UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

PARENTAL ATTITUDE TOWARDS GIRLS' EDUCATION AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR COMMUNITY ACTION: THE CASE OF SELECTED COMMUNITIES IN THE CENTRAL REGION

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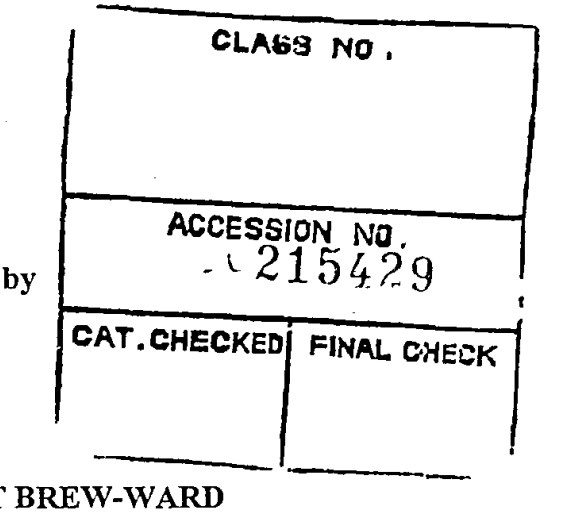
PARENTAL ATTITUDE TOWARDS GIRLS' EDUCATION AND ITS INFLUENCE ON COMMUNITY ACTION: THE CASE OF SELECTED COMMUNITIES IN THE CENTRAL REGION



by

MARGARET BREW-WARD

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NOVEMBER, 2002

CANDIDATE'S DECLARATION

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

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SUPERVISORS' DECLARATION:

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

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DEDICATION

To my father, Mr. C. B. Wood of blessed memory and my mother Mrs. Amatorey who sent me to school; my brothers and sisters, who supported me throughout my education, my children, Jamal and Nadia, I dedicate this thesis.

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ABSTRACT

Girls lag behind boys at all levels of formal education in Ghana. Enrolment, retention, and transition and achievement rates for girls are always lower than that of boys. This means that even many of the girls who are enrolled in school do not complete Junior Secondary School. There is the strong belief that negative parental attitude must be blamed for the low level education of girls. The purpose of the study was, therefore, to examine current parental attitude towards the education of girls as well as to find out what actions communities of the Central Region might undertake to promote girls' education at the basic level.

Through interviews of parents, community opinion leaders, headteachers and Directors of education in both rural and urban areas in selected communities in the Twifo-Hemang-Lower Dentyira and Awutu-Efutu-Senya Districts, the perception of people towards girls' education was examined. Also examined was the basis on which parents decide the sex of child to send to school and parental aspirations for their children especially girls. Finally the study explored the preparedness of communities to take actions that would increase the participation of girls in basic education.

The study revealed that generally parents would want to educate both boys and girls, however when there are other demands on the family's resources that the education of the girl-child is considered a secondary issue. It was also established in the study that parents in urban and rural areas had different aspirations for their girl children. Communities on the whole were willing to institute some measures to promote girls' education. Some of the measures suggested were that communities could form committees to oversee girls' education and educate parents and girls on the importance of girls' education. Communities were also willing to institute awards and scholarships for girls.

Finally, suggestions were made which, if implemented, might improve the current Ghanaian situation. The strategies suggested in the research to be used in promoting girls' education include the establishment of girls' education committees in communities with low female enrolment, the use of social/community mobilization campaigns, institution of scholarship schemes, community participation in education, the use of role models and enacting bye-laws to ensure that girls are not discriminated against. The need for further research was also recommended.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND INFORMATION

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

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

The law regarding basic education in Ghana is that 'every child who has attained the age as determined by the Minister of Education shall attend a course of instruction as laid down by the Minister in a school recognised for the purpose by the Minister'

(Educational Act 1961). The law adds that any parent who fails to comply would be fined and that the school-going age should be between five and sixteen years.

The present system of basic education consists of six years of primary and three years of junior secondary education. These nine years of basic education are supposed to be tuition free and compulsory for all children of school-going age and above.

As a result of the implementation of these policies of universal basic education, general school enrolment has increased in Ghana. In 1987/88 the number of public primary schools was 9,424 and in 1997/98, that is ten years later the number of public primary schools grew to 11,236. Also in 1987/88 the number of public Junior Secondary Schools (J.S.S.) was 5,260 but this grew to 5,571 in 1997/98. Total admission into primary schools rose from 347,196 in 1987/88 to 457,229 in 1997/98. Total admission into J.S.S rose from 180,855 in 1987/88 to 275,377 in 1997/98 (National Education Forum, 1999).

In spite of the significant progress made in the development of education in Ghana, especially since 1951, the level of participation of girls and women in education leaves much to be desired. Even though females constitute a little more than 50% of the population of Ghana, the proportion of literate females is far below that of the males. According to the Ministry Of Education (M.O.E), what is most alarming about the gender disparities in educational participation is that from J.S.S., Senior Secondary School (SSS) to the Tertiary level, not only are girls under-represented but also, the population of girls decrease significantly as they move up on the educational ladder. At the end of the 1994/95 academic year, national data indicated that females constituted 46%, 43%, 35%

and 25% of student population at the primary, J.S.S, S.S.S and tertiary levels of education respectively.

Enrolment (the number of pupils in a class), retention (remaining in school to complete a prescribed programme, in this case Junior Secondary School 3).transition (movement from lower level basic education i.e. primary school to higher level basic education i.e. J.S.S.) and achievement (Performance at Basic Education Certificate Examination) rates are always lower for girls than for boys at all levels. Fewer girls continue to higher levels and comparatively, fewer still achieve higher grades during their examinations. In 1996, 77.8% of girls presented for the Basic Education Certificate Examination had the qualifying aggregate of 06-36 as compared to 80.9% for boys. In 1999, 58.4% of girls presented for the same examination had the qualifying aggregate of 06-30 as compared to 63.5% for boys (M.O.E, 2000).

Recent data from the M.O.E indicate that out of the children (both boys and girls) aged between 6-11years in the country, 82.74%, 85.68%, and 81.54% boys were in basic school in 1987/88, 1991/92 and 1996/97 respectively. The corresponding figures for girls were 68.05%, 72.39%, and 71.54% (M.O.E, 1999). The same source shows that out of a cohort of 100 children who started primary one in 1987/88 academic year, only 50% boys and 44% girls reached J.S.S.3 in 1996/97. This means that more than half (56%) of the girls had dropped out by J.S.S.3.

The data further indicate that the transition rate for girls is also lower. Out of the 56% boys who reached by J.S.S.3, 22% entered S.S.S.1 in 1997/98 and out of the 44% girls who reached J.S.S.3, only 17% entered S.S.S.1 in 1997/98. A closer look at the data above shows that even though more boys than girls enroll in school, more girls dropped-

out (Someone who leaves school before completion of the final grade of Middle School or Junior Secondary School.) than boys.

Data in the National Population Policy document (Revised Edition, 1994:21) showed that as much as 30% of Ghanaian children of primary school-going ages (6-11) were not attending school. The publication added that data from the M.O.E. (1988/94) over a six year period, showed that 36% of boys and 46% of girls had dropped out of school over the six years of primary school yielding a school completion rate of only 60%.

Another disturbing aspect of wastage (the total number of pupil-years spent by repeaters and dropouts. Total wastage merely reflects the drag of repetition and dropout on the flow of promotions within an educational system) phenomenon is the wide regional variation that exists. Whereas only 4% of girls dropped out in primary school in the Greater Accra Region in 1994, the corresponding figures for the Northern and combined Upper Regions were 20% and 18% respectively. Analysis of enrolment data of various levels of basic education showed marked variations among the sexes. At the primary levels, the participation rate of girls ranged between 37% in Northern Region and 49% in the Greater Accra Region. At the J.S.S. level, it ranged between 29% in the Northern Region and 48% in the Greater Accra Region (M.O.E., 1996). The picture becomes more disturbing when the figures of the various districts within the regions are scrutinised.

The same M.O.E, 1996 data, revealed that in the Central Region, districts like Assin Fosu, Upper Denkyira and Twifo-Hemang Lower Denkyira have as many as 417 out of a cohort of 1,000 girls not reaching the top form of primary school. Awutu-Efutu-

Senya and Cape Coast districts, however, have 136 and 166 out of a cohort of 1,000 girls dropping out respectively.

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

In her attempt to address the problem of gender imbalance in participation (enrolment, retention and Achievement of girls) in Education, Ghana has adopted a number of strategies to get more girls in school. The curriculum is also under review to make it more gender sensitive and more relevant to the aspirations of girls. Female teachers are also being enticed with incentives to retain them in rural areas to act as role models to girls and their parents. Another strategy is to operate pilot schemes to equip district assemblies to identify qualified female senior secondary school graduates and sponsor them in teacher training colleges. They would be bonded to teach in their districts after pre-service training. Other strategies outlined include the award of scholarships to needy girls in poor communities, a mandatory rule for all new schools to have urinal and toilet facilities. Existing schools without these facilities would be assisted to provide them to ensure that female pupils and teachers have decent places of convenience.

As part of efforts to solve the problem of low participation of girls in basic education, a National Seminar on Girls Education was held in Accra in June 1995. This attracted participants from districts with very low female enrolment rates, all Regional

Directors of Education, Non-Governmental Organisations and Development Partners. Participants designed key strategies for girls which have been incorporated into the FCUBE programme to achieve gender equality as well as to improve quality, access and relevance of education.

In addition, information and education campaigns are being adopted to sensitize parents about the importance of girls' education and encourage them to invest in girls as they do in boys. Districts (or communities) with low female enrolment rates are being assisted to find solutions to problems that hinder the access of girls to education. Special awards will be instituted for districts that are able to increase enrolment for females appreciably. Scholarship schemes for both boys and girls have been instituted with the aim of solving the problem of high school dropout (Atakpa, 1996). It is believed that a proper execution of these programmes will enable more girls have access to education and also make it possible for them to stay and complete their courses successfully.

The goals set for the promotion of girls' education in Ghana are ambitious and challenging. Their achievement will require the collective effort of policy makers, educators (especially teachers), community leaders, parents and even the girls themselves. District Education Planning Teams have been established in all districts to mobilise communities and sensitize them on their roles and responsibilities in the education of children as far the FCUBE programme is concerned.

Human Resource Development aims at making the individual adaptable to his/her particular environment. A programme that can serve this need is one that ensures that every individual in the community is given an opportunity to develop his/her potential. The starting point in any such programme should be with children. Incidentally, such

children need the active support of their parents and community if they are to take full advantage of existing opportunities.

Parental attitude (an individual's feelings, perceptions and behaviour towards female education as result of learnt beliefs and cultures) towards the education of girls is crucial because it can influence the participation and educational outcomes of children. Therefore, if parental attitude is not favourable, it could hinder the nation's efforts in developing her human resources.

Parental attitude was identified by participants in the Accra Seminar as inhibiting efforts at solving the problem of gender equity in education. It is, therefore not surprising that as part of the strategies designed to solve the problem of low participation of girls in basic education, the participants agreed to adopt participatory learning and appraisal techniques as well as information and education campaign in districts with low female enrolment rates.

An important programme like girls' education deserves special attention because of its current low status. Since females constitute more than half of the population of this country, it will be a costly mistake to neglect them. It has been proven that people who have received some form of formal education perform more efficiently and produce work of higher quality. The availability of literate and numerate women as well as men for work is necessary for rapid industrialization and economic development.

An educated girl is an important asset to the family and society, since she can help herself, other members of the society and also her family. It is also very important that the communities are involved and charged to come out with programmes that will improve girls' participation in basic education.

Odaga and Heneveld (1995) in a draft report on schooling and girls in Sub-Saharan Africa, stated that although poverty is a very real constraint to education and the economic costs of education are prohibitive to some parents, research in Malawi and Uganda suggests that 'lack of money' may in some cases be an excuse for the reluctance of parents to invest in their children's (especially girls') education . Most often, the truth is that they do not percieve the value of education for girls. The socio-cultural perceptions about the role of women in society, also influence their decisions.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The educational reform programme in Ghana, since its inception, has made efforts to get communities involved in the provision of basic education. In this regard, the communities have helped to provide structures whilst the government provides equipment and teachers.

From an operational perspective, the effectiveness of broad involvement in the provision of basic education will depend very much on the commitment of government, education staff and parents, good co-ordination among donors, and the relevance and quality of information from which the programmes are developed (Kane, 1996).Whilst the government and donors are expanding facilities and providing teachers, the willingness of parents to send their children especially girls, to school, keep them there and assist them to achieve is crucial. How parents see their children's education will no doubt affect their children's participation in education. Parental perception of the education of their children is necessary because a persons perception about a thing, all things being equal, influences his/her attitude and behaviour towards it.

A favourable parental attitude has the potential of influencing community-based programmes to improve girls' participation in education, which could serve as the entry point of Human Resource Development (HRD) as it serves as a medium through which the potential in an individual is developed. Such a programme will ensure that girls are helped to get a fair start to enable them develop their potentials.

The Accra Seminar identified reduction in gender disparity in education as a priority target of education goals of the nineties and urged government to take appropriate action on the issue. It, at the same time, acknowledged that whether any approach aimed at gender equity in education may take hold depends as much on changing the attitudes of parents as on the provision of expanded opportunities. Parents have deeply held beliefs about what they regard as culturally appropriate skills for girls, and any attitude that challenge their socially entrenched gender norms is likely to face considerable opposition. As primary transmitters of these norms, parents shape the opportunities of their children through the messages they transmit.

Children's educational outcomes are a reflection of the human capital investment behaviour of parents and families. To a large extent investment decisions are governed by prevailing gender ideologies which may be described as socio-cultural attitudes, behaviour and expectations of women and men (Odaga and Heneveld, 1995).

Where parents offer financial and psychological support, children have a far better chance of completing primary school and progressing to the secondary level, other things being constant (Davison, 1993).

The influence that African parents have on their children's educational opportunities and achievement has attracted the attention of educators in many Third World countries. Parents decide who goes to school and how long a child remains there. Girls' education is significantly impeded by socio-cultural and socio-economic factors related to their families. In fact, as confirmed by Nicola Swanison(1995) parental attitudes concerning education are clearly a key factor in who goes to school since they often help influence the children who go to school and how long they stay there.

Since the introduction of the FCUBE programme in 1996, some work has been done on the causes of low participation of girls in basic education in Ghana. No work has been done so far to assess current parental attitude towards girls' education in order to determine whether the MOE/GES target sets to bring educational parity between boys and girls by the end of 2005 can be met. Consequently, there is the need to find out what current parental attitude towards girls' education is. It is also necessary to find out if their current attitude or perception towards the education of girls would influence them to take action which would or would not help to promote increased participation of girls in education.

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

General Objectives:

The major objective of the study was to examine current parental attitudes towards the education of girls .

To achieve the above stated objective, the study sought specifically to:

1. Examine the perceptions of parents towards the education of girls.

2. Determine the basis on which parents decide the sex of child to send to school.
3. Assess parental opinions on the gender appropriateness of some basic school subjects.
4. Examine the academic and employment aspirations parents had for their children especially girls and what they would do to assist their children to attain these aspirations.
5. Identify the actions parents and community would want to take to increase the participation of girls in education.
6. Find out what communities have done.

1.4 HYPOTHESIS OF THE STUDY

Based on the objectives of the study, a number of hypotheses were formulated and tested.

1. Irrespective of their socio-economic status, parents' perception on their children's education will be more favourably disposed towards sons than towards daughters.

2a. Irrespective of their socio-economic status, parents will have higher educational aspirations for boys than for girls.

2b. Irrespective of their rural or urban location, parents will have higher occupational aspirations for girls.

3. Parents' perception of girls' education will be related to the actions they would be prepared to take to promote increased participation of girls in education.

1.5 RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

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

Consequently, all the efforts the government, development partners and NGOs are putting into promoting girls' education will yield little results if parental attitudes are not addressed. The study has therefore provided guidelines for improving girls participation in basic education through changing people's perceptions. Some of the strategies that can be used in promoting girls' education include the use of social/community mobilisation campaigns and the use of role models.

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

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews literature relevant to the concepts and themes that guided the study. The chapter in addition describes the theoretical framework which guided this research. It also reviews literature related to parental perception of Girls' Education in Ghana and other countries with similar situations.

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Parental attitude is a major factor in children's education, especially that of girls (Odaga and Heneveld 1995, Davison 1993). A favourable parental attitude is likely to bring about an increase in girls' participation in education and vice versa.

To explain how socio - cultural factors influence participation in education, Odaga and Heneveld (1995), used a framework originally developed by Njau and Wamahiu to show how certain social programmes affected the education of girls.

According to Odaga and Heneveld (1995) socio-cultural expectations of girls and the priority given their future roles as mothers and wives have strong negative bearings on their formal educational opportunities. Social-cultural customs and beliefs influence decisions to withdraw them from school , their own decisions to drop-out of school , their academic performance ,and grade level attainment . In fact, they noted that apprenticeships and initiation ceremonies were viewed by society in Malawi , Mozambique , Tanzania , and Kenya as more efficient at preparing girls for their future roles as wives and mothers than the final educational systems . Apprenticeships continue

to provide practical entrepreneurial skills to several young people across the region. Such programmes are popular with parents who often want to ensure that their daughters acquired some practical skills before they got married. Sewing and trading are particularly popular activities for young girls (Akpaka 1992 , Odaga and Heneveld 1995).

Initiation ceremonies continue to play an important educational role in some sub - Saharan African communities . In Malawi some parents are more willing to cover the costs of initiations than they are to cover formal schooling costs (Kapakasa 1992, Odaga and Heneveld 1995) . Evidence from Malawi, again, reveals that initiation brings with it several dilemmas for girls , affecting their attandance and performance and even leading to drop-out . The scheduling of initiation ceremonies conflicts with the school calendar leading to absenteeism from school . Although culturally , initiation marks the passage from childhood , school authorities continue to treat initiated girls who return to school as children , not adults . They expect them to participate in certain activities and also punish them in a manner which is considered inappropriate for adults . Initiated girls also find it difficult to return to formal school or concentrate on their studies because their next expectation is marriage (Grant Levis 1990 , Kapakasa 1992) .

Some initiation ceremonies include circumcision , others do not . Girls and boys who go through initiation ceremonies that include circumcision face similar dilemmas as researched for Malawi . In Kenya for instance , initiation circumcision ceremonies are schedued to take place during school holidays , but the process begins earlier , leading to absenteeism from school . Once children are circumcised they percceive themselves as adults. On returning to school they have a negative attitude to their uncircumcised teachers, especially female teachers, and they become undisciplined. There is also a sharp

decline in their academic performance and are likely to play traunt and eventually drop-out of school (Gichanu 1993, Nanguarai 1994, Wamahu 1994). The inter-relationship between initiation ceremonies, brideprice and early marriage and early drop-out by pupils is amply demonstrated in the (Njau and Wamahu 1994) framework.This framework assumes that parents see the initiation ceremonies as important way of preparing girls for their future roles as mothers/wives in society and thetrfore value education as a secondary matter. Since parents are interested in collecting brideprice they encourage their daughters to marry early and, hence, dropout of school.

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

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

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

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

To explain this, Rugh (2000), categorised factors affecting parental attitudes about girls schooling under three main headings: Parents background and characteristics, the costs and benefits parents see in education, and the general norms and practices of the community that affects parents' attitudes about schooling. According to Rugh certain background characteristics of parents have been shown in a number of studies to be correlated with educational participation. The three most important are economic level, parental education, and place of residence.

One of the most important predictors of education participation, both enrolment and completion, is the relative economic level of the households from which children come. According to this writer, research studies by Filmer (1999) have shown that fewer children of the poor complete grade one, while more children of the wealthy do so.

Therefore when households' incomes are low, girls are the most affected. However, it has been stressed that poverty did not differently affected the participation of girls and boys in mosque schools in Pakistan. Also in Egypt, poor urban boys drop out at or before the end of primary school to earn income or learn skilled trades while girls remain in school with hopes of qualifying for respectable civil service jobs.

Again according to Rugh, another important characteristic of parental background is educational status. To the writer, though most studies dealing with this factor report that it is the education of the mother that is an important predictor of whether a girl goes to or stays in school, fathers may also have some effect. Miske and Prouty (1997) report that daughters of educated women are as much as 40 percent more likely to enroll in school. Filmer (1999), using Demographic and Health Survey data in India, Nepal and Pakistan, showed that both the average level of education attainment and the maximum number of years of schooling completed by household adults aged 20 - 64 have statistically significant effects on the educational participation of children. The marginal effect of increasing the average years of schooling of female adults in the household by one year, e.g., increased the chances of children's enrolment between one and 6 percentage points.

Another strong predictor of overall, and in particular girls' enrolment is place of residence (i.e urban or rural residence of their families). Where information is available, all measures of participation and attainment show consistently more positive outcomes in urban areas. These indicators include enrolment, dropout, completion, and, often, even achievement. Urban parents are more likely to feel the importance of schooling for both boys and girls. For them the benefits of education are obvious and the constraints fewer,

schools are nearby, the household work load is less, community norms favour education, and employment opportunities are more widespread and visible.

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

"The costs of schooling" almost always appear prominently in lists of reasons for non-enrollment or limited participation. The costs that deter poorer children from attending school are well known, and include such expenses as school fees, clothing (including uniforms and shoes), supplies, textbooks, snack foods, transportation, and in some cases after-school tutoring. Though some costs may seem normal, such as clothing and shoes, they are always so. A school child may be expected to wear a dress in poor families and may have to wear shoes when they might otherwise go barefoot. Parents may give children pocket money or buy them special kinds of food to school. Although not always absolutely necessary, these costs may be considered part of the expense of schooling, in order that children "will not be shamed in front of others." Girls' expenses often exceed those of boys if uniforms are required.

Rugh in addition wrote that when primary and secondary enrollments declined in Tanzania in the 1990s and educators discovered children starting school on average much later (at about age 10), a study was conducted to investigate the effect of costs on school-going. The study found that the private returns to schooling had declined significantly during this period. Parents also saw dramatic differences between the still-affordable cost

of primary and the no-longer-affordable cost of secondary for poor families. According to Rugh the authors concluded that even if more places were provided, without subsidization, the costs of secondary school were high enough to discourage enrollment at both levels, since the returns of primary schooling were not enough without secondary schooling.

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

The length of children's schooling is related to parents' expectations about the benefits of each stage. Most parents recognize two qualitatively different levels of effort and benefit in formal education. The first - primary or basic education - confers basic literacy and numeracy skills. A parent may withdraw a child from primary school when functional skills seem well-enough developed if there is little expectation that the child will continue to higher stages. Encouraging a child to complete primary school may indicate commitment to completing higher levels of education and the added efforts and expense (tutoring, fees, etc.) of passing national promotional exams. A parent may also withdraw a child before the end of the primary level because "education didn't take" - that is, no apparent learning went on - either because the programme was poor or the child lacked the capability to succeed in the system.

To Rugh, community resistance can sometimes be overcome by costing the benefits of education in terms of its contribution to the well being of all family members rather than to the well-being of the educated girls only. One of the significant constraints recognized in the literature has been the lower private returns on the investment in girls' education. Girls and their parents in many cases do not see their opportunities measurably expanded by education. Argument about the important social returns to the country in improved development indicators are not convincing to family members who care more about immediate as opposed to hypothetical future benefits.

Community norms and practices, according to Rugh, also influence communities expectation of sex roles. As with cultural belief, beliefs about social roles are assimilated from childhood. Parents are especially affected by local views of how education affects the marriage chances of girls and may not be interested in keeping girls in school. Rugh cautioned against the use of religion notably Islam or Christianity on the education of girls differs from place to place.

The writer continued that there is a strong association between education and employment and this has made it difficult for rural parents to see why girls' would benefit from schooling beyond the primary level. Employment occupies a central place in parents' minds when considering the benefits of education. In many contexts that means that boys are automatically considered to need the skills of education more than girls do. The discussion so far, reveals that both Odaga and Heneveld on one hand and Rugh on the other, offer useful insight into parental attitude towards girl' education. However, Rugh's more suited to this study. An adaption of the major assumptions of Rugh's framework will, therefore guide the study. This framework has been adapted to suit this

study. The new framework is different from the old one because the new one did not take into consideration cost education as a reason for non-enrolment and non-attendance. The main assumptions is that girls' participation in education largely depends on positive parental attitude. Though parental attitude is on its own, it is also influenced by a number of factors, some of which are immediate and while others are remote. Socio-cultural and socio-ecnomic factors may consequently influence parental attitude and, hence, the enrolment, retention and transition of girls in school.

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

2.2 MATRILINEAL AND PATRILINEAL DIVIDE

Matrilineality refers to a system whereby an individual traces his/her descent to the mothers lineage. He/she, consequently, inherits from the mother's side. Patrilineality, on the otherhand is a system whereby an individual traces his/her descent to the father's side. In tradional Ghanaian society, matrilineality and patrilineality play a vital role in the lines of individuals by influencing many major decisions they make. In such societies, the individual's line of descent and inheritance could influence his/her marriage, apprenticeship, place of residence and, even, who he/she respects in society.

In recent times, however, there has been a tendency towards families becoming more nuclear, thereby limiting the influence of matrilineality and patrilineality to some

extent. In fact, as Gough wrote in 1961, wrote that matrilineal descent groups have been shown to "break down" in modern conditions. Matrilocal, extended family patterns of residence, avuncular authority and above all corporate lineage structure and property ownership tend to go by the board. She attributed this process to the absorption of the traditional social systems in the modern market system based on private property, modern industry, fuel technology, and wage labour under the overriding influence of colonial domination. She continued that the consequence is that forms of familial organisation - built upon descent groups and kinship values- patrilineal as well as matrilineal - tend to disintegrate, with the matrilineal form being, however, the most vulnerable owing to its lesser compatibility with modern social and economic changes (Oppong, Ed 1974).

Fortes however argued that Gough's assertion implies that the type of familial organisation most compatible with modern conditions is one based on the conjugally centred nuclear family living separately as an economically and legally independent unit under the authority and responsibility of the husband - father. Another implication according to Fortes is that the nuclear family pattern is replacing the traditional descent and kinship based patterns and will do so increasingly in response to modern social and economic change.

Fortes disagrees with Gough's argument and states that the past decade however, has provided evidence through field researches that matrilineal institutions are by no means obsolete, and that the conjugal nuclear family is by no means becoming dominant form in the social structure of Akan communities today. He agrees that the institutions have undergone some modifications but the norms and patterns of matrilineal family

organisation and those of other family systems, remains firmly entrenched (Oppong, Ed 1974).

He also concluded that matrilineal succession is still the dominant norm among the Fante, in marked contrast to the patrilineal Ewe. He finally concluded that in the rural Akan communities of Ghana matrilineal patterns and norms of family organisation and management still generally prevail and have not been ousted by the patterns and norms of the conjugal family.

Writing on the position of maternal relatives in the kinship system of the Ewes, Tom Kumekpor (Oppong, Ed 1974)) stated that the Ewes are classified in the anthropological literature as a patrilineal society. This is accepted by Ewes themselves and supported by most of their institutional practices. However, this statement needs some qualification in view of the co-existence with, or the acceptance of maternal relatives in, a so-called patrilineal kinship system. Due to the recognition of matrilineal relations in a patrilineal kinship system, some puzzled students of Ewe inheritance system has described it as a "joint matrilineal/patrilineal", "mixed system of descent", or "a diverging transmission", of property.

Christensen (1954) wrote about the double descent among the Fanti and concluded that though Fantis like most Akan societies are matrilineal, there is recognition of patrilineal descent in some social institutions. In fact he implied that while one belongs to the mothers clan, that same person joins the Asafo Company of the fathers descent.

The arguments above show clearly that there is no clear-cut distinction between matrilineal and patrilineal systems in the country. It also shows that these systems are disintegrating due to modernisation. It is therefore unlikely that these systems will

influence parents perception and hence attitude towards girls' education. Also the study area is considered to be largely matrilineal which Gough said is disintergrating. As a result of the above arguments, matrilineal and patrilineal divide will not be considered in examining current parental attitudes towards the education of girls.

2.3 IMPORTANCE OF FEMALE EDUCATION IN DEVELOPMENT

Education, especially formal education, is a powerful agent of progress. The formal educational system is the major institutional mechanism for developing critical human skills and knowledge. It is, thus, a key element in promoting economic growth, social equity and over-all national development. Education helps to develop the potential in individuals so as to make them useful to themselves and the society as a whole. Thus, education leads to the development of "the whole person" by developing their intellectual, affective character and psycho-motor skills (Anyamu, 1994)

Invariably, it is the human resources of a nation, more than its physical and material resources, which ultimately determine the character and pace of its economic and social development. In fact, as stated by Harbinson (1973 :3), "human resourees constitute the ultimate basis for the wealth of nations. Capital and natural resources are passive factors of production: human beings are the active agents who accumulate capital, and exploit natural resources, build social, economic and political organisations, and carry forward national development. Clearly a country which is unable to develop the skills and knowledge of its people and to utilise them effectively in the national economy will be unable to develop anything else".

Human resource development is a process through which people develop attitudes and acquire knowledge and skills. Education has proved to be the single most prominent factor in the development of these attitudes, knowledge and skills.

Education affects productivity and growth through several channels. One such channel is the change in attitudes and perceptions that people develop. A better educated person absorbs new information faster and applies unfamiliar inputs and new processes more effectively. He/she is receptive to new ideas and processes and is able to apply these to specific circumstances and environment. It is reported in the World Development Report (1991), that in Peru, farmers who had an additional year of schooling increased their probability of adopting modern farm technology by 45%. Also, in Thailand, farmers with four years of schooling were three times more likely to use new chemical inputs than farmers with one to three years of schooling.

Especially in jobs which require quick evaluation of new information and fast reactions, formal education prompts adaptability to momentary changes. Thus education improves productivity and affects output which also leads to increase in the national income.

Studies have also illustrated the link between education and improved production. According to Psacharopoulos and Woodhall (1985), a World Bank survey of eighteen low-income countries on the relationship between formal education and agricultural productivity or efficiency measured in terms of crop yield showed that farmers who had completed four years of schooling had productivity of 8.7% higher than their counterparts with no schooling. Thus, all things being equal, farmers with higher education are likely to have higher productivity than those who drop out earlier. Schooling, according to

Eisemon (1988), may also increase productive capacities by equipping individuals with skills valued in wage/salary employment and/or related to agricultural production that uses the products and processes of modern technology. Productivity increases are greatest for those with at least a primary school education. Instruction in academic subjects may be more effective than pre-vocational training in so far as employment and measures of productivity are concerned.

The International Monetary Fund (IMF), in "The Comparative Education Review" (Vol. 32, No. 1:99), observed in 1991 that one lesson from the past is that the economies such as Japan and South Korea which committed themselves to education and training made great strides in both human development and economic growth . According to the same publication, Asia's four little Tigers (i.e. Hong Kong, South Korea, Taiwan and Singapore) had something in common prior to industrial "take-Off" and that was the high level of access to elementary education or primary schooling. Of the four countries, Taiwan as at 1965, had the lowest enrolment figure (97.15%). The general effect of the expansion of primary schooling was the availability of literate and numerate women as well as men for the work force at the time of rapid industrialisation (ibid: 95-104). This means that if parental perception and attitude to girls' education are favourable it is likely to bring about higher level of literate women to participate effectively in a modern economy. The importance or benefits of female education to socio-economic development of a nation can not be over-emphasised. The literature has clearly shown that real development cannot occur if females are not part of the development process. Since the nation can not leave her female population behind in terms of education, then parental perception and attitude which is a central issue when

girls' education is concerned must be looked at again and the means of promoting it explored.

School literacy, as the Asian Tigers' experience shows, also fosters profound cognitive changes in the ability to employ and manipulate formal logical structures in reasoning with and from printed texts. Four to six years of schooling are thought to be necessary to make literacy permanent. Literacy skills are not lost when an individual leaves school but the level of mastery of these skills in school will influence competence in literacy tasks in later life.

The evidence above shows that people who receive some form of education perform more efficiently and produce work of higher quality. Rising expectations and social demand for education and other goods and services replace fatalistic acceptance of poverty. Consequently, it is not surprising that years of research on the external efficiency of educational investments in developing countries have produced a persuasive rationale for expanding access to schooling and raising levels of educational attainment. Schooling, as recognised by Eisemon (1988), has been associated with many outcomes. Some of these outcomes are rationalistic and empirical attitudes that are conducive to participation in modern institutions of production and governance. They also include profound cognitive changes resulting from the use of written language and facilitating adoption and use of new technologies. Involvement in the market economy, leading to increased earnings and higher levels of productivity in agriculture and wage employment, and lower fertility rates, good nutritional practices and better health are other outcomes Eisemon identified.

Available evidence, again indicates that women's education plays an important role in child care, especially in relation to infant mortality levels. School participation improves health and lowers fertility mainly through strengthening the effects of other factors associated with schooling. High rates of school participation and relatively high levels of educational attainment (full primary and lower secondary schooling) are associated with reductions in fertility and infant mortality and with increases in life expectancy (Comparative Education Review: 63-64). Also according to a 1994 World Bank publication titled "Better Health in Africa", household surveys in Ghana, Nigeria and Sudan show that the single most important influence on child survival is the level of a mother's education. Again, it reports that data for thirteen African countries between 1975 and 1985 show that a 10% increase in female literacy rates reduced child mortality by 10%, whereas changes in male literacy had little influence on child mortality. The effect of a mother having attained secondary-level education may contribute to lowering the infant mortality in a given family by as much as 50%.

Women with more education marry and start having children later, make better use of information that will improve personal hygiene and the health of their children. Women's literacy enables a better use of family planning and results in a fall in birth rates. According to Ballara (1992), in a study carried out by the Demographic Health Survey (DHS) in 1990 in twenty-eight countries in Africa, Latin America and the Carribean, Asia and the Arab States, the tendency for smaller families increased with the educational level of women. Thus, education helps slow down population growth as reported in the Education for All, 2000, UNESCO. According to this publication, education, especially if it is accompanied by other measures to reduce poverty, is the

most powerful single factor in moderating population growth. The report further, stressed that basic education especially for women, tends to raise the age of marriage (and thereby postpone child bearing), decreases the desired family size and boost family planning efforts. The State of the World Population (1990) confirmed that the results of studies carried out in forty-six countries indicated that a 1% increase in women's literacy rate is three times more effective in reducing infant mortality than a 1% increase in the number of doctors.

Ballara (1992) reports again that a study carried out in 1990 in eight developing countries indicated that an increase of 70% in girls' enrolment in primary schools, together with comparable growth in secondary education, would after twenty years result in a decrease in the infant mortality rate of 40 per 1,000 live births. Primary and Secondary education for women would contribute to a continuation of this decrease, over and above other relevant development inputs such as increased per capita income, level of urbanisation, medical facilities and male enrolment. Also, as women's level of education rises, the number of malnourished children declines. The 1990 Demographic Health Survey of Guatemala, where only 65% of the women have some level of education, found that the percentage of stunted infants aged three to thirty-five months is relatively more than that of Tobago, where women have higher level of education. In short, according to research findings, educated girls and women among other things are more likely to slow down population growth, earn higher incomes, increase productivity, promote faster Gross National Production, lower fertility, lower infant mortality, and improved nutrition.

In spite of the benefits above, the rural areas of most developing countries are characterised by greater primary school repetition and attrition among both sexes but especially so for girls. Studies conducted in Africa, Asia, the Middle East, and Latin America show that girls are more likely than boys to drop out before completing their primary school, especially in rural areas. Even where enrolment for girls is high, dropout rates are usually also high, so that much of the initial gain is lost. Stromquist (1990), quoting UNESCO, reported that the proportion of illiterate women is increasing. In 1960, 58% of the adult illiterate were women, by 1970 this proportion had increased to 60%, and by 1985 it had reached 63%. Female illiteracy in 1985 was 65% in Africa (Comparative Education Review, Vol.34, No.1:95). Stromquist added that many present illiterates were once enrolled in school but were not able to complete the primary school cycle.

2.4 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE SCHOOL ENROLMENT

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

It is established in "Children and Women of Ghana" (Government of Ghana, 1990:60), that the most significant cause of non-enrolment is poverty (that is, inability of poor households to pay for education or, in the worst cases, provide food and shelter to their children). The economic dimension of school enrolment has been explored in a number of small-scale studies which give an idea of the extent of the problem. A survey

by Owusu (1987) in Kumasi in the Ashanti Region on "The socio-economic factors that push juveniles into early employment" indicated that 44% needed money for various school expenses (textbooks, fees and school uniforms) while 27% had engaged in trading to supplement the household budget.

Hafiz (1991) also concluded that the child-labour practice being perpetuated by the generally low income of the majority of the people is the major factor contributing to low school enrolment. Kwaff (1994) in his research also revealed that at senior level, schools in the area of study (Apewosika and Elmina) were unable to provide J.S.S. education to all who qualified for admission due to lack of physical facilities. As a result, 31.7% of the students are sent into the streets every year. According to him, an important criteria that accounts for students' prompt admission into J.S.S. is parents' ability to pay in full the school fees for the first term.

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

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

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

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

However, he cautions that there are limitations to these factors. For instance an expanding school system requires an ever-increasing number of adequately trained teachers. Even if there were no increase in total enrolment, a school system must recruit new teachers every year to replace its losses due to death, retirement, etc. Also unless and until present needs for school buildings and related facilities can be met adequately, further expansion in terms of pupil enrolment cannot be envisaged because it will only aggravate existing problems.

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

Naik, attributed the reasons for low enrolment in India to the absence of strong social demand for it among the poor people and the other sections of the society. Being

uneducated and illiterate, they do not see any advantage in being literate or attending school. To him, this is due to general irrelevance of the school programme to its environment or to the future life of children. Most of them, therefore, regard education as an undesirable activity which alienates children without fitting them for an alternative and improved way of life.

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

Kwaff (1994), on his part, concluded after a research in two communities in the Central Region that a major factor that affects school enrolment in the two localities is that the fisherfolk have no regard for formal school education and so they do not encourage their children to go to school. He continued that co-incidentally, parents and siblings of about 90% of all the interviewees were once victims of school dropout cases.

The literature above on factors that affect school enrolment show that economically, socially, culturally and religiously girls' are at a disadvantage and if no conscious effort is made to improve their participation in education the problem will persist and the benefit of education discussed above will elude this country.

2.5 ATTITUDE OF PARENTS TO THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS

In reviewing researches on girls' education in Ghana, Boakye (1997), stated that the most fundamental factor affecting girls' education in Ghana is the rather low

parental/community attitude towards educating girls. The literature shows that while the low attitude may be a factor on its own, it may itself be the product of other factors which may be social, economic, cultural and religious

Literature on parental attitude towards girls' education shows that most of the causes of non-enrolment, low enrolment, high dropout rates and low achievement among girls in schools are socio-economic and cultural and underneath is gender roles. Culturally, many parents have a gender preference for the boy-child than for the girl-child. They believe that the economic returns on the boy-child are higher since he will growup to look after them in their old age, whereas the girl-child will eventually get married and belong to the husband's family. Consequently, the boy-child is sent to school while the girl-child is made to stay at home and learn skills like housecrafts or cooking; skills she will need to support her husband when she eventually becomes a housewife. Even where such parents have gainful employment and income and support all their children in school, they are very often apathetic in sending their daughters to school (Boakye 1997, CAMFED 1996, Agyeman-Mensah 1994, FAWE, Odaga and Heneveld 1995).

Socio-cultural beliefs define gender roles for males and females. These make females responsible for childbearing and caring and home keeping as well. Males are supposed to work and take care of the wife and children financially. Males are also supposed to care for their parents in their old age. This does not encourage parents to send their girls to school. Hence from early ages in life, girls are taught and trained in how to take care of babies and the home (Agyeman-Mensah,1994). As a result of socio-cultural influence when the family's income reduces or is inadequate, it is the girl-child

who is used to make extra income to supplement in order to take care of the boys. If any member of the extended family needs help in the home, it is the girl who is released by parents for such chores because she already has the skills.

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

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

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

Boakye (1997), reported that religious barriers also contribute to low parents' attitude. Religious values concerning the need to protect female virginity leads Muslim parents to disregard girls education where it involves girls leaving home, particularly, after primary school, to stay in places where parents lose their control over their girls' supervision (Agyeman-Mensah 1994, Odaga and Heneveld 1995, FAWE).

2.6 PARENTAL ASPIRATION FOR GIRLS

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

Poor attitude of parents in sending their daughters to school may originate from the rather low opportunities opened to girls in the job market. In her work "Gender Inequalities and Access to the Labour Market in Ghana", Juliana Osei in Boakye (1997), used employment data from the 1984 population census to demonstrate that though a greater percentage of the Ghanaian labour force are females, majority of the females are illiterates, mostly self-employed and concentrated in the sectors that command weak rewards in terms of wages, authority and prestige. She concluded that parents know this and may not be very enthusiastic to send their daughters to school. This is also confirmed by Odaga and Heneveld(1995)in their work on schooling and girls' in Sub-Saharan Africa. The research concluded that across the region formal education has historically been linked to employment opportunities in the labour market, particularly in the civil service. As a result of this, families tend to judge the value of education on the basis of the returns from the labour market. Since historically, girls have been excluded from education and the formal labour market, many families find it prudent to invest in boys because boys are always better placed to explore any formal labour market opportunities.

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

2.7 COST OF EDUCATING GIRLS

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

It was further noted that a major problem for girls' school attendance (rarely mentioned in research findings) is their lack of underwear and sanitary protection when menstruating. Girls also need clothes in good condition to protect their modesty. Secondly, girls are very capable in agricultural and domestic work because they are taught from an early age the skills of running a rural household and are a help to parents if at home, whereas boys are less skilled and often become increasingly difficult for their mothers to control (Davision 1993, CAMFED 1996). Parents especially mothers, therefore rely more on girls to help in domestic and agriculture work which do not allow time for schooling. Parents who can not afford to provide fitting uniforms for their daughters may not enroll them at all or will let them drop out of school.

According to Odaga and Heneveld(1995) child labour is indispensable to the survival of several households making the opportunity cost of sending children to school high. They also concluded that despite the importance of child labour for agricultural, domestic and marketing tasks, when it comes to child care, girls are more likely to be involved than boys and children in the rural areas spend more time working than those in

urban areas. Generally in Ghana, girls are used as free labour by parents to provide services like cooking, washing, fetching water, looking after small children and helping on the farm. This practice militates strongly against the full participation of girls in education. The pattern is strongest in the deprived areas. Also the fostering culture in the country allows parents to give their girls to relatives in urban areas as house helps (Davision 1993, Boakye 1997).

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

It can be inferred from the literature above that the issue of girls' education is largely due to parental perception and attitude and if this is not changed or modified, the gap between boys and girls in education will remain forever. The solution to this problem lies in the community and with the parents.

2.8 EXAMPLES OF COMMUNITY PROJECTS TO IMPROVE GIRLS' PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION

It was beyond the scope of this research to collect data on the operation of formal and non-formal girls' education programmes not only because of financial and time constraints but also because of the absence of these programmes in the area of study. Literature, however, exists to lend support to cost effectiveness of non-formal girls' education programmes in other developing countries. From the examples given, it is

evident that non-formal programmes being operated in some Third world countries have not only been cost effective but have also offered more girls the opportunity to acquire formal education in the end.

PAKISTAN:

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

In a research conducted by Thomas (1996), in Balochistan, Pakistan, it was found that community participation is an important variable in determining girls' enrolment in primary school. He examined whether and to what extent and how community impacts on girls' schooling outcomes in Balochistan. In all, 106 schools were selected for the survey. Fifty-seven of these schools were established and managed with parents participation in the selection of teachers, school building and school promotion and monitoring. Forty-nine had no community participation. According to him results of the qualitative research suggest that community participation is associated with many changes in the

schooling environment which in turn influence outcomes. Specifically, participation helps to make schools more economical, improves teacher and administrator accountability, fosters a sense of "ownership" over the school, increases teacher commitment and motivation, helps to build trust between government and communities, and between schools and parents and enables a government-community partnership needed to run the school.

Even though this project was not aimed specifically at improving girls' participation in education, it succeeded, all the same, in getting more girls to participate in education.

INDIA:

The Action-Research Project For Universal Primary Education by The Indian Institute Of Education, based in Pune District (1979-85) has been widely recommended for its success in inducting into the educational process children between 9-14 years, mostly girls, from backward areas who had either not enrolled ever in school or dropped out of it.

The project selected five areas in Pune district, representing typical climatic conditions. In each area, a team of one Research Officer and two Project Assistants was stationed in a convenient and fairly large village. A group of about twenty contiguous villages and hamlets was selected in each area for organising part-time non-formal education classes. The total number of the 9-14 age-group children admitted to attend classes came to 4332 in three batches each of two years duration.

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

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

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

In the non-formal classes, the enrolment of girls increased to the extent that it came as a big surprise to the project staff. It became obvious that parents motivated their children because it did not interfere with the daily routine of the girls and it helped them to use their evenings to get some education.

The project expected educational achievements of three types. Language and mathematics as a basis for further studies, competence in observation, argument and reasoning as essential to understanding, organising and carrying out developmental tasks, and social skills and attitudes required for effective community life. At the time of the study, it had not been possible so far to study achievements in mathematics and language.

It was concluded at the end of the project that the reasons for non-enrolment and dropout of rural children, particularly girls, are mainly two. Firstly, indifference of the educational system to the needs and difficulties of the children, and, secondly, cultural, social and economic constraints which have not yet been clearly noted and dealt with by educational planners and administrators.

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

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

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

2.9 CONCLUSION

The Literature reviewed show that parental perception is influenced largely by their socio-cultural and economic background. The literature also show that perception influences attitude, therefore, poor parental perception of girls' education for instance, would affect parental attitude towards girls' education negatively. On the other hand, a favourable parental perception would most likely lead to a favourable attitude which would also translate into actions in favour of improving girls' participation in education. The literature again shows that parental perception also influences their aspirations for

their daughters. A favourable parental attitude has the ability to influences community-based programmes, which will improve girls' participation in education.

In summary, the literature reviewed showed that parental perception of the importance of education for girls influence what attitude they adopt towards girls and the aspirations they may have for their girl-children. Eventually, these would influence the kind of action they take to promote it.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter gives details of the research procedures used in the collection and analysis of data. It also presents a brief profile of the study area.

3.1 STUDY DESIGN

The study was an exploratory survey which looked at how socio-economic characteristics of the respondents, especially their place of residence as well as educational and occupational status relate to their perceptions and behaviour towards girls education. The study also involved a systematic collection of data on how the respondents' perception of girls' education relates to their actions either in favour of or against sending girls to school .The research design employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches in collecting and analysing responses.

3.2 THE STUDY AREA

The study was conducted in the Awutu-Efutu-Senya and the Twifo-Hemang-Lower Denkyira Districts out of the twelve districts in the Central Region of Ghana. Of the two districts, Awutu-Ewutu-Senya has more urban settlements. The people of the districts are mainly Akan-speaking people.

These two districts were purposively chosen because while Twifo-Heman-Lower Denkyira has the second highest Primary school girls' dropout rate in the region Awutu-Efutu-Senya has the lowest dropout rate among primary school girls in the region.

Secondly, these districts fall within the two agric-ecological zones of the region, namely, the coastal and forest belts.

Due to logistics and financial constraints, it was not possible to cover the entire districts. Two communities were selected for the study in each district (one urban and one rural community). These were Twifo-Praso, Twifo-Mampong, Winneba and Mfafo. Twifo-Praso and Winneba were chosen because they have urban characteristics whilst the choice of Twifo-Mampong and Mfafo were influenced by their rural characteristics.

Twifo-Hemang-Lower Denkyira has a population size of about 107,787. Twifo Praso which is the district capital has a population of about 8,790. The district has a hospital, basic schools and two Senior Secondary Schools (SSS). One of the SSS is government assisted and the other is private. There is electricity in Twifo-Praso and sources of water for the town are pipe-borne water and bore hole. Twifo-Praso is about 75km from Cape Coast.

Twifo-Mampong has a population size of about 2,528 and has no hospital. It has a basic school and no SSS. There is electricity in the town and sources of water are pipe-borne water and bore hole. Twifo-Mampong is about 10 km from Twifo-Praso on the main Cape Coast - Twifo-Praso road.

Mfafo is in the Awutu-Efutu-Senya district. It is located about 5 km away from Obra-Kyere on the Bawjiase-Swedru road. It has one primary and JSS school. There is no electricity in the community. There is a bore hole which serves as the main source of water for the community members. The nearest health post is about 5 km away.

Winneba is the district capital and can be located off the Accra-Cape Coast highway. It has a population of over 9,000. There are over ten basic schools (both public

and private) in the town. There is one major SSS in the town in addition to a secretarial and some private post-basic schools. The town also has a university. The main source of water for the people is pipe borne. There is an electricity in the town including a hospital too. The town has an urban outlook and the inhabitants engage in teaching, trading and the provision of various services besides some farming.

3.3 STUDY POPULATION

The study population for the main interview was all adults (parents) in the selected communities. Other groups interviewed included District Directors of Education in the two districts and headteachers in the selected communities. Opinion leaders who live in the selected communities were also targets for the group discussion.

3.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

From each of the four communities selected for the study, twenty adults (parents) were interviewed. The random sampling method was used. Households were enumerated and sampled. This method made the selection of respondents more representative and probabilistic. Quota sampling was also used to ensure equal representation of men and women. Data was also collected through group discussions.

The sex of respondents was purposively chosen for equal representation to ensure that both sexes express their views and also to create awareness among women that they are equally responsible for the education of their daughters. In all forty men and forty women were interviewed in both urban and rural localities.

The people in the group discussions numbered thirty-two. The group in each community was equally represented by men and women and included chiefs, sub-chiefs, elders, women leaders, school management committee members and ordinary residents. People in this category were selected through the purposive sampling method for group discussions in each community. These were people selected based on their position in the communities as town development committee members, leaders of women's groups, assemblymen/women, chiefs or religious leaders. The research team always insisted on equal representation of women and men in the groups.

The views of eight headteachers (two from each of the four communities used in the study) were also sought to cross-check information given by parents in the main interview and, in some cases, to offer additional information. Since the research is basically on education, the District Directors of Education in the two districts forming the study area were also interviewed.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION TECHNIQUES AND INSTRUMENTS

The research used both primary and secondary data. The secondary data consisted of official statistics and other information like dropout rates in the selected districts obtained from the records of the regional and districts offices of the Ghana Education Service.

Primary data was collected through interviews and group discussions. The basic data collection instrument for the study was the interview schedule (mostly open-ended questions). Four different sets of interview schedules were administered in each of the four communities (one for parents, one for community headteachers, one for the district

directors of education and another for the group discussions). In each group discussion, there were two facilitators. Whilst one facilitator moderated the discussion, the other recorded the responses. Where there were disagreements, the majority view was taken.

As stated earlier under "sampling procedure", group discussions were used to complement the responses of the main respondents and to seek more information on the people's perception and behaviour towards the education of girls. The views of the opinion leaders were also sought through group discussions to find their ability, willingness and readiness to undertake programmes to promote girls' education.

3.6 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSIS

Data gathered from the study was edited and coded and later analysed using the computer software statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS) with facilities for descriptive statistics, cross - tabulations and frequency distributions.

Analysis of the field data involved describing, summarising and interpreting data obtained from each study unit. Cross tabulations and frequency distributions were obtained for this purpose. The Chi-square test was carried out on the data to determine whether differences between place of residence, educational background and occupation of respondents were statistically significant to influence responses of respondents and, hence, the conclusions of the study. The purpose of these tests were to find out whether a persons place of residence, educational background and occupation had a relationship with respondents perception of girls' education. The group discussions were analysed on the spot. The consensus reached was recorded. Where there were disagreements, the majority view was taken. Immediately after each group discussion the raw field notes

were transformed into a well organised set of notes and ordered in relation to the objectives of the research. The consensus reached in the Group discussions were used to either confirm buttress issues or concerns raised by the other respondents in the interviews.

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

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

3.7 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study was conducted in the Cape Coast district in July, 1997, to pre-test the data collection techniques and instruments. It was also used to test data processing and analysis procedures. The study took place at Siwudu and Bakano, both in Cape Coast Municipality. In all ten respondents were interviewed and their responses were

analysed manually. Each interview lasted for about forty-five minutes. This district was chosen because it is situated between the selected districts for the main study. The results were analysed as basis to review the instruments for data collection. Bakano and Siwdu were used because they had different background characteristics. Whilst majority of the people of Bakano are formal sector employees, those of Siwdu are self-employed.

3.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was basically a qualitative one. It also involved an identification and exploration of related variables that explained the nature of the problem under investigation which is parental attitude towards Girls' Education and its implications for community action.

The main limitation of the study was that respondents were not randomly selected, but, were chosen because of the characteristics they possessed. For example parents were chosen because they had children. Random sampling would have been more difficult due to the absence of a sampling frame. It would have also required much more time than the researcher had.

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

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISUSSIONS

This chapter is about the findings and discussions. The chapter is organized into five main sections. These are respondents' background characteristics, respondents perception about girls' education, parental aspirations for girls, parental and community action towards the education of girls, suggestions by respondents and respondents' awareness of ministry of education action to promote girls' education.

4.1 Respondents' Background

The ages of the respondents ranged from twenty years to sixty-five years (Table 4.1.1). The table below shows that 49% of the respondents aged between 20-39 years whilst 51% were 40 years and above.

Table 4.1.1 : Age Distribution of the Respondents

Age Group	No. of Respondents	Percentage
20-39 years	39	49
40 years and above	41	51
Total	80	100

Source: Field Survey, 1997

The educational background of respondents was also analysed and presented in Table 4.1.2.

Table 4.1.2: Educational Distribution of Respondents

Educational Background	No. of Respondents	Percentage
No formal education	11	14
Basic level education	43	54
Secondary education and above	26	32
Total	80	100

Source: Field Survey, 1997

Eleven of them making (14%) fourteen percent of all the respondents had no formal education, 43 respondents (54%) had basic-level education while 26 of them (32%) had a minimum of secondary school education and above.

The occupational distribution of respondents showed the groupings presented in Table 4.1.3.

Table 4.1.3 : Occupational Distribution of the Respondents

Occupational Background	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Unemployed/seeking employment	6	8
Self-employed	41	51
Salaried workers	33	41
Total	80	100

Source: Field Survey, 1997

Of the eighty respondents, 6 (8%) were either unemployed or seeking employment, 41 (51%) were self-employed while 33 (41%) were salaried workers.

It is expected that respondents background characteristics like place of residence, education and employment will influence their perception of girls' education and educational and employment aspirations for girls. These variables will also influence parents preparedness to take actions to promote increased participation of girls in education.

The survey showed that 96% of the respondents either had children in school or that their children had ever attended one. According to the few respondents whose children were neither in school nor ever attended school, their children were either too young to be in school or there was no money to send the children to school. Since about a third of the respondents have a minimum of basic education, all things being equal, majority of the respondents should have a positive attitude towards the education of girls.

4.2 RESPONDENTS PERCEPTION ABOUT GIRLS' EDUCATION

A person's perception about a thing, all things being equal, influences his/her attitude and behaviour towards it. The perception of respondents about the education of girls was, therefore, sought in order to give some understanding of why the respondents had or had not taken any action to improve girls education in their areas. The hypothesis which guides the discussion in this chapter is that the perception of all parents, irrespective of their socio-economic background, is more favourably disposed towards boys than girls.

4.2.1 The Need To Educate Children

The survey results indicated that a majority of respondents (62%), saw the need to educate children as a means of preparing children for future life. In fact, most of the

respondents saw preparation of children for future life as the sole reason for sending children to school. Details of the analysis is presented in Table 4.2.1.

Table 4.2.1: Respondents Reasons for Educating children

Reason	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Future Preparation	50	62
To acquire knowledge	15	19
Form of investment	11	14
Order of the day	4	5
Total	**80**	**100**

Source: Field Survey, 1997.

Table 4.2.1 above shows that other respondents saw the education of children as a way of helping them to acquire knowledge, as a form of investment so that children can take care of their parents in their old age, or because it is the order of the day. The responses above were confirmed in the group discussion (GD) in which the participants perceived education as preparation for children so that they will become useful to themselves, their families and their communities in the future.

Despite the general responses above, there were differences in responses which suggested that a person's place of residence, educational background or occupational status had some influence on his/her perception of why girls should be sent to school. Analysis of responses along parents' place of residence is presented in Table 4.2.2 below.

Table 4.2.2: Reasons for Educating Children by Place of Residence

Place of Residence	Reasons									
	Future Prepara-tion		To acquire Knowledge		Invest-ment		Order of Day		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	28	70	6	25	2	5	4	10	40	50
Rural	22	56	9	22	9	22	-	-	40	50
Total	**50**	**62**	**15**	**19**	**11**	**14**	**4**	**5**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=7.77 at 3 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 3 degrees of freedom=11.34.

Source: Field Survey, 1997

The analysis in Table 4.2.2 shows that whilst majority (70%) of urban respondents saw education as a means of preparing children for future life as the sole reason for sending children to school, only a little over half (56%) of rural respondents shared the same view. Also whilst a few (6%) of urban respondents thought that children are sent to school to help acquire knowledge, the corresponding figure for rural respondents is 15%. The differences in the responses were, however, not statistically significant. This means that respondents' place of residence has no significant influence on their reasons for educating children and that both urban and rural respondents had virtually similar reasons for educating their children.

Also responses were analysed along educational background which is presented in presented in Table 4.2.3.

Table 4.2.3: Reasons for Educating Children by Respondents' Educational Background

Educational Background	Reasons									
	Future Pre-paration		To acquire Knowledge		Invest-ment		Order of Day		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
No Formal Education	6	55	2	18	3	27	-	-	11	14
Basic Education	29	67	6	14	6	14	2	5	43	54
Secondary Education and above	15	57	7	27	2	8	2	8	26	32
Total	**50**	**62**	**15**		**11**		**4**		**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=4.93 at 6 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 6 degrees of freedom=16.8.

Source: Field Survey, 1997

Analysis in Table 4.2.3 shows that over half (55%) of respondents with no formal education also shared the view that education prepares children for future life whereas majority (67%) of respondents with basic education gave the same reason. The figure for respondents with secondary education and above is 57%.This implies that majority of respondents of various educational background agree that education prepares children for future life. Even more than half of those with no formal education agreed.

Statistically, there was no significant difference among the views of people with no formal education, people with basic education and those who have secondary education and above. This means that the reasons are not influenced by their

educational background and that even though the respondents had different educational backgrounds, their reasons for sending their children to school were virtually the same. Table 4.2.4 shows the analysis of responses along occupational background of parents.

Table 4.2.4: Reasons for Educating Children by Respondents' Occupational Status

Occupation Background	Reasons									
	Future Preparation		To acquire Knowledge		Investment		Order of Day		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Unemployed/ Seeking employment	1	17	2	33	2	33	1	17	6	8
Self Employed	30	73	6	15	4	10	1	2	41	51
Salaried Worker	19	58	7	21	5	15	2	6	33	41
Total	**50**	**62**	**15**	**19**	**11**	**14**	**4**	**5**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=8.49 at 6 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 6 degrees of freedom=16.8.

Source: Field Survey, 1997

As can be seen in Table 4.2.4, the views also revealed that more self-employed respondents (73%) than their salaried workers (58%) said that education is a means of preparing children for future life. Only 17% of unemployed/seeking employment respondents shared the same view. The differences in the views among unemployed, self-employed and salaried workers were, however, not statistically significant. Once again, this means that respondents occupational background had no influence on their views and that even though they have different occupational backgrounds, they had similar reasons for sending their children to school.

The picture that appears to be emerging is that majority of respondents irrespective of their educational, occupational and residential backgrounds thought that education prepares children for future life.

4.2.2 Choice of Child To Educate

As a follow-up to the question why children should be educated, respondents were asked to show whose education was more important, boys or girls. A little over half of the respondents (53%) thought that educating a boy is just as important as important as educating a girl (Table 4.2.5).

Table 4.2.5: Respondents' Perception of the Importance of Boy and Girl Education

Sex	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Both	42	53
Boy	26	32
Girl	12	15
Total	80	100

Source: Field Survey, 1997

The main argument of the majority was that education is a right for everyone, both boys and girls. Those who viewed the education of boys as being more important than that of girls thought that boys need better preparation for future life which is provided by education and that boys do not drop out as often as girls. They, again, thought that educating a girl is a waste of resources since they are likely to drop-out. On the other hand, respondents who perceived the education of girls as being more important

than that of boys believed that an educated girl becomes a role model in future and this benefits her children too.

The group discussions revealed that even though most respondents thought that the education of both boys and girls was equally important, a sizeable minority also believed that educating girls was a very risky and uncertain job. According to them, many girls do not stay in school long enough to complete their school programmes due to pregnancy or low intelligence.

When respondents were asked which sex they would educate, it came out that to the majority (88%) of respondents, both boys and girls need education (Table 4.2.6).

Table 4.2.6: Sex of child to be educated by Respondents' Place of Residence

Place of Residence	Sex of Child							
	Boy		Girl		Both		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Urban	3	8	-	-	37	92	40	50
Rural	6	15	1	3	33	82	40	50
Total	9	11	1	1	70	88	80	100

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=1.73 at 2 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom=9.21.
Source: Field Survey, 1997

The responses also revealed that relatively more urban (92%) respondents than their rural (82%) counterparts said that both boys and girls should be educated. Conversely, relatively more rural (15%) respondents expressed the view that only boys should be sent to school. The only respondent who showed a preference for the education of girls over that of boys was a rural dweller. This may be due to the fact that

the girl is the only child of the respondent. The results of the group discussions were very similar to those of the individual interviews. After much deliberation, most participants agreed that both boys and girls needed education. Statistically, there was no significant difference between the responses of the urban and rural respondents. This means that both urban and rural respondents have the same perception that all children irrespective of their sex need education.

When the respondents were grouped according to their educational background and their responses analysed, the results showed that 42% of the respondents with secondary education or above claimed that they would educate both boys and girls, 31% would educate boys while 27% would educate girls. Eighty-two percent of those with no formal education would educate both sexes while the remaining 18% would rather educate boys. For respondents with basic education, 51% would educate both sexes, 37% would educate boys while the remaining 12% would educate girls. According to the literature reviewed, all things being equal more respondents with secondary education or higher should have opted for the education of both sexes but the analysis showed otherwise. However, in the literature reviewed (Rugh, 2000) stated that there is evidence that parents with higher educational background are more likely to put equal premium both boys' and girls' education. This implies that her assertion does not hold in the selected communities.

Salaried workers and the majority of self-employed respondents appeared more in favour of the education of both sexes than did their unemployed counterparts.

When the respondents were again asked whom they would educate if their resources would permit them to educate only one child, a great proportion of them

answered that they would prefer to educate boys. Only a few respondents claimed that they would rather educate the girl-child (Table 4.2.7). A much smaller proportion responded that they would educate whichever of their children proved more intelligent or performed better in school.

Table 4.2.7: Preferred Child to be Educated when limited Resources by Respondents' Place of Residence

Place of Residence	Sex of Child							
	Boy		Girl		Any		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	22	55	14	40	2	5	40	50
Rural	35	87	5	13	-	-	40	50
Total	**57**	**71**	**19**	**24**	**4**	**5**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=11.23 at 2 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21
Source: Field Survey, 1997

The information in Table 4.2.7 shows that most respondents put the boy-child first in terms of education. Further analysis revealed that all those who said that they would not consider the sex of the child but would rather educate the more promising child were urban dwellers. A large majority of rural respondents (87%) would rather educate the boy-child while just a little over half of urban respondents would do so. The difference in the views of urban and rural respondents was statistically significant. This means that the responses were influenced by their place of residence. This finding confirms Rugh's (2000) conclusion that urban parents are more likely to feel the importance of schooling for both boys and girls and that one of the strong predictors of overall, and in particular girls' enrolment is place of residence.

Those who answered that they would educate any child of theirs, irrespective of their sex, constituted 20% of those with a minimum of secondary school education. Forty-seven percent of this category of respondents said that they would prefer to educate their boy children while the remaining 33% would educate their girl-children.

The study showed that generally, most unemployed and self-employed people would educate their boy-children if their resources could not allow them to educate all their children while salaried workers do not have such a strong preference for boys.

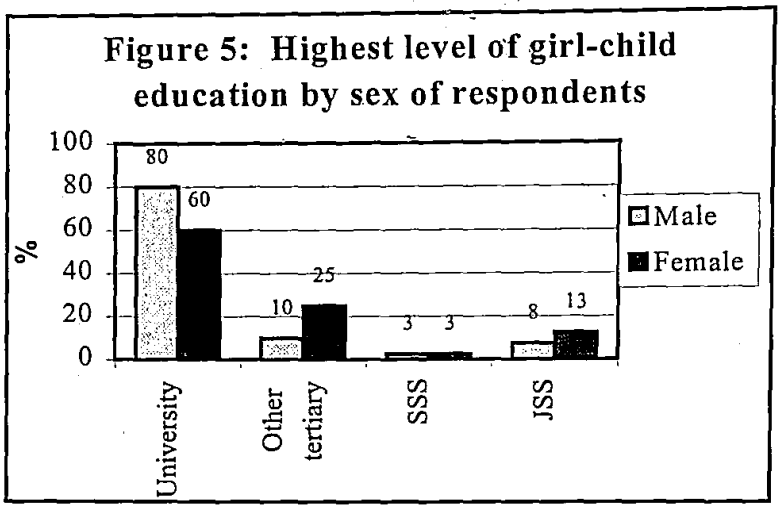
The reasons respondents gave for their choices in Table 4.2.7 did not differ significantly from views which had been expressed earlier in the main argument which follows Table 4.2.5. The reasons given were that boys need better preparation for life (28%), it will prepare the girl for life and make her independent (22%), boys are more brilliant and make better use of education (22%), a girl is most likely to drop out (17%), girls can more easily learn other jobs or trade than boys (4%), and finally, what a boy can do, a girl can also do (4%).

When asked to explain their answers further, most of the respondents interviewed who opted for the education of boys explained that not only are girls more likely to drop out due to early pregnancy, girls can also learn other jobs like hairdressing, trading and dress-making. To the respondents, most of the professions girls pursue do not require high educational qualifications. According to the respondents, men's jobs are, however, limited and the competition for them is keener. Also, as future "bread-winners" for their families, boys need more thorough preparation which they can acquire mainly through formal education. Similar conclusions were drawn by Odaga and Heneveld (1995), in that apprenticeships continue to provide practical entrepreneurial skills to several young

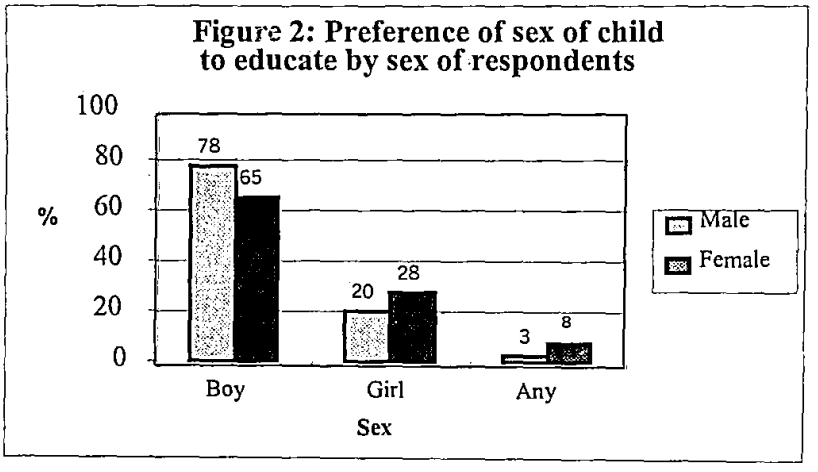
people and therefore very popular with parents who often want to ensure that their daughters acquire some practical skills before they got married. Further more, the finding confirms conclusions drawn by Boakye (1997) and Agyeman-Mensah (1994) that culturally, many parents have a gender preference for the boy-child than for the girl-child because they believe that the economic returns on the boy-child are higher since he will grow-up to look after them in their old age, where as the girl-child will eventually get married and belong to the husband's family.

When the responses were further analysed along the lines of sex of respondents, the results showed that a large majority of both male (78%) and female (65%) would rather educate the boy-child when there is limited resources (figure 1). It can be seen from the analysis that even though both male and female respondents put boys' education first, females are likely to be more receptive to girls' education than males.

Also when the respondents were grouped according to their district background and their responses analysed, the results showed that a large majority (80%) of them from District 2 (Twifo-Hemang Lower Denkyira) would rather educate the boy-child as compared to 63% from District 1 (Ewutu-Efutu-Senya District). Conversely, 30% of the respondents from District 1 would prefer to educate the girl-child as compared to that of District 2 (figure 2).



Source: Field Survey, 1997



Source: Field Survey, 1997

The results further showed that respondents in District 2 put more premium on boys' education than that of girls', while relatively fewer respondents in District 1 would prefer to educate the boy-child instead of the girl-child (Table 4.2.8).

Table 4.2.8: Preferred Child to be educated by Districts of Respondents

Districts	Sex of Child							
	Boy		Girl		Both		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Ewutu-Afutu-Senya	25	62	12	30	3	8	40	50
Twifo-Hemang	32	80	7	18	1	2	40	50
Total	**57**	**71**	**19**	**24**	**4**	**5**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=3.18 at 2 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21
Source: Field Survey, 1997

The information in Table 4.2.8 may be due to the fact that Ewutu-Efutu-Senya District is relatively more urbanized than Twifo-Hemang-Lower-Denkyira. The difference is however not statistically significant which means that respondents from the two districts shared the same views and that their districts had no influence on them.

To test which of their children's education they would sacrifice if it became necessary, respondents were asked to express their opinions on which of their children, boy-child or girl-child, they would like to stay out of school to perform six selected activities should the performance of those activities become necessary. These activities were household chores, farming, fishing, looking after other children, looking after a sick relative, and trading. Table 4.2.9 below shows that out of the six activities presented, most parents would make the girl-child stay out of school to perform four (ie. Household chores, looking after siblings, nursing sick relatives and trading) if it became necessary. The difference between the chores parents would let their girl-children do, as opposed to what they would let their boy-children do was statistically, very significant.

Table 4.2.9: Sex to be recommended to stay out of school to perform certain activities if the need arose

Sex of Child	Activity											
	Household Chores		Farming		Looking after children		Fishing		Nursing sick relatives		Trading	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Boys	3	4	71	89	1	1	77	96	9	11	14	17
Girls	77	96	9	11	79	99	3	4	71	89	66	83
Total	**80**	**100**	**80**	**100**	**80**	**100**	**80**	**100**	**80**	**100**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=349.43 at 5 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 5 degrees of freedom=15.1.

Source: Field Survey, 1997

Reasons given for the responses above were that household chores are traditional roles of women, hence, it is necessary to train the girl to enable her handle her house in future. With regard to nursing a sick relative and other children, respondents stated that girls are more loving and caring, have better maternal instincts and can, therefore, take care of such people better than boys. Some respondents also argued further that since girls will marry and have kids in future, they need the experience in looking after children. Some even thought that girls have better knowledge about medicine than boys.

Trading is also considered principally as a job for girls and that they sell better than boys so respondents were of the view that it was logical that girls stayed home to trade and not boys. Fishing and farming were, however, considered boy's activities because they demanded physical strength. In fact, some of the respondents even added that it is a taboo for girls to go to sea to fish. This fact confirms the conclusions of Rugh's

(2000) and Agyeman-Mensah's (1994), assertion that when household's incomes are low, girls are the most affected and that girls are used to make extra income to supplement in order to take care of the boys. This finding further confirms the assertion made by Davision (1993) and CAMFED (1996) that girls are very capable in domestic work because they are taught from an early age the skills of running a household and are help to parents if at home, whereas boys are less skilled.

Generally, the consensus was that the absence of a boy from school is more disadvantageous to both the boy himself and the entire family than the absence of a girl. Consequently, under some circumstances, such as when parents have other uses for girls in the home the girl's education becomes a secondary matter and could be sacrificed by both urban and rural respondents. The picture that seems to emerge is that generally, more rural dwellers and unemployed/seeking employment respondents have preference for educating boys.

Another variable investigated in the study was the number of years that a child would be allowed to spend in school. Even though majority of respondents, like participants in the group discussions, thought that both sexes could spend the same number of years, (Table 4.2.10 below) a significant proportion said that boys should spend more years. Very few respondents answered that girls should spend more years in school. On the whole, however, there were no statistically significant differences in the responses of both urban and rural respondents with regard to this question.

Table 4.2.10: Choice of Child Who should spend More Years in School by Respondents' Place of Residence

Place of Residence	Sex of Child							
	Both		Boys		Girl		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	23	57	15	38	2	5	40	50
Rural	17	42	20	50	3	8	40	50
Total	**40**	**50**	**35**	**44**	**5**	**6**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=1.81 at 2 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21
Source: Field Survey, 1997

Table 4.2.10 above shows that a little over half (57%) of urban respondents and 42% of their rural counterpart said that both boys and girls should be allowed to equal number of years in school. Conversely, more rural (50%) respondents expressed the view that only boys should be allowed to spend more years in school as compared to their urban counterpart (38%). Very few from both urban (5%) and rural (8%) background showed preference for girls. There was no statistically significant difference between the responses of urban and rural respondents, and this means that both groups of respondents share the same opinion.

The findings imply that should it become necessary for any of the respondents' children to cut short his/her course of study, the girl-child is likely to be the victim. The findings also implies that most of the respondents are less likely to be unduly worried should their girl-children decide to drop out of school before completion than they would be if their boy-children decided to drop out.

When asked to state reasons why a particular sex would be allowed to spend more years in school than the other, the responses given included the need to give both boys and girls equal chances in life (45%), girls will leave school for marriage (20%), boys need more time to prepare for life (14%), boys are more talented (11%), and girls have to learn other things besides education to prepare well for future life (10%).

Another area delved into was the subjects in the school curriculum that boys and girls should study. A large majority of respondents(81%) agreed that boys and girls should study the same subjects while the remaining (19%) thought otherwise. The urban and rural respondents were in agreement on this issue as Table 4.2.11 illustrates.

Table 4.2.11: Subjects to Study by Girls and Boys Respondents Place of Resident

Place of Resident	Answer					
	Yes		No		Total	
	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	34	85	6	15	40	50
Rural	31	77	9	23	40	50
Total	**65**	**81**	**15**	**19**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=0.74 at 1 degree of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 1 degree of freedom =6.63
Source: Field Survey, 1997

As can be seen from the table above, the responses revealed that relatively more urban respondents (85%) than their rural counterparts (77%) perceived that both boys and girls should study the same subjects in school. On the other, relatively more rural (23%) respondents as compared to urban (15%) respondents perceived that boys and girls should not be made to study the same subjects. Statistically, there was no significant

difference between the responses of the rural and urban respondents. This means that both urban and rural respondents have the same perception that both boys and girls should study the same subjects.

The respondents who answered that boys and girls should be made to study the same subjects in school reasoned that once children enter school it made sense to allow them to compete against each other. However, those who opposed making boys and girls study the same subjects in school, argued that certain subjects expose girls to certain hazards in life so girls who are more vulnerable should be kept away from those subjects. Others also explained that some subjects will keep girls too long in school and unduly delay their marriage and child-bearing. Their last argument was that boys and girls are not expected to play the same roles in the future so there is no justification to let them do the same thing especially as girls can not compete favourably with boys, both physically and mentally.

When those who answered that boys and girls should not study the same subjects were asked which subjects these were, they mentioned technical-related subjects (carpentry, welding, spraying, etc), mathematics and science as the boys-biased subjects and subjects like home management and related ones as being fit for girls only.

4.2.3 Needs of The Girl-Child

Even though majority of respondents in the study seemed to place more premium on the education of boys than on that of girls, they nevertheless believed that girls also needed to be supported to develop. When the respondents were asked if they were aware of the needs of their girl-children, majority of them answered that they were very much

aware of what their girl-children needed to enable them develop well. According to them, the most important needs of a girl-child are education, food, basic needs (clothes, shelter, etc.) and love (affection). Table 4.2.12 provides a summary of what respondents considered as the most important needs of the girl-child.

Table 4.2.12: Respondents Perception of Most Important Needs of the Girl-Child by Respondents Place of Residence

Place of Residence	Needs									
	Education		Food		Basic Needs		Love		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	12	30	13	32	12	30	3	8	40	50
Rural	23	57	10	25	6	15	1	3	40	50
Total	**35**	**44**	**23**	**29**	**18**	**22**	**4**	**5**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=6.85 at 3 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 3 degrees of freedom =11.34
Source: Field Survey, 1997

Even though evidence in the study suggests that rural parents especially, do not consider girls education as important as that of boys, more than half of them mentioned education as the most important need of the girl-child (Table 4.2.12). The responses revealed that when the needs of the girl child are evaluated on their own, their education ranked high. It is only when the education of the girl competes with that of the boy or that there are other competing demands on the family's limited resources or when the girls' services are needed elsewhere that their education becomes a secondary issue.

Respondents' explanation as to why most of them regarded education as the girl's most important need was that education makes girls independent, resourceful and more competitive on the job market (69%). Education also according to parent respondents

increases the ability of girls to contribute to the development of society and the nation as a whole because if you educate a woman you educate a nation (20%), and educated girls serve as role models because education raises their status (11%).

To find out if demands on the girl's time and energy might influence the parents' desire to keep her at home and to increase their preference to send the boy to school instead, respondents were further asked to state the household chores of their boy and girl-children. The results of the study revealed that chores performed by children include taking care of babies, fetching water, sweeping and weeding the compound, cooking and washing dishes, washing clothes, pounding "fufu" (a local dish) and running errands.

An analysis of the responses revealed also that most of the household chores are performed by the girl-child. Ninety-five percent of all the respondents (including all the rural respondents) attested to this. The remaining 5% claimed that work was shared equally between the girls and the boys. Significantly, not even a single respondent mentioned that the boy did more household work than the girl.

4.2.4 Summary

The summary that can be drawn from the issues discussed in this chapter so far is that the hypothesis that parents' perception on their children's education will be more favourably disposed towards sons than towards daughters is true. The study showed that respondents' perception about education of girls is fairly negative, though most of them are not against girls benefiting from formal education.

However, what appears to be the problem is that most respondents do not put as much premium on the education of girls as they put on that of boys when there is limited

resources. Consequently, they are more likely to send boys, rather than girls, to school and ensure that they stay to complete their programmes. It can also be deduced that those who do not place much premium on the education of girls do so because of their perception of gender roles in the society. Similar conclusions were drawn by Agyeman-Mensah (1987). In that study, it was found that both male and female parents in Ghana favoured boys' education over that of girls. She added that low expectations of female educational benefits, reinforced by the absence of female role models, are firmly implanted even in the minds of some females themselves. This according to Agyeman-Mensah, has developed a negative image of female capability and has psychologically affected their motivational levels. This means that gender continues to play a major role in determining who goes to school.

4.3 PARENTAL ASPIRATION FOR GIRLS

Guided by the hypotheses that irrespective of their socio-economic status, parents will have higher educational aspirations for boys than for girls and also irrespective of their rural or urban location, parents will have higher occupational aspirations for girls, the respondents were asked what they would want their daughters to become in future, if they had the opportunity. This section attempts to find out what aspirations parents had for their children especially girls, and whether such aspirations would require some form of formal education. It also attempts to find out the roles parents would want to play in order to help their children especially girls achieve those aspirations.

4.3.1 Parents' Choice of Jobs For Their Daughters

It was assumed that respondents might be able to link the job aspirations they had for their daughters with the kind of pre-employment training that those jobs required. If it

happened that the jobs required formal education, then follow-up questions would try to find out what these parents were doing to ensure that their daughters qualified for those jobs. It was expected that through this method it might be possible to establish the relationship between parental aspirations for their daughters and their willingness to send them to school and to keep them there until they completed their courses.

Majority of all respondents (61%) preferred salaried work for their girl-children with working in the health sector as doctors, midwives and nurses being the favourite career choices. Other prominent salaried jobs preferred by respondents for their daughters were careers in the civil service, teaching (including lecturing), and working in the security services as soldiers and police officers. Less than a third of all respondents (30%) said they would want their daughters to become self-employed as dressmakers, traders and hairdressers. Nine per cent of the respondents could not think of any particular professions for their girl-children, preferring rather to let the children make their own choices.

The general picture above notwithstanding, there were marked differences among respondents due to differences in their social backgrounds (Tables 4.3.1, 4.3.2)

Table 4.3.1: Parental Preference of Careers for their Girl-children by Locality Of Respondent

Place of Residence	Parental Aspiration							
	Salaried Jobs		Self Employment		Child's Choice		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	28	70	6	15	6	15	40	50
Rural	21	52	18	45	1	3	40	50
Total	**49**	**61**	**24**	**30**	**7**	**9**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=10.57 at 2 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom=9.21
Source: Field survey, 1997.

As can be seen from Table 4.3.1, a much higher proportion of urban dwellers than their rural counterparts wished that their daughters would become formal sector workers in future. The opposite is the case with regard to self-employment, the preference for which is greater among rural respondents than it is for their urban counterparts. Using job aspirations alone as the deciding factor it might be tempting to conclude from the table that because of the need for academic qualifications as job requirements, urban respondents are more likely to send their daughters to school than their rural counterparts. Table 4.3.1 again seems to suggest that urban respondents are more liberal and democratic in deciding what their daughters should do in future than rural dwellers as relatively more of the former left the choice of jobs to the daughters themselves.

The chi square statistic showed that there was a significant difference between urban and rural respondents in their job aspirations for their daughters. This means that urban and rural dwellers have different aspirations for their children. Consequently, it is envisaged that if the orientation of the rural respondents change in favour of preferring,

for their daughters, jobs which demand formal education as prerequisites they will be as ready as their urban counterparts to send their daughters to school. Therefore one is inclined to reject the hypothesis that irrespective of their rural urban location, parents will have higher occupational aspirations for girls.

Generally, as Table 4.3.2 shows majority of respondents, irrespective of their academic or educational and backgrounds preferred salaried jobs for their girl-children.

Table 4.3.2: Parental Preference of Careers for their Girl-children by educational background of Respondent

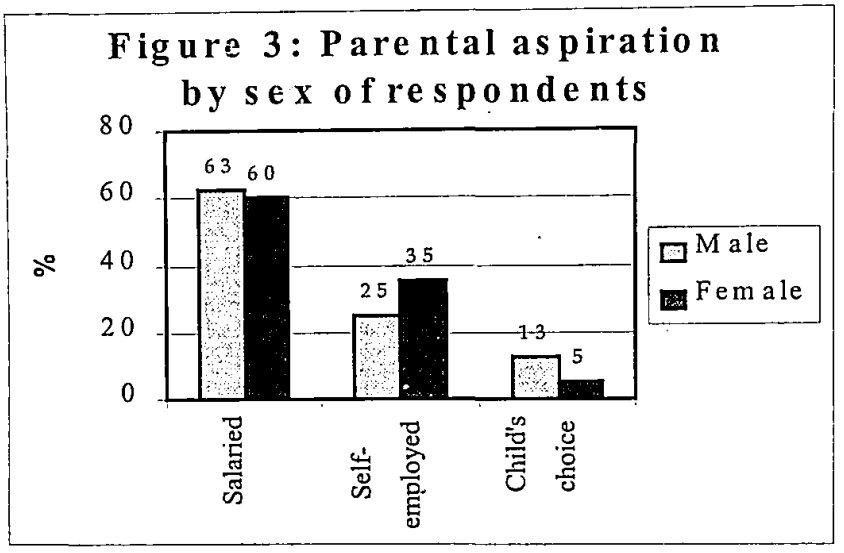
Educational background of respondents	Parental Aspiration						Total	
	Salaried jobs		Self-employment		Child's own choice			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
No formal Education	6	55	5	45	-	-	11	14
Basic Education	23	53	18	42	2	5	43	54
Secondary Education of above	20	77	1	4	5	19	26	32
Total	**49**	**61**	**24**	**30**	**7**	**9**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=13.3 at 4 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 4 degrees of freedom=15.42.
Source: Field Survey, 1997

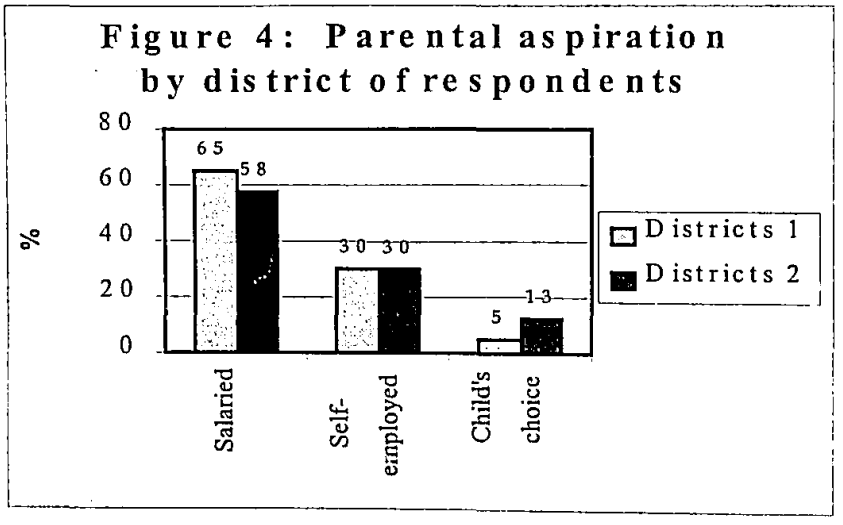
When the responses were analysed along occupational lines, the results were not significantly different from the one above. In general, the preference of the respondents, in a descending order of importance, were salaried jobs, self-employment and the child's own choice.

When the responses were analysed on the basis of sex of respondents (figure 5), the results showed that almost the same proportion of male (63%) and female (60%) respondents wanted their girl-children to be salaried workers in future whereas that of self-employed was 25% (male) and 35% (female).

Analysis of the results along districts lines also produced similar results. The results showed that almost the same proportions of district 1 (65%) and district 2 (58%) preferred salaried jobs for their children as can be seen in figure 4 below.



Source: Field Survey, 1997



Source: Field Survey, 1997

4.3.2 Educational Level Desired By Respondents For Their Daughters

The survey results showed a high relationship between parents' aspirations for their children and the level to which they would educate their children if given the opportunity. Seventy per cent of the respondents mentioned that if given the opportunity, the highest level to which they would educate their children would be the University. Eighteen per cent of all respondents answered that they would educate their girls up to other tertiary levels (that is, to Polytechnics, Teacher Training and Nurses Training Colleges) while two per cent answered Senior Secondary School. Ten per cent of the respondents said they would be content to terminate the education of their girls at the Junior Secondary School level.

Table 4.3.3 shows that the responses above compare favourably with what respondents wished for their sons.

Table 4.3.3: Highest Level of Education desired for children by Respondents.

Sex	Highest Educational Level									
	University		Other Tertiary		SSS		JSS		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Girls	56	70	14	18	2	2	8	10	80	100
Boys	70	88	6	8	2	2	2	2	80	100

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=6.76 at 3 degrees of freedom, P<0.01.Critical value at 0.01 with 3 degrees of freedom =11.34
Source: Field survey, 1997

The results in Table 4.3.3 show that, generally, respondents were aware that the girl-child needs as much education as the boy-child. The reason for this development, according to respondents who want their children to acquire high education may be the

realisation that more education tends to have a positive relationship with future success in life, all things being equal.

Generally, both urban respondents and their rural counterparts preferred higher education for their daughters (Table 4.3.4). The chi-square statistic confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference in the desires of the two groups of respondents. This means that both urban and rural dwellers have the same aspiration for their children so far as highest level of education is concerned.

Table 4.3.4: Highest Level of Girl-child Education by Locality of Respondent.

Place of Residence	Highest Level of Education									
	University		Other Tertiary		SSS		JSS		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	31	77	7	18	-	-	2	5	40	50
Rural	25	62	7	18	2	5	6	15	40	50
Total	**56**	**70**	**14**	**18**	**2**	**2**	**8**	**10**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=3.64 at 3 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 3 degrees of freedom=11.34

Source: Field survey, 1997

The study again revealed that majority of the respondents, no matter their educational background wanted their girl-children to acquire University or other tertiary level education (Table 4.3.5).

Table 4.3.5: Highest Level of Girl-Child Education by Educational Background of Respondents

Educational Background	Response: University or other Tertiary		SSS and JSS		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
No Formal Education	10	91	1	9	11	14
Basic Education	35	82	8	18	43	54
Secondary or above	25	96	215	4	26	32
Total	**70**	**88**	**10**	**22**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=3.36 at 2 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21
Source: Field Survey, 1997

The table above also shows that ninety-one percent of respondents with no formal education, 82% of respondents who had basic education and 96% of those with secondary and tertiary education all wanted University or other tertiary education for their girl-children. Only 4% of respondents with secondary and tertiary education, 9% of respondents with no formal education and 18% of respondents who had basic education answered that they would be content with only Senior Secondary school or basic level education for their daughters. However, there was no significant statistical difference among the three groups of respondents.

When the responses were analysed along occupational lines, it showed that 83% of the unemployed, 91% of the self-employed and 85% of salaried workers desired University or other tertiary level education for their daughters. Seventeen percent of the unemployed, 9% of the self-employed and 15% of salaried workers would,

however, be content with only Senior Secondary school or basic level education for their daughters (Table 4.3.6).

Table 4.3.6: : Highest Level of Girl-Child Education by Occupational Background of Respondents

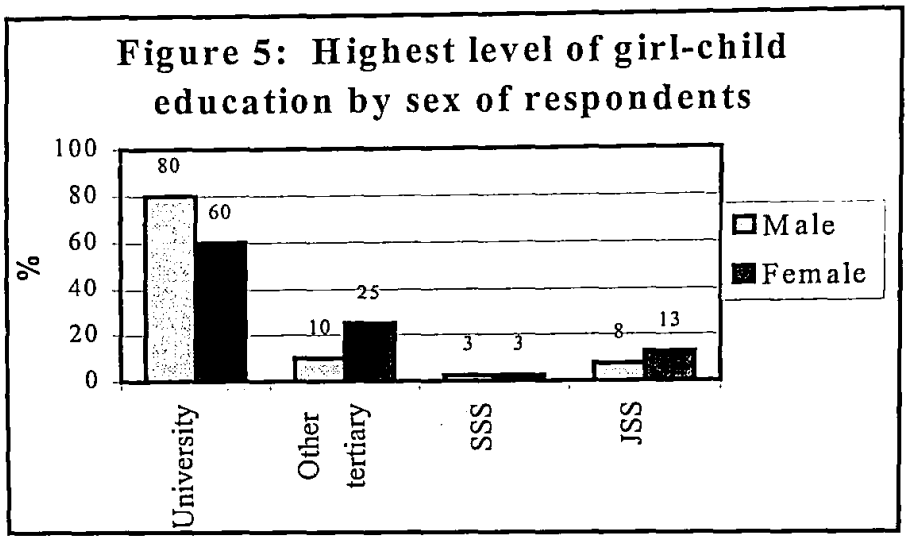
Occupational Background	Response					
	University or other Tertiary		SSS and JSS		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Unemployed/seeking employment	9	83	2	17	11	14
Self-mployed	39	91	4	9	43	54
Salaried worker	22	85	4	15	26	32
Total	**70**	**88**	**10**	**22**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=0.92 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21
Source: Field Survey, 1997

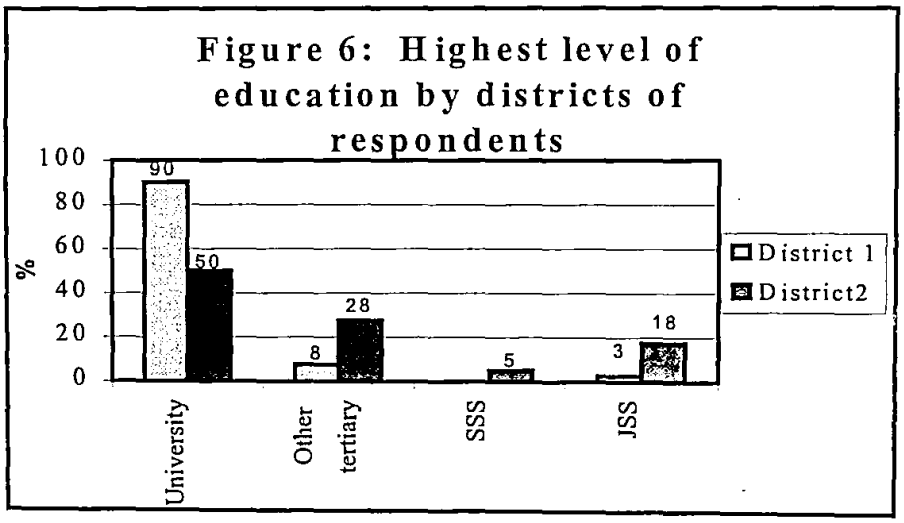
The chi-square statistic confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference in the desires of the three groups of respondents. This means that all categories of respondents despite their occupational background have the same aspiration for their girls as far as highest level of education is concerned. Therefore one is inclined to reject the hypothesis that irrespective of their socio-economic status, parents will have higher occupational aspirations for boys than for girls.

When the responses were further analysed along the lines of sex of respondents (figure 5), the results were not significantly different from the one above. Majority of

respondents both male (80%) and female (60%) desired University or other tertiary level of education for their daughters.



Source: Field Survey, 1997



Source: Field Survey, 1997

But analysis along district lines (figure 6), showed that more respondents from District 1 (90%) as compared to that of District 2 (50%) desired University or other

tertiary level of education for their daughters. The result from District 1 may be due to the presence of a University in the District.

The analyses above show that people's attitude and perception of female education are changing and that parents now have high educational aspirations for their daughters.

4.3.3 Parental Role To Help Daughters Attain Aspirations

To ascertain what respondents perceived to be their roles in helping their daughters to achieve whatever aspirations parents wished for them, respondents were asked what they ought to do in order that their daughters qualified for those jobs. The study results revealed that respondents were aware of the fact that they had some roles to perform to enable their daughters achieve those aspirations their parents had for them. In answering the question, 41% said they would have to provide the girls with all their educational needs such as books, pens, school uniforms and school furniture. According to 39% of the respondents, a parent is supposed to provide all the financial support and other needs such as clothing, food and shelter. Lastly, 21% claimed they would provide the moral, spiritual support and encouragement needed by their children.

There was virtually no difference in the proportion of both urban and rural dwellers who accepted parental responsibility for the provision of educational needs of their girl-children. The respective proportions of urban and rural respondents who thought that parents had roles to play in their children's education were 41% and 40%. However, with regard to the provision of financial and other needs of their girl-children, there was a remarkable difference between urban and rural respondents who thought

parents had a role to play. Whilst only 33% of urban respondents stated that parents had to cater for the financial needs of their daughters, as much as 45% of rural respondents thought so.

The provision of moral and spiritual support and encouragement did not seem to appear to rural respondents to be a crucial duty parents should perform for their girl-children if the latter were to achieve the aspirations parents had for them. Only 5% of them as compared to 25% of the urban respondents stated that the provision of moral, spiritual support and encouragement is an important duty for parents.

In order to find out if the respondents were consciously addressing the issue of girls' education, they were again asked if they made conscious effort to encourage their girl-children to go to school. The study revealed that 95% of all respondents saw the need to do so. Only 5% confessed that they did not do this.

The 5% who did not encourage their children were all rural-based, self-employed parents who had basic education qualifications. This group of respondents reported that their girls go to school on their own and did not, therefore, need any further parental encouragement.

For those who reported that they encouraged their daughters to go to school, their reason for doing so were to give advice and motivation (40%), provide the child's needs (32%), explain the benefits of education to them (16%), and promise to give them presents after school (14%). The results of the study show that respondents agree that parents have a role to play in their daughters education. Respondents encourage their girl-children to go school largely by advising and motivating them, and also by providing the child's needs.

Another important discovery made in the study was that respondents were prepared to play other significant roles in their daughters' education. Eighty-three percent of the respondents were prepared to provide all the needs of the child to enable her concentrate on schooling. Nine percent reported that they were going to offer advice and encouragement while 5% said that they would offer financial support only. Two per cent said they would reduce the workload of the child to enable her devote ample time to her studies after school while 1% said extra tuition would be offered after school. It is important to note that the respondents saw all these measures as very necessary to ensure a child's participation in education. The findings are significant since it means that the respondents were prepared to do something to help promote the education of their daughters instead of waiting for others to intervene.

Fifty-three percent of the respondents were of the view that playing these roles would enable the child to perform better in school, 30% thought it would motivate her to go to school. The remaining 17% believed that providing her needs would enable her focus her attention on books instead of seeking money or yielding to the temptations of men. What is significance is the concern by almost a third of the respondents (30%) that their daughters, when sent to school, should come out as scholars.

The implication of this is that parents who expect their daughters to come out as scholars will keep their daughters in school only if they are sure that their (parents) desires (coming out as scholars) will be fulfilled.

4.3.4 Parental Ranking of Important House Work vis-à-vis Education

After the respondents had expressed their desire to play certain roles in their daughters' education, they were asked to rank four activities (These activities were schooling, helping parents in their work, keeping house for them and fostering/househelp) they recognised as important for their daughters. These activities are important because they are the opportunity costs of girls' education (some of the things keeping girls at home). It was assumed that how a respondent ranked an activity would influence his/her choice of where his/her daughter's and/or his/her own interest will be best served. Table 4.3.7 shows the ranking of the respondents' indicating how important those activities were in the over-all development of their girl-children.

Table 4.3.7: Respondents' Ranking of Four Activities for their Girl-Children

Activity	Respondents ranked activity as:				*Total Score	Rank
	1st	2nd	3rd	4th		
Schooling	78	1	-	1	316	1st
Helping Parent	1	44	26	9	197	2nd
Keeping House	1	24	45	10	176	3rd
Fostering/househelp	-	13	6	61	112	4th

Source: Field Survey, 1997

* A first position placing meant that the activity is the most important and earned four points; a second position placing meant the activity is important and earned three points; a third position placing meant the activity is less important and earned two points; a fourth position placing meant not important and earned just a point.

The socio-economic backgrounds of the respondents did not affect their ranking of the four activities as the analysis of the ranking responses using these group characteristics still produced patterns similar to table 4.3.7.

The implication of the ranking above is that virtually all categories of respondents shared similar ideas about which of the four activities they viewed as being important for their children to perform. They were, therefore, very likely to approve of and support projects that they considered as more important than those that may not be a priority to them. With regard to the issue of what they are likely to do with their girls, the findings of the study suggests that they would prefer to send them to school.

4.3.5 Summary

The summary one can draw from the discussions so far indicates that, generally, the respondents had very high aspirations for their daughters and were prepared to take action to prepare the daughters for these aspirations. Analysis from the chi-square test proved that irrespective of socio-economic status, parents' educational aspirations for boys are not higher than for girls, the hypothesis is therefore rejected. The hypothesis test also shows that urban parents have higher occupational aspirations for their daughters than their rural counterpart. Hence the hypothesis that parents will have higher occupational aspirations for girls irrespective of their place of residence can not be accepted but rather the opposite is true. The main action respondents were prepared to take was to send their daughters to school and to support them to complete their courses.

4.4 PARENTAL AND COMMUNITY ACTION TOWARDS THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS

The hypothesis which guided this section was that parents' perception of girls' education will be related to actions they would be prepared to take to promote increased participation of girls in education.

The goal was to assess the preparedness of the respondents to initiate action themselves or, at least, to support action initiated by others to improve the education of their girls. It was, again, deemed necessary to find out how the communities could be made to participate in efforts designed to improved participation of girls in basic education on a more regular basis.

4.4.1 Beneficiaries of A Girls' Education

On the assumption that respondents were more likely to undertake ventures from which they themselves would benefit, either directly or indirectly, they were asked to indicate whether the benefit of a girl's education went to the girl herself, the family or the community. It was assumed that respondents' answers might give an indication of their level of motivation to initiate action to get their daughters to school. In all, 44% of the respondents thought the education of the girl-child benefits the community because she would be able to help others in the community as well as be a role model in the society. Forty-two percent said it benefits the child herself because it prepares her for her own future job and, hence, for a decent future life. Fourteen per cent stated that the benefit goes to the girl's family because she will be able to help others in the family when she is gainfully employed. She will also be a source of pride to them. Generally, participants in the group discussions were of the view that basically, the benefits of education accrue to

the educated girl. They, added, however, that because of the extended family system, the family and even the entire community share in the benefits.

When the results were analysed along the lines of place of residence, it showed that almost the same proportion of urban (45%) and rural (40%) said that education benefits the child herself whilst 45% of urban and 43% of rural respondents said education of the girl benefits the community. A few respondents from urban (10%) and rural (17%) said education of the girl-child benefits her family (Table 4.4.1).

Table 4.4.1: Beneficiaries of the Education of the Girl-Child by Locality of Respondents.

Place of Residence	Beneficiary							
	Child herself		Her family		Her community		Total	
	N	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	18	45	4	10	18	45	40	50
Rural	16	40	7	17	17	43	40	50
Total	**34**	**42**	**11**	**14**	**35**	**44**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square (X^2) = 0.96 at 2 degrees of freedom $P<0.01$. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21
Source: Field survey, 1997.

There were no statistically significant differences in the views expressed which could be attributed to the respondents' place of residence. This means that the responses given by urban and rural respondents were the same and that their places of residence did not influence their responses to the question in any way.

Generally, majority of the respondents were either not aware of or did not understand very well the direct and indirect benefits of girls education to the family and

entire society. If parents and communities have this perception, then they are not likely to be concerned so much if girls do not go to school or are not allowed to. If the immediate family of the girl-child does not understand very well the benefits the family will get by educating the girl as opposed to the losses when a girl drops out of school to perform any function, their attitude will not be favourable towards the education of the girl-child.

4.4.2 Parental and Community Action Towards Girls' Enrolment

To get communities to realise the need for special interventions in favour of girls, it was found necessary to compare enrolment figures of boys and girls. It was also assumed that if respondents realised that very wide gender disparities existed in school enrolment, it might influence them to take appropriate action to redress the imbalance. Respondents were, as a result asked to state if any enrolment disparities existed between the sexes. The answers revealed that girls were seriously disadvantaged numerically. Majority of the respondents (63%) acknowledged that there were more boy-pupils in their communities than girl-pupils. This fact was confirmed in the group discussions and by the headteachers and the District Directors of Education. The remaining 37% in the main interviews did not agree with the

majority and thought that there were equal numbers of boys and girls or that even in some cases, girls out-numbered boys. Respondents who thought that girls were numerically disadvantaged were not confined to a particular locality. In both urban and rural communities, the majority view was that the girl-pupils were less than boy-pupils. The problem, however, appeared to be more prevalent in rural communities. In fact, 55% of urban respondents as compared to 70% of rural respondents thought that girl-children suffered a numerical disadvantage.

Respondents in the survey further gave reasons for the phenomenon of low enrolment of girls in school. To some of them, girls education is not considered important by parents, especially rural parents. Others thought the situation is so because girls drop out of school more often than boys. The consensus in the group discussions was that the main reasons for the low enrolment of girls in schools were poverty which compel parents to send only their male children to school and the fear that girls might not do well in school. Another reason assigned was that girls do not stay in school long enough to complete the course of study.

The headteachers and the District Directors of Education, on their part, reported that the low enrolment of girls was due mainly to their parents' lack of interest in education, teenage pregnancy, and the desire by girls to trade and make money. They explained further that girl-pupils prefer working for money at an early age and, therefore, do not stay long in school. This explanation seems to confirm Kwaff's (1994) findings that in the Central region, there is low enrolment at the Junior Secondary School level due to the availability of ready jobs for those who drop out. The female drop-outs engage in selling sweets, kenkey and fried fish, roasted groundnuts, boiled rice and eggs along the streets while some of the males go to sea, collect sea pebbles for sale or engage in other jobs.

The study results show that boy-pupils out-number girl-pupils and majority of respondents are aware of the gap. The headteachers and the District Directors of Education added, however, that people are now sending girls to school, hence bringing about an appreciable decrease in the gender gap between boys and girls.

After establishing that boy-pupils out-numbered girl-pupils, respondents were asked to indicate what they, as parents, could do in their communities to improve girl's participation in school. Fifty-nine percent thought parents should advise their girl-children and other parents about the importance of schooling for girls. Thirty-four percent believed that paying the fees and providing the basic needs of their girl-children would be enough whilst the remaining 7% argued that parents should give equal opportunity to girls and also organise extra tuition for their children outside normal school hours.

As can be seen from Table 4.4.2, further probing revealed some differences in the responses of urban as opposed to rural respondents with regard to the question "what parents can do to improve the participation of girls in school in their communities".

Table 4.4.2: What Parents can do to improve participation of Girls in Basic Schools By Locality of Respondents

Place of Residence	What Individual Parents Can do							
	Advise girls and other parents		Pay Fees and provide needs		Give girls equal opportunity		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	21	52	16	40	3	8	40	50
Rural	26	65	11	27	3	8	40	50
Total	**47**	**59**	**27**	**34**	**6**	**7**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2) = 1.46 at 2 degrees of freedom, $P<0.01$. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21
Source: Field survey, 1997

As shown in the table above, the responses revealed that relatively more rural respondents (65%) than their urban counterparts (52%) suggested that parents can advise

their daughters and other parents in order to improve participation of girls in basic schools. On the other hand, more urban respondents (40%) as compared to their rural counterparts (27%) said parents can improve girls' participation in basic schools by paying their daughters school fees and providing their needs. Equal proportion of both urban (8%) and rural (8%) respondents suggested that parents should give girls equal opportunities as boys.

The general impression gathered from Table 4.4.2 is that both rural and urban respondents agree that parents can and must play a role to increase or improve girls participation in education in their communities. Consequently, there was no statistically significant difference in the responses of the urban and rural parents who were interviewed. It means that both groups of respondents agree that parents could play vital roles in getting their daughters to participate in education.

Generally, majority of respondents, in spite of their educational and occupational backgrounds agreed that parents could advise their girl-children and other parents in their bid to improve the participation of girls in education (Tables 4.4.3 and 4.4.4). Again, Table 4.4.3 above shows that more respondents with no formal education (82%) than their counterpart with basic (65%) and secondary/tertiary (38%) educational background said that parents can advise their daughters and other parents in order to improve girls' participation in education. On the other hand , relatively more respondents who have secondary/tertiary education (42%) as compared to those with basic education (33%) and no formal education (18%) said that parents can pay fees and provide their daughters' needs in order to improve girls' participation in education.

Table 4.4.3: What Parents can do to improve participation of Girls in Basic Schools By educational background of Respondents

Educational Background	What Individual Parents Can Do							
	Advise girls and other parents		Pay fees and provide needs		Give equal opportunity		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
No formal education	9	82	2	18	-	-	11	14
Basic Education	28	65	14	33	1	2	43	54
Secondary or above	10	38	11	42	5	20	26	32
TOTAL	**47**	**59**	**27**	**34**	**6**	**7**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=11.73 at 4 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 4 degrees of freedom=13.3.

Source: Field survey, 1997

Despite these differences, there was no statistically significant difference among the responses of respondents with no formal education, basic and secondary/tertiary education. This means that all respondents irrespective of their educational background agree on what parents could do in order to get their daughters educated. Table 4.4.4 shows that respondents with different occupational backgrounds also gave similar responses.

Table 4.4.4: What Parents can do to improve participation of Girls in Basic Schools by occupational background of Respondents

Occupational Background	What Individual Parents Can Do							
	Advise girls and other parents		Pay fees and provide needs		Give equal opportunity		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Unemployed/Seeking employment	3	50	2	33	1	17	6	8
Self-employed	29	71	11	27	1	2	41	51
Salaried worker	15	45	14	42	4	13	33	41
Total	**47**	**59**	**27**	**34**	**6**	**7**	**80**	**100**

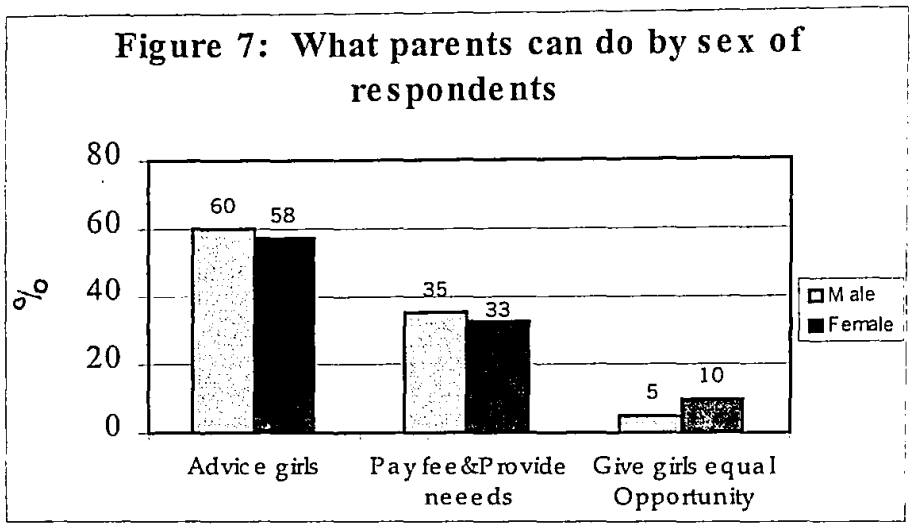
Chi-square statistic (X^2)=6.4 at 4 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 4 degrees of freedom=13.3.

Source: Field survey, 1997

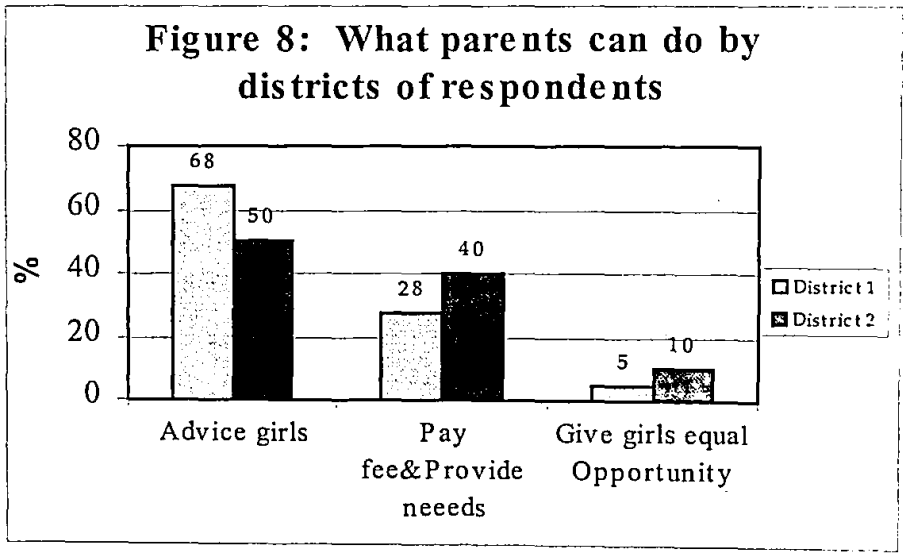
When the results were analysed along the lines of sex of respondents, it became clear that majority of both male (60%) and female (58%) thought parents could advice their daughters and other parents in order to improve girls participation in basic education (figure 7). Almost equal number of both sexes male (35%) and female (30%) thought that parents could pay fees and provide the needs of their girl-children in order to improve girls' participation in education.

Figure 8 shows that more respondents (68%) in District 1 as compared to those in District 2 (50%) thought that parents could help improve the situation by giving advice. Conversely, more respondents in District 2 (40%) as compared to that of District 1 (28%)

thought that parents can pay their girls' school fees and provide their needs in order increase girl' participation in education.



Source: Field Survey, 1997



Source: Field Survey, 1997

The group discussions and the interviews with the headteachers produced results similar to the views above. Both the participants in the Group discussions and the Headteachers thought that parents can improve participation of girls in school by advising their daughters and other parents and by paying their daughters school fees and providing their needs. Finally, the respondents also thought that parents should give girls equal opportunity as boys. The only significant addition to the responses above came from the District Directors of Education. They added that parents must themselves take a keen interest in the education of their children by not only providing their needs but by also visiting their teachers to discuss the progress of their wards. The response of the District Directors of Education implies that parents can and should do more about the education of their daughters than they are doing presently. According to them, just providing the needs of their wards is not enough. Constant interaction between parents and teachers will help a great deal to get parents involved in the education of their children. This implies that parents should work to improve girls' participation in education but this will depend on parental perception and attitude. Where parents have favourable perception of girls' education, they are likely to advise their girls and other parents as well as pay school fees and provide other school needs in order to improve girls' participation in basic education. In short, all these will be possible depending on parental perception and attitude towards girls' education.

When respondents were asked if the community, as an organised group could also play certain roles to help to improve the participation of girls in basic education the response was an emphatic "Yes" for all the respondents (100%). Fifty percent of the respondents thought that the community can help achieve this objective by forming

committees to oversee girls' education and educating parents and girls on the importance of educating girls. Another 44% believed that they could institute awards and scholarships for girls while 6% said they could punish girls who refuse to go to school, as well as parents who keep their daughters out of school.

Further investigation revealed that both urban and rural respondents shared almost identical views on what the community can do to improve girls participation in basic education (Table 4.4.5).

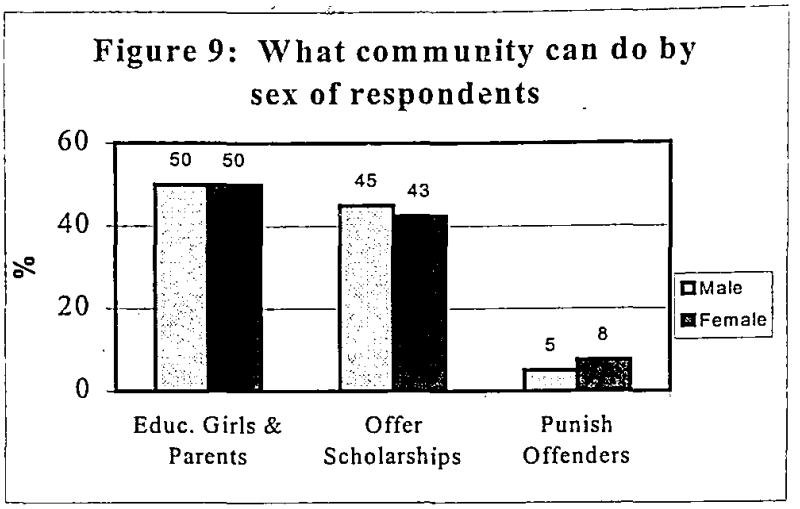
Table 4.4.5: What communities can do to Improve Girls' Participation in Basic Schools by Locality of Respondent

Place of Residence	What Communities Can Do							
	Educate girls and Parent		Offer Scholarships		Punish Offenders		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	19	48	18	45	3	7	40	50
Rural	21	53	17	43	20	4	40	50
Total	**40**	**50**	**35**	**44**	**5**	**6**	**80**	**100**

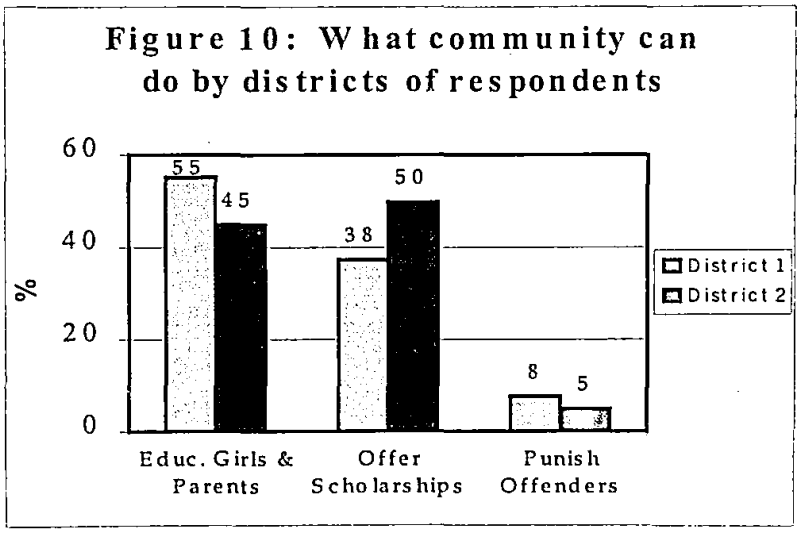
Chi-square statistic (X^2)=0.33 at 2 degrees of freedom, $P<0.01$. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21.
Source: Field survey, 1997.

Residential differences among respondents did not produce any significant statistical difference in responses. The findings imply that there is goodwill in the communities, both urban and rural, which could be harnessed to support community action to improve girls' participation in education.

When the responses were further analysed on the lines of sex of respondents



Source: Field Survey, 1997



Source: Field Survey, 1997

the result were not significantly different from the one in the Table 4.4.5. The result is presented in Figure 9.

After further analysis on the lines of districts (Figure 10), it is clear that more respondents from District 1 (55%) as compared to that of District 2 (45%) thought that communities could embark on education campaign to educate girls and parents on the importance of girls' education. On the other hand, more respondents (50%) from District 2 as compared to (38%) from District 1 thought that communities can offer scholarships to girls as a measure to improve girls' participation in basic education.

The District Directors of Education and the headteachers who were interviewed as well as the participants in the group discussions all agreed with the other respondents that offering scholarships, and advising girls and other parents are things communities can do to help promote the participation of girls in basic education.

Community as used in this work refers to a group of people within the same geographical location. In this case, it is the study area. Since parents are members of the community, it is assumed that if their perception and attitude towards girls' education is favourable, it will influence the direction of the community's educational programmes.

When respondents were asked if the communities had initiated any action or programme on their own to address the enrolment and participation imbalance, it was reported that the communities had done very little to improve the situation. In fact, to majority of the main respondents (79%), nothing had been done. Eleven per cent of the respondents said that the communities had been advising and encouraging girls and parents, while 10% said the community had provided scholarships to brilliant girls.

Lack of community action was not limited to a specific geographic area (Table 4.4.6). In fact, there were no significant differences in the responses of urban and rural respondents with regard to what their communities had done.

Table 4.4.6: What Communities have Done so far To Improve Girls Participation in Basic Education by Locality of Respondents

Place of Residence	Community Action so Far							
	Nothing		Offered advice		Scholarships		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	N	%
Urban	32	80	2	5	6	15	40	50
Rural	31	78	8	20	1	2	40	50
Total	**63**	**79**	**10**	**12**	**7**	**9**	**80**	**100**

Chi-square statistic (X^2)=0.33 at 2 degrees of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 2 degrees of freedom = 9.21.
Source: Field survey, 1997

The conclusion that can be drawn from Table 4.4.6 is that both urban and rural respondents admitted that not much had been done in their communities to improve the participation of girls in basic education even though they knew that there were more boy-pupils than girl-pupils. Based on the premise that parents are vital stakeholders in girls' education, poor parental attitude will result in little or no action in the communities to promote girls' education in order to close the gender gap in schools.

Further probing of the twenty-one per cent of respondents who thought something had been done in their communities revealed that most of what they claimed had been done was initiated by either outsiders (the District Assembly and non-governmental organisations) or by a few community members. This shows clearly that even the little

that had been done was not initiated by the entire community hence, as many as 79% of the respondents were not even aware that something had been done by the community to improve girls' participation in education at the basic level..

The findings in this section show that even though the community as a whole has done very little to promote girls' education, parents were prepared to take actions to promote increased participation of girls' in education.

4.5 RESPONDENTS' AWARENESS OF MINISTRY OF EDUCATION'S ACTION TO PROMOTE GIRLS' EDUCATION

It is generally believed that parents are ignorant of measures taken by the M.O.E. to promote the education of girls. To ascertain the awareness of parents of these strategies as well as the involvement of communities in the formulation and implementation of Ministry of Education (M.O.E) strategies, the study looked into the issue of community awareness of the recommended strategies as well as any other options which respondents thought would facilitate greater participation of girls in basic education. It was assumed that the degree of awareness of such strategies would reflect in whatever action the communities might take to promote girls' education. It would also serve as an indication of the level of information flow from the policy level to field-level implementers. This section will, consequently, look specifically at the respondents' awareness about the recommended strategies and other workable options available to them.

4.5.1 Knowledge of Ministry of Education's Actions To Promote Girls' Education

The survey results showed that most respondents were not aware of any measure the Ministry of Education intended to take or had taken to promote girls' education (Table 4.5.1).

Table 4.5.1: Awareness of Ministry of Education Measures to Promote Girls Participation in Basic Education

Respondents' Response	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Yes	21	27
No	59	73
Total	80	100

Source: Field Survey, 1997.

When the awareness issue was looked at on group basis, according to respondents' places of residence, their academic background and occupation, the results showed that all grades of respondents were generally not aware of MOE measures to promote the education of girls. For example, 60% of urban residents and 88% of their rural counterparts were ignorant of these measures. Again, 81% of respondents who had no formal education, 73% of those with basic education and 57% of those with secondary or tertiary education claimed that they were ignorant of any MOE measures to promote the education of girls. With regard to occupation, 67% of the unemployed, 80% of the self-employed and 69% of salaried workers did not know of what the MOE had done or was doing to promote the education of girls. The analysis above shows clearly that community members had scanty less knowledge about the formulation and implementation of programmes to get more girls to participate in basic education. It also

implies that information flow from the top to the field level is either too slow or does not happen at all.

Respondents who showed awareness of MOE strategies mentioned scholarships, increasing admission quotas for girls, advising parents and girls, and introducing the FCUBE as some of the measures the MOE had taken or would be taking to address the gender imbalance in education (Table 4.5.2).

Table 4.5.2: Respondents knowledge of measures taken by the Ministry of Education to promote girls' education

Measures taken	No. of respondents	Percentage
Scholarship for girls	8	10
Educating parents/girls	5	6
Introducing FCUBE	6	8
Admission quota	2	3
*Not Applicable	59	73
Total	80	100

Source: Field Survey, 1997.
* Not applicable refers to those ignorant of any MOE measure.

The responses above show that even some of the respondents who claimed to be aware of MOE strategies to promote the education of girls were just as ignorant as those who confessed that they did not know of any such measures. This is because admission quota for girls is not one of the strategies recommended by the Ministry of Education to promote girls' education at the basic level. This implies that the proportion of

respondents (73%) who are ignorant of MOE measures is even be higher than what is shown in Table 4.5.1.

4.5.2 Opinion on Suggested Strategies to Promote Girls' Education

When it was pointed out to respondents that as part of the MOE measures, deserving girls would be given scholarships by the District Assemblies, almost all respondents (98%) saw this as very commendable and worth implementing. They believed that this strategy would serve as motivation to award winners to study hard. It would also challenge other girls to go to school and to strive to do well. Finally, they believed that such measures might encourage parents to send their girls to school and so enable children from poor backgrounds to also go to school. The minority 2% who disapproved of this strategy explained that most girls just do not have interest in education any way so it would rather be better to use available resources to educate parents on the need to send girls to school.

On their part, all the participants in the group discussions, the headteachers and the District Directors of Education all agreed that offering scholarships to deserving girls would enable more girls participate in basic education.

Respondents were further asked to express their opinions on whether building places of convenience for girls and female teachers in basic schools would bring about an increase in girls' participation in basic education. As Table 4.5.3 shows, majority of respondents (56%) did not agree that this strategy would yield any dividends. These respondents did not see how this would lead to an increase in girls' participation in basic

education. They explained that in many schools, separate places of convenience existed yet girls' enrolment remained low.

Table 4.5.3: Appropriateness of separate places of convenience as a promotion strategy by Locality of Respondent

Place of Resident	Response					
	Appropriate		Inappropriate		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Urban	20	50	20	50	40	50
Rural	15	42	25	58	40	50
Total	**35**	**44**	**45**	**56**	**80**	**100**

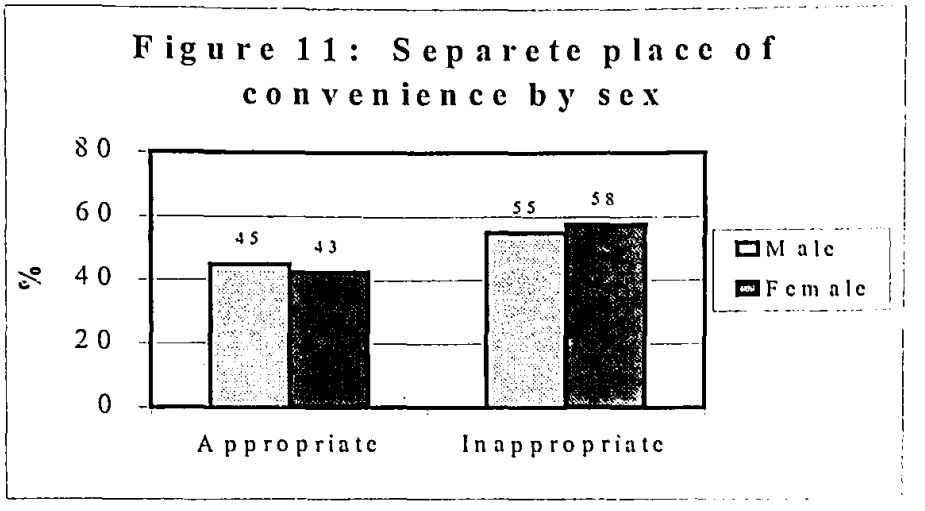
Chi-square statistic (X^2)=1.27 at 1 degree of freedom, P<0.01. Critical value at 0.01 with 1 degree of freedom = 6.63.

Source: Field survey, 1997

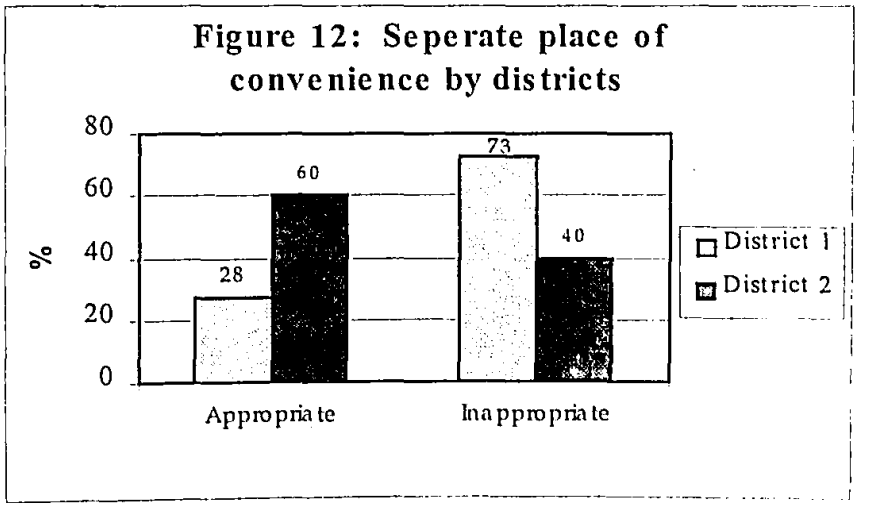
Consequently, to them, using this measure with the sole aim of enticing girls to go to school would not yield any benefit. The headteachers agreed with this view.

Respondents, including the District Directors of Education and the participants in the focus group discussions, who thought that the building of separate places of convenience for girls and female teachers would promote girls education stated that at certain ages, girls needed more privacy and respect. Ensuring that they were accorded these privileges would encourage them to stay long enough to complete school.

When the respondents were grouped according to sex and their responses analysed, the results showed that both males and females shared similar opinion (figure 11).



Source: Field Survey, 1997

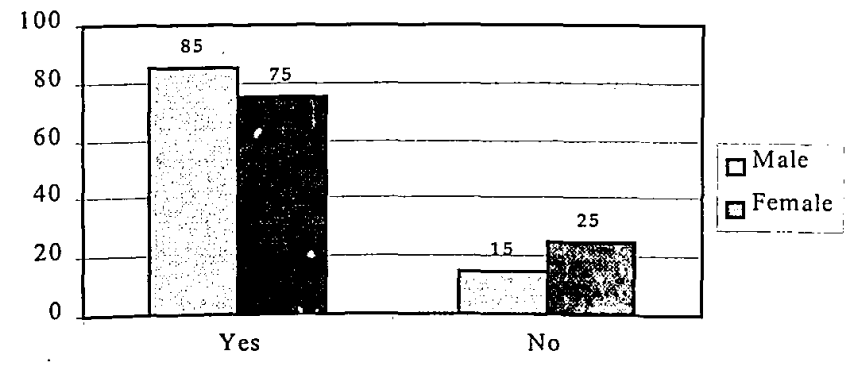


Source: Field Survey, 1997

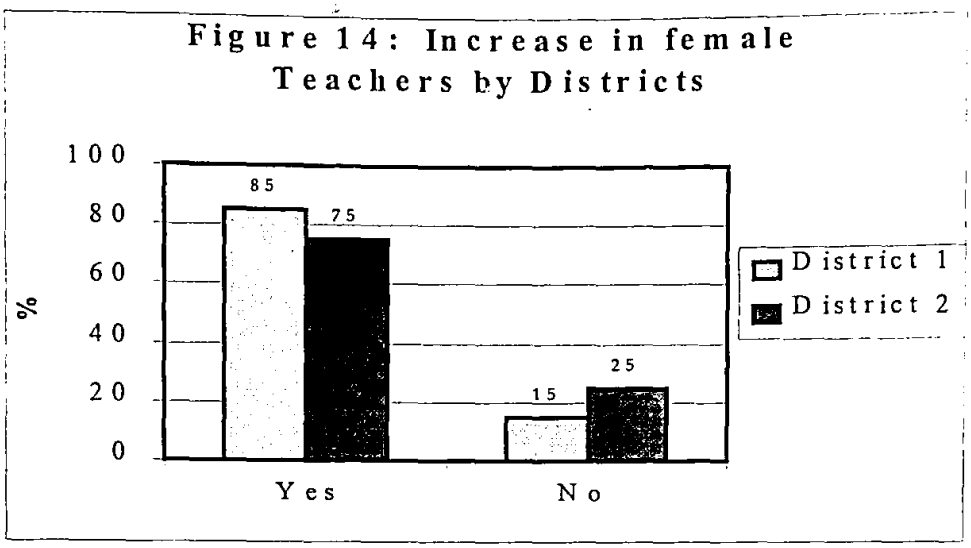
In Figure 12 above, analysis along district lines showed that majority of respondents (60%) from District 2 thought that building separate places of convenience would help increase the participation of girls in basic education. Only 23% of the respondents from District 1 thought so. Conversely a greater majority of respondents from District 1 (73%) thought that the measure is inappropriate, whilst less than half of the respondents from District 2 thought so. If parents were aware of the measures the MOE has put in place to encourage enrolment, retention and achievement of girls' in school, their attitude and perception may change. Knowledge of such measures is likely to raise a lot of eyebrows and probably generate discussions which may influence parents' way of thinking as to how they can support their girl-children to participate in education.

Another issue that respondents were asked to express their opinions on was whether an increase in female teachers in basic schools in their communities would encourage girls to enroll and remain in basic schools. The research findings indicate that majority of the respondents (80%) thought that it would, whilst the other 20% thought otherwise.

Figure 13: Increase in femaleTeachers by sex of respondents



Source: Field Survey, 1997



Source: Field Survey, 1997

When the results were analysed along district and sex lines, the results were not significantly different from the one above. Generally both male (85%) and female (75%) thought increase in female teachers will help increase girls' participation in basic education (Figure 13)..

Analysis of the results along districts lines showed similar results and It can be seen from the analysis that even though both male and female respondents put boys' education first, females are likely to be more receptive to girls' education than males and is presented as shown in figure 14.

The research findings agree with a UNICEF (1997) assertion that many parents prefer to have their daughters taught by women. Generally, most respondents were of the view that increasing the population of female teachers would be beneficial. They explained that male teachers sometimes sexually abuse girls in school. Some of them also mentioned that female teachers serve as role models for girls. They added that

female teachers are more understanding and caring than male teachers. The participants in the group discussions agreed with this group of respondents.

The respondents who answered that they did not agree that increasing the number of female teachers would lead to an increase in the participation of girls in basic education could just not see how an increase in the population of female teachers would affect girls' participation in basic education. To them female teachers are lazy or, as is often the case, spend more teaching time on their own business to the detriment of their pupils.

According to the headteachers and District Directors of Education, however, the sex of a teacher did not matter much when it comes to girls' education. The Directors added that sometimes some communities ask specifically for female teachers to be posted to their schools. When this happens, they are, often, reluctant to accept male replacements. This implies that the use of female teachers as role models to improve or increase girls' participation in basic education should be done in consultation with community members. Where community members do not have confidence in female teachers, the strategy will not work.

4.5.3 Respondents Suggestions for Improving Girls' Participation in Education

Respondents were also asked to make suggestions on what can be done to improve girls' participation in basic education. Some of the suggestions which parents made were that other parents must be advised to send their girls to school and to also make sure that these girls attend school regularly. Parents must provide their wards with their basic needs and also reduce the house-hold and other chores of girls. There was also the recommendation that parents who kept their children out of school should be

prosecuted. It was, again, recommended that the campaign against teenage pregnancy be intensified to advice girls too. In fact those who made this point stressed that seminars and fora be organised in the communities, where some highly educated women in high positions could be invited to interact with girls in basic schools. Others thought that special incentives such as school uniforms, free food and scholarships must be given to girls who attend school. They recommended further that these incentives should be provided by the District Assembly and the Government. Some respondents also said that boys and girls must be treated equally both at home and at school. For example boys must be made to sweep, wash and cook just as girls so as to lessen some of the burdens of girls. Finally, it was also suggested that more "girls only" schools staffed by female teachers must be established.

On their part, participants in the group discussions recommended the involvement of religious bodies (especially local churches and Islamic associations) in the campaign to get more girls to go to school and to stay to complete their programmes of study. The headteachers and the District Directors of Education recommended persuasion and education of both girls and their parents and building girls only schools as ways of addressing the problem of low enrolment of girls in schools at the basic level. They again recommended that if all other measures fail, policy makers should consider punishing parents who keep girls out of school, as an option.

4.5.4 Community Involvement In Decision-Making

When respondents were asked if the Ministry of Education involved them in any form of discussions before it came out with its strategies, 94% of them stated that nothing

of that sort happened. Incidentally, all the headteachers and the District Directors of Education claimed to have been consulted.

The analysis made from the responses show that majority of people who are affected by policies are often neglected or they themselves were not interested when such policies were being formulated. Consequently, when the method of disseminating such policies are not very effective the people do not get to know about them.

The findings of the study show that majority of respondents are not aware of government policy measures to improve girls' education. This implies that majority of the affected persons (parents) were not involved in the planning and formulation of these policies. It also implies that there were not enough public education in communities on what government is doing to promote girls' education. Parents are very important stakeholders when children's education especially that of girls is concerned because they decide which child should go to school. Parents' opinion must be solicited before measures are taken in an attempt to solve problems in education.

4.5.5 Summary

The research findings revealed that the respondents were generally not aware of MOE programmes to promote girls' education in the country. This was an omission on the part of policy planners as the study results showed clearly that the involvement of parents might have enriched the programme further. In fact, most of the suggestions made by respondents were similar to the strategies which have been recommended to District Assemblies by the MOE.

CHAPTER FIVE

MAIN FINDINGS CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter offers a summary of the major findings and the general conclusions reached in the study. The section also includes recommendations which, if applied, could enable those concerned about girls' participation in basic education initiate action on the conclusions arrived in the study.

5.1 MAIN FINDINGS

The main findings in the study were as shown under the headings below:

A. Perception of respondents about the education of girls

1) Ghanaian parents send their children to school for various reasons. According to the respondents, sending children to school is a means of preparing them for future life. It also enables children acquire knowledge. Finally, sending children to school is a form of investment, which yields dividends when the child completes schooling and is gainfully employed.

2) Majority of respondents, most of them rural dwellers, would educate the boy-child when their resources could not educate all their children. Only few parents, majority of whom were urban dwellers, would give the girl-child an equal chance with the boy-child, basing their choice of who to educate on which child was more brilliant. The respondents gave various reasons to explain their preferences. Those who would prefer to educate boys said that boys needed better preparation for life. Besides, boys are more brilliant than girls. Finally, according to them, more girls drop out of school than boys so the girls may even drop out of school to learn other

jobs or trade, thereby, wasting precious investment resources. Those who opted for the education of the girl-child stated that "it would prepare the girl for life and make her independent". Some of them also claimed that what a boy could do, a girl could do as well.

3) Various reasons were given to explain the choice of sex of child to be sent to school. Most parents consider boys' education more important because they thought boys needed better preparation in life and that girls may probably drop-out of school thereby wasting resources.

   Some of those who said that both boys and girls needed to be educated explained that education is a right for all. Other respondents also explained that girls serve as role models in society.

4) Generally, majority of educated, urban respondents were of the that both boys and girls need education and that both should be sent to school.

5) Most respondents agreed that both boys and girls should be allowed to spend equal number of years in school because they both need equal chances in life. Respondents who thought that boys should spend more years in school, were mainly rural dwellers. They believe that boys are more talented than girls. Besides, boys need more time to prepare for life. On the other hand, the few respondents, mostly educated, urban dwellers, who wanted girls to spend more years in school were educated, thought that when girls spend more years in school they are prepared very well for future life.

6) The parents in the study listed the most important needs of a girl-child as education, food, basic needs and love (affection). In spite of all their perceived

biases in favour of boys education, more rural parents considered education as the most important need of a girl-child.

7) The Parents mentioned that girls' education is important because:

- it makes girls independent and resourceful
- educated girls serve as role models because of their enhanced status and increased ability to contribute to the development of society and the nation
- if you educate a woman you educate a nation
- it enables girls to compete with their male counterparts in the job market

8) Both boys and girls perform household chores but, generally, a girl-child performed more chores than a boy-child.

9) Parents in the study area will, in most cases, let the girl-child, instead of the boy-child, stay out of school to help in performing household chores, look after other children and sick relatives, and help in trading when it becomes necessary. This is because respondents consider these as women's jobs. The boy-child will only be made to stay out of school, when it becomes necessary, to help in fishing and farming because those are thought to be "men's jobs" which demand much physical strength.

10) The minority of respondents who did not see the importance of educating the girl-child argued that:

- Girls often drop-out of school, thereby, wasting resources
- Women have their husbands to depend on
- Many women do not make use of their education after school
- Most women's jobs do not require much schooling

- Generally, girls perform poorly at school

11) Most parents agreed that boys and girls should study the same subjects in school because:

- they have equal abilities and talents
- girls may even do better than boys.

11) Respondents who thought that girls and boys should not study the same subjects argued that:

- Some subjects expose girls to certain hazards in life
- boys and girls are not expected to play the same roles in future life so they need not study the same subjects
- girls can not compete with boys in certain subjects
- some subjects will keep girls too long in school and thus, delay their marriage and, consequently, child-bearing.

13) Subjects which some respondents mentioned as not being suitable for girls are mathematics, science and technical subjects such as carpentry, welding and spraying. On the other hand, home management and related subjects were thought to be appropriate subjects for girls but not for boys.

B. Parental Aspiration for Girls

1) Almost all respondents had high aspirations for their girl-children with most respondents expressing the wish for their girl-children to become salaried workers such as medical officers civil servants, teachers and security officers. A sizeable proportion of respondents also wanted their daughters to become self-employed.

2) The respondents recognised the need for good quality care and education for their children if the children were to attain the aspirations parents had for them. The respondents noted that to enable their daughters achieve the aspirations parents had for them (daughters), parents would have to provide the girls with all their educational needs, financial, moral/spiritual support and encouragement.

3) Another finding was that most parents in the study area would want their girl-children, just as their boy-children, to be educated up to the University level.

4) Majority of respondents claimed that they encouraged their girls to go to school. The few respondents who did not encourage their girls to go to school explained that girls do not need to go to school to become prosperous or resourceful. Some respondents in this category also explained that their girls went to school on their own so there was no need for them to be encouraged.

5) Parents were prepared to play certain roles in their daughters' education. These were:

   - providing all the needs of their girl-children to enable them concentrate on schooling
   - offering advice and encouragement
   - reducing the workload of girl-children to enable them study after school
   - providing them extra tuition at home

6) Respondents were of the view that the roles mentioned above would motivate the child to go to school, help her to focus her attention on her studies and, consequently, enable her perform well in school.

7) For most respondents schooling was the most important need of a girl-child. Schooling was, therefore, ranked higher than helping in keeping house and fostering or house-help.

C. Parental Perceptions about Community Action Towards the Education of Girls

1) Majority of parents thought that the benefit of a girl's education goes more to herself than the family and community.

2) Most of respondents thought that there were more boy-pupils than girl-pupils in the area of study. This was so mainly because some parents do not consider the education of girls as important as that of boys. Also, girls drop out of school more often than boys.

3) The respondents believed that parents could do a lot to improve the participation of girls in basic schools in their communities. Actions parents could take include the following:

- parents advising and encouraging their girls to go to school and organising extra tuition for them.
- parents paying school fees and providing the needs of their daughters regularly to enable them stay in school.
- Parents who have children in school advising other parents on the importance of girls' education.

4) According to the respondents, communities too could take the following actions to improve girls participation in basic education:

- educate parents and girls on the importance of education.

- institute awards and scholarships for girls.
- punish girls who refuse to go to school and parents who keep girls out of school.

5) With regard to specific actions targetting improving girls' participation in education, majority of respondents stated that their communities had done virtually nothing so far.

D. Awareness of, Attitudes to and opinions on Ministry of Education's Action to Promote Girls' Education

1) Respondents, especially rural dwellers, were generally, unaware of measures the M.O.E. had taken or intended to take to promote girls' participation in basic education.

2) Majority of respondents both urban and rural, thought that if selected girls are given scholarships by the District Assemblies, recipients will be motivated to study hard. This will also challenge other girls to go to school. Again, parents will be encouraged to send their girls to school and, eventually, help to increase girls' participation in education. Furthermore, it will motivate girls who have the ability to study but whose parents or guardians cannot support them financially to also go to school.

3) With regard to building separate places of convenience for girls and female teachers, many respondents (parents) did not see the advantage of this strategy as a means of increasing girls' participation in education at the basic level.

4) Those who approved of having separate places of convenience for boys and girls thought that girls needed privacy and respect. According to them, when this privacy and respect is lacking, most girls might drop out.

5) Most respondents thought that increase in female teachers in basic schools in these communities would encourage girls to go to school. To them female teachers would serve as role models. Female teachers are, also, more understanding and caring than male teachers. They argued again that male teachers sometimes disturb girls in school by harassing them sexually.

6) Majority reported that they were not contacted or consulted in any way by the M.O.E. before it came out with strategies for improving girls' participation in basic education.

E. Respondents Suggestions for improving Girls' participation in education

1) The respondents recommended that parents must be advised to send their girls to school and make sure these girls attend school regularly by providing them their basic needs.
2) The campaign against teenage pregnancy must be intensified. This can be done through seminars and fora in the communities.
3) Highly educated women in responsible positions should be invited to interact with girls at school and community functions.
4) Special incentives such as school uniforms, free food, scholarships, etc must be given to girls who attend school by the central government or district assemblies.
5) Boys and girls must be treated equally both at home and in school.

6) Parents who keep girls out of school must be punished by the state.

7) More girls only schools must be built and staffed with female teachers.

8) Establishment of girls' education committees in communities.

5.2 CONCLUSION

Education is the way through which the potentials in individuals are developed so as to make them useful to themselves and to the society as a whole. In Ghana where females constitute more than half of the population, the education of girls has become a matter of great concern to government, NGO's and individuals.

The study examined current parental perceptions about as well as attitude towards girls' education and their implications for community based programmes in Ghana.

The study had a general objective of examining parental attitudes and perceptions and their implications for community-based programmes in the effort to improve enrolment and retention of girls in basic education in the selected communities. It also sought to find out from the people in the selected communities feasible measures for improving girls' participation in basic education and to make recommendations accordingly.

It was realised that parental perceptions about the importance of education at the basic level is lower for girls than it is for boys. If Ghana is to achieve the major goals as spelt out in the FCUBE programme, then the current imbalances in the enrolment of girls in basic education must be addressed.

A major finding of the study was that generally, parents in the study area know about the importance of education for all and do not discriminate which of their children

to send to school. However, it was still realized that most parents would prefer to educate their boy children if their (parent's) resources could educate only one child. This implies that parents do not place equal value on the education of boys and girls.

Consequently, many respondents had less favourable perceptions about the education of girls than they had for boys. Generally, this appeared to be the view of all respondents in the study, their social status notwithstanding. The research revealed that in spite of these perceptions parents have high educational and career aspirations for their girl children and recognized that to attain such aspirations, the girls needed education. for both girls and boys. If they had the opportunity, most respondents would want their daughters, just as their sons, to acquire university education. They would also wish that their daughters would all be gainfully employed in the future. What this implies is that the importance of girls' education is known to parents and that it only when there are other demands on the family's resources that the girl's education is sacrificed.

Perhaps, because respondents had less favourable perception of the education of girls, the study revealed that boy-pupils were more than girl pupils in the study area, just as it was in most parts of the country. The study also revealed that even though both boys and girls perform household chores, on the whole, a girl-child performed more chores than a boy-child. This is a clear case of parental perception of gender roles which may impact negatively on girls' participation in education.

Generally, respondents and their communities had not done much to promote the education of girls and the respondents realized that a lot could be done to rectify the situation. Finally the study revealed that community members were generally not aware of intended M.O.E. measures to improve girls' participation in basic education.

To address this imbalance, the family, community and the state must come together to provide the needed education for girls and ensure a greater participation for them. No single stakeholder, no matter how endowed, can, on its own, ensure this. That is why the state and other interested agencies have taken a lead role in the provision of basic education.

As things stand now, there appears to be major lapses in programme planning and implementation since girls participation is still low. As a way of redressing these lapses, it has been suggested that certain measures or strategies be adapted, where feasible. There is the need for a complement to conventional ways of providing basic education to girls. Such a strategy will require a partnership between parents and community on one hand and the state and other "external" bodies on the other.

Parents and, for that matter, communities have great influence on the education of children. Girls' education is more likely to attract the support (both financial and otherwise) of the communities if parents were involved in the identification of the needs of their girls as well as the formulation of solutions, to existing obstacles to girls' education.

The fact that respondents made suggestions about what parents and communities can do to improve girls' participation in education is an indication that when community members are encouraged, they could become allies in efforts to establish community-based programmes to promote girls' education. It is important that the communities are encouraged to play a more vital role in programmes which intend to improve girls participation in basic education than current conventional methods allow. It is only when this is done that the objectives of the Accra Seminar and FCUBE can be achieved.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the conclusions derived from the main findings of the study, the following recommendations have been made for the consideration of those concerned with the education of girls.

Community Participation in Education

1) Families and communities are important partners in the education of children. They must therefore, be involved in all stages of programme planning and implementation. In fact, they need to be encouraged to get more involved in programmes aimed at improving girls' participation in basic education than they have so far. Their involvement will guarantee their support for these projects and make the projects sustainable.
2) Girls' Education Committees should be set up in communities and made solely responsible for planning, implementation and oversight of girls education programmes and strategies.
3) The PTA/SMC should be made active and be educated on their responsibilities and roles in education. They should also be trained continuously to take up awareness creation among their members.

Strengthen social mobilisation campaigns to create awareness and change attitudes about sending girls to school. This can be done by:

1) Intensifying campaign on the education of the girl-child to convince parents, especially, in the rural communities, that it is very important and that benefits of educating their daughters outweigh the costs.

2) Intensifying sensitization of people especially the rural dwellers about the need to assist both boys and girls equally, especially where education is concerned. Also, sensitise parents on the fact that boys and girls need equal attention and opportunities in life. Such a programme could change parental perceptions and, thereby, enable more girls gain access to basic education.

3) Educating both parents and children on the idea that every profession needs people with some academic qualifications. This will encourage girls to acquire, at least, basic education.

4) Making people aware of the need to reduce the household chores performed by girls and share it equally among boys and girls, or get parents themselves to take on some of these chores. This will enable girls get more time for study after school, just as boys.

5) Helping to educate parents to appreciate that their girl-children can not achieve their career aspirations without education.

6) Intensifying educational campaigns on teenage pregnancy in order to eliminate or at least reduce the incidence of high dropouts among girls. This will increase the confidence of parents in their girls and, hence, make investing in their girls' education more attractive.

7) Training some local people as facilitators in the use of participatory learning and action methods for promoting girls education in order to spearhead community mobilization campaigns with the SMC/PTA executives.

8) Intensifying use of radio programs to discuss issues related to girls' education

Scholarship Schemes for girls.

1) Communities should institute awards and scholarships for brilliant but needy girls in school. The district assemblies can use part of their common fund to support this venture. This will reduce the financial burden on parents who may otherwise disriminate against the girl.

2) Friends and relatives of poor parents can support them (poor parents) by providing funds, materials and advice towards supporting the education of girls.

3) The policy whereby District Assemblies can use part of their common fund to support brilliant but needy girls need to be intensified and enforced to assist more to enter training colleges. Such girls must be bonded to teach in their communities on completion, to serve as role models.

Use of Role models

1) Various measures such as film shows, public fora and seminars and inviting important women personalities to talk to school girls could be used to address the problem of low enrolment and retention rate of girls in schools.

2) Organize programmes to encourage university students to counsel girls in their local communities about careers.

3) Queen Mothers should be enlisted to spearhead enrollment drives and other activities highlighting girls' education in their communities.

4) Intensify affirmative action to supply more trained female teachers to serve as role models in rural areas. The needs of female teachers posted to rural areas

must be given the necessary attention to enable them stay in such areas.

Use of bye-laws

1) District assembly should enact bye-laws to sanction parents who use their girl-children in trading or on other jobs during school time thereby preventing them from going to school.

2) Community members could also enact bye-laws to sanction parents who use their girl-children in trading or on other jobs during school time thereby preventing them from going to school. They could also enact bye-laws to prevent drop-out as well.

Other strategies which can be used to promote girls' education

1) Pilot project for girls' only schools with many female teachers to act as role models must be established by the MOE/GES. If this proves successful, it can be replicated all over the country.

2) Existing conventional ways of providing primary education can be modified to meet the needs and aspirations of the local people taking into consideration the socio-cultural and economic setting. For example non-formal primary classes can be organised for girls aged between 9-14 years who are either drop-outs or who never enrolled in schools. In fact, this has been done and proved successful in the Pune district of India for working children, especially girls, in rural areas. In Ghana, the school for life, an NGO, is already piloting this innovation in some districts in the Northern Region.

3) Some programmes for improving girls' participation in education which have worked in other developing countries can be modified and replicated in Ghana.

4) The school going age should be made flexible to enable older children go to school without restriction.

Further Research

It is also recommended that other research works should be carried out in other parts of the country in order to bring out relative similarities and contrasts in different parts of the country. Such studies, it is hoped, will cover other areas which were not dealt with adequately in this research.

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APPENDIX I

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR PARENTS

1.District:.....
2.Town:.....
3. Locality:.....
4. Sex: 1. Male: [ ] 2. Female: [ ]
5. Age(state) .....
6. Occupation:
   1. Unemployed/seeking employment [ ]
   2.Self-employed specify) .....
   3. Salaried/wage worker [ ]
7. Highest Educational Attainment:
   1. No formal education [ ]
   2. Primary Education only [ ]
   3. Up to middle form 4/JSS.3 [ ]
   4. Second cycle [ ]
   5. Tertiary [ ]
8. Marital status:
   1. Single [ ]
   2. Married [ ]
   3. Separated [ ]
   4. Divorced [ ]
   5. Widowed [ ]
9. Number of children: Total:.....
   a. Boys: ..... b. Girls: .....
10. Number of children in school or ever attended school. Total:.....a. Boys:.....b. Girls:.....
11. If any of your daughters is not in school, give reasons
12. Who decides which of your children should go to school?
13. Have any of your children ever dropped out of school?
    1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
14. If 'yes', was the child a boy or a girl?
15. Why is it necessary to educate your children?
16. Who should a parent send to school?
    1. Son [ ] 2. daughter [ ]
    3. Both [ ] 4. None of them [ ]
17a. Whose education is more important:
    1. Boy [ ] 2. Girl [ ]
b. Give reasons:.....
18a. if your resources can educate only child, who will you educate?
    1. Boy [ ] 2. Girl [ ]

b. Give reasons:.....

19. If you had the opportunity, what would want your daughter(s) to become in future?
20. What should you do to help your daughter to become what you wish for her?

21. In order of importance, list the three most important needs of a girl child
22. If you had the opportunity, up to what level would you educate your
    a. boy child? Give reasons
    b. Girl-child? Give reasons
23. a. Who would you allow to spend more years in school?
    1. The boy-child [ ] 2. The girl-child [ ] 3. Both [ ]
    b. Give reasons:

24. What household chores does your
    a. boy-child? and b. girl-child?

Chores:

Boy-child 1	Morning	Afternoon	Evening
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
Girl-child 1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			

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

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

26. List any three reasons why you think educating girls is

a. important
b. not important

27 List any reason(s) why you may not want to send you girl-child to school?

28a. Do you think girls and boys should study the same subjects in school?
a. Yes [ ] No. [ ]
b. Give reasons

c. If 'yes' to 28a, in which subjects?

29a. Do you ever encourage your daughter to go to school?
a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
b. If 'yes', how do you do it?
c. If 'no', why not?

30. How would you rank the following for your child (in terms of importance)?
- Schooling [ ]
- Fostering/househelp [ ]
- Helping you in your work [ ]
- Keeping house for you [ ]

31a What roles are you, as a parent, prepared to play towards your daughter's education?
b. Explain your answer

32. Do you think that educating your daughter(s) will be of benefit to
a. herself?
b. you and your family?
c. your community? Explain your answer

33. Who are more in your community?
1. Boy-pupils [ ] 2. Girl pupils [ ]

34. Why is the situation so (in 33)

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

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

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

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

39. Are you aware any measures that the Ministry of Education wants to take to promote girls education?
a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
b. If yes mention some of them

40. If selected girls are given scholarship by the district assembly, will it increase girls participation in basic education?
a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
b. Please explain your answer

41. Assume that separate places of convenience will be built for girls and female teachers in basic schools, will this increase girls participation in basic schools?

a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
b. Explain

42. Will the increase of female teachers in basic schools in your community encourage girls to remain in basic schools?
a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
b. Please explain your answer

43. Were you consulted by the Ministry of Education before recommending these strategies for increasing girls participation in basic education?
a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
b. If yes in what ways(s)

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

45. Name and address of respondent

APPENDIX II

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR COMMUNITY GROUP DISCUSSION

1. Locality:.....
2. What is the sex distribution of pupils in the school
3. If there is any disparity in sex distribution please explain
4. Do some people in this community refuse to send their daughters(s) to school?
   a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
4 b. Give reasons
5. If you were asked to choose, who would you send to school, boy, girl or both?
b. Give reasons
6. Why is it necessary to send children to school?
7. Why would a parent not send his/her children to school?
8. What benefit accrue to a girl who completes at least basic school?
a. herself to her family?
b. to her community?
9. Give reasons why educating a boy might be:
a. more important to you than educating a girl?
b. Less important to you than educating a girl?
10. What do you think parents can do to ensure that their daughters go to school, remain and complete courses?
11. What can the community do to ensure improved participation of girls in basic education? Suggest some ways:
12. What has your community done so far towards girls education?
13. Who initiated the action?
14. Are you aware of any measures that the Ministry of Education wants to take to promote girls education?
    1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
b. If 'yes' mention some of them
15. If selected girls are given scholarship by the district assembly, will it increase girls participation in basic education?
    1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
b. Please explain your answer
16. Assume that separate places of convenience will be built for girls and female teachers in basic schools, will this increase girls participation in basic schools?
    1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
b. Please explain your answer
17. Will the increase of female teachers in basic schools in your community encourage girls to remain in basic schools?
    1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]
b. Please explain your answer

18. Were you consulted by the Ministry of Education before recommending these strategies for increasing girls participation in basic education?
    1. Yes [ ] 2. No [ ]

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

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

20. Names of Participants: Position in community
    ....

APPENDIX III

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR DISTRICT DIRECTORS

1. Locality:.....
2. What is the Sex distribution of pupils in this district
3. If there is any disparity in sex distribution please explain
4. In your opinion, which of the sexes stop schooling more?
5. What are some of the reasons for stopping school?
6. What do you think parents can do to ensure that their daughters go to school, remain and complete their courses?
7. What can the communities do to ensure improved participation of girls in basic education?
8. What do you think the district education in collaboration with the district assembly do to ensure that girls enrol, remain and complete their courses?
9. What has been done so far by these organisations towards girls education?
10. Who initiated the action?
11. Are you aware of the measures that the Ministry of Education wants to take as part of the FCUBE programme to promote girls education?
    a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
    b. If 'yes' can you please state these measures
12. Why do you think girls and not boys should be given scholarship by the district assembly?
13. What is your opinion on the measure that girls and female teachers will be provided with separate places of convenience in basic schools
14. Will the increase of female teachers in basic school in your district encourage girls to remain in basic schools?
    a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
    b. What is your opinion on this?
15. Were you consulted by the Ministry of Education before drawing up these strategies for increasing girls participation in basic schools?
    a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
    b. If yes, in what way(s)
16. What other ways would you recommend to increase girls participation in basic education.

APPENDIX IV

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HEADTEACHERS

1. Locality:.....
2. What is the sex distribution of pupils in the school
3. If there is any disparity in sex distribution please explain
4. Do some people in this community refuse to send their daughter(s) to school?
   a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b. Give reasons
5. In your opinion, which of the sexes stop schooling more?
6. What are some of the reasons for stopping school?
7. What benefits accrue to a girl who completes at least basic school?
   a. to herself.....
   b. to her family.....
   c. to her community.....
8. What do you think parents can do to ensure that their daughters go to school, remain and complete their course
9. What can the community do to ensure improved participation of girls in basic education?
10. What has your community done so far towards girls education?
11. Who initiated the action?
12. What do you think your school can do to ensure that girls enrol, remain and complete their courses
13. What has your school done so far towards girls education?
14. Who initiated the action?
15 Are you aware of any measures that the Ministry of Education wants to take to promote girls education?
   a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b. If 'yes' mention all those you know
16 If selected girls are given scholarship by the district assembly, will it increase girls participation in basic education
   a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b. Please explain
17. Assume that separate places of convienence will be built for girls and female teachers in basic schools, will this increase girls participation in basic schools?
   a. Yes [ ] No [ ]
   b. Please explain
18. Will the increase of female teachers in basic schools in your community encourage girls to remain in basic schools?
   a.. Yes [ ] . No [ ]
   b. Please explain
19. Were you consulted by the Ministry of Education before recommending these strategies for increasing girls participation in basic education?

a. Yes [ ] No [ ]

b. If yes in what way(s)

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