

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

FACTORS AFFECTING FEMALE ENROLMENT
IN BASIC SCHOOLS IN TWIFO HEMANG LOWER DENKYIRA DISTRICT

BY

NICHOLAS ADU MFOAFO

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DECLARATION

Candidates Declaration

I hereby declare that this dissertation is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature Date.....

Name : Nicholas Adu Mfoafo

Supervisor's Declaration

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

Supervisor's Signature Date.....

Name: Dr. Y. A. Ankomah

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to find out the factors affecting female enrolment in basic schools in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District .Using the District as the case study. A total of 150 parents, 100 teachers and 150 dropout girls formed the accessible population. Within a period of two months, the researcher and his two assistants interviewed all the 400 respondents. Data collected were analysed manually and electronically by using descriptive statistical tools such as simple frequencies, relative frequencies and percentages.

At the end of the study it came to light that many parents could not enroll or support their daughters' education due to poverty. Again, it was found that non-literate parents, especially, those in the rural communities had negative attitude towards female education. Based on the findings a number of conclusions were drawn and recommendations made on certain important factors to be considered for the necessary remedial measures to be instituted and implemented to better enrollment of girls in the basic schools in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District. Specifically, it was recommended that women groups should assist girls with their basic school amenities so that it would enhance girls' enrollment in the basic school in the district. In the same light, educated females from the district should team up with female teachers to mentor girls so that they would strive to remain in school because the benefits that would accrue from schooling are numerous.

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my wife Georgina Adu and all my children.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Education is said to be the key to national development. This implies that before a country can fully develop, it needs skilled manpower. The important role played by education in developing human resources for both boys and girls is an undeniable fact recognized the world over (Claxton, 2008).

Formal education offers greater opportunities than other forms of education especially, at the early stages of an individual's life (Osei, 1994a). Towards that end, it can be said that education introduces people to general and basic skills and disposes them to practical and vocational skills which help to expose their innate practical abilities. Female education plays a vital role in the development of human resources and also leads to the social advancement.

The 1992 constitution of Ghana provides for equality of access to education, elimination of gender role stereotyping and an education system which is expected to close the gap in educational levels between men and women. In the light of this, Kyei-Bafour (2000) held the view that "women must be allowed to study all types of subjects without bias, and they must be allowed to develop to peak in all spheres of life – in sports, engineering, medicine, arts etc" (p.12). Unfortunately, Ghanaian women started off their educational history from a

considerably disadvantaged position because colonial education under the Wesleyan, Basel and Catholic Missionaries discriminated against them. The records have it that for every 100 boys the Wesleyans admitted; there were only 11 girls, whilst, the Catholics admitted 28 girls to 100 boys. The Basel Missionaries on their part, admitted 100 boys to 59 girls (Eyiah, 2004).

The Missionaries believed in separating boarding schools for boys and girls at the secondary level. This attitude towards female education led to the establishment of more boys' schools than of girls. When the government of Ghana started building secondary schools, there was an unwritten convention that only one-third of the places in co-educational institutions should be given to females. For example, in Achimota School in the 1970s and 1980s, females with higher common entrance examination pass marks were denied admission to the school because the quota for girls had been exhausted (Dolphyne, 1992).

The biblical story about the serpent and the fall of man is attributed to women. Hence, many people look at women as people of weaker conditions who can easily be tempted. Sometimes, women are regarded as superficial, talkatives and loose in many aspects of life. Again, in traditional religion, preference is often given to males because of the belief that the 'woman's place' is the kitchen. This belief stems from the notion that no matter how high the woman's education can be, she will one day end up in the kitchen to cook and raise children. The belief is that such duties do not need any formal education to execute. Also, some people argue that no matter what one does to develop a woman she will one day be found in the arms of somebody who did not contribute to her training, therefore, it is

more profitable to train a man than a woman (Kyei-Baffour, 2000). These beliefs had persisted in spite of Dr. Aggrey's premonition that if a woman is given adequate formal education, the impact is much more felt on the larger society than that of a man. In fact, female education had not received much attention at the national level though various educational ordinances and programmes have always made provision for girl-child education on equal footing as that of boys (Kyei-Baffour, 2000).

For instance, the 1992 Constitution of Ghana creates equal educational opportunities to all its citizens irrespective of sex, cultural background or geographical location. This is the main objective of the FCUBE Programme which states that education shall be free, compulsory and available to all. Thus everybody is capable to pursue any course of education to any level according to his or her ability or interest without any restriction (Ankomah, 1990). However, observation in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District indicates that many girls who should have been in school according to their ages, are out of school, with a greater number of them engaging in petty trading like selling of kerosene, iced water, second-hand cloths and small scale farming etc.

Studies on factors affecting female education indicate that girls perform a larger share of a family's labour than boys (Girls' Education Unit – GES, 1997). They cook, clean the house, fetch water and help their mothers in trading. These household chores are sometimes burdensome and detrimental to effective participation of females in formal education.

Again studies on female education have shown that the educational background of parents has a profound influence on their daughters' effective participation and smooth transition on the educational ladder (Swainson, 1994). In other words, girls whose parents attain an appreciable level of education do not easily drop out on account of poor parental attitude or poverty. Teachers on the other hand, tend to transmit the female cultural stereotypes to girls consciously. They create impression that girls are not capable as boys in certain fields of education as such should not venture into certain areas of study. For example, girls are often advised to shy away from subjects like science, mathematics and technical courses. Girls who excel in these subject areas are branded "Witch" or given derogatory names by both teachers and school mates (Boakye-Donkor, 1997).

Teachers' attitude (mostly gender biased) textbook and materials, classroom organization and choice of programme of study implicitly communicate gender differentiated roles and sex stereotyped behaviours that reinforce girls' negative self-perception. The school environment with its gender related factors which include pregnancy and sexual harassment, inadequate number of female teachers to act as role models, non availability of girls – specific structures and finally the distance to school have been found as barriers to female education (Hyde & Kadzamira, 1994).

As at 1998, female teachers constituted about 36% of the total teaching force in the country and the majority of these teachers are in the urban centres (Girls' Education Unit Progress Report, 1998). There is therefore the need for

more female teachers to be sent to deprived and remote areas so as to beef up the enrolment of females. Towards the middle of the 1990s, the Ministry of Education (MOE) adopted a strategy which was geared toward improving the basic education sector. The MOE policy document indicated that “to ensure higher percentage of girls’ enrolment, it is recommended that more female teachers should be posted to areas of very low girls’ enrolment” (MOE, 1996, p.36). This is expected that girls have role models whose examples will urge them to achieve greater heights of academic performance.

According to Atakpa (1978), parents object to the lack of basic facilities at schools, notable latrines and boundary walls considered necessary to protect their daughters’ dignity and security. In Ghana, some schools especially those in the rural areas do not have separate urinal and toilet facilities for boys and girls, and these do not encourage parents especially those from Moslem communities to send their daughters to school.

When schools are located closer to pupils’ home, parents do not worry about their children’s school attendance, especially, girls. Fentima (1996) writing on school conditions in the Afram Plains, indicated that in communities where there were no schools, children had to walk several kilometers. The distance factor was cited as a prime reason for non-enrolment of young children, especially girls. This contributed to the large percentage of non-enrolled children in the ages between 6-7 years. Even though, the 1992 constitution of Ghana states that basic education shall be free, compulsory and accessible to all, it is currently not free (Ghana Education Service, Girls’ Education Unit, 2009). The government has

introduced Free Compulsory and Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) but many girls will lose out of education simply because it is not their families' priority that they should be educated. Since resources are limited to many parents a choice is made between boys and girls. This choice is most likely to be in favour of boys, whose parents think educating them would bring direct and good returns to the family. Statistically, female headed households in the country have increased from 29% in 1984 to 35% in 1995, with the percentage in rural areas rising from 40% in 1985 to 47% in 1996 (Owusu-Darko, 1996).

The problem of female education at present is considered as one of the crucial issues in education. Under the Beijing Platform of Action, education is considered as a basic human right and the key to achieving the goal of equality development and peace. Many countries have been charged with the responsibility of ensuring quality education for female students. In recognition of the importance of female education, successive governments of Ghana have designed policies on education, creating a free and fair environment for universal education. Since the country attained political independence, the policies of Ghana have been aimed at universal and free basic education for all children of school going age. For example, the education Act of 1961 advocated for free and compulsory education for all children. The education reform policy of 1987 targeted expansion and equality in access at all levels of education. In the reform policy, the government also undertook to reinforce its commitment to female education by stating unequivocally that the target for admission and retention throughout the system should be 50% male and 50% female. To further ensure

gender balance in the curriculum, another policy which enjoins all students to study all subjects at the primary levels was formulated for implementation. Until then, home science, cookery and needlework were exclusively studied by girls whilst boys studied carpentry and other technical subjects (Simpi-Amuzu, 2001).

In spite of all these measures to address the enrolment disparities between males and females, girls continue to lag behind boys at all levels of education. Writing on girls' enrolment rates, Osei (1994a) showed that generally enrolment of females has been falling at all levels of formal education over the years. He used secondary data to demonstrate that in the early 1990's. For every 100 pupils in the primary schools, only 45 were girls. The proportion reduces as they climb the academic ladder. At the JHS level the percentage of girls falls to forty-one percent (41%). By the time they get to SHS level for every 100 students, there were only thirty-three (33) girls compared to sixty-seven (67) boys. When they reach University level, the percentage of females further reduces to 22 while that of males increases to 78 (Osei, 1994b).

The government of Ghana has taken a number of steps to redress the disparities in enrolment ratios of males and females, and also the alarming attrition rate of girls. In line with this, a Girls' Education Unit (GEU) was established in 1997 by the Ministry of Education (MOE) within the Basic Education Division of the Ghana Education Service (GES). The unit has been charged with the task of increasing participation of girls in the formal education system. The objectives are outlined below:

1. To increase enrolment of girls in basic education to equal that of boys

2. To reduce the drop-out rate of girls from 30% to 10% to increase the transition rate of girls from basic education to Senior Secondary from 30% (1996 estimate) to 50%.
3. To expose ten thousand girls from Basic and Senior Secondary Schools to the Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STME) clinics with the expectation that at least 30% of girls would choose science as elective at the Senior Secondary level.

The objectives stem from the identification of constraints to girls' education throughout the country. While each region, district and community has its own unique contextual factors which hinder or help girls to enroll, participate and remain in school, there are nonetheless certain constraints which affect many girls countrywide. The major constraints are, poverty, pregnancy, early marriage, gender insensitive curriculum high opportunity cost of sending daughters to school, the lack of a girl-friendly school environment, poor attitude of parents and community members forged by gender-stereotyping. To able to push these objectives through, Regional and District GEUs had been set up to coordinate all activities intended to improve girls' participation in formal education (GEU Progress Report, 1997).

Statement of the Problem

Active girls' participation in formal education in Ghana had caught the attention of several stakeholders, especially governmental and non-governmental organisations. Towards this end, measures had been instituted by the Girls Education Unit of the Ghana Education Service (GES). The Unit has adopted a

number of strategies and programmes to improve girls' enrolment and retention in school. The strategies adopted are being implemented in collaboration with the country's development partners, non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and community-based organisations (CBOs) to increase access of girls to the full cycle of education. Some of the specific strategies include community mobilisation and sensitisation to create awareness of the importance of girls' education, the organisation of role model outreach programmes, the development and dissemination of communication materials to educate people on the importance of girls' education and the organisation of radio or television programmes to promote girls' education.

To operationalise the strategies, several workshops had been organised but the enrolment levels of girls in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District is still lower than boys (See Appendix A for the enrolment figure for 2006, 2007 & 2008 for both Primary and Junior High Schools). The percentage of female representation in the public schools of the district leaves much to be desired. Despite numerous interventions instituted by central government and other non-governmental organization to increase female enrolment to catch up with their male counterpart, the situation is the same. What might account for this situation? The answers to this question calls for a study, which results would give a clearer picture to the issues involve.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to find out the factors that militate against the girl-child participation in formal education. Specifically, the study sought to:

1. Assess the factors that account for the low female enrolment level in the basic schools of the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District.
2. Examine parental attitudes towards female formal education.
3. Evaluate teacher attitudes towards girls' participation in formal education.
4. Analyse how distance travelled by girls influence their participation in formal education.
5. Assess the impact female role models make towards girls' participation in formal education.

Research Questions

Research questions were formulated from the specific objectives of the study. The formulation of the research had further helped in developing instruments for data collection. The research questions are:

1. What factors account for the low female enrolment in the basic schools in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District (THLDD)?
2. What attitude do parents (both literate and illiterate) exhibit towards female formal education?

3. What are the attitudes of teachers towards girls' participation in formal education?
4. What is the influence of distance travelled to school has on female enrolment in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District?
5. What are female role models doing about girls' education in the area?

Significance of the Study

First and foremost, several aspects of the study would highlight the challenges girls face in their participation in formal education in Ghana. This is because some studies and seminar papers have drawn attention to some of the concerns. Since this study is current, part of the background, statement of the problem and a larger part of the literature would give the most recent information on the girls' participation in formal education in Ghana and across the world. In order words, the study would contribute to existing literature on girls' participation in formal education.

Secondly, the findings of the study would help educational policy makers fashion out the most appropriate measures to deal with the low female enrolment in formal schooling especially at the basic levels. This is because the FCUBE document has its focus, universal basic education, but consistently, this seems to have become a mirage. The recommendations had made it clear that there have to be attitudinal change from all fronts, that is parents, teachers, educational administrators and agencies should make conscious efforts to ensure that girls' fully participate in formal education because the merits for their total participation far outweigh their non-participation.

Delimitation

The study was confined to female school drop-out in 10 circuits of the Twifo Heman Lower Denkyira District of the Central Region. Two schools were selected from each circuit.

It must be pointed out that the study did not make assessment of the numerous interventions in the district geared towards the promotion of female enrolment and retention in the schools. Similarly, the study did not consider the teaching abilities of both male and female teachers. It rather considered the classroom interactions and attitude of teachers towards the sexes.

Furthermore, this study could not analyse gender biases in all the curriculum materials of the sampled schools. Finally there has been an influx of mostly teenage girls to urban centres for the purpose of seeking casual jobs, among others. This study did not attempt to determine the impact of this frequent outflow of girls on female enrolment and retention in schools.

Limitations

Ideally, the study should have covered all the schools within the district but time constraint did not allow that to be done. Besides, financing of the study was a challenge that affects data collection to some extent. This is because several other stakeholders should have been interviewed other than teachers and parents. In spite of these two limitations, the selection of the respondents was very representative such that the results are very reliable and valid and it can be generalized to the study population.

Organization of the Study

Chapter one is concerned with the introduction to the study. It deals with the background to the study, problem statement, the purpose of the study, research questions, significant of the study, the scope of the study, delimitation and limitation of the study. Chapter two reviews the literature related to female enrolment and retention.

The third chapter describes the methods and procedures used for the study. These are the research design, population, sample technique, instrument, pilot testing, data collecting procedure and the analysis of the data. Chapter four discusses the findings and analyses of the data collected from the field. These findings are put in the form of tables and percentages. Chapter five outlined the summary of the study and the conclusions arrived at.

CHPATER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter deals mostly with what other researchers have written about female education and particularly girls' enrolment levels. It involves the systematic identification, location and analysis of documents containing information related to the study. These documents include newspapers, books, abstracts, periodicals, books, journals and other research reports. In this chapter, the similarities and more importantly, the differences between previous studies and the current study are pointed out. The review covers three broad headings, which are related to female enrolment and retention. These areas include parental background factors, parental attitude and the school environment. Each of these headings has a number of sub-headings which are all relevant to the topic under study.

Factors that affect Girls' School Enrolment

The importance of girls' active participation in formal education had been emphasised severally. In the view of the King and Anne (1993), the education of female is paramount to the development of a nation. They explained that women are involved in all kinds of activities both at the community level and the regional level: Farming, trading, child bearing and general household chores are all

associated with women. Hence there is an urgent need to make education accessible to them to enable them contribute meaningfully to nation development.

Numerous studies have shown that female education is a pre-requisite for greater social autonomy for women and for improving the socio-economic status of their families. Inequality in female access to education has continued despite commitments by various governments to the goal of formal education.

In a case study undertaken by Adetunde and Akampae (2008) in senior secondary schools in the Kassena-Nankana district, it was revealed that distance of students' home from school, residential status, parents' attitude/concern towards female students, parents' level of education and parents' occupation status. Other factors they found in their study were: poverty, lack of qualified teachers, lack of scholarship for female students, lack of parental care and the activities of the girl-child education in the district are the main factors threatening the education of females in the district. Furthermore, Adetunde and Akampae indicated that many of the secondary schools in the study area were day schools, thus most students stay with their parents or rent rooms in town while attending school. This does not create a good atmosphere for them to learn effectively and hence the poor performance in examinations. Schools such as China Secondary School, Awe Sec/Tech. Schools, Sirigu Secondary School and Our Lady of Loude Sec/Tech. Schools are day schools and do not have hostel accommodation for the students. Again, they emphasised that campaign for female education are not in place to help promote the education of females, since most parents in the district are not educated, there is the need for an intense campaign for female education to

encourage more parents to send their female children to school. Scholarship for female students will also put them in good mood to study effectively. Towards the same direction, Fentiman, Hall and Bundy (1999) gave other set of factors. Their article was on girls' enrolment levels in rural Ghana. They indicated that child labour, health, location and gender were some of the main factors that affect female school attendance.

In a more detailed exposition, Torto (2008) gave several extracurricular factors which affect girls' participation and performance in science subjects in particular and education in general. She described the factors as 'home and community' based. The first factor, Torto touched on was concerned with the issue of traditional belief of a woman being a wife and mother. She remarked this traditional belief still prevails in society. Hence the attitude that it is more beneficial to formally educate a boy than a girl and that girls' only need to be educated and trained in house chores to prepare them for marriage still persists.

Secondly, Torto (2008) indicated that family size that affect girls' participation in formal education. She stated that large families at times face problems in educating their children. When faced with economic hardship, a great number of parents, even those aware of the importance of girls' education, are forced to educate boys at the expense of girls. It is still argued that the man is the "bread winner" and hence boys need more education than girls who will get married and will have a man take care of them. Some parents send their girls to school later in the school term when they have acquired some money but because

the girls have missed out so much by then, they do poorly and eventually drop-out of school.

Thirdly, Torto (2008) revealed the issue of masculine fallacy of Science Mathematics and Technology (SMT) subjects. By this she explained that society generally believes that SMT subjects are difficult and a boys' domain. Since SMT subjects are compulsory in primary school, girls have no alternative but to participate in class. However, concentration is poor and participation and performance low. This affects the grades in SMT subjects and determines the ability to continue and perform well in SMT subjects in secondary school.

Another factor that had been stressed elsewhere in this literature review is the parental education of the girl. Torto (2008) stressed that most parents are aware of the benefits of sending their daughters to school. However, when situations arise which prevent them from educating all their children; girls are usually the ones who are not enrolled. This factor can be linked with the issue of household chores. Traditionally, there is a greater need for girls' rather than boys' labour at home and many parents keep their daughters at home whenever there are some chores (cooking, selling, farming, taking care of other siblings or sick members of the family, laundry, etc.) to do.

Similarly, Boakye (1997) indicated that early marriage affected girls' participation in formal education. This is because, in some communities, religious and traditional norms dictate that girls are to be married at a certain age and when they are still in school with no prospects of marriage when they mature, it puts the family in disgrace. The girls are therefore pulled out of school as soon as they

reach maturity to prepare them for marriage. Some men do not like very educated wives who may challenge their authority. When such men, especially the rich, want to marry a girl, the parents prefer to pull her out of school since marriage would also solve some of the family's financial problems. In similar vein, cultural practices of a particular affect girls' enrolment rates. Bruce (1997) affirmed that cultural practices in some societies require the girl staying out of school temporarily or permanently and interfere with her education. Some of these traditions require drastic measures on the girl e.g. mutilation of sexual organs, and on occasion, the decision to discontinue school after such a traumatic experience is made by the girl.

Furthermore, Peterson and Runyan (1999) stated lack of female role models affect girls' performance and participation in SMT subjects. They recalled that generally there is a complete absence of female positive role models in academic fields, especially in SMT careers, in many communities in the rural areas. Role models in villages mainly do simple jobs e.g. cooking and serving food, selling in the market or by the road side, etc. and have a great influence on the young girls in the community who believe that these women, with no formal education, earn money and are well off. They therefore do not see the need or importance of a formal education.

From a sociological view point, Williams (2001) that girls getting pregnant affect their school attendance. With this factor, girls who become sexually active during their primary or secondary education and become pregnant are usually expelled from school. Only a few of these girls return to school later to

continue with their education. Similarly, Williams emphasised that prostitution becomes that affect female school enrolment. She explained that mature girls are often tempted by money and goods they receive from older men and slowly turn to prostitution. Prostitution interferes with education because the girls do not see the need of continuing with schooling when they earn so much.

Similarly, the findings of Adetunde and Akampae (2008), Torto (2008) indicated that the distance from girls' homes to schools affect them to some degree. It can be emphasised that the number of schools in most African countries has not kept pace with population growth. Pupils and students sometimes have to travel long distances before they get to school. In primary schools and in secondary schools when girls are day students, travelling long distances before arriving in school decreases their productivity since they arrive in school already tired. Participation and performance in any subject, SMT included is then hampered.

Consequently, Torto (2008) revealed in that in Tanzania and Ghana, boys boarding schools have opened up admission for girls from the community as day students. Travelling long distances is still an issue, however, and girls arrive in school late, missing the first lessons of the day (usually mathematics or science), or get back home too tired for any meaningful studies. When they live long distances from school, girls are not able to participate in private tuition classes held after school hours or discuss homework assignments as they are expected to leave the school compound by a certain time or they need to hurry back home before darkness falls. In some cases where girls live a long distance from school,

they are forced to take up lodgings in the town where the school is located which gets them exposed to many unscrupulous and harassing situations. Some families allow their daughters to lodge with relatives who may not necessarily be the right people to select as guardians. When schools are some distances from home, parents tend to worry about the safety of their daughters and often are unwilling to let them go to school. All these hardships frustrate the girls who may then drop-out of school. Long distances from school promote lateness and truancy among students. In some schools, especially in the primary sector, lateness to school guarantees punishment which is usually by caning. Girls would rather skip school for the entire day than risk this form of punishment which is painful and embarrassing. Lateness also results in missing the early morning lesson which in many primary schools is mathematics. Mathematics is a hierarchical subject and when lessons are missed, it is difficult to join in at a later stage. Unfortunately, most schools are unwilling to change the time table to remedy the situation.

Another factor that affects girls' participation in formal education is the safety of girls. Most times, sexual harassment is downplayed in most communities. However, sexual harassment of girls by males in the community including family members, teachers and boys can have a drastic effect on the girls' education and result in her dropping out of school. Bruce (1997) stated:

Very often complaints of sexual harassment of girls are ignored and many girls do not report incidences which occur. Some girls withdraw and become reclusive when they are disturbed by sexual harassment. Once girls start withdrawing

from people, their performance in school goes down. When the person sexually harassing the girl is along the way to school or in school, she begins to skip school and ultimately drops-out of school (p.24).

Lastly, Torto (2008) revealed that time use by girls is a factor that influence their participation in SMT subjects and schooling generally. Mostly, time is inefficiently used by many girls at school and at home, since, at home time needed for homework and studies is used for household chores, playing, chatting and visiting friends. In school, while boys may spend the hours outside the class time discussing academic problems, girls may be found in clusters gossiping. Besides these, teachers ask girls to baby-sit and run errands for them during and outside school hours. Girls sometimes volunteer for these jobs to gain favours from the teacher or to enable them get out of participation in some lessons or school activities. Girls also use their school time inefficiently by not participating fully in class discussions. Unfortunately, this attitude of girls is partially based on African traditional practices where girls and women are not supposed to enter into discussions with men but are only to listen. Since some teachers do not make the effort to pull students into discussions when they do not participate, the girls then lose out on so much and are also not able to share with the rest of the class ideas they may have (Torto, 2008).

Improving Girls' Enrolment in Schools

The benefits that are derived from girls' participation in formal education is looked from the point of SAGE (2009). SAGE emphasises that not only does

education benefit the person learning, but also the community in which they live. education contributes to the economic stability of any given nation by increasing the income of the poor. Research has shown that no country has sustained consistent economic growth without a significant nation-wide literacy rate. In addition to economic stability, education promotes civil and international peace, as well as cultural tolerance and understanding. It stated that the benefits of girls' education include: Economic Productivity, Social Development, Intergenerational Education, Social Equity and Sustainability of Development Efforts. SAGE stressed however that 60% of the 113 million illiterate children in the world are female. Three-quarters of the children not in school are girls, leaving 25% of the world's girls not in school. The more schooling a girl receives as a child, the fewer number of children she will have later on in life. Her family's health will increase, as will the survival rate of her children and herself. She is also more likely to get a job and earn a higher wage if she has a basic education.

The above expositions from SAGE put this section of the literature review into the right perspective; that is, what to be done to improve girls' participation in formal education. In her study, Torto (2008) made some suggestions for improving girls' participation and performance in formal education. Among others they suggested that there should be sensitisation and awareness building activities to enable society do away with cultural beliefs which marginalise women. Also, there should be identification and support of orphaned and needy girls so they can stay in school and bridge the gap between the boys and the girls.

Additionally, girls should be encouraged in school by teachers. Towards to this end girls should have more opportunities to observe female role models in SMT careers. Again, there should be provision of sponsorships for girls in SMT careers such that more and better facilities for the teaching and learning of science should be provided for girls in particular and the school in general. Additionally, parents should try and decrease the workload of girls at home to enable them have more time for their studies. More importantly, there should be equitable distribution of educational facilities i.e. more classrooms in educationally needy communities. Similarly, opportunities should be given to girls to observe women scientists at work. Consciously, there should be a school policy on homework where there is a compulsory period for doing homework and assignments in the evening or immediately after school so girls have a chance to get their school work done before household chores.

Further on, Boakye (1997) intimated that there should more single sex schools should be built for girls. This could be done through education campaigns and advocacy programmes intended to encourage girls (including street girls) to stay in school. In this way, the government should make it mandatory for parents to send their daughters to school or face the consequences. At the same time parents should be educated on family planning to make them aware of the advantages of having fewer children. Also, the payment of school fees in installments should be allowed to enable poor parents cope with stressful situations of educating their children. Finally, Torto (2008) suggested that parents

and girls should be encouraged to participate in self-help projects to generate money which could be used towards the girl's education.

From their view points, Adetunde and Akampae (2008) made some recommendations towards improving girls' school attendance. The recommendations were based on the factors which they found to affect girls' participation in schooling. On their part they indicated that:

- i. Government needs to organize seminars through district education directorates. The directorates should get parents to be concerned about their children education. This will help change the negative attitudes that they have towards female education,
- ii. Also, district assemblies should provide loans from their poverty alleviation fund to needy parents to enable them improve upon their economic activities and thus raise their incomes. This will make it easy for them to cater for their female students by providing them with their basic needs and paying for extra class tuition fee
- iii. Additionally, there should be information and awareness raising campaigns targeted at parents, particularly mothers and to encourage them to register their girls in schools,
- iv. Besides, there should action to encourage parents to change their attitudes and lessen the household workload of girls and provide them with the time and a comfortable space for learning at home, and

- v. That there should be national policies to constitute the general framework for the guidance, coordination, impetus, follow up and evaluation of actions taken for female schooling in Ghana.

Parental Background

This section reviews literature on parental background factors which influence female enrolment and retention in schools. The factors under consideration are; parental level of education, the influence of poverty and distance covered to school by girls.

Parental Level of Education and Girls' Enrolment

Studies have shown that the higher the level of parental education, the higher the educational participation of daughters of such parents (Kelly & Elliot, 1982). A recent survey conducted by Thompson and Casely-Hayford (2008) among university teachers and students in Ghana, it was found that females among them had parents with better educational levels. For instance, female respondents had mothers with higher levels of education. This factor influenced the girls reaching higher levels of education. Results from other studies indicated that a minority of female students in the universities, polytechnics and secondary schools had their mothers with no education at all or education limited to primary school (Pryor, 2005). Other studies have also shown that the impact on daughters' education or schooling is greater if the mother has had secondary education (Williams, 2001; UNESCO, 1990).

A study conducted by Odei-Akuffo (1987) to find out the attitude of rural dwellers towards female education, revealed that: The background of many educated parents in rural areas influences decisions and attitudes in favour of enrolling boys rather than girls. It was clear that parents without any educational background had little interest in educating their female children. They fail to appreciate the essence of schooling for their female children. On the other hand, parents who had some form of education place equal value on both male and female education. Those with much higher levels of education even place more emphasis on the quality of education their female children may have.

Parents' educational background, therefore go a long way to change their attitudes towards the bias against women and consequently increase the number of female children who go to school (Swainson, 1994). In the same vein, Thome (1993) pointed out that parents who are themselves not educated tend to see little value in education, especially, for girls. In Malawi the majority of educated parents tend to send their children to school at an early age and this tends to be more pronounced for girls (Hyde, 1992). However, the better educational background of female students' parents does not reflect positively on the academic performance of daughters, although, it is not clear whether this has been adequately researched by existing studies.

Acheampong (1992) stated that the factors that impede females' enrolment in school or from attaining higher levels of education found out that girls who aspired to the tertiary educational level were those whose parents had either secondary or tertiary education. In the nutshell the literature indicates that the

educational background of parents is an important factor in the educational participation of girls.

The Influence of Poverty on Female Enrolment

The rising cost of schooling is the major reason most parents give for not taking the trouble to educate their children, particularly, girls. Almost all the studies reviewed specify this as a constraint to female education. Poverty is widespread and affects schools and families alike. The literature indicates the extent to which parents have to cover the shortfalls due to the economic hardships which has had a devastating impact on household income and educational system (Asomaning, Agarwal, Apt, Grienco and Turner, 1994). Studies show that in Ghana, Guinea, Malawi and Zimbabwe the cost associated with scholarship is higher for girls than boys. For modesty reasons, girls are less likely to go to school in torn or ill-fitting uniforms (Llyod & Gage-Brandon, 1993). Sketchy evidence indicates that a major problem for girl's school attendance (rarely mentioned in research findings) is their lack of underwear and sanitary protection when menstruating. The cost of sanitary protection and underclothes may also contribute making the cost of educating girls higher than those for educating boys.

In Ghana, researchers have found that the most common factor causing dropout among both boys and girls at the basic education level is lack of sustained parental support with respect to funding and the provision of basic needs required by the schools (Boakye, 1997; FAWE, 1996; Mensah-Abrompah, 1996; Amehame, 1991). However, research evidence does not always support the belief that girls are less catered for at the basic level than boys. The above claim not

withstanding, researchers have also established evidence that when decisions have to be made because of financial constraints, girls are more likely than boys to be held back or withdrawn from school. Girls from better-off homes who live in urban areas are more likely to enroll and remain in school for a longer time than those from poor homes and rural areas (Colclough & Lewin, 1993). There is one case study in Ghana which confirms the findings of Colclough & Lewin. What makes it interesting is that the study was done in Koforidua which is an urban setting. A girl who had completed Secondary Form Two was withdrawn from school because her brother had passed the Common Entrance Examination, and her parents felt they could not look after both of them in the secondary school and so the girl had to drop out of school to make it possible for her brother to have secondary education. The parents then apprenticed her to a dressmaker. To do this they had to pay apprenticeship fee, buy her a sewing machine and accessories and give her pocket money every day to feed herself at lunch time. The total cost of the initial outlay was enough to have paid the girl's secondary education fees for two years, and the parents were surprised when this was pointed out to them (Dolphyne, 1992). What this case study shows is that when parental decisions are to be made due to financial constraints, priority will be given to boys while neglecting girls. The direct cost of schooling makes it virtually unaffordable for the poorer parents, they are forced to prioritize who is to be sent to school (Long & Fofanah, 1990). Girls are not likely to take precedence due to a variety of cultural, religious and economic reasons.

In analysis of Kenyan educational policy, Nkinyangi (1982) found that the true barrier to enrolment and cause of premature withdrawal of females was cost and not low parental aspiration as often claimed. Initially, the abolition of school fees for primary schools resulted in disproportionately increasing girls' enrolment in primary school, i.e. 16% compared to 145% for boys, reflecting a pent-up demand for girls (Nkinyangi, 1982). Contradicting the findings of Nkinyangi, Smock, (1981) in her analysis of Pakistan's education reforms, emphasized that the elimination of school fees will not necessarily stimulate girls' enrolment. The reductions of school cost for parents in Pakistan resulted in increased gender disparity in enrolment, with only a 2 percent point increase for girls compared with 11 point increase for boys. Similarly in Benin, rural parents are willing to pay primary and secondary school fees for boys, but are much less willing to do so for girls. When this happens, more girls drop out of school (UNICEF, 1992). From these findings, it appears the cost of schooling as a major constraint of female education is not certain; it needs a very close analysis.

Distance to School and Female Enrolment

This section of the study examines the distance female students need to cover in going to school and its influence on female enrolment and retention. It discusses the views and findings of researchers with respect to how distance influences female enrolment and retention.

In Ghana, Osei (1994a) points out that the maximum distance a child has to walk to school in principle is three kilometers. However, in the rural areas and particularly the northern part of the country, where the population is very sparse

and schools scattered with few transport facilities, the majority of children walk this distance or even more before they get to school. She claims that “this might explain why gender disparities are high in those areas” (Osei, 1994a, p.27). The children, particularly, the girls find it difficult to withstand the routine walking to and from school due to fatigue. According to Atakpa (1996) the catchment area of the rural primary school in the northern covers a number of villages which are far away from the school. “The children have to walk long distance to school, this situation puts school children, especially, girls at a disadvantage because many parents will not like their daughters to walk long distance along unsafe footpaths in the bush to go to school” (Atakpa, 1996, p.37).

Herz, Subbarao, Habib and Raney (1991) quoted the findings of Robinson and others that in Egypt the location of a school within one kilometer of a community resulted in an enrolment rate of 94% for boys and 74% for girls. Where distance was two kilometers boys’ enrolment fell only slightly to 90% but girls’ enrolment fell to 64%.

In Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea, Zimbabwe the long distance girls often have to walk to school is also a deterrent to their participation and achievement in school, particularly in rural areas (Cammish & Brock, 1991; Mbilinyi & Mbughuni, 1991; Nangurai, 1994; World Bank, 1991). There are two dimensions to this concern, one relates to the distance, sometimes returning to the house feeling very hungry and dejected and the other relates to fatigue.

In a survey of primary school students in Freetown, Sierra Leone, 87% of respondents were concerned about the distance they had to walk to get to school.

The study also mentioned the difficulty of access to rural schools because of poor roads (Cammish & Brock, 1991). This problem has implications for supervision of schools and is a factor noted in a study of girls' education in Guinea (Long & Fofanah, 1990). Another study indicates that close proximity of schools in Guinea encourages female participation (Anderson-Levit, Block & Soumere, 1994). A study in Mali revealed that a distance accounted for 14% of the variance in girls' enrolment. Distance was a significant factor for both rural and urban girls, but more so for rural girls. Most of the girls stated "that living far away from school having to walk discourages them" (Anderson-Levit et al, 1994, p.78).

According to Wyatt (1991), in the Philippines girls' enrolment increased three percent compared to that of boys' one percent. This happened if the school was located in the village or within a short distance. In Indonesia, Tomasevski (2001) indicated that when educational facilities are available and accessible daughters are likely to be given equal opportunities to go to school. The literature has amply demonstrated the importance of distance to school and its influence on the female enrolment and retention, particularly, in the rural areas.

We conduct a randomized evaluation to assess the causal effect of distance on children's academic participation and performance. Based on estimates from a sample of 31 villages and over 1,500 children in rural northwestern Afghanistan, the program significantly increases enrollment and test scores amongst all children and dramatically improves the existing gender disparities. The intervention increases formal school enrollment by 47 percentage points among all children and increases test scores by 0.59 standard deviations. For those

children who enroll in school, average test scores increase by 1.2 standard deviations. Overall, children prove very sensitive to changes in the distance to the nearest school. Enrollment falls by 16 percentage points for every mile that children must travel to school and test scores fall by 0.19 standard deviations. Girls prove more sensitive than boys to changes in the distance to the nearest school. So much so that providing a community based school virtually eliminates the gender gap in enrollment (from 21 percentage points in control villages) and reduces the test score disparity by a third after a single year.

The Influence of Parental Attitude on Female Enrolment and Retention

Parental expectations of girls' and the priority given to their future roles as mothers and wives have a strong negative bearing on their formal educational opportunities. In other words, socio-cultural beliefs and customs influence parental decisions to enroll girls in school. This section therefore reviews literature on the ambivalent parental attitude towards female enrolment as well as the opportunity cost of girls' education.

Parental attitudes concerning education are clearly a key factor since they often help influence which children go to school and how long they stay there. Clearly, the attitudes of parents reflect those in the society at large and are deeply embedded in prevailing cultural norms and values (King & Hill, 1993). Parental and family attitude have a strong influence on the decision to invest in children's education. The literature highlights ambivalence towards investment in female education, based on many negative perceptions of girls and women (Long & Fofanah, 1990). Some parents believe that boys are more intelligent, that they

perform better than girls in school and that they are better investment than girls. A factor ignored in discussions of parental preference for boys' education is the prevalence of patrilineal inheritance systems. As the prime beneficiaries of family assets, boys are favoured in human capital decisions (Prouty, 1999). In addition, parents worry about wasting money on the education of girls who are likely to get pregnant or married, girls become part of another family and the parental investment is lost (Davidson & Kanyuka, 1992).

Some communities and parents hold negative perception about the education of girls. For example in Chad, some parents believe that schools push girls to prostitution, make them unfaithful to their husbands and difficult to control by parents (Niles, 1989). This assertion is analogous to the findings of Abamba (1994) in his study of marriage and its effect on girls' education in the Kusinaba educational Circuit of Bawku. Some parents were of the view that literate girls are more liberal with the use of their sexual organs than the illiterate ones. This according to him discouraged many parents from supporting the education of their daughters.

In some regions of Cameroon, educated girls are perceived as being too independent and demanding and are likely to challenge the traditional submissive role expected of them in marriage (Cammish & Brock, 1994). In support of this claim, Serpell (1993) and Kilo (1994) assert that education makes girls unfit for traditional roles in society, causing them to exhibit less respect for male authority and unwilling to work hard. They become "big-headed and good for nothing". In view of this parents are reluctant to send their daughters to school. Again parents

feel that sending girls to school is risky, that the “moral laxity” of the environment could result in pregnancy. The girl might become “useless” and all “your money is lot”. Families tend to judge the value of education by the returns from the labour market; it seems prudent for families to invest in the formal education of boys because they will always be better placed to explore formal labour market opportunities. The tradition of poor female participation and performance in school, and the labour market, reinforces this parental and community bias (Kane, 1995a; Kapakasa, 1992).

In Ghana, it has been discovered that the first set of factors causing low attitude among parents and community members are social-cultural barriers. One of these cultural barriers is the fostering system. According to Atakpa (1996), it is customary among communities in the three northern regions in Ghana (the regions with the lowest enrolment rates for girls) for the parents of the girl child to give her to the paternal aunt for upbringing. The aunt must train the girl to become a woman, a mother and a good wife. He stressed that: the system of foster parenthood for the girl child in the north apparently does not promote the enrolment of girls in the school. The foster mother has a set of traditional values to maintain in the upbringing of the child entrusted into her care by biological parents. The values of training the girl child to become a woman, a good wife and mother supersede all other social values and considerations. The paternal aunt of the girl has invariable, not benefited directly from formal education and therefore would not have any urge to allow the girl entrusted into her care to receive formal education. The desire to maintain daily contact with the child and supervise her

activities is so compelling that she is not likely to enroll the child in school (Atakpa, 1996, p.12).

Atakpa's opinion corroborates that the practice of sending young girls to live with "foster" parents who usually are relations is a very old one. It was a way that mothers living in rural areas ensured that daughters grew up in a decent environment in urban settings where they would learn to cook and manage at home, learn a trade such as baking or dressmaking and learn to receive guest so as to enhance their own chances of "decent" marriage. Such girls usually had no opportunity for formal education and they grow up to swell the number of the already non-literate female population (Smith, 1984). The literature amply demonstrates the attitude of parents, families and communities towards female education. This lukewarm parental attitude towards female enrolment, emanates from social and cultural orientation.

Opportunity Cost of Girls' Enrolment in School

Out-of pocket or direct costs are not the only expenses parents might consider in their decision to enroll their girl child in school. Opportunity costs or the cost of productivity cost to the household in terms of girls' labour while she attends school is an important factor externally linked to the low participation of girls in education (Thomas, 1991). Child labour is indispensable to the survival of some households and schooling represents a high cost to those sending the children to school.

The issue of overburdening school girls with households' chores is a factor inhibiting girls' academic performance. It is well known in Ghana, several

research findings show that girls spend much of their time before and after school on household duties. They may thus go to school late and tired, unable to concentrate fully in the classroom and return home tired to work on their given assignments. FAWE (1996), MOE (1995), Oppong (1992) and Osei (1994b) confirmed this situation.

Osei (1994b), for example, states that there are duties which are accepted as mandatory skills that must be acquired by all women right from childhood to prepare them for their future life. Parents therefore give girls more housework than boys, in this way girls have little time to learn after school. Oppong (1992) added that pupils who are engaged in work or trading activities during school hours are disrupted in their studies which eventually affect their performance.

In Ghana, recorded time burdens are up to 20% higher for females than males across many age groups and occupational status. Girls attend school more infrequently and less intensively and they are not given the same kind of attention by teachers as boys and they take less demanding subjects. These household tasks performed by girls and women are not remunerated and detract their commitment to educational pursuit (Haddad, 1991). Psacharopoulos (1992) on his part asserted that the conventional measures of opportunity cost based on prevailing wage rates for children may seriously undervalue the real opportunity cost of parents of children (and girls in particular) attending school. This may be explained given the allegedly very high private rates of return to primary and secondary education.

Female domestic labour is a key factor that militates against achievement at school and is also a very sizable opportunity cost for parents when they make a

choice about whether to send a child to school or not. In other words, the need for female domestic labour affects decisions about whether to send a daughter to school in the first place and once at school how long she should stay (Mbilinyi & Mbughuni, 1991). Information from some studies and the Department of Community Development in Ghana indicates that rural young girls are sent to urban areas to become domestic for kin and non-kin families. Such displacement often occurs in their primary school years. Their parents receive payment for their services but the girls have little or no opportunity to return to school (Asomaning et al, 1994).

According to Dorsey (1989), a Zimbabwean proverb which states 'he is poor who has no daughters' aptly represents the economic value of girls. Due to the continuing importance of practices such as the payment of bride price, polygamy and adultery fines, the economic value of girls, particularly in rural areas, remains high. Girls are an important source of income for their families and the need for additional household income often takes priority over education. This in addition to the high status accorded marriage and motherhood, depresses the demand for female education (Cammish & Brock, 1994).

Many girls from the Northern Region of Ghana are among the head porters in Accra. These girls are sponsored to come to Accra by family members for fixed periods of time. It is worth while to note how the income earned is invested. Here is a typical example of a 16-year old head porter whose journey to Accra was financed by her mother.

I save on a daily basis of ¢500.00 with the Susu collector and ¢300.00 on a monthly basis with ten colleagues of mine. I send at least ¢5,000.00 monthly to my old lady (mother). But when I have more than enough I send it earlier or even twice in the month. I buy certain valuable items such as wax prints, saucepans, ceramic bowls, and other household items to keep me in readiness for the future (Agarwal, 1995, p.19).

The case has a number of implications in so far as female enrolment is concerned. Parents prefer the returns of their daughters' labour to that of their formal education. They also place a high premium on the early marriage of their daughters which encourages the girls to start working towards the purchase of certain basic items, as stated by the 16year old head porter girl.

The School Environment and Female Education

Research on the impact of school-level factors on female retention provides some interesting insights into the way school perpetuates the gender gap in education. Sexual harassment, appropriate school facilities, teacher attitudes and pedagogy, gender bias in learning materials and the role model effect of female teachers are found as factors which affect female retention and performance at school.

Pregnancy, Sexual Harassment and Female Education

Girls getting pregnant somewhere along the line worries parents a lot this was found out in a study undertaken by Gyepi-Garbrah (1985). She stated the

great problem of girls' schooling is pregnancy while in school. Parents struggle to raise school fees for their but they disappoint them. On account of this, they give priority to boys. Perhaps, the major factor causing dropout among girls at the basic level is pregnancy. According to Ofori-Asante (1991), in Ghana it is found to be the major factor causing low retention among girls. In a study, Boakye (1997) found that pregnancy accounted for 11% of all JSS dropout girls (that is two out of every five JSS girls who dropped out of school in the study communities, did so because of pregnancy). It accounted for 27% of all female dropouts from Basic 1–9 and 15 percent of all pupil dropouts (it may be pointed out here that some boys, 3% stopped schooling for impregnating girls). Other studies confirm the high rate of pregnancy education. FAWE Ghana, for example, found from seven districts focal group discussions that pregnancy was among the very first factors affecting girls' education (FAWE, 1996).

Hartnett and Heneveld (1993) also found that pregnancy was one of the most frequent reasons; in fact, the second after “financial constraints”, for dropping out of 62 female dropouts interviewed, 14.5 percent said they stopped school because of pregnancy. Some researchers attributes the causes of pregnancy to the biological desires of the young girls, their financial constraints which make them yield easily to the demands of males, parental irresponsibility and lack of family life education (Oppong & Abu, 1987).

As girls become adolescents, pregnancy becomes a major factor in school dropouts. Indeed, pregnancy emerges as a major cause of adolescent school girls leaving school. Fear of pregnancy is another reason why parents remove their

daughters from school as they approach or reach puberty (Anderson-Levitt et al, 1994; Serpell, 1993; Bledsoe, 1990).

A study in Cameroon suggested that a community's experience with school girl pregnancies may negatively affect the prospects for educating young girls. For the past twenty years many Christian families in a community in Ngaoundere have sent their daughters to school. Consequently, the girls did not get married at the traditional age of thirteen or fourteen. Now they are in trouble. The girls were impregnated by school boys, teachers or other civil servants who did not follow the customary rules of marriage (Odaga & Heneveld, 1995).

In Kenya, the findings of a study on secondary girl pregnancies indicate that in rural communities' boys of the same age were most likely to be responsible for school girl pregnancies, but in urban centres matured men were most likely to be responsible for school girl pregnancies. At the first National Seminar on Girls' Education in Ghana, the issue was raised as one of the factors affecting performance of girls at the basic level. Though hard evidence is difficult to come by, empirical researchers like Abukari (1996), Andam (1994) and Owusu (1994) alluded to sexual harassment of girls. Abukari (1996) recommended that teachers should treat all children equally irrespective of gender and make sure that girls are not sexually abused by teachers or their peers. Andam (1994) was also of the view that parents should be encouraged to give sex education to their daughters and advise them on the dangers of pre-marital sex. These researchers did not however treat sexual harassment as a major finding. Owusu (1994) on his part, came out that in Bekwai district of Ashanti Region, male students and teachers encouraged

immorality, especially sexual immorality among school girls which result in unexpected pregnancies. Nortey (2000) reported that in the Edina Eguafu-Abrem District of the Central Region, some JSS female students had to stop school due to sexual harassment meted to them by their teachers. From Bolgatanga in the Upper East Region, Seini (2000) also reported that students of Bolgatanga Secondary School (BOGISS) undertook a demonstration to draw the attention of the authorities to alleged rape attacks on them. According to Seini in view of such attacks, some of the students had planned to ask for transfers to other schools.

In a similar issue the Ghana News Agency (2000) reported that the Shama-Ahanta East Disciplinary Committee of the Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.) recommended the immediate dismissal of a class six teacher of Supomu Dunkwa Methodist Primary school for impregnating two JSS girls. An editorial comment on the Ghanaweb (2009) has it in 2006 that a teacher who was earlier adjudged the best in his district was stripped off the award and later sacked by Ghana Education Service (G.E.S.) when it came to light that the supposedly good, dedicated and disciplined teacher had impregnated a 16-year old class five pupil.

Further to this the comment began: in both the rural areas and urban centres, girls in all categories of schools, from the primary to the university level have become victims of the amorous escapades of teachers who sometimes even resort to blackmail in pursuit of their sexual pleasures. In the rural areas in particular teachers capitalize on their privileged position as the few white colour workers to seduce these young girls resulting sometimes in illegal abortions, teenage pregnancy and school drop-outs. They unashamedly call it “bush

allowance” or “teacher’s copy” the habit of turning our daughters into their wives to compensate for their posting to rural areas. Who are the perpetrators? Male pupils are identified as major offenders. In groups, as members of clubs and cults, they prey on female students, abuse them verbally and cartoon them in absence campus publications (Hallam, 1991).

A study in Guinea indicates that boys are very aggressive towards girls and that they used physical force, threatened and teased girls to silence them in class (Anderson-Levitt et al, 1994). Similar observations were made in classrooms in Rwanda. It was particularly evident when male teachers encouraged the “ganging up” and abusive verbal interaction (Prouty, 1999). Teachers also prey on their female students, threatening to fail them or publicly humiliate them, to prod them into sexual liaisons. Teachers are also reported to reward female students who co-operate with grades and tuition waivers (CAMFED, 1995). These limited accounts of sexual harassment and violence indicate that girls and young women face an extremely hostile and uncomfortable learning environment in schools and universities. The lack of redress by authorities and the abuse of female students within educational institutions grossly undermine the efforts to increase female participation in education. Acts of sexual abuses in universities reflect society’s negative views of women. These acts have a profound and devastating effect on girls, inevitably affecting their educational attainment and performance (Mbilinyi & Mbughuni, 1991).

Influence of School Facilities on Female

An important factor contributing to low enrolment of girls is the non-availability of girls 'specific structures such as urinals and toilets (Ministry of Education, MOE, 1995) and dormitories (Atakpa, 1996). Regarding separate facilities, parents are unlikely to send girls to school if girls lack private lavatories or urinals. According to Herz et al, (1991), in Bangladesh, girls must walk to a neighbour or to their home when they lack lavatories. In Pakistan, girls are seldom allowed to walk very far to either urinate or defecate.

In Guinea where 71% of rural schools and 53% of urban schools have no latrines, families have withdrawn girls from school for this reason (Long & Fofanah, 1990). A survey of 2,000 Pakistani parents indicated that the absence of latrines was more important in schooling decisions than the absence of desk and chairs (Madjid, 1989), although Anderson et al (1994) in a study of mosque schools found no significant effect. Guinea and Pakistan have instituted programmes to respond to concerns about the propriety and security of females. Guinea and Bangladesh are reported to have provided latrines with positive results. Pakistan has constructed boundary walls to protect the private part of female students anytime they are attending to nature's call (Bellew & King, 1991).

In Zambia, lack of water and inadequate bathroom facilities have discouraged girls from coming to school when they are menstruating (Kelly, 1991). Girls from poor rural areas in Zambia will frequently stay away from

school during menstruation because of lack of sanitary protection. They are often too embarrassed to explain their absence to the teachers (CAMFED, 1995).

In rural areas in Gambia, parents expressed threat to withdraw their adolescent daughters from school if the school authorities were unable to finish the school's separate places of convenience (urinal and toilet facilities). They claim that, the propriety and moral decency of their daughters were being threatened (Wamahiu, 1994). Browne and Barrett (1991) on their part described the lack of girls' specific structures in some schools as a form of sexual harassment of the female students. The consensus implied in the literature suggests that the lack of specific facilities for girls at school can influence parental decision to enroll or withdraw their daughters from school.

Teachers' Attitude towards the Sexes and Female

Educational Participation

The literature suggests that teachers' attitude, behaviour and teaching practices have perhaps the most important implications for female persistence and academic achievement. Teachers' attitude towards their students is a reflection of the broader biases about the role of women in society and the academic capacity of girls. Evidence from Malawi, Guinea, Rwanda and Sierra Leone indicates that both male and female teachers believe that boys are academically superior to girls (UNICEF, 2003).

In Ghana, FAWE (1996), MOE (1995) and Osei (1994a) mention poor teachers' perception as a major factor that can lead to poor performance of girls in basic education. Osei (1994a) for example writes that:

Teachers just like parents, perceive girls to be different from boys and as such hold different expectations for them. Thus, some teachers tend to give harsher punishments to boys than they give to girls. In this way they indirectly make boys realize that more is expected of them, while girls who may have nobody to guide them or role models to aspire to, may think they will always be favoured as such may not work as hard (p.74).

In the same vein, a survey conducted by Biraimah (1989) revealed that, Togolese high school teachers (men and women) were unanimous in their view that female students were neither intelligent nor successful, whereas male students possessed positive social and personal goals and abilities. A pattern of systematic discouragement and discrimination in teachers' behaviour was displayed toward girls. A sample of Malawian teachers characterized their female students as shy and unlikely to raise their hands in class. Eighty percent (80%) believed that girls are better behaved than boys and 90% were of the opinion that boys are better academically than girls. Most of the reasons given to explain why boys are academically superior to girls were negative responses about the girls rather than positive characteristics about the boys. They include girls' lack of ambition, loose morals and early pregnancies (Davidson & Kanyuka, 1992).

Hyde (1994) on his part also said that the attitude of teachers closely reflect those of the parents with regard to girls innate abilities and potential. He

added that girls concepts of gender roles and related nature, abilities and aptitudes in turn tend to mirror those of their parents and teachers.

Gordon's (1993) study of teachers and pupils in Zimbabwean secondary schools arrives at similar conclusions to those in Malawi. Perhaps her most important finding is that while there was a general awareness among teaching personnel about poor performance among girls, the causes were not perceived as being the responsibility of the school or teachers. In short, the stereotyping of gender roles in school by teachers affects their own expectations and treatment of girls. In the study, there was a remarkable consistency among male teachers in the acceptance of female roles as being primarily domestic and the belief that man is the breadwinner and provider (over 90% of the teachers interviewed). Many teachers saw it as their duty to prepare students for these roles (Gordon, 1993; Graham-Browne, 1991).

Classroom observations in Tanzania showed that teachers pay more attention to boys than girls. The school environment is described as an authoritarian 'macho' environment where corporal punishment is frequently meted out, and where the popular teacher-centered pedagogy creates a competitive classroom environment which is not conducive to learning, particularly to girls (Mbilinyi & Mbughuni, 1991). In the same way Kilo (1994) reported that during classroom observations in Kenya and Rwanda, teachers paid more attention to boys than girls, or totally ignored girls. In Cameroon, teachers acknowledge that they preferred to teach boys and that they focused more on boys than girls in the classroom (Nangurai, 1994).

In other instances, however there was little evidence of gender discrimination by teachers in class (Unterhalter, 2007). This may be an exception rather than a norm. Further to this in Zimbabwe, there is some gender discrimination by secondary school teachers with boys receiving more attention and being given priority in the distribution of school bags and other learning materials (Graham-Brawne, 1991). In Malawi, girls sit at one side of the classroom, where teachers seldom direct instructions and questions (Unterhalter, 2007). This corroborates the observations of El-Sanabary (1989) that in Ghana, teachers tend to ignore girls and isolate them in from the classroom discussion.

In Mozambique, Palme (1993) found that “the higher rate of failure for girls might to a considerable extent also be an effect of unequal treatment within the classroom” (p.34). He notes that teacher and student interaction is often negative and discouraging particularly when it involves a female student. An examination of literature on teacher’s attitude towards the sexes therefore suggests that teachers have a biased and unfavourable perception towards female students, which does not augur well for educational retention and subsequent achievement.

Female Teachers as Role Models

The best way to help girls benefit more is to promote and ensure that female teachers are always present in the class. Female teachers are thought to be effective in promoting girls’ participation in formal education, access, persistence and achievement for a variety of reasons. Like single sex schools, the presence of female teachers in the classroom may alleviate parental concerns for daughters’

modesty and moral security. In Yemen, the reluctance of parents to send their daughters to school (by grade 4 or 5) was overcome by introducing female teacher into the classroom. Retention of fourth and fifth grade girls correlated highly with the presence of female teachers (Peterson & Runyan, 1999). For example, at one rural school a precipitous drop in girls' enrolment in grade 4–6 was attributed to departure of the female teacher who taught these grades (Boyden, 1996). A close positive relationship between the presence of female teachers and girls' enrolment was found in Philippines (Tilak, 1989). In Nepal, the percentage of female teachers in school had positive effects on enrolment of all children (Madjid, 1989).

Ahmed, Chabbott, Joshi, Pande and Prather (1993) conducted a study in Ghana on how to develop feasible strategies so as to increase female participation in education revealed that most of the role models cited by females were either close family friends who pursued women's occupations such as seamstress, nurses, teachers or medical doctors. Also, several other women who had become public figures were cited. Among such individuals were: Nana Konadu Agyeman Rawlings (former first lady of Ghana), Mrs. Emma Mitchel Women (Member Council of State of Ghana and Minister of State), Mrs. Beatrice Aidoo (a broadcaster) and Madam Grace Omaboe (a film star). Special mention was made of Dr. (Mrs) Mary Grant, a medical doctor, member of the council of state. Of course, teachers were not the prime choice as role models, even though, the teaching profession comes with a lot of prestige and popularity many local communities.

In the nutshell the literature suggests that whereas most researchers perceive female teachers as role models, most students do not see teaching as being attractive, as such female teachers do not inspire them in any way, let alone serving as role models.

The theories, principles, ideas and opinions contained in the literature reviewed would be used to examine and discuss the findings of the study. In the process of applying these factors to this study, new ideas and information on factors which influence female enrolment could be generated.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the study area, the research design, population, sampling procedure and sample techniques. Further to this, the chapter describes how the various instruments were constructed, pilot testing to the instrument (reviewed, validated and retired), the procedure for data collection, the statistical tools employed in analyzing the data.

Research Design

The research design adopted for this study was the descriptive sample survey. This design was found convenient and useful because of the difficulties of attempting to study the whole population (Osuala, 1993). This method as recommended by Babbie (1990) was suitable for the purpose of making generalizations from a sample to a population. Since the researcher had intended to ascertain the opinions of teachers, parents, and female dropouts, thereby making generalizations about the entire population, the descriptive sample survey was found most appropriate. In support of this method, Gay (1992) recommended that descriptive sample surveys are concerned with assessment of attitudes, opinions, demographic information, conditions and procedures.

Population

The target population of the study consisted of teachers, parents and dropout girls of the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District. The accessible population was made up of 150 parents, 150 basic school dropout girls and 100 teachers which gave a sample size of 400.

Sample and Sampling Techniques

As was indicated in the preceding section, there were three samples for this study. There was the parents' sample of 150 respondents, dropout girls' sample of 150 respondents and teachers' sample of 100 respondents. Table 1 gives a pictorial representation of respondents the results of the circuits where teachers and parents were selected from.

Table 1

Circuit Representation of Teachers and Parents

Name of Circuit	Parents	Teachers	Girls
Nuamakrom	15	10	15
Praso	15	10	15
Agona	15	10	15
Nyinase	15	10	15
Mampong	15	10	15
Jukwa	15	10	15
Juabeng	15	10	15
Hemang	15	10	15
Wamaso	15	10	15
Wawase	15	10	15
Total	150	100	150

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Three sampling methods were used for the selection of respondents. The methods were the Stratified, Purposive and Simple Random Sampling Methods. First and foremost, the stratified sampling method was used. This gave the parent, dropout girl and teacher respondents. Before this stage, the sample size for each of the strata had been determined using the thumb rule method. Later the purposive sampling method was used to select 15 parents and drop out girls each from each of the 10 circuits of the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira Education District. In the opinion of Cohen and Manion (1994), purposive sampling is the most manipulable way of building up sample that is satisfactory to the needs of the researcher.

With the selection of teacher respondents, the simple random sampling method was used. This was because the names of all teachers in each circuit were written on pieces of paper and placed in a bowl. The names in the bowl were shuffled each time one was picked without replacement, until the required number of 10 respondents was picked from the circuit. This method was employed to ensure that each member of the defined population had an equal and independent chance of being selected (Gay, 1992). This procedure was used throughout the 10 circuits.

Instruments for Data Collection

The main instrument used for data collection was an interview. There were three interview schedules. There was interview guide for parent respondents and another one for teachers and dropout girls' interview schedule. The interview guide for parents consisted of two preliminary items and 11 main questions. The

11 items in the parents interview guide had one clear cut close-ended question with sub items which were statements in the form of likert scale responses. The parents' interview guide also contained four open-ended only items and other six close-ended items with follow-up questions which elicited answers to the preceding items.

The teacher interview guide also contained two preliminary items but seven main research items. All the seven items were close-ended ones with follow-up questions that sought clarification to the answers given to preceding question. Finally, there was an interview schedule that was used to interview the dropout girls. This interview schedule had nine items which were made up of five close-ended and four open-ended questions. Copies of the interview guides are presented as Appendices A, B and C respectively for parents, teachers and dropout girls.

Pilot Testing of Instruments

Based on the objective of the study the instruments for collecting data were developed and in order to assess the validity and reliability of these instruments, a pilot study was conducted in the Assin Fosu District. This District was chosen because the researcher realised that it shares identical cultural, political and economic environment with that of Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District.

The researcher purposively sampled 15 parents, 10 teachers and 10 dropout female students for the pilot study. The instruments in their original forms were administered on these respondents. Afterwards, the responses were

each analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 16.0. Responses from each of the interview guides were analysed separately and the analyses were based on the research questions posed to guide data collection. A reliability test was run for each of the interview guides and the results were 0.8000 for the parents' interview guide, 0.8500 for the teachers and 0.7500. These were interpreted to mean the instruments were reliable and could be used for the main data collection for the study.

Data Collection Procedures

To ensure smooth administration of the instruments, a letter was written by the researcher to the District Director of Education to seek permission to collect data from teachers within the respective circuits using the circuit supervisors. When the District Director of Education saw the letter, she directed the officer in charge of inspectorate to liaise with the circuit supervisors so that the targeted respondents could be interviewed. It must be stressed that the circuit supervisors helped in a great deal in making the list of teachers in their respective circuits available for the researcher and his two research assistants to carry out the selection of the required number of respondents.

Each of the two research assistants was assigned five circuits each to conduct the interviews after they had been given the required orientation in data collection. Parent respondents were simultaneously interviewed as that of teacher respondents by the research assistants. The researcher himself interviewed the dropout girls selected for the study. Because of the three pronged approach adopted and the warm reception received from respondents, the researcher and the

two research assistants succeeded in interviewing all the 400 respondents selected for the study within two months.

Data Analysis Procedures

Since the study is a simple descriptive survey, the researcher used descriptive statistics by employing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) that is available in most academic computer laboratories. Specifically, data collected were edited for consistency and clarity, coded and entered into the computer using the SPSS # 16.0. After the variables, which refer to the responses given by respondents, had been duly entered in the variable view section of the SPSS, data that had been coded into numerical values were also entered in the data view of the software. After all the items coded had been duly entered into the computer, frequency, relative frequencies and percentage tables were processed and extracted for the analysis and discussion. Each research question had items developed to elicit pre-determined response(s). Some of the items had alternative responses whilst others were supply and close-ended questions. With the supply own response items, before analysis, the responses were edited after which they were coded. Items with alternatives were only coded and entered into the programme as described earlier. In the end, reliability coefficients averaging 0.7790, 0.8100 and 0.8420 were computed for parents, teachers and dropout girls, instruments respectively using the Cronbach's alpha. The results of the analysis are discussed in chapter four of this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to investigate the factors that affect female enrolment in basic schools in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District of the Central Region. This chapter is devoted to the presentation of the results of the analysis of the data collected.

The chapter is organised in six sections. The first section deals with the background information of teacher and parent respondents, whilst the second, third fourth, fifth and sixth sections deal with research questions one to five in that order. Frequencies and percentages are used to facilitate the presentation and interpretation of the data. The study involved 400 respondents and the breakdown is 150 parents, 150 dropout girls and 100 teachers.

Background Information of Teachers and Parents

Two issues were measured on the background information of teachers and parents. The issues were concerned with their sex distribution and the circuits where they were selected from. Firstly, the sex distribution of parents indicated that there were more females than males. Specifically, the percentage of female parent respondents was 90 (60%) and male parent respondents were 60 (40%). The situation for teacher respondents was different from that of parents regarding

the sex distribution. The results of data collection indicated that male teacher respondents were made of 70% and females 30%.

The responses elicited circuit representation of teachers and parents was intended to confirm the information displayed in Table 1. Indeed, results from the data collection process showed that all the 150 parents and 100 teachers took part in the study. Regardless of the size of a circuit, 15 parents each and 10 teachers were selected from each of the circuits. The deliberate selection of equal numbers of teachers and parents gave a fair representation of two of the key stakeholders of girls' formal education. In effect, it is being stated that all the respondents shortlisted for data collection took part in the main data collection process and this gave the 100% return rate of the instruments administered for the investigation.

Main Data Presentation

Data collection was done with items developed to elicit responses to the research questions formulated to guide the study. In view of this, the main results of the study are presented according to research questions. Each research is presented and the rationale for it is stated before the responses under it are presented either in prose or in tables or charts. Where possible, similar responses from respondents shall be presented in a unified table; if not, separate tables shall be used and discussions done together drawing out the similarities and differences with the relevant literature support.

Research Question One: What factors account for the low female enrolment in the basic schools in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District (THLDD)?

This research question was posed to find answers to the factors that accounted for the low female enrolment in basic schools within the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District of the Central Region. All respondents answered a couple of questions that supplied the factors that influenced girls' formal school attendance. Responses to research question one was elicited from parents and the drop out girls. The reason was that most of the earlier studies indicated that the factors that affect girls' participation in formal education had largely come from the home or are attributed to home influence more than the school environment.

The influence of number of children and girls school enrolment

The number and the sex of children a family have been found to influence the education of the children. Parent respondents responded some of the key issues relating to girls' school enrolment. Table 2 presents parents' responses to the number of children they had.

Table 2

Parents' responses on the number of children

No. of children	Frequency	Percentage
3	24	16.0
4	42	28.0
5	17	11.0

Table 2 Continued

No. of children	Frequency	Percentage
6	10	7.0
7	15	10.0
8	36	24.0
9	6	4.0
Total	150	100%

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table 2 shows that 45% of parents indicated that they has six to nine children and 55 had three to five children. The results as it is shown on the table do not mean anything but when it is linked with the sexes of the children a better conclusion can be drawn. Figure 1 displays the sex permutation of the children of parent respondents.

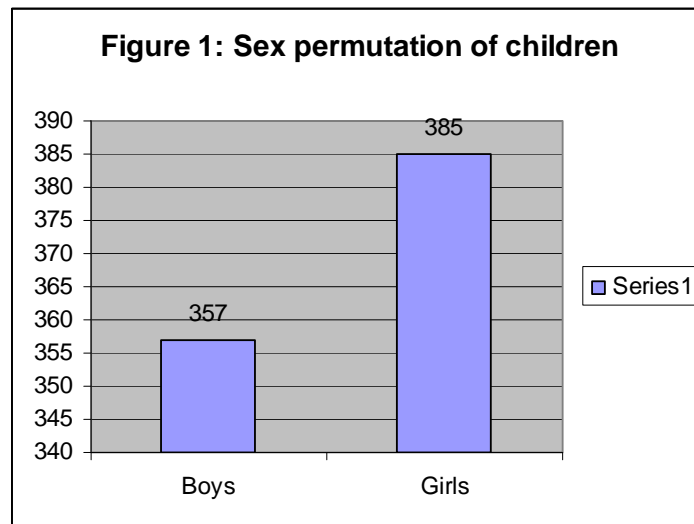


Figure 1: Sex Permutation of Children

Source: Field Survey, 2009

It is seen from Figure 1 that there were 48.1% males and 51.9% females. In reference to Table 2, the 150 parents had a total of 742 children and the breakdown was 357 (48.1%) boys and 385 (51.9%) girls. These figures should normally have reflected in the enrollment levels of pupils in the basic schools, but the reverse was the case. Because, in a related issue, 57.3% and 42.7% of parents answered 'Yes' and 'No' respectively to the question whether they have children who were not in school or not. The responses showed that majority (425) of the (742) children were not in school. Out of the 425 children, 65.8% were girls and the remaining 34.2% being boys. The issue did not end there, parents were asked to give reasons for this state of affair. Explanations they gave indicated that:

- i. they did not have money to look after them the children
- ii. they needed the children to help them in the home and on farms
- iii. the distance to school was far.

Further to the explanations listed above, they explained that not that the children had not been to school before, conditions did not allow them to continue especially the girls. However, they indicated that if conditions get better, the children will go back to school.

Dropout Girls' Views on the Factors that Influence School Enrolment

Girls were asked the level of education they reached and why they dropped out. This was because all the 150 girls selected had been to school before but had to drop out for varied reasons. Table 3 presents the level of education the girls reached before they dropped out of school.

Table 3

Level of Education Girls Reached Before Dropping Out

Level	Frequency	Percentage
Primary	89	59.3
Junior High	33	22.0
Secondary School	28	18.7
Total	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table 3 indicates 59.3% of the drop out girls stressed that they dropped out of school at the primary school level and 22% dropped out at the Junior High School level. What these two pieces information means is that a total of 81.3% could not complete basic education. It was only 18.7% of the girls who completed basic school, got to secondary school and dropped out for the some of the reasons that are displayed in Table 4. As follow up, Table 4 presents girls' responses on the causes for dropping out of school.

Table 4

Causes of girls dropping out of school

Causes	Frequency	Percentage
Poor Parents	60	40.0
Broken home	25	16.7
Pregnant	47	31.3
Lost either parents	18	12.0
Total	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table 4 shows that four causes which the drop out girls indicated influence their dropping out of school. Out of 150 girls sampled for data collection, 40% revealed that their parents were poor and that forced them to abandon their education. Again, the table indicates that 16.7% stated that their parents had divorced and 12.0% indicated that had died and there was no one available to sponsor the education leading to dropping out. Lastly, 30.7% of the girls admitted they got pregnant in the course of their education and dropped out unable to continue after the delivery.

In support of the findings as deduced from parents and girls responses, Adetunde and Akampae (2008) found in a study that some girls drop out of school for reasons that include economic conditions of parents and lack of parental care. The lack of good parental care can lead to girls getting pregnant which eventually results in the girls dropping out. On the issue of family size, Torto (2008) indicated that the size of a family affects girls' participation in formal education. This assertion confirms the responses displayed in Table 2 that 45% of parents have a family size of 6 or more children. When this is tied in with the economic pressures, children's education would be affected (Asomaning, Agarwal, Apt, Grienco & Turner, 1994). Torto (2008) further buttressed the point that girls getting pregnant were a factor that influenced girls' school enrollment. She stressed that when girls get pregnant it affects their school attendance. She elaborated that when they become sexually active during their primary or secondary they become pregnant and are usually expelled from school.

Parents' Education Level and Girls' Participation in Schooling

Several research results indicate that the level of parents' education influence girls' participation in school. Owing to this, responses were elicited from parents and the drop out girls with the view to confirm that assertion in the area that was studied.

In first instance, parents were asked if they had been to school before and the responses were 26.7% 'Yes' and 73.3% 'No'. Further to that, the 40 who indicated they had attended school were asked the level they reached and these responses are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Parents' Level of Education

Responses	Frequency.	Percentage
Primary/JHS	5	12.5
Middle School	28	70.0
Secondary	6	15.0
Tertiary	1	2.5
Total	40	100

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table shows that 5 parents out of the 40 who had been to school before ended at the primary or junior high school level. It seems some of these parents dropped out like their girl children. The majority 28 (70%) completed standard seven with a middle school leaving certificate. Few 7 (17.5%) went beyond the basic level to the second cycle or the tertiary level as depicted on the table.

To get a balance perspective on the issue, girls were asked to indicate their parents' level of education. The responses girls gave to the highest level of education their parents reached are presented in Table 6.

The responses displayed on Table 6 are slightly different from those in Table 5, even though, both presented data that concerned the educational level of parents. One different thing stems from the fact, in Table 5 only 40 parents who had formal education's view were presented but in Table 6, all the girls selected for the study gave responses to the issue.

Table 6

Girls' Responses on their Parents' Highest Educational Attainment

Level of Education	Father		Mother	
	N	(%)	N	(%)
No formal education	40	26.7	86	57.3
Primary/JHS	51	34.0	30	20.0
Middle School	44	29.3	18	12.0
Secondary	15	10.0	16	10.7
Tertiary	-	-	-	-
Total	150	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

A look at the Table 6 shows that 40 and 86 girls revealed that their fathers and mothers in that order did not have formal education. This is significant revelation and it could have accounted for a greater portion of the factors that influenced the girls dropping out of school which had affected girls' enrollment. Indeed, several research findings attest to the fact that parents' level of education

affects their children's education and more specifically the girl-child's participation in formal education (Torto, 2008; Adetunde and Akampae, 2008; Fentiman, Hall & Bundy, 1999; Kelly & Elliot, 1982). In study by Thompson and Casely-Hayford (2008) among university teachers and students in Ghana, it was found that females among them had parents with better educational levels.

Parents' Occupation and Girls' School Enrollment

Another factor has been seen to influence girls' participation in formal education is the type of work the parents do. The responses of girls are presented in Table 7 and that of parents in Table 8.

Table 7

Girls' Responses Regarding Parents' Occupation

Type of occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Farming	120	80.0
Driving	3	2.0
Trading	6	4.0
Palm Oil Processing	10	6.7
Palm wine taper	6	4.0
Teaching	2	1.3
Dressmaking	3	2.0
Total	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table 8

Parents' Responses Regarding the Type of Occupation they are Engaged In

Type of occupation	Frequency	Percentage
Farming	138	92.0
Trading	10	6.7
Craft	2	1.3
Total	150	100%

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table 7 shows girls indicated that they parents were engaged in seven types of occupations. This is contrasts with those displayed in Table 8. Table showed only three types of occupations. In both tables, farming recorded the highest proportion of responses.

From Table 7, farming attracted 80% of the responses and 92% of the responses in Table 8. It is not surprising that farming is the most predominant occupation in the area because it is a forest zone with a lot of potential for agriculture based occupations. In this light, 10.7% of the girls indicated that their parents were engaged in palm wine taping and palm oil processing. These are off shoot of palm nut farming. From both tables, it is seen that the next prominent occupation parents are involved in is trading. On the part of the parents none of them indicated they were engaged in teaching, dressmaking and driving but girls made allusion to them. The reality is that the girls and parents were picked at random and they did not know each other and so the results from each category of

respondents should not necessarily correlate. What is important is the type of occupation of parents and the impact it has on girls' enrollment in school (Psacharopoulos, 1992).

The Influence of House Chores on Girls' School Enrolment

Traditionally girls help a great deal in house execution of most of the house chores. Such activities deprive them of adequate time to concentrate on their books in the home. In view of that this subsection presents responses elicited from parents and girls relative to house chores that are performed by girls in home before school or after school. Table 9 presents parents' responses to their daughter house chores.

Table 9

Parents' Responses on Girls' Routine House Duties

Activity	Frequency	Percentage
Cooking meals	15	10.0
Keeping the house tidy	8	5.3
Fetching water for domestic use	26	17.4
Washing family clothes	11	7.3
Performing all the above activities	90	60.0
Total	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table 9 shows that 90% of parents indicated that their daughters performed almost all activities in the home regularly. They explained that the daily activities included cooking meals, keeping the house tidy and fetching of

water. Washing of clothes is done mostly at the weekends on Saturdays or Sundays. The remaining 40% showed that their girls did not perform all the activities but some of them as displayed in the table. In any case, the activities listed are routine duties that girls in Ghana regularly discharge, which they would not skip for any reason except sickness, meaning even if they are going to school they have to undertake those activities before they could go. The performance of these activities had impact on their school attendance and academic performance. To get a balanced view of this issue, girls answered some questions on their house chores. Table 10 presents the first set of girls' responses.

Table 10

Girls' Responses on Daily Duties Performed Before or After School

Activities	Frequency	Percentage
Cooking	15	10.0
Washing dishes	6	4.0
Fetching water	3	2.0
Going to farm	33	22.0
Keeping the house tidy	45	30.0
Performing all the above activities	48	32.0
Total	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

The responses in Table 10 largely confirm those displayed in Table 9. First and foremost, the table shows that 32% of the girls indicated that, they

regularly carried out all the activities listed. Also, Table 10 shows that 30% of the responses indicated that girls mostly kept the house tidy. Traditionally, women wake up early in morning to sweep the compound, fetch water and prepare meals for the house. The revelation that girls help in house chores is supported by the writings of King and Anne (1993). Specifically, they explained that women are involved in all kinds of activities both at the community level and the regional level; the activities included farming, trading, child bearing and general household chores.

Since this research is about the girls' enrolment in school, their academic performance is an important issue to be considered. Owing to that, the girls were asked if they had enough time to study after they have finished with their house chores. Results of data collected indicated that 95.3% had enough time and 4.7% did have time. Looking at this result, girls generally were not disturbed by house duties performed after school. May be those that are performed before school bothered them because that would delay them thereby attending school late; sometimes, the morning house chores would prevent them from going to school and this would affect their enrolment in the long run.

Additionally, girls were asked if their guardians were able to supply their school needs. The emerging responses were 20.7% 'Yes' and 79.3% 'No'. The answers were not left in this state rather, reasons were sought and girls stressed that more parents/guardians could not meet their wards' basic school needs because of poverty. In fact, the issue of poverty has been cited as one of the factors that affect girls' school enrollment. In a study, Asomaning, Agarwal, Apt,

Grienco and Turner (1994) found that the rising cost of schooling is the major reason most parents give for not taking the trouble to educate their children, particularly, girls. On their part, Llyod and Gage-Brandon (1993) emphasised that for modesty reasons, girls are less likely to go to school in torn or ill-fitting uniforms. Above all, in separate researches into girls school enrolment, Boakye (1997); FAWE (1996); Mensah-Abrompah (1996); and Amehame (1991) noted that in Ghana, the most common factor causing dropout among both boys and girls at the basic education level is lack of sustained parental support with respect to funding and the provision of basic needs required by the schools.

Research Question Two: What attitude do parents (both literate and illiterate) exhibit towards female formal education?

This research question elicited responses that satisfied specific objective two of the study. The objective was intended to examine parents' attitude towards girls' formal education. Therefore, Table 11 presents the views of parents concerning girls' participation on formal education.

To be able to measure parents' attitude effectively statements were proposed and parents indicated their agreement or disagreement with each of them. Also, the responses had been presented according to literate and non-literate parents' responses. It has helped to compare the attitude of parents according to their educational background. Several Ghanaian scholars have researched into the attitude of parents towards girls' participation on formal education.

Table 11

Parents' Attitude towards Girls' Participation in Formal Education

Statements	Literate parents			Non-literate parents		
	Agree	Disagree	Total	Agree	Disagree	Total
	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
1. Educating females is a waste of resources	5(12.5)	35(87.5)	40(100)	80(72.7)	30(27.3)	110(100)
2. There is no need to educate a woman beyond the primary school level	6(15.0)	34(85.0)	40(100)	91(82.7)	19(17.3)	110(100)
3. Girls' education only ends at the kitchen	11(27.5)	29(72.5)	40(100)	86(78.2)	24(21.8)	110(100)
4. Educated girls usually do not become good wives	-	40(100)	40(100)	-	110(100)	110(100)
5. It is better to educate a boy than a girl	30(75.0)	10(25.0)	40(100)	90(81.8)	20(18.2)	110(100)

Source: Field Survey, 2009

In his study, Mensah (1992) stated that parents who have had a little education place equal value on both male and female education. Kelly and Elliot (1982) on their part said that illiterate and literate parents have different attitude towards girls' education.

As the responses in Table 11 show, there were 40 and 110 literate and non-literate parent respondents respectively. On the issue of that when females participate in formal education it is a waste of resources, 12.5% of literate the parents agreed and 87.5% disagreed. On the contrary, 72.7% of the non-literate agreed with the assertion confirming Kelly and Elliot (1982) finding that parents who are themselves not educated tend to see little value in education, especially, for girls. Clearly, the majority literate parents do see educating girls as waste of resources.

On the second issue that there is no need to educate women (girls) beyond the primary level, only 15% of literate agreed whilst the majority (82.7%) of non-literate parents also side with them. But 85% of literate parents and few non-literate ones disagreed that girls should not be educated beyond the lower basic level of education. This finding also confirms the results of Acheampong's (1992) study. He found that among the factors that impede females' enrolment in school or from attaining higher levels of education were dependent on the parents' level of education and that girls who aspire to the tertiary educational level were those whose parents had either secondary or tertiary education.

The third assertion that was used to assess, parents' attitude towards girls' school enrollment was that girls' education only ends at the kitchen. This

assertion means, no matter the level of education of a woman she would be married to perform house chores. As the trend had shown, majority of non-literate parents, averaging 78% agreed that was true but 72.5% of literate parents disagreed.

In a complete departure from the norm, in terms of the responses discussed under Table 11 thus far; this time around, all responses, that is, both literate and non-literate parents disagreed with the proposition that educated girls do not become good wives. In other words, for a woman to become a good wife, it does not matter whether she has been educated or not, much depends on the home upbringing. After the presentation have shown that girls participated in house chores before and after school which was also a way of learning to become a wife or performing the duties of a wife.

Lastly, Table 11 shows that 75% of literate and almost 82% of non-literate parents agreed that the education of boys is preferred to that of girls. In support of this finding, Mensah (1992) stressed that the attitude of rural dwellers towards female education, reveals that: the background of many educated parents in rural areas influences decisions and attitudes in favour of enrolling boys rather than girls. Furthermore, parents without any educational background had little interest in educating their female children. In buttressing the point further, Boakye (1997) revealed that Ghanaian women started formal education from a considerably disadvantaged position because colonial education under the Wesleyan, Basel and Catholic Missionaries discriminated against them. The records have it that for every 100 boys the Wesleyans admitted; there were only 11 girls, whilst, the

Catholics admitted 28 girls to 100 boys. The Basel Missionaries on their part, admitted 100 boys to 59 girls. This trend is not the case when it comes to enrollment figure at the lower basic levels, but as they progress, girls' enrollment dwindles as a result of the some the factors that had been discussed in the previous presentation.

So far it has been seen that non-literate parents do not fully support the education of the girl child and this affects the enrollment of girls particularly in rural schools. However, parents with some degree of formal education support the education of girls but preference is always given to boys if the economic conditions are not favourable. Overall, the attitudes of parents reflect those in the society at large and are deeply embedded in prevailing cultural norms and values (King & Hill, 1993).

Research Question Three: What are the attitudes of teachers towards girls' participation in formal education?

The role teachers' play in the educational delivery cannot be underestimated. It is even more crucial when female participation in education to the fore. Teachers are required to act as surrogate parents, counselors and educators to enhance the education delivery process (Psacharopoulous & Patrinos, 2002). It is from this realization that the attitudes of teachers were deemed to be paramount to the findings of this study and research question three was devoted to elicit the required responses from teachers. Teacher respondents responded to series of items some of which demand a yes or no with explanations and others

had alternatives from which teachers had the opportunity of choosing their view point.

Firstly, teachers were asked which of the sexes performed better in academic exercises. The responses indicated that boys did better than girls because 67.4% teachers chose boys and 30.6% chose girls. Obviously, more than twice the boys do well than girls. It has been stated that poor academic performance affect girls' enrollment and the poor performance of girls come as a result of poor teacher perception (Osei, 1994b).

Probing further to see the reasons behind the performance of girls, teachers were asked how they distributed questions in class. The responses indicated 69% of teachers mostly directed questions to boys as opposed to girls whilst the 31% preferred girls. This state of affair is given credence by Kilo (1994) who reported that during classroom observations in Kenya and Rwanda, teachers paid more attention to boys than girls, or totally ignored girls.

Furthermore, teachers who preferred directing questions to boys than girls were asked to give reasons for their decision to do so. The reasons they gave are presented in Table 12.

From Table 12, it is seen that 36.2% of the responses from teachers indicated that boys are more brilliant than girls in schools. They further explained that boys gave satisfactory responses to questions posed in class. In support of this finding, a survey conducted by Biraimah (1989) revealed that in Togo High School teachers were unanimous in their opinions that female students were neither intelligent nor successful.

Table 12

**Teachers' Explanations why more Questions are Directed to Boys
During Instructional Time**

Reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Boys are more brilliant than girls	25	36.2
There are more boys than girls in a class	8	11.6
Boys are bold to speak	21	30.4
Girls often feel shy to answer questions in class	15	21.8
Total	69	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

NB: the 69 represents the number of teachers who preferred directing questions to mainly boys in class.

Rather, male students possessed positive social and personal characteristics that enhanced their academic achievement in the school. Teachers are taught to be impartial and avoid labeling by continuously directing questions to particular students and alienating the rest of the class, in the same way is unjustifiable for teachers to consciously direct questions to the boys at the expense of girls. Teachers are expected to act professionally.

Additionally, Table 12 shows that 11.6% of the responses explained that questions are mainly directed to boys because they outnumbered the girls. This view point cannot hold water, since teachers are supposed to encourage all students to participate in the instructional process. It is true that boys may

outnumber girls, teachers as professionals should create the environment for the girls to feel part of the educational process instead of discriminating against them. The bottomline is that, if teachers continue in that line, it would affect girls' enrolment in the long run.

Similarly, from the table it is depicted that 30.4% of the explanation given by teachers indicated that more often boys are bold to speak out. Meaning boys are more articulate than girls, that is, not in doubt. But the issue is if teachers continue with these practices, which had been found to be perceptions, it would not remain as perceptions any longer but the reality. It is being emphasised that teachers are professional educators and they are to train students to become articulate and so it is a challenge if the girls are not prepared to answer questions in class. Teachers should devise means to involve the girls to enhance their enrolment, since teachers, especially females would not be happy to see girls' enrollment decrease as they move higher on the educational ladder.

Lastly, Table 12 indicates that 21.8% of the explanation emphasised that girls felt shy to speak in public or class. It is still the duty of teachers to train girls and even boys who would not speak in class or public to cultivate that habit to encourage the full participation of everybody in the class. A study conducted in Malawi found that some teachers characterized their female students as shy and unwilling to raise hands in class (Davidson & Kanyuka, 1992). In their recommendation, Davidson and Kanyuka (1992) urged teachers to ensure that shy students were made active through the answering of questions in class.

Despite the fact that questions were rarely directed to girls during lessons delivery, in a related item, the majority (85%) of teachers indicated they involved the girls in class discussions. On the contrary, few (16%) of the teachers refused to involve girls in the class discussions, with the reason that, girls felt shy to talk. Besides that, female students did not play active role as compared to their male counterparts.

In another exposition on teachers' attitude towards girls' participation in formal education, an item in the interview guide enquired on the type of sitting that is used in the study area. It came out that 95% of teachers used the cross-sex sitting arrangement, 5% preferred the sex-segregated as happens in Malawi and reported by Davidson and Kanyuka (1992). The view of the majority that cross-sex seating arrangement is used is at variance with the finding of El-Sanabary's (1989) study that in Ghana, teachers tend to ignore girls and isolate them at the back of the classroom. In deed El-Sanabary may not be totally wrong because a small (5%) in this case practised segregated sitting arrangement, but the majority did not act that way.

To ensure that the responses above were meaningful, teachers were asked to give reasons for choosing a particular type of sitting arrangement. Consequently, teachers who preferred the cross-sex sitting arrangement gave four reasons, which are displayed in Table 13.

Table 13

Reasons Teachers Gave for Preferring the Cross-Sex Sitting Arrangement

The reasons	Frequency	Percentage
Enhance exchange of ideas	42	44.2
Minimizes gossiping	15	15.8
Promotes socialization	22	23.2
Remove shyness from girls	16	16.8
Total	95	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

NB: the 95 represents the number of teachers who preferred the use of cross-sex sitting arrangement in class.

The foremost reason given by teachers for adopting the cross-sitting arrangement for their classrooms was that it promotes exchange of ideas among students. In fact, it is seen from Table 13 that a little over 44% of the responses indicated the cross-sex sitting arranged enhances exchange of ideas and it creates the atmosphere for effective teaching and learning. Besides, the cross-sex sitting arrangement promotes a feeling of togetherness among the students in class. The implication of the reasons displayed in Table 13 is that the majority of teachers perceive the two sexes as one entity with identical aspirations. Again, there is no evidence of gender discrimination in this study as was in the case reported by Graham–Browne, (1991) and Gordon (1993) in Zimbabwe and El-Sanabary (1989) in Ghana. Under the cross-sex sitting arrangement, it might be a bit difficult for a teacher to focus his or her attention on only one sex as it pertains in Cameroun as reported by Nangurai (1994).

The issue of students' involvement in leadership positions had been seen to be one of the areas where teachers exhibit poor attitude towards girls (Hyde, 1994). True to this assertion, in response to an item that enquired which of the sexes would be preferred as class prefect, 90% of teachers chose boys and the remaining 10% went for girls. Indeed, if the democratic culture of schools demands that class prefects are to be appointed by teachers it is most unlikely that females would assume leadership positions. This is against the background that the attitude of parents towards females as reported by Hyde (1994) reflects those of teachers with respect to girls' weak abilities.

In furtherance of the democratic culture is being built as part of the education process regarding students' leadership, teachers were asked the method they used in select class prefects. Their responses are displayed in Table 14.

Table 14

Teachers' Responses on the Procedures used Selecting Class Prefects

Procedure	Frequency	Percentage
Voluntary	2	2.0
Election	96	96.0
Appointment	2	2.0
Total	100	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

It is clear from Table 14 that most teachers (or schools) use elections in the selection of class prefects and by extension school prefects. This means

teachers and school administrators had embraced the democratic culture that is gaining grounds in every facet of leadership context. In spite of this new paradigm not many girls get elected as leaders as prefects for their classes or in the school because of the perception that they are shy and not very bold to speak in public when the need demands. Furthermore, it is seen that it is rarely that teachers use their own discretion in appointing leaders for the classrooms. Also, in very rare occasions when the elections are not feasible, students are asked to volunteer to be class prefects and most often you seen boys come out to take the mantle of leadership, making them more preferred by teachers. All these go to reinforce the perception that boys are more bold and ready to speak when the need arises.

To confirm some of the responses teacher respondents have given, girls were asked about the behaviour teachers put up at the time they were in school. Their responses are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

**Girls' Responses on Teacher Behaviour towards Female Students
in the Classroom**

Type of behaviour	Frequency	Percentage
Great men are used as example in class	25	16.7
Questions are always directed to boys	20	13.3
Boys are praised more often	48	32.0
Teachers casual jokes favour boys	57	38.0
Total	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Firstly, Table 15 shows that close to 17% of girls indicated that teachers mostly use great men for illustrations in the classroom. Our world is dominated

men and there are more eminent men than women and this is not surprising. Additionally, girls confirmed responses teachers had given concerning the fact that most questions are directed to boys and few to girls. The table shows that roughly, 13% of girls stressed teachers mostly directed questions to boys. This finding has been confirmed in another conducted in Malawi by Davidson and Kanyuka (1992). All the other responses are consistent with what teachers had indicated earlier in their submissions.

Research Question Four: What is the influence of distance travelled to school has on female enrolment in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District?

Research has shown that distance travelled to school influences girls' participation in education especially in the rural areas (Linden & Lafortune, 2009). Based on this realization, research question four was formulated to elicit some responses on how distance impacted on girls' enrolment. First parents and girls were asked to estimate the distance pupils travelled to school. The responses are presented in Table 16.

Table 16
Parents and Girls' Responses on the Distance Travelled to School

Estimated distance travelled	Responses			
	Parents		Girls	
	N	(%)	N	(%)
distance is \leq 2km	33	22.0	10	6.7
distance is \leq 3km	97	64.7	20	13.3
distance is \leq 4km	20	13.3	120	80.0
Total	150	100.0	150	100.0

Source: Field Survey 2009

Table 16 shows that parents and girls did not agree on the distance pupils travelled to school. This is because the majority (80%) of girls believed that they travelled close to 4km to school on daily basis but only 13.3% of parents agreed with that. Actually, a distance close to 4km is long enough for girls to traverse to school. In fact, several studies finding indicate distance travelled by girls influence their enrolment. Even though this study did not specifically ask girls whether the distance they travelled factored into their dropping out of school, it could deduced that it was an indirect factor. In his contribution to the literature reviewed, Osei (1994a) pointed out that in Ghana, the maximum distance a child has to walk to school in principle is three kilometers but this ideal does exist mostly in the rural areas. If Osei's assertion is to be taken seriously then the girls are right but parents may not be wrong because to them it is normal walking or traveling for less than 4km to school.

In a sequel to the distance travelled parents were asked whether they felt the distance was too much and they stressed it was manageable. On the part of girls, 40% indicated it was manageable but 60% did not think so. This meant distance became a factor in their dropping out of school in the sense that distance could not be considered in isolation, girls have had to work in the house and trek to school almost tired and they got to school to face the rules and regulations that bordered on late attendance. Ultimately distance influenced their enrollment, hence, some of them could not cope as a result and dropped out on the way. Support the view, distance influences girls' enrollment, Linden and Lafortune's (2009) study in Afghanaistan found when the distance travelled reduced girls

enrollment improved. All the scholars who contributed literature on the distance issue confirmed the assertions made in this section of the discussion and the findings that had emerged. In effect, the studies by Cammish and Brock (1991), Mbilinyi and Mbughuni (1991) and Nangurai (1994) indicated that in Ethiopia, Gambia, Guinea, Zimbabwe the long distance girls often have to walk to school is also a deterrent to their participation and achievement in school, particularly in rural areas. Atakpa's (1996) study came out with similar findings.

The views of teachers were sought on the distance issue. When teachers were asked if distance pupils travelled impacted on their enrollment, there was an emphatic 'Yes' response. To deal exhaustively with the issue, explanations were sought from teachers. They explained that where the villages were far from the location of the school, classes could not start on time because pupils arrived late, attendance rate was low and the disposition of pupils was not encouraging. All these resulted in the poor performance that had been associated with the schools and for girls if they perform poorly continuously and they are repeated in a class, they stop schooling altogether. What teachers said was that if the distance travelled is far, it impacted on the whole educational process and success becomes minimal especially for girls. This is demonstrated by the previous researches undertaken by researchers. A few examples buttress the point clearer. It has found that close proximity of schools in Guinea encouraged female participation (Anderson-Levit, Block & Soumère, 1994); a study in Mali revealed that a distance accounted for 14% of the variance in girls' enrolment. Distance was a significant factor for both rural and urban girls, but more so for rural girls

(Anderson-Levit et al, 1994); and according to Wyatt (1991), in the Philippines girls' enrolment increased three percent compared to that of boys' one percent. This happened if the school was located in the village or within a short distance.

Research Question Five: What are female role models doing about girls' education in the area?

The importance of female role models in the girls' participation in formal education has been emphasised at several fora by advocates of women empowerment. According to UNESCO EFA Global Monitoring Report (2009), role models are necessary for the motivation of young girls and to prevent school drop out. It is based on these that responses were elicited from respondents.

Firstly, girls were asked if there were female teachers in their respective schools and the answer was unanimous 'Yes'. The essence of that question was that female teachers had been found to provide powerful role models, and can act as the catalysts for encouraging more girls to go to school (Boyden, 1996).

In a sequel to the item discussed above, girls were asked what they learned from the female teachers. They indicated that the female teachers lived quality lives, were economically independent and enjoyed some rights that uneducated rural women could not lay claim to.

Secondly, the opinion of parents was sought on how they viewed the presence of female teachers. They emphatically stressed that it was refreshing to see women teaching other people good ways of life. These females did not need to go to farm or the market as some of us do everyday; they are paid at the end of the month and no man can bluff them because they are economically independent.

They can help take care of their children. In another development, parents indicated they were not bothered whether it was males or females that taught their children, they were concerned with how to cater for their children and pray that the children could go to school and became prominent people like the teachers or nurses for instance.

Apart from female teachers being considered as role models who could influence girls' enrollment, the presence or availability of educated women from the areas studies was considered important to study. Consequently, parents and girls were asked whether there educated women from their local communities. The response was in the affirmative. First, parents and girls were asked about the level of education some of these women had attained; Table 17 presents those responses.

Table 17

Parents and Girls' Responses on the Level of Education Attained by some Women from their Communities

Level of Education	Frequency	Percentage
Middle School/JHS Level	59	19.7
Senior Secondary Level	150	50.0
Training College	30	10.0
Diploma/First Degree	61	20.3
Total	300	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2009

Table 17 shows that 50% of parents and girls indicated most females in the communities in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira area had schooled up to the senior secondary school level. Also, a cumulative 30.3% of respondents emphasised that some of the females in the area had been to attended training college and beyond.

In a related item, all respondents were asked if girls are given assistance to help boost their enrollment. The answers that ran through were in the negative. In the literature review, it was seen that girls are motivated by female teachers and some distinguished women from their communities. In spite of the abundance of female role models from the communities studied, some of the girls still dropped out because no programme had been instituted for their retention in the schools. Elsewhere, in Ghana some women groups had put in interventions to boost the participation of girls in formal education.

Summary of Chapter Four

The presentation of results for the study was largely done using simple frequency tables and percentages. Occasionally, when the need arose, relative frequencies and percentages were employed to present the results. The discussion that followed the tabular presentation of results was illustrated with views, opinions and perspectives of scholars who had conducted studies into girls education or written articles in that direction. On the whole, the results indicated that girls school enrolment and retention are influenced by several factors, which included parental' occupation, parents' economic status, teachers' and parental

attitudes, distance travel to school, female teachers and female role models in and out of girls' local areas.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter of the study presents the summary of the study, summary of findings and conclusions drawn from the study. Additionally, the chapter caters for the recommendations made from the findings and suggested areas for further research.

Summary of the Study

The main focus of this study was to assess the factors that influenced girls' enrollment in the Basic Schools in the Twifo Hemang Lower Denkyira District of the Central Region of Ghana. In view of this, the background to the study highlighted the essence of females' participation in formal education. Thus, the history of female involvement in western formal education was emphasised and it was seen that right from the onset, girls were discriminated against in terms of the ratio of boys to girls' enrollment. There was a conscious effort to educate more boys than girls in those days which had been dictated by the socio-cultural practices of the time. It was seen that as time went by, girls' participation became a topical issue and measures were instituted to improve it. Eventually, female participation in formal education was mainstreamed but the problem of retention had persisted to date. Five research questions were formulated to guide the data collection, which largely satisfied the objectives for the study.

Extensive literature was reviewed and it covered the areas that included the research question sought answers from. Among the themes that formed the literature review were: factors that affected girls' school enrolment, measures to improve girls' enrolment in school, parental educational background, parental and teachers' attitude towards girls' participation in formal education, school environment and school facilities, female teachers as role models and how distance covered to school affected girls' enrollment.

Chapter Three presented the methodology for the study. It described the research designed adopted for the study, population, sampling techniques used and data collection instruments. Additionally, how data was collected and analysed were described in chapter three.

In the penultimate chapter, the results were presented according to the research questions in mostly tabular forms using descriptive statistical tools such simple and relative frequency tables and percentages. Some of the results were presented in prose and almost every finding was supported by a perspective from the literature reviewed in chapter two.

In this last chapter, the summary of the study is presented. Since it a summary, every presentation is in brief, for example the findings are presented as concise as possible and the same is applied to the conclusions, recommendations and suggested areas for further study.

Summary of Findings

The findings are presented according to the five specific objectives that study. In view of that the results of the study are as follows:

1. On the factors that accounted for the low female enrolment level in the basic schools, it was revealed that:
 - i. Drop out girls' parents were poor;
 - ii. some of the girls got pregnant;
 - iii. came from broken home;
 - iv. distance to school;
 - v. the educational level of parents;
 - vi. parental and teacher attitudes towards girls education; and
 - vii. the performance of house chores.

2. Secondly, the results showed that:
 - i. few parents were literates, majority were non-literates,
 - ii. literate parents fully support the education of girls to whatever they could but non-literate parents felt even if they should be girls' education, it should not go beyond primary level.

3. An evaluation of teacher attitudes towards girls' participation in formal education revealed that:
 - i. during lessons teachers directed more questions to boys than girls.
 - ii. most teachers preferred to direct questions to boys than girls,
 - iii. great men were mostly used as illustrations during lessons,
 - iv. boys were mostly praised by teachers,
 - v. more teachers preferred the cross-sex sitting arrangement in class than sex-segregated and
 - vi. teachers preferred boys' leadership than girls.

4. On the issue of distance traveled to school daily, the results of the study revealed that:
 - i. most girls, about 64% travelled about 3 kilometres to school daily and roughly 13% went beyond that distance.
 - ii. parents and 40% of girls indicated that distance travelled to school was manageable but 60% of girls disagreed.
5. Finally, the results of the study showed that
 - i. the presence of female teachers could help in the enrollment of girls since the female teachers can serve as role models,
 - ii. educated women from the communities can help girls' participation in formal education but nothing concrete had been done yet.

Conclusions

By and large the findings of this study had confirmed earlier studies undertaken in Ghana and across the developing world. The factors that influenced girls' enrollment were level of parental education, socio-economic status, attitude of parents and teachers towards girls' education, distance travelled to school and the influence of female role models. All these factors are not new revelations; at best they are confirmation of existing literature. However, there were some peculiarities relative to previous studies undertaken by other scholars across the African continent. The bottom line remains that girls' enrollment is influenced by the factors that can be dealt with if stakeholders were to agree on the modalities to do so, since the benefits that would accrue to girls' active participation in formal education is enormous.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made based on the findings of the research:

- i. First and foremost, women groups should assist the girls with their basic school amenities so that it would enhance girls' enrollment in the basic school in the district.
- ii. Secondly, schools should be cited close to girls' areas of abode so that they would not have to travel far distances with its attendant challenges.
- iii. Parents, especially, the non-literate ones are to change their perceptions towards girls' participation in formal education.
- iv. Similarly, teachers should change their attitude towards girls by being unbiased during lessons and in cracking jokes with the both sexes.
- v. Educated females from the district should team up with female teachers to mentor girls so that they would strive to remain in school because the benefits that would accrue from schooling are substantial.

Suggested Areas for Further Study

1. The topic investigated should be replicated in other districts of the Central Region to help bring girls' enrollment in those districts to light.
2. Effects of parental and teachers' attitudes towards girls' academic achievement.

3. The economic and social importance of girls' participation in formal education.
4. The extent female role models can help boost female participation in education.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 'A'

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PARENTS

SEX: MALE..... FEMALE:.....

CIRCUIT:.....

1. How old are you?.....

2. What is your marital status?.....

3. How many children do you have?.....

4. How many of your children are in school?.....

i) How many are boys?..... ii) How many are girls?.....

5. Do you have children between 12 and 20 years who are NOT pursuing any schooling? YES/NO

i) If YES, How many boys?.....ii) How many are girls?.....

6. a) Why are they not pursuing any schooling?

i) Never attended at all. Number of boys:.....Number of girls:.....

ii) Dropped out of school. Number of boys:..... Number of girls:.....

b) If never attended at all, why?.....

7. a) Have you ever attended schooling? YES/NO

b) If YES, up to what level?.....

8. What is your occupation? Farming/Trading/Craft /Other:.....

9. a) What distance does your child walk to school?

i.0 – 2km ii.0 – 3km iii.0 – 4km

b) What is your perception about the distance your child walks to school?

.....

10. Indicate your preference in the statements displayed in the table below

S/No.	Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
A	Educating female is a waste of resources				
B	There is no need to educate a girl beyond primary level				
C.	Girls' education only end up at the kitchen				
D.	Educated girls usually do not become good wives				
E.	It is better to educate a boy than a girl.				

11a. Do you receive any assistance from women advocates in the communities?

Yes [] No []

11b. If your response was 'Yes', briefly elaborate on the assistance given by these women groups.

.....

APPENDIX 'B'

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR TEACHERS

MALE:..... FEMALE:.....

CIRCUIT:.....

1. In your view which of the sexes perform better in academic work in your class? Yes [] No []

2. a) Which of the sexes do you normally direct questions to? Boys/Girls
b) If boys, why?.....
.....

3. a) Do you involve girls in class discussions?
YES [] NO []
b) If NO,
Why?.....
.....

4. a) Which of the sitting arrangement do you prefer in your class?
i. Cross-sex
ii. Sex-segregated
b) If cross-sex, why:.....
.....

5. a) Which of the sexes do you think should take more leadership positions? GIRLS [] BOYS []

b) If boys, why?.....
.....
.....

6a. Distance the distance pupils travel to school impact on their enrollment?

Yes [] No []

6b. Briefly explain your response:
.....
.....

7a. Have the communities put in measures to boost girls' enrollment in the schools?

Yes [] No []

7b. If 'Yes' give details of the measures instituted:
.....
.....

APPENDIX ‘C’
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR
GIRLS DROPOUTS

1. a) What level of school did you attain?.....
b) What was the cause of your dropout?.....
2. a) What level of schooling did your father reach?.....
b) What level of schooling did your mother reach?.....
3. a) What is your father’s occupation?.....
b) What is your mother’s occupation?.....
4. When you were in school, how many distance did you walk to school?
 - i. distance is \leq 2km []
 - ii. distance is \leq 3km []
 - iii. distance is \leq 4km []
- 5a. Was your guardian able to supply your basic needs like school fees, dress, books underwear? YES [] NO []
- 5b. Give reasons for your responses item 5a above.
.....
.....
- 6a. When you were a school girl, what duties did you perform daily before and after school?
.....
.....
.....

6b) Were you able to have enough time to study after performing those duties?

YES [] NO []

7. What behaviour did your teacher show towards you in class when schooling?

i. Great men are cited as examples in class []

ii. Questions are always directed to boys []

iii. Boys are praised more often []

iv. Teachers' casual jokes favour boys []

8. a) Do you have female teacher(s) in this area?

YES [] NO []

b) If YES, what is your perception about them?.....

.....
.....

9. Are girls given assistance by women groups from communities or elsewhere?

YES [] NO []

10. If 'Yes', what form does the assistance take?

.....
.....