

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

AN ASSESSMENT OF COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR GIRL-CHILD  
EDUCATION IN THE ABURA-ASEBU-KWAMANKESE DISTRICT

KOFI APEATSE ODUM

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BY

KOFI APEATSE ODUM

Thesis submitted to the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Master of Philosophy Degree in Educational Planning

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## DECLARATION

### Candidate's Declaration

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

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

Name: Kofi ApeatseOdum

### Supervisors' Declaration

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

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

Name: Mr. S.K. Atakpa

Co-Supervisor's Signature: ..... Date:.....

Name: Rev. K. Arko-Boham

## ABSTRACT

The study sought to assess the support offered by the community for girl-child education in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district of Ghana using the descriptive design. The instrument used for the study was questionnaire which comprised Likert scale type questions. A sample size of 364 respondents was drawn from adult members of the community comprising Traditional Leaders, Teaching Staff at the District Education Office, Non-Governmental Organizations, Development Partners, Faith-Based Organizations, and Other Government Departments. The rest were Headteachers, Teachers, PTA and SMC Executives. The instrument for the study was pilot-tested to estimate its reliability. The pilot-test was done at the Assin South District because it shared similar characteristics with the study area. The pilot-test yielded different reliability coefficients for different sections of the instrument, which ranged from 0.64 to 0.86.

The study found that the level of community support was not encouraging. Kinds of support provided were in four major areas of financial, academic, infrastructural, and advocacy/collaboration. All kinds of support were rated as highly relevant, most of them were never provided. Parental poverty, overburdened household chores, teenage pregnancy were the three most rated factors which impacted highly on girl-child education, while sexual harassment was the least rated. The community had a positive perception about female education. The study recommends that the DEO should sensitize parents and the community to increase their support for girl-child education in the district.

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## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this work to my parents, Rev. and Mrs. KodwoEyiOdum for  
their love and care.

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

#### **Background to the Study**

The earliest sign of a plan to universalize primary education in Ghana was in 1945 when the colonial administration proposed a 10-year Education Development Plan to that effect. The next significant basic education expansion initiative was contained in the 1951 Seven-Year Accelerated Development Plan (ADP) which aimed at achieving universal primary education (UPE) for all children of school age (Acheampong, Djangmah, Oduro, Seidu & Hunt, 2007). Though the ADP expanded school enrolment, access and participation to basic education was still a far cry from the ideal wished for. To this end, the 1961 Education Act was passed to deal with the challenge of universal access to basic education. This ACT provided the principal legislation on the right to education for every child. In 1967 the Mills-Odoi and Kwapong Commission also emphasized expanded access to basic education. Subsequent policies in 1974 and 1987 contained similar objective. In 1992 the Constitution of Ghana gave further impetus to the provision of education as a basic right for all Ghanaians, paving way for the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (fCUBE) policy in 1996 (Ministry of Education [MOE], 1995).

In recent times, the government's commitment towards achieving universal access and participation has been expressed in international and local

policy frameworks: Ghana’s Education Strategic Plan (ESP) covering 2003-2015, and the Millennium Development Goals(MDGs) two and three, which targeted 100 % enrolment rates for both sexes by 2015. Progress has been made but girls’ enrolment still lagged behind. In 2007, national data indicated that the proportion of girls at Kindergarten (KG) level was 50% while that of primary and JHS was 48.4% and 46.1% respectively. These statistics show that enrolment tapered as girls moved up the academic ladder(MOE,2008). Enrolment statistics over a six-year period beginning 2003 through 2008 for Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district indicate two different scenarios: first, enrolment favoured boys and second, enrolment depicted a widening disparity from primary through JHS as girls moved up the educational ladder. Table 1 shows enrolment rates for KG, Primary and JHS for Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District from 2003– 2008.

**Table 1: Gross Enrolment Rates, 2003-2008 (Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District)**

	KG			Primary			JHS		
	M	F	T	M	F	T	M	F	T
2003/2004	73.4	74.6	74.0	82.4	78.4	80.4	68.0	64.3	66.2
2004/2005	79.4	78.4	78.9	87.0	83.3	85.2	70.0	67.8	69.0
2006/2007	102.8	102	102.4	87.9	85.1	86.5	79.3	73.5	76.6
2007/2008	116.9	113.7	115.3	88.8	88.0	88.4	83.5	80.9	82.3

Source: (MOE, 2008)

Table 1 reveals that Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) of 83.8% for boys and 78.3% for girls at the primary level in 2003 was in favour of boys. In 2004, the

GER favoured girls at the KG level but the scenario changed in favour of boys at the primary and JHS levels. Similar trends follow through. In fact, the dream of achieving UPE by 2005 was missed by 94 countries worldwide many of which were in Africa. These scenarios have triggered fears that the dream of achieving UPE is likely to be missed by many countries in Africa by 2015 (Development, 2007). Heightening this fear is the pace of progress in achieving universal primary education, particularly for girls in Africa, nursing genuine fears that the target might be missed by 2015. Again, there is significant portion of children, mainly girls, who are out of school. In more than 70 countries across the world today, girls are still less likely than boys to go to school. Over 100 million children in the world today do not go to school and more than half of these children, which constitutes 57% of the world's out-of-school children are distributed across more than 40 countries in sub-Saharan Africa (Development, 2007).

The question that lingers on the minds of people is 'what factors account for the persisting boy-girl disparity in schooling? In 2007, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) reported that there are basically three major factors that account for this phenomenon. These are enrolment factors, participation factors and learning/achievement factors (UNICEF, 2007). For enrolment factors, parental poverty, negative parental and community attitude towards girl-child education, long distance to school, and non-availability of girl-friendly structures, pregnancy and early marriage have been identified as factors affecting girl-child education. Learning/achievement of girls has been caused by poor teacher perception, sexual harassment, overburdening household chores and

parents' inability to provide learning materials (Acheampong et al, 2007; UNICEF, 2007). These hindering factors have had serious impact on girls' education but have not escaped the attention of stakeholders in education, especially the government.

Since pre-independence, the government, with support from school communities, individuals, non-governmental organizations and other stakeholders has implemented policies aimed at addressing these challenges. Antwi (1992) reported that the colonial administration in 1870, in recognition of these threatening factors legalized local participation in education by enacting the education ordinance, which recommended the formation of local boards of education. It also urged local councils to establish their schools. In 1961 the Education Act gave further impetus to local participation in education and recommended the establishment of Local Education Authorities (LEAs) to own and control its schools. In a further move, the Mills-Odoi and Kwapong Commission in 1967 recommended the decentralization of management of schools to the district level. The concept of community's role in education was further reinforced in the 1987 education reforms. In 1990, the Jomtien conference on education in Thailand stressed local participation in basic education and called for stronger partnerships with local communities, civil society organizations, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) with the view to harnessing community support to supplement state efforts, particularly for difficult-to-reach areas (Rugh and Bossert 1998; MOE, 1995; MOE, 2002). To this end one can assert that the call for community support for education is not novel. In fact, the call for community



support in education is synonymous to calling on the Ghanaian to go back to an old habit. It predated the advent of western formal education in Ghana, where the father, mother or the immediate family members, the entire community participated in the upbringing of the child. Socialization from birth, through adolescence to adulthood till death was a communal responsibility. This confirms a much-quoted African proverb which says: “it takes an entire village to raise a child” (Cunningham &Cordeiro, 2000, p.116).

It is important to note that though the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese community has been much involved in education delivery, the boy-girl disparity still persists. This raises a number of issues on the level and kinds of support the community provided towards girl-child education. One may also wonder how relevant these kinds of support were. There is also a gap in knowledge on how the community perceives education and the barriers that confronted education as well as measures the community could adopt to overcome barriers to girl-child education in the district. These gaps in knowledge beckon an investigation into community support for girl-child education in the district.

### **Statement of the Problem**

The issue of boy-girl disparity in education has been a challenge in Ghana in the recent past. As a way out, the concept of community support which placed the ownership and control of schools in the hands of local communities was emphasized. Though efforts by various community groups in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district have been in place for quite reasonable time, and have been supporting girl-child education, the boy-girl disparity in access and participation

in schooling still exists. Atakpa (1995) reported that though policies and laws have not discriminated against girls, the boy-girl disparity in education still persists and the end to this problem is not yet perceivable. The worrying situation, according to him, is the widening gap that persists as girls move up on the education ladder.

Table 1 indicates that there were disparities in boy-girl access to schooling in the district. The GER in 2007 for KG was 102.8% for boys and 102.0 for girls indicating a slight difference of 0.8%. The gap widened as pupils moved to primary, with a GER of 87.9% for boys and 85.1% for girls. At the JHS, the gap widened further with 79.3% for boys and 73.5 % for girls in 2006/2007 academic. This persisting and widening boy-girl disparity beckons an investigation into the support provided by the community towards girl-child education.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study was to assess the support offered by the community to encourage girl-child education in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District. The study specifically sought to find out the level and kinds of support offered by the community for girl-child education. It also assessed how the community perceived girl-child education and also identified the barriers that confronted girls-child education and the measures the community could adopt to minimize the barriers to girl-child education in the district.

## **Research Questions**

The study was by guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the level of community support for girl-child education in the district?
2. What are the kinds of support provided by the community for girl-child education?
3. How does the community perceive girl-child education?
4. What are the barriers to girls' education in the community?
5. How can the barriers to girl-child education in the community be minimized?

## **Significance of the Study**

The study may be of much significance to various stakeholders of education namely parents, teachers, pupils, and faith-based organizations. The rest are non-governmental organizations, development partners, traditional leaders and other government departments who are involved in education delivery in the district. The outcome of the study may specifically be of significance in the following ways.

First, the outcome of the study may enable the community assess the kinds of support offered for girl-child education in the district. Second, it may enable the community and individual groups that provide support to girl-child education to assess their level of support for girl-child education in the district. The community can therefore adopt measures to address any gaps if the support is found to be

inadequate. Again, where it is found to be adequate, it will help the community adopt measures to strengthen the support.

Third, the community can identify areas of collaboration with other stakeholders like Development Partners, Non-Governmental Organizations. The study may therefore create the awareness that girl-child education is important and needed to be supported. Fourth, the study will contribute to knowledge by providing information on support for girl-child education. Fifth, the study may bring out the kind of perceptions held by members of the community on girl-child education. Sixth, the study may identify barriers impacting on girl-child education in the district and measures to adopt to ameliorate the impact.

### **Delimitations**

The study covered support provided only to improve access and participation in schooling of girls at the basic level of education: Kindergarten, Primary and Junior High School. The study also involved those who traditionally offer support to education. These were officials of the district education office (DEO), the district assembly (DA), parent teacher associations (PTAs), school management committees (SMCs), headteachers, teachers, traditional leaders, faith-based organizations (FBOs), non-governmental organizations (NGOs) and development partners (DPs). The study did not cover those who traditionally do not provide support to education because they may not be able to provide useful information to enrich the purpose of the study. Five major thematic areas were considered: the level of support for girl-child education, the kind of community's support for girl-child education, perceptions about girl-child

education, barriers to girl-child education, and measures to adopt to minimize the barriers to girl-child education in the district.

### **Limitations**

Ideally, for a study of this nature it would have been necessary to cover nationwide. But for reasons of finance and time duration the study was limited to Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district in the Central Region of Ghana. The use of multiple research instruments for data collection would have provided enriched information than the sole use of a questionnaire. The study was limited to the study of only the basic level of education. This limited coverage might affect the general picture of support provided to girl-child education associated with total education delivery.

### **Definition of Terms**

**Community Support:** This denotes the material, financial and other assistance that is given in support of girl-child education. For this study, the terms community support and community participation were used interchangeably. Again, the term ‘community’ as used in community support denotes groups that traditionally offer support to education in a given locality. It does not refer to sections or divisions in the district. It, therefore, does not have any geographical connotations.

**Girl-Child Education:** This denotes the education of the girl-child in terms of access and participation in the formal school system at the kindergarten, primary and Junior High School level.

**Gross Enrolment Rate:** This is an indicator which measures the total enrolment in a given educational level (irrespective of age) expressed as a percentage of the corresponding official age for that level. It is the number of enrolment (irrespective of their ages) divided by population (6 -11 year olds).

**Net Enrolment Rate:** This expresses as percentage the enrolment of pupils of the official age for the level of education out of the official age group of the corresponding level the official age or those about it. It is therefore the number of enrolment (6-11 year olds) divided by population (6-11 year olds).

**Gender Parity Index:** This is an indicator used for assessing gender parity in education. It is obtained by dividing girls' enrolment ratio by boys' enrolment ratio, thus an attainment of 1.00 in GPI means the achievement of gender parity.

**Gender Parity Goals:** Achieving equal participation of girls and boys in all forms of education based on their proportion in the relevant age-groups in the population)

**Gender Equality Goals:** Ensuring educational equality between boys and girls.

### **Organization of the Rest of the Study**

The study is organized in five chapters. Chapter One deals with the background to the study, statement of the problem, research questions, its purpose and significance of the study, delimitations, limitations and operational definitions of terms used. Chapter Two reviews the relevant literature on the purpose of the study, whilst Chapter Three looked at the methodology used for the study. Issues discussed under Chapter Three are the research design, population and sample, sampling technique, data gathering instruments and the reasons for their choice,

administration of the instruments and data analysis plan. Chapter Four presents the results of the study and discourse of the results. Chapter Five looks at the summary of the study, the conclusions, recommendations and suggestions for further study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE**

This chapter provides a discourse of views relevant to the study, which is reflection of an assessment o community support for girl-child education in the Abura-Asebu-Kwmankese district of Ghana. The discourse evolved around three major thematic areas. These are:

1. Assessment
2. Community Support for Education
3. Girl-Child Education

#### **Assessment**

The Collins Gem School Dictionary (2003) defined assessment as evaluating or estimating the value of something such as property or income. The Collins English Dictionary (2004) also supported this view but added that the definition involves the process of making judgment or forming an opinion about something or someone carefully. Elliot, Kratochwill, Crook and Travers (2002) aided in clarifying the discussion and stated that assessment is the process of gathering information about a behaviour or role for the purpose of making decisions about them.



## **Programme Assessment**

To assess is to estimate the value or importance of something. Burke (1992) explained that programme assessment is a systematic examination of a completed or an on-going programme with the aim of determining its efficiency, effectiveness, impact, sustainability and developmental value. To him the efficiency aspect looks at whether stated objectives were achieved at the least cost, while the effectiveness of the programme finds out whether stated objectives of the programme were achieved. The impact aspect establishes the distributional effect of the programme on target population or beneficiaries.

## **Purposes of Assessment**

Though there are various purposes of assessment, Overseas Development Agency, ODA (1994) maintained that there are two main purposes. These are:

- a. To assess the outcomes and impacts of programme or projects, and
- b. To compare these with the objectives set originally so that lessons can be learned to enable future programme design and implementation to be improved.

Cracknell (2000) has it that there are two competing objectives in assessment: accountability and lesson learning. The Accountability part looks at the developmental results and impact of development assistance by asking questions to find out about the effectiveness of the programme, while the lesson learning aspect selects successes and failures in a programme, with a view to learning why some actions are successful to ensure that the relevant lessons are learnt. Postlethwaite (2004), like ODA (1995) and Cracknell (2000) also indicated

that there are two main reasons: a) to identify the strengths and weaknesses in the system at a particular point in time; and b) to track changes in the system over time.

Meredith and Mentel (1995) pointed out that the primary purpose of assessment is to help in achieving the programme's goals. For this reason, they argued that it calls for effective strategies to identify problems and improve on on-going programmes so as to guide future ones.

It is important to note that the final purposes and assessment practices in education depends on the theoretical framework of the practitioners and researchers, their assumptions and beliefs and what they hope to achieve. The study aimed at finding out the state of community support in the district.

### **Types of Assessment**

According to Cracknell (2000), many different types of assessment have come into being, representing different stages in a programme life. Among the types are on-going, inter-phase, self and impact assessment.

### **On-going Assessment**

On-going Assessment is carried out during the process of implementing a programme. It operates on the principle that during programme implementation a problem may arise and these may require a fresh look to be taken at the original objectives and the problem that the programme was intended to address. Normally, it requires a fresh view point, and it is, therefore, necessary to call on outsiders to undertake the assessment. On-going assessment can serve a valuable

purpose where there are unavoidable risks attached to the programme. It therefore, provides a thorough review where the risks can be re-assessed.

### **Inter-phase Assessment**

This is done where a programme is split into a series of phases and at each stage assessment is done to ascertain the effectiveness of each phase of the programme. In this case a new phase cannot be financed unless an assessment has been carried out of the preceding phase and the results were satisfactory.

### **Self Assessment**

Another type of evaluation found particularly among NGOs is Self-assessment. Basically, this implies that the operational staff members evaluate their own activities. Self-assessment is generally used to cover effectiveness and efficiency aspects rather than impact for which outside evaluators are more often used.

### **Impact Assessment**

This looks at the distributional effect or changes on beneficiaries. It is carried out some years after programme implementation. Though it is not easy to decide the right period to carry out an impact study, World Bank (1995) recommends about five years. Impact assessment involves officials and direct beneficiaries of the programme and the reports throw a great deal of light on significant socio-economic factors, which are of common concern.

A crucial element of any impact assessment is the effect of the programme on the intended beneficiaries. This is of prime importance because very often,

programmes fail to benefit those for whom they were mainly intended. Though one must also study the indirect impact on an ever-widening circle of people who are not closely linked to it, this might not be possible given the constraints of resources.

### **Impact Indicators**

These are evidence that show that programmes have benefited the intended beneficiaries. The choice of appropriate indicators is normally done by both the beneficiaries and the officials. For the most part, indicators chosen are likely to be qualitative such as the change in the lives of the beneficiaries as a result of the programme and quantitative such as a specified number of achieved quantified targets. However, there are likely to be some general indicators reflecting improvements in the overall living standards of the people; such as changes in cash income, access to potable water supplies, levels of food consumption among others (Cracknell, 2000).

Therefore, in designing good impact indicators, Riddell (1990) asserted that evaluators should be guided by some factors. First, it should be based on whether the programme has been successful in achieving its objectives. Second, is to find out whether the status of the intended beneficiaries has been enhanced following the intervention. Third, he noted that it is important to find out whether the programme has been executed efficiently; that is the costs appropriate to the range, level and distribution of benefits. Fourth, is to ascertain whether the results of the project provide grounds for replication so that the benefits can be spread more widely. Fourth, is to find out the prospects for sustainability.

Though some indicators are difficult to get and quantify, ODA (1995) suggests that some can be quantified through:

- a. The Project Director's Annual Report;
- b. Monitoring team report;
- c. Evaluation study within the project;
- d. Informal knowledge and visits to project site; and
- e. Surveys on the status of project beneficiaries.

### **Criteria for Project Assessment**

In evaluating a project, the areas that need to be looked at include the set objectives, participation, the distributional concern and motivation (ODA, 1995). Objectives are what the project tends to achieve and should therefore be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound. Participation measures the effectiveness of the project in terms of involvement of the different interest groups in the decision making process. In drawing up the criteria, questions posed should consider the interest groups of the various groups involved, the representativeness of the group and each group's level of participation.

### **Rating and Scoring System for NGO Programmes**

According to Cracknell (2000), most aid agencies have developed systems of rating the relative success or failure of completed programmes. These are needed not only for accountability purposes but also for lesson learning. That is, after cross analysis of success of programmes, one can learn something about the

reasons for success or failure. A typical rating system is that of the (ODA, 1995) presented in the Table 2.

**Table 2: Rating and Scoring System for NGO Programmes**

Rating	Project Performance
A+ = Highly successful	Complete achievement of objectives, Targets exceeded, Significant overall benefits in relation to costs.
A = Successful	Most objectives were achieved, Significant overall benefits in relation to costs.
B = Partially successful	Some objectives were achieved, Significant overall benefits in relation to costs.
C = Largely unsuccessful	Very limited achievement of objectives, Few significant benefits in relation to costs.

Source: ODA (1995)

A number of criteria of performance are identified namely, the achievement of objectives, outputs, sustainability, benefits, implementation at least cost, implementation within deadlines. A system of weighted marking is then followed and projects with 70% or more are classified as “satisfactory”, those with 40 – 69% are “partially satisfactory” and those below 40% are classified as “unsatisfactory” (ODA,1994;1995).

## **Methodology of Assessment**

Elliot et al. (2002) asserted that a time efficient way of assessment is by asking questions and rating the number of responses obtained using frequencies and percentages. As a result, structured questionnaires were used to gather data for the study. The responses were converted into frequencies and percentages and ratings for each response were obtained. This strategy by Elliot et al. (2002) confirms ODA (1995) who suggested a weighted marking for assessing projects with 80% or more as “highly satisfactory”, those with while 71% – 79% are classified as satisfactory with 40%– 70% being “partially satisfactory” and those below 40% are classified as “unsatisfactory”. The study therefore adopted the model criteria of assessment suggested by Elliot, et al. (2002) and ODA (1995).

## **The Concept of Community**

The Collins Gem School Dictionary (2003) defined the term “community” to mean all people living in one district or a group with one shared origins interests. Gyekye (1996) added a sociological perspective to the definition and remarked that “a community is a group of persons linked by interpersonal bonds which are not necessarily biological – who share common values, interests and goals” (p.36). He further asserted that members of the community are willing to work towards advancing the interest and lot of the community. Nesbit (1979) confirmed this but included personal intimacy, emotional depth and social cohesion as characteristics of community.

Bray, (1996) in a study on community financing of education, identified

three types of communities. The first is geographic community, which he saw as a place of residence, such as a village or a district. The second is ethnic, social or religious community which he observed as a community based on ethnic, racial or religious identification. He stressed that this type of community cuts across membership based on geographic location. He identified the third type as the type based on educational or family concerns. This, according Bray, includes the PTAs, SMCs and all other groups of persons who traditionally offer support to education. All these people can be referred to as the “educational community”

It can be deduced from the discussion that school community is made up of the political/traditional leadership, the PTA/SMC, Town Development Committee, Assembly members, Non-Governmental Organisations, Faith-Based Organizations and the residents in the area. From the discourse, the study interpreted the concept of community to refer to that group of persons referred to by Bray (1996) who traditionally offer support to education. To this end, the concept community does not have any geographic connotations.

### **Community Support for Education**

This section discusses the issue of community support for education. The discussion covered four thematic areas: the concept of community support, the various groups and the kind of support they provide for education, and the rationale for community support. The last part of the discussion looked at the history of community support for education in Ghana.



## **The Concept of Community Support**

Shaeffer (1994) defined community participation as implying an active role by the community and alluded to the fact that participation could be seen as a key to the inclusion of human resources in development efforts and called for recognition of community initiative and involvement to sustain all school projects. He concluded by observing that participation can be seen as a process, or more as a communicative process towards a common joint action which should result in a commonly shared success. Kitaev (1999) supported this view and opined that community support covers a spectrum of activity, ranging from the basic act of using a service, to a situation where a school is entirely dependent on the finance and management inputs of the community. Kitaev (1999) argued further that between these points lie a vast number of potential forms of support that communities provide to schools. It can therefore be said that community support for education connotes an idea of collaboration with local people or support received from the school's community in planning and implementing tasks that concern them.

### **Kinds of Community Support for Girl-child Education**

A review of the kind of support provided by the community, alongside the agencies that offer support is presented in this part of the discussion. Specifically, the discussion focused on the kinds of support provided by the following agencies: District Education Office, District Assemblies, Headteachers/Teachers, School Management Committee, Parent Teacher Association and TLs. The rest

are Faith-Based Organizations, Non-Governmental Organizations, and Other Government Departments.

### **The School Management Committee (S.M.C.)**

The S.M.C is a committee designated under the Ghana Education Service Act of 1994. It is a school community-based institution of a particular school aimed at strengthening community participation for education delivery. The S.M.C is expected to mobilise the community by embarking on the following:

Ensuring that all children of school-going age have access to school.

Setting performance targets and achieving them.

- 1) Ensuring participation of all stakeholders in school
- 2) Ensuring gender balance in the enrolment and participation of pupils in school.
- 3) Ensuring that we mobilize enough resources for the schools

(MOE, 2001, p. 5).

### **Parent Teacher Association (P.T.A)**

The P.T.A is voluntary association of parents and teachers in a particular school or cluster of schools. It is a non-governmental, non-sectarian, non-partisan and non-commercial entity aimed at establishing good relationship between parents and teachers to ensure a collaborative effort between home and the school to provide quality education for the child (MOE, 2002). Its roles include:

1. Assist in school infrastructure and the repair of infrastructure.

2. See to children and teachers welfare, for example, provision of accommodation, school textbooks
3. See to performance of pupils
4. Visit school regularly to monitor the performance of pupils
5. Help maintain discipline by reporting lateness, truancy and other recalcitrant behaviours to school authorities
6. Cooperate with other organizations and agencies having common interests regarding quality education (MOE, 2001, p. 5).

Offer-Aboagye (2007), in a panel discussion at the 51<sup>st</sup> Session of the UNs Commission on the Status of Women, outlined the roles of stakeholders that support girl-child education in Ghana. In her presentation, she argued that fulfilling the rights of girls to education has implications for governmental institutions in the areas of rights protection, resource allocation, poverty reduction and provision of girl friendly facilities at school. These issues, according to her, also concern Traditional Leaders, Faith-Based Organizations and other non-governmental actors. In the light of these, she identified the stakeholders and their roles.

#### **District Girl-child Education Unit (DGEU)**

The DEO is required to provide staff for the DGEU who is responsible for organizing and coordinating all activities concerned with girl-child education in the district. Again, the DEO provides financial and logistical support and monitor activities of the DGEOs and also provide morale support for their programmes.

Specifically, the unit is task to offer these kinds of support towards girl-child education.

1. Promoting awareness of the importance of girl-child education
2. Linking the GEU with communities
3. Developing awareness of issues relating to girl-child education within the district office
4. Taking actions to raise female enrolment and participation rates in schools within the district
5. Monitoring girls' enrolment, participation and achievement rates

### **Headteachers**

Headteacher provide on the spot supervision in schools, and should therefore create conducive environment for girls. MOE (2001) and Offer-Aboagye(2007) have emphasized that it is important that headteachers and teachers are aware of gender-insensitivity in school and also acknowledge the existence of gender bias in the school system and make concrete attempts to work against the bias through their words and actions. In this wise, they will be contributing towards making the school environment girl-friendly and conducive for full participation and success of girls in all areas of school life in three areas: curriculum supervision, provision of girl friendly sanitary facilities and support for enrolment drive campaigns (MOE, 2001; Offer-Aboagye, 2007). For curriculum supervision, heads are to make sure that the classroom environment is gender sensitive through supervision of lesson notes, classroom instruction and during extracurricular activities. Second, heads are to support advocacy

programmes which aim at providing gender friendly sanitary facilities at school. Third, is the headteacher's role in supporting community sensitization on the importance of girl-child education.

### **District Assemblies (DAs)**

District Assemblies support for girl-child education falls into seven major areas. These are: scholarship for needy girls and other logistics, finance, provision of transportation and other resources to support STME clinics, and provision of office equipment, stationery to DGEOs for monitoring.

### **Faith-Based Organizations (FBOs)**

FBOs, mainly churches and religious organizations, according to Offer-Aboagye (2007), have provided scholarship for needy girls, economic empowerment for women and platforms for advocacy with parents on girl-child education. They have partnered succeeding governments since the colonial era and have released lands for the government to build schools to accommodate the increasing enrolment thereby expanding access to basic education.

### **Other Government Departments (OGDs)**

Offer-Aboagye (2007), has argued that OGDs form an integral part in the support base for girl-child education but admitted that their role has been important in less direct ways. She observed that the attention of OGDs such as the Department of Social Welfare has been in the areas of protecting and safeguarding the rights of girls on issues like rape, forced marriages, child maintenance, child labour and trafficking. She argued further that these

organizations have in the face of limited resources, provided vehicles and logistics for DGEOs for their programmes. Other interventions, particularly economic, had been targeted at women so that they could afford their daughters education.

### **Traditional Leaders (TLs)**

Offei-

Aboagye (2007) noted that the nature of support provided by TLs such as chiefs, and queen mothers exist largely in the form of collaboration especially with assemblymen and women and community based institutions like the PTA and SMC. TLs are, for instance members of SMCs in the various communities for which they belonged. They have also released land for government to build schools. TLs have also in collaboration with district assemblies issued directives to ban young people from late night shows and funeral wakes, in an attempt to protect them. There were instances where TLs have provided DGEOs with platforms like traditional durbars, council meetings and festivals to undertake critical advocacy on modifying traditional practices that affect girls negatively. Chiefs have also set up educational endowment funds which support girl-child education.

### **Development Partners/Non-Governmental Organizations**

Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) and Development Partners (DPs) such as UNICEF, World Food Programme (WFP) and international NGOs/DPs such as Care International, Action AID Ghana and FAWE have provided scholarships for girls to enroll in school, built the capacity of teachers on teacher-pupil relationship, advocacy, in a bid to make school environments girl

friendly. On advocacy, NGOs/DPs strongly lobbied for the adoption and implementation of the re-entry policy in 11 African countries including Ghana. The re-entry policy enables girls who get pregnant or give birth while in school to re-enrol in school after childbirth. Another area the NGOs/DPs have pushed forward is the provision of scholarships for girls. School fees and other school levies pose a threat to girl-child education and many a parent are forced to curtail the education of the girl due to cost of securing books, school uniforms and other basic school needs.

Having also recognized the pivotal role of teachers in perpetuating gender biases and also the potential for teachers to reverse gender inequalities, FAWE has developed the Gender Responsive Pedagogy (GRP) model which trains teachers to make them more conversant with gender based methodologies to teaching. Teachers are also made aware of how gender-based attitudes and stereotyping could potentially discourage girls from performing well or staying in school (MOE, 2001).

### **Rationale for Community Support in Education**

Condy (1998) argued that the principal rationale for involving communities in education in Africa is that governments alone cannot achieve universal primary education on their own. The reason according to him was that the scale and complexity of financing and delivering universal primary education places practical limits on what central governments can achieve single-handedly. It, therefore, requires decentralization of substantial decision-making powers to the local level. Again, Condy (1998) asserted that in Africa, most people live in

dispersed, rural communities, where transport and communication infrastructure are often poor. The isolation of communities, and their diverse needs and priorities, strengthen the case for devolving much of the day-to-day management of schools to the community level. Where this happens, many educational needs can be identified and acted upon more quickly than through physically and functionally remote centralized planning and management structures.

Furthermore, Condy (1998) argued that cultural and historical factors also provide a strong case for involving African communities in education. Formal education systems are unlikely to achieve their objectives without the cooperation and support of the communities they serve. This cooperation and support is especially important in Africa, where community institutions often play a central role in child development, and where the schools are relative latecomers to the educational process. The ambivalence that a community often feels about the school, especially in rural areas and towards girls' education, makes it doubly necessary that there be a close fit between the goals and values of the school and those of the community. Support from the school community is, therefore, imperative. Tembon (1999) stated that the cohesion of African communities offers a second reason for involving them in education development. In common with other predominantly rural, agrarian regions, African societies tend to revolve more around collective social units: the extended family and the community rather than the individual. The lack of extensive state-supported safety nets, has ensured that community-based organizations continue to play a crucial role in the day-to-day lives of most Africans. An African proverb, "one hand cannot tie a bundle,"



encapsulates the centrality of mutual support structures based on kinship and community to the social fabric of the region.

Yet another factor that has strengthened the case for an expanded community role in education, according to Tembon (1999) is the growing status and credibility of non-governmental organizations (NGOs). With substantial financial resources and public profiles, NGOs have played an increasingly important role both as a source of education expertise, policy innovation and finance, and as a service provider. Again, NGOs are more flexible, responsive, and experimental than public agencies, and have often achieved impressive results in the education sector through community-based approaches to development. This has recommended community participation to governments and donors, especially in Africa where conventional government-driven, top-down approaches to education development have generated disappointing results.

### **Historical Basis of Community Support for Education in Ghana**

Antwi (1992) reported that community support for education predated the advent of western formal education in Ghana. It was a prominent feature in the Ghanaian community where the father, mother or the immediate family members and the entire community participated in the upbringing of the child. He stressed that socialization from birth, through adolescence to adulthood till death was a communal responsibility. At birth, one became the child not only of one's biological parents but also the extended family, friends, neighbours and the larger community. As an adolescent, one participated in communal labour, contributed in assisting needy relatives and other persons in the community. As an adult, one

was equally expected to assist whoever needed help. Thus, both the young and the old were groomed to be supportive and imbued with the sense of communalism through the process of socialization. This, to Cunningham and Cordeiro (2000) confirms a much-quoted African proverb which says: “it takes an entire village to raise a child” (p.116). Graham (1976) opined that for this reason, the community took particular interest in the growth, development and welfare of every single member and therefore rallied behind any individual who needed any form of support. Parents and the wider circle of kinsmen considered it sacred just to discharge their obligations regarding the child’s socialization.

Antwi (1992) reported that the colonial administration in 1870 made the first attempt at incorporating local participation in education management by enacting the Education Ordinance. The Ordinance recommended the formation of Local Boards of Education, which emphasized local control and ownership of schools by the various communities. The 1961 education Act also recommended the establishment of the Local Education Authorities (LEAs), for local control and ownership of schools. The Act recommended for implementation specific roles for Local and District Councils (now District, Municipal and Metropolitan Assemblies). Their roles included the provision of furniture, building of classrooms, and assisted in the provision of other educational infrastructure.

Antwi (1992) reported again that the Mills-Odoi Commission and the Kwapong Committee in 1967 recommended the decentralization of management of schools from the ministry to the regional and district authorities and specified the roles of Local Education Authorities (LEAs).

This affirmed earlier proposals that recommended the involvement of the communities in the management and control of schools. The Dzobo Committee of 1974, the Evans Anfom Committee of 1986, the 1987 educational reforms all recognized the crucial role of communities in ensuring the success of the education system and therefore charged the communities to play specific roles. Under the 1987 educational reforms, community support for education gained greater prominence. Communities were actively involved in management and leadership roles, supported the provision of infrastructure and other school facilities, embarked on enrolment drive campaigns and also bore part of the cost of education by paying school levies.

In 1996 the fCUBE policy also emphasized active community involvement in the provision of educational services by reinforcing the national decentralization policy of transferring ownership, management and control of educational services and facilities to local levels (MOE, 1996; MOE, 2001). This led to the formation of local governance structures such as the School Management Committees (SMCs) and the Parent Teacher Associations. which embarked on enrolment drive campaigns, provided furniture, assisted in putting up schools (MOE, 2001). The Education Reform Review Committee (ERRC), in 2002, recommended community support for education, thus re-emphasizing earlier recommendations.

## Perceptions about Female Education

Themes under perceptions about female education looked at the concept of perception, general perceptions about female education and contemporary perceptions about female education.

### The Concept of Perception

According to Shani and Lau (2000), perception is a fascinating subject that is being studied in many facets of life. They stated that politicians, advertisers, among others, always want to know how the public sees their performance. They have argued that when a group of people are exposed to the same sensory stimulation, they perceive the same situation differently. Hetherington and Parke (1998) confirmed this by saying that perception is the person's interpretation of sensory information of sights, sounds, smells, touches and the movements in the world around him or her. In a further illustration, Hetherington and Parke (1998) noted that pupils in a classroom may find a teacher's lesson differently. To this end, Shani and Lau (2000) defined perception as an active process by which the individual screens, selects, organizes and interprets stimuli. Figure 1 captures the key elements of the perceptual process.

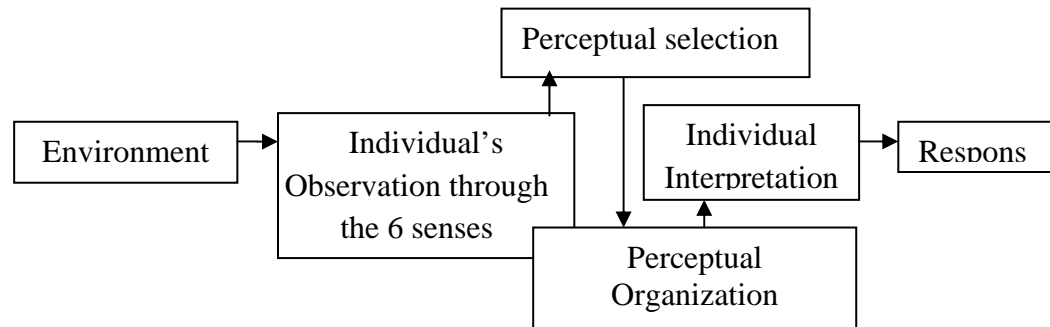


Figure1: **The Perceptual Process: An Overview**

Shani and Lau (2000) said that the way an individual perceives a situation is based on what the individual is experiencing at a given moment which is based on several factors. These include data being received from the five senses (sight, smell, taste, touch and hearing) in the memory system, emotions, feelings, needs, wants and goals. According to the Collins Gem English Dictionary (2005), perception is to become aware of something through the senses. It is therefore the recognition of things using the senses. Davidoff (1987) defines perception as the point where cognition and reality meet and perhaps the most basic cognitive activity out of which all others emerge. Thus information must be taken into the minds before we can do anything else with it. Perception is said to be a complex process that depends on both the surrounding world and the perceiver. Hetherington and Parke (1998) said perception involves both the subjective awareness of events and selective response to stimuli in the immediate environment. They said perception is the person's gaining of information from the surrounding environment. Santrock (1997) said that perception is the brain's process of organizing and interpreting sensory information to give it meaning. He further said perception is organizing and interpreting what is sensed and hearing meaningful patterns in sensory information. Gestalt psychologists, Roser and Nicholson (1984), said perception is subjective. They contended that people perceive environmental stimuli differently and likened perception to a cloudy sky. They opined that the cloudy sky may be perceived differently by two different groups who want to organize a picnic. To them while one group may perceive a cloudy sky as a threat, the other may see the clouds as indications in changes in

the weather. To them, not only do people perceive stimuli differently but the same people may perceive the same stimuli differently at different times.

Gleitman (1995) considered perception as how we come to apprehend the objects and events in the world around us. He said in the field of visual perception, the major issues concern the way in which we see depth, movement and form. Atkinson and Hilgard (1983) saw perception as a process by which people organize and interpret the patterns of stimuli in their environment. It has a mental process emanating from the Gestalt theory of stimuli organization and interpretation. To this end, perception can therefore be said to be an opinion that an individual has about someone or something. The study therefore considered perception at the opinion people have about something or someone.

### **General Perceptions about Female Education**

Graham (1976) noted that education for girls in Ghana had a restricted aim to train girls solely for the home as wives and good mothers. Culture and tradition determined and delineated the roles of the sexes in the traditional set up and therefore played a crucial role in defining the kind of socialization received by each sex under traditional education. Graham (1976) further posited that boys were groomed to assume the role of a father, acquire a vocation and provide for the family. In fact, Graham (1976) reported again that in the period between 1800s and 1850s, education for girls mainly centred on needle work. He said further that the aim was to train wives and mistresses for the resident merchants in the Gold Coast stressing that an advanced school that was opened in 1874, taught needlework, dressmaking, fancywork, crochet, and practical cookery. In both

England and the Gold Coast, marriage seemed to be the main and specific goal to which girls were educated

Oppong (1987) in a study on Ghanaian women recorded field interviews that confirmed this traditional view of marriage and procreation. Citing figures from the Ghana fertility survey of 1983, the authors concluded that about 60 percent of women in the country preferred to have large families of five or more children. The research showed that the largest number of children per woman was found in the rural areas where the traditional concept of family was strongest. Again, uneducated urban women also had large families showing clearly that the security that procreation provided was greater in the case of rural and uneducated women. Conversely, urbanized, educated and employed women had fewer children. On the whole, however, all the interviewed groups saw childbirth as an essential role for women in society, either for the benefits it bestows upon the mother or for the honour it brings to her family. Dolphyne (1991) has also argued that in most rural communities, child bearing is given a high premium while education is seen as a threat to child bearing. Parents put pressure on their daughters to give them children. This reinforces the notion that Ghanaian parents see their girl-child's education as a preparation to serve another family and this is highly resented. According to Mumuni (2000) procreation is implanted in the minds of the females, which cause them to aspire to fulfill this societal expectation of marriage and procreation.

Hunt (1975) stated that resistance to female education also stemmed from the conviction that women would be supported by their husbands.

In an analysis of rural Ghana, Hunt (1975) noted that while coastal women sold fish caught by men, the financial benefits that accrued to these women went into the upkeep of the household, while those of the man were reinvested in an enterprise that was often perceived as belonging to his extended family. This traditional division of wealth placed women in positions subordinate to men. Hunt concluded by saying that the persistence of such values in traditional Ghanaian society may explain some of the resistance to female education in the past.

Ostergaard (1992) corroborated this view with the assertion that social and cultural pressures are put on the woman to use her education not for employment but for marriage market, since society perceives the woman's pride of place, dignity and social standing to be tied to the marriage to her husband. To Ostergaard adult women were seen as passive breeders, under the jurisdiction of their husbands. A woman's place is defined in terms of her relationship to her husband as cultural norms promote men and their status and demote women in status to erect men as masters of the home, village, clan and the nation. This patriarchal supremacy is confirmed by Kuenyehia and Bowman (2003) who maintained that women are regarded as chattels that could be owned by their husbands.

The traditional idea that the man is the bread winner and the wife is dependent on the husband does not encourage parents to send their daughters to school. Neither does it encourage girls to work hard at school. In most cases where girls do perform well at school, they tend to tow a line that aligns with tradition so much so that they forgo their own personal interest and go for what



society expects (Oppong 1987; Greenstreet, 1971; Twumasi, 1986; Chinto, 1986).

Crawford and Unger (2000) reported that women have low expectations for their career options mainly due to gender socialization. They maintained that restrictive gender stereotyped ideas about what kinds of jobs were appropriate for women were formed very early through socialization. Davidson and Kanyaku (1990) observed that throughout most of Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, the heavy burden of rural women may force them to keep their daughters at home to help with care of younger siblings. Time consuming tasks on the farm, household chores such as cleaning, cooking and caring for younger siblings are but few of the tasks that force parents to keep girls at home. Twumasi (1986) linked parents' emphasis on much education with their financial position and suggested that priority is given to male education especially where a family's resources are insufficient to cover all the children's school expenses.

Herz and Sperling (2004) supported Twumasi (1986) by asserting that the poorer the household the greater the tendency for parents to rely on daughters for domestic duties and to save educational investment for their sons. In the same vein, where parental perception on girl-child education in terms of benefit is low, they tend to view girl-child education with contempt. These, coupled with the high cost of enrolling girls in school, combined with the loss of valuable help at home makes it worthless to many poor families to send their daughters to school.

A study on attitudes towards female education revealed that there is correlation between level of parents' education and attitudes towards girls' education. Recent studies have also shown that when parents themselves lack

education, they may be more reluctant to challenge tradition to educate their daughters and they may also fail to appreciate the importance of schooling for female children (UNICEF, 2007).

### **Contemporary Perceptions of Female Education**

Relevant views discussed under this theme were done in two parts. Part one traced the historical antecedents that triggered the change in contemporary perception about female education. The discussion covered efforts by international women's advocacy groups and the United Nations to stem the marginalization of women in the 1970s and 1980s. This was followed by a discourse of major interventions initiated and implemented by Ghana's Ministry of Education and its agency (GES). It also thoroughly looked at the interventions by non-state actors like NGOs/DPs, and development partners. Part two reviewed the views of authors on contemporary perceptions of female education.

Lovenduski (1986) reported that in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, women's group in Europe and America were vital in starting the fight against all forms of discrimination that affected women. He reported that in the 1970s two types of women's groups appeared in Western Europe. They were known as the Women's Rights Groups and Women's Liberation Group. Lovenduski (1986) explained that these women's groups sought to bring about legislative and administrative changes in areas that affected women negatively. They also worked greatly to change norms, values and attitudes towards women, whilst resorting to decision making processes using conventional pressure groups, tactics such as resolutions, lobbies, meetings and so on. Young (1993) reported that

women's issues came to be linked with development for the first time during the 2<sup>nd</sup> United Nations Decade (1970-79). She identified three factors that accounted for this. The first of factors were related to issues on population growth. Women were seen as important players in controlling birth rates. Second, their role in agriculture and food crop production also triggered their recognition. Lastly, the growing strengths of women within the ranks of the UN and other world bodies in championing women's issues and the realization that women needed to be heard on development matters placed them high on the agenda.

Young (1993) noted again that part of the call for recognition came from women themselves who were dissatisfied with their marginalization from positions of power. She opined that the UN came under increasing attack because of its appalling employment ratios. In 1977, women occupied 4.8% (1 woman) of the top levels of geographic posts. In the United States, pressure was mounted on the government to do something for developing countries. Subsequently, in 1973, the US senate adopted the Percy Amendment which added a provision to the Foreign Assistance Act (FAA) to encourage and promote the integration of women into development planning and into policy making bodies.

Young (1993) noted that pressure on the UN, led by the Scandinavian countries resulted in the decision to hold a world conference on women and development in 1975 with the theme Equality, Development and Peace. The Conference adopted the World Plan of Action (WPA) with 14 minimum objectives related to improved educational opportunities for women, better employment prospects, equality in political and social participation and increased

welfare services. More crucially, the conference strongly advocated recognition of women's unpaid work and a re-evaluation of the roles traditionally assigned to men and women. It also recommended the establishment of national machinery to promote women's interests in other organizations. By 1981, the Year Book of international organizations listed 60 international women's NGOs and DPs. At the national level, various governments accelerated the process of setting up machinery to promote women's interests. These machineries were broadly of three types depending on the political and social system in each country.

1. those within the formal apparatus of the legislature or executive, such as women's ministry;
2. those with largely advisory status, either within or outside the formal government structure and;
3. those connected with or within a national political party

Hunt (1975) posited that a woman's sex does not determine intellectual capacity. This contemporary view nullifies the old culture view on women which assumed that there had been few female geniuses because women were inferior intellectually. Stretching further his submissions on contemporary sexist ideological pattern, Hunt (1975) pointed out again that traditionally women have been seen through the Aristotelian glasses as weaker, less sensual, unstable, emotional, ethically and intellectually inferior. But the situation is now different. Women's participation in the world of work have seen tremendous rise in the last quarter of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century.

Jahan (1995) noted that a lot of efforts have been made to increase the

participation of women in decision-making and political life thereby helping to reduce the hitherto negative perceptions about women. She said that variety of affirmative action measures were designed and implemented which improved women's participation in decision-making bodies and increased their access to development opportunities. These included quotas and targets in personnel policies, quotas in representative institutions and quotas in various development programmes: training scholarships, credit and so on. She stressed further that measures to remove discriminatory barriers against women's equality were also rigorously pursued by countries. These included legal reforms to give women equal rights in personal, civic and political affairs, laws to combat violence against women, access to institutions and jobs barred to women.

On the state of women's voices on local, national and international fora, she maintained that women's voices are increasingly being heard on a number of issues and have emerged as champions not only for the cause of women but on issues such as the environment, human rights, democracy, peoples' participation and so on. This, according to Jahan (1995), has given women a voice evidenced by change in perceptions about women due to change in knowledge and awareness about women. According to her the following can be said of women across the world.

1. institutions can no longer afford to dismiss gender issues as irrelevant;
2. awareness of officials serving national governments and international agencies has increased;

3. women are no longer portrayed simply as beneficiaries of social policies and programmes but as part of the decision;
4. women's rights and abilities to make and take control of their lives are increasingly being accepted and their victim image is being discarded;
5. women are no longer projected as part of the problem but as part of the solution; their knowledge and perspectives in attaining the objectives is gaining recognition; and
6. discriminatory practices which used to be regarded as natural or in the private domain, like sexual harassment and domestic violence have attained public policy attention.

In a study conducted on Gender Gap in Access to Education in Nigeria, Okojie, Chiegwe and Okpokunn (1996) reported that cultural attitudes regarding education of girls and their role in society are changing and that today's parents struggle to educate all their children. They maintained that contemporary parents in both the rural and urban areas are anxious to train both boys and girls because they see education as a means of improving lives and also a strategy for avoiding economic suffering. It also contributes to their welfare and social mobility. The place of the woman, according to today's parents is not only restricted to the home. As a result, Crawford & Unger (2000) stated that gender linked perceptions about jobs are decreasing and can be reduced by educational programmes. This, according to Crawford & Unger (2000) was good news.

The over-riding paradigm shift, according to Jahan (1995) is that more and more girls grow up expecting that they can still work, pursue a higher

education, have children and still maintain a family. Jahan(1995) noted further that the scope for girls to determine the type of life to lead in adulthood has been vastly broadened in comparison to conditions that existed generations ago. Their perceived role as home keepers and baby producers is gradually fading with growing evidence suggesting that a career was acceptable for a woman, marry and have family. Educated women today who want to remain in full control and direction of their lives are now able to have a home, a circle of friends, sexual life without marriage. In Ghana the Labour Act of 2003 provides maternity leave for women and also ensures equal pay for equal work done for both men and women(WiLDAF Ghana, 2006).

### **Barriers to Girls' Education**

UNICEF (2007) stated that girls face several impediments in their attempt to access schooling. These impediments, according to the report though pervasive, differ in degree and form across the regions of the world. The impediments are: parental poverty, cost of schooling, early marriage, sexual harassment and violence against girls. The rest are overburdened household responsibilities, long distances to school, unfriendly school environment, teenage pregnancy, and level of parental education.

### **Parental Poverty**

Twumasi (1986) posited that when a family's finances are at a low ebb, it is the young girl's educational investment is curtailed. Okojie, Chiegwe and Okpokunn (1996) confirmed Twumasi (1986) and stated that girls suffer two patterns of discrimination. First, when both a boy and a girl are bright and are

competing for scarce resources, the girl is withdrawn in favour of the boy. Second, is the discrimination based on performance irrespective of sex of the child. Abagi, Wamahiu and Owino (1997) also maintained that the most influential constraint to girls' education is economic. When parents are faced with harsh economic situations and have to struggle to find the money for school fees, uniforms and books, they are forced to discriminate between whom to educate. Girls are the ones most likely to miss out since they are often required to stay at home to help earn money or look after younger siblings.

### **Distance to School**

Herzand Sperling (2004) opined that when schools are located at a distance parents believe is too far for girls to travel safely they tend to deter girls from attending school. The farther girls have to walk or travel, the greater their parents' and their own concerns for actual safety. This happens especially where there is the particular concern about sexual harassment, fear of infection through abuse or exploitation on the way to school. She indicated that research in different parts of the world such as Ghana, India, Malaysia, Peru, and Pakistan shows distance matters for all children, and often especially for girls.

### **Unfriendly School Environment**

When school facilities are designed in ways that girls find unacceptable they find it difficult to stay in school. For instance, when schools lack separate toilets for boys and girls, girls may doubt that their privacy and safety especially at certain times of the months where they experience their menses. A separate place



of convenience is very important. Girls are also deprived of education when the school environment is hostile to them when they fear violence and intimidation in the classroom by male teachers and pupils (Herz and Sperling, 2004).

UNICEF (2007) noted that teaching methods and styles present fundamental barriers to effective learning. Teachers' low expectations inhibit girls' confidence levels and potential to succeed academically. In a research which analysed co-educational classrooms in many countries across the world, it was revealed that there was systematic bias by teachers against girls. Girls receive less attention in class, and their interactions with the teacher are less positive than those of boys. Girls are often harassed and teased by teachers and male students.

Lloyd, Mensch and Clark (1998), UNICEF (2002) argued that teacher attitudes and expectations can have greater influence on girl-child educational outcomes. If teachers think Mathematics is important for girls and if they feel they receive equal treatment in the classroom, substantially affects girls' probability of staying in school. Moreover, if teachers think girls are less able, girls tend to underperform, while boys are less affected by teachers' views.

### **Early Marriage**

Ojo (1986) has argued that the issue of early marriage at or shortly after puberty is widespread in Ghana and Nigeria and other parts of Africa. In Africa, for instance, 42 per cent were married before turning 18 (UNICEF, 2005). This forces girls to abandon their educational careers. In Kebbi State of northern Nigeria, the average age of marriage for girls is just over 11 years, compared to a national average of 17 (UNICEF, 2005). UNICEF (2007) indicated that girls are given

forcefully out in marriage at an age below 18 years. In all cases girls do not have the will to resist this form of oppression, emphasizing patriarchal control over the decisions that affect young women in African societies. This early betrothal and marriage presents fathers in patrilineal societies the opportunity to secure a higher bride and also an additional means to accumulate wealth (UNICEF, 2005; Young, 1993).

### **Household Responsibilities**

For many parents in Africa the perceived and real returns of girls' work at home exceed that of sending the child to school. For this reason parents do not see the need to send their children to school but instead prefer them to stay at home and assist in household chores. Herz and Sperling (2004) reported that domestic chores were an obstacle to girls' studies in school. They observed that in Africa in general 72.8% of boys compared to 37.5% of girls do not participate in cooking at home. They noted further that a national survey held in Cote d'ivoire showed that women undertake 67% of all the work done by the combined male and female population over the age of 10. A girl of 10 to 14 years works as much as a man of 25 to 30, and works a third longer than a man the same age. In Burkina Fasso, a time allocation study covering the 1<sup>st</sup> 14 working hours of the day showed that women performed 97% of household tasks, 23% of community obligations and 64% of production, distribution and supply tasks. For these reasons Young (1993) noted that women particularly in rural Africa were not under employed but overworked.

## **Cost of Education**

Herz and Sperling (2004) drawing an analogy from basic economics posited that when the cost of schooling increases for parents, holding quality constant, the amount of education they demand for their children falls. Extensive evidence from many countries show that the poorer the parents the sharper the trade-off. They argued that where son preference is strong, the trade-off tends to be sharper for girls. The actual costs of schooling may also be higher for girls than boys. In Tanzania, for instance, parents spend up to 14 percent more to educate a girl, and in Guinea 11 percent. In Uganda and Zambia, according to a cross-country study, spending on girls at the primary level is greater than for boys.

Still on the cost side, UNESCO (1982) stated that there are four costs to parents for educating girls. These are direct fees, indirect fees, indirect cost and opportunity cost of having girls in school. Studies show these fees can amount to 5 to 10 percent of household income and 20 to 30 percent for poorer families. The report further stated that the fees may be similar for girls or boys, but parents may be less willing to pay them for girls. In addition to direct payments for schooling, there are often indirect fees such as to parent-teacher association levies, which include such things as paying for escorts for girls to get to school, supplementing teacher salaries, or finding secure housing for female teachers to stay in rural communities to teach girls (UNESCO, 1982). These costs may be greater for girls than for boys because families may incur greater clothing expenses for girls to ensure modesty or meet cultural requirements.

Another aspect of cost of education relates to opportunity cost of

educating girls, chore time and contribution to family Income. UNICEF (2002) indicated that in Africa and Asia, daughters are traditionally expected to do more chores at home than are sons such as fetching wood and water or watching siblings, often for several hours daily. As they are expected to do more, the opportunity cost of educating them seems higher and so they are kept at home. In some countries, families even rely more on daughters than sons for child wages. In many cases, when a choice has to be made between schooling for girls and demand for her services at home or in an income generating venture, the girls' education is sacrificed (UNICEF, 2002).

### **Measures To Reduce Barriers to Girl-Child Education**

Herz and Sperling (2004) opined that despite the apparent slow progress in girls' education, it is a problem with a known cure. Research shows that if the cost of education can be kept low and if the quality of education is reasonable, most parents will educate daughters at least at a basic level, even where cultural barriers seem strong. Herz and Sperling (2004) maintained that what is needed is a package of policies and programs in four areas:

1. Make girls' schooling more affordable by eliminating fees and offering scholarships;
2. Provide safe schools nearby;
3. Make schools more girl-friendly by ensuring that schools protect girls' privacy and safety, meet cultural requirements, and actually encourage girls to learn and to look beyond gender stereotypes; and

4. Provide decent quality education, with enough trained teachers, updated curriculum that equips girls to cope in the modern world and that parents and girls themselves believe will be useful.

### **Reduce Direct Costs and Cut School Fees**

Abagi, Wamahi and Owino (1997), studying household factors that determine school participation in Kenya concluded that today, economic factors, more than cultural reasons determine which child will continue education. The policy implication is that any strategy for enhancing the education of girls must involve some kind of financial relief. Herz and Sperling (2004), citing examples in Malawi, Tanzania, and Uganda, among other countries, maintained that dramatic increases in enrolment, especially among girls, soon followed reduction or elimination of school fees. This experience suggests that substantial fees had indeed put poorer children and especially girls at a disadvantage. In Uganda, when free schooling was introduced in 1997, primary school enrolment immediately increased from 3.4 million to 5.7 million children, and increased to 6.5 million by 1999. Total girls' enrolments went from 63 percent to 83 percent, while enrolment among the poorest of girls went from 46 percent to 82 percent.

Adamu-Issah, Elden, Forson, and Schrofer (2007) reported the decision to replace school fees with capitation grant has had a positive impact on many enrolment-related figures during the 2005/06 school year: First, primary school gross enrolment rose by nearly 10 per cent, bringing total primary enrolment to 92.4 per cent nationwide. Second, Primary Net enrolment increased from 62 percent to 69 per cent. Third, every region in the country

experienced a rise in enrolment, especially in the Northern Region, where enrolment rates were lowest, experienced the largest increase. Fourth, enrolment of girls increased slightly more than that of boys: 18.1% and 15.3% respectively.

### **Early Childhood Development Centres**

UNICEF (2007) argued strongly that Early Childhood Development Centres (ECDs) also assist in freeing older siblings, especially girls, to go to school instead of looking after younger children. The report indicated that older girls are often prevented from attending school in order to care for their younger siblings. This practice is widespread in Ghana and other African countries. As effort to curb this practice, the Government of Ghana in 2004 approved a National Early Childhood Development (ECD) policy, in addition to incorporating two into the mainstream of basic education (UNICEF, 2007).

### **Building Schools Close to Girls' Homes Boosts Enrolments**

Distance to school is a major determinant in Ghana and Africa in general. Herz, and Sperling, (2004) noted that distance matters for all children, but it seems to matter particularly for girls. Parents are particularly concerned about girls' safety because of fear of sexual harassment. A nine country study done in Africa found that school-aged children are 10 to 20 percentage points more likely to attend school if they live in a village with a primary school. It has also been observed that schools close to home increases parental involvement in school activities and attract more students, especially girls.

## **Girl-Friendly School Environments**

UNICEF (2007) indicated that closely linked to having a school near girls' home is the issue of girl friendly school environment. To have a basic school nearby is an important first step, but it is not sufficient to keep them there. Research has identified additional basic measures important for increasing girls' enrolment for both practical and cultural reasons. First, girls need separate urinal and toilet facilities at school. As girls get older, having private toilet facilities in schools is critical. Experiences in 30 African countries has shown that lack of separate toilet facilities deter girls from attending school during menses because they had no adequate way to take care of personal hygiene. To avoid this problem, girls need access to toilet facilities that are separate from those for boys and not too crowded. Such efforts are critical for increasing enrolments, and achieving gender parity (FAWE, 1998; Herz and Sperling, 2004; World Bank, 1995).

Teacher attitude and expectations for girls greatly influence girls' outcomes. If teachers think girls are less able, girls tend to underperform. The result is that girls are often portrayed only in highly restricted roles, and are given less chance to participate and learn (Lloyd, Mensch, and Clark, 1998; UNICEF, 2002).

## **Discourage Gender Stereotyping**

Herz and Sperling (2004) opined that discouraging gender stereotyping is one way of encouraging more girls to enrol and stay in school. To them, changing gender stereotyping in textbooks can be expensive, but it is certainly important that it happens. Studies find that the school curriculum and other writing

materials portray women as passive. A study of a country's curriculum in Africa found that 90 percent of the people discussed or illustrated in textbooks were male. Another study also found that while males mentioned were often described as leaders, fighters, or soldiers, girls were most often described as breast-feeders, pretty, or pregnant. To curb this practice, Herz and Sperling (2004) argued that countries are using gender sensitivity training for teachers and educational administrators. In Africa in particular, countries including Ghana, Angola, and Benin, have tried such teacher training. Effective approaches include encouraging respect for girls and boys and encouraging girls to study subjects such as Mathematics and Science, expressing similar expectations for boys and girls in learning performance, and suggesting non-traditional occupations for girls.

### **Engage Men and Civic Groups with Shared Interests As Advocates for Girls' Education**

Herz, and Sperling (2004) stated that it takes men and women to raise a child. In this wise, they believe that the fight to get girls in school must be a collaborative efforts from women and men and other civic groups that have interest in girls' education. Herz and Sperling (2004) have opined that in homes around the world, women's commitment to support their daughters' education has been critical, but fathers have also played significant and decisive roles. Fathers often have the final word in sending their daughters to school or delaying their daughters' marriages. And since violence and the threat of violence is one of the most significant obstacles to girls' safe arrival at school and to their safety while learning, it is essential that the men in every community agree on and enforce



social norms that condemn violence and sexual exploitation of girls.

Epstein (1992), writing on *Fostering School, Family and Community Partnerships*, created a typology of parents' involvement in education delivery. These include: Parents as providers of the child's basic needs, communication between the school and the home and parents as volunteers at school. The rest are parents as instructors in the home, parents' involvement in school governance and parents working in collaboration with the entire community.

### **Summary of Literature Review**

Community support for education involves receiving monetary and non-monetary support in the form of advocacy, collaboration, financial, infrastructure and academic. The groups that provide support for girl-child education are the DEO, DA, SMC/PTA, Headteachers/Teachers. The rest are TLs, FBOs, NGOs/DPs/DPs and OGDs. Community support for education is not without basis. Four major issues have been established as basis for its practice. These are: Limit of State Effectiveness, Ownership and Demand, Democratization and Accountability, and Efficiency. Community support for education is not a novel practice in Ghana. Its basis is rooted in Ghanaian history.

Negative perceptions about girl-child education have de-emphasized the relevance of girl-child education and have contributed to widening the boy-girl disparity in basic education. Aside these negative perceptions, barriers such as parental poverty, cost of schooling, and early marriage, overburdened household responsibilities, unfriendly school environment, teenage pregnancy, and level of parental education among others were also identified. These barriers,

according to the literature reviewed have a known cure. It involves among others, making schools more girl-friendly, building schools close to girls' homes, early childhood development centres, reducing direct costs and cutting school fees increase girls' enrolment. The review indicated that though there are negative perceptions about girls' education especially in the rural areas, there has been a paradigm shift in perceptions about female education in recent times. Largely, contemporary parents in both rural and urban areas are now anxious to educate both boys and girls due to the benefits attached to it.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter deals with the research design, the population, sample and sampling techniques used for the study. The description of research instruments used, pre-testing of the research instrument, data collection procedures and data analysis plan have all been described.

#### **Research Design**

Research design is a plan or blue print which specifies how data relating to a given problem should be collected and analysed. According to Polit and Hugler (1995), the research design principally aims at describing, observing and documenting naturally the aspect of the situation as they occur but not just explaining them. This actually informed the choice of the descriptive survey as it was deemed the most appropriate method to gather information, to answer the research questions posed. Cohen and Manion (1989) also see a survey, typically as gathering data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of the existing condition.

The choice of the descriptive survey design was based on the advantages that it offers. First, Osuala (1991) believes that it identifies present conditions and point to present needs. Second, it also appeals largely to policy makers in the

social sciences where large populations are dealt with and widely used because it represents field conditions. Despite these advantages, Seifert and Honung (1991) asserted that it has its limitations. First, there is the difficulty of having to ensure that the statements are clear and devoid of ambiguity, and can actually elicit the exact responses being sought for. Second, the report may yield unreliable results because some questions posed may probe into private issues that people may not be truthful about. Despite these limitations, it was considered the most appropriate design to use because it helped the study to draw meaningful conclusions from the data obtained. It also gives a clear meaning of events and aims at explaining peoples' perception and behaviour based on the data gathered at a point in time.

### **Population for the Study**

The target population comprised adult members of the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district, while the accessible population for the study comprised Parent Teacher Associations, School Management Committees (SMCs), Staff at District Education Office, Headteachers, Teachers, Heads of Non-Governmental Organizations, and Development Partners. The rest were officials of the District Assembly Members, Traditional Leaders, Heads of other Government Departments of the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District. These groups of persons were considered because they were the groups of persons who traditionally offer support to education. The word community therefore did not denote sections, divisions or geographical locations of towns in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district.

## **Sample and Sampling Techniques**

The study used both the probability and non-probability sampling techniques to get the sample for the study. These were the purposive and the simple random sampling techniques. The purposive sampling, which is a non-probability sampling technique, offered the chance for the study to look for identified audiences, who, by virtue of their characteristics were privy to vital information of relevance or whose expertise or experiences were related to the purpose of the study (Sarantakos, 1997) which is an assessment community support for girl-child education. In determining the sample size for the study, I consulted the projected population for the study area, which showed that the target population was about 7500. The sample size determination table gave 364 as the sample size for the study (Key, 1997; Sarantakos, 1997).

The purposive sampling method was used to select teaching staff of the District Education Office, officers from other Government Departments, Traditional Leaders, and Non-Governmental Organizations. The rest of the respondents comprising headteachers and teachers of basic schools, PTA and SMC executives were randomly drawn from the six educational circuits in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District. In selecting the samples, one third of the population from each of the six educational circuits were randomly selected using the lottery method. In all, 26 schools were randomly selected from all the six education circuits in the district. From these 26 schools, five SMC executives and five PTA executives each were also randomly selected from each of the 26 schools. Again,

the 26 Headteachers and 26 teachers who were executive members of the SMC from each of the schools were also purposively selected.

Table 3 shows the distribution of respondents for the various community groups for the study.

**Table 3: Distribution of Respondents for the Study**

Respondents	No. Of Respondents
District Education Office	17
Other Government Departments	10
Basic School SMC/PTA Executives	252
Basic School Headteachers/ Teachers	52
District Assembly	8
TLs	8
Faith Based Organizations	10
NGOs/DPs	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>364</b>

### **Data Collection Instrument**

The questionnaire was the data gathering instrument used for the study. The questionnaire was used because it offered a very effective means of obtaining information from a relatively large population within a relatively short period of time (Bell, 1999). The questionnaire was adapted from Mensah (2001) who did a study on community support for girl-child school attendance in the Winneba District in the Central Region of Ghana. The questionnaire consisted mainly of

Likert scale type questions and some closed ended questions. The questionnaires were grouped under five major sections according to the research questions. The first group comprised questions on personal data of the respondents, the second section comprised questions on the kinds of support by the community, while the third section had questions elicited responses on the perceptions of community members on girl-child education. The fourth and fifth sections covered issues on barriers to girl's education and ways of ameliorating the barriers to girl-child education.

### **Pilot-Testing of Instrument**

A pilot-test was conducted to establish the reliability of the instrument for the study. The pilot-test enabled me to correct distortions and ambiguities in the wording of the instrument. It also helped me to ascertain the length of time used by respondents to respond to the instrument. Again, the test enabled me to find out whether the instructions accompanying the items were explicit and could, therefore, guide the respondents to respond to the items in the instrument as accurately as possible. These concerns corroborate Bell (1999) who stressed that all data gathering instruments should be piloted to test how long it takes recipients to complete them and also to check that all questions which do not yield any usable data are removed.

The Assin-South district, also in the central region of Ghana was chosen for the pilot-testing because it shared similar characteristics with the main study area. These two communities are deprived districts and by GES criteria are educationally underserved and are predominantly rural with farming as the major

occupation. This confirms Bell (1999) who has argued that ideally, the data gathering instrument should be tried out on a group similar to the one that will form the population of the study. After the test the responses were analysed using the Statistical Product for Service Solution to determine the reliability co-efficient for the questionnaire. The pilot-test yielded a reliability coefficient for each of the sections. For section A the reliability coefficient was 0.678, while sections B and C were 0.864 and 0.642 respectively. Sections D and E also yielded coefficients of 0.733 and 0.76 respectively. These reliability coefficients corroborate Klime (1999) who noted that although the generally accepted value of 0.8 is appropriate for cognitive tests such as intelligence tests, for ability tests a cut-off point of 0.7 is more suitable. He argued further that when dealing with psychological constructs, values below even 0.7 can, realistically be expected because of the diversity of the constructs being measured.

### **Data Collection Procedure**

I followed due process to collect the data needed for the study. I acquired an introductory letter from the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration of the University of Cape Coast. This letter helped me seek permission to administer the instruments at the various institutions in the district. The instrument was administered to eight categories of respondents made up of headteachers, teachers PTA/SMC executives, selected officials of DEO, DA, NGOs/DPs, TLs and representatives of OGDs. The questionnaires were self-administered with the assistance of one circuit supervisor who was also a native of the area. The questionnaires were sent to the respondents and the purpose of



the study was explained to them. Series of follow-up visits were made to the respondents to ensure early completion and retrieval of the questionnaires. In all, the data collection exercise took three months.

### **Data Analysis Plan**

The questionnaires were grouped according to the categories of respondents. Questionnaires for each category of respondents were numbered serially to ensure easy coding. The questionnaires were checked for blank options and out of range responses. The coded responses were fed into the computer using the Statistical Product for Service Solution (SPSS) for Windows which is capable of analysing data fed into it. Since the items on the questionnaires followed the same pattern the analyses were done together and a summary for category of respondents were obtained and translated into tables using descriptive statistics. Specifically, the study made use of frequencies and percentages. Data was analysed according to the research questions. The response with highest frequency was considered the majority view of respondents. Thus, a rating ranging between 70% and 100% on each of the scale was considered as the view of majority of respondents.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### **Overview**

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the study. The presentation of this chapter was in two parts. The first part comprised a general summary of the study and the analysis of biographical characteristics of respondents, while the second part looked at the analyses of results of the study for each research question, followed by a summary of the results. The discussion of results for the study is done after the presentation of summary of results for each research question.

Descriptive statistics was used to analyse the data involving frequencies and percentages. The data collected were mostly nominal and ordinal. The total number of respondents to the instruments designed for the study was 365. Table 4 indicates the response rates for all categories of respondents. In the analysis, the majority view of each group of respondents on each of the rating scale was considered. The majority views indicated for each of the rating scales for each of the groups were matched against the rating scale suggested by ODA (1995), which classified a rating ranging between 70% and 100% as satisfactory, 40% - 69% as partially satisfactory and 0% - 39% unsatisfactory.

**Table 4: Distribution of Response Rates by Categories of Respondents**

Respondents	Number of Questionnaires	Number Returned	%
DEO	17	17	100
DA	8	8	100
Headteachers/teachers	52	47	90.4
SMC/PTA	253	245	97.2
FBOs	10	10	100
TLs	8	8	100
NGOs/DPs	7	7	100
OGDs.	10	10	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>365</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>96.7</b>

Table 4 indicates that there was generally a high response rate for all categories of respondents. Out of 364 questionnaires sent out 352 were returned, giving an overall response rate of 96.7%. This means that enough information were collected to enhance the study. Table 5 shows the distribution of respondents by sex.

**Table 5: Distribution of Respondents by Sex**

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	227	64.5
Female	125	35.5
Total	352	100

Table 5 indicates that more males than females were covered in the survey. This was due to chance because more males than females wererepresented

in the population. Thirty five percent females give a relatively fair representation of both sexes to respond to the instruments so that a relatively balanced view from both sexes on the topic was provided to enrich the study.

Table 6 indicates the distribution of respondents' number of children.

**Table 6: Number of Children of Respondents**

Category of Respondents	None		One		Two		Three		Four+		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
DEO	8	47	1	6	1	5.9	3	18	4	24	17	100
DA	0	0	3	38	3	38	1	13	1	13	8	100
headtrs/trs	12	26	12	26	2	4.3	12	26	9	19	47	100
PTA/SMC	11	5	19	8	52	21	71	29	92	38	245	100
FBOs	1	10	1	10	1	10	2	20	5	50	10	100
TLs	0	0	2	25	3	38	0	0	3	38	8	100
NGOs/DPs	0	0	2	29	1	14	2	29	2	29	7	100
OGDs	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	40	6	60	10	100
Total	32	9	40	11	63	18	95	27	122	35	352	100

Key f: frequency, %: percentage

Table 6 indicates that majority of respondents had children. Out of 352 respondents, 320 (90.9%) had children. This was crucial because majority respondents were parents and could therefore give the needed information on the purpose of the study.

Table 7 gives a summary of respondents' number of children in basic school.

**Table 7: Number of Respondents' Children in Basic School**

Category of Respondents	None		One		Two		Three		Four+		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
DEO	6	67	0	0	0	0	1	11	2	22	9	100
DA	0	0	4	50	3	38	1	13	0	0	8	100
Headtrs/Trs	12	34	6	17	0	0	5	14	12	34	35	100
PTA/SMC	18	8	31	13	68	29	59	25	58	25	234	100
FBOs	1	10	0	0	5	50	4	40	0	0	10	100
TLs	1	13	1	13	2	25	2	25	2	25	8	100
NGOs/DPs	0	0	1	14	1	14	4	57	1	14	7	100
OGDs	0	0	2	20	4	40	1	10	3	30	10	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>45</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>82</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>320</b>	<b>100</b>

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 7 shows the distribution of respondents' children/wards in school. For the 320 respondents, who had children, 282 (88.1%) had children in basic school. Respondents were therefore better placed to provide the needed information on the purpose of the study.

Table 8 summarizes the number of years of experience of respondents in their various fields.

**Table 8: Years of Experience of Respondents on Positions Held**

Category of Respondents	1 - 4 Years		5 - 10 Years		11 - 15 Years		16 - 20 Years		21+ Years		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
	DEO	1	5.9	1	5.9	3	18	7	41	5	29	17
DA	1	13	3	38	3	38	1	13	0	0	8	100
Headtrs/trs	2	4.3	15	32	15	32	10	21	5	11	47	100
PTA/SMC	112	46	123	50	10	4.1	0	0	0	0	245	100
FBOs	1	10	5	50	2	20	1	10	1	10	10	100
TLs	1	13	1	13	3	38	3	38	0	0	8	100
NGOs/DPs	2	29	3	43	1	14	1	14	0	0	7	100
OGDs	2	20	5	50	2	20	1	10	0	0	10	100
Total	122	35	156	44	39	11	24	6.8	11	3.1	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 8 indicates that 230(65.0%) respondents had had at least 5 years' working experience in the positions they were occupying in their various organizations. One could safely conclude that a relatively large portion of respondents could provide the needed information on the purpose of the study.

### **Research Question 1: What is the Level of Support Provided by the Community for Girl-Child Education?**

This research question sought to find out the level of support provided by the community for girl-child education in the district. To achieve this, two questions were posed. The first question required respondents to rate the overall level of support provided by the community for girl-child education on a three

point Likert scale using high, moderate, and low. The second question probed the level of support provided by each of the groups representing various stakeholders of education in the district and who also represented the broad spectrum of sections of the community. The rationale for asking this question was to ascertain the extent of support provided by each of the groups for girl-child education relative to the other groups.

Respondents rated the level of community support on a three point scale using high, moderate and low. In the analysis, the following rating scale suggested by ODA (1995) was adopted: a rating ranging between 70% and 100% was considered as satisfactory, 40% - 69% (partially satisfactory) while 0% - 39% (unsatisfactory). Again, the majority view of each group of respondents on each of the rating scale was considered. Table 8 summarizes the views of respondents on the level of community support for girl-child education in the district.

**Table 9: Level of Community Support for Girl-Child Education**

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
DEO	3	17.6	1	5.9	13	76.5	17	100
DA	2	25	1	12.5	5	62.5	8	100
Headteachers/teachers	3	6.4	12	25.5	32	68.1	47	100
SMC/PTA	53	21.6	17	6.9	175	71.4	245	100
FBOs	2	20	2	20	6	60	10	100
TLs	0	0	2	25	6	75	8	100
NGOs/DPs	1	14.3	1	14.3	5	71.4	7	100
Other Gov Depts.	2	0	1	10	9	90	10	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>18.8</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>251</b>	<b>71.3</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>100</b>

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 9 indicates that five groups namely DEO, SMC/PTA, TLs, NGOs/DPs and OGDs rated the community's level of support as low. On the whole 251 (71.03%) respondents held the view that support provided by the community to girl-child education was low. This gives an indication that the community's support was not all that encouraging. This level of rating corresponds to ODA (1995) which categorized a rating of 0-39% as unsatisfactory.

Table 10 indicates the DEO's assessment of its support relative to other groups in the district.

**Table 10: DEO's Assessment of Its Level of Support to Girl-Child Education Relative to Other Groups**

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
DEO	12	70.6	1	5.8	4	23.4	17	100
DA	10	58.8	2	11.8	5	29.4	17	100
Headteachers/teachers	12	70.6	2	11.8	3	17.6	17	100
SMC/PTA	12	70.5	2	11.8	3	17.6	17	100
TLs	2	11.6	2	11.8	13	76.4	17	100
FBOs	1	5.9	2	11.8	14	82.4	17	100
NGOs/DPs	5	29.4	10	58.8	2	11.6	17	100
OGDs	4	23.6	1	5.8	12	70.7	17	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage



Table 10 indicates the results of DEOs assessment of its level of support to girl-child education relative to other groups. The DEO indicated that its support was high as shown by 12 (70.6) respondents. Headteachers/teachers 12 (70.6%) and SMC/PTA were also rated high, while TLs, FBOs and OGDs were rated low. It is clear that the rating of majority of DEO, Headteachers/teachers and SMC/PTA could be considered as high while DAs' rating could be classified as partially satisfactory according to ODA (1995).

Table 11 shows the D/A's assessment of its support relative to other groups in the district.

**Table 11: D/A's Assessment of Its Level of Support to Girl-Child Education Relative to Other Groups**

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
DEO	8	100	0	0	0	0	8	100
DA	7	87.5	1	12.5	0	0	8	100
Headteachers/teachers	8	100	0	0	0	0	8	100
SMC/PTA	4	50	4	50	0	0	8	100
TLs	0	0	0	0	8	100	8	100
FBOs	1	12.5	0	0	7	87.5	8	100
NGOs/DPs	0	0	0	0	8	100	8	100
OGDs	0	0	0	0	8	100	8	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 11 shows an assessment of DAs level of Support to girl-child education relative to other groups. All respondents (8) representing 100% from the district assembly believed that the DEO and Headteachers/teachers were offering a high support for girl-child education. Majority of respondents (7) at the District Assembly representing 87.5% believed that its support was high. TLs, NGOs/DPs/FBOs and OGDs were rated to be offering low support to girl-child education in the district. There was a divided opinion on the support offered by the SMC/PTA as 50% of respondents believed that its support was high, while another 50% held the view that its support was moderate. The views of DEO, DA and Headteachers/teachers corroborate that of ODA (1995) which stipulated that a rating between 70% and 100% is deemed to be satisfactory.

Table 12 indicates the Headteachers/Teachers assessment of its level of support relative to other groups in the district.

**Table 12: Headteachers/Teachers' Assessment of Its Level of Support to Girl-Child Education Relative to Other Groups**

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
DEO	36	76.5	1	2.13	10	21.3	47	100
DA	22	46.8	8	17.0	17	36.2	47	100
Headteachers/teachers	32	68.0	5	10.6	10	21.2	47	100
SMC/PTA	8	17.0	12	25.5	27	57.5	47	100
TLs	4	8.5	0	0.0	43	91.5	47	100
NGOs/DPs	0	0.0	5	10.6	42	89.4	47	100

Table 12 continued

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
FBOs	3	6.4	12	25.5	32	68.1	47	100
OGDs	1	2.1	6	12.8	40	85.1	47	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

From Table 12,32 (68.0%) Headteachers/teachers rated the district education directorate as offering a high support for girl-child education in the district. The majority views of Headteachers/teachers indicate that TLs', DPs/NGOs, FBOs and OGDs support was low. Their rating thus fits ODA (1995). Table 13 indicates SMC/PTA's assessment of its level of support relative to other groups in the district

**Table 13: SMC/PTA's Assessment of Its Level of Support to Girl-Child Education Relative to Other Groups**

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
DEO	189	77.1	12	4.9	44	18	245	100
DA	97	39.6	19	7.8	129	52.7	245	100
Headteachers/teachers	219	89.4	15	6.1	11	4.49	245	100
SMC/PTA	132	53.9	13	5.3	100	40.8	245	100
TLs	30	12.2	42	17	173	70.6	245	100
NGOs/DPs	54	22	37	15	154	62.9	245	100
FBOs	56	22.9	35	14	154	62.9	245	100
OGDs	29	11.8	67	27	149	60.8	245	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 13 assesses the SMC/PTA's support relative to other groups in the community. In all, 219 (89.4%) SMC/PTA were of the opinion that Headteachers/teachers' support for girl-child education in the district was high. The SMC/PTA also saw the DEO to be offering high support for girl-child education as indicated by 189 (77.1%) respondents. Assessing their own contributions, 132 (53.9%) of PTA/SMC said that their support was high. For TLs, FBOs, NGOs/DPs and ODGs, majority of respondents were of the opinion that their support was low. Going by the criteria of ODA (1995), Headteachers/teachers and DEO were the only groups seen to be offering a high support for girl-child education in the district.

Table 14 shows OGD's assessment of its level of support relative to other groups in the district.

**Table 14: OGDs' Assessment of Its Level of Support to Girl-Child Education Relative to Other Groups**

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
DEO	7	70	1	10	2	20	10	100
DA	6	60	2	20	2	20	10	100
Headteachers/teachers	7	70	2	20	1	10	10	100
SMC/PTA	11	55	4	20	5	25	20	100
TLs	2	20	1	10	7	70	10	100
NGOs/DPs	4	40	1	10	5	50	10	100
FBOs	2	20	2	20	6	60	10	100
OGDs.	1	10	2	20	7	70	10	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Views of respondents from OGDs indicate that the DEO and Headteachers/teachers were offering a high support to girl-child education in the district. Out of 10 respondents, 7 (70.0%) respondents each of OGD believed that the DEO and Headteachers/teachers were doing very well while TLs and OGD itself were rated as providing low support.

Table 15 shows NGOs/DPs assessment of its level of support relative to other groups in the district.

**Table 15: NGOs/DPs Assessment of Its Level of Support to Girl-child Education Relative to Other Groups**

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
DEO	6	60	2	20	2	20	10	100
DA	3	30	5	50	2	20	10	100
Headteachers/teachers	8	80	2	20	0	0	10	100
SMC/PTA	5	50	2	20	3	30	10	100
TLs	1	10	1	10	8	80	10	100
NGOs/DPs	4	40	5	50	1	10	10	100
FBOs	1	10	1	10	8	80	10	100
OGDs	1	10	1	10	8	80	10	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

NGOs/DPs rating gave headteachers/teachers as the only group providing a high support for girls' education while TLs and OGDs and FBOs received a low rating, corroborating ODA (1995) The support offered by NGOs/DPs and SMC/PTA according to ODA (1995), could be classified as partially satisfactory.

Table 16 shows TL's assessment of its level of support relative to other groups in the district.

**Table 16: TLs' Assessment of Its Level of Support to Girl-Child Education Relative to Other Groups**

Community Groups	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
DEO	6	100	0	0	0	0	6	100
DA	1	17	5	83.3	0	0	6	100
Headteachers/teachers	5	83	1	16.7	0	0	6	100
SMC/PTA	4	66.7	1	16.7	1	16.7	6	100
TLs	0	0	1	16.7	5	83.3	6	100
NGOs/DPs	0	0	5	83.3	1	16.7	6	100
FBOs	1	17	0	0	5	83.3	6	100
OGDs	0	0	1	16.7	5	83.3	6	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

TLs' own assessment of their support showed that their support was low as well as that of FBOs and OGDs. DA and NGOs were rated to be providing moderate support.

In sum, there was the general view that the level of the community's support for girl-child education in the district was low. In all, 70.3% of respondents held this view. This level of rating according to ODA (1995) could be classified as unsatisfactory. Again, the community's support was not encouraging going by the expectation of 1987 reforms which made schools community based; communities were tasked to exercise ownership rights and responsibilities. This led to the formation of SMCs and PTAs, among others. This provision was later re-emphasized in the FCUBE in 1996 and lately by the 2002 review of the educational reforms. For this reason, maximum support from the community is very crucial in ensuring access and participation of girls in school.

In assessing individual group support relative to other groups, the DEO and Headteachers/teachers received a rating of 70.6%, each and 70.5% for SMC/PTA. These ratings correspond to the rating of ODA (1995) who stated that a rating between 71% and 79% was considered satisfactory. Support provided by TLs, DPs/NGOs/DPs, OGDs and FBOs received ratings between 11.6% and 29.4%. These ratings according to ODA (1995) were unsatisfactory. The support provided by the DEO was expected because it is the only mandated institution directly responsible for programmes and interventions aimed at promoting girl-child education in the district. Again, most government resources concerning education were channelled through the education directorate. It is only natural that the rest of the community saw its contributions to education as appreciable.

The district assembly, by its mandate, as stipulated in the 1992 Constitution, is required to commit part of its resources to promote girl-

child education in the district. Again, the DA is the chair of the District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC) which exercises general oversight responsibility over education at the district level. It is no coincidence that the DA's support for girl-child education was ranked high. In addition, the district assembly has over the years been the major sponsor of STME clinics, including the provision of furniture and other logistical support to basic schools in the district (Offer-Aboagye, 2007).

The PTA and SMC are also mandated groups whose aim, among other things is to strengthen community involvement in education delivery. The SMC specifically draws its mandate from the GES Act of 1994 (PTA/SMC Handbook, 2001). The two groups ensure that children attend school, that enough resources are mobilized for the school. They are also to ensure that all children of school age are in school, ensure gender balance in enrolment and participation, and visit pupils regularly to monitor their academic performance. Given the roles of the PTA/SMC, it is expected that their support to girl-child education will be appreciable. Their support was rated high and this corroborates the views of Offer-Aboagye (2007), who has argued that support of stakeholders of education offered to girl-child education has been found to be high.

The support offered by OGDs, FBOs and TLs for girl-child education comes in less direct ways and might not be recognized by other members of the community. They exist in forms which is less visible and in most cases rarely noticed by its benefactors. OGDs, for instance, have advocated and collaborated with organizations such as the Department of Social Welfare, and Commission on



Human Rights And Administrative Justice, to advance the course of children's rights and issues on sexual harassment and violence against girls (Offer-Aboagye, 2007).

TLs' support mainly consists in collaboration with other state agencies like the District Assembly, and Department of Social Welfare. They collaborate to pass by laws that restrict movement of children at night and at funeral wakes. This kind of support may not be glaring to people and they may therefore not appreciate what these groups offer. This may partly explain their low rating. It might also mean that since they are not linked to education delivery, they may not be keen with educational issues. But considering their role as custodians of culture and tradition, society expects some form of action from them. TLs, according Offer-Aboagye (2007), have provided platforms for girl-child education officers at durbars and during festivals to sensitize communities on the importance of girl-child education. Their role, therefore, in supporting girl-child education is very crucial because they can influence decisions concerning traditional and cultural practices that threaten girl-child education.

### **Research Question 2: What are the kinds of Support Provided by the Community for Girl-Child Education?**

This question sought to find out the kinds of support provided for girl-child education in the district. To achieve this, eight kinds of support provided by parents for girl-child education were identified based on the literature reviewed as well as discussions with the central regional girl-child education officer and the Cape Coast Metro Girl-Child Officer. Based on these, three questions were

posed and respondents were required to indicate by a tick whether those kinds of support were provided or not. The first question sought to find out the kind of support provided by parents towards girl-child education while the second question related to the kind of collective support provided by the community towards girl-child education. The distinction was done because some kinds of support, by their nature, were best and ably provided by the community as a group. For instance, support for STME Clinic comes with huge financial cost which can sufficiently be provided by the District Assembly. The third question concerned the frequency of the kind of support provided. This was a follow up question to find out how frequent parents and the community at large provided the kinds of support that they claimed they provided and if they provided them, how relevant were they. Table 16 shows whether parents provided support or not towards girl-child education in the district.

**Table 17: Parents Support towards Girl-Child Education**

Kinds of Support	Yes		No		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Provision of pocket money for transport	18	5.11	334	94.9	352	100
Provision of pocket money for snack	120	34.1	232	65.9	352	100
Provision of school uniforms	320	90.9	32	9.09	352	100
Provision of ex. books pens/pencils, maths sets	301	85.5	51	14.5	352	100
Provision of table and chairs at home for private studies	190	54	162	46	352	100

Table 17 continued

Kinds of Support	Yes		No		Total	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Relieving girls of too many household chores	160	45.5	192	54.5	352	100
Regular visits to school to check on performance	142	40.3	210	59.7	352	100
Extra Tuition at home by relatives or private tutor	102	29	250	71	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 17 indicates the kinds of support provided by parents to support girl-child education in the district. Majority of parents indicated that they did not provide money for transport and snack. However, 320 (90.9%) said that they provided school uniforms while another 301 (85.5%) provided basic school needs. Close to 55% indicated that they provided tables and chairs at home for private studies.

Table 18 shows collective community support for girl-child education in the district.

**Table 18: Collective Community Support for Girl-Child Education**

Kind of Support	Yes		No		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Community sensitization on the importance of girl-child education	223	63.4	129	37	352	100
Supporting STME clinics	217	61.6	135	38	352	100
Enforcing bye-laws on violence against girls	37	11	315	89.5	352	100
Provision of sponsorship for girls by District Assembly	51	15	301	85.5	352	100
Extra Tuition for girls at school	138	39	214	60.8	352	100
Guidance and Counselling Services	95	27	257	73	352	100
Encouraging girls to enroll in school after childbirth	54	15	298	84.7	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 18 indicates the kinds of collective support provided by the community towards girls-child education in the district. For each of the support provided, respondents were of the view that the community provided them. Most respondents held the view that support was not provided in five areas. These were provision of sponsorship for girls by district assembly, extra tuition for girls at school, guidance and counselling services, encouraging girls to enroll in school after childbirth.

Table 19 shows the relevance of kinds of parental support towards girl-child education in the district.

**Table 19: Relevance of Kinds of Parental Support towards Girl-Child Education**

Kinds of Support	Highly Relevant		Less Relevant		Not Relevant		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
	Provision of pocket money for transport	25	7.1	150	42.6	177	50.3	352
Provision of pocket money for snack	3	0.9	201	57.1	148	42.0	352	100
Provision of school uniforms	323	91.8	29	8.2	0	0.0	352	100
Provision of ex. books pens/pencils, mathematical sets	341	96.9	9	2.6	2	0.6	352	100
Provision of table and chairs at home for private studies	344	97.7	4	1.1	4	1.1	352	100
Relieving girls of too many household chores	277	78.7	45	12.8	30	8.5	352	100
Regular visits to school to check on performance	260	73.9	55	15.6	37	10.5	352	100
Extra Tuition at home by relatives or private tutor	295	83.8	47	13.4	10	2.8	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 19 indicates that 177 (50.3%) of respondents held the view that provision of pocket money for transport was not relevant. Again, 150 (42.6%) were of the view that provision of pocket money for transport was less relevant. These indicate that provision of pocket money for transport was not crucial for improving access and participation of girls in school. For pocket money for snack, 201 (57.1%) believed that it was less relevant, while 148 (42.0%) indicated that it was not relevant. In effect, 349 (99.1%) did not see provision of pocket money to be crucial to improving access and participation in school. However, the rest of the kinds of support were rated as highly relevant for improving access and participation for girls in school. These were as follows:

1. Provision of school uniforms
2. Provision of exercise books pens/pencils, mathematical sets
3. Provision of table and chairs at home for private studies
4. Relieving girls of too many household chores
5. Regular visits to school to check on performance
6. Extra tuition at home by relatives or private tutor

Table 20 shows the relevance of kinds of collective community support towards girl-child education in the district.

**Table 20: Relevance of Collective Support towards Girl-Child in School**

Kind of Support	Highly Relevant		Less Relevant		Not Relevant		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Community sensitization on the importance of girls education	340	96.6	9	2.6	3	0.9	352	100
Supporting STME clinics	343	97	8	2.3	1	0.3	352	100
Enforcing bye-laws on violence against girls	296	84.1	39	11.1	17	4.8	352	100
Provision of sponsorship for girls by District Assembly	341	96.1	10	2.8	1	0.3	352	100
Provision of school uniforms	345	98	1	0.28	6	1.7	352	100
Provision of exercise books pens/pencils, mathematical sets	297	84.1	22	6.3	33	9.4	352	100
Extra Tuition for girls at school	286	81.1	32	9.1	34	9.7	352	100
Guidance and Counselling Services	276	78.4	47	13.4	29	8.2	352	100
Encouraging girls to enroll in school after childbirth	253	71.1	67	19	36	10.2	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 20 indicates that all kinds of collective support provided by the community were rated to be highly relevant for girl-child education in the district. The rating ranged from 71.1% to 98.0%.

Table 21 shows the frequency of kinds of support provided by parents towards girl-child education in the district.

**Table 21: Frequency of Kinds of Support offered by Parents**

Kind of Support	Always	%	Occasionally	%	Never	%	Total	%
Provision of pocket money for transport	10	2.8	35	9.9	307	87.2	352	100
Provision of pocket money for snack	45	13	267	76	40	11.4	352	100
Provision of school uniforms	200	57	85	24	67	19	352	100
Provision of ex. Books pens/pencils, mathematical sets	95	27	137	39	120	34.1	352	100
Provision of table and chairs at home for private studies	35	9.9	33	9.4	284	80.7	352	100
Relieving girls of too many household chores	28	8	52	15	271	77	352	100
Regular visits to school to check on performance	50	14	95	27	207	58.8	352	100
Extra Tuition at home	20	5.7	27	7.7	273	77.6	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage



Table 21 indicates that most respondents (87.2%) believed that parents did not give money to their children for transport to and from school. On money for snack, the results showed that 75.9% of parents occasionally provided money for snack. As to whether they provided school uniforms, (200) 57.0% stated that parents frequently provided uniforms for their children/wards. For 85 (24.0%), school uniforms were occasionally provided, while 67 (19.0%) stated that some parents never provided school uniforms.

Provision of exercise books, pens, pencils and mathematical sets for children was occasional. This was indicated by 137 (39.0%) of respondents, while 120 (34.1%) said that parents provided these items. According to 95 (27.0%) respondents, parents always provided these items. To find out whether parents provided tables and chairs at home to support their children's academic work at home, 284 (80.7%) indicated that parents never provided these facilities. For regular visits to children's/wards school to check on performance, 207 (58.8%) indicated that parents never visited the schools of their children/wards. while 50 (14.0%) respondents indicated that parents always visited the school of their children/wards, with 95 (27.0%) indicating parents occasionally visited the schools of their children/wards.

With regard to relieve to girls on many household chores 271 (77.0%) respondents held the view that parents never gave any relieve to their children/wards on household chores. Another 52 (15.0%) thought that parents occasionally provided relieve to their children/wards on household chores. On extra tuition for children/wards at home, 273 (77.6%) held the view that parents

did not provide any extra tuition for their children/wards at home. To 27 (7.7%) parents occasionally provided extra tuition at home for their children/wards, while 20 (5.7%) maintained that parents always provided extra tuition for their children at home.

The results of the analyses showed that on the whole, provision of pocket money by parents for snack was the only kind of support viewed as being occasionally provided. Provision of school uniforms, was believed to be always provided by parents. However, for each of the areas listed below, majority of respondents indicated that parents never provided them. These areas were:

- a. Provision of pocket money for transport to and from school;
  - b. Provision of tables and chairs for private studies at home;
  - c. Relieve for girls on household chores;
  - d. Regular visits to children/wards school to check on performance;
- and
- e. Extra tuition at home.

The reason that accounted for parents' failure to provide money for travel and transport (T & T) to and from school might be that most of the schools were closely located in the community within a distance of 500 m (MOE, 2004) and did not require going to school by transport. Children mostly walked to school.

Lack of parental support in providing tables and chairs at home for girls for private studies and extra tuition might be assigned to parental level of education or negative attitudes towards girl-child education. King and Bellow (1989) opined that where the level of parents' education level is low they tend to

treat their children's education with contempt. A study on attitudes towards female education revealed that there is a correlation between level of parents' education and attitudes towards girls' education. Studies have also shown that when parents themselves lack education, they may be more reluctant to challenge tradition to educate their daughters and they may also fail to appreciate the importance of schooling for female children (UNICEF, 2007). They may also not relieve girls of household chores especially where there is the strong believe that girls have to learn what they would do as adult in the area of keeping the home. Davidson and Kanyaku (1990) observed that throughout most of Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia, the heavy burden of rural women may force them to keep their daughters at home to help with care of younger siblings. Also, time consuming tasks on the farm and such household chores as cleaning and cooking may force parents to keep girls at home. In addition, they may also be less inclined to visit their daughters' school to check on their performance. Parents' failure to regularly visit the schools to check on their children's performance might mean parental neglect of their basic responsibility of caring for their children because regular visits to schools forms part of the PTA responsibilities to ensure that children stay in school and are performing well (MOE, 2001).

Table 22 presents the analysis of results of responses to a question which sought to find out the kinds of support offered by the community as a collective entity in support of girl-child education in the district

**Table 22: Frequency of Support Provided to Girl-child Education by the Community as a Collective Entity**

Kind of Support	Always		Occasional		Never		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No	%
Community sensitization on the importance of girl-child education	44	12.5	250	71	58	16.5	352	100
Supporting STME clinics	312	88.6	27	7.7	13	3.7	352	100
Enforcing bye-laws on violence against girls	13	3.7	33	9.4	306	86.6	352	100
Provision of sponsorship for girls by District Assembly	20	5.7	315	89.5	17	4.8	352	100
Provision of school uniforms	32	9.1	297	84.4	23	6.5	352	100
Provision of exercise books pens/pencils, mathematical sets	12	3.4	47	13.4	293	83.2	352	100
Extra Tuition for girls at school	145	41.2	107	30.4	100	28.4	352	100
Guidance and Counselling Services	100	28.4	187	53.1	65	18.5	352	100
Encouraging girls to enroll in school after childbirth	23	6.5	34	9.7	295	83.8	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 22 presents the analysis of results of responses to a question which sought to find out the kinds of support offered by the community as a collective entity in support of girl-child education in the district. One area of importance to girl-child education is community sensitization. Responses show that 250 (71.0%) indicated that it was done occasionally, while 44 (12.5%) held the view that it was always done, with 58 (16.5%) maintaining that it was never done. The results show that 312 (88.6%) respondents held the view that support for STME clinic was always provided.

Majority of respondents (306) representing 86.6% were of the opinion that laws on sexual harassment and violence against girls were never enforced. Just 13 (3.7%) believed that the laws were always enforced. To another 33 (9.4%), it was occasionally enforced. Provision of sponsorship by the district assembly for needy girls was also thought to be an occasional affair, as indicated by 315 (89.5%) of respondents. The provision of basic school needs was never provided by the community as stated by 293 (83.2%) respondents. Only 12 (3.4%) and 47 (13.4%) respectively were of the view that it was provided always and occasionally. It is natural to expect such scenario because the community as a whole is not required to provide these needs. It is the responsibility of parents to provide basic school needs for their children/wards.

On the provision of school uniforms, 297 (84.4%) believed that it was occasionally done, while 32 (9.1%) thought it was always done, with 23 (6.5%) indicating that it was never done. The trend of responses gathered on the provision of extra tuition differs from the others. 145 (41.2%) said that it was

always done. To 107 (30.4%) it was occasionally done, while 100 (28.4%) believed that it was never done.

Majority of respondents 306 representing 83.8% were of the opinion that girls were never encouraged to re-enrol in school after childbirth. Just 23 (6.5%) believed that girls were encouraged to re-enrol in school after childbirth. To another 34 (9.7%), they held the view that girls were occasionally encouraged to re-enrol in school after child birth.

For each of the area of support respondents were of the view that the collective support provided by the community was not encouraging. Majority of respondents believed that the frequency of support for these areas was never done: these were, enforcing by-laws on violence and sexual harassment against girls, encouraging girls to re-enrol in school after child birth and provision of exercise books, pens, pencils and mathematical sets.

Support for STME Clinic was the only kind of support that was always provided by the community. STME clinics have been used by the GES to promote girl-child education and stimulate girls' interest in the study of science. Provision of scholarship for girls, community sensitization on the importance of girl-child education, provision of school uniforms were thought to be occasional affairs.

The community's failure to encourage girls to re-enrol in school after child birth perhaps, might be explained by the traditionally perceived role of women as child bearers and home makers. Dolphyne (1991) has argued that in most rural communities, child bearing is given a high premium while education is seen as threat to child bearing. She noted further that parents largely put pressure

on their daughters to bare children. Girls may, in such situations not be encouraged to go back to school though GES policy allows girls who give birth to re-enrol in school after child birth. Again, parents may consent to early marriage of their daughters due to pregnancy which is very much loathed when it occurs outside marriage. In addition, it is believed that marrying early extends girls child bearing years and also ensures obedience to their husbands (UNICEF,2007)

The study revealed that there was non-enforcement of sexual harassment and violence laws against girls in the district. Girls and women are frequently victims of physical and sexual violence inside and outside the home. Such assaults are under reported because of stigma associated with the crime. WiLDAF(2006)noted that the cumbersome nature of the process of reporting sexual assault cases tended to frustrate victims of such crimes.As a result, parents were normally less willing to report such cases. This perhaps, might explain the reason for non-enforcement of the law in the district. It might also be that victims of such crimes never reported the cases to the appropriate agencies for action to be taken on them. When this happens, it may also lead to lack of gender based data on such crimes.

Provision of exercise books, pens, pencils, mathematical sets and provision of school uniforms (Basic School Needs) is not a collective responsibility of the community, but occasionally though the SMC were tasked to do that.NGOs/DPs and the DA do supply them to schools as a form of relieve to parents. It is the responsibility of parents to provide these items to their wards. It is important to note that, one reason for parents' inability to provide these basic

needs might be economic. UNICEF (2007) stated that though tuition fees have been abolished in many countries, particularly in Africa, the associated cost of education: books, uniforms, shoes, transportation and other supplies are still extremely common and prohibitively expensive for many families. In fact, providing these basic school needs constitutes greater portion of income of many poor households in developing countries. Table 23 shows the relevance of parental support provided for girl-child education.

**Table 23: Relevance of Kinds of Parental Support Provided for Girl-Child Education**

Kinds of Support	Highly Relevant		Less Relevant		Not Relevant		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Provision of pocket money for transport	25	7.1	150	42.6	177	48.9	352	100
Provision of pocket money for snack	3	0.9	204	57.1	145	41.2	352	100
Provision of school uniforms	323	92	29	8.2	0	0	352	100
Provision of BSN	341	97	10	2.6	1	0.3	352	100
Provision of table and chairs at home for private studies	344	98	7	1.1	1	0.3	352	100
Relieving girls of too many household chores	282	79	45	12.8	25	7.1	352	100
Regular visits to school to check on performance	264	74	55	15.6	33	9.4	352	100
Extra Tuition at home by relatives or private tutor	298	84	47	13.4	7	2	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage, BSN: Basic School Needs



Table 23 indicates that 172 (48.9%) of respondents held the view that provision of pocket money for transport was not relevant. By this, one could adduce respondents' thoughts of pocket money as not being so central or a crucial factor when it comes attending school since most of the schools were located in the communities. Again, 150 (42.6%) were also of the view that provision of pocket money for transport was less relevant. These indicate that provision of pocket money for transport was not crucial for improving access and participation of girls in school. On pocket money for snack, 201 (57.1%) believed that it was less relevant, while 145 (41.2%) indicated that it was not relevant. In effect, close to 346 (98.3%) did not see provision of pocket money to be crucial for girl-child education. However, the rest of the kinds of support were rated as highly relevant for improving access and participation for girls in school. These were as follows:

1. Provision of school Uniforms
2. Provision of ex. books pens/pencils, mathematical sets
3. Provision of table and chairs at home for private studies
4. Relieving girls of too many household chores
5. Regular visits to school to check on performance
6. Extra Tuition at home by relatives or private tutor

Though majority of respondents indicated that parents never provided these kinds of support they were rated to be highly relevant for girl-child education. These were:

- a. Provision of tables and chairs for private studies at home;
- b. Relieve for girls on household chores;
- c. Regular visits to school to check on performance of girls and
- d. Extra tuition at home.

Table 24 indicated the relevance of collective community support for girl-child education in the district.

**Table 24: Relevance of Collective Support Provided By the Community Towards Girl-Child Education**

Kind of Support	Highly Relevant		Less Relevant		Not Relevant		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%	Freq	%
Community sensitization on the importance of girls education	340	96.6	9	2.6	3	0.9	352	100
Supporting STME clinics	343	97	8	2.3	1	0.3	352	100
Enforcing bye-laws on violence against girls	296	84.1	39	11.1	17	4.8	352	100
Provision of sponsorship for girls by District Assembly	341	96.1	10	2.8	1	0.3	352	100
Provision of school uniforms	345	98	1	0.28	6	1.7	352	100
Provision of exercise books pens/pencils, mathematical sets	297	84.1	22	6.3	33	9.4	352	100
Extra Tuition for girls at school	286	81.1	32	9.1	34	9.7	352	100
Guidance and Counselling Services	276	78.4	47	13.4	29	8.2	352	100
Encouraging girls to enrol in school after childbirth	253	71.1	67	19	36	10.2	352	100

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 24 indicates between 71% and 96% of respondents held the view that all kinds of collective support provided by the community was rated to be highly relevant for supporting girl-child education.

### **Research Question 3: How does the Community Perceive Girl-Child Education?**

This research question assessed how community members perceived girl-child education in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district. To answer this question, pertinent issues relevant to how people generally perceive girl-child education were identified from a discourse of the literature reviewed. The issues were put into statements and respondents were asked to rate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with the statements by ticking against their option on a four point Likert scale using strongly agree, agree, disagree and strongly disagree. The statements were as follows:

1. Girl-child education is important
2. Girl-child education is as important as education of boys
3. Girl-child education is a good investment
4. Sending girls to school deprives family of money gained through child labour
5. A girl should not have a long period of schooling
6. Long period of schooling will affect the number of children the girl will have later in life
7. Long period of schooling will not make girls suitable for marriage

Table 25 shows the perceptions the community held about Girl-child education in the district.

**Table 25: Perceptions about Girl-child Education**

Problem	SA		A		D		SD		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Girl-child education is important Girl-child	250	71	89	25.3	6	1.7	7	2.0	352	100
Education is as important as education of boys	242	68.8	106	30.1	2	0.6	2	0.6	352	100
Girl-child education is a good Investment	211	59.9	134	38.1	5	1.4	2	0.6	352	100
Sending girls to school deprives family of moneygained through child labour	18	5.11	47	13.4	164	46.6	123	34.9	352	100
A girl should not have a long period of schooling	11	3.13	32	9.09	129	36.6	180	51.1	352	100
Long period of school will affect the number of children the girl will have later in life	141	40.1	133	37.8	34	9.7	44	12.5	352	100

Key - F: frequency, %: percentage

SA: Strongly Agree, A: Agree, D: Disagree, SD: Strongly Disagree

Respondents had a high rating for the statement 'Girl-child education is important'. The results indicated that 250 (71.0%) respondents strongly agreed that girl-child education was important, while 89 (25.3%) agreed that girl-child education was important. The second statement sought to find out whether girl-child education is as important as education of boys. For this statement, 242 respondents (68.8%) strongly supported the view that girl-child education is as important as education of boys. On whether girl-child education was a good investment, 211(59.9.0%) respondents were of the strong view that girl-child education was a good investment, while 134 (38.1%) also agreed that girl-child education was a good investment. This indicates that 98.0% of respondents supported the view that girl-child education was a good investment. As to whether a girl should not have a long period of schooling, 175 (49.7%) respondents strongly disagreed, while 129 (36.6%) disagreed that girls should not have long period of schooling, Long period of schooling will affect the number of children the girl will have later in life 150(42.5%) respondents strongly agreed to the statement, while 125 (35.5%) also agreed, indicating that 78.0% of respondents agreed to the statement that long period of schooling will affect the number of children a girl will have later in life. Another statement probed whether sending girls to school deprived the family of money gained through child labour. The responses generated showed that majority agreed to the statement. Out of 352 respondents, 123 (34.9%) strongly agreed with the statement while 150 (42.6%) agreed.

In sum, analyses of results for research question three revealed that majority of respondents were of the view that girl-child education is important. This meant that the community perceived girl-child education as important and it was logical to expect that their support for girl-child education will be appreciable. Not only that; they held the view that girl-child education is as important as the education of boys. The extent of agreement to the statement 'girl-child education is as important as education of boys' was higher compared to the rating received for the statement 'girl-child education is important.' One can therefore conclude that the community viewed girl-child education as not just important but equally important as education of boys. Here the community placed the education of both boys and girls on an equal footing, giving a clear indication that the community will not renege on its support to girl-child education; both sexes will receive equal level of support. In addition, respondents indicated that girl-child education is a good investment. Three and forty-five (98.0%) respondents held this view. It goes to confirm the fact that the community viewed girl-child education not only as important but they also expected some form of benefits. UNICEF (2007) stated that education is key to sustaining democracies, improving health, increasing per capita income, and conserving environmental resources. The report further stated that education lowers infant mortality, increases longevity, reinforces democratization and political stability, decreases poverty, reduces inequality, and lowers crime rates. Educated women have fewer and healthier children and are more likely to send their children to school. The community in this sense expected some dividends from girl-child education much the same way as they

expected from education of boys. Respondents disagreed to the statement that girls should not have long period of schooling, re-emphasizing the idea that girl-child education is important.

There was general agreement that long period of schooling will affect the number of children the girl will have later in life. In effect, the community agreed that long period of schooling was beneficial to the girl and to society at large. This finding supports Oppong (1987) who argued that on the average, urbanized, educated and employed women had fewer children

#### **Research Question 4: What are the Barriers to Girl-Child Education in the Community?**

To answer this question, eight factors which serve as barriers to girl-child education were identified based on the literature reviewed. The barriers were parental poverty, household chores, early marriage, sexual harassment and violence against girls, and cost of educating girls. The rest were teenage pregnancy, long distances to school and lack of girl-friendly sanitary facilities in schools. Timnou and Fotsu (1997) for instance, reported that domestic chores were an obstacle to girls' studies in school. On distance to school, Herz and Sperling (1999) argued that when schools are located at a distance parents believe is too far for girls to travel safely, with the particular concern about sexual harassment on the way to school, it tended to deter girls from attending school. They further argued that the farther girls have to walk or travel, the greater their parents' and their own concerns for actual safety. Respondents were therefore required to rate the extent to which each of the factors identified impacted on girl-

child education in the district. The ratings were done on a three point Lickert scale using high, moderate and low. Analyses of the results were presented in table 20.

Table 26 indicates the barriers to girl-child education in the district.

**Table 26: Barriers to Girl-Child Education**

Problem	High		Moderate		Low		Total	
	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%	f.	%
Parental Poverty	320	90.9	10	2.8	22	6.3	352	100
Household Chores	251	71.3	25	7.1	76	21.6	352	100
Early marriage of girls	227	64.5	47	13.4	78	22.2	352	100
Sexual Harassments and Violence	196	55.7	55	15.6	101	28.7	352	100
High cost of Education for girls	238	67.6	71	20.2	43	12.2	352	100
Pregnancy Long distances to School	241	68.5	35	9.94	76	21.6	352	100
Lack of girl friendly Facilities	98	27.8	47	13.35	207	58.8	352	100

Key – f: frequency, %: percentage



Table 26 indicates that seven out of eight factors were identified as having high impact on girl-child education in the district. With respect to parental poverty, 320 (90.9%) respondents indicated that parental poverty had a high impact on girl-child education. Given the same number of respondents (352), 251 (71.3%) respondents held the view that the impact of overburdened household chores on girl-child education was high. On early marriage of girls, 227 (64.5%) respondents believed that it had a high impact on girl-child education, while 47 (13.4%) thought its impact was moderate.

Teenage pregnancy was considered as one of the factors impacting negatively on girl-child education. Giving a rating on each scale for each statement, it was rated third most significant factor as majority of respondents (241) representing 68.5% held the view that the impact of teenage pregnancy was high. Thirty five (9.94%) thought its impact on girl-child education was moderate while 76 (31.6%) also thought its impact was low.

Long distances to school, though was considered a factor that impacted on girl-child education it did not receive a high rating. This was evidenced by the fact that 208 (58.8%) thought the impact of long distance on girl-child education was low, while 47 (13.4%) also thought its impact was moderate, with 98 (27.8%) thought its impact was high.

With Regards to lack of girl friendly sanitary facilities at school, 199 (56.5%), indicated that it had a high impact on girl-child education, whereas 74 (21%) thought its impact was moderate, with 79 (22.4%) rating its impact as low.

For sexual harassment and violence against girls, 196 (55.7%) indicated

that its impact was high, while 55 (15.6%) held the view that its impact was moderate, with 101(28.7%) rating its impact as low. On the level of impact of cost of girl-child education, 238 (67.7%) believed that cost of educating girls had a high impact on girl-child education. Seventy one (20.2%) thought it had a moderate impact with 43 (12.2%) indicating that its impact was low.

Analyses of results showed varied degrees of agreement to each of the factors that affected girl-child education in the district. Out of the 8 factors, 7 were rated as having a high impact on girl-child education in the district. These were parental poverty, overburdened household chores, teenage pregnancy, early marriage, lack of girl friendly sanitary facilities at school, sexual harassment and violence against girls, and cost of girl-child education. Long distance to school was the only factor identified as having a low impact on girl-child education. Again parental poverty, overburdened household chores and teenage pregnancy were the three most rated factors that impacted on girl-child education.

Close to 91% of respondents were of the opinion that parental poverty had a high impact on girl-child education. This confirms the findings of Twumasi (1986) who posited that when a family's finances are at a low ebb, it is the young girl not the young boy on whom educational investment must be curtailed. Outlining the reasons why girls lose out on education, Okojie and Okpokunn (1996) noted that girls are particularly affected when households have insufficient funds to send all their children to school. Abagi, Wamahiu and Owino (1997) supported this view and maintained that the most influential constraint to girls' education is economic, explaining that parental poverty remains a huge barrier to

girls' education in many parts of the world especially in sub-Saharan Africa.

Household chores were a burden to girl-child education. Young (1993) noted that women, particularly in rural Africa were not under employed but overworked. Yet another barrier was early marriage of girls. Young (1993) maintained that the need to secure a higher bride prize by the father explains strongly early betrothal and marriage. Again the cultural emphasis on motherhood and childbirth also account for lack of parental stress on their daughters' education (Dolphyne, 1991).

Facilities at school which tend to ignore the needs of girls serve as barriers to girl-child education. The community considered it to be a very important factor for schooling. This finding corroborates a World Bank report in 2001 which stated that when urinal and toilet facilities are designed in ways that affect their safety and privacy especially at certain times of the months where they experience their menses, they tended to stay away from school.

On the level of impact of cost of girl-child education, respondents believed it had a high impact on girl-child education. Graham (1976) reports that one chief reason assigned for the relative paucity of girls' education was its expensive nature. This, he said posed a great challenge to many parents as they did not have the means. In this wise, parents are less inclined and less motivated to provide education for their female children.

For all the barriers, long distance to school was the only factor that received a low rating. Perhaps the reason might have been informed by the fact that most of the schools were closely located in the communities and did not require pupils

to trek for longer distances to school(MOE, 2004). This view contradicts the findings of Herz and Sperling (2004) who noted that research in countries as Ghana, India, and Malaysia, shows distance matters for all children, especially girls.

**Research Question 5: How can the Barriers to Girl-child Education in the Community be Minimized?**

Under this question respondents were given the option to suggest measures they thought could help minimize the barriers that confront girls education in the district. The range of responses given were coded and grouped into five main thematic areas. Table 20 gives the results of the analysis.

**Table 27: Measures To Minimize Barriers to Girl-Child Education**

Suggestions	f	%
Provision of Girl Friendly Sanitary Facilities	33	9.4
Set up Scholarship Fund By District Assembly for Girls	41	11.6
Community should stop forcing Girls into early marriage	43	12.2
Provision of Income Generation Activities for parents	125	35.5
Sustained community sensitization on the importance of girl-child education	110	31.3
<b>Total</b>	<b>352</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Key: f - frequency, % - percentage

Table 27 indicates that 35.5% of respondents were of the opinion that the community should provide income generation activities for parents, while 31.3% were also of the opinion that the community should embark on sustained community sensitization on the importance of girl-child education in the district.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **Summary of the Study**

Education provides the means for developing the human resource capabilities of people and thus equips them to function in the world of work. It also empowers people to be full and active participants in society, in terms of their ability to exercise their rights and engage in civil and political life. Education also serves as a powerful protection factor: people in school are less likely to come into conflict with the law and much less vulnerable to rampant forms of child labour. In addition, it is strongly linked to concrete improvements in health and nutrition, improving children's chances for survival and other areas of life.

For these reasons if a child loses out on education, it becomes a great loss to the individual and the state. In the recent past, situational analyses reveal that basic education has become more expensive and a burden for the government alone to bear. Consequently, community support for education has been strongly advocated. The study therefore sought to assess the community's support for girl-child education in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district in the Central Region of Ghana.

The study used the descriptive survey. The instrument used for the study was adapted from Mensah (2001) who did a similar study on community support

for girl-child school attendance in the Winneba District. The questionnaire was adapted to suit the pattern of the research questions for the study. The instrument was pilot-tested because Mensah (2001) did not indicate in her work that she pilot-tested the instrument used for her study. The adapted instrument was pilot-tested at the Assin South district also in the Central Region. The Assin South district was chosen because it shared similar characteristics with the study area, which was Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese. The pilot-test yielded different reliability coefficients for each of the sections which corresponded with each of the research questions. The content validity of the instrument was established by submitting them to the researcher's supervisors at the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, University of Cape Coast and colleagues on the M.Phil (Educational Planning and Administration) programme who have adequate and expertise knowledge in research. They perused, commented and offered their suggestions, which were incorporated into the final instrument.

### **Findings**

The study made the following findings:

1. The level of community support provided for girl-child education was low.
2. Kinds of support offered by the community to support girl-child education in the district were in four areas, namely financial, infrastructural, academic and provision of basic school needs.
3. The kinds of support provided by the community were highly rated as relevant but were considered as not frequently provided.

4. The community held a positive perception about female education in the district.
5. Parental poverty, household chores and teenage pregnancy were the three most highly rated barriers to girl-child education in the district.
6. The contributions of other groups were supplementary; the central government, through the district assemblies and the district education directorate still shouldered the major burden of providing support for girl-child education in the district.

### **Conclusions**

From the findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn:

The various community groups had a positive perception about girl-child education in the district. Based on this perception, it could be concluded that the various community groups could have offered needed support to encourage girls to enrol and stay in school. However, the study revealed that the support for girl-child education in the district was low, giving the impression that the community's effort at supporting girl-child education was hindered by certain factors. Apparently, the findings indicated that parental poverty, teenage pregnancy, household chores constituted major barriers to girl-child education. This could explain the low support for girl-child education and the persistent and widening boy-girl disparity in schooling in the district. The

positive perception the community had about girl-child education could also mean that the various community groups could not have intentionally reneged on their



support for girl-child education but were duly hindered by some negative factors as already stated.

One could also conclude that parents and other community groups still harboured the traditional idea of girls as being housekeepers, and so much of the household chores are seen to be the responsibility of the girl-child. Moreover, one could also conclude that parents have also relaxed in their duty of checking their wards of going wayward as teenage pregnancy was cited as a major barrier.

The kinds of support provided for girl-child education were in four major areas. These were financial support, provision of basic school needs, provision of infrastructure, and academic support. It is, therefore, right to conclude that more of such support needed to be provided to girls to encourage them to enrol and stay in school.

The barriers to girl-child education could be curbed by adopting measures in the area of income generation for parents, sustained community sensitization on the importance of girl-child education, and provision of girl friendly sanitary facilities at school. The rest were provision of scholarship for girls by the district assembly and efforts at discouraging early marriage of girls.

### **Recommendations**

In view of the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations were made for policy and practice:

1. The Ghana Education Service, in collaboration with other community groups should embark on sustained sensitization on the importance of girl-child education in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese district. This will

strengthen stakeholder perception about girl-child education thereby serving as motivation for increasing the needed support for girl-child education.

2. The various community groups in the district need to increase the frequency of support for girl-child education.
3. The district assembly needs to set up more income generation activities in the study area to serve as sources of livelihood for unemployed parents in order to reduce poverty in the area.
4. The district girl-child education officer should be well resourced to sensitize parents on the need for parents to reduce household chores on their wards who are girls in order for them to have ample time for studies at home.
5. The Ghana Education Service and other stakeholder support for girls in school should focus on finance, academic, provision of basic school needs, and provision of girl friendly infrastructure at school.
6. The Ghana Education Service and the District Assembly should encourage Traditional Leaders, Non-governmental Organizations and Development Partners, as well as Faith-Based Organizations and Other Government Departments to increase their support for girl-child education in the district.
7. The Ghana education Service, the District Assembly and other community groups should solicit support from non-governmental

organizations and international agencies for support for girls' education in the district.

### **Suggestions for Further Research**

Based on the findings of the study the following areas have been identified as suggestions for further study.

1. An Assessment of the impact of the various interventions on girl-child education.
2. The study could be replicated in other districts in the country.

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**APPENDICES**  
**APPENDIX A**  
**QUESTIONNAIRE**

Dear Sir/Madam, this questionnaire is to obtain information, as part of a study, to assess the community support for girl-child education in the Abura-Asebu-Kwamankese District. You are, therefore, kindly employed to provide frank responses to the items in the questionnaire. You are assured that the information provided will be used purely for academic purposes and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Thank you.

**SECTION A: Personal Data**

**INTRODUCTION**

1. Type of Respondent (Tick)
  - a. DEO Staff ( )
  - b. District Assembly Staff ( )
  - c. Headteacher/Teacher ( )
  - d. SMC/PTA Executive ( )
  - e. Faith-Based Organization ( )
  - f. Development Partners/Non-Governmental Organization ( )
  - g. Traditional Leader ( )
  - h. Other Government Department ( )
  
2. Gender
  - a) [ ] Male
  - b) [ ] Female

3. Number of children/wards
- a)  None
  - b)  One
  - c)  Two
  - d)  Three
  - e)  Four and above
4. Number of children/wards in basic schools
- a)  None
  - b)  One
  - c)  Two
  - d)  Three
  - e)  Four and above
5. What is the nature of the locality in which you live?
- a)  Rural
  - b)  Urban
  - c)  Semi-Urban
6. How long have you been in your current position as stated in item 1?
- a)  Less than 1 year
  - b)  1- 5 years
  - c)  6 – 10 years
  - d)  11 – 15 years
  - e)  16 – 20 years
  - f)  21 and above

## Section B

### Level Of Community Support for Girl-Child Education

8. How will you rate the overall support provided by the community towards improving access and participation in school?

- a)  High
- b)  Moderate
- c)  Low

The following are the groups in the community providing support for girl-child education in the district. Please, indicate by a tick [✓] the level of support of each of these groups in the community. Please note that only one option must be ticked for each item.

	Sources of Support	High	Moderate	Low
9.	District Education Directorate			
10.	District Assembly			
11.	Traditional Leaders			
12.	School Management Committee			
13.	Parent Teacher Association			
14.	Non-Governmental Organizations/ Development Partners			
15.	Faith-Based Organizations			
16	Other Government Department			

## Section C

### **Kinds of Support Provided by Parents for Girl-Child Education**

The following are kinds of support provided by parents towards improving access and participation for girl-child education. Please, indicate by a tick [✓] the kind of support you provide for your girl-child. Please note that you can tick more than one. By a tick you are indicating you are indicating that you provide that support.

17. [ ] Provision of basic school needs (School Uniforms, pen, exercise, books, pencils)

18. [ ] Guidance And Counselling Services

19. [ ] Easing the burden of household chores for girls at home

20. [ ] Supervising and assisting girls academic work at home

21. [ ] Regular visits to school to monitor girls academic performance

22. [ ] Provision of money for transport to and from school

23. [ ] Provision of pocket money for snack

24. [ ] Encouraging girls to enrol in school after child birth

25. Other (Specify).....

.....

### **Kinds of Collective Community Support Provided for Girl-Child Education**

The following are kinds of collective community support provided for girl-child education. Please, indicate by a tick [✓] the kind (s) of support the community provides. Please note that you can tick more than one. By a tick you are indicating you are indicating that you provide that support.

- 26. [ ] Sensitization on the importance Of Girl-child education
- 27. [ ] Building of more schools to reduce distance to school
- 28. [ ] Provision of basic school needs (School Uniforms, pen, exercise books, pencils)
- 29. [ ] Provision of gender friendly sanitary facilities at school
- 30. [ ] Scholarship for needy girls
- 31. [ ] Guidance and Counselling Services
- 32. [ ] Sponsoring STME clinics
- 33. [ ] Enforcing bye-laws to fight violence and sexual harassment against girls
- 34. [ ] Encouraging girls to enrol in school after child birth
- 35. Other (Specify).....



## Relevance of Collective Community Support provided For Girl-Child

### Education

The following are kinds of support being provided by the community for girl-child education. Please, indicate by a tick [✓] the extent of relevance of each of the kind (s) of support provided. Please note that only one option must be ticked in each case.

	Kind of support	Highly Relevant	Relevant	Less Relevant
36.	Sensitization on the importance of Girl-child education			
37.	Building of more schools to reduce distance to school			
38.	Provision of basic school needs			
39.	Provision of gender friendly school environment			
40.	Scholarship for needy girls			
41.	Guidance and Counselling Services			
42.	Sponsoring STME clinics			
43.	Enforcing bye-laws to fight violence and sexual harassment against girls			
44.	Encouraging girls to enrol in school after child birth			
45.	Other (Specify)			

## Relevance of Kinds of Support Provided By Parents For Girl-Child

### Education

The following are kinds of support provided by parents for girl-child education. Please, indicate by a tick [✓] the extent of relevance of each of the kind (s) of support provided. Please note that only one option must be ticked in each case.

	Kinds of support	Highly Relevant	Relevant	Less Relevant
46.	Provision of basic school needs			
47..	Scholarship for needy girls			
48.	Guidance and Counselling Services			
49.	Support at home by parents to relieve girls of household chores			
50.	Supervising and assisting girls academic work at home by parents			
51.	Regular visits to school by parents to monitor girls academic performances			
52.	Provision of money by parents for transport to and from school			
53.	Provision of pocket money by parents for snack			
54.	Encouraging girls to enrol in school after child birth			
55	Other (Specify)			

## Frequency of Kinds of Support Provided By the Community For Girl-Child

### Education

The following are kinds of support being provided by the community for girl-child education. Please, indicate by a tick [✓] the frequency of each of the support provided. Please note that only one option must be ticked.

	Kind of support	Always	Occasionally	Never
56.	Sensitization on the importance of Girl-child education			
57.	Building of more schools to reduce distance to school			
58.	Provision of basic school needs			
59.	Provision of gender friendly school environment			
60.	Scholarship for needy girls			
61.	Guidance and Counselling Services			
62.	Sponsoring STME clinics			
63.	Formation of girls club in schools			
64.	Enforcing bye-laws to fight violence and sexual harassment against girls			
65.	Providing sponsorship for female trainee teachers to accept posting to the district			
66.	Encouraging girls to enrol in school after child birth			

## Frequency of Kinds of Support Provided By Parents For Girl-Child

### Education

The following are kinds of support provided by parents for girl-child education. Please, indicate by a tick [✓] the frequency of support provided using always, occasionally and never. Please note that only one option must be ticked in each case.

	Kinds of support	Always	Occasionally	Never
67.	Provision of basic school needs			
68.	Guidance and Counselling Services			
69.	Support at home by parents to relieve girls of household chores			
70.	Supervising and assisting girls academic work at home by parents			
71.	Regular visits to school by parents to monitor girls academic performances			
72.	Provision of money by parents for transport to and from school			
73.	Provision of pocket money by parents for snack			
74.	Encouraging girls to enrol in school after child birth			

### Section D: Barriers to Girl-Child Education

The following are barriers to girl-child education. Please state the extent to which each of these factors affect girl-child education in the district by ticking against your option. The options are: High, Moderate and Low. Please note that only one option must be ticked in each case.

S/N	Factors	High	Moderate	Low
75.	Parental Poverty			
76.	Over burdened household chores and child labour			
77.	Early marriage of girls			
78.	Sexual Harassments and violence against girls			
79.	High cost of education for girls			
80.	Pregnancy			
81.	Long distances to school			
82.	Lack of girl friendly toilet and urinal facilities			

### Section E: Perceptions of Female Education

The following statements are perceptions that people have about girl-child education. What is your view on these statements? Please state the extent to which you agree to the statements by ticking(✓) against your option. Please note that only one option must be ticked in each case.

No.	Perceptions	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
83.	Girls education is important				
84.	Girls education is as important as education of boys				
85.	Girls' education is a good investment				
86.	Sending girls to school deprives family of money gained through child labour				
87.	A girl should not have a long period of schooling				
88.	Long period of schooling will affect the number of children the girl will have later in life				
89.	Long period of schooling will not make girls suitable for marriage				

**Section F**

**Measures Overcome Barriers to Girl-Child Education**

90. What Measure do you think the community should adopt to minimize barriers to girl-child education?

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**APPENDIX B**  
**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION**

**UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST**  
**FACULTY OF EDUCATION**  
**INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATION PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION**

Tel. No. : 042-33824 University of Cape Coast  
Fax No. : 042-30588Cape Coast  
Email : [uccciep@yahoo.co.uk](mailto:uccciep@yahoo.co.uk)Ghana

Our Ref. EP/90.2/217 August 13, 2008

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**LETTER OF INTRODUCTION**

The bearer of this letter, **Mr. Kofi ApeatseOdumis** a graduate student of the Institution for Education Planning and Administration of the University ofCape Coast. He requires some information from your outfit for the purpose of writing a thesis as a requirement of M.Phil degree programme.

I should be grateful if you would allow him to collect the information from your outfit. Kindlygive the necessary assistance that Mr. Odumrequires to collect the information.

While anticipating your cooperation, I thank you for any help that you may be able to give



Mr. Y. M. Anhwere  
Assistance Registrar  
For Director