwithstanding these positive trends, the country has not been able to meet the MDGs target of achieving gender parity by 2015.
The gaps are particularly sharp in northern Ghana (Adamu-Issah et al., 2007) and in the Wa Municipality in particular.

Since 2004, the World Bank has initiated through financial support, a piloted programme (Capitation Grant scheme) in deprived districts in Ghana. The initiative was a cost reduction strategy which aimed at making education affordable to deprived areas. The Capitation Grant scheme was specifically implemented to abolish all school fees charged in public schools and in addition, provide the schools with a small grant for each pupil enrolled. The pilot programme recorded an impressive increase in enrolment by about 14.5%, hence, its adoption nationwide in 2005. At the kindergarten level, enrolment went up from about 500,000 students in 2004-2005 to more than 800,000 in 2005-2006, an increase of 67%. During the same period, the primary net enrolment rate increased from 59.1% to 68.8%, while net enrolment at the Junior High School level increased from 31.6% to 41.6% (Adamu-Issah et al., 2007; Chachu, 2011). The increase in enrolment on the other hand has led to a number of challenges; shortage of teachers (especially in remote areas), shortage of school infrastructure, and implications for financing that could negatively affect the quality of teaching and learning, and thus learning outcomes (Chachu, 2011). The fact that this intervention did not offer any special attention for girls implies that it has not solved the gender disparity gap despite a rise in enrolment. This probably explains the gender disparity figures among basic schools in the Wa Municipality.

In September 2005, another important intervention to influence enrolment was initiated. The Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) began on a pilot basis...
with 10 schools from each region in the country. With about 64,775 pupils covered in 2006, the pilot phase came to an end, after which the first phase was rolled out in 2007 over a four year period (2007-2010) based on the success stories achieved. The number of beneficiary pupils at the start of the first phase was 413,498. This number increased to 441,189 pupils in 2008. By 2009, the programme had covered 580,025 pupils. At the end of 2009/10 academic year, beneficiary pupils had shot up to 697,416, indicating a steady increase over the period. The GSFP employs the in-school model of feeding and provides a meal for school children whenever they go to school. The schools children are provided with lunch to minimize the need for them to leave the school to find food, lessen their hunger, boost their attention and facilitate their learning. These meals are usually prepared in the school by caterers. The programme targets children in public kindergartens and primary (1-6) schools in the poorest regions of the country (GSFP Annual Operating Plan, 2011). Current figures indicate that the GSFP feeds 1.6 million pupils country-wide (Bonney, 2013). While acknowledging the benefit of this intervention, literature does not point out its exclusive role on girls’ education.

As an instrument in the country’s educational policies, the most obvious success chalked by the GSFP has been in the increment of school enrolment, attendance and retention and also to some extent bridging the gender gap in basic education (Akyeampong, 2009; Chachu, 2011; Tagoe, 2011). Emanating from these positive results, new challenges have emerged that ought to be addressed for the sustainability of the programme. The increases in school enrolment have put pressure on facilities within the beneficiary schools. Now some beneficiary
schools have among other things inadequate classrooms, school supply, and high teacher pupil ratios.

While gender disparity in accessing education remains a challenge in achieving universal basic education in Ghana, past interventions have failed to formulate unique objectives towards reconciling the gender gap. While this remains a weakness that is associated with past programmes, empirical studies in the foregoing discussion have not assessed programme of activities that are geared towards addressing the gender access gap in school enrolment, attendance and retention. This study will therefore, explore whether some activities of the GSFP have special attention for girls in basic schools in the Wa Municipality.

2.5 Overview of School Feeding Programme

The history of School Feeding Programme (SFP) dated back as early as 1930. This is the position and account of Tomlinson (2007). He reported that the development of SFP was initiated by the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States of America (USA) purposely to improving the growth of children. Another school of thought maintained that the revolution of SFP in Western Europe begun in the early 1700’s and 1800’s. Even though some areas in the USA were serving school meals from the mid 1800’s, it was only the Netherlands that was known to have it as a comprehensive programme supported by national legislation. Later in the 1930’s, the UK and the USA had also instituted the SFP as part of their national programmes (Kearney, 2008).

Besides, it is believed that some kind of SFP was practiced in Austria since 1940s through support from the USA. This was some kind of compensation and relief
from the effect of World War II. Since then, school feeding programmes have become a key part of food assistance and relief emergency and development programmes (World Food Programme, 2010). Inferring from the observation made by Bennett (2003), five (5) types of SFPs are identified according to their objectives:

- School feeding to improve the cognitive development of children
- School feeding as an emergency relief intervention
- School feeding as a nutritional intervention
- School feeding as a developmental intervention to aid recovery
- School feeding and short and long-term food security

This classification can offer a good explanation on the historical evolution of SFP on time and context (Tomlinson, 2007). Irrespective of the objective of a particular intervention, they all have development goals with specific objectives as improving the quality and scope of education. This motive of SFP is what attracts the attention of many countries to either adopt it or sponsor its implementation elsewhere. Statistics have proved that about 368 million school children benefit from SFP in different places all over the world with annual expenditure/investment ranging between US$47 billion and US$75 billion (WFP, 2013).

As noted earlier, the implementation of any SFP has economic and social motives. Within the sub-Saharan region of Africa, low nutritional status of school children, hunger following from economic crises most often influence the initiation of school feeding by the country’s own effort or qualified them as beneficiary for donor support. For instance, a decline in child nutrition and
schooling in the sub-Saharan region of Africa has largely pointed to drought, while in the 1990’s, economic crises in Indonesia led to an increase in the numbers of out-of-school children. Besides, Bangladesh in the 2008 crises has been compelled by its economic situation to withhold expenditure on education and address compelling challenges associated with increasing food prices. These and other countries since 2008 have scaled up school feeding in reaction to a crisis. This gives an indication that school feeding has a vital role to play in the event of an emergency, a social shock or conflict (WFP, 2013). It could be inferred from the foregoing discussion that SFP with its heavy investment requirement appears to be attributed to underdevelopment. This position is cogent as its implementation is often motivated by an unfavourable condition that requires immediate strategic decisions including the consideration of external financing. Many international donors, therefore, offer it as a grant to mostly the Third World countries. Even within the beneficiary country, consideration is often given to the most deprived segment of their population or social groups.

The extent to which SFPs target and reach the poor in programme countries raises concern. However, this concern is not generalised. The debate raise doubts on the success of SFP in terms of access. In Mali, for instance, this assertion is likely, because many children are not in school so they may not benefit from the SFP, whereas in Botswana there is a widespread success in school enrolment which is likely to guarantee that the programme will reach the target group (Bundy et al., 2009). Thus, this brings to the fore the concerns about the role of SFP in enrolment. In Ghana, although the programme is designed and targeted at school children in poor communities, the practicality of it is still a challenge. The Annual Operating Plan of the GSFP indicates that coverage of the programme in the three
poorest regions of the country is low; although efforts are underway to rectify the situation (GSFP AOP, 2011). If the trend remains so, the objectives of the programme can hardly be achieved.

It has been acknowledged since the evolution of SFP that not only are children motivated to get into school, but also because of the nutritional component associated with all similar interventions. Bundy et al. (2009) argue that worm infestations are usually common in children and high among children of school going age. This unfavourable phenomenon is known to have been affecting about 500 million school children, hence, making the deworming element beneficial in SFPs all over the world. Besides, they added that there is significant reduction in anaemia with deworming following the success stories of related programmes. In Djibouti, the SFP offers a package of deworming, Vitamin A supplements, health and hygiene education, water and sanitation facilities and nutritious school meals to beneficiaries.

The literature provides evidence from different countries that School Feeding Programmes are effective in reducing educational expenditure for both governments and households. The review also indicates that, School Feeding Programmes improve the nutritional status of school children in countries that have implemented it. However, while the influence of these programmes on enrolment has often been highlighted by the literature, that of attendance and retention of students have not been given much attention. This study will therefore, extend the research frontier to cover the role of School Feeding programme on students attendance and retention by drawing empirical evidences from the Wa Municipality.
2.5.1 Operation of School Feeding Programme in other countries

The term school feeding has been used over the years to mean the provision of meals or snacks at school to reduce children’s hunger during the school day (WFP, 2004). The phenomenon implies in-school meals only where children are provided with meals at school. School feeding has increasingly come to represent a more varied and comprehensive set of uses of food for the achievement of educational outcomes.

Several countries have put in place stringent measures towards alleviating poverty. On the global scale, about 805.1 million people live in hunger or do not have enough food to eat (FAO et al., 2014). The effort by governments and other stakeholders to eliminate hunger has called for the introduction of school feeding programmes the world over. Different programmes come with specific missions such as increasing enrolment, retention, nutrition and performance. However, they all have a common objective of achieving universal basic education using the school feeding programme as a catalyst.

In a similar dimension, School Feeding Programmes seek to enhance food security and minimize hunger which is in connection with the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (ECASARD and SNV Ghana, 2009). Winch (2009) points out that school feeding is of crucial significance to national development. Aliyar et al. (2012) defined school feeding as the provision of food on – site or take – home which aims to increase school enrolment, attendance and retention, and exists as a social safety net for households with very low income. This implies that the aim of school feeding is to provide children of low income earners with nutritious meals to help sustain and maintain them in school.
International Food Policy Research Institute (2014) stated clearly that proper nutrition is the foundation of human health. Good nutrition among young children equips their body to grow and develop well. It ensures effective learning in schools. School feeding is a key apparatus to improve food security, education and agricultural development. Calls have been made in recent times for countries to scale up their budgets towards developing agriculture and to connect school feeding programs towards national agricultural production (Global Child Nutrition Forum, 2010).

Majority of the world population living in hunger are found in developing countries and sub Saharan Africa has become the home of about one – fourth of under-nourished people (FAO et al, 2014). Malnutrition among poor families hinders their economic and social development. In the field of education, such families find it extremely difficult meeting educational expenditure and food necessary for child growth. Lawson (2012) points out that school feeding is common in developing countries where many families often fall short of resources to satisfy their basic needs. This discussion suggests that school feeding programme which is often facilitated by donors’ interventions is a significant relief measure for such poor households.

Many countries that have successfully implemented SFP began on a pilot basis. They include Indonesia, Bangladesh and Ghana. The programmes, though are implemented in different areas shared some similar characteristics such as targeting the poor, involvement of government and to some extent donor financing. Besides, they scaled up their operations after achieving success stories from pilot basis.
In Indonesia, according to the National Development Planning Agency, the Government introduced a national SFP in the 1990s which was initiated and financed wholly by government. The main targets of the programme were children, schools, parents, and the broader village community (BAPPENAS, 1996 cited in Studdert, et al., 2004). It was initiated as a poverty reduction strategy and hence became an ingredient in their development plan.

Levinger, (1986) as cited by Del Rosso (1999), indicated that the model on SFP adopted by the Indonesian government created a platform for many other countries to follow. To ascertain the effectiveness of the programme in Indonesia, a pilot study of the programme was carried out in other regions of the country for possible expansion to the entire country (Del Rosso, 1999).

As an economic growth strategy, the government of Indonesia guaranteed that locally grown commodities could be used in feeding the children (Central Coordinating Board for Child and Youth Improvement Program, 1996). The package of food consisted of deworming and snacks for the children. As the role of the district level government was effective in implementation, movement of programme funds went directly from the national level to a local bank, bypassing the provincial and district levels of government. This was to ensure that more of the allocated funds reached the targeted programme beneficiaries. Only the school principal could withdraw funds from the local bank and to do this he was required to present a menu plan signed by the village leader, the village midwife, and the heads of the local women’s and school parents’ associations (Studdert et al., 2004). This process was designed to ensure that multiple local parties verified student numbers and were aware of the funds being provided for the program.
The menu plan was prepared at the village or sub-district level with technical advice from the Ministry of Health staff. This strategy of implementation resulted in lasting success, leading to more enrolment of children in school.

In Bangladesh, feeding children in school is not an old phenomenon as compared to the case of Indonesia. In order to diminish hunger in the classroom as well as to promote school enrolment and retention rates, the Government of Bangladesh (GOB) and the World Food Programme (WFP) launched the School Feeding Program (SFP) in chronically food insecure areas of the country (Ahmed, 2004). Ahmed further explained that this initiation started on pilot basis as at 2002 where milk and biscuits were given to children at school in a chosen district. The U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) made significant contribution in funding the programme during its initial stages.

In 1993, the Bangladesh government implemented the Food for Education (FFE) programme to increase primary school enrolment of children from poor families. The package of the FFE programme consisted of a monthly distribution of wheat to poor families in deprived communities whose children attended primary school. Literature suggests that the FFE did raise primary school enrolment in all beneficiary communities (Ahmed, 2000; Ahmed and Arends-Kuenning 2003; Ahmed and Del Ninno, 2002; Meng and Ryan, 2004). Later there was the Primary Education Stipend Program (PESP), which replaced the FFE program in 2002. This development could afford to offer cash assistance to poor families if they sent their children to primary school. At this point, even female students in secondary schools were covered as beneficiaries of the cash incentive. These conditional cash transfer programs aim to increase the enrolment and retention
A recent study indicates positive influence of these programs on educational attainment (Ahmed, 2004).

The literature established that SFP are designed by implementing agencies to enhance school enrolment, nutrition and academic performance. While remarkable achievements have been demonstrated by the literature in the area of nutrition and enrolment in different countries, the empirical literature lacks evidence of gender access gap analysis. Besides, the literature does not show the strategies that have been adopted by countries with School Feeding Programmes to influence girls’ enrolment in basic schools in particular. The objectives of this study have therefore, included measures taken by management of the Ghana School Feeding Programme to improve female school enrolment, attendance and retention especially in the Wa Municipality.

2.6 School Feeding Programmes in Ghana

An attempt to introduce School Feeding in Ghana began in 1940 where children in the then Protectorate of the Northern Territories of the Gold Coast was provided with free meals in the boarding schools. However, the menu was not nutritionally balanced. Rice and beans were provided occasionally as a special meal (Imoru, 2010). In the 1950s, pupils of several Catholic primary and middle schools were given take-home rations of food aid. The objective was to improve the nutritional status of school children and increase school enrolment and retention. The programme was in line with government policy to accelerate the education and training of Ghanaians to fill job vacancies created by foreigners who had to leave the country after independence (Imoru, 2010).
Over time, WFP and Catholic Relief Services (CRS) became two lead agencies providing SFPs in the country, focusing on the North due to its high incidence of poverty and food insecurity. World Food Programme has been involved in Ghana for 40 years. Other development partners involved in food assistance programmes are: World Vision, Adventist Development Relief Agency (ADRA), Dutch Development Agency (SNV) and Social Enterprise Development (SEND). The objectives of the SFPs of these organizations are not different from those in the 1950s, except that poverty, food insecurity and gender inequality have become additional concerns for these organizations. The North is relatively poor and rural households, especially women and their young daughters, lack physical and economic access to food (WFP, 2007).

School feeding plays a significant role in the development of education in Ghana. Governments, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and stakeholders have made efforts to successfully feed the school child in Ghana over the past decades. International Business Development program (2015) revealed that some communities initiated their own school feeding programs using local produce. This notwithstanding, other NGOs play crucial roles in ensuring that the school child in Ghana is well fed. Catholic Relief Services, World Vision, and Adventist Development and Relief Agency among others are some of the organizations that in one way or the other support the school feeding agenda of Ghana’s school children. Kleiman (2010) asserts that school feeding ensures food security; hungry children are likely to be found in food insecure homes.

Partnership for Child Development (1999) points out that education and learning depend on good nutrition. School feeding in Ghana has achieved greater
prominence by providing the nutritional needs of pupils (Kedze, 2013; Bukari et al., 2015; Martens, 2007). School feeding aims vary from country to country (Aliyar et al., 2012). School feeding programmes in Ghana have gained significant boost by increasing enrolment and reducing school drop-out rate (Duah, 2011; Martens, 2007; Kedze; 2013 Gyawu 2012; Nkosha et al., 2013 and Alhassan, 2013). School feeding motivates children of lower income earners to constantly attend school every day. However, Alhassan (2013) points out that schools that are not under the school feeding programmes have low enrolment and high rate of school drop-out in the Northern region of Ghana.

School Feeding Programmes are targeted social safety nets that provide both educational and health benefits to the most vulnerable children, thereby increasing enrollment rates, reducing absenteeism, and improving food security at the household level. In response to increasing food and fuel prices in 2008, funds from the World Bank’s Global Food Crisis Response Program and the subsequent pilot Crisis Response Window provided rapid assistance by supporting existing school feeding programmes and essentially linking access to both food and education for poor and vulnerable children living in highly food-insecure communities in the country. With a global turnover in excess of US$100 billion and reaching hundreds of millions of schoolchildren, school feeding is clearly evident as a major social programme in most countries, including low, middle, and high-income countries. Ghana, a country located south of the Sahara is lucky to be one of the beneficiary countries (Global Food for Crisis Response Programme, 2008).
The Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) commenced in most of the beneficiary communities on a pilot base in September 2005 with ten schools, one in each region of the country. The GSFP was expanded to cover 200 schools in taking care of the nutritional needs of 69,000 pupils in all 138 districts of the country (Osei et al., 2009). Subsequently, the GSFP began with nationwide coverage and by the end of first quarter of 2011 as Osei et al. (2009) indicated, the programme fed 713,590 children in all the beneficiary schools nationwide.

More especially, Ghana adopted the GSFP as one of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) under the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy I and Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy II which is expected to impact positively on school enrolment, attendance and retention.

As part of its support for educational development in Ghana, the WFP has included in its targets the three Northern Regions of Ghana. In WFP’s support to girls’ education, 42,000 girls and their families in 25 districts of the three Northern Regions benefit from take-home rations as a monthly incentive for girls’ achievement of 85 percent or higher attendance at school. The success implementation of this programme provided evidence for scaling up to cover the entire stages of the primary school level. In some instances, Junior High Schools with low gender parity are covered. However, WFP has been phasing out its assistance to girls’ education since 2006, as agreed with the Government. The challenge, therefore, is how to bridge the gaps that are being created by the phasing out of externally supported programmes including CRS’s school feeding and WFP’s support to girls’ education.
WFP and GSFP signed a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) in 2006 that outlines collaboration in the following areas:

- providing a fortified food basket to complement GSFP menus;
- supporting district-level planning and implementing school feeding;
- harmonizing planning and managing cash and food inputs at the district level;
- testing procurement processes;
- building capacity of PTAs, SMCs and other stakeholders;
- testing models for sustainable funding;
- developing systems for monitoring and evaluation.

This development provided collaborative assistance for the implementation of the programme.

The literature provides evidence of School Feeding Programmes that have been implemented in the country. The GSFP is considered as one of the major interventions in terms of scope and this suggests the need to evaluate its effects on students’ enrolment, attendance and retention in the Wa Municipality.

2.7 Operation of the Ghana School Feeding Programme

The programme was born out of the New Partnership for African Development /Hunger Task Force Initiative (NEPAD/HTFI) under the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development Programme (CAADP) of the African Union (AU). Ghana was selected as one of the initial nine focus countries in sub-Saharan Africa to pilot the programme. The Government of Ghana and NEPAD were to equally finance the programme; however, delays from NEPAD required the government to fully fund it. It started on a pilot basis from September to December in 2005 in ten districts, one from each of the ten regions, and was
intended to last for five years (WFP, 2007). By August, 2006, the beneficiary schools increased to 200 in about 138 districts (International Business Development Program, 2015).

The Ghana School Feeding Programme is an initiative under the Comprehensive Africa Agricultural Development (CAADEP) pillar 3 which intends to enhance food security and reduce hunger in line with the United Nation Millennium Development Goals (ECASRD and SNV Ghana, 2009). The rationale behind the Ghana School Feeding Programme is to provide pupils with one hot nutritious meal using home grown food crops on daily basis on every schooling day (Kedze 2013). Aliyar et al (2012) points out that the use of home – grown food crops under the Ghana school feeding programme is to stimulate local economies through increase in demand for the produce. Gyawu (2012) argues that the Ghana school feeding programme met its aim of providing hot nutrition meals to pupils during schooling days and has therefore, increased enrolment and retained pupils in school. While agreeing with the arguments postulated by Gyawu (2012), Bukari et al. (2015) add that there is a positive link between the Ghana School Feeding Programme and academic performance. The implementation of the GSFP had its basic objectives as to feed children in public primary schools and kindergartens with one hot nutritious meal prepared from locally grown foodstuffs on every school going day. The policy has other targets of achieving increased enrolment, increasing academic performance and boosting food production in the country (GSFP, 2007).

The health component involves the fact that pupils of the beneficiary schools are to be given good drinking water, de-wormed and fed in a good sanitary
environment. In line with improvement of education, enrolment of pupils will improve so as to achieve universal basic education. In the agriculture sub sector, the patronage of locally produced goods will be increased and food production in the country will be improved resulting from farmer access to ready market. Programme implementation partner organizations such as Netherlands Development Co-operation (SNV), and World Food Programme (WFP) are to carry out training sessions for caterers and cooks to enhance their capacities. The recruitment of caterers and cooks as required by SNV is based on an academic qualification and standard for hygiene. (GSFP Pilot Programme Review Report, (2007-2010).

The GSFP has extensive targeting criteria for the selection of beneficiary communities. In several respects, the criteria are no different from targeting criteria used by WFP and other SFPs, except that WFP and the others target the north, while GSFP focuses on the whole nation. The GSFP criteria include:

- willingness of a community to provide basic infrastructure (e.g. kitchen, store, dining room);
- commitment of the District Assembly, demonstrated by its interest to sustain the programme;
- poverty status of the district and community;
- low school enrolment and/or attendance and gender parity index;
- high drop-out rates;
- low literacy levels;
- presence of planned health and nutritional interventions or expansion of existing ones;
- no participation in an already existing SFP;
Using the above criteria, the Ministry of Education, Science and Sports (MOESS), working with the District Assemblies, developed an initial list of communities and schools that met the criteria of poverty, high drop-out rates and low literacy, of which Wa Municipal was included.

**Implementing agencies of the GSFP**

To achieve the objectives of the programme, roles were assigned to the following key stakeholders as follows;

i. The government made up of Cabinet and Parliament are responsible for passing the GSFP Bill to legitimize the operations of the programme and sourcing for funds;

ii. The Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development (MLGRD), in collaboration with the Ministry of Education (MoE) is responsible for the implementation and supervision of the programme;

iii. Ministry of Food and Agriculture (MoFA) is responsible for the achievement of the agricultural aspect objectives;

iv. Ministry of Finance and Economic Planning (MoFEP) is responsible for the release of funds;

v. Ministry of Women and Children Affairs (MoWCA) is responsible for monitoring and supervision;

vi. Ghana School Feeding Programme National Secretariat is responsible for the implementation of the policy at the national level. (GSFP Annual Operating Plan 2008: 11)
The actors and their relationships of the GSFP is shown in Figure 2.1. Figure 2.2: Actors and Relationships of the GSFP

Regional Coordinating Councils (RCCs) are to form the programme steering committee in every region. The RCCs are to plan and execute the programme with inputs from the national level. Each Assembly in collaboration with the District Implementation Committee (DIC) and School Implementation Committee (SICs) cooperate with local government management.

Source: GSFP Annual Operating Plan, 2008
Committee (SIC) is to manage and implement the programme at the local level. They are in charge of food procurement and logistic spending. The Ministry of Agriculture through the District Agriculture Directorate is to sensitize the farmers to produce and supply foodstuffs. The Directorate is also to provide training for farmers especially cooperative farmer groups and assist them to access loans to increase their productivity. The DICs are in charge of planning and monitoring of the programme in all the beneficiary schools whilst the SICs do the implementation and supervision in each school. Below is the structure showing actors of GSFP and their relationship (GSFP Annual Operating Plan, 2008).

According to the Ghana government, the institutional framework for implementation of GSFP is designed to avoid corruption, embezzlement and misapplication of funds. The institutions responsible for the implementation are:

- Ministry of Local Government and Rural Development
- National Implementation Secretariat
- District Implementation Committee [Metropolitan, Municipal and District Chief Executive (MMDCE) as chairman]
- School Implementation Committee including PTA.

Other actors who play several roles in the GSFP are Send Foundation International, Centre for Social Fertility and Agric Development (IFDC), Ghana Agricultural Initiative (GAIN) and Plan Ghana International.

### 2.8 The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework of the Ghana School Feeding Programme was proposed with expected impact on development with different indicators. From
Figure 2.2, the main expected outcomes of the Ghana SFP include raising demand for home grown food, improving enrolment and nutrition of the school children.

Figure 2.3: Framework of the School Feeding Programme

- Children of school going age provided with balanced meal on
  - Increase demand for locally produced foods
  - Increase school enrolment, attendance and retention
  - Increase local food production
  - Enrollment in GSFP schools increased

- Children received 30-45% of energy and 60-70% of protein and increased micronutrients
  - Reduce short-term hunger
  - Improve health and nutritional status
  - Improve school performance
  - Attendance in GSFP schools improved and dropout rate reduced

Source: Adapted from NEPAD (2005).

The focus of this study is on the aspect of the programme that aims at increasing enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in beneficiary schools. It is anticipated that the influence of the feeding programme on these outcomes will be possible given that girls from poor homes who previously could not make it to school as a result of parents inability to provide feeding money will now be in a better position to attend. It is also envisaged that providing hot meals to students serve as a motivation to maximize school retention among students generally and especially among the girl child in areas with high poverty incidence. Figure 2.2 shows the researcher’s own conceptualisation of how the GSFP can influence enrolment, attendance and retention of girls.
From Figure 2.3, the GSFP can influence enrolment, attendance and retention both directly and indirectly. The figure shows that the programme can have a direct increase in enrolment, attendance and retention since because enrolment and retention are necessary conditions for accessing the food at school. Parents will consider the school meals as a relief to their educational expenditure and will therefore, be motivated to enroll and keep their girls in school. This further explains that dropping out of school will limit ones access to the food; hence, parents will again be encouraged by the benefits of the GSFP to keep their in school to have a sustainable access. This invariably will improve retention figures.
The fact that the GSFP relies on home grown food to feed the school children provide a reliable market for farmers and market intermediaries. Its indirect effect on enrolment is that food production and marketing in the Wa Municipality will increase and consequently leads to improvement in household income. This will offer households the capacity to provide for their children needs in school and hence leading to improvement in enrolment, attendance and retention figures.

The conceptual framework in Figure 2.3 also shows that the provision of school meals for the children is a short-term hunger reduction strategy. Besides, the food provided is believed to have contained the entire nutritional requirement necessary for healthy life. This is expected to keep the children healthy and free from hunger during school hours that are necessary for them to attend school regularly. Unhealthy children on the other hand will not be able to attend School regularly.

It is therefore, believed that the GSFP can address some socio-economic factors that are limiting girls access to education in The Wa Municipality. This will occur through its capacity of improving household income, short-term hunger reduction, and providing nutrition for girls in school. This relative advantage is a form of motivation for parents to enrol and keep their girl child in school.

2.9 School Feeding Programme and Enrolment

According to Collins Thesaurus, (2002) the term school enrolment means admission, enlisting, recruitment or signing in of students to undergo training. Studies on the evaluation of the impact of School Feeding provide several benefits that have changed human life in different places. Economic, social and health impacts have been outlined by several empirical studies.
Solid empirical evidence of the impact of school feeding programmes on educational outcomes proves that school feeding increases school enrolment and attendance by reducing drop-out (Ahmed, 2004; Dreze and Kingdon, 2001; Lazmaniah et al., 1999). These studies have justified that feeding in schools serves as pull factors for poor families as it reduces home expenditure on food. Besides, the quality of food given at school in many instances meet the nutritional requirement compared with those prepared by poor families. Consequently, families are motivated to get their children enrolled because of the immediate benefits. There is also significant evidence that such interventions go beyond traditional educational outcomes by providing a wider range of short and long-term social and economic impacts.

Besides, further assessment of school feeding by WFP and the World Bank provide that the intervention remains a productive safety net in times of economic shock, protracted crisis and vulnerability, and emergency (Bundy et al., 2008). According to their assessment reports, school feeding was regarded as one of the programmes eligible for support from the US$1.2 billion Global Food Crisis Response Facility established in 2008 to address the global food and financial crises (Grosh et al., 2008). This means that among all possible food assistance interventions, school feeding represents a unique opportunity by providing multiple benefits at both the outcome/short-term and the impact/long-term levels. The implications of these findings is that, in period of economic crises, disasters and vulnerability, school feeding can minimize the magnitude of the effect through the provision of relief items (food) for the most affected and vulnerable groups (students).
From a different perspective, School feeding leads to increased time spent in school, through increased enrolment and attendance and decreased drop-out rates (Ahmed, 2004). It motivates parents to enroll their children in school and have them attend regularly. Moreover, when programmes succeed in reducing absenteeism and increase the duration of schooling, educational outcomes (performance, dropout, and repetition) get improved (Del Rosso, 1999). This position may be convincing especially in deprived areas of northern Ghana where some families cannot afford three square meals per day. Children have to regularly attend school to meet the quantity of food requirement per day.

Specifically for the Ghanaian case, Dua (2011) points out that one of the major aims of the Ghana School Feeding programme is to increase enrolment and retention in the basic school level. It is to serve as a magnet that will attract school children to be in school every day and be consistent throughout the stages of learning. Thus, improve feeding increase enrolment and reduce school dropout. The observation of Musah and Imoro (2015) in the Garu-Tempane district in the Upper East Region of Ghana points out that the GSFP has succeeded in increasing enrolment among participating schools. Similarly, Abotsi (2013) concluded that the programme has not only improved enrolment, but also attendance and retention. The writer further observed that the reverse in terms of these achievements has taken place in non-participating schools. The Ghana School Feeding Programs has improved the health status of the pupils. It has got the components needed for growth and development. The Ghana school feeding programme has increased dietary diversity of the diet of children in school. The programme has attained its own recommendation for protein and energy intake. However, iron intake is low while vitamin A intake is enough (Martens, 2007).
Researchers such as Alhassan (2013), Nkosha et al. (2013) and Dua (2011) argued that school feeding programmes cannot be seen as the only factor that influences enrolment in Ghana’s schools but other factors, such as, high pupil to teacher ratio, classroom accommodation, inadequate furniture, teacher pupil relationship, teacher absenteeism, cultural beliefs, among others, should be considered. This position implies that an assessment of the role of the feeding programme on enrolment should include a consideration of other factors that can have a significant influence besides feeding.

2.10 The Influence of School Feeding Programme on Female Enrolment in Ghana

The Ghana School Feeding Programme has chalked a lot of successes since its inception. It was revealed by Integrated Social Development Center-ISODEC (2015) that the Ghana School Feeding Programme coupled with the capitation grant has had a significant impact on enrolment. Thus, the gross enrolment rates between 2006-2008 gained a positive increase from about 93.7 percent to 95.2 percent. Mohammed and Sakara (2014) posit that the Ghana School Feeding Programme motivates pupils to stay in school and study. This leads to an improvement in the universal basic education.

It is a fact that the Ghana School Feeding Programme contributed to higher enrolment figures ISODEC (2015). However, it has not been able to completely settle the disparity matters thereby creating a gender access gap in enrolment. Gender was not given the needed attention during the plan and as the programme progressed, it had serious negative implications on girl child enrolment compared to boys. People prefer educating the boy child to that of the girl child with the
notion that the girl child will marry and would therefore not invest in the household but that of the husband (Alhassan, 2013). Nkosha et al. (2013) points out that several factors influence girl child enrolment and retention in basic schools in Ghana. These include: girl child education campaigns, government policies, cultural beliefs, among others.

2.11 The Influence of School Feeding Programmes on Attendance and Retention

In general the Ghana School Feeding Programme has influenced positively on the attendance and retention of pupils in the basic schools. Kedze (2013) states that the School Feeding Programme has gained prominence for its multi – roles in developing countries. What the writer meant is that enrolment alone is not the only challenge of achieving universal basic education but regular attendance and drop-out rates. The feeding programme, according to Kedze, motivates children to be present at schools as attendance is a necessary condition for access to the food. This is true within the Ghanaian context.

Bukari et al (2015) points out that there exists a positive link between the Ghana School Feeding Programme and academic performance. This revelation suggests that the school feeding programme has met its aims. Mohammed (2014) posits that the significant increase in enrolment is due to the fact that the School Feeding Programme motivates the pupils to stay in school and study leading to an improved universal basic education in the country. Mohammed (2014) therefore, suggests that though the one hot meal per school days is significant, pupils should be given snacks as supplements.
The author maintains that the importance of the nation school feeding programme must not under any circumstance be undermined. The national school feeding programme promotes and supports: the right to food, the right to education, local development and economic growth, food and nutrition security, gender enhancement and participation (Global Child Nutrition Forum, 2014). These efforts mark significant steps towards educational development in the country through achievement of universal basic education.

The empirical review has provided evidence on the effects of school feeding interventions on enrolment. The literature also provides that school feeding programmes leads to increase in attendance and reduction of drop-out rates in beneficiary schools in different places. These findings will serve as basis for comparing the influence of the GSFP on enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools in the Wa Municipality.

2.12 Summary
The literature discusses empirical review on the role of female education and interventions to increase enrolment of girls at basic schools. The review implies that several school feeding programmes have achieved success in enrolment, attendance, retention and academic performance in different countries such as Bangladesh. In Ghana, successful school feeding programmes have been implemented since the 1940s to date. Literature provides that the GSFP has improved enrolment in many of the beneficiary schools. However, no evidence on its effect on girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention has been provided. Besides, the fact that all the empirical studies on the subject has been conducted outside the Wa Municipality brings to the fore the need to conduct this study.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction
This chapter addresses the procedure of carrying out the research. First the chapter offers a description of the profile of the study area. The remaining parts of the chapter presents the research design, data types and sources, sampling size and sampling procedure, data collection instruments, and the method of data analysis.

3.2 Study Area
The survey was conducted in the Wa Municipality in the Upper West Region of Ghana. The study provides a detail profile of the Wa Municipality. Elements presented under the study area include location and size, population distribution, vegetation and climate, cultural activities, the local economy and educational status.

3.2.1 Location and communities
The Wa Municipality is one of the nine District/Municipal Assemblies that make up the Upper West Region (UWR) of Ghana. It shares administrative boundaries with the Nadowli District to the North, the Wa East District to the East and South and the Wa West District to the West and South. It lies within latitudes 1°40’N to 2°45’N and longitudes 9°32’ to 10°20’W (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). The implications of the location of the Municipality for development include; enhancing bilateral trade and commerce with the Franco phone countries of Burikina Faso and La Côte d’ivoire. Wa town has the potential of growing into both an industrial and commercial hub for the North-Western
corridor of Ghana. Many traders bring agricultural products to the markets centres that are mobilized and used for the Ghana School Feeding Programme.

Figure 3.1 presents a map depicting the Wa Municipality boundaries and selected major towns.

**Figure 3.1: Map of Wa Municipality**

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2014)
Figure 3.1 depicts the major communities in the Wa Municipality. They include the Wa township, Nakore, Chansa, Kpongu, Dandafuro, Piisi, Bamahu, Danko, Sing, Boli, Busa, Jonga, Konjiehi, Chegli and Kperisi. All these communities have basic educational infrastructure and hence have access to basic education.

The Wa Township serves as both the Municipal and Regional headquarters that has a lot of educational infrastructure. It contains several educational units under the Municipal Assembly; Islamic, Catholic, Presbyterian, Anglican, the Methodist and Ahmadiyya units. All these categories of schools have access to the Ghana School feeding Programme and have hence become beneficiaries.

3.2.2 Population distribution

According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census (PHC), the Wa Municipality has a total population of 107,214 (male: 52,996/female: 54,218). This constitutes 15.3% of the total population of the Upper West Region (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). The growth rate of the Municipality varies between 2.7% for rural and 4% for the urban. There is a growing population density and consequently pressure on land and educational infrastructure. The population structure of the Wa Municipality revealed that the youth are 49%, potential working population represents 47% and the aged 4%. This means a high dependency ratio since the economically active population is 47% compared to a dependent population of 53%. The population is also a female dominated one, that is, 51% against 49% males. This brings to the fore the need to take measures to improve female education for the growing population (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010).
Over 80.4% of people in the Municipality belong mainly to one linguistic group – the Mole-Dagbani group. The Dagaabas are the most populous. Other ethnic groups found in the Municipality include the Akan, Ewe, Ga, Dagomba, Grushi, Gonja, Sissala, Moshies who are engaged in government work and commercial activities (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). Children from all these categories of ethnic groups are found in school. The heterogeneity in the population structure therefore, does not influence gender access gap in education.

3.2.3 Religion
There are three main religious denominations in the Municipality; Christianity, Islam and worshipers of the African Traditional Religion. These main groups co-exist well although differences exist among them. All the dominant religious denominations (Islam and Christianity) have their own educational units especially at the basic level so that they can achieve academic excellence under their religious context (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). Again, this diversity does not breed discrimination in access to education. For instance, Muslims parents are allowed to send their children to Christian schools even if they do not share their belief.

3.2.4 Climate and Vegetation
The Wa Municipal Assembly Area has two marked seasons, namely: the wet and dry seasons. During the wet season, the South-Western Monsoon winds from the Atlantic Ocean bring rains between April and October, whilst the dry season, the North-Eastern Trade winds from the Sahara brings the long dryness between November and March. The mean annual rainfall varies between 840mm and 1400mm. Most of the rainfall occurs, between June and September and it is not
unusual to have very high rainfall figures concentrated in a few rainy days. One
feature of the rainfall pattern is that it tends to occur in heavy downpours, thus,
encouraging run-off rather than soil moisture retention. It has been calculated
that there are four (4) humid months, in terms of soil moisture conditions which
is only adequate for the cultivation of crops such as millet, guinea corn, yam,
groundnuts and beans. The rainfall pattern is irregular and unreliable.
Sometimes, it results in long period of no rain during the farming season which
affects harvest. This has implications for the type of vegetation (Ghana

The vegetation is of the Guinea Savannah type, made up of short trees with little
or no canopy and shrubs of varying heights and luxuriance, with grass ground
cover in the wet season. Commonly occurring trees are shea trees, dawadawa,
kapok and baobab. Cashew and mango are exotic species growing well in the
area. It may be noted that parts of the natural tree vegetation are disappearing due
mainly to human activities in the form of cultivation, construction, overgrazing,
bush fires and charcoal-burning, particularly at the suburbs of the Municipality.
Nevertheless, the vegetation supports livestock -rearing including cattle, sheep
and goats (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

The vegetation of the Municipality requires effective public education to curtail
its deterioration. This can be done through educational institutions such as basic
schools in the Wa Municipality. In consonance with this, educational curriculum
in Ghana at the basic school level covers ways of protecting the natural
environment. Increase in school enrolment, attendance and retention will
therefore, invariably improve the level of conservation of the environment.
Pupils, once regular in school, will acquire more knowledge on environmental studies, especially with regard to ways of protecting the environment. This justifies the implications of access to education on natural resource conservation. In sum, the firewood can be obtained from the forests to support the GSFP.

### 3.2.5 Cultural activities

The Way of life of the people of Wa Municipality is unique because inhabitants live in unity though some hail from different places. Some of the salient cultural features are:

- Festivals (Zunbenti, Dumba)
- Traditional Dances/Folk songs (Damba, Dugu, Jingo, Gangan, bawa)
- Traditional mud building
- Some aspects of chieftaincy
- Some aspects of religion (traditional, Christianity and Muslim)
- Traditional marriage processes
- Funeral organization

Following acculturation, literacy and globalisation, the negative effect of social and cultural activities on female education are minimizing. The role played by stakeholders in education such as gender activist has convinced society that women can equally play several roles that are played by men in development. Despite all forms of cultural activities in the Wa Municipality, female enrolment in basic schools keeps on improving over the years especially at the entry level. However, drop-out rate remains a challenge to girls’ education which may not be independent from the cultural and social life of the people in the Wa Municipality.
3.2.6 The Economy of the Municipality

The economy of the Wa Municipality has been dominated by agricultural activities. However, the situation has began to change. In the 2010 Population and Housing Census, it came out that the service sector employs about 51.3% of the working population, followed by agriculture 30.2% and industry 18.4% (GSS, 2010). Other key sectors of the economy are transport, tourism, communication and energy.

Agriculture

Under the agricultural sector, most of the farmers engaged in peasant cultivation and the main staple crops grown include millet, sorghum, maize, rice, cowpea, and groundnut cultivated on subsistence basis. However, soya beans, groundnuts, bambara beans are produced as cash crops. Animal rearing is done together with other livelihood activities such as crop production (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

The state of agricultural production in the Wa Municipality is not different from that found in northern Ghana. In the whole area, about 86% of the population is engaged in agriculture as a source of livelihood dominated by crop production (Inkoom and Nanguo, 2011). Most of the farm enterprises are still dominated by semi-subsistence production of staple crops not suitable for profit maximization strategy (Al-Hassan and Poulton, 2007). As a result, poverty still predominates as average household annual income remains at US$65.00 and poverty headcount index was 83.9% in 2006 (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008).

The subsistence farming practiced by households has implications for educational development. The average annual income of households is often small, which is
not sufficient in meeting the basic necessities of life (food, shelter and clothing). Poor households therefore, find it difficult in meeting the required educational expenditure. It is, therefore, anticipated that such poor households will rely heavily on government interventions in subsidising the cost of education. The Ghana School Feeding Programme can be a relief through enhancing access to education among beneficiary schools. Despite the subsistence nature of production in the Municipality, yet the GSFP relies on agricultural output for its sustainability. Local agricultural production should be encouraged to sustain the programme.

3.2.7 Support Organizations/Institutions

**The Municipal Assembly:** The Wa Municipal Assembly has five Zonal Councils (Wa, Busa, Kperisi, Kpong and Boli) and 73 Unit Committees. Each community in the Municipality has a Unit Committee that works through the Area /Urban Councils to the Assembly level. There are five mandatory sub-committees, namely, development planning, finance and administration, social services, works and justice and security (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

The Municipal Assembly coordinates all development activities. It works in collaboration with different organizations to address the felt needs of the people. In the area of education, the Assembly plays a significant role in the implementation of programmes and projects such as provision of educational infrastructure. The Municipal Assembly is a major stakeholder of the GSFP. Its functions include releasing resources and receiving reports during the programmes implementation. Besides, the Assembly design and implement
measures to enhance female enrolment, attendance and retention in school (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

Traditional Authorities: Traditional Authorities, as part of culture and local administrative set-up play a vital role in generating good governance, particularly in Ghana. The role of the chieftaincy institution relates to matters such as land administration, maintenance of peace and conflict resolution and community revenue mobilisation.

The traditional institutions provide land and communal labour for the construction of public schools. Infrastructure such as store rooms and kitchens that are necessary for the implementation of the GSFP in communities are normally provided by traditional authorities in collaboration with the school’s Parent Teacher Association (PTA). In the hinterlands of the Wa Municipality, communities provide accommodation and food for teachers as a form of motivation to improve upon their educational development. This support mechanism facilitates educational development that can manifest into increase in enrolment and improvement in academic performance; and hence projecting Traditional Authorities as major stakeholders of education is of paramount importance (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010). Besides, their role in providing educational infrastructure and promoting peace provides an enabling environment for the implementation of national/local policies such as the GSFP.

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs): There are a number of NGOs, which operate in the Municipality. Some of these include, the United Nations International Children Emergency Fund (UNICEF), World Food Programme (WFP), the Ghana Red Cross Society, Methodist Agricultural Project, the
The NGOs sometime collaborate with state and local institutions for the achievement of common objectives. For example, they engage in public education to create households awareness on the role of female education and the need to benefit from educational interventions such as the GSFP. The success of the GSFP, for instance, will depend on support organisations such as NGOs that are operating in the Wa Municipality (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

3.2.8 Educational attainment and literacy

The Various educational Institutions in the Wa Municipality are; Nurseries (78), Primary Schools (76), Junior High Schools (59), Special Schools (2), Senior High /Tech. (1), Technical /Vocational (4), SHS (6), Nursing Training College (1), Teacher Training College (1), Polytechnic (1), and University (1) (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). The existence of educational institutions at all levels suggests that girls can have the opportunity of getting access to basic education in the Wa Municipality.

Of the population of up to 11 years and above, 65.2 percent are literates and 34.8 percent are non-literates. The proportion of literate males (74.1%) is higher than that of females (56.7%). It has been found out that six out of ten people (60.7%) indicate they can speak and write both English and Ghanaian Languages. Of the
population up to 3 years and above (48,131) in the Municipality, 22.2% has ever attended primary school in the past and 37.0% are currently attending school (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

For the country, the proportion of the population that has ever attended school is 61.2 per cent in 2000, (66.9% of males and 59.5% females). This means that the proportions who have never attended school at the national level is 38.8 per cent (33.1% males and 44.5% females). Comparing these national figures with those for Upper West Region, one observes a very wide gap in the educational attainment between the country as a whole and the Region. In the Region, 69.8 per cent of the population, aged 6 years and older, have never attended school (65.1% males and 73.9% females). Data on current enrolment shows that the gap between boys and girls in school attendance is minimal. At the entry point of both primary (74.5% boys and 75.6% girls) and Junior High School (36.4% boys and 36.3% girls) the proportions of boys and girls admitted are about equal, but at every level, the proportion of girls progressing to the next grade reduces from one grade to the next. This disparity in the region has a replication in the Wa Municipality (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

The GSFP has one of its objectives as to increase enrolment, attendance and retention. This study will therefore, discover how the programme objectives influence enrolment, attendance and retention figures for girls in beneficiary schools.

3.3 Research design

A research design is the determination and statement of general research or strategy adopted for a particular project. Leary (2001) maintains that it is a
blueprint or set of plans for carrying out the study. It forms the architecture of
every study and explains how the study is going to be constructed (Kumar, 2011).
The design therefore, represents plans and procedures for research that span the
decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and
analysis (Creswell, 2009). Various designs have been identified in social science.
They include Survey, Exploratory, Explanatory, Descriptive, Experimental,
among others. According to Kothari (2004), research purposes may be grouped
into four categories: Exploration, Description, Diagnosis and Experimentation.
A flexible research design which provides opportunity for considering many
different aspects of a problem is considered appropriate if the purpose of the
research study is that of exploration. Thus, an exploratory study merely leads to
insights or hypotheses. If the study happens to be an exploratory or a
formulative one, wherein the major emphasis is on discovery of ideas and insights,
the research design most appropriate must be flexible enough to permit the
consideration of many different aspects of a phenomenon. This study will use the
exploratory design based on these relative advantages.
Also, research is categorised as Qualitative, Quantitative or Mixed methods.
Creswell (2009) explains these three approaches in social science. The distinction
between qualitative and quantitative research is framed in terms of using words
(qualitative) rather than numbers (quantitative), or close ended questions rather
than open ended questions. Mixed methods strategy resides in the middle of this
continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative
approaches.
Mixed methods research in social science is an approach to enquiry that combines both the qualitative and quantitative forms. It involves philosophical assumptions and using of both approaches in the study. Baker (1999) notes that, mixed methods enables a researcher to gather evidence from multiple sources to address the questions at hand from different points of view. One advantage of triangulation is that it can broaden the research and at the same time strengthen the validity of the research. In mixed design, the researcher builds knowledge on pragmatic grounds (Maxcy, 2003) and searching the truth is “what works” (Howe, 1998).

This study used a triangulation of research approaches which is described under this content as mixed methods design. According to Creswell and Plano-Clark (2007), the mix method strengthens more the use of either quantitative or qualitative. Employing both qualitative and quantitative approaches in this study is expected to increase the comprehensiveness of the overall findings, by showing how the qualitative data provides explanations for statistical data to increase the methodological rigour as findings in both phases could be checked for consistency (Creswell, 2009).

The quantitative aspect of this study involved the analysis of enrolment, attendance and retention figure of girls relative to boys. On the other hand, the qualitative aspect covered the analysis of programme activities with special attention for girls, analysis of socio-demographic factors influencing girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention, and how the GSFP motivates parents to enrol and keep their girls in school.
The rationale for using triangulation is that neither qualitative nor quantitative methods are sufficient for themselves to bring out details of the situation. Besides, qualitative and quantitative researches each has its limitations; hence, the limitations of one method can be offset by the strengths of the other method. In this study, the impact of the GSFP was assessed using data that was previously collected by the Ghana Education Services on enrolment of students in the various schools. Analysis of this data require quantitative approaches and could not be presented in qualitative forms such as narratives. Besides, the experience of major stakeholders on whether the programme has addressed the needs of girls in the school as well as the socio-cultural factors addressed by the programme were examples of the qualitative data and could not be analyse using statistics. The use of both approaches in the study provide basis for the use of triangulation as the main research approach.

3.4 Sources of Data
The study used primary and secondary data. The primary data were obtained from the GSFP implementation committee and head teachers of the various schools. These types of data covered the programme activities and how they influenced girls’ enrolment in particular, the effect of the feeding programme on attendance and retention of girls in the various schools. The data also covered other determinants of enrolment besides the GSFP and measures taken by stakeholders to improve enrolment of girls in basic schools.

The secondary data consist of trends in enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools. These data were obtained from schools that are benefitting
from the GSFP, the Municipal Education Directorate as well as Journals and books.

3.5 Study Population

The population of the study covered head teachers and stakeholders of the 78 basic schools in the Wa Municipality that are benefiting from the GSFP. In the Wa Municipality, all the public schools are benefiting from the Ghana School Feeding Programme. Head teachers are useful in this study because they perform school curricular activities and can provide data on enrolment, attendance and retention of pupils.

Besides, there are major stakeholders of the GSFP such as the Municipal Assembly collaborates with the Municipal Implementation Committee (MIC) and the School Implementation Committee (SIC) that manage and implement the programme at the local level. They are in charge of food procurement and logistic spending. The MIC is in charge of planning and monitoring of the programme in all the beneficiary schools whilst the SIC does the implementation and supervision in their respective schools (GSFP Annual Operating Plan, 2008). These institutions are conversant with the programme activities.

Sampling

According to Kane (1998), sampling may be described as the act or technique of selecting and studying characteristics of only some segment of people, situation or items within a given group for the purpose of determining parameters of the whole population. Sampling is where portion of the population is taken for the study because the population is large and will consume too much time, money
and effort to question every one (Pratt and Loizos, 1992). A sample is, therefore, the segment of the population that is selected for investigation (Ofori and Dampson, 2011). In this study the sampling was drawn from drawn from the 78 schools that are benefiting from the GSFP. The fact that all schools are beneficiaries precludes the inclusion of non-beneficiary schools in the study. The selection of all respondents in the study was therefore, strictly based on schools that are benefiting from the programme.

3.5.1 Sample Size
A sample is the segment of the population that is selected for investigation. The size of a sample may be small (less than 30) or large (greater than or equal to 30) depending on the nature of the study, manageability or accessibility of target population (Ofori and Dampson, 2011). The study used 65 head teachers, 1 Municipal Director of Education, 1 person (Chairman) from the Municipal Implementation Committee, 2 circuit supervisors, two focus group discussions consisting of 10 parents each. In all, the respondents sum up to 89 people.

3.5.2 Sampling technique and procedure
Sampling procedures are classified into probability and non-probability methods. In probability sampling, each unit of the population has equal chance of being selected as a unit in the sample whiles in non-probability sampling, the units of analysis do not have equal chance of being selected (Panneerselvam, 2007). The author further indicates that whiles probability sampling is more rigorous and free from biases, in non-probability sampling, there are instances that certain units of the population will have zero chance of selection, because judgment, biases and
convenience of the interviewer are considered to be the criteria for the selection of sample units of such sampling.

Both probability and non-probability sampling procedures were used in selecting respondents. A probability sampling procedure was used to select headteachers of the beneficiary schools while non-probability sampling technique was used to select respondents from the Municipal Implementation Committee, Circuit Supervisors, The Municipal Education Director and PTA.

First, on the probability sampling, the beneficiary schools of the programme are homogeneous in operations under the GSFP. They all work towards achieving similar objectives under the GSFP and use the same educational framework. This homogeneity requires the use of probability sampling technique. A multi-stage sampling technique was used to select on the first stage some circuits in the Wa Municipality and on the second stage, beneficiary schools. According to Kothari (2004), multi-stage sampling is applied when the population is regarded as being composed of a number of primary sampling units, each of them being made up of a number of second stage units in each selected primary sample units and so the procedure continues down to the final sampling unit, with the sampling ideally being random at each stage. Its application in this study involved the selection of circuits and schools. The first stage therefore, involved the selection of circuits and the second stage the selection of schools from.

On the first stage, a simple random sampling technique was used to select the circuits. Simple random sampling gives equal chance to all respondents for being selected at random (Panneerselvam, 2007). Each beneficiary school under the GSFP is qualified to be included in the sample and this explains the reason for
their random selection. The procedure for selecting these schools followed a mathematical approach proposed by Miller and Brewer (2003) for sample size determination specified as:

\[ n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} \]

Where \( n \) = sample size; \( N \) = sample frame and \( e \) = error or significance level.

According to Ahuja (2001), an acceptable error level traditionally is up to ± 0.05 or ± 0.10 (i.e., 5 or 10 percentage point). In this study, \( N = 78 \) and \( e = 5\% = 0.05 \). Therefore,

\[ n = \frac{78}{1 + 78(0.05)^2} = 65. \]

The first stage selection picked 65 schools that are benefiting from the GSFP at random. Specifically, a sampling frame of the schools was generated and a computer was further used to generate random numbers. The schools corresponding to the numbers were noted and numbers used to identify the selected schools for involvement in the study.

On the second stage, head teachers of the selected primary schools were selected purposively because of their exclusive knowledge in school administration. Head teachers in basic schools play both the academic and administrative role together and would have knowledge on pupils’ enrolment, attendance and retention. They also prepare reports to the Municipal Assembly on the outcome of GSFP and double as the programme committee members at the school level.

For the non-probability sampling, purposive sampling technique was used. In purposive sampling, individuals, groups and settings are considered for selection if they have sufficient information on the phenomenon under investigation (Patton, 2002). In this study, the chairperson of the Municipal Implementation
Committee and the schools’ Parent Teacher Association (PTA) were considered to have more knowledge on the Programme activities and its effects. The chairperson of the Municipal Implementation Committee was contacted to get updates on the programme targets and current efforts towards achieving them. Besides, PTA of the various schools had knowledge on how the GSFP motivates parents to enroll and keep their girls in schools. These two groups of respondents were selected using purposive sampling technique. The researchers directly contacted these personalities and interviewed them.

3.6 Data collection Instruments
The data collection tools were questionnaire, an in-depth interview and Focus Group Discussion. The use of these tools together in one study was dictated by the use of triangulation of methods as used in the study. First, questionnaire alone would not have been able to gather in-depth responses from the key informants. On the other hand head teachers were too many and the use of in-depth interviews would be tedious.

3.6.1 Questionnaire
A questionnaire is a document containing questions and other types of items such as statements designed to solicit information on specific issues, themes, problems or opinions to be investigated (Kumekpor, 2002). In designing a questionnaire, researchers consider the working sample units level of understanding of the research issue before settling on either open-ended or closed-ended questions or both (Smith, 1975). The open ended format allowed exploration of the range of possible themes arising from an issue. In closed format, respondents are forced to choose between several given options. They can be divided into structured,
unstructured and semi-structured questionnaires. While structured questionnaires provide predetermined closed-ended answers for respondents to choose from, in semi-structured questionnaires, open-ended questionnaires are provided and respondents are at liberty to give any answers (Karma, 1999; Twumasi, 2001).

A combination of structured and semi-structured questionnaire was used in this research to solicit relevant responses from head teachers. Questionnaires are relatively quick and easy to understand by using codes. Besides, the researcher contacted a large number of respondents quickly, easily and efficiently using a questionnaire, once the targeted group has been identified. Besides, a questionnaire is easy to standardize. For example, every respondent is asked the same question in the same way. This feature of a questionnaire makes it a very reliable method of data collection. It is easier to quantify and make statistical inferences with it. Questionnaires also allows respondents to provide candid opinions and anonymity is assured.

In this study, questionnaires were administered on headteachers to gather data on enrolment, attention and retention. The questionnaires were used to gather responses covering the factors influencing enrolment, attendance and retention of pupils. Questions were also asked on the strategies to improve these variables. The relatively large number of the respondents permitted the use of questionnaire as an instrument of data collection.

3.6.2 Interview

Face-to-Face interview is the most commonly used technique for conducting a systematic inquiry and most social researchers regard it as a window on the world (Holstein and Gubrium, 1999). This study used interview schedule which serves
as a guide in conducting a face-to-face interview on the field. The respondents were engaged in a semi-standardized interview where some pre-determined questions would be asked in a systematic and consistent order. The essence of a face-to-face interaction is also to create an enabling environment for the respondent to fully participate and express concerns about the subject matter. In this study, interview was granted to the chairperson of the MIC and Circuit Supervisors for them to share their knowledge on the activities of the GSFP and how that influences the enrolment, attendance and retention figures of girls.

3.6.3 Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

Focus Group Discussion is a form of strategy in qualitative research in which attitudes, opinions or perceptions towards an issue, product, service or programme are explored through a free and open discussion between members of a group and the researcher (Kumar, 2011). It is a rapid assessment, semi-structured, data gathering process in which participants are purposely selected by the researcher to discuss issues and concerns on key themes on the subject under investigation. It takes a form of group interview in which there are several participants in addition to the moderator/facilitator (Ofori and Dampson, 2011). There is emphasis in the questioning on a particular fairly tightly defined topic and the goal is upon interaction within the group. Tayie (2005) also indicates that in FGD, from 6 to 12 people are interviewed simultaneously, with a moderator leading the respondents in a relatively free discussion about the focal topic.

The number and size of groups to consider according to Ofori and Dampson (2011) depends on the nature of the study. They added that involving many groups will provide comprehensive responses about the phenomenon under
investigation but will increase the complexity of the analysis since it will be difficult to determine who says what. Many studies therefore, increase the group size and limit the number of groups or the vice versa.

In this study, a FGD was conducted on PTA of beneficiary schools on the how the GSFP motivates parents to enroll and keep their girls in school. The group size will range from 6 to 12 participants depending on the turn out of the respondents. Three FGD will be held in different schools.

3.6.4 Key informant Interview

Key Informants are individuals who are articulated and knowledgeable about a subject matter. They are usually very informative and possess insight and understanding of specific issues (Kothari, 2004). In this study, the Municipal Director of Education was considered as a key informant as far as enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools in the Wa Municipality are concerned. He/she was interviewed to share with the researcher the measures being put in place to improvement girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention.

3.7 Data Analysis

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used to analyze the data. Data gathered with a questionnaire was coded and entered into the SPSS spread sheet where further transformation was done on issues identified. Descriptive statistics was used to describe and analyze data collected respectively. The outcome of the interview was analysed and discussed. Such findings supported the statistical results. Various conclusions were drawn from the findings of the study.
3.8 Validity and reliability

An instrument is valid if it measures what it is intended to measure and accurately achieves the purpose for which it is designed (Patton, 2004). He further emphasizes that validity is a matter of degree and discussion should focus on how valid a test is, not whether it is valid or not. The researcher needs some kind of assurance that the instrument being used will result in accurate conclusions. These principles were addressed when designing the questionnaire, and interview guide through the pre-testing of the instrument.

To ensure the validity of the instruments, the questionnaire was given an approval by a supervisor for scrutiny, since validity is determined by expert judgment (Tannor, 2011). Apart from this, the instrument was tested in determining how reliable it is for data collection. Pretesting of the survey instruments is to help identify potential challenges during the main study by improving the interview questions, avoid repetition and to identify key issues to be investigated (Tannor, 2011). Few revisions are expected to be made to the instruments after the pre-test. Specifically, the pre-test is conducted to:

- Develop and test adequacy of the research instruments
- Assess the feasibility of the survey instruments; and
- Assess whether or not the research protocol is realistic and workable

3.9 Ethical consideration

Ethical matters or considerations are very important for every research adventure or study (McNamara, 1994). This is most important for studies that involve the use of human subjects. Participants have a right to know what the research is about, how it will affect them, the risks and benefits of participation and the fact that they have the right to decline to participate if they choose to do so.
Respondents were assured the maximum confidentiality that the data is required for academic purpose only. They would also be briefed on the possible impact of the study.

According to Creswell (2005), gaining access involves obtaining permission to sites and individual and negotiating approval with these individuals at a site who can facilitate the collection of research data. To gain access into the key informant, a letter of introduction was obtained from the University to convince respondents on the purpose of the study.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents analysis and discussions of the results covering the research objectives. First, the analysis and discussions are presented on the background information of respondents. The other sections discuss issues relating to the activities of the GSFP on girls enrolment, the influence of the GSFP on enrolment, attendance and retention of girls, other factors influencing enrolment of girls, motivation of parents to enrol their girls and how the programme addresses the socio-economic factors influencing girls enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools in the Wa Municipality.

4.2 Background Information of Respondents

4.2.1 Gender of Headteachers

The results of the study revealed that out of the 65 headteachers from various schools in the Wa Municipality included in the sample, 39 were males and 26 were females representing 60% and 40% respectively. The distribution is shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: Respondents’ Gender

The results on gender distribution show that male respondents are more than their female counterparts. This means that more of the sample schools are headed by male teachers than female teachers. Despite the uneven distribution of respondents by gender, at least, significant proportion (40.0%) is female head teachers. The female head teachers can serve as role models for the girls in school. This can be a motivation for girls to enrol and attend school regularly.

4.2.2 Years Spent teaching in present school

Respondents have taught in their present schools for different periods of time. The results in Table 4.1 show that the minimum years of experience of teaching among the respondents is 1 and the maximum is 10. Besides, the mean years of experience is 4.2 with a standard deviation of 2.7.

Table 4.1: Years of Teaching Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Years in present school</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>2.711</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From the table, respondents have average experience in their current school for more than four years. This is considered sufficient for teachers to have had knowledge on the influence of the Ghana School Feeding Programme on girls’ enrolment.
4.3 How the GSFP addresses the needs of girls in basic schools

4.3.1 The GSFP and reward for performance

It was inquired from respondents to indicate their opinions on whether the GSFP has a component that reward performance in terms of enrolment, attendance and retention. The results indicated that 33 respondents representing 50.8% confirm that the GSFP undertake such initiative while 32 respondents denoting 49.2% said such an initiative does not exist. The distribution is shown in table 4.2.

Table 4. 2: The GSFP Reward for Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The GSFP Reward for Performance</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results on whether the activities of GSFP include rewards for performance in terms of enrolment, attendance and retention provided mixed findings. Respondents were not very certain as to whether the programme activities motivate for the performance indicators. The results imply that the programme has no defined activity to reward good performance in terms of enrolment, attendance and retention. However, special motivation from the programme can be given to outstanding students in some areas as a way of encouraging other to perform. This consequently will improve enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools.
4.3.2 Activities of the GSFP and Gender Sensitivity

Respondents were required to indicate whether in their opinion the GSFP is gender sensitive. The results point out that 41 respondents representing 63.1% were of the view that the programme is not gender sensitive. For example one of the headteachers indicated that “the Ghana School Feeding Programme is not designed to favour only boys or girls, everything is the same for both gender” However, 24 representing 36.9% said the programme is gender sensitive. The distribution of the responses is shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: GSFP and Gender Sensitivity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GSFP &amp; Gender sensitivity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>63.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Table 4.3, majority of the respondents have indicated that the GSFP has not been gender sensitive. What is implied is that a major component of the programme has not been given to either only boys or girls. However, the fact that 36.9% of the sample respondents have a different opinion on the issues provided mixed findings on the activities of the GSFP on gender. This therefore, brings to the fore the controversy on the role of the GSFP on gender.

Further analysis has established why the GSFP is or is not gender sensitive. The results then shows that 29 respondents representing 44.6% explained that there is equality in the system hence the programme is not gender sensitive while 14 respondents representing 21.6% indicated that the GSFP gives priority to girls.
making the programme gender sensitive. Also, 3 respondents representing 4.6% indicated that no special treatment is given to any group (gender) therefore, making it not gender sensitive. Moreover, only 1 respondent denoting 1.5% of the sample was of the view that the programme has boosted the enrolment of girls in the Municipality therefore, making it gender sensitive. However, 18 respondents who represent 27.7% of sample population did not respond to the question. From the results, majority of the respondents shared the belief that the programme has not got any stated objective in favour of a particular gender. This suggests that it is generally, not sensitive in terms of gender.

4.3.3 Activities of GSFP with special attention for girls

Respondents were asked whether in their opinion there are other activities of the GSFP that have special attention for girls. The Municipal Director of Education had this to say:

“The GSFP does not spell out specific activity that gives special attention for girls in basic schools but then it provides food and nutritious meal for both girls and boys”

Further explanations by the respondent, however implied that the selection process of beneficiary schools considers several factors including the schools current levels of enrolment. Since female education has been given priority by many educational development interventions in Ghana, schools with least enrolment of girls may be considered. This means that the programme gives attention to gender disparity during the selection phase.
Among the 65 sampled head teachers, 45 of them representing 69.2% also maintained that the programme does not have any stated activity aimed at influencing enrolment, attendance and retention figures for only girls. A respondent indicated that “the programme objective is to increase enrolment but only for girls” This means that the objective of the GSFP only aim at achieving increase in gross enrolment, attendance and retention for both boys and girls. The case of gender disparity has not been given much attention by the stated activities of the programme.

However, 8 respondents representing 12.4% of the sample indicate that the programme promotes girl child education through special monitoring. One of these respondents further stated that “female education in Ghana has been given attention by all interventions geared towards increasing performance”. This implies that even though the GSFP has no stated objective for girls alone, its activities indirectly pay attention for female enrolment, attendance and retention in particular.

While there exists no stated special attention for girls relative to boys in the objectives of the GSFP, some respondents indicated that the programme covers distribution of sanitary towels for girls in schools. These items motivate girls to remain in school in order to have a sustainable access.
4.4 Influence of GSFP on Enrolment, Attendance and Retention

4.4.1 Educational Enrolment between 2002, 2004 and 2016 in the Wa Municipality

According to Birdsall and Levine (2005) addressing educational enrolment is critical promoting girl child education. Therefore, there was the need to assess previous enrolment with current impact of the GSFP on enrolment. Against this backdrop, the researcher requested from the Education Directorate in the Wa Municipality previous enrolment statistics before the coming of the GSFP. Table 4.4 presents statistics on educational enrolment in the Wa Municipality.

According to the Ghana Education Service (2016), before the enlistment of the Municipality as part of beneficiary Districts, 4,021 representing about 35% of pupils were enrolled in Kindergarten in 2002. This number reduced to 3,510 (30.55%) in 2004. Inadequate support from government at the time may have accounted for this reduction. Further, Table 4.4 also indicate that 23,219 (30.3%) of pupils were enrolled in Primary Schools in 2002 in the Wa Municipality. However, this number increased to 28,190 (36.8%) in 2004. As compared to the 2002 academic year, enrolment for 2004 at the Primary level increased sharply owing to factors explained by focal persons as support from home or other factors. This finding is illustrated in Table 4.4.
Table 4.4 Educational Enrolment Statistics of Kindergarten and Primary in Wa between 2002 and 2004

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS</th>
<th>KG Enrolment</th>
<th>Rate</th>
<th>PRIMARY Enrolment</th>
<th>Rate</th>
<th>TOTAL (KG &amp; Prim.)</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>4,021</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>23,219</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>27,240</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003</td>
<td>3,958</td>
<td>-1.57</td>
<td>25,186</td>
<td>8.47</td>
<td>29,144</td>
<td>6.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>3510</td>
<td>-12.7</td>
<td>28,190</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>31,700</td>
<td>16.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11,489</td>
<td></td>
<td>76,595</td>
<td></td>
<td>88,084</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GES, 2016

Again, the GES (2016) further indicated that, in all, the enrolment of boys and girls after the enlistment of the GSFP in the Wa Municipality stood at 12,162 (49.67%) for boys and 12,324 (50.33%) for girls in the 2015/2016 academic year. These enrolment figures imply that there is an improvement in enrolment owing to the GSFP. Table 4.4 also reveals that gross enrolment rate shows an improvement in primary schools but decreases (negative) in the Kindergarten. This suggests that the primary school enrolment was rising from the year 2002 to 2003 at a rate of 8.47%, and to 2004 at a rate of 21.4%.

After the piloting stage, the Ghana School Feeding Programme was implemented covering many schools in 2011. Hence the year 2010/2011 has been considered as base year to examine the influence of the programme effect on enrolment. Gross enrolment rates have been estimated for both boys and girls in the various academic years. The rates are estimated by subtracting the base year enrolment from current year gross enrolment and dividing the result by the base year gross enrolment. The final result is then expressed as a percentage. Table 4.5 illustrates the enrolment rate of boys and girls in 2010/2011 academic year and 2015/2016 academic year.
Table 4.5: Educational Enrolment Statistics for Males (Boys) and Females (Girls)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Rates</th>
<th>Girls</th>
<th>Rates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010/2011</td>
<td>11559</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>11685</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011/2012</td>
<td>11685</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>11765</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012/2013</td>
<td>11821</td>
<td>2.267</td>
<td>11833</td>
<td>1.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013/2014</td>
<td>11897</td>
<td>2.924</td>
<td>12068</td>
<td>3.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014/2015</td>
<td>12012</td>
<td>3.919</td>
<td>12232</td>
<td>4.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015/2016</td>
<td>12162</td>
<td>5.216</td>
<td>12324</td>
<td>5.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GES, 2016

The results in the table revealed an improvement in enrolment rate among both the males and females pupils. Boys enrolment rate increase by 1.25% over the 2010/2011 academic year. The subsequent years’ rates also suggest that boys enrolment continues to improve up to the 2015/2016 academic year. Besides, girls’ enrolment rate is lower than boys in the year 2011/2012 despite the fact that the gross enrolment of girls is higher than boys. The year 2012/2013 also show that girls’ enrolment rate is lower than boys. However, girls’ enrolment show rates show an improvement over the previous years and hence are higher than that of boys. This difference in enrolment could be explained by the Ghana School Feeding Programme.

Table 4.4 and Table 4.5 revealed unexpected results. It was expected that enrolment rates in Table 4.5 show an improvement over that of Table 4.4 because gross enrolment increases over the years. The possible justification for this observation could be due to the effect of private schools. In the early 2000s, private schools were not as many as they are today and this explains why
enrolment in those days in the public sector is higher than enrolment (in public sector) today.

The net enrolment of girls in primary school was estimated by taking a ratio of enrolment of girls within 6 – 11 years (primary school age) to the total girls within 6-11 years in the Wa Municipality and the ratio is multiplied by 100. The results are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Enrolment Statistics of Girls (6-11 years) Relative to the Girls Population (6-11 years) in Wa Municipality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Girls (6-11 years) enrolment</th>
<th>Girls (6-11 year) Population</th>
<th>Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>11685</td>
<td>12917</td>
<td>90.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>11765</td>
<td>13170</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>11833</td>
<td>13428</td>
<td>88.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>12068</td>
<td>13661</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2014</td>
<td>12232</td>
<td>13923</td>
<td>87.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>12324</td>
<td>14190</td>
<td>86.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Author’s Estimation from GSS (2014)

The net enrolment rate suggests that enrolment of girls decreases over the years. The rate is high (90.5%) in 2010 and decreases in the succeeding years. In the 2015/2016 academic year, net enrolment of girls within the ages of 6-11 years is 86.8%. The justification for this decreasing trend is as a result of the continuous growth of private schools in the Wa Municipality. As a result, the share of girls enrolment keep on declining as private schools increases.

However, in table 4.5a, the rates are estimated using the base year of 2010. The results suggest a continuous increase in enrolment over the years. This means that
girls’ enrolment increases at a decreasing rate. Despite the fact that the net enrolment of girls decrease in the succeeding years, yet there is an improvement over the 2010 figure following the introduction of the Ghana School Feeding Programme.

4.4.2 Impact of GSFP on Enrolment

Specifically, when respondents were asked how they will describe the influence of the GSFP on girl’s enrolment, 41 respondents representing 63% confirm that the GSFP has led to High enrolment of girls within the Wa Municipality. Besides, 14 respondents representing 21.6% of the sample head teachers maintain that enrolment of girls in the Municipality is encouraging due to the intervention of the GSFP. The distribution of respondents’ opinion on the influence of the GSFP on enrolment of girls is shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: The Influence of GSFP on Enrolment of Girls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence of GSFP on girls enrollment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High enrolment</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>63.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encouraging</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unchanged</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Table 4.7, some (4.6%) respondents however, indicated that enrolment figures have remained unchanged despite the intervention of the GSFP. Besides, 7 respondents representing 10.8% of the sample respondents did not respond because they have no stand on the issue.
The results imply that many head-teachers of basic schools believe that the programme has a positive influence on the enrolment of girls in the various schools. This findings agree with empirical studies that gross enrolment figure in basic schools have increased during the period of the GSFP. This increase has reflected in girls in the Wa Municipality and sustained as provided by the findings of this study.

A respondent (from the Municipal Education Office) a Circuit Supervisor indicated that:

“the GSFP has boosted enrolment especially in the rural areas. For example, in 2012, 28000 children were being fed but currently we have over 32000 pupils fed in the schools”.

This respondent has been able to demonstrate with figures, the effect of the GSFP on enrolment of pupils. This means that gross enrolment has increased more in the rural areas. However, gender disparity in rural and urban areas has not been revealed from the findings. Further analysis in Table 4.8 revealed that enrolment of girls in the rural areas show a relatively improvement over that of urban areas.
results in the Table 4.8 suggest that girls enrolment rates keep on rising in both urban and rural areas. For urban areas, enrolment rate is 0.16% in 2011/2012 academic year over the 2010/2011 academic year (base year). This figure rises slowly up to 2.23% in the 2015/2016 academic year. In the rural areas, girls enrolment rate is 1.45% in the 2011/2012 academic year over the 2010/2011 academic year. This figure rises steeply to 6.11% to 8.89% and finally to 10.2% in the 2013/2014, 2014/2015, and 2015/2016 academic years. This has confirmed that girls enrolment rates showed an improvement in rural areas than in urban areas. The results mean that the GSFP have contributed to an increase in enrolment of girls in rural areas than in urban areas.

Further analysis of enrolment trend of boys and girls in beneficiary schools from 2010/11 to 2015/16 academic years revealed that enrolment of both boys and girls keep on rising over the years, however, girls enrolment is above that of boys for
the period. The illustration is shown in Table 4.8 and appendix 1 (a). Both Table 4.8 and Appendix 1 (b) show the enrolment statistics of boys and girls in the 2015/2016 academic year among the sample schools alone. The data revealed a uniform trend of girls enrolment in among the various classes. This can be attributed to the motivation from the GSFP.

Table 4.9: Enrolment of boys and girls in 2015/16 academic year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>2316</td>
<td>2189</td>
<td>-5.5</td>
<td>2210</td>
<td>1938</td>
<td>-12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2076</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>2179</td>
<td>2054</td>
<td>-5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>2173</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>1975</td>
<td>2290</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>1759</td>
<td>3293</td>
<td>87.2</td>
<td>1768</td>
<td>2065</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5</td>
<td>1703</td>
<td>2065</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>1622</td>
<td>2256</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6</td>
<td>1608</td>
<td>1980</td>
<td>23.1</td>
<td>1486</td>
<td>2120</td>
<td>42.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Computed from GES (2016)

The results in Table 4.9 show that enrolment rates for boys start from negative in the base year and increases steadily along the various classes. Besides, girls enrolment rates starts at negative in primary 1 and rise steadily along the succeeding classes. The data show an improvement in enrolment rates for both boys and girls in the current year. However, the increase in enrolment for girls is higher than that of boys in most of the classes. The evidence suggests that the Ghana School Feeding Programe has made a positive impact on female enrolment.
In appendix 2, a test of hypothesis was done to validate whether there exist a significant difference between boys enrolment and that of girls. Enrolment data of boys and girls from 2010/11 to 2015/16 academic years were used. The result of t-test (see appendix 2) revealed a significant difference (at 1%) between boys and girls enrolment over the period. Girls’ enrolment has risen above that of boys in the period of effective implementation of the Ghana School feeding Programme. This suggests that the programme contributes to the trend of enrolment observed in the Wa Municipality.

Respondents were asked to indicate in their opinion whether the increase in enrolment can be sustained without the GSFP. The results, as shown in Figure 4.2, reveal that 38 respondents representing 58.5% are of the view that the enrolment figures will not decline should the programme be stopped while 27 respondents constituting 41.5% indicated that enrolment of girls will drop if the programme is stopped.

**Figure 4.2: Will Enrolment Drop if the Programme Stopped**

Despite the fact that majority of the respondents believe that the absence of the programme will not change the enrolment figure, a significant proportion (41.2%) have a different position. A headteacher said that “if the programme is stopped, the girls will find an alternative school where they can get similar motivation and others who would have been attracted by the food will not be enrolled”. They are of the view that the effect of the programme on enrolment is too strong to an extent that its absence will lead to decrease in enrolment. This confirms reports by the GES on the influence of the GSFP in the Wa Municipality.

### 4.4.2 Influence of GSFP on Attendance

Respondents (head teachers) were asked to express their opinions on the influence of GSFP on girl’s attendance. The results indicate that 58 respondents representing 89.2% of the sample headteachers maintained that the programme has led to an improvement in attendance. One of these respondents maintained that “absenting oneself from school will mean limited access to the daily meals, and so far as these girls want the food means that attendance will drop only when the programme is stopped”. However, 4.6% of the respondents have indicated that the programme has no influence on attendance because the situation remains unchanged. About 6.1% of the respondents were indifferent in their opinion. The distribution is shown in Table 4.10.

#### Table 4.10: Influence of GSFP on Attendance of Girls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence of GSFP on Girls Attendance</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improved attendance</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>89.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remain unchanged</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016
Majority of the sample respondents have indicated that the GSFP has improved the attendance of girls in beneficiary schools. The possible justification for this observation could be that girls that otherwise would have been absenting themselves from schools because of hunger will no longer be motivated to do so. The finding therefore, agree with Dreze and Kingdon (2001) that school feeding programmes often lead to increase in enrolment and attendance by reducing drop-out. The findings also confirm recent empirical studies such as Abotsi (2013) and Musah and Imoro (2015) that daily attendance figures have improved following the intervention of the school feeding programme. This study has therefore, added that gender disparity does not characterized the improvement in attendance that have been achieved in the Wa Municipality.

Further analysis was done pupils attendance by gathering the attendance figures from respondents on 2015/2016 academic year. The data was used to fit a line graph as shown in Table 4.9 and Appendix 1 (c). Both Table 4.10 and Appendix 1 (c) shows that girls’ attendance is almost constant while that of boys is more variable and fluctuates over the various classes. This justifies an improvement in girls’ attendance especially in the 2015/2016 academic year. This means that the GSFP has been able to sustain girls’ attendance in the basic schools in the Wa Municipality.
Table 4.11: School attendance of boys and girls in 2015/16 academic year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>P1</th>
<th>P2</th>
<th>P3</th>
<th>P4</th>
<th>P5</th>
<th>P6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>163542</td>
<td>152088</td>
<td>160163</td>
<td>169153</td>
<td>169258</td>
<td>192272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>161362</td>
<td>157884</td>
<td>162783</td>
<td>169338</td>
<td>172260</td>
<td>165987</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>324904</td>
<td>309972</td>
<td>322946</td>
<td>338491</td>
<td>341518</td>
<td>358259</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey (2016)

Respondents shared their opinion on the possibility that attendance figures would drop in the absence of the programme. It was found out that 36 respondents denoting 55.4% indicated that stopping the programme will not have any effect on girl’s attendance. The results further reveals that 29 respondents representing 44.6% maintain that school attendance figures of girl’s in the Wa Municipality will decline if the GSFP is stopped.

Further enquiries were made on the retention of girls in the Municipality and how retention will be affected in the absence of the GSFP. Evidence shows that 38 respondents who form 58.5% of the sample population pointed out that stopping the programme will never have an effect on the retention of girls. However, 27 respondents representing 41.5% specified that attendance figures will drop in the absence of the programme.
From the figure, majority of the respondents indicated that attendance figures will not drop in the absence of the programme. Besides, however, a significant proportion (41.5%) is of the view that the attendance will drop in the absence of the programme.

### 4.4.3 Influence of GSFP on Retention

Respondents have indicated that the GSFP has influenced girl’s retention in beneficiary schools. As shown in Table 4.12, 53 respondents representing 81.5% pointed out that the GSFP has improved retention of girls in the Wa Municipality. However, 3 respondents representing 4.6% stated that the retention situation has not changed despite the intervention of the programme. The distribution respondents’ opinion on the effect of the GSFP on retention of girls in school is shown in Table 4.12.
Table 4.12: Influence of GSFP on Girls Retention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence of GSFP on Girls Retention</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improve retention</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unchanged</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results in Table 4.12 imply that attendance figures have been improved by the intervention of the GSFP. Only few respondents as shown in the table did not support the generally held view that the programme intervention has improved retention.

Further enquiries revealed that the drop-out rates among girls used to be very high. However, the programme has provided an opportunity for girls in basic schools to have access to meals. Parents are now assured of meals for their children in school. One of the parents in a Focused Group Discussion indicated that “My daughters do not even ask from me money to buy food during school hours, when I asked them why, they said they get enough to eat at school through the GSFP”. This suggests that they girls have enough to eat at school and will no longer be engaged in sexual activities in order to get money to meet educational expenditures. This sustains enrolment figures by reducing drop-out rates.

From the survey results, retention figures for both boys and girls fluctuate among the various classes. However, retention of girls shows an improvement over that of boys among the various classes. This means that boys drop out of school more than that of girls in the Wa Municipality. One contributory factor could be the fact that the GSFP addresses the needs of girls in basic schools hence an improvement in their retention figures for the 2015/2016 academic year.
Table 4.13: Retention of boys and girls in 2015/16 academic year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>P1</th>
<th>P2</th>
<th>P3</th>
<th>P4</th>
<th>P5</th>
<th>P6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>3904</td>
<td>5655</td>
<td>5869</td>
<td>6631</td>
<td>4866</td>
<td>6318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>6593</td>
<td>5057</td>
<td>9158</td>
<td>9152</td>
<td>8171</td>
<td>7553</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10497</td>
<td>10712</td>
<td>15027</td>
<td>15783</td>
<td>13037</td>
<td>13871</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey (2016)

The dropout figures as shown in Table 4.13 reveal that school drop out of girls is almost constant for lower primary (primary one, primary two and primary three) but fluctuates in the upper primary (primary 4, primary 5 and primary 6). A line graph depicting this is shown in Appendix 1 (e).

Table 4.14: Dropout of boys and girls in 2015/16 academic year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>P1</th>
<th>P2</th>
<th>P3</th>
<th>P4</th>
<th>P5</th>
<th>P6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boys</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>107</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>556</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>190</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>181</td>
<td>193</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>999</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Field Survey (2016)

Respondents’ opinions were sought on whether the effect of the GSFP is significant to have caused a reduction in retention rate in the absence of the programme. It was discovered that 45% of the respondents maintained that performance will reduce in the absence of the programme while 55% stated otherwise. The distribution is shown in figure 4.4.
Moreover, further analysis revealed that the intervention of the programme has generally led to an improvement of retention in the beneficiary schools. The evidence is that 58 respondents (head teachers) representing 89.2% of the sample teachers confirmed that retention figures have received consistent increase over the years. Only 7 respondents representing 10.8% were uncertain about the influence of the programme on the performance variables.

4.5 Factors Influencing Enrolment, Attendance and Retention in Basic Schools

4.5.1 Teacher Attendance

The researcher also sought to find out if teacher school attendance has an effect on enrolment, attendance and retention of students. 65 respondents were asked if teachers in their various schools attend school regularly. The results indicate that 53 respondents representing 81.5% indicated that they do not record teacher absenteeism implying that in their various schools teachers attend school
regularly. Some 12 teachers representing 18.5% of the study revealed that they have been recording teacher absenteeism implying that in their various schools teachers do not attend school regularly. The distribution of the responses is shown in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15: Teacher School Attendance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers attend school regular</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No regular attendance</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, there is regular attendance</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Table 4.15, majority of the respondents has indicated that teachers’ school attendance has been regular. However, the small evidence of irregular attendance may contribute to pupils’ absenteeism. One of the respondents indicated that “when a class teacher frequently absent him/herself from school, the pupils get discouraged and may also repeat similar behaviour. However, we have regular attendance of pupils even when teachers are not in school.” This finding suggests that any improvement in attendance among pupils may be influenced by the GSFP. Pupils may be motivated to attend schools in order to access the school means even when their teachers’ attendance has not been very impressive.

The study further seeks to know the effect of teacher absenteeism on girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention. The results show that 26 respondents representing 40.0% indicated that teacher absenteeism decreases enrolment. Besides, 12 respondents representing 18.5% indicated that its reduces attendant rates while 16 respondents representing 24.6% said that teacher absenteeism lead to school drop-out. It was also discovered that 11 respondents representing 16.9%
could not indicate the effect of teacher absenteeism on the children. The
distribution is shown in Figure 4.5.

**Figure 4.5: How absenteeism affects girls’ enrolment**

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results imply that teacher regular attendance in school can lead to
improvement in enrolment, attendance and retention. However, absenteeism will
lead to a decline in these performance variables. The results suggest that the
GSFP is doing well since some teachers may not attend school sometimes but
that does not translate into decreasing enrolment, attendance and retention.

### 4.5.2 Teacher Relationship with Female Pupils

The findings of the study indicate that all the sample head teachers have
confirmed that their teachers relate well with the female students in their
respective schools. Cordial relationship among teachers and female pupils can
create a platform for better learning and hence motivate girls to be present in
school regularly. This has implications for school attendance and retention.
The findings also reveal that teachers’ relations with female students have positive influence on enrolment. Thus, 6 respondents representing 9.2% of the sample indicated that teachers’ relationship with the girls lead to increase in enrolment. Besides, 26 respondents representing 40.0% stated that the cordial relationship among teachers and girls in the schools lead to increase on attendance, 17 respondents (26.1%) argued that the cordial relationship improves retention while 2 respondents (3.1%) were of the view that the existing relationship among teachers and girls in the school has no influence on enrolment, attendance or retention. The results are shown in Table 4.16.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influence of teachers relations on enrolment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Increase enrolment</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase attendance</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase retention</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remain unchanged</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results imply that teachers’ cordial association with the girls can help improve enrolment, attendance and retention. This also means that the GSFP alone would not be able to sustain enrolment, attendance and retention if the social environment in which the girls find themselves is not conducive. Despite the cordial association among girls and teachers, the role of the GSFP in the provision of daily meals will prevent the girls from being tempted to enter into sexual relationship with teachers probably because of hunger.

4.5.3 Girls participation in curriculum activities
It was found out that 50 respondents representing 76.9% believe that opportunity is given to all genders to participate in all curriculum activities while 15 respondents denoting 23.1% indicated that girls are not allowed to partake in all curriculum activities. The distribution is shown in Table 4.17.

Table 4. 17: Girls Participation in Curriculum Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do your girls participate in all curriculum activities</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From the table, majority of the respondents confirmed that girls have been given the opportunity to participate in all curricular activities including sports and cultural activities. This can offer them some kind of self-recognition and belongingness to the school system. Such a motivation has implications for school attendance and retention. For example, the curricular roles they play require that they are always present to fulfill those roles.

4.5.4 External support for girls in basic schools

Respondents were asked if they do receive assistance for girls from any Civil Society Organizations (CSO) in their schools. Majority of the respondents numbering 53 and representing 81.5% declare that they do not receive any form of assistance from any CSO and 12 respondents denoting 18.5% said they do get some assistance from NGOs. The responses are shown in Table 4.18
Table 4.18: Assistance from Civil Society Organization for Girls

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Do you receive assistance from any NGO in the school</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>81.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From the table, majority of the respondents have not received any support for girls from any Civil Society Organization (CSO). This suggests that the few that confirmed accessing support from external sources will improve upon their girls’ enrolment figures. However, enrolment, attendance and retention of girls that receive no support would only be sustained through the GSFP.

Further analysis indicates that organizations that support female education give sanitary pads and school uniform to motivate girls to attend school regularly. This implies that girls who would have been absenting themselves from school during their menstrual periods can now do so with the support of CSOs.

Respondents did an assessment of the effectiveness of the support programme for girls beside the GSFP. The results indicate that 9 respondents representing 13.8% mentioned that the programmes initiated by government and other organizations is very effective in assisting girl’s education in the Wa Municipality while 6 respondents comprising 9.2% of the sample respondents indicated that the programmes initiated by government and other organizations are effective in assisting girl’s education. However, 1 respondent amounting to 1.5% of the sample population said the programmes initiated by government and other organization are not effective in assisting girl’s education. However, 49 respondents representing 75.4% of sample population did not answer the question.
as indicated in Table 4.19

Table 4.19: Effectiveness of support programmes for female education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How effective is the programme</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very effective</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Effective</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results imply that the existing support programmes are very effective in influencing female enrolment, attendance and retention in the basic schools in the Wa Municipality.

The study sought to establish whether there is any government intervention on education apart from capitation and the GSFP that aims at improving girl’s education within the Municipality. The results indicate that 49 respondents representing 75.4% of the sample confirm that there is no policy aside the GSFP and capitation. However, 16 respondents indicated that there are other policies that seek to improve girl’s education aside capitation and the GSFP representing 24.6% of the study.

Table 4.20: Existence of government programmes for girls in basic school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is there any policy aside capitation and GSFP for girls?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

There is evidence from 16 respondents representing 34.6% of the sample head teachers that other government intervention aside the GSFP and the capitation
grant exist in their schools with objectives of enhancing girls’ enrolment. These interventions are opportunities for augmenting the effort of the GSFP in achieving the objectives of improving enrolment, attendance and retention.

Further enquiries were made to find out the kind of government activities that aims at improving girl’s education in the Wa Municipality. Responses given by 7 respondents representing 10.7% were that free uniforms and books have been given to students in order to boost education in the region. The results again point out that 6 respondents denoting 9.2% indicated that assistance has been given to needy students as a means to assist girl’s education. Also, 2 respondents amounting to 3.1% declare that education on Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) has been given to girls to help in their education in terms of enrolment, attendance and retention. Meanwhile, 1 respondent denoting 1.5% is of the view that gender desk on girl child education is a means of assisting girl’s education. However, 49 respondents representing 75.4% of sample population did not answer the question. This suggests that they have no knowledge on any government intervention that attracts girls to enroll in school.

Table 4.21: Government activities that attract girls’ enrolment in school

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explain the policy</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>75.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assist needy students</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education on FGM</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free school uniform and books</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender desk on girl child education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016
The results imply that the GSFP has been augmented by other activities by government in order to attract and sustain girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools. However, the coverage of these support intervention is limited to few beneficiary schools. Schools without access to these subsidiary support activities therefore, rely on only the GSFP for improved enrolment, attendance and retention. This justifies the role of the GSFP in female enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools in the Wa Municipality.

4.6 The GSFP Motivation for parents to enroll and Keep their girls in School
A Focused Group Discussion with parents revealed that the GSFP has been motivating parents to enroll and keep their girls in school. This occurs through the programme efforts in meeting household educational needs. Besides, some parents also produce or supply food staff to the various schools and earn sustainable income to meet their children’s educational needs.

4.6.1 The GSFP cut down girls education expenditure
Although Lewins (1935) saw successful change as a group activity, because unless group norms and routines are also transformed, changes to individual behaviour will not be sustained, there was the need to determine whether or not girls’ educational expenditure is reduced owing to the coming of the GSFP. Parents have expressed their views on how the GSFP motivates them to keep their girls in school. One main area is the cutting of educational expenditure on girls. Respondents explain that girls by nature are more complex and vulnerable than boys. Hence girls required special attention to keep them active in school. This however, increases the cost of enrolling and keeping girls in school relative to boys. This explanation is consistent with what a parent stated:
“the GSFP has motivated parents to enroll and keep their girls in school. Some parents used to worry about what their children will eat before going to school, but because of the GSFP, parents allow their children to go to school and stay in school with the motivation that they will get some food to eat”

The caption suggests that some parents even rely entirely on the GSFP for their girls to have access to meals during the day.

4.6.2 Provision of nutritious food to girls in school

The results of the study also confirmed that the meals provided for pupils under the GSFP are rich with the basic food nutrients. Parents shared their joy with respect to the feedbacks they received from their girls that have been benefiting from the GSFP. According to some respondents, the food given to their girls at school under the programme is preferred over what is prepared at home. A parent in a Focused Group Discussion with a parent said: “My children even preferred the food given to them in school to what they eat at home because they are sometimes given eggs to eat which they do not get at home”. They also argue that they are well convinced that the meals at school are often prepared by caterers who have adequate knowledge in nutrition. This motivates people to send their girls to the schools in order to have access to the meals.

4.6.3 Increasing household income

One of the objectives of the GSFP is to increase domestic supply of locally produce crops. The results of the study pointed out that some parents are engaged in the production or supply of food items to the various schools. According to these respondents, they receive income from the supply of the food crops which enables them to take care of their girls in school. A woman in a Focused Group
Discussion with a parent stated that: “my household sells eggs to schools and we get substantial income that enables us to meet all household education expenditure”.

For those who are cooks in the various schools, they receive sustainable income that enables them to meet their children’s educational expenditure. The incomes earned from the activities of the programme grants people the opportunity to enrol and keep their girls in school. This explanation implies that some people enrol and keep their girls in school not because of the opportunity to access the meals but because they earn enough income from activities of the programme for which they can now meet their children’s educational needs.

4.7 How the GSFP Addresses Socio-economic Factors Affecting Girls Enrolment, attendance and retention in Basic Schools

The GSFP is said to have been addressing some socio-economic challenges facing girls enrolment, attendance and retention in school. The results of the study revealed that the main socio-economic factors that affect girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention that have been addressed by the programme include: poverty, teenage pregnancy, early marriage, and high sexual drive of the youth.

4.7.1 Poverty

Poverty has been a challenge confronting parents in enrolling their children and keeping them in school. However, the intervention of the GSFP, according to the results of the study has contributed in minimizing the effect of poverty among households. A respondent from the Municipal Education shared her view with the researcher in agreement with the head teachers. She stated that:
“To a large extent, the GSFP has addressed some socio-economic factors that affect enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in schools. With the poverty factor, parents are now assured of meal for their children in school. Parents do not push their girls to marry early because they need money to feed the rest of the children at home. The girls themselves do not engage in sexual activities to get money to buy food to eat because they are provided with food to eat at school”.

The statement implies that the GSFP is a cost effective strategy for parents in meeting their girls’ educational expenditure. Extra resources that would have been spent on girls can be used in meeting other households’ needs.

4.7.2 School drop-out resulting from poverty

It was discovered from the study that the categories of people who are more likely to drop out of school were the girls. Thus, 38 respondents representing 58.5% indicated that girls are more likely to drop out of school, while 20 respondents representing 30.8% said boys have the likelihood of dropping out of school. Moreover, 7 respondents indicated that both boys and girls stand the chance of dropping out of school and the represent 10.8% of the sample population.
Majority of the respondents still believe that despite the intervention of the GSFP to reduce drop-out rate girls still remain the victims of school drop-out. This suggests that the programme has only succeeded in minimizing drop-out rate among girls in basic schools but has not eradicated it completely.

Moreover, various circumstances were indicated by respondents to have been leading to girl’s school dropout. Among them include early/force marriage, lack of parental care, poverty, sexual harassment and teenage pregnancy. The distribution in Table 4.22 shows that 15 respondents representing 23.1% of the sampled headteachers of basic schools indicated that early/force marriage is the reason for girls dropping out of school. Besides, 33 respondents denoting 50.8% said that the reason for girls drop-out of school is the lack of parental care, 15.4% of the respondents attributed the phenomenon to poverty, 18.5% indicated that girls drop-out of school is caused by sexual harassment while 38.5% associated girls drop-out of school to teenage pregnancy.
Table 4. 22: Circumstances that lead to girls’ school drop out

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Circumstance that lead to girls school drop out</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Early/force marriage</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of parental care</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poverty</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sexual harassment</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teenage pregnancy</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>38.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results imply that several factors are contributing to female school drop-out. Besides, majority of the respondents have indicated that lack of parental care is a factor leading to school drop-out. The next highest factor is teenage pregnancy, early/force marriage, sexual harassment and then poverty. The GSFP intervention is responding to some of these issues through its contribution of meeting the educational needs of the girl child in school. The meals given to them at school will be cutting down household expenditure. Besides, some people earn direct income from participating in the programme activity that have implications for poverty reduction.

4.7 Measures to Improve Girls’ Enrolment in Basic Schools Apart from the GSFP

4.7.1 Mechanisms to improve gender parity in schools

When respondents were asked whether they have any mechanism which exists to ensure gender parity in their various schools, 43 respondents consisting of 66.2% of the sample population responded that there is no such mechanism. However, 22 respondents who constitute 33.8% confirmed that in their various schools such mechanisms are put in place to ensure gender parity. The distribution is shown in Table 4.23.
Table 4.23: Mechanism to ensure gender parity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>66.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From Table 4.15, majority of the respondents indicated that no special mechanism has been put in place in their various schools towards improving female enrolment in basic schools. However, these respondents explained that they are relying on the GSFP as the only motivation that can attract girls to enroll and attend school regularly.

Among those who indicated that there exist some mechanisms to improving girls’ enrolment, their responses were noted and considered for further analysis. The results provide that 8 respondents denoting 12.3% indicated that girl child education is a mechanism used by their school to ensure gender parity. Also, 7 respondents denoting 10.8% said equal opportunity in leadership is given to all gender in order to promote gender parity. Responses given by 3 respondents who form 4.6% of the study were of the view that moral education is a mechanism to ensure gender parity. Beside, 2 respondents representing 3.1% indicated that they use female staff in the school to promote gender parity. However, 1 respondent each were of the view that fun clubs providing girls with incentive is another mechanism put in place to promote gender parity representing 1.5% for each mechanism. Meanwhile 43 respondents representing 66.2% of sample population did not answer the question. The distribution of the responses is shown in Table 4.24.
Table 4.24: Mechanisms to improve girls’ enrolment in basic schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Describe the mechanism</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>66.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal opportunity in leadership</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fun Clubs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girl child education</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moral Education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing the girls with learning materials</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of female staff</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results in the table imply that apart from the intervention of the GSFP as a motivator of girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention, other mechanisms have been used by different schools to influence girls enrolment in school. Largely the mechanisms cover school activities that make girls feel part of the school social system where they can be given roles to play. Besides, the use of female teachers to serve as role models for the young girls has been used by schools to influence girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention.

Moreover, respondents who confirm not having any mechanism in place were asked to explain why they have none in place. About 4 respondents representing 6.2% said equal attention is given to both genders hence no need for any mechanism. Also, 1 respondent representing 1.5% each said inadequate resources and lack of finance are challenges that made them not employ any gender parity mechanism in their school. Meanwhile, 59 respondents representing 90.8% of sample population did not answer the question. The distribution is shown in Table 4.25.
Table 4.25: Reasons for having no mechanism to improve girls’ enrolment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If no, explain why?</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>90.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equal attention is given to both genders</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate resources</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of finance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results imply that many respondents were not able to justify why there have no mechanisms in place to improve girls’ enrolment. This suggests that heads of those schools are not very much concerned about gender disparity as a development challenge in the education system in the Wa Municipality.

4.7.2 School policies to address gender disparity

In addressing gender disparity, some schools have made their own policies. Respondents were therefore asked if their various schools have adopted such method. Results show that 44 respondents representing 67.7% indicated that they do not have any policy on their own to address gender parity. Meanwhile 21 respondents constituting 32.3% confirm that their school has made their own policies to address gender disparity. One respondent from Limanyiri Model Primary School indicated that:

“my school has a teacher responsible for gender issues. This way, the girls feel protected against any form of domination by the boys. They quickly report to the gender officer on issues they feel they have been marginalized”

The distribution of respondents indication of whether their schools have policies to address gender disparity is shown in Table 4.26.
The results indicate that some schools have their own policies that are directed towards minimizing gender disparity.

Further analysis was done on the effectiveness of the school-based policies in some institutions. Respondents assessment of the effectiveness of their school made policies to check gender disparity within the Municipality revealed that 48 respondents representing 73.8% mentioned that the policies initiated by their school are not effective in addressing gender disparity within the Wa Municipality while 17 respondents comprising 26.2% of the sample respondents indicated that their school made policies in preventing gender disparity are effective.

### Table 4.27: Effectiveness of school base policies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Is the policy effective</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not effective policies</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>73.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes, policies are effective</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

From the table, majority of the respondents have indicated that they do not have any effective school-based policy to address gender disparity. However, 17 representing 26.2% of the sample did indicate that the policies available are effective in addressing gender disparity.
Though few respondents are of the view that their school made policies are effective, respondents were asked to assess how effective those policies were. The distribution shows that 7 respondents amounting to 10.8% of the sample population pointed out that the policies has increased Girl child Education in the Wa Municipality. Also, 3 respondents denoting 4.6% said the policies have created a room for competition among both genders and 2 respondents made of 3.1% said Girls are made leaders, hence making the policy effective. Only 1 respondent representing 1.5% said punishment are given to whoever that is bias towards girls in other to promote gender parity and that make the policy effective. Meanwhile, 52 respondents representing 80% of sample population did not answer the question. A detail of the distribution is shown in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28: How effective school-based policies are

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How effective the policies are</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competition among both gender</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase Girl child education</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girls as leaders</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punishing those who are gender bias</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

Respondents were again asked to suggest modifications that are required on the GSFP to influence girl’s education in the Municipality. Suggestion from 14 respondents representing 21.5% was that they GSFP should increase the funds per students. Also, 13 respondents denoting 20% indicated female students should assisted with raw food from the programme while 9 respondents constituting 13.8% are of the view that the GSFP should provide incentives for girls who are
regular in school. Moreover, 7 respondents who made up 10.8% point out that the quality and quantity of food should be improved and 3 respondents amounting to 4.6% maintain that the GSFP should provide girls with sanitary pads.

However, 1 respondent denoting 1.5% was of the view that employment of qualified staff, regular distribution of fund and punishing parents who neglect their duties are modification to increase enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in the Municipality. However, 16 respondents representing 24.6% of sample population did not answer the question. The distribution is shown in Table 4.29.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modifications to increase girls education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assist the girls with raw food</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employ qualified staff</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improve the quality and quantity of the food</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incentives for regular students</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Increase the funds</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provide girls with sanitary pads</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Punish parents who neglect their duties</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular distribution of fund</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>65</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Field Survey, 2016

The results in Table 4.21 suggest that respondents have concern for gender disparity in their respective schools and can be improved if given stakeholders’ support. For example, some have suggested that raw food such as maize or oil can be given to girls with high performance in term of school attendance to motivate others to compute for such prizes. Various other suggestions provided in Table
4.29 implies that the respondents can design and implement good strategies at the school level to improve upon girls enrolment, attendance and retention.
5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of major findings, the conclusions and recommendations of the study. They are related to the objectives of the study.

5.2 Summary of Major Findings

Primary data were solicited from multiple sources in response to the research questions. Respondents consisted of headteachers of basic schools, the Municipal Director of Education, Circuit Supervisors, The Municipal Implementation Committee of the Ghana School Feeding Programme, and parents. Several findings were revealed by the study and summarized according to the research objectives as follows.

5.2.1 How the GSFP addresses the needs of girls in school

The GSFP do not have any stated activity as parts of its objectives that have a special attention for girls in basic schools. The objective of the programme is to provide equal daily needs for both boys and girls.

However, during the selection stage of beneficiary schools, consideration is often given to schools with marked deficiencies such as disparity in enrolment, low enrolment, low attendance and retention. Schools with least female enrolment can therefore be selected as a beneficiary school in order to grant girls relatively more access to basic education.

Besides, in some instances, sanitary pads and towels are given to girls. This motivates them to enroll and attend school regularly. During monitoring of schools by management of the Ghana Education Service, special attention is
5.2.2 Factors influencing enrolment, attendance and retention

All the respondents including 63.0% of the headteachers have indicated that the programme intervention has led to an increase in enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools.

Respondents therefore, believe that the GSFP is the main factor influencing enrolment figures. Their justification is that enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools will decline if the programme is stopped.

Other factors that may influence enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools include teacher attendance to school, teacher relationship with girls, girls’ active participation in curricular activities, and external support for girls’ education.

5.2.3 How GSFP motivates parents to enroll and keep their girls in school

The GSFP motivates parents to enrol and keep their girls in school. This occurs through the programme efforts in reducing parents’ expenditure on their girls’ education, the motivation for parents to have their girls’ access nutritious meals at school, and increasing household income through their participation in the programme activities.

The programme motivates parents to enrol and keep their girls in school because once they are provided with meals, parents save the cost that would have been incurred in providing daily means for their girls in school.
Food given to girls at school is considered by parents to have been rich with the required nutrients relative to what is given to them at home in some cases. They, therefore send their girls to schools benefiting from the GSFP in order to have access.

Some parents work and earn a sustainable income under the GSFP. The categories of workers include the cooks, farmers who supply food stuffs and suppliers who give food to the schools. These people intend have the capacity through the programme to enroll and keep their girls in school.

5.2.4 How GSFP addresses socio-economic factors influencing enrolment, attendance and retention of girls

The main socio-economic factors affecting girls enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools include poverty, early/force marriage, and sexual harassment.

With the intervention of the GSFP, poor parents are now assured of meals for their children at school. Parents therefore, do not push their girls to marry early or force them on men because they lack money to buy food for them in school and feed the rest of their children at home.

Besides, the girls themselves do not engage in sexual activities in order to get money to buy food to eat because they are now provided with adequate nutritious meals.

5.3 Conclusions

The study provides mixed findings on the influence of the GSFP on girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools in the Wa Municipality. To
guide the analysis, the change model by Lewin (1935) was adopted. While all respondents have acknowledged its role in increasing gross enrolment yet it has no special objective or attention for girls alone. However, some challenges that were facing parents in female education were addressed by the intervention of the programme. Besides, some schools were selected to benefit from the GSFP because of low enrolment figures especially for girls. The intervention therefore, raises enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in such schools.

The GSF programme alone is not the driver of changes in enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in the Wa Municipality. Other socio-economic factors such as teacher attendance and absenteeism, girls’ participation in school activities, and external support supplement the efforts of the GSFP to sustain the enrolment figures by keeping girls in school.

Through the programme activities of providing adequate and nutritious meals for girls in school, girls’ education expenditure that would have been borne by parents is minimized. Besides, the programme has generated some sources of livelihood for some households. These opportunities are the sources of motivation for people to enrol and keep their girls in school.

Conditions that would have pushed girls to sexual activities leading to school drop-out, early and force marriage are addressed by the GSFP. Besides, high expenditures on girls’ education have been sustained by the GSFP. These facts imply that the GSFP addresses some socio-economic factors limiting girls’ access to basic education or the sustainability of enrolment figures in basic schools in the Wa Municipality.

5.4 Recommendations
The following recommendations are derived from the findings of the study: The GSFP is sensitive in raising gross enrolment, attendance and retention of pupils in basic schools. The implementation agencies of the GSFP should therefore, restructure the programme by giving some special attention to females. The remarkable achievements in the gross enrolment can be translated into that of girls if special attention is given to them.

In an attempt to expand the scale of the programme to cover all schools, it is advised that management of the GSFP should give priority to schools with gender disparity. This will motivate girls to enroll and attend school. However, other educational management strategies should be encouraged since the programme alone is not the factor influencing enrolment, attendance and retention.

The implementation committees at the Municipality should continue to monitor the quality and quantity of the daily meals provided for pupils. This is necessary since the quality of the food such as its nutritional value is a factor motivating parents to enroll and keep their girls in school.

Strict measures should be taken by the stakeholders of education in the Wa Municipality against immoral sexual activities among the youth. Other efforts of the GSFP in improving girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention will be nullified if such girls later become pregnant and drop-out of school. The Municipal Director of Education, Parents and Teachers Association (PTA), the Department of Social Welfare should strengthen their collaboration in the fight against immoral sexual activities among school girls.
Headteachers of basic schools should be given the mandate to design school specific policies to address the challenges of gender disparity in their schools.


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Appendix 1: Enrolment Trend of Boys and Girls in Basic Schools (2010/11-2015/16)

Appendix 2: Test of mean difference between boys and girls enrolment in basic schools

\[ t_{test, \text{Boys vs. Girls}} \]

Paired t test

\[
\begin{array}{c|cccccc}
\text{Variable} & \text{Obs} & \text{Mean} & \text{Std. Err.} & \text{Std. Dev.} & [95\% \text{ Conf. Interval}] \\
\hline
\text{Boys} & 6 & 11873.33 & 134.2057 & 328.7356 & 11528.35 & 12218.32 \\
\text{Girls} & 6 & 12005.33 & 146.9602 & 359.9776 & 11627.56 & 12383.11 \\
\end{array}
\]
www.udsspace.uds.edu.gh

| diff |  6 | -132 |  41.04388 |  100.5366 | -237.5066 | -26.49335 |

Mean (diff) = mean (Boys - Girls)  
t = -3.2161

Ho: mean (diff) = 0

Ha: mean (diff) < 0  
Ha: mean (diff) ≠ 0  
Ha: mean (diff) > 0

Pr (T < t) = 0.0118  
Pr (|T| > |t|) = 0.0236  
Pr (T > t) = 0.9882
Appendix 3

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL STUDIES

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEAD TEACHERS

This questionnaire is seeking your opinion in an effort to solicit information to write a thesis on the topic “The Role of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in Female Enrolment, Attendance and Retention: A Study of Basic Schools in the Wa Municipality”. Your opinion is therefore, needed for academic purpose only and will be treated confidentially.

Questionnaire Number ................................................................. Date .....................................

A. Background Information

1. Name of school

2. Gender of head teacher: a. Male [ ] b. Female [ ]

3. Number of years in present school .

B. Activities of the GSFP and girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools

4. Does the GSFP reward pupils’ performance in terms of enrolment, attendance and retention? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

5. Is the GSFP gender sensitive? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

6. Explain your answer

..................................................................................................................................................
..................................................................................................................................................
7. What other activities of the GSFP have special attention for girls?

C. Influence of GSFP on enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools

8. How will you describe the following in terms of the influence of the GSFP on girls?

a. Enrollment

b. Attendance

c. Retention
9. Please complete this table with enrolment, attendance, dropout, retention figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Enrolment Figures for 2015/2016 Academic Year</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
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</table>

Attendance Figures for 2015/2016 Academic Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
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</thead>
</table>

Dropout Figures for 2015/2016 Academic Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Retention Figures for 2015/2016 Academic Year

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

10. Before the GSFP, were these the numbers in the school?

11. Do you think enrolment figures of girls will drop if the programme is stopped? a.

   Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

12. Do you think attendance figures of girls will drop if the programme is stopped? a.

   Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

13. Do you think retention figures of girls will drop if the programme is stopped? a.

   Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

D. Measures taken to improve enrolment of girls’ in basic schools

14. Do you have any mechanism in the school which exists to ensure gender parity?

   a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]
15. If yes describe the mechanism

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........................................................................................................................................

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16. If No explain why

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........................................................................................................................................

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17. Is there any school made policy which addresses gender disparity in the school?
   a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

18. Is the policy effective? a. Yes [ ] b. No [ ]

19. If yes explain how effective the policy is.

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20. What modifications are required on the GSFP to influence increase girls enrolment, attendance and retention?

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Appendix 4

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL STUDIES

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR CIRCUIT SUPERVISORS

This interview is seeking your opinion in an effort to solicit information to write a thesis on the topic “The Role of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in Female Enrolment, Attendance and Retention: A Study of Basic Schools in the Wa Municipality”. Your opinion is therefore, needed for academic purpose only and will be treated confidentially.

1. Over the years have you experienced increase in enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in your schools?
2. What factors have influenced enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in your schools?
3. Do the GSFP have a special attention for girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention?
4. Do you believe that the absence of the GSFP in your schools could affect girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in your schools?
Appendix 5

UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL STUDIES

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR THE MUNICIPAL DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION

This interview is seeking your opinion in an effort to solicit information to write a thesis on the topic “The Role of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in Female Enrolment, Attendance and Retention: A Study of Basic Schools in the Wa Municipality”. Your opinion is therefore, needed for academic purpose only and will be treated confidentially.

1. Do some activities of the GSFP have special attention for girls in basic schools?
2. What is accounting for the disparity in enrolment, attendance and retention figures of girls relative to boys in schools benefitting from the GSFP?
3. Are there some socio-economic factors limiting girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in school?
4. Does the GSFP motivates parents to enrol and keep their girls in school?
5. Does the GSFP addresses socio-economic factors that affect enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools?
This interview is seeking your opinion in an effort to solicit information to write a thesis on the topic “The Role of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in Female Enrolment, Attendance and Retention: A Study of Basic Schools in the Wa Municipality”. Your opinion is therefore, needed for academic purpose only and will be treated confidentially.

1. Do you have challenges in girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in the basic schools in the Wa Municipality?

2. Do some activities of the GSFP have special attention for female education?

3. Has the GSFP contributed to an increase in school enrolment, attendance and retention in the Municipality?

4. Has these increases reflected in girls?

5. What strategies can be put in place under the GSFP to enhance girls enrolment, attendance and retention in basic schools?

6. What are your final comments on the GSFP and girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention?
UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
FACULTY OF INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL, POLITICAL AND HISTORICAL STUDIES

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION (FGD) GUIDE FOR PARENTS

This interview is seeking your opinion in an effort to solicit information to write a thesis on the topic “The Role of the Ghana School Feeding Programme in Female Enrolment, Attendance and Retention: A Study of Basic Schools in the Wa Municipality”. Your opinion is therefore, needed for academic purpose only and will be treated confidentially.

1. What factors are limiting girls’ enrolment, attendance and retention in school?
2. Does the GSFP address (socio-economic) factors that affect enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in basic schools?
3. Does the GSFP motivate parents to enrol and keep their girls in school in terms of:
   - Reducing short-term hunger?
   - Nutritional improvement?
   - Improvement in household income?