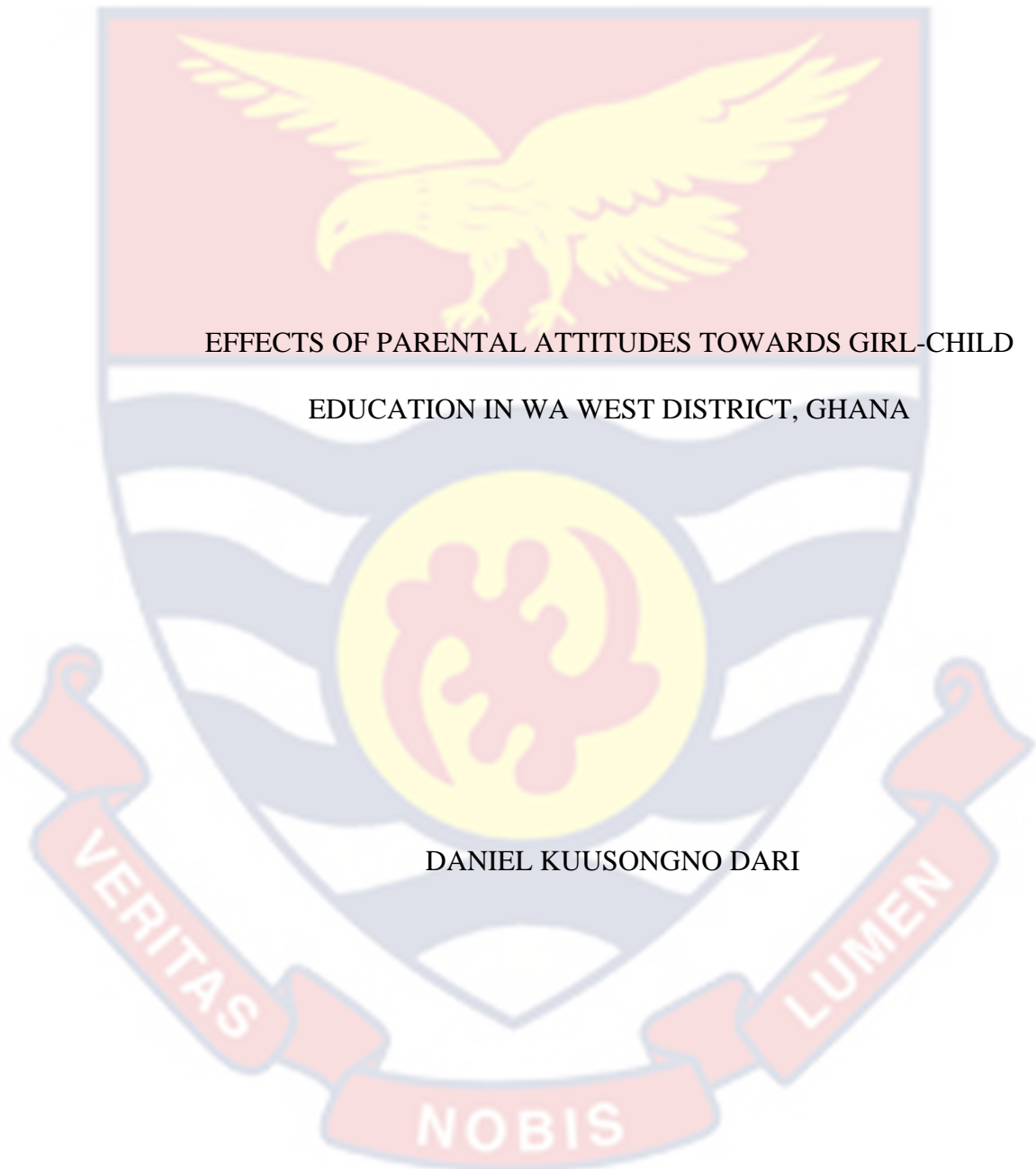


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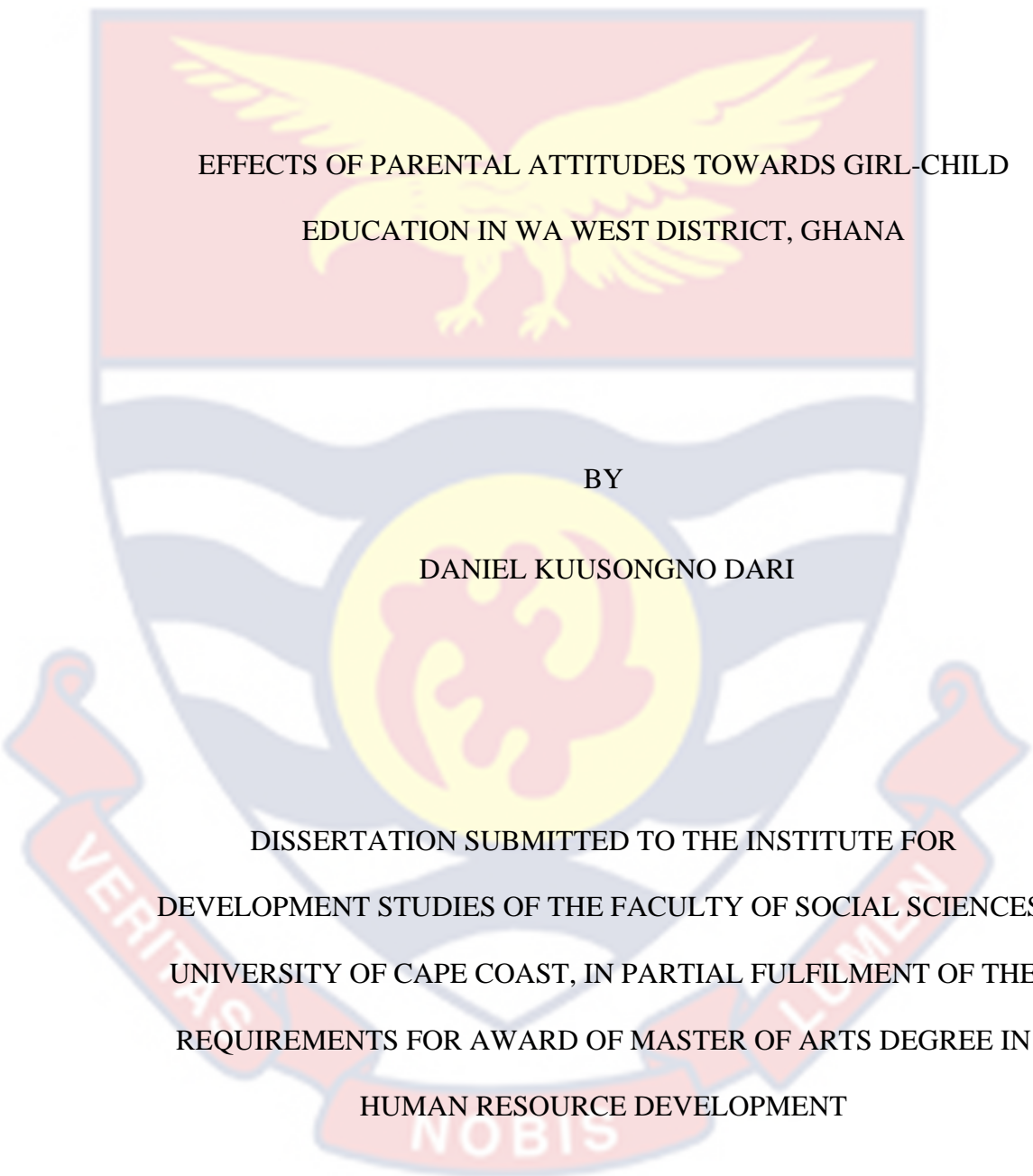


EFFECTS OF PARENTAL ATTITUDES TOWARDS GIRL-CHILD
EDUCATION IN WA WEST DISTRICT, GHANA

DANIEL KUUSONGNO DARI

2014

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST



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BY

DANIEL KUUSONGNO DARI

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE INSTITUTE FOR
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REQUIREMENTS FOR AWARD OF MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE IN
HUMAN RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT

NOVEMBER, 2014

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation 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

Candidate's Signature:..... Date:.....

Name: Daniel Kuusongno Dari

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: Date.....

Name: Prof. Akwasi Kumi-Kyereme

ABSTRACT

The study investigated the effects of attitudes of parents towards girl-child education in Wa West District of Upper West Region. The descriptive survey design was adopted. Respondents were drawn from all the five (5) area councils of the Wa West District. They were made up of parents/guardians, Headteaches/Teachers and circuit supervisors/District Director of Education of the district. Data for the study were obtained through questionnaire and interview schedules. The findings indicated that the overall attitude of the respondents was moderately favourable and positive towards schooling and education of their children. The results also indicated that the attitudes of parents do not encourage the girl-child in her education. It was indicated that, preference of male over female education was common in the community. The study concluded that, although parents were aware of the positive contributions of schooling and education, there was a lot of scope for improvement in this regard since most parents had preference for boy-child.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation could not have been successful without the critical supervision of Prof. Akwasi Kumi-Kyereme, of the Department of Population and Health, University of Cape Coast. The enthusiasm and interest which he attached to this work is much appreciated and will ever be remembered. Similarly, I extend my sincere gratitude to all lecturers of Institute for Development Studies for the period 2009-2011 for the knowledge acquired from them. Their dedication to duty, love and concern during the course would forever be remembered. My sincere gratitude goes to Mr. Philip Dorkar Z and Mr. Kokoro for their encouragement and assistance in finding the relevant material used for this dissertation and the programme of study. Thanks to Mr. Anderson a lecturer at Takoradi Polytechnic and Mr. Ababio for their Personal Assistance in this work. My sincere thanks to Mrs. Roberta Aba Amponsah (As for God Secretarial. Services, U.CC) for the computer work on this study .To all 2009-20011class mates I say a big thank you for their companionship and lovely memories. Special mention has to be made of the following who were study group mates and I was delighted to work with during the course of study. They are Mr. Bob Dery, Mr. Cletus Ayamiiri, Mrs.Ophilia, Mr.Diaka Mr. Clement, Mr. Anim, and to all others I came into contact with during this Master's degree programme and who have contributed directly or indirectly to this work, I say many thanks and May the Almighty God bless you all.

DEDICATION

To my wife Immaculate, children James, Caroline, Andrew, Crispin
and my late parents Mr. and Mrs. Dari.



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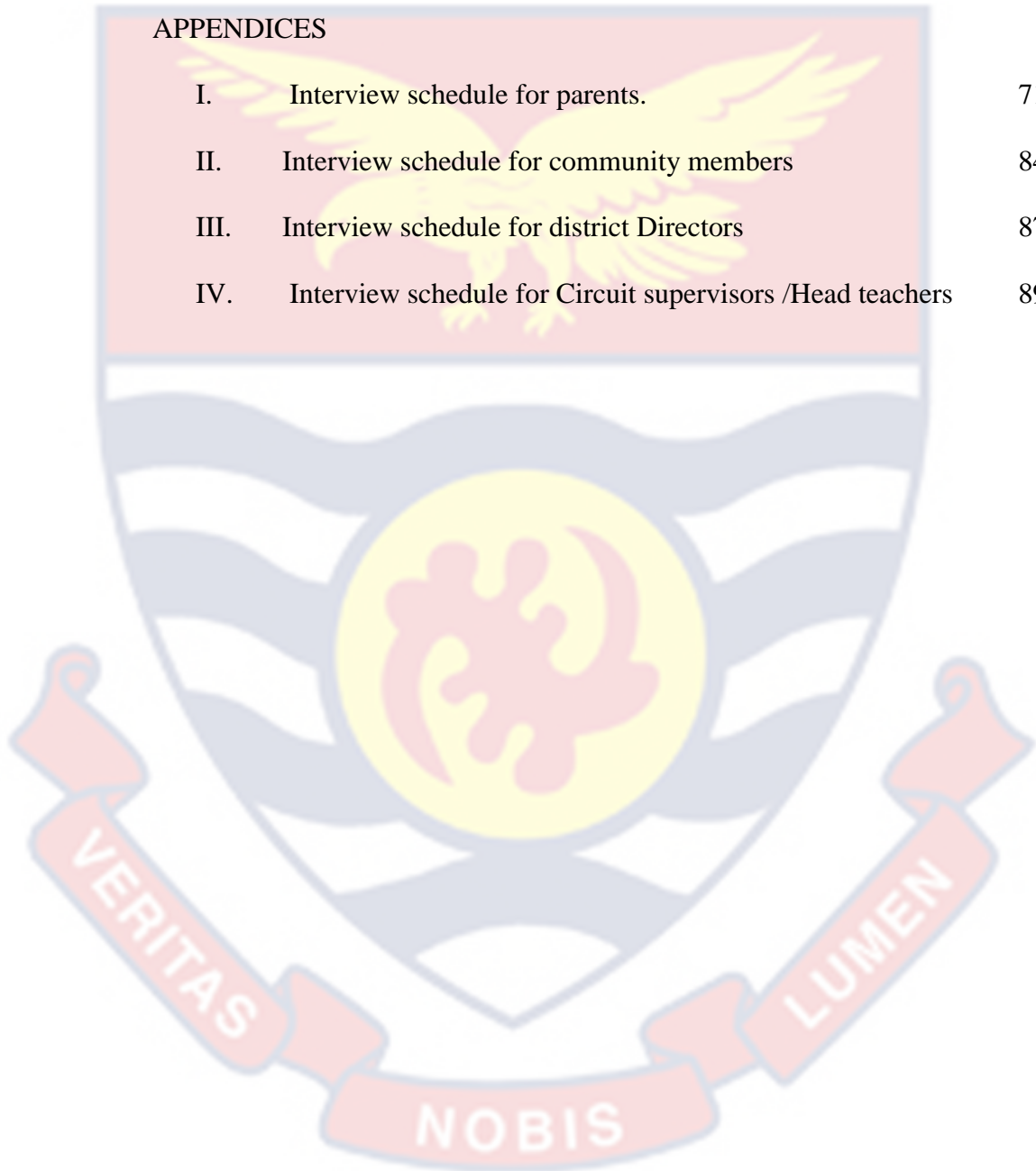
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Ghana, like many developing countries, spends a sizeable proportion of her Gross National Product (GNP) on the education of her citizens. According to annual government budget estimates over the past ten years, almost 40% of each year's entire government expenditure went to the education sector. The justification for the special attention paid to education is the belief that investment in formal education is an important way to develop human capital, reduce poverty and increase social mobility among the citizenry.

Ghana has already demonstrated that the development of human resources is of utmost importance to her. Since independence in 1957, successive governments, realising the importance of education for social and economic development, have attempted with varying degrees of success to provide basic education for all children. Evidence of this can be seen in the Accelerated Development plan for Education of 1951, the Education Act of 1961, Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) Law 42, and the Free Compulsory, Universal, Basic Education (FCUBE) Act of 1985, being implemented since 1997.

The law regarding basic education in Ghana is that every child who has attained the age as determined by the Minister of Education shall attend a course of instruction as laid down by the Minister in a school recognized for the purpose by the Minister (Education Act 1961). The law adds that any

parent who fails to comply would be fined and that the school-going age should be between five and sixteen years.

The present system of basic education consists of two years of kindergarten, six years of primary and three years of junior high school.

These eleven years of basic education are supposed to be tuition-free and compulsory for all children of school-going age and above. As a result of the implementation of these policies of universal basic education, general school enrolment has increased in Ghana. In 1987/88, the number of public primary schools was 9,424 and in 1997/98, that is ten years later, the number of public primary schools grew to 11,236. Also in 1987/88 the number of public junior high schools (JHS) was 5,260 but this grew to 5,571 in 1997/98. Total admission into primary school rose from 347,196 in 1987/88 to 457,229 in 1997/98. Total admission into JHS rose from 180,855 in 1987/88 to 275,377 in 1997/98 (National Education Forum, 1999). In educational review meeting of Wa West in 2010, it came to light that from 2005 to 2009, total admission into JHS rose from 2000 to 3000 (Wa West Educational Review 2010)

In spite of the significant progress made in the development of education in Ghana, especially since 1951, the level of participation of girls and women in education leaves much to be desired. Even though females constitute more than 50% of the population of Ghana, the proportion of literate females is far below that of the males.

According to the District Director of Education for Wa West, what is most alarming about the gender disparities in educational participation is that from JHS to senior high school (SHS) to the tertiary level, not only are girls

under-represented but also, the population of girls decrease significantly as they move up on the educational ladder.

Data from the Ministry of Education (MOE, 2010) indicate that out of the children (both boys and girls) aged between 6-11 years in the country, 82.74%, 85.68% and 81.54% boys were in basic schools in 1987/88, 1991/92 and 1996/97 respectively. The corresponding figures for girls were 68.05%, 72.39% and 71.54% (MOE, 2010). The same source shows that out of a cohort of 100 children who started primary one in 1987/88 academic year, only 50% boys and 44% girls reached J.H.S in 1996/97. This means that more than half (56%) of the girls had dropped out by J.H.S. 3. Also from 2007/2008 to 2009/2010, boys in basic schools in Wa West District constituted 90.2%, 90.5% and 91.3% respectively and the corresponding percentages for girls were 9.8%, 9.5% and 8.7% respectively (2010 Educational review meeting Wa West District)

The data further indicated that the transition rate for girls is also lower. Out of the 56% boys who reached JHS3, 22% entered SHS 1 in 1997/98 and out of the 44% girls who reached JHS3, only 17% entered SHS1 in 1997/98. A closer look at the data above showed that even though more boys than girls enrolled in school, more girls dropped out (someone who leaves school before completion of the final grade of middle school or junior high school) than boys. In Wa West District, it was indicated that out of 60% of the boys who reached JHS3, 35% entered SHS1 in 2007/2008 and out of 40% of the girls 10% reached SHS1 in 2007/2008. This showed that more girls dropped as they go up on educational ladder

Another disturbing aspect of wastage is the total number of pupil-years spent by repeaters and dropouts. Total wastage merely reflects the drag of repetition and dropout on the flow of promotions within an educational system, this phenomenon is the wide regional variation that exists. Whereas only 4% of girls dropped out in primary school in the Greater Accra Region in 2004, the corresponding figures for the Northern and combined Upper Regions were 20% and 18% respectively. Analysis of enrolment data of various levels of basic education showed marked variations among the sexes. At the primary levels, the participation rate of girls ranged between 37% in Northern Region and 49% in the Greater Accra Region. At the JHS level, it ranged between 29% in the Northern Region and 48% in the Greater Accra Region (MOE, 2006). The picture becomes more disturbing when the figures of the various districts within the regions are scrutinized.

The government of Ghana, through the MOE, has critically examined and is addressing gender issues in education to ensure that the objectives of the FCUBE programme are accomplished, with girls being adequately taken care of. Gender issues in education are being addressed because it has been realized that girls are confronted with peculiar problems that require special attention.

In her attempt to address the problem of gender imbalance in participation (enrolment, retention and achievement of girls) in education, Ghana has adopted a number of strategies to get more girls in school. The curriculum is also under review to make it more gender sensitive and more relevant to the aspirations of girls. Female teachers are also being enticed with incentives to retain them in rural areas to act as role model to girls and their

parents (address by District Director of Education Wa West 2010). Another strategy is to operate pilot schemes to equip districts assemblies to identify qualified female senior high school graduates and sponsor them in teacher training colleges. They would be bonded to teach in their districts after pre-service training. Other strategies outlined include the award of scholarships to needy girls in poor communities, a mandatory rule for all new schools to have urinal and toilet facilities. Existing schools without these facilities would be assisted to provide them to ensure that female pupils and teachers have decent places of convenience.

The goals set for the promotion of girl's education in Ghana are ambitious and challenging. Their achievement will require the collective effort of policy makers, educators especially teachers, community leaders, parents and even the girls themselves. District education planning teams have been established in all districts to mobilize communities and sensitize them on their roles and responsibilities in the education of children.

Human resource development aims at making the individual adaptable to his/her particular environment. A programme that can serve this need is one that ensures that every individual in the community is given an opportunity to develop his/her potential. The starting point in any such programme should be with children. Incidentally, such children need the active support of their parents and community if they are to take full advantage of exiting opportunities.

Parental attitude (an individual's feelings, perceptions and behaviour towards female education as result of learnt beliefs and cultures) towards the education of girls is crucial because it can influence the participation and

educational outcomes of children. Therefore, if parental attitude is not favourable, it could hinder the nation's effort in developing her human resources.

Parental attitude was identified by participants in the Accra Seminar, organised by GES as inhibiting efforts at solving the problem of gender equity in education. It is therefore, not surprising that as part of the strategies designed to solve the problem of low participation of girls in basic education, the participants agreed to adopt participatory learning and appraisal techniques as well as information and education campaign in districts with low female enrolment rates. An important programme like girls education deserves special attention because of its current low status. Since females constitute more than half of the population of this country, it will be a costly mistake to neglect them. It has been proven that people who have received some form of formal education perform more efficiently and produce work of higher quality. The availability of literate and numerate women as well as men for work is necessary for rapid industrialization and economic development. An educated girl is an important asset to the family and society, since she can help herself, other members of the society and also her family. It is also very important that the communities are involved and charged to come out with programmes that will improve girls' participation in basic education.

Odaga and Heneveld (1995) in a draft report on schooling and girls in Sub-Saharan Africa, stated that although poverty is a very real constraint to education and the economic costs of education are prohibitive to some parents, research in Malawi and Uganda suggests that 'lack of money' may in some cases be an excuse for the reluctance of parents to invest in their children's

(especially girls') education. Most often, the truth is that they do not perceive the value of education for girls. The socio-cultural perceptions about the role of women in society also influence their decisions.

Statement of the Problem

The educational reform programme in Ghana, since its inception, has made efforts to get communities involved in the provision of basic education. In this regard, the communities have helped to provide structures whilst the government provides equipment and teachers. For example the people of Lassia-Tuolu, a village in Wa West, put up a six unit classroom block for their school while government provide teachers. From an operational perspective, the effectiveness of broad involvement in the provision of basic education will depend very much on the commitment of government, education staff and parents, good co-ordination among donors, and the relevance and quality of information from which the programmes are developed (Kane, 1996). Whilst the government and donors are expanding facilities and providing teachers, the willingness of girls to stay in school, when their parents send them to school, keep them there and assist them to achieve is crucial. How girls see the benefits in their education will no doubt affect their participation in education. Perception of the education of the girl is necessary because a person's perception about a thing, all things being equal, influences his/her attitude and behaviour towards it.

A favourable parental attitude has the potential of influencing community-based programmes to improve girls' participation in education, which could serve as the entry point of human resource development (HRD)

as it serves as a medium through which the potential in an individual is developed. Such a programme will ensure that girls are helped to get a fair start to enable them develop their potentials.

In June 1995, the Accra Seminar on solutions to some educational issues, identified reduction in gender disparity in education as a priority target of educational goals of the nation and urged government to take appropriate action on the issue. It is at the same time, acknowledged that whether any approach aimed at gender equity in education may take hold depends as much on changing the attitudes of girls as on the provision of expanded opportunities. Girls should have deep belief about what they regard as culturally appropriate skills for girls, and any attitude that challenge their socially entrenched gender norms which is likely to face considerable opposition. As primary transmitters of these norms, parents should shape the opportunities of their children through the messages they transmit (MOE, 2008).

Children's educational outcomes are a reflection of the human capital investment behaviour of parents, teachers and families. To a large extent investment decisions are governed by prevailing gender ideologies which may be described as socio-cultural attitudes, behaviour and expectations of women and men (Odaga & Heneveld, 1995). Where parents offer financial and psychological support, children have a far better chance of completing primary school and progressing to the secondary level, other things being constant (Davison, 1993).

The influence that African parents have on their children's educational opportunities and achievement has attracted the attention of

educators in many third world countries. Parents decide who goes to school and how long a child remains there. Girls' education is significantly impeded by socio-cultural and socio-economic factors related to their families. In fact, as confirmed by Swainson (1995) parental attitudes concerning education are clearly a key factor as to who goes to school since they often help influence the children who go to school and how long they stay here.

Since the introduction of the FCUBE programme in 1996, some work has been done on the causes of low participation of girls in basic education in some parts of Ghana. Very little work has been done so far to assess the effects of parental attitude towards girl-child education in Wa West District in order to determine whether the MOE/GES target set to eliminate disparity in education between boys and girls. Also little is done on low performance of girl-child in school. There are equally few females who work in the district as natives of the district.

Despite the spectacular rise in school enrollment rates at the basic education stage over the past few decades in Ghana, the strong government commitment to enforce its declaration of free and quality basic education in Ghana, and the high value parents put on education of their children in some parts of the country, basic school participation and enrollment rates are still far from universal especially in the Wa West District in the Upper West Region of Ghana.

Consequently, there is the need to find out the effects of parental attitude towards girl-child education in Wa West district. It is necessary to find out if the attitude or perception towards the education of girls would

influence them to take action, which would or would not help to promote increased in participation of girls in education.

Objectives of the Study

The major objective of the study was to examine the parental attitude towards girl child education in Wa West district.

The study sought specifically to:

1. Examine the perception of parents towards the education of girls;
2. Examine the academic and employment aspirations parents had for their children; and
3. Identify the actions parents and community would want to take to increase the participation of girls in education

Relevance of the Study

It is hoped that the study will add to the existing number of case studies, have knowledge on parental attitude towards girls' education. The study has indicated that in families of limited resources, the education of the girl-child is sacrificed based on gender roles and that until parental perception of gender roles are changed, girls' education will continue to be a problem in the district.

Consequently, all the efforts the governments, development partners and NGOs are putting into promoting girls' education will yield little results if parental attitudes are not addressed. The study has therefore provided guidelines for improving girls' participation in basic education through changing people's perception. Some of the strategies that can be used in

promoting girls' education include the use of social/community mobilization campaigns and the use of role models.

Finally, it will contribute to the review of the educational reform policies in Ghana. Findings of the study could be used to make new policies to promote girls' education.

Organisation of the study

Chapter One talks about the back ground to the study, statement of the problem, objectives as well as the relevance to the study. Chapter Two deals with the review of related literature to the study and provides the theoretical framework of the study, factors that influence school enrolment of girls, attitude of parents to the education of girls, parental aspirations for girls and socio-cultural constraints to girls' education. Chapter Three explains the methodology used, included in this is the research design, the study area, the study population, sampling procedure, instruments for data collection, data processing, analysis and pre-test. Chapter Four presents the analysis of the result and the discussion of the data collected while Chapter Five covers the summary, conclusion and the recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews literature relevant to the study. The chapter in addition describes the theoretical framework which guided this research. It also reviews literature related to parental perception of girls' education in Ghana and other countries with similar situations. Furthermore, it reviews factors, such as parents' own experiences and attitudes towards education and schooling that are likely to have a significant impact on their girl's education at present as well as in future

Theoretical Framework

Parental attitude is a major factor in children's education, especially that of girls (Odaga & Heneveld, 1995, Davison, 1993). A favourable parental attitude is likely to bring about an increase in girls participation in education and vice versa. According to Odaga and Heneveld (1995), socio-cultural expectations of girls and the priority given to their future roles as mothers and wives have strong negative bearings on their formal educational opportunities. Socio-cultural customs and beliefs influence decisions to withdraw them from school, their own decisions to drop out of school, their performance and grade level attainment.

It was further concluded that apprenticeships and initiation ceremonies were viewed by society in Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania and Kenya as

more efficient at preparing girls for their future roles as wives and mothers than the final educational systems. Apprenticeships continue to provide practical entrepreneurial skills to several young people across the region. Such programmes are popular with parents who often want to ensure that their daughters acquired some practical skills before they got married. Sewing and trading are particularly popular activities for young girls (Akpaka 1992, Odaga & Heneveld, 1995).

Initiation ceremonies such as preparation of girls for puberty continue to play an important educational role in some sub-Saharan African communities. For example, in Malawi some parents are more willing to cover the costs of initiations than they are to cover formal schooling costs (Kapakasa 1992, Odaga & Heneveld 1995). Evidence from Malawi, again, reveals that initiation brings with it several dilemmas for girls, affecting their attendance and performance and even leading to drop-out. The scheduling of initiation ceremonies conflicts with the school calendar leading to absenteeism from school.

Although culturally, initiation marks the passage from childhood, school authorities continue to treat initiated girls who return to school as children, not adults. For example in Ghana, they expect them to participate in certain activities and also punish them in a manner which is considered inappropriate for adults. Initiated girls also find it difficult to return to formal school or concentrate on their studies because their next expectation is marriage (Grant, 1990; Kapakasa, 1992).

Some initiation ceremonies include circumcision and others do not promote the education of girls. Girls and boys who go through initiation

ceremonies that include circumcision face similar dilemmas as researched in Malawi. In Kenya for instance, initiation circumcision ceremonies are scheduled to take place during school holidays, but the process begins earlier, leading to absenteeism from school. Once children are circumcised they perceive themselves as adults. There is also a sharp decline in their academic performance and are likely to play truant and eventually dropout of school (Gichanu, 1993; Nanguari, 1994; Wamahu, 1994).

The inter-relationship between initiation ceremonies, bride price, early marriage and early drop-out by pupils is amply demonstrated in the Njau and Wamahu (1994) framework. This framework assumes that parents see initiation ceremonies as an important way of preparing girls for their future roles as mother/wives in society and therefore under value education as a secondary matter. Since parents are interested in collecting bride price they encourage their daughters to marry early and, hence, facilitating dropout of girls in school.

In Ghana, “bragoro” among the Akans and “dipo” among the Krobos, the ‘bori’ and the “soyire” among the Brifos and the Dagaabas in the Upper West Region of Ghana are examples of initiation ceremonies for girls. These ceremonies signify that the girl is matured to be a wife/mother. Sometimes these ceremonies coincide with the school calendar and the affect girls may stay away from school for weeks. This phenomenon will continue so long as parents continue to see puberty rites as more important to the extent that girls will be allowed to absent themselves from school in order to go through these initiation rites.

Religion, especially Islam, is usually associated with low female participation in schools (Appleton et al. 1990; Coldough & Levin, 1993, Lange, 1993 cited in Odaga & Heneveld, 1995). The history of the imposition of formal or western education, which is associated with Christianity, and the pressure to convert, is still very much an issue in some Islamic regions. Whatever the case, it is evident that some Islamic parents prefer Islamic education for their daughters, as the fear of western education promotes values and behaviours for girls which are contrary Islamic norms.

The framework illustrates very well the socio-cultural factors such as marriage which influence girls' participation in education. However, this framework does not account adequately for all the reasons why girls may not participate in education. Besides socio-cultural factors, other factors, especially socio-economic factors such as occupation, may also account for the low participation of girls in education. Due to the shortcomings of the theory used by Odaga and Heneveld above, there is the need for a model which addresses the relationship between socio-cultural and socio-economic factors and girls' education adequately.

To accommodate and account for the influence of socio-economic factors as well as socio-cultural factors on education, a framework used by Rugh (2000) has been adapted to suit this study. This framework states that girls' education is largely dependent positively on parental attitude and willingness on the part of parents to sustain the costs.

To explain this, Rugh (2000) categorized factors affecting parental attitudes about girls schooling under three main headings: parents background and characteristics, the costs and benefits parents see in education, and the

general norms and practices of the community that affect parents attitude about schooling. According to Rugh (2000), certain background characteristics of parents have been shown in a number of studies to be correlated with educational participation. The three most important are economic level, parental education, and place of residence.

Research studies by Filmer (1999) have shown that fewer children of the poor complete grade one, while more children of the wealthy do so. Therefore when household's incomes are low, girls are the most affected. However, it has been stressed that poverty did not differently affect the participation of girls and boys in mosque schools in Pakistan. Also in Egypt, poor urban boys drop out at or before the end of primary school to earn income or learn skilled trades while girls remain in school with hopes of qualifying for respectable civil service jobs.

In similar vein, Sperling (2005) reported that rightly or wrongly impoverished parents often feel they need their girl-child labour for additional income, just to help with the gruelling requirements of life. Records have it that two thirds out of 13 million children around the globe poorest nations who don't have access to school are girls (UNICEF, 2007). Sperling (2005) also went further to state that 60% of girls in an estimated population of 110 million children in the developing world, where Ghana is one will not have the opportunity of entering school while the few girls enrolled will drop-out.

Again according to Rugh (2000), another important characteristic or parental background is educational status. To the writer, though most studies dealing with this factor report that it is the education of the mother that is an important predictor of whether a girl goes to or stays in school, fathers may

also have some effect. Miske and Prouty (1997) supported this and report that daughters of educated women are as much as 40 percent more likely to enrol in school. Filmer (1999) using Demographic and Health Survey data in India, Nepal and Pakistan, showed that both the average level of educational attainment and the maximum number of years of schooling completed by household adults aged 20-64 have statistically significant effects on the educational participation of children. The marginal effect of increasing the average years of schooling of female adults in the household by one year for example increased the chances of children's enrolment between one and 6 percentage point.

Again, Rugh (2000) wrote that even though parent's decisions about schooling may be largely based on an unconscious sifting of options, it is nonetheless important to review the various costs and benefits as parents may perceive them. To her, poverty had become a justifiable reason for participation. In the past, tradition seemed to be an acceptable reason for a woman not to have participated earlier.

Studies that link education to per capita or household income in Egypt reveal that school enrollment significantly decreases as per capita or household income decreases, with girls' enrollment rates decreasing profoundly as compared to boys (Nagi, 2001; Fergany, 2000). Similarly, using a proxy for households' level of wealth constructed from household possessions of consumer durable, Assaad et al. (2001) found that the household wealth index has a significant positive impact on children's schooling. Filmer (1999) documented a similar finding on the significant positive relationship between school attendance and household level of wealth

for 41 developing countries using DHS data. Elkogali and Suliman (2001), using data for Egypt (1995) and Yemen (1997) find significantly positive association between household level of wealth and child's schooling.

Rugh (2000), in addition, wrote that when primary and secondary enrolments declined in Tanzania in the 1990s and educators discovered children starting school on average much later at about age 10) a study was conducted to investigate the effect of costs on school going. The study found that the private returns to schooling had declined significantly during this period. Parents also saw dramatic difference between the still-affordable cost of primary and the no longer-affordable cost of secondary for poor families. It was concluded that even if more places were provided, without subsidization, the costs of secondary school were high enough to discourage enrolment at both levels, since the returns of primary schooling were not enough without secondary schooling.

Added to this, Rugh (2002) stated that for parents to have a favourable disposition towards their children's education they must come to believe that the benefits of education including the quality of the education their children receive outweigh the costs of schooling. A factor that in some areas draws educational, economic and social benefits together is the fact that, education is a major marker of class status. In Egypt and India, for example, the easiest way for motivated individuals of the lower classes is to make the transition upward to acquire degrees that lead to higher class occupations (Rugh, 2002).

The discussion so far, reveals that both Odaga and Heneveld (1995) on one hand and Rugh (2000) on the other, offer useful insight into parental attitude towards girls education. However, Rugh's (2000) framework more

suiting to this study. An adaptation of the major assumptions of Rugh's (2000) framework will, therefore, guide the study. This framework has been adapted to suit this study. The main assumption is that girls' participation in education largely depends on positive parental attitude.

Though parental attitude is on its own, it is also influenced by a number of factors, some of which are immediate and while others are remote. Socio-cultural and socio-economic factors may consequently influence parental attitude and, hence, the enrolment, retention and transition of girls in school.

Rugh's (2000) framework is relevant for this study in so far as it isolates parental attitude with respect to parental perception, gender roles, parental aspirations and parental/community support as crucial elements in promoting girls' education. In addition, parental background characteristics such as education, occupation and place of residence also influence parental perception, aspirations and support to girls' education.

Gender inequality in education has generated considerable research in the national and international fields. Numerous studies are being carried on, especially in the developing countries where illiteracy and discrimination against women are major issues of contemporary relevance. The relation between female literacy and economic development is often at the centre of such research. Benavot (1989) analysed cross national data on 96 countries from 1960 to 1985 and found clear evidence that in less developed countries, especially some of the poorest, education expansion among school age girls at primary level has a stronger effect on long term economic prosperity than does educational expansion among school age boys. Similarly, Ghosh (1995) found

a third of the girls between 6-11 years of age are not enrolled in school. By age 15-17 years, boys are in school at double the rate of girls.

Velkoff (1998) provides further support of gender disparity in education and shows that three out of five girls attend school versus three out of four boys in India. Women's education is often not taken seriously and school is only considered a place one spends time until marriage (Dhruvarajan, 1989). Data on school attendance show that the proportion of girls attending school decreases with age, while for boys it remains stable (Velkoff, 1998).

Gender bias in school participation is a common feature in India and more so in rural areas (Dreze & Kingdon, 2001). In rural areas, girls' education is also stopped because parents will not allow their daughters to travel beyond the village (Jeffery & Jeffery, 1994). Many villages do not have high schools (Joshi, 1998). Other barriers to girls' schooling include a perceived irrelevance of the curriculum to a girl's needs and an occasional lack of female teachers (Satia & Jejeebhoy, 1991). The general lack of importance assigned to female education relative to male is confirmed in Basu's (1992) study of urban slum dwellers. She found that, in general boys are more likely to be in school and for a longer time. As girls reach 10-12 years of age they are progressively more likely to be withdrawn from school because they have to help out at home. This excuse never applies to boys. Financial difficulties are also considered more valid reasons for not sending a girl to school than a boy (Basu, 1992). While there are numerous studies that have looked at the gender gap in education, there are far fewer studies that attempt to test the causal factors leading to such disparities.

Differential treatment of sons and daughters by parents as a potential explanation of the gender gap in education in the Indian context has been analyzed by Kingdom (2002). The study empirically tests this explanation using household survey data collected in urban Uttar Pradesh. Findings showed that girls face significantly different treatment in the intra-household allocation of education. Existing research also shows that parental education has an impact on school enrolment as well as on the gender differences in child's education (Pal, 2004; Dreze & Kingdon, 2001; Glick & Sahn, 2000; Tansel, 1997; Khambhampati & Pal, 2001; Unni, 1998). For example, a study in Guinea, (Glick & Sahn, 2000) found that father's education affects schooling of both boys and girls while there are almost no cross-sex effects with respect to mother's education.

Another work by Tansel (1997) on Cote D'Ivoire and Ghana shows that in both countries, schooling attainment of children of both sexes is related to the education of both parent but the effect of father's education is stronger than that of the mother. While school participation increases with parental education, both maternal and paternal, maternal education has a more significant effect on girl's schooling. This is confirmed in studies in India where mother's education has been found to have a strong positive effect on girls' schooling, but not on boys (Pal, 2004; Unni, 1998). In both studies, father's schooling significantly encourages boys schooling only and does not have any perceptible impact on that of girls. The chances of schooling for girls from better endowed households and households with most of their income from non-agricultural sources are greater. These variables did not affect the chances of boys' schooling (Unni 1998).

Factors that Influence School Enrolment of Girls

In Ghana, children are expected to help in household chores. The majority of the non-school going children, especially girls, are burdened with household chores or are earning an income which they add to the meagre income of the family. Children begin to share in adults' tasks at an early age, sometimes as early as the age of seven or eight.

It is established in "children and women of Ghana" (Government of Ghana 1990:60) that the most significant cause of non-enrolment is poverty (that is, inability of poor households to pay for education or, in the worst cases, provide food and shelter to their children). The economic dimension of school enrolment has been explored in a number of small-scale studies which gave an idea of the extent of the problem. A survey by Owusu (1987) in Kumasi in the Ashanti Region on "The socio-economic factors that push juveniles into early employment" indicated that a 44% needed money for various school expenses (textbooks, fees and school uniforms) while 27% had engaged in trading to supplement the household budget. Hafiz (1991) also concluded that the child-labour practice being perpetuated by the generally low income of the majority of the people is the major factor contributing to low school enrolment.

Liu (1966) also enumerated some factors that determine the growth of school enrolment. According to him, school enrolment is expected to grow in any dynamic situation where the population is continually increasing (especially, that of the growth of the school-age population) or the school system is progressively expanding, or where both developments are taking place.

Also the growth of school enrolment can be affected in a situation where a country has no policy of education, or where legal provisions for compulsory education are not fully carried out. In this case, the number of children attending school will depend, among other things, on the choice and convenience of parents, the availability of school facilities, etc. an attempt to introduce compulsory education will bring about a higher level of school enrolment and attendance.

He stressed further that in many developing countries the proportion of girls attending school is consistently lower than that of boys. More emphasis on the education of girls would naturally increase the total number of children enrolled in school.

Liu agreed with a UNICEF (1987) publication titled "Future Development Perspective on children", that a major weakness of the existing system of primary education is the admission procedure. A child must enter class one, whenever his or her age is less or six years old since older children shrink back from entry. He continued that a reduction in the number of the proportion of repeaters could lead to a decrease in the drop-out ratio and a corresponding increase in the total enrolment.

However, he cautions that there are limitations to these factors. For instance, an expanding school system requires an ever-increasing number of adequately trained teachers. Even if there were no increase in total enrolment, a school system must recruit new teachers every year to replace its losses due to death, retirement etc. Also unless and until present needs for school buildings and related facilities can be met adequately further expansion in

terms of pupil enrolment cannot be envisaged because it will only aggravate existing problems.

In a 1983 UNICEF publication, Naik (1983) confirmed that the reasons for non-enrolment and drop out of rural children particularly girls, are the difference of the education system to the needs and difficulties of the children. Non-enrolment and drop-out of girls is also due to cultural, social and economic constraints which have not yet been clearly noted and dealt with by educational planners and administrators in developing countries.

Naik (1983) attributed the reasons for low enrolment in India to the absence of strong social demand for it among the poor people and the other sections of the society. Being uneducated and illiterate, they do not see any advantage in being illiterate or attending school. To him, this is due to general irrelevance of the school programme to its environment or to the future life of children. Most of them, therefore, regard education as an undesirable activity which alienates children without fitting them for an alternative and improved way of life.

Again, Hake (1962) noted that parents, who preferred their children to marry as early as fifteen years of age, even encouraged their children to drop out of school. He again, found out that many parents were afraid to send their daughters to school beyond lower primary because they feared that immoral school teacher might corrupt them.

Kwaff (1994), on his part, concluded after a research in two communities in the Central Region that a major factor that affects school enrolment in the two localities is that the fisher folk have no regard for formal school education and so they do not encourage their children to go to school.

He continued that co-incidentally, parents and siblings of about 90% of all the interviewees were once victims of school dropout cases. The literature show that economically, socially, culturally and religiously, girls' are at a disadvantage and if no conscious effort is made to improve their participation in education the problem will persist and the benefits of education discussed above will elude this country.

Attitude of Parents to the Education of Girls

In reviewing literature on girls' education in Ghana, Boakye (1997) stated that the most fundamental factors affecting girls' education in Ghana is rather low parental/community attitude towards educating girls. The literature shows that while the low attitude may be a factor on its own, it may itself be the product of other factors which may be social, economic, cultural and religious.

Literature on parental attitude towards girls' education shows that most of the causes of non-enrolment, low enrolment, high dropout rates and low achievement among girls in school are socio-economic and cultural and underneath these are gender roles. Culturally, many parents have a greater preference for the boy-child than for the girl-child. They believe that, the economic returns on the boy-child are higher since he will grow up to look after them in their old age, whereas the girl-child will eventually get married and belong to the husband's family. Consequently, the boy-child is sent to school while the girl-child is made to stay at home and learn skills like house crafts or cooking; skills she will need to support her husband when she eventually becomes a housewife. Even where such parents have gainful

employment and income and support all their children in school, they are very often apathetic in sending their daughters to school (Boakye, 1997, CAMFED 1996, Agyeman-Mensah, 1994, FAWE, Odaga & Heneveld, 1995).

Socio-cultural beliefs define gender roles for males and females. These make females responsible for child bearing and caring and home keeping as well. Males are supposed to work and take care of their wives and children financially. Males are also supposed to care for their parents in their old age. This does not encourage parents to send their girls to school. Hence, from early ages in life, girls are taught and trained how to take care of babies and the home (Agyeman-Mensah, 1994). As a result of socio-cultural influence, when the family's income reduces or is inadequate, it is the girl-child who is used to make extra income to supplement the little income in order to take care of the boys. If any member of the extended family needs help in the home, it is the girl who is released by parents for such chores because she already has the skills.

Agyeman-Mensah (1994) documented that cultural values which cause females to be seen primarily as important for procreation, has a part to play in how society in general views girls education. This is ingrained in the minds of girls and cause them to fulfil the prophesies of society by aspiring towards what society expects them. He continued that studies have found that, girls worry about their capacity to fulfil their roles as women and as mothers. They worry about whether or not they will be able to have children if they prolong their schooling beyond a certain point. Societal preference is for early child-bearing and this affects the education of girls. For the Ghanaian society in general, it seems that teenage child-bearing is not a problem as long as the

father is identifiable. It becomes even more acceptable if the father is a man of 'means'.

Agyeman-Mensah (1994) further stated that parents who are themselves illiterate and especially illiterate females tend to see little value in education, especially for their girls. It is the same parents who are often without the economic means to cater for even the basic educational needs of their children such as uniforms, sandals or transportation. They also tend to be the same parents who require the services of their girl children to help raise money for the family's needs. Children of such parents are likely to have poor school attendance which consequently results in drop-out. When the drop-out rate is high the nation loses all the benefits associated with education and literate people.

Studies in other countries have demonstrated the importance of parental involvement and motivation for pupil achievement and, therefore, their retention and subsequent advancement (Odaga & Heneveld, 1995). A survey in Ghana which looked into the educational background of parents of students interviewed concluded that the female students who had mothers with higher levels of education were themselves given opportunities and funding to promote their own education to higher levels (Swainson, 1995). This research finding, though not proven significant across countries, is nevertheless significant for the Ghanaian situation (Odaga & Heneveld, 1995, Swainson, 1995).

Boakye (1997) reported that religious barriers also contribute to low parent's attitude. Religious values concerning the need to protect female virginity leads Muslim parents to disregard girl's education when it involves

girls leaving home, particularly, after primary school, to stay in places where parents lose their control over their girl's supervision (Agyeman-Mensah 1994, Odaga & Heneveld, 1995, FAWE). Bogunović Blanka and Polovina Nada (2007) found in a study in Serbia that the family stimulation is the resultant of the influence of cultural and educational profile of the family and active parental attitudes regarding education and attainment of their children. They examined the students' attitudes towards schooling, and to obtain answers to the question: which stimulating aspects of family context are the most predictable for the development of educational aspirations, i.e. attitudes towards school and gaining knowledge, educational interests and plans for further education. The sample consisted of 1,464 eighth-grade sample students, aged 15, from 34 primary schools in Serbia. The data were collected by the use of questionnaires filled in by the students and school principals. The results indicated a trend of interrelatedness of cognitively and educationally favorable conditions within the family and positive attitudes towards school, attainment, high aspirations and cognitive and intellectual interests for out-of-school activities.

In a study of attitude to school attendance in seven Local Education Authorities (LEAs) in England, it was found that most parents/carers believed that children who did not attend school regularly would under-perform in school work, and that it was necessary for young people to get qualifications. However, the findings also indicated that parents/careers of children who are truant tended to hold different attitudes from parents of children who do not have problems with attendance. Fewer parents/careers of children with school attendance problems believed that pupils who did not attend regularly would

do badly in their schoolwork, and similarly, a smaller proportion of these parents/careers believed that young people needed qualifications. This group was also less likely to think that their children's safety was at risk if they were not at school, and were less (World Bank & UNICEF, 2009).

Parental Aspiration for Girls

According to Nyagura (1994), most parents have low aspirations for their daughters. Most of them wish their daughters to marry and become good wives. This emphasis on marriage is detrimental to the educational development of girls. As a result, the expectations of many teachers and parents about the academic performance of girls are lower than those for boys, and girls internalise these expectations and have poor self-regard and low expectation (CAMFED 1996).

Poor attitude of parents in sending their daughters to school may originate from the rather low opportunities opened to girls in the job market. In her work "Gender Inequalities and Access to the Labour Market in Ghana", Juliana in Boakye (1997), used employment data from the 1984 population census to demonstrate that though a greater percentage of the Ghanaian labour force are females, majority of the females are illiterates, mostly self-employed, are concentrated in the sectors that command weak rewards in terms of wages, authority and prestige. She concluded that parents know this and may not be very enthusiastic to send their daughters to school. This is also confirmed by Odaga and Heneveld (1995) in their work on schooling and girls in sub-Saharan Africa. The research concluded that, across the region formal education has historically been linked to employment opportunities in the

labour market, particularly in the civil service. As a result of this, families tend to judge the value of education on the basis of the returns from the labour market. Since historically, girls have been excluded from education and the formal labour market, many families find it prudent to invest in boys because boys are always better placed to explore any formal labour market opportunities.

Gender roles affect parental aspirations for girls because the girl is prepared for somebody as a wife who will be taken away from the family forever. Understandably, why would a parent want to invest in such a person whose labour and toil will only benefit the husband? Parental aspiration for girls tends to be low, affecting their attitude towards girls' education and ultimately girls' participation in education (Agyeman-Mensah, 1994; Boakye, 1997).

Socio-Cultural Constraints to Girls Education

Many families in Ghana and Ethiopia expect girls to get married at an early age and work in the household for which it is perceived that schooling provides few benefits. According to UNICEF, in total 49% of girls in Ethiopia get married before the age of 17. The girls in rural areas are more likely to give up schooling because of early marriage than their urban counterparts as the proportion of early marriage in rural Areas is almost double that of urban areas (55 % versus 27%) (World Bank & UNICEF, 2009).

Traditional and cultural beliefs reinforce gender stereotypes that give preference to boys over girls in access to education, girls have traditionally shared the role of primary care givers with their mothers and they must work

alongside their mothers to generate household income in addition to engaging in the household chores. This prevents girls from attending, remaining and performing in school particularly at the upper primary level when they take on more responsibilities including caring for younger siblings and older relations.

Many of the socio-cultural beliefs and practices negatively impacting girls' education were found to be similar in both countries, with some specific issues having a greater impact in each context, such as puberty rites and Trokosi (female ritual slavery) in Ghana and female genital mutilation in Ethiopia. Cultural practices leading to girls' low self-esteem have an impact on parents' perceptions of their daughters' abilities (Rose & Tembone, 2006).

The parents and teachers often reported that girls had limited job opportunities in the formal sector, which many parents in Ethiopia and Ghana considered as the most important return on their investment in education. Some parents suggested that boys often had greater aspirations than girls. However, girls themselves, like boys, often expressed an extremely high level of aspiration and understanding of the opportunities, open to them if they succeed in education, did not support this view. "I would like to become a lawyer to protect women from all kinds of abuse. We need to safeguard their rights." Grade 8 girls, Dawdo School, Amhara, Ethiopia (Berry, 2008, p.8). Berry (2008) further found that there were no differences between the type of aspirations of children living in urban and rural areas. When household resources are limited, parents are forced to make choices about which of their children attend school. The decision is usually taken on the basis of gender. Unfortunately, girls enrolled in school are more likely than boys to be

withdrawn from school. Some teachers highlighted this issue of domestic chores in Ghana as a contributing factor to drop-outs of school.

According to them,” girls are made to do household chores, unlike boys. This takes away some time for studies on the part of the girl child and as a result her performance in school is below average and her grades are low. The parents see this as a loss in their investment – with the hope that the girl should look after them later.

The girl is therefore taken out of school”. In order to address this, teachers stressed a need to educate parents on the need to give parental care to their children in terms of providing uniform, money for food while at school and adequate rest for pupils. On a positive note, it was observed that social perception and cultural beliefs regarding girls’ education were changing slowly because of increased access to information through media (TV and radio). Lack of trained and motivated teachers, provision of gender sensitive teacher training has a direct impact on the provision of quality inclusive education to increase girls’ participation and performance. For example, in the absence of gender sensitive teaching skills, teachers may not seriously consider the participation and contribution of all students, in particular girls, in situations where stereotypical views and discriminatory practices are not often challenged. Lack of girl-friendly school environment and quality education Basic inputs (human and material resources, infrastructure and facilities, instructional time etc) are necessary for learning.

These elements may be considered in this study. Huisman, Rani, and Smits (2010) studied the role of socio-economic and cultural factors, and of characteristics of the educational infrastructure on primary school enrolment,

The sample constituted 70,000 children living in 439 districts of 26 states of India. The results indicated that most of the variation in educational enrolment (around 70%) is explained by factors at the household level, of which socio-economic factors are most important. And the result also indicated that, in the cities schooling decisions are hardly influenced by supply-side factors. In rural areas, however, these factors do play an important role. If there are fewer schools or teachers, or if the local culture is more patriarchal, rural children (in particular girls) participate substantially less. It was found that in rural areas inequalities between socio-economic status groups are lower if more schools and teachers are available. It has been found further that, three major determinants of educational enrolment: socio-economic status, educational infrastructure, and culture have an impact on primary school participation in India (Evangelista de Carvalho Filho, (2008); Mingat, (2007); Shavit and Blossfeld (1993); Jencks, (1972); Coleman et al., (1966). Socio-economic indices like the characteristics of households, parental income, wealth, education and occupation, have long been known to be major determinants of educational enrolment and achievement in both developing and developed countries.

Presentations at the Second Conference on Gender Equality in Higher Education (Zurich, 2000) included a study on the current scenario of the relationship between higher education and female employment in Mexico in relation to other countries of Latin America (Cuetara, 2001). Studies on many developing countries show that girls were at an educational disadvantage compared to boys. For example, Worku (2001) has examined gender role problems in education in Ethiopia and has found that while girls' enrolment

has increased, the gap is nevertheless widening due to various social, economic and cultural factors that hinder participation and performance of girls. In an analysis of gender stratification in higher education in Iran, Pakistan and Turkey, cultural factors particularly religion were found to be much better predictors than structural factors. Yet there is still a gap between male and female enrolments at these levels. There is also a large rural urban difference with girls in urban areas much more likely to attend school.

In Pakistan, the province of Baluchistan is largely rural and the girls are constrained from entering into and remaining in school due to lack of educational opportunities and economic and socio-cultural constraints. Cultural barriers prevented female teachers in the area, discouraged the enrolment of a lot of girls, many of whose parents prefer to send them to sex-segregated schools after grade three. Community norms and practices suggest that girls are for marriage and motherhood. Community participation was introduced and the communities participated in the recruitment and selection of teachers both male and female teachers who live in the communities. Parents monitored both teachers and pupil attendance.

In a research conducted by Thomas (1996) in Balochistan, Pakistan, it was found that community participation is an important variable in determining girls' enrolment in primary school. He examined whether and to what extent and how community impacts on girl's schooling outcomes in Balochistan. Even though this may not be used in this research to do the analysis it is reviewed because of the good lessons learnt from it. According to Thomas (1996), in all, 106 schools were selected for the survey. Fifty-seven of these schools were established and managed with parent's participation in

the selection of teachers, school building and school promotion and monitoring. Forty-nine had no community participation. According to him, results of the qualitative research suggest that community participation is associated with many changes in the schooling environment which in turn influence outcomes. Specifically, participation helps to make schools more economical, improves teacher and administrator accountability, fosters a sense of “ownership” over the school, increase teacher commitment and motivation, helps to build trust between government and communities, and between schools and parents and enables a government-community partnership needed to run the school. Even though this project was not aimed specifically at improving girls’ participation in education, it succeeded, all the same, in getting more girls to participate in education.

In India, the action-research project for universal primary education by the Indian Institute of Education, based in pune district (1979-85) has been widely recommended for its success in including the educational process children between 9-14 years, mostly girls, from backward areas who had either not enrolled ever in school or dropped out of it. The reviewed of the Indian action-research in this work, is interested in the impact that it may have on Wa West District if replicated, but not to be used in the analysis.

The project selected five areas in Pune district, representing typical climatic conditions. In each area, a team of one Research Officer and two Project Assistants was stationed in a convenient and fairly large village. A group of about 20 contiguous villages and hamlets was selected in each area for organizing part-time non-formal education classes. The total number of

the 9-14 age group children admitted to attend classes came to 4332 in three batches each of two years duration.

Village meetings were held before conducting surveys and establishing classes. The communities were to study the findings of the survey and decide whether they needed and wanted non-formal primary classes to be started. They would provide accommodation for the classes. As the timing considered more suitable was between 7pm and 10pm, the community members would help organize and supervise the classes. The villagers would draw non-professional teaching resources from among themselves. The major objective of the project was to evolve a system of part time primary education for out-of-school rural children in the 9-14 age groups, develop a suitable curriculum and to produce relevant teaching and learning materials.

Part-time classes were organized in mutual consultation between the advisory committee, the village education committee, project staff and annually recruited part-time teachers. Among other things, the education committee would undertake the responsibility to ensure full enrolment, regular attendance and good performance.

Under the watchful eye of the community, the relationship between male teachers in their early twenties and girl pupils of age 12-14 years (marriageable age according to rural conventions despite the law to the contrary), was maintained as between brothers and sisters. This raises the question whether women teachers are absolutely necessary for bringing girls to school.

In the non-formal classes, the enrolment of girls increased to the extent that it came as a big surprise to the project staff. It became obvious that

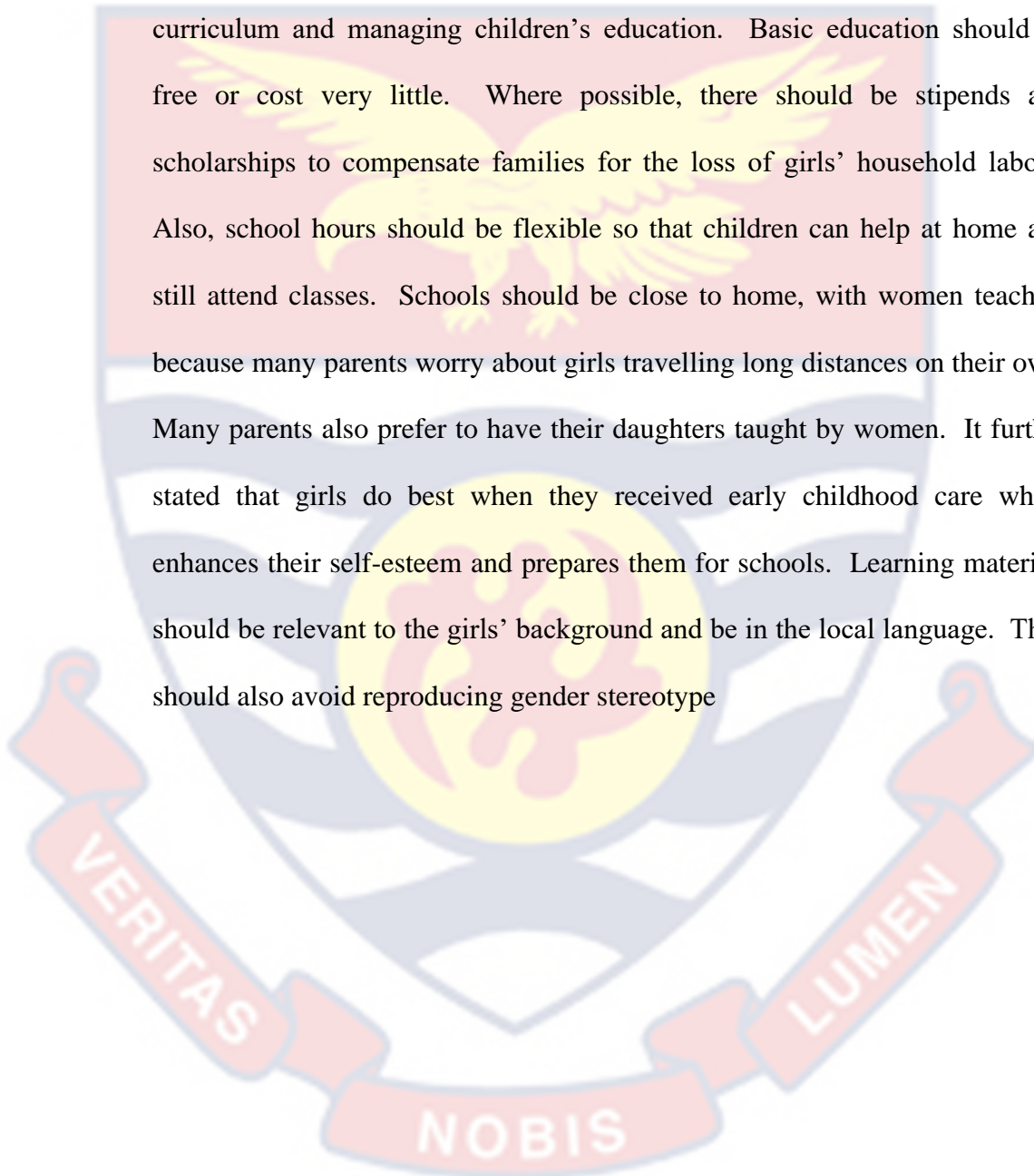
parents motivated their children because it did not interfere with the daily routine of the girls and it helped them to use their evenings to get some education.

The project expected educational achievements of three types. Language and mathematics as a basis for further studies, competence in observation, argument and reasoning as essential to understanding, organizing and carrying out developmental tasks, and social skills and attitudes required for effective community life. At the time of study, it had not been possible so far to study achievements in mathematics and language. It was concluded at the end of the project that the reasons for non-enrolment and dropout of rural children, particularly girls, are mainly two, namely indifference of the educational system to the needs of the children and cultural, social and economic constraints.

Also the local community has been stimulated to look into its educational problems and find ways of solving them. As a result, people in the community have ceased to look upon education as a mystery which only teachers and educational officers understand. It was also cheaper to run non-formal primary classes with community support.

The Indian experience shows that with community support problems and programmes of girl's education are solved with less resource. With community support, programmes of girls' education yield maximum results. Parents became receptive to formal education because by their involvement they gained confidence that their daughters were safe. Parents also realised that education was not only for the rich but also for children from poor home especially girl's whose work is needed to support the family incomes.

The examples above strengthen UNICEF's position on the education of girls. The organization, in its 1996 "State of the World's children" report, asserted that in order to improve girls' access to education, families and communities must be important partners with schools in developing curriculum and managing children's education. Basic education should be free or cost very little. Where possible, there should be stipends and scholarships to compensate families for the loss of girls' household labour. Also, school hours should be flexible so that children can help at home and still attend classes. Schools should be close to home, with women teachers because many parents worry about girls travelling long distances on their own. Many parents also prefer to have their daughters taught by women. It further stated that girls do best when they received early childhood care which enhances their self-esteem and prepares them for schools. Learning materials should be relevant to the girls' background and be in the local language. They should also avoid reproducing gender stereotype



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter provides the description of the process of research involved in the study. The research, therefore, presents an explanation of the methodology used in conducting the study as well as delineation of the research design. The population, sample and sampling procedures, research instruments and administration are all detailed in this section. The content validity and reliability of the research instruments, methods of data analysis and pre-test were not left out as they were included to serve as a base for fine-tuning the research process and findings on the effects of parental attitudes towards girl-child education in Wa West District

Research Design

The study is a descriptive survey. The descriptive survey methodology was used to enable the research break up the population to components or strata in order to have a fair representation and information from different perspectives and shades of opinions on effects of parental attitudes towards girl-child education in Wa West District. The descriptive survey tends to have such short comings as bias, inadequate sample size and to some extent exaggeration of facts by some respondents. Very vital information may also be left out in the collection of data. Withstanding this, the descriptive survey, according to Gay (1976), is most reliable for the assessment of demographic

information, opinions, attitudes and conditions. According to Gay (1976) it is good for generalizations resulting from sampling of population so that conclusions could be made about attitudes, behaviour and characteristics of the population. The descriptive survey was also used because of the large population size.

The study area

The study was conducted in Wa West district of Upper West Region, which has its capital at Wechiau. It shares boundaries with Wa Municipal to the east, Nadoli district to the north, Sawla-Tuna-Kalba district to the south and the black Volta to the west . The people of the district speak Brifo, Waali and Daga. Five communities were selected for the study. These were:

Wechiau which is the district capital has a population of 21,073; Dorimon 25,846; Vieri 13035; Ga 16,546; and Gurungu 16,329. The district capital and Dorimon have health centres while Vieri, Ga and Gurungu have clinics. The district has basic schools and one senior high school (SHS). There is electricity in some parts of Wa West and sources of drinking water for the towns are bore holes and steams. Wa West is about 45km from Wa, the regional capital. Wechiau which is the district capital has bore-holes as its main source of drinking water, no senior high school, but has two basic schools and distance of 45km from Wa. Dorimon has a basic school, no senior high school, has bore-hole as its source of drinking water ,electricity and 14km from Wa. Vieri has no senior high school, has basic school, no electricity, uses bore-hole and dam as its source of water and is located 22km from Wa. Ga has a basic school, no SHS, has electricity, uses bore hole and dam as source of

drinking water, 30km from Wa ,Gurungu has basic school , no SHS , uses bore hole and stream as source of drinking water ,has no electricity, and is 60km from Wa.

Study population

The study was carried out in Wa West district of Upper West Region. The population for the main interview consisted of parents in the selected communities. Other groups interviewed included District Director of Education and headteachers/circuit supervisors in the selected communities. Opinion leaders who live in the selected communities as well as some school drop-out girls were also targets for the interview.

Sampling procedure

Wa West District is made up of five (5) area councils namely; Wechiau, Dorimon, Vieri, Ga and Gurungu area councils. From each of the five area councils a community was selected for the purpose of this study using random sampling through lottery technique. Since all the selected communities had opinion leaders, chiefs, assemblymen/women, a sample of these were selected in order to make a generalization for the whole circuit in which the community was selected, purposive sampling method was used for this selection. Parents and circuit supervisors were selected using purposive sampling method. However, teachers/head teachers were selected using samples with replacement technique. The schools in each of the five selected communities in the five circuits were covered by the study (i.e. 5 schools) using the sampling with replacement technique. The names of all the teachers in the schools of the selected community of a circuit were written on pieces of

paper and folded. The folded papers were then put in a small container and thoroughly mixed. Then one piece of paper was selected and the name on it was recorded. Every time a teacher was selected and the name was written, the paper was refolded and placed back and the process was repeated until the requisite number of teachers for a community (4teachers) were selected.

This method made the selection of respondents more representative and probabilistic. The sex of respondents was purposively chosen for equal representation to ensure that both sexes expressed their views and also to create awareness among women that were equally responsible for the education of their daughters. In all, 161 men and women were interviewed in the five selected communities.

The sample size chosen for each community was made up of 24 parents/community members, four (4) teacher/head teacher of the selected community; four (4) Circuit supervisor of the five circuits where the community was selected from and the District Director of Wa West to represent the entire District. There were 161 people who were interviewed in their places of choice. The people in each community were equally represented by men and women including chiefs, sub-chiefs, elders, women leaders, school management committee members and ordinary residents. People in this category were selected through the purposive sampling method for the interview in each community.

Instruments for data collection

The basic data collection instrument for the study was the interview schedule (mostly open-ended questions). Four different sets of questionnaire

was administered in each of the five communities (one for parents, one for community teachers/head teachers, one for the opinion leaders or the assemblyman or woman and one for the chief and one for District director of education and circuit supervisors).

The questionnaire was designed to collect data and responses from the five selected communities as stated earlier. It was divided into four (4) parts, I, II, III and IV where part 'I' was designed to retrieve information from parents on their personal data and other vital information on their girl-child education, part II was for members in the selected community on their opinion on girl-child education, part III was for District director of education and circuit supervisors on their roles in dealing with girl-child issues in the district and part IV was for teachers/head teachers in the selected area of the study on their views on girl-child education.

Interview was used to complement the response of the main respondents and to seek more information on the people's perception and behaviour towards the education of girls. The views of opinion leaders were also sought through the interview to find out their ability, willingness and readiness to undertake programmes to promote girl's education.

Data processing and analysis

Data gathered from the study was edited and coded and analysed using the software Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) with facilities for descriptive statistics, cross-tabulations and frequency distributions.

Analysis of the field data involved describing, summarising and interpreting data obtained from each study unit. Cross tabulations and

frequency distributions were obtained for this purpose. The test was carried out on the data to determine whether differences between educational background and occupation of respondents were significant to influence responses of respondents and, hence, the conclusions of the study. The purpose of these tests was to find out whether a person's educational background and occupation had a relationship with their perception of girl child education. Immediately after each interview section, the raw field notes were transformed into a well-organized set of notes and ordered in relation to the objectives of the research. The issues raised during the interview session in one of the communities were used to either confirm or buttress issues or concerns raised by the other respondents in the interviews in other communities.

Answers to open-ended questions in the interview schedule for parents were listed and later categorised. This was done based on the research objectives. Answers that belonged together were combined and summarised into three to five categories. They were coded and entered in the computer and counted to generate frequencies and cross tabulations. The result of the computer analysis is presented to visualize possible relationship between certain variables.

Ranking was also used in analysing part of the data. A first position placing meant that the activity was the most important and earned four points; a second position placing meant the activity was important and earned three points; a third position placing meant the activity was less important and earned two points; a fourth position placing meant not important and earned just a point.

Pre-test

A pre-text was done in the Wa west district in July 17, 2012 to test the data collection techniques and instruments. It was also used to test data processing and analysis procedures. The study took place in Lassie-Tuolu and Dornye, both in Wa west. In all ten respondents were interviewed and their responses were analysed manually. Each interview lasted for about forty-five minutes. These communities were chosen because they were part of the selected area council for the main study. The results were analysed as basis to review the instruments for data collection. Lassie-Tuolu and Dornye were used because they had different background characteristics. Whilst most of the people of Lassie-Tuolu were petty traders, those of Dornye were farmers.

Limitations of the Study

The main limitation of the study was that the respondents were purposefully and randomly selected, this was chosen because of the characteristics they possessed. For example parents were chosen because they had children in or out of school.

Despite the limitation that have been outlined above, the validity and reliability of the outcomes of the study will not be affected because the analysis showed that respondents had different educational and occupational backgrounds and were also selected from different localities. The outcomes of the study are valid and reliable to the study area.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and conclusions of data collected from the field in respect of the effects of parental attitudes towards girl-child education in Wa West District in Ghana. The analysis follows a pattern centered on the preliminary data of the respondents which includes: background of the respondents to the study under the sub-topics of the district of the respondents, hometown, locality, sex, age, occupation, academic and professional status of the respondents, as well as marital status. It also discusses the main data on socio cultural factors, matrilineal and patrilineal divide, importance of female education, factors that influence school enrolment and attitude of parents towards the education of girls.

Background information of the respondents

This part elicits information on the background of the parents in the communities. This item required the respondents to indicate their ages, academic and professional status of the respondents as well as marital status as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Background information of the respondents

Background Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
20-29	29	24.2
30-39	30	25.0
40-49	35	29.1
50+	26	21.7
Educational		
Tertiary	5	4.2
Secondary	24	20.0
Middle/JHS	28	23.3
Primary/No formal education	63	52.5
Occupation of Parents		
Unemployed	32	26.7
Self-employed	60	50.0
Salary/wage worker	28	23.3
Marital status		
Single	4	3.3
Married	80	66.7
Separated	13	10.8
Divorced	9	7.5
Widowed	14	11.7

Total number of parents = 120

Source: Fieldwork, 2012

The age range depicted that 29.1% of the respondents being highest fell within the range of 40 – 49 years. The next highest figures 25.0% of the respondents were between 30 – 39. The least age range 21.7% were between 50 and above years. It can be concluded that most of the parents in the Wa-West District fell within the range of 40 – 49 years.

On educational attainment, 52.5% of the respondents had no formal education or just primary school education. While 1.7% and 2.5% were having University degree and Polytechnic education respectively. From the Table it is clear that most of the parents are illiterates. A survey in Ghana which looked into the educational background of parents of students interviewed concluded that the female students who had mothers with higher levels of education were themselves given opportunities and funding to promote their own education to higher levels (Swainson, 1995).

On the aspect of occupation, it was seen that self-employed workers recorded the highest response rate of 50.0% while 23.3% were salary workers. The unemployed rate was 26.7%. The table depicts that there is still a high unemployment rate in Wa-West District. This suggests that poverty is endemic in the area. In Egypt and India, for example, the easiest way for motivated individuals of the lower class is to make the transition upward to acquire degrees that lead to higher class occupations (Rugh, 2002).

Lastly, on marital status, 66.7% of the respondents had married. This formed majority in that section. It is, however, followed by the widowed, 11.7% and those in separation forming 10.8%. The least proportions were 3.3% and 7.5% for single and divorced respectively. It means that there is relatively high rate of widowhood and separation in the area. Parental

aspiration for girls tends to be low, affecting their attitude towards girls' education and ultimately girls' participation in education (Agyeman-Mensah 1994, Boakye 1997).

Number of respondents' children in school

The respondents were required to give the number of their children, who were in school. Parents favoured more boys to be in school than girls as shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Number of respondents' children in school

Age Range	Boys		Girls	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
20-29	27	51.9	25	48.1
30-39	65	54.6	54	45.4
40-49	77	54.2	65	45.8
50+	66	52.5	56	47.5
Total	231	100.0	200	100.0

Source: Fieldwork, 2012

Table 2 indicates that, the parents who fell within the age range of 40 – 49 years had 142 children in school. Out of this number, 54.2% were boys and 45.8% were girls. This is followed by the respondents who fell between 30 – 39 years, who recorded 119 children. With this number, 54.6% were boys and 45.4% were girls. Parents within the ages of 20-29 years had lesser number of children in school. Twenty-seven (51.9%) of these were boys and 48.1% were girls. The elderly parents had 118 children in school. Sixty-two (52.5%) were

boys and 47.7% were girls. There is sex disparity in the school going age. Parents favoured more boys to be in school than girls.

This is in support of Todaro (1999) as he links social progress of women to education. He, for instance, sees a clear evidence of an inverse relationship existing between fertility of women and education. Studies reveal that the longer a female stays at school the less time she has for child bearing and therefore ends up producing fewer children than she would otherwise.

Importance of children's' education to parents

In respect of the question "whose education is more important"? Many parents attached greater importance to boys' education than girls. Table 3 gives the outcomes.

Table 3: Importance of children's' education to parents

Respondents	Boys		Girls	
	Frequency	%	Freq.	%
Parent	88	73.3	32	26.7
Head teachers	13	65.0	7	35.0
District directors	15	71.4	6	28.6
Total	116	72	45	28

Source: Fieldwork, 2012

From Table 3, 73.3% of the respondents indicated that they attached more importance to boys education, while 26.7% said they attached more importance to girls' education. It has been shown that many parents attached greater importance to boys' education than girls.

This supports the view of Odaga and Heneveld (1995) that though the parents may be living below the poverty line, the boy-child, rather than the

girl-child, stands the chance of being financially supported if possible. This is because according to Odaga and Heneveld (1995), in Ghana, Guinea, Malawi and Zimbabwe the costs associated with schooling are higher for girls than boys. This is due in part to the higher cost of girls' uniforms. For modesty reason girls are less likely to go to school in torn or fitting uniforms. Because of safety reasons, parents tend to spend more money on transportation costs for girls.

Retention of girl-child in school

On the issue “what do you think parents can do to ensure that their daughters go to school, remain and complete their course”, when given the girl-child the right environment the girl-child can stay in the classroom. The following responses were given as shown in Table 4.

Table 4: Retention of girl-child in school

Response	Parent		Head teachers		Others	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Motivate child	32	26.7	6	30	8	38.1
provide needs	18	15.0	4	20	2	9.5
Give them Scholarship	50	41.6	3	15	5	23.8
Put in bye-law to restrict them	20	16.7	7	35	6	28.6
Total	120	100	20	100	21	100

Source: *Fieldwork, 2012*

From the Table 4, a great number (41.6%) of the parents and 15.0% of the headteachers said girl-child should be given scholarship. Eighteen (15.0%) of the parents, 20.0% headteachers, and 9.5% of others responded that parents should provide for the needs of girl-child. Twenty-six point seven percent of the parents, 30.0% of heads teachers, and 38.1% of others agreed that parents should motivate girl-child. Concerning bye-laws, 16.7% of parents, 35.0% of headteachers, and 28.6% of others responded that bye-laws should be put in place in order to retain the girl-child in school. It can be concluded that when given the right environment, the girl-child can achieve the desire goals.

The supporting evidence shows that apart from the direct cost of educating girls the loss of the girls' labour at home due to gender roles (e.g. fostering and household chores) constitute an indirect cost of the family and, therefore, parents become reluctant to release girls to go to school. The Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED) experience has also shown that, where scholarships are provided parents willingly release their girls to go to school.

Enrolment (the number of pupils in a class), retention (remaining in school to complete a prescribed programme, in this case Junior High School 3), transition (movement from lower level basic education i.e. primary school to higher level basic education i.e. J.H.S) and achievement (Performance at Basic Education Certificate Examination) rates are always lower for girls than for boys at all levels. Fewer girls continue to higher levels and comparatively, fewer still achieve higher grades during their examinations. In 1996, 77.8% of girls presented for the Basic Education Certificate Examination had the qualifying aggregate of 06-36 as compared to 80.9% for boys. In 1999, 58.4%

of girls presented for the same examination had the qualifying aggregate of 06-30 as compared to 63.5% for boys (M.O.E, 2000).

Respondents views on why it is necessary to educate children

Respondents were asked why it is necessary to educate children and most said they educate children so that they might create bright future for them some quantum also said they educate children so that they might acquire wisdom and knowledge.

Table 5 below shows views why it is necessary to educate children and the response were 49.2% of the parents said we educate children so that they might have a bright future, 15. 8% said they educate children so that the children might take care of them in future, 12.5% responded to the question by saying that, they educate children so that they do not go through hardships, 22.5% said they educate children so that they might obtain wisdom and knowledge

Table 5: Respondents views on why is necessary to educate children

Response	Parent		Head teachers		District Director/circuit supervisor	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Create a bright future for them	59	49.2	8	40	10	47.6
For them to care for me later	19	15.8	3	15	3	14.3
Alleviate them from hardship	15	12.5	4	20	2	9.5

Attain wisdom

And knowledge 27 22.5 5 25 5 23.8

Total 120 100 20 100 /21 100

Source: Fieldwork, 2012

Respondents view on whose education was more important

Respondents were asked whose education was more important and a large number of them said boys' education was more important to that of girl-child education.

The below Table depicts views of respondents on whose education was more important parents said, 65.8% of the boy's education was more important than girls education. Some respondents also stated that girl's education was more important than boys education, they total to 34.2%.

Table 6: Respondents view on whose Education was more Important

Response	Parent		Head teachers		District Directors	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Boys	79	65.8	13	65	12	57.1
Girls	41	34.2	7	35	9	42.9
Total	120	100	20	100	21	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2012.

Reasons why boys' education is Important

Respondents were asked why boys' education was more important and their response was girls are likely to be pregnant as they school. Others also

respond to the question by saying boys are much hard working in term of academia than that of girls.

Table 7: Reasons why boys' education is important

Response	Parent		Head teachers		District director/Circuit supervisor	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Girls maybe Pregnant	76	63.3	8	40	7	33.3
Boys are Hardworking	21	17.5	6	30	9	42.9
Girls may drop out	9	7.5	5	25	4	19
Are to help in the housework	14	11.7	1	5	1	4.8
Total	120	100	20	100	21	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2012

From Table 7, it was depicted that boys' education was more important than that of girls 63.3% of the parent respondents stated that girls are likely to get pregnant as they school, 17.5% of the parent respondents stated that boys are hardworking than that of girls, 7.5% respond to the question by saying that girls are likely to drop out of school, 11.7% of the respondents also said girls are to help in housework.

Reasons for girls' preference in education

Respondent were asked what they want their daughters to become in the future and they said they want them to be lawyers, teachers, traders, nurses and doctors seamstresses.

Table 8: Reasons for girls' preference in education

Response	Parent		Head teachers		District director/Circuit supervisor	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Lawyer	7	5.8	6	30	7	33.3
Teacher	15	12.5	4	20	3	14.3
Housewife	35	29.2	1	5	1	4.8
Nurse/doc.	12	10	5	25	8	38.1
Trader	22	18.3	3	15	1	4.8
Hairdresser						
Seamstress	29	24.2	1	5	1	4.8
Total	120	100	20	100	21	100

Source: *Fieldwork, 2012*

Table 8 shows ambitions of respondent to their children 5.8% of the respondents who were parents said they, if given opportunity would like their children to be lawyers, 30% of the respondents who were head teacher said they want their children to be lawyers in the future, 33.3% of the respondents said they wanted their children to be lawyers in the future, 12.5% of the respondent who were parent said they wanted their children to be teachers in the future. 20% of the respondents who were head teacher said if they had the opportunity they would make their children future teachers, 14.3% of the respondents who were district director and circuit supervisors also stated that they would like their children to be future teachers.

Contribution of parents towards the attainment of goals of daughters

Respondents were asked what they would do to help their daughter to become what they wish for them and large quantum said they will motivate them and others said they will provide their needs for them.

Table 9: Contribution of parents towards the attainment of goals of daughters

Response	Parent		Head teachers		District director/Circuit supervisor	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
	Motivation the Child	35	29.2	6	30	7
Provide needs	38	31.7	5	25	5	23.8
Pay their feels	29	24.2	6	30	5	23.8
Encouragement	18	15	3	15	4	19.1
Total	100		20	100	21	100

Source: *Fieldwork, 2012*

Table 9 above shows attributes of respondents responds to their children 29.2% of the respondents who were parents said they would motivate them to become what they wanted them to be, 31.7% said they would provide their needs, and 24.2% said they would pay the school fees of their girls. For the teachers 30% would pay their fees and motivate them, 25% would provide their needs and 15% said they would encouraged them to go further as shown in Table 9 above. On the part of directors, 23.8% said they would provide their needs and pay their fees, 19.1% would encouraged them and 33.3% said they would motivate them.

The choice of a child of the parents to spend more years in school and the reasons for the choice

Respondents were asked to indicate which of their children they would like to spend more years in school and a large number of them said they wanted their boys to spend more years in school as shown in Table 10 below.

Table 10: The choice of a child of the parents to spend more years in school and the reasons for the choice

Response	Parent		Head teachers		District Director/Circuit supervisor	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
The boy-child	75	62.5	12	60	10	47.6
The girl-child	15	12.5	3	15	5	23.8
Both	30	25	5	25	6	28.6
Reasons (boy)						
take over from the father	77	64.2	12	60	11	52.4
Boy earns come to the house	43	35.8	8	40	10	47.6
Reasons(girl)						
Take over Mothers	78	65	12	60	11	52.4
Earnings goes To Husband	42	35	8	40	10	47.4
Total	120	100	20	100	21	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2012

Table 10 depicted which of the respondents children that will be allowed to spend more years in school, out of 120 respondents who were parents 62.5% said boys should spend more time in school and 25% said both should spend more time in school. Out of 20 respondents who were head teachers 60% said they prefer boys to spend more time in school. Out of 21 respondents who were district directors and circuit supervisors 47.6% said they prefer boys to spend more time in school. The following reasons were assigned for their choices 64.2% of the parents, 60% of teachers and 52.4% of directors wanted their boys to take over from them during old age. Thirty-five percent of the parents, 40% of the teachers and 47.4% of the directors said the girl is likely to be somebody's wife as shown in Table 10 above.

Absence of girl-child in school

Respondents were asked why they do not prefer sending their girl-child to school and a large number said girls may be pregnant. Others said she would be a future house wife.

Table 11: Absence of girl-child in school

Response	Parent		Head teachers		District supervisor	Director/Circuit
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Yes	40	33.3	15	75	18	85.7
No	80	66.7	5	25	31	4.3
Reasons (Yes)						
Pay fees	60	50	7	35	6	28.6

Provide needs	30	25	7	35	6	28.6
Visit child	10	8.3	3	15	4	19.1
Sending her to						
school	20	16.7	3	15	5	23.8
Reason (No)						
Not necessary	15	12.5	2	10	0	0
Not far from						
the school	70	58.3	5	23.8	5	23.8
Have no time	5	4.2	3	14.3	6	28.7
Can go with other						
children	30	25	10	47.6	11	52.4
Total	120	100	20	100	21	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2012

Table 11 above shows reasons for respondents for not sending their girl-child to school, out 120 respondents who were parents 50% said they may be pregnant, 25% said she would be future house wife, 8.3 said they did not considered them as members of the family, 16% said they could learn a trade. Out of 20 respondents who were headteachers, 50% said she may be pregnant, 25% said she would be future wife, 10% said she was not considered as a member of a family.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the research process as well as the key findings that emerged from the research. The chapter also contains the conclusions and recommendations that were made based on the findings of the study. Areas suggested for further research are also presented in this final chapter of the study.

Summary of the findings

Various revelations of the findings had been made from the data collected on the effects of parental attitude towards girl-child education in Wa West District in Ghana. The parents had more boys in schools than girls in Wa West District. This indicates a disparity in the girl-child education.

Most of the girls in Wa West district dropped out of school. This is because they were given out for marriage or engaged in “kayaye”. It was established that, the boy child education was preferred to that of the girl child education.

On the part of parents whose children attended school, it was established that most parents prefer more boys in school than girls. On the issue of importance of education to parents it was seen that most parents preferred more boys to be in school to that of the girls. Concerning the issue of

maintaining children in school, most parents were rather asking for scholarships for their children as shown in Table 4.

On the view of improving participation of girls in basic education, most parents said they preferred that, their children listened to prominent persons on air ways. On the issue of the necessity to educate of children most parents said they educate children so that they might have brighter future. The issue of whose education was more important, 65.5% of the parents said boy child education was more important. Most parents indicated that 63.3% of the girls were likelihood to be pregnant in school.

On the issue of what parents wanted their daughters to be in the future if given the opportunity, most parents said they wanted their daughters to be house wives in the future. On the issue of what parents will do to see what they wanted their daughters to become most parents said they will provide their needs for them. Most parents did not encourage their daughters to go to school (80%).

Most parents in the District preferred their sons to be in school and to stay longer than the girl-child. This was to minimize resource dilution. The community members gave instances why parents did not send their daughters to school as more girls became pregnant before completion and are therefore given out for marriage. It was established by the Headteachers and District Director that instituting scholarship scheme would entice the parents to send their girl-child to school. PLAN-GHANA had therefore taken up the challenge to give scholarship to boost girls' education.

Conclusions

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions were made: The study revealed that parents refused to send their girl-child to school due to opportunity cost concept. They preferred their sons to be in school to minimize resource dilution. The conclusion is that most parents are in the poverty line and therefore wanted to economize their scarce resources.

The drop-out rate of girls from school was quite an alarming proportion. The reason was that teenage pregnancy was prevalence and the girls were given out for marriage. This has affected the drop-out rate very greatly. The girl-child finds the place boring and uninteresting and prefer to be in the house. The Headteachers of the schools in the area confirmed that girls need certain basic necessities which were not provided by the parents. This forced some of the girls to drop-out of school.

Recommendations

Based on the above findings and conclusions the researcher found it necessary to come out with the following recommendations.

Policy makers in education, particularly, Regional and District Directors should put measures in place to encourage girl-child education. This must take the form of scholarship scheme for girls and make job avenues available for them when they complete their education. Government of Ghana must endear herself to girl-child education with respect to reforms in education. This must include FCUBE, scholarship scheme and other interventions that will encourage more girls to be in school. Parliament must enact laws that will cater for girl-child education.

The local parents should create an environment conducive for the girl-child to have interest in school. Attending disco dance, film watching, funerals at night and any act that undermines or hinders females from going to school must be abolished. They should be offered financial and material support.

Headmasters/Headmistresses in the Wa West District need to entice girl-child through free feeding programme, scholarship scheme and provision of free textbooks.

Men who take up innocent ladies as their betrothed wives to end up their educational careers must be dealt with. Special packages should be given to the girl-child who successfully completes her education. The seemingly absence of female teachers in the schools were a concern to the researcher since that will serve as a role model to the girl-child in the school.

The District Director, circuit supervisors, opinion leaders, educators, parents etc. should encourage more females to attend school to attain a higher level in education. The curriculum must be reviewed to make it more gender sensitive and more relevant to the aspirations of girls.

The goals set for the promotion of girls' education in Ghana must require the collective effort of policy makers, educators, community leaders, parents and even the girls themselves. Community members should serve as watch dogs in monitoring the activities of the ladies. This is in the right direction to check the girl-child from any unwanted pregnancies. Some community bye-laws are to be instituted to force parents to send their girl-child to school.

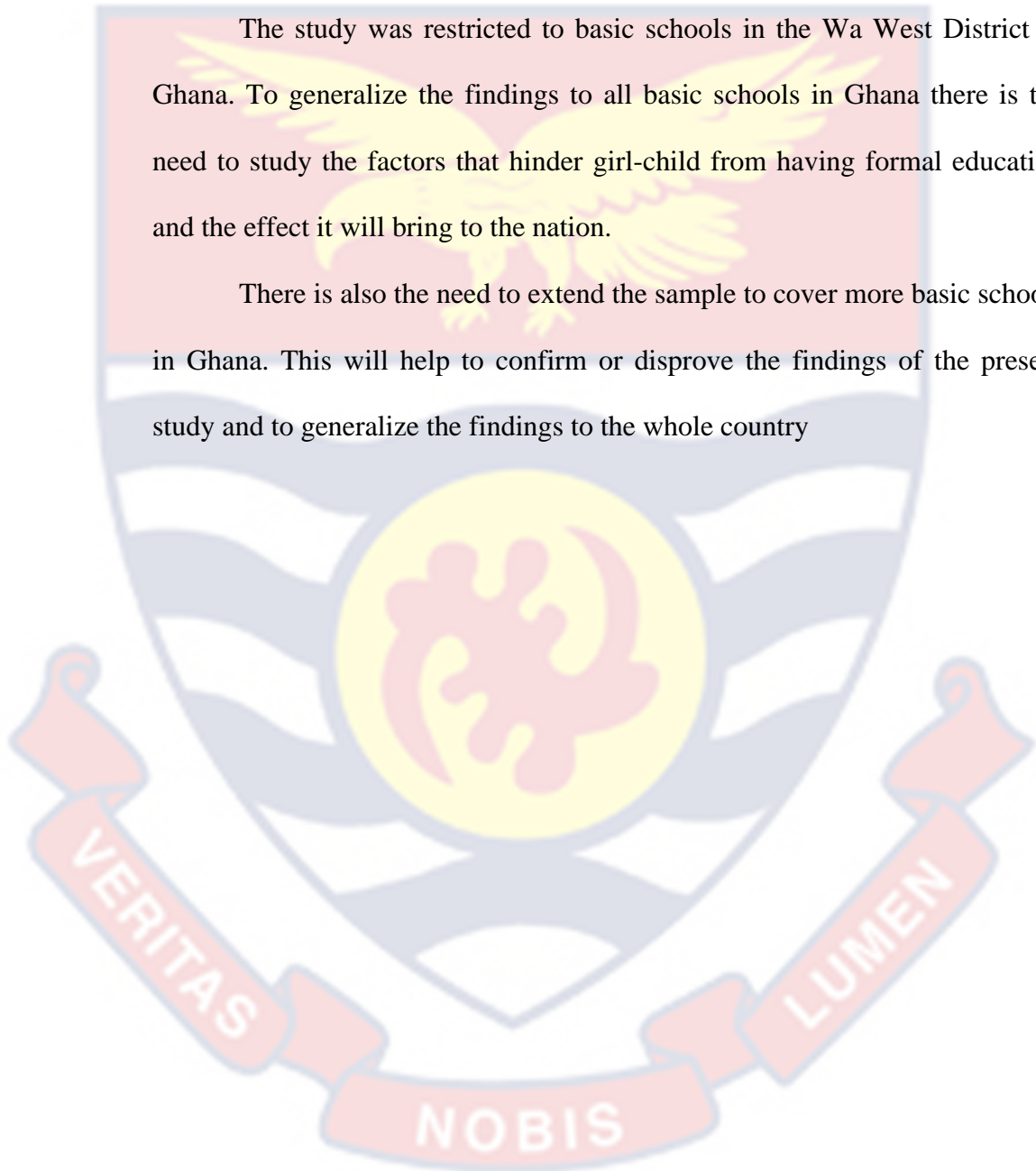
Ghana Education Service in collaboration with District Director of Education must draw up programmes and policy guidelines to improve the

quality of education. Girl-child must be taken from street to school and make them gender friendly.

Recommendations for Further Research

The study was restricted to basic schools in the Wa West District of Ghana. To generalize the findings to all basic schools in Ghana there is the need to study the factors that hinder girl-child from having formal education and the effect it will bring to the nation.

There is also the need to extend the sample to cover more basic schools in Ghana. This will help to confirm or disprove the findings of the present study and to generalize the findings to the whole country



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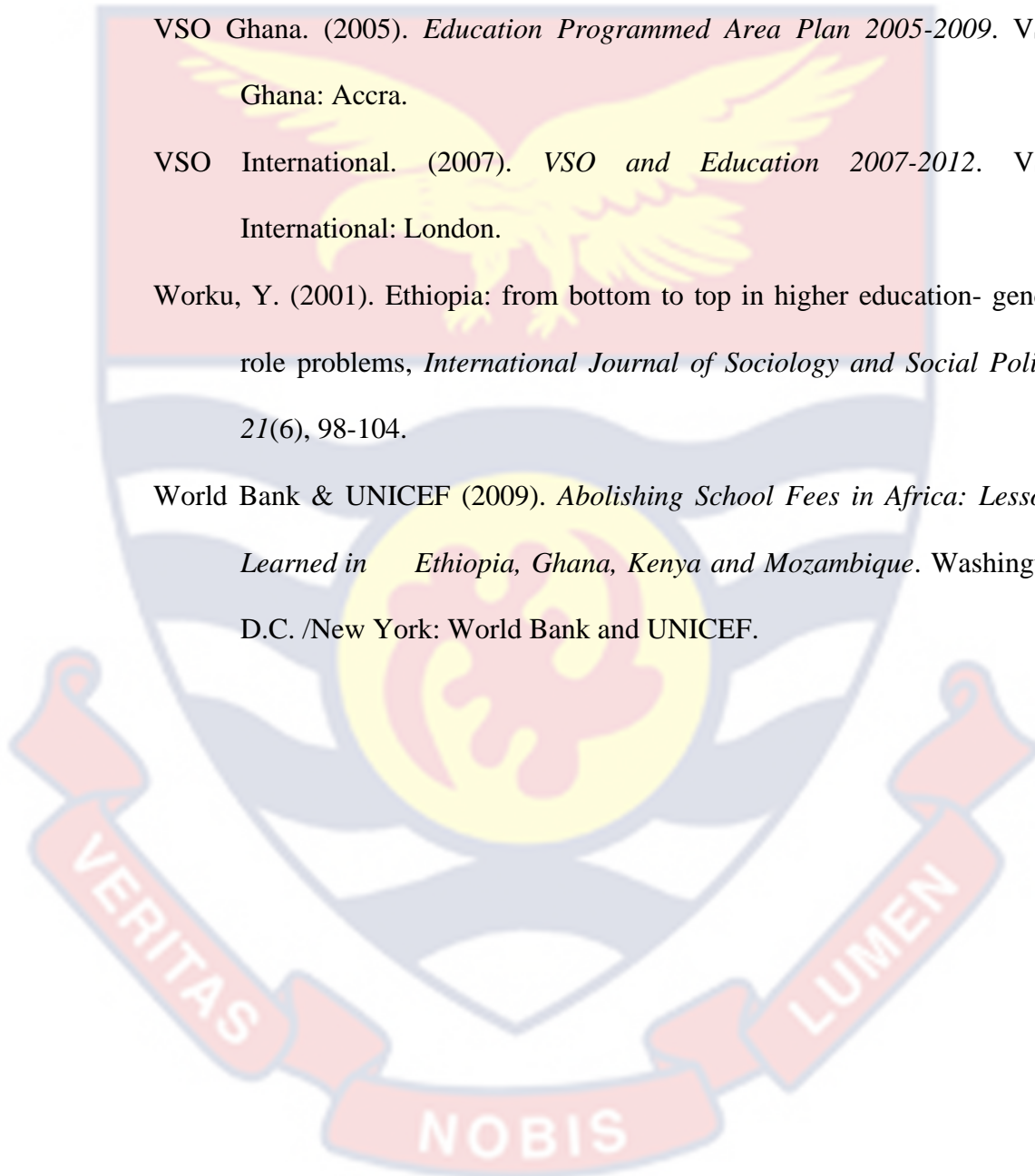
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APPENDIX I

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PARENTS

1. District.....

2. Town.....

3. Locality.....

4. Sex: 1 .Male [] 2. Female: []

5. Age (state).....

6. Occupation:

I. Unemployed /seeking employment []

ii. Self –employed specify

iii. Salaried / wage worker []

7. Highest Educational Attainments:

I .No formal education []

ii. Primary Education only []

iii. Up to middle form 4 /JHS 3 []

iv. Second cycle []

v. Tertiary []

8. Marital status:

I .single []

ii. Married []

iii. Separated []

IV .Divorced []

v. Widowed []

9. Number of children: Total.....

a. Boys b. Girls.....

10. Number of children in school or ever attended school. Total.

a. Boys..... b Girls

11. If any of your daughters is not in school, give reasons.

12. Who decides which of your children should go to school?

13. Have any of your children ever dropped out of school?

i. Yes [] ii .No []

14. If yes, was the child a boy or a girl?

15. Why is it necessary to educate your children?

16. Who should a parent send to school?

I. Son [] ii .Daughter []

iii. Both [] IV. None of them []

17a. whose education is more important:

I.Boys []

ii. Girls []

17b. Give reasons.....

18a. if your resources can educate only one child, who will you educate?

I. Boy []

ii .Girl []

18b. Give reasons.....

19. I f you had the opportunity, what would you want your daughter(s) to be come in future?

20. What should you do to help your daughter to become what you wish for her?

21. In order of importance, list three most important needs of a girl child.

22. If you had the opportunity, up to what level would you educate your:

a. boy child? Give reasons

.b. Girl child? Give reasons.

23. a Who would you allow to spend more years in school?

i. the Boy-child [] ii. The Girl -child []. iii Both [] .

23b. Give reasons:

24. What household chores does your I. boy-child and ii Girl-child do?

Chores:

BOY-CHILD	MORNING	AFTERNOON	EVENING
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
GIRL-CHILD			
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			

25. If it became necessary, which of your children , boy or girl would recommend to stay out of school:

	Activity	Boy	Girl	Reasons
1	Perform household chores			
2	Look after a sick relative			
3	Look after other children			
4	Help on the farm			
5	Help you in fishing			
6	Help you trade			

31a what roles are you, as a parent, prepared to play towards your daughter education?

31b. Explain your answer.

32 Do you think that educating your daughter(s) will be of benefit to?

I .herself?

Ii .you and your family?

Iii. Your community? Explain your answer

33 .Who are more in your in your community?

i. Boy-pupils []

Ii .Girls-pupils []

34. Why is the situation s o (in 33)?

35. What do you think parents can do to improve the participation of girls in basic schools in your community?

36. Suggest three ways through which your community as whole can help to improve girls' participation in basic education?

37. What has your community done so far towards girls' education?

38. Who took /initiated the decision as to what the community should do?

39. Are you aware of any measures that the ministry of education wants to take to promote girls education?

I .Yes [] No [].

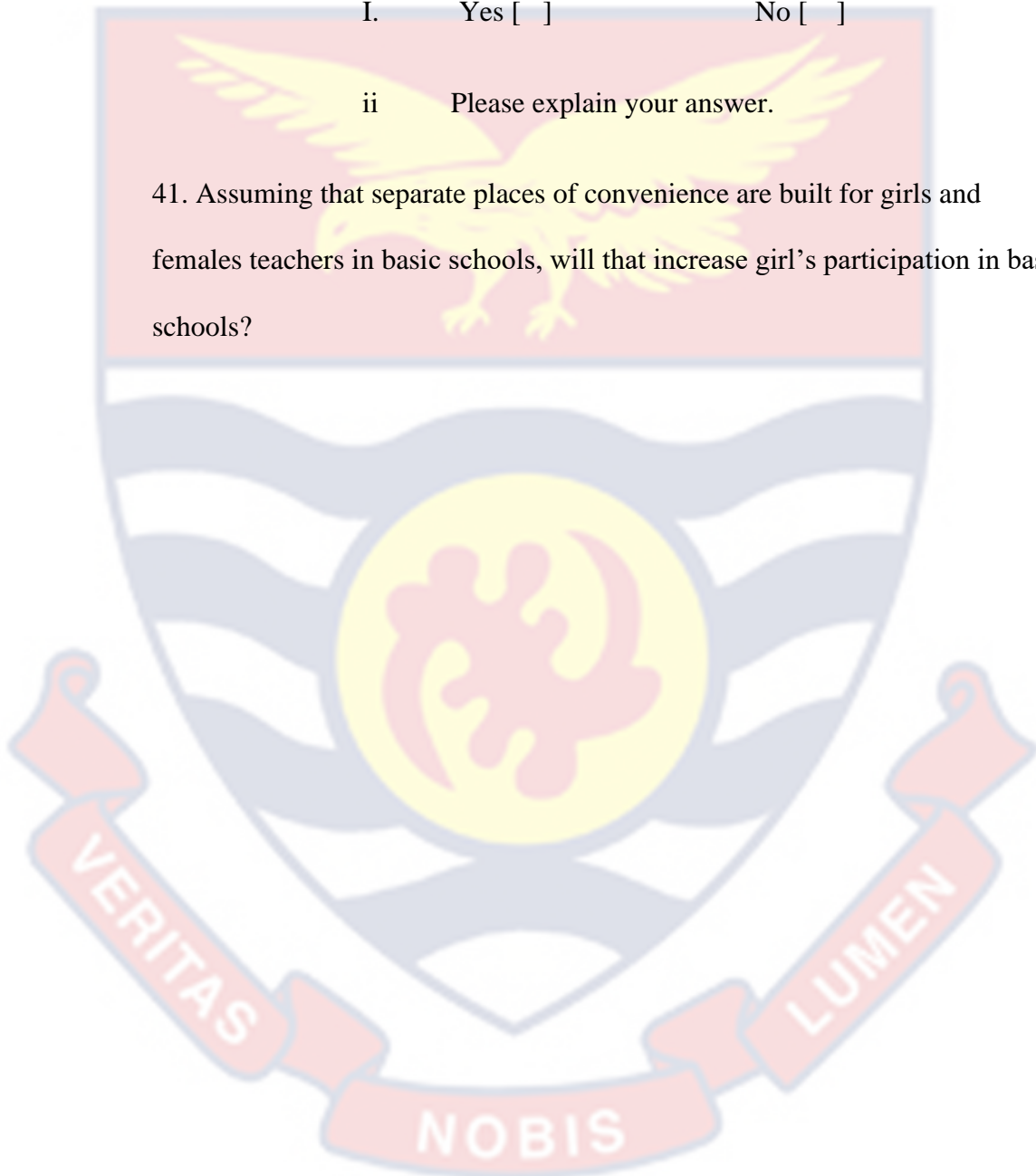
ii .if yes mention some of them.

40. If selected girls are given scholarship by the district assembly, will it increase girls participation in basic education?

I. Yes [] No []

ii Please explain your answer.

41. Assuming that separate places of convenience are built for girls and females teachers in basic schools, will that increase girl's participation in basic schools?



APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COMMUNITY GROUPS

1.

Locality.....

2. What is the sex distribution of pupils in the school?

3. If there is any disparity in sex distributions please explain.

4a. Do some people in the community refuse to send their daughter(s) to school?

i. Yes [] No []

4.b Give reasons.

5a. If you were asked to choose, who would you send to school, boy, girl or both?

5b. Give reasons.

6 Why is it necessary to send children to school?

7. Why would a parent not send his/her children to school?

8 What benefit accrue to a girl ,who completes at least basic school?

a. to herself and to her family?

b. to her community?

9 .Give reasons why educating a boy might be:

a. More important to you than educating a girl?

b. less important to you than educating a girl?

10. What do you think parents can do to ensure that their daughters go to school, remain and complete courses?

11. What can the the community do to ensure improved participation of girls in basic education? Suggest some ways.

12. What has your community done so far towards girl's education?

13. Who initiated the the action?

14a. Are you aware of any measures that the ministry of education wants to take to promote girls education?

i. Yes [] No []

14b.If yes mentions some of them.

15a. If selected girls are given scholarship by the district assembly, will it increase girl's participation in basic education?

i. Yes []. ii No [].

15b.Please explain your answer.

16a. Assume that separate places of convenience will be built for girls and female teachers in basic schools; will this increase girl participation in basic schools? I. Yes [] ii. No []

16b.Please explain your answer.

17a. Will the increase of female teachers in basic schools in your community encourage girls to remain in basic schools? i. Yes [].

ii. No [].

17b .Please explain your answer

.18a. Were you consulted by the Ministry of Education before recommending these strategies for increasing girls' participation in basic education?

i. Yes []

ii No [].

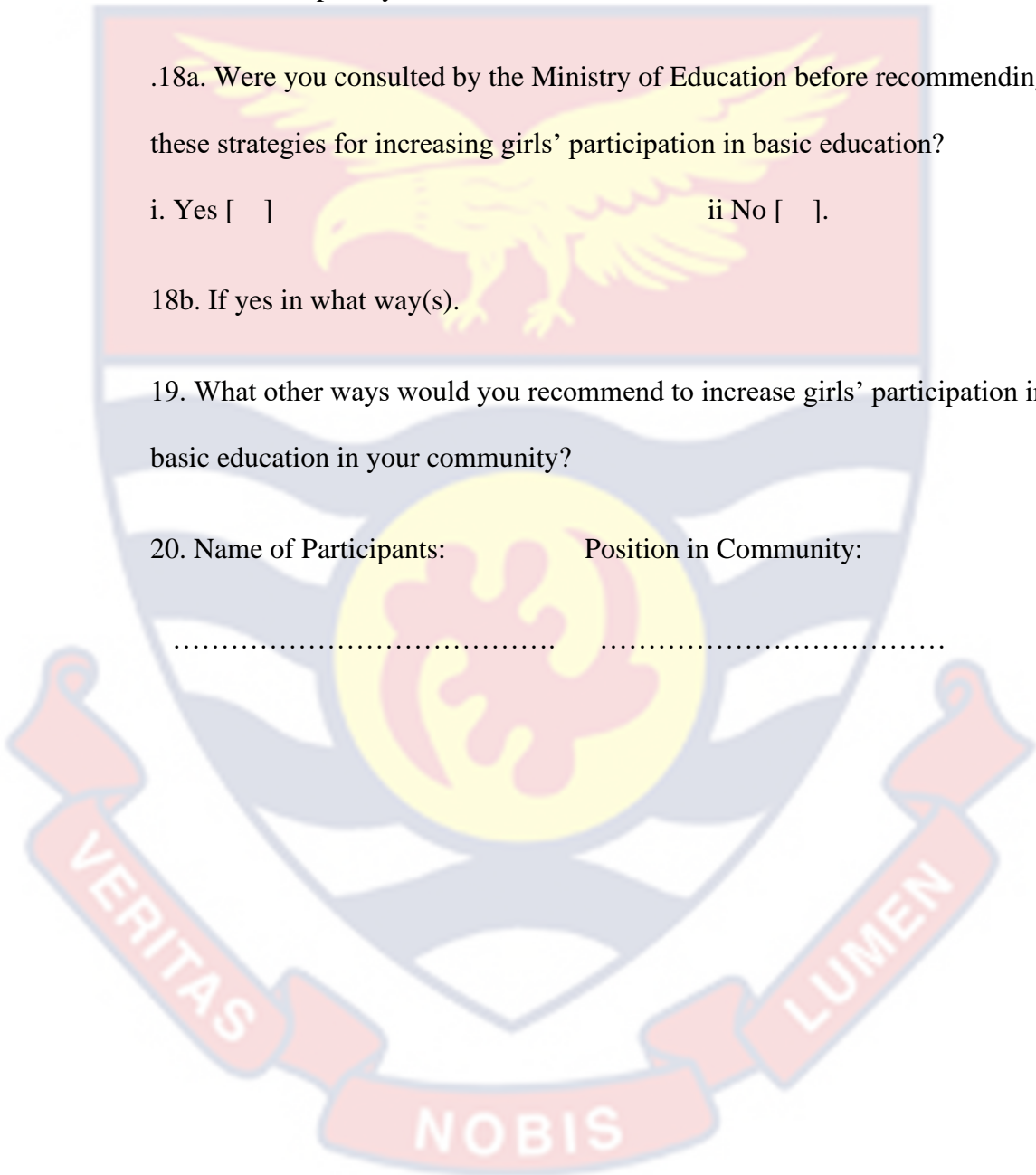
18b. If yes in what way(s).

19. What other ways would you recommend to increase girls' participation in basic education in your community?

20. Name of Participants:

Position in Community:

.....



APPENDIX III

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR DISTRICT DIRECTORS

1. Locality

2. What is the sex distribution of pupils in this district?

3. If there is any disparity in sex distributions please explain.

4. In your opinion, which of the sexes stop schooling more?

5. What are some of the reasons for stopping school?

6. What do you think parents can do to ensure that their daughters go to school, remain and complete their courses?

7. What can the communities do to ensure improve participation of girls in basic education.

8. What do you think the district education in collaboration with the district assembly do, to ensure that girls enroll, remain and complete their courses?

9. What has been done so far by these organizations towards girls' education?

10. Who initiated the action?

11. Are you aware of the measures that the Ministry of Education wants to take as part of the FCUBE programme to promote girls education?

12. Why do you think girls but not boys should be given scholarship by the district assembly?

13. What is your opinion on the measure that girls and female teachers should be provided with separate places of convenience in basic school?

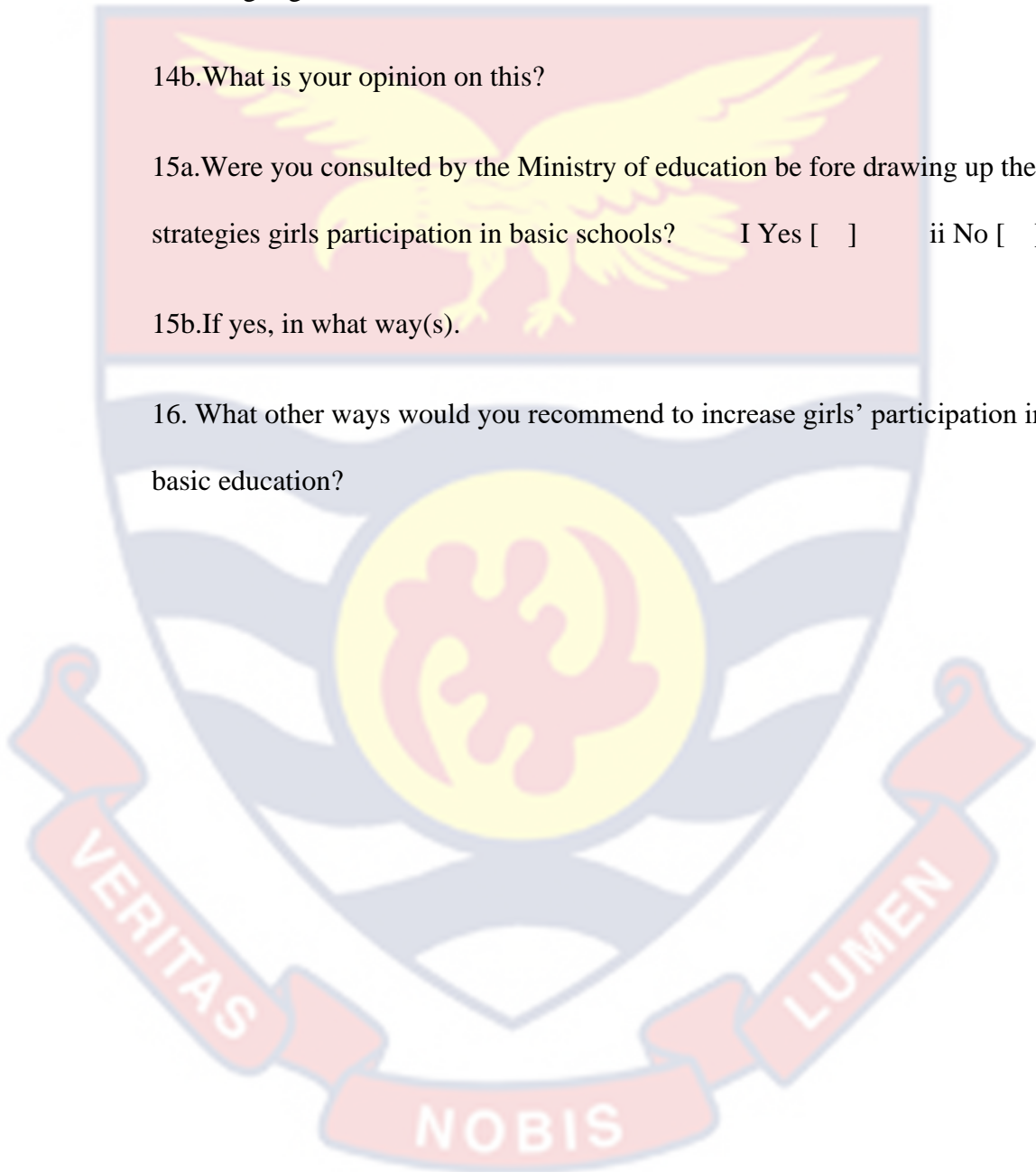
14a. Will the increase of female teachers in basic schools in your district encourages girls to remain in basic schools? I Yes [] ii No [].

14b. What is your opinion on this?

15a. Were you consulted by the Ministry of education before drawing up these strategies girls participation in basic schools? I Yes [] ii No [].

15b. If yes, in what way(s).

16. What other ways would you recommend to increase girls' participation in basic education?



10. What has your community done so far towards girls' education?

11. Initiated the action?

12. What do you think your school can do to ensure that girls enroll, remain and complete their courses?

13. What has your school done so far towards girls' education?

14. Who initiated the action?

15. Are you aware of any measures that the ministry of education wants to take to promote girls education?

i. Yes [] No [].

ii. If yes can you please mention all those you know?

16. If selected girls are given scholarship by the district assembly, will it increase girls' participation in basic education?

I. Yes [] No [] ii. Please explain.

17 Assume that separate places of convenience will be built for girls and female teachers in basic schools will this increase girl participation in basic schools? i. Yes [] No []

ii. Please explain.

18. Will the increase of female teachers in basic schools in your community encourage girls to remain in basic schools?

I. Yes [] No []

ii. Please explain.

19. Were you consulted by the Ministry Of Education before recommending these strategies for increasing girls participation in basic education?

i. Yes [] No []

ii. If yes in what way(s)

20. What other ways would you recommend to increase girls' participation in basic education in your community?

