UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EXAMINING ATTITUDE TOWARDS GIRL – CHILD EDUCATION IN JAMESTOWN

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EDUCATION IN JAMESTOWN

BY

BELINDA ADU – BRAKO

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

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

Candidate's Name: Belinda Adu – Brako

Signature:………………………………… Date;………………………………

Supervisor's Declaration

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

Supervisor's Name: Dr. Francis Enu – Kwesi

Signature:…………………………………. Date;………………………………

ABSTRACT

The study set out to examine the role that education plays in the empowerment of the girl- child within Jamestown. It also examined the attitude of the girl-child and their parents towards the education of the girl-child and strategies that could be put in place to encourage the girl child to give priority to education.

Descriptive and cross – sectional designs were adopted to study 252 household heads and 115 students. Questionnaires were used to collect data from both set of respondents. Statistical tools used to analyse the data collected included descriptive tools such as means, medians, frequencies and percentages. Inferential statistics, such as chi –square with independent sample t- test and phi – statistic were also used to test for significant differences and associations where applicable.

The study found that the household heads generally showed supportive attitudes towards educating their female wards, however predispositions that girls were less intelligent than boys were not indicative of the positive attitude towards girl-child education. Moreover, household heads did not exhibit adequate support for their female children in terms of regular payment of dues, following up and monitoring the progress of their wards, and getting personally involved in the education of their female wards. The commonest challenge faced by household heads in educating their wards had todo with financing education of the girl-child. The study recommended that household heads should get involved in their wards education and performance monitoring, and for students to report all physical abuses by teachers and to seek school- counseling to help them deal with the issues of stigmatisation.

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DEDICATION

To my late mother, Lucy Esiam Koomson.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the study

The importance of education to global and national development is emphasised by Goal 2 of the millennium development goals (MDGs), which aims to achieve universal primary education by the year 2012 (UN, 2000). In a review by the World Bank (2011), it was established that, this goal may not be achieved within the stipulated timeframe because many developing countries are still challenged by several problems in education. One of such problems identified relates to persistent gender inequality in education. Prior to this, the United Nations Division for the Advancement of Women (DAW) and UNICEF (2001) stated that educating girls is one effective means to improve gender equality through the empowerment of girls for economic growth, as well as the healthy development of families, communities, and nations.

Educational empowerment of the girl-child reflects not only in personal development but also in progeny. According to Kar, Pascual and Chickering (1999), children born to more educated mothers are more likely to survive and less likely to experience malnutrition. It is also proven by Durkheim, Lauder and Brown (2006) that, children of more educated women are more likely to receive better education and thus, become empowered members and contributors to

societal development. The empowerment of the girl-child is therefore a progressive activity that runs through generations.

World Bank (2005) links girl-child education to female empowerment on the assertion that, education leads to improved literacy and numeracy skills leading to greater economic opportunities for the girl child. This in turn encourages delayed marriage and better parenting skills, healthier, better educated children and grandchildren, fewer maternal deaths and reductions in the under 5 mortality rate, and more skills and knowledge enhancing women's self esteem and the well being of families.Education is one of the most important means of empowering women with the knowledge, skills and self – confidence necessary to participate fully in the development process.

UNFPA (2003)reports that, education is important for everyone , but it is especially significant for girls and women. This is true not only because education is an entry point to other opportunities, but also because the educational achievements of women can have ripple effects within the family and across generations. Investing in girls' education is one of the most effective ways to reduce poverty. UNFPA (2003) global survey on ICPD + 10 showed that most programme countries formally recognize the importance of reducing the gender gap in education between boys and girls.

Everybody has the right to education, which has been recognized since the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR) in 1948. The World Bank's (2012) World Development Report on Gender Equality and Development drew attention to the fact that, there still are 31 million girls out of school, nearly 4

million 'missing' women annually and average wage gaps of 20 percent, along with gaps in labour force participation. Right to Education Project (2008) asserts that, basic education provides girls and women with an understanding of basic health, nutrition and family planning, giving them choices and the power to decide over their own lives and bodies. Women's education leads directly to better reproductive health, improved family health, economic growth for the family and society.

Tomasevski CB(2005) posits that educating girls and women is an important step in overcoming poverty. World Education (2013) also reports that, education also empowers girls to develop skills that allow them to make decisions and influence community change in key areas, like population growth, HIV and AIDS, peace and security and the widening gap between the rich and poor. Another empowering factor as posited by World Education is that, higher rates of high school and university education among women, particularly in the developing countries, have helped them make inroads to professional careers and better – paying salaries and wages. Mebane (2011) reports in an article that, women are also likely to stand up for themselves, their rights and spend more time educating their own children. She is more likely to initiate action for social change and better able to participate indecision-making and contribute to community or national politics.

Meanwhile, the World Bank's (2012) World Development Report on Gender Equality and Development, drew attention to the fact that, more educated women tend to be healthier, participate more in the formal labour market, earn

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more income, have fewer children and provide better healthcare and education to their children, all of which eventually improve the well being of all individuals and can lift households out of poverty.

Assefaw (2010) in an article stated that "Girls education – a strategic tool to enhance the role of women in society", posits that, education liberates the girl – child from all the prejudices and gives her also economic independence. Former UN Secretary–General, Kofi Annan (2005) puts it simply: "No other policy is likely to raise economic productivity, lower infant and maternal mortality, improve nutrition, promote health, including the prevention of HIV/AIDS, and increase the chances of education. Let us invest in women and girls."

The importance of girl-child education is also recognised by the government of Ghana. In Spite of the many challenges faced by the nation to increase the accessibility of education to all and sundry, the government has put in measures to improve the standard of education in Ghana. The Ashiedu Keteke sub-metro which covers Jamestown has been a beneficiary of several educational investments by the local government (AMA, 2006). For example, in one constituency it is reported that almost half of its Ghana Education Trust Fund, HIPC, and Common Funds has been spent on educational infrastructure.

Statement of the problem

World Bank (2005) links girl-child education to empowerment of females, through the opportunities offered by education for improved literacy and skills for better socio-economic status. In spite of the global agenda to promote universal education and several interventions instituted in different countries, CEDPA (2007) asserts that around the world, girls are the least educated, and too few girls are empowered through education.

One disempowering factor identified is early marriage of the girl-child. It is reported by International Centre for Research on Women (ICRW) (2008) that, more than 10,000 teenage girls get married every day. However, teenage marriages are reported to be highest in African regions. For example, the percentage of all women between the ages of twenty and twenty-four who were married before age 18 was reported to be 77 percent on Niger, 71 percent in Chad, 65 percent in Mali, 53 percent in Burkina Faso and 31 percent in Togo.

There are also issues of poverty that leads parents to focus on male education. According to Hannum and Buchmann (2005), the opportunity costs of girls' schooling are most significant for poor households. This is, because girls' labour is used to substitute for their mothers'. The loss of girls' labour during school hours thus has an impact on their parents' ability to raise household income either through food production or wage labour.

Challenges of girl-child education and their associated disempowerment of girls extend to Ghana. For example, Fant (2008) notes that, in the Bunkpurugu area of the northern region of Ghana, it was found that males were stereotyped as

superior to females. Thus, it was more likely for males to receive education and for the girl to be married off in her teenage years.

Education in Ghana as a whole, and Jamestown in particular has not been smooth sailing for the government due to financial constraints and other challenges that hinder the government and the Ministry of Education in implementing programmes that can help build the education system in the country. Jamestown is one of the communities in Accra, Ghana, that suffers from low attendance in school. Most of these girls in Jamestown drop out of school before they complete junior high school. Others drop out of school due to financial constraints and some too are forced to stop schooling .The researcher seeks to explore the attitudes of household heads towards girl- child education, examine efforts made to encourage girl- child education in Jamestown, educational challenges faced by the girl- child, and make recommendations on improving girl-child empowerment through education.

Objectives of the study

The general objective of the study was to examine the role that education plays in the empowerment of the girl-child within Jamestown.

Specifically, the study aimed to:

1. Explore the attitudes of household heads towards girl-child education;

2. Examine efforts made to encourage girl-child education in Jamestown;

3. Examine the educational challenges faced by the girl-child;

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4. Make recommendations for improving girl-child empowerment through education.

Research questions

The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the attitudes of household heads towards girl-child education?

2. What efforts are made to encourage girl-child education?

3. What educational challenges is the girl-child confronted with?

Scope of the study

The study covers household heads within Jamestown. The study involved household heads as sources of data on the socio cultural factors that hinder girl-child education in the study area. It also covers female students in basic schools within the study area. Female students will serve as data sources for examining the educational challenges of the student girl-child in Jamestown.

Significance of the study

The study provides insight into the socio-cultural factors hindering girl-child education within the study area. This is of particular importance to local government authorities, educational entities, such as GES, and other stakeholders in their effort to overcome barriers to girl-child education. The results from examining the educational factors encouraging girl-child empowerment are also important for national and local educational campaigns in bridging gender gaps in

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education. This is because such factors can be capitalised and strategised for effective female empowerment programmes. The study can also serve as an academic resource for further studies into girl-child educational concerns.

Organisation of the study

This section, Chapter One, provides a background to the concept of empowerment and the role played by education in empowering the girl-child. It also presents the problem and objectives guiding the study. The rest of the study was organised into four chapters Chapter Two highlights the underlying theories of the study and presents a brief review of related literature, as well as the underlying conceptual framework for the study. Chapter Three covers a brief description of the research area, the study design, sampling procedure, and a description of the methods for data analysis. The findings of the study are presented and discussed in Chapter Four, and the summary of the study as well as conclusions drawn and recommendations made are presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Gray and Malins (2004) define literature review as a study of what has been published on the topic by accredited scholars and information search. It helps the researcher to identify and articulate the relations between the literature and his field of study/research. They further posit that, it provides a context for the research, justifies the research, ensures the research has not been done before, shows where the research fits into the existing body of knowledge, theory on the subject, illustrates how the subject has been studied previously, highlights flaws in previous research.

This chapter reviews theoretical perspectives related to the broad concepts empowerment. The theoretical framework seeks to present empowerment as a process that can be fostered by education. It draws on Hurs' (2006) theory of empowerment. This theory runs through the text, in conceptualising and discussing the roles of education in girl-child empowerment as well as developing a conceptual framework, which explains the role of education in girl-child empowerment.

Theoretical review of empowerment

In social welfare, Friedmann (1992) describes empowerment as mobilising and transforming. In political science, Weissberg (1999) theorises empowerment as a process of learning, joining, and mobilising. In management studies

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Blanchard, Carlos, Randolph (2001) term it as sharing information, setting up parameters, and developing teams, while in community psychology, Goodkind and Foster- Fishman (2002) term it as encouraging participation, integrating diversity, and fostering involvement. Finally, Hur (2006) describes it as, the process of empowerment varies from one discipline to the other.

According to UNFPA (2003), education is one of the most important means of empowering women with the knowledge, skills and self-confidence necessary to participate fully in the development process. UNFPA again posits that, education is important for everyone, but it is especially significant for girls and women, and that, investing in girls' education is one of the most effective ways to reduce poverty .With respect to education and women studies, Freire (1973) describes empowerment as conscientising, inspiring, and liberating, while Parpart, Rai and Staudt (2003) term it as power within, power with, and power to. It is within this framework that Hur (2006) places the theory. According to Hur, empowerment must be understood as including both individual conscientisation as well as the ability to work collectively, which can lead to politicised power with others, which provides the power to bring about change.

Hur's theory synthesises both traditional (Freire, 1973) and contemporary empowerment theories (Peterson & Reid, 2003; Terblanche, 2003; Weissberg, 1999) and assumes that individual, managerial, social, or political disturbances do exist and are ongoing at the very first step of empowerment, whether specifically mentioned or not. In the first step of empowerment, both the oppressed and the

empowerment agents are assumed to have discovered the reality (Gibson, 1995) surrounded by psychological and/or social pathologies, such as disadvantages, oppression, alienation, and stratification.

The second underlying assumption of the theory is that empowerment goes a step further by letting the disadvantaged learn about social inequality (Freire, 1973), conscientise themselves (Weissberg 1999), and grow their power within their inner systems (Parpart et al., 2003). The second step of empowerment describes the process of conscientising, meaning that people have to gain an awareness of their limited power and the potential to change the circumstance (Robins, Chatterjee, & Canda, 1998) or raising power within (Parpart et al., 2003).

Freire (1973) describes conscientising as the process of increasing awareness of how social and political structures affect individual and group experiences, and contribute to personal or group powerlessness. Education therefore plays a critical role in helping group and people in general to conceptualise and understand the social stratification and oppression. They strengthen their power within (Gibson, 1995) by developing necessary knowledge and fostering confidence in the possibility of change (Parpart et al., 2003).

The third assumption is that, the people, having once gained an awareness of their limited power and the potential for change lead others to join their movement (Weissberg, 1999) and mobilise in collective action (Friedmann, 1992; Weissberg, 1999). Thus, the third step of empowerment is the process where the people take initiatives in empowering the oppressed or the disadvantaged by

asking them join their movement and then mobilise collective action to free the disadvantaged and oppressed from their social oppression and/or discrimination. Within the context of female empowerment, collective action can take the form of mass girl-child education. At this stage, empowerment entails being assertive and taking more aggressive action in the face of opposition and open conflict. For example, challenging socio-cultural norms that are disempowering to the girl-child.

Some authors (Freire, 1973; Friedmann, 1992; Marciniak, 2004) assume a turning point that transforms the process of mobilising collective action into that of creating a new world. Thus, empowerment grows and becomes maximised by sharing power with the populace at the fourth stage. At this point, empowerment reaches the point that the people feel able to utilize their confidence, desires, and abilities to bring about real change. Thus, at this stage the girl-child is assumed to be assertive, know her legal rights, publicly and socially viable, and also able to pursue further self enhancement ventures. According to Doore (1988) maximised human empowerment can be practiced at the final stage to overcome social oppression and achieve social justice. The final stage is transforming or changing (Friedmann, 1992) old institutions and structures into new ones.

Views about girl-child education

According to UNICEF (2003), the girl-child is a biological female offspring from birth to eighteen (18) years of age. This is the age before one becomes young adult. This period covers the crèche, nursery or early childhood (0 – 5 years), primary (6 – 12 years) and secondary school (12 – 18years). During

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this period, Offorma (2009) asserts that the young child is totally under the care of the adult who maybe her parents or guardians and older siblings. It is made up of infancy, childhood, early and late adolescence stages of development. Moreover, this is the period where the girl-child is malleable, builds and develops her personality and character and where her physical, mental, social, spiritual and emotional developments start and progress, to get to the peak at the young adult stage.

Medel-Anonuevo and Bochynek (1995) maintain that since the UN Declaration of the Decade of Women in 1975, attention and action on women's concerns have steadily increased. This attention has been rekindled with one of the Millennium Development Goals stressing on gender equality and women's empowerment. UNESCO (2005) attests that education is an essential element of the empowerment of girls and women on the premise that, a good quality education, designed on the basis of women and girls' immediate and strategic needs, builds women's capacities and prepares them to seize opportunities in the public and private domains. UNESCO further asserts that the empowerment of women is therefore linked to the empowerment of girls and to the full enjoyment of their rights.

UNFPA (2005) also sees education as one of the most important means of empowering women with the knowledge, skills and self-confidence, necessary to participate fully in the development process. UNFPA stresses that this assertion is true not only because education is an entry point to other opportunities, but also because the educational achievements of women can have ripple effects within

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the family and across generations. UNFPA further reports that investing in girls' education is therefore seen as one of the most important ways of empowering women and reducing poverty. This is based on studies that suggest that, educated girls are likely to marry later and to have smaller and healthier families and that education helps girls and women to know their rights and to gain confidence to claim them.

World Bank (2005) reports that, inequality between women and men is often pervasive and deeply entrenched, though its scope and intensity varies among, and within, countries. This gender gap often widens later in life, limiting women's opportunities for safe work, fair pay and accumulation of economic assets. UNESCO (2005) also asserts that literacy and non-formal education serve as important means through which gender gaps can be closed and women can be empowered. It is asserted that education provides the opportunity for women to be gainfully employed or self-employed, to the same extent as men. Women can hence, through education, access economic opportunities and make monetary and entrepreneurial decisions just as men can do.

Heisohn (2004) observes that, educating the girl-child contributes to challenging traditional household dynamics and power relations in society, which may encourage a more positive recognition of the skills and abilities of females. To this end, girls can therefore attain self-confidence, self-respect, and a sense of worth and ableness, which are essential to empowerment within the psychological domains. However, UNICEF (2006) is of the view that psychological empowerment may be one of the fundamental underpinnings of empowerment

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itself as self believe and self efficacy may provide the impetus for participation in school and community projects, especially in societies where these intrinsic values are subdued and the assertive woman is seen as a deviant.

From the domains of economic empowerment, UNESCO (2005) maintains that, education promotes women's empowerment within the education system and in the private and public sectors. This results from the role of education to prepare and influence society to respect the rights of girls and women, and accept women in positions of responsibility. This makes it possible for women to assume responsible positions (that is creating opportunities) in both the private and corporate worlds, as well as in the realms of politics (to make choices).

Terblanche (2003) also posits that, education can hence be used as an agent of basic change in the status of women empowerment. According to Terblanche, a well-conceived plan to overcome socio-cultural factors reinforcing women's illiteracy and obstacles inhibiting their access to, and retention in elementary education, must receive overriding priority, through provision of special support services setting time targets and effective monitoring. UNESCO (2005) adds that, government's policy on education would have to take into account the conditions and needs of poorer families, illiterate adult women, disadvantaged girls, and the condition of educational access in remote and poor communities. These institutional structures are needed because they complement the will of the actor by providing the opportunity for education. Without

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institutional involvement, the actor's will to be educated for empowerment will not materialise.

Girl-child education in the African society

Offorma (2009) maintains that the critical issues in girl-child education in the African society borders on access, retention and dropout, equity, enrolment, quality, and achievement in school subjects. Offorma equates access to the right to education. It is also the opportunity provided for the girl-child to be educated. Access deals with the availability, convenience and ability to be educated. Ndong-Jatta (2009) and Eze (2011) agree that many African governments make provision for the education of their citizens, but the provisions most of the time do not take cognizance of the peculiarities of the girl-child. In that case, the girl-child may not have access to education, which is a fundamental human right.

Research has shown that millions of girls do not have access to school despite the concerted efforts to push the cause forward. Okeke, Nzewi and Njoku (2008) identified child labour, poverty and lack of sponsorship, quest for wealth, bereavement, truancy, broken home, engagement of children as house helps, as factors hindering girl-child access to education in the UNICEF A-Field made up of Abia, Akwa Ibom, Anambra, Bayelsa, Benue, Cross River, Ebonyi, Enugu, Imo and River states of Nigeria.

Poverty also accounts for poor access to girl-child education. According to the World Bank (2003), more than 350 million people, over half Africa's population, live below the poverty line of one dollar a day. This implies that poverty, too, excludes children, including the girl-child, from school. However,

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Offorma (2009) accounts that most of the factors that militate against the girl-child access to education are socio-cultural, such that African patriarchal societal viewpoint which favours boys over girls because boys maintain the family lineage. It is also reported that in Ethiopia, girls are sometimes abducted for marriage when they are no older than eight years. These children face early pregnancy, responsibilities to their children and in-laws, and reticence of their husbands, who are usually much older.

Mwangi (2004) reports that in Kenya, girl-child education is elusive because a combination of poverty, disease and backward cultural practices continue to deny the girl-child her right to education. According to Mwangi, despite the introduction of free primary education in the country, which accounted for an increase in enrolment, a sizeable number of children, especially girls, still find themselves out of school owing to a number of reasons. BBC (2006) also reports that, African patriarchal viewpoint favour boys over girls because boys maintain the family lineage. This is due to the fact that, parents believe that when a woman marries, she inherits the name of her husband, hence she would stop using the family name.

UNICEF (2003) reported that in Sub-Saharan Africa, the number of girls out of school each year rose from 20 million in 1990 to 24 million in 2002. Of the 25 selected countries studied, fifteen (15) were in sub-Saharan Africa. The criteria studied were: low enrolment rates for girls; gender gaps of more than 10 percent in primary education; countries with more than one million girls out of school; countries included on the World Bank's Education For All Fast Track Initiative

and countries hard hit by a range of crises that affect school opportunities for girls, such as HIV/AIDS and conflict. In Ethiopia for example, many children, of both sexes, who enrol in September, at the beginning of the school year, leave by November because demands on their labour during harvest time are so great. In some cases, they re-enrol the following year in grade one but, again, are unable to complete the year (Hunt, 2008).

The African household contexts and living conditions of children often seem to play an influencing role in access to education. This might correspond with other factors such as income, education of family members, size and scope of household, as well as age of household members (Glick & Sahn, 2000). Konate, Gueye and Nseka (2003) looked at which household heads in Mali, chose to send to school using data from a nationwide survey of migration and urbanisation in 1992-1993, and a survey of family patterns and children's education in Mali (1999-2000). Children of the head of household were usually favoured over those fostered, entrusted to the family and those living in it with parents other than the heads of household. In households with more than 16 people, the percentages of children attending school dropped and this was the rate of attendance was even lower for females.

Some studies indicate a reluctance and lack of support towards a child's education by parents and household members. This lack of interest in the child's schooling, is cited as an important factor in dropping out or infrequent attendance. Pryor and Ampiah (2003), researching in a rural Ghanaian village, describe how households make rational decisions not to invest in their child's education. For

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these villagers, schooling is considered not worthwhile as they suspect it is irrelevant to future prospects. According to Pryor and Ampiah, many questions whether there are any returns to education for children, who do not leave the village and gain post-basic education. Many are also contemptuous of those who 'waste' education by returning to engage in farming

Similarly, in Boyle et al.'s (2002) research, respondents in Sri Lanka, Zambia, Uganda and Kenya in particular, often did not send their children to school because they thought there would be no job at the end of it and as such, limited returns to their investment. There seems some evidence that children are being withdrawn from primary school when access to secondary is problematic.

In Ghana, a mix of economic, social, and cultural perspectives are accorded to hindering girl-child education (Cooper, 2000). Even though many of the traditional beliefs about educating girls are fading with time, in areas in northern Ghana, many girls face cultural discrimination. Pryor and Ampiah (2003) added that from birth, these girls' life chances are limited. Very few of them ever leave their village, crippling their awareness of opportunities available through education. The cultural practice of early marriage places another important restriction on girls' educational opportunities. In the poorer areas of Ghana where many girls start school late, early marriage and pregnancy cut short an already brief education. In general, the studies reviewed indicate that girl-child education in African societies is made secondary to several household, socio-economic, and cultural factors.

Conceptualising girl-child empowerment

Naussbaum (2001) maintains that in general, women do not take a central place in much of the literature on social inclusion or empowerment. While clearly, the broad reference to empowerment as the expansion of freedom of choice and action, as articulated by Narayan (2002), applies to women as well as other disadvantaged or socially excluded group. Sen (2008) elaborates that first, girls and women alike are not just one group amongst several disempowered subsets of society, but they are a cross-cutting category of individuals that overlaps with all these other groups. Second, the household and interfamilial relations are a central locus of girl-child disempowerment in a way that is not true for other disadvantaged groups. Third, several of it is argued that women's empowerment requires systemic transformation in not just any institutions.

Kabeer (2001) also asserts that, there is a nexus of a few key, overlapping terms that are most often included in defining empowerment of females. They include options, choice, control, and power. CEDPA (2007) adds that most often, these terms are used to refer to women's ability to make decisions and affect outcomes of importance to themselves and their families, as well as to gain control over their own life and over resources. Girl-child empowerment is therefore described in this context as a process whereby the girl become able to organise themselves to increase their own self-reliance, to assert their independent right to make choices and to control resources which will assist in challenging and eliminating their own subordination.

Girl child empowerment is however, not proposed as only stemming from an external source as indicated in Sen's (1993) definition of women empowerment as altering relations of power, which constrain women's options and autonomy and adversely affect health and well-being. It also involves individual assertiveness and self-efficacy in what is termed as the influence of the human agency (Sen, 1999). This does not suggest that all improvements in women's position must be brought about through the actions of women themselves or that empowering themselves is the responsibility of individual women. There is ample justification for governments and multilaterals to promote policies that strengthen gender equality through various means, including legal and political reform, and interventions to give women and other socially excluded groups greater access to resources (World Bank, 2000).

Girl-child empowerment, as conceptualised by Sen (2008), occurs in varying dimensions and on different levels. As multi-dimensional concept, girl-child empowerment includes economic, socio-cultural, familial/interpersonal, legal, political, and psychological dimensions.

Within the context of the household, the economic dimension of girl-child empowerment covers the girl's relative contribution to family support, and may also include access to family resources (Medel-Anonuevo & Bochynek, 1995). Socio-culturally, girl child empowerment involves the girl's freedom of movement, lack of discrimination against, and commitment of the household to educating the girl-child. It also covers a legal dimension where empowerment is proposed to manifest in knowledge of legal rights and the degree of domestic

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support for exercising rights. Other dimensions are the political dimension where empowerment is seen as knowledge of political system and means of access to it. (UPOPIN, 2003). The last dimension is the psychological dimension which makes self-esteem, self-efficacy, and psychological well-being integral components of girl-child empowerment.

Indicators and measures of girl-child empowerment

UNICEF (2006) maintains that when a girl-child feels empowered, she understands she has the right to voice her opinions and her needs. She is better prepared to make healthy life decisions, exercise leadership in her family and community, and develop goals for her future well-being. In a five country-country study, by the World Bank (2005), five indicators were used as proxies for measuring individuals' ability to make meaningful choices. This approach was termed assets endowment approach in which psychological, informational, organisational, material, social, financial, or human assets were measured as indicators that influences individual empowerment.

The role that education plays in girl-child empowerment would have to be understood from the view that explains how education helps the girl-chid to make meaningful choices. For example, Heinsohn (2004) accounts that the Institute for Adult Education (INEA) in Mexico provides literacy training and basic education to young disadvantaged adults who have not attended or have dropped out of the formal school system. Student testimony indicates that enrolment in INEA programs has not only improved their education levels but has also provided them with other skills and assets. Students mention, for example, that being able to read

and write has enhanced their levels of self-confidence and that, as a result, they are less hesitant to voice opinions and speak in public.

Bannerman - Mensah(2013), Director of Girls Education at GES, had reported in in her speech, educating girls does not only build a nation but it also shapes generations. She added that, education was a powerful tool in measuring the socio- economic wellbeing of a nation, and that it was proper to encourage girl-child education because it placed them in a better position in society. Ngcuka (2013), the UN Women Executive Director, in her speech on the occasion of the International Day of the Girl Child said that, while school enrolment rates are rising, too many girls continue to be left behind. She added that, girls are deprived of their right to education, and to break through these barriers, women must fully harness innovation and technology to reach poor and marginalised girls and improve the quality of education for all.

Further, education can play a role in preventing violence against women and girls. Alsop (2005) asserts that, a complementary approach to measuring empowerment is to measure the opportunity structures which involve analysing the presence and operation of formal and informal institutions. North (1990) also suggests that, this measurement is important on the premises that empowerment of the human agency exists in a larger institutional framework which is shaped by laws, regulatory frameworks, and norms governing people's behaviour. Alsop (2005) posits that, presence and operation of the formal and informal laws, regulations, norms, and customs determine whether individuals and groups have

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access to assets, and whether these people can use the assets to achieve desired outcomes.

According to Medel-Anonuevo and Bochynek (1995), measurement of assets and institutions provides intermediary indicators of empowerment. Direct measures of the role of education in girl-child empowerment can be made by assessing whether educating the girl child creates opportunities to make choices, whether education actually helps the child to use the opportunity to choose, and whether education helps in achieving the desired results of choices made.

Nussbaum (2000) reports that measures of empowerment must involve standards that lie outside localised gender systems and a recognition of universal elements of gender subordination. Kabeer (2001) adds that, a synthesis on literature on gender and empowerment shows that the role of gender in development cannot be understood without understanding the socio-cultural contexts in which development takes place, because the concept of empowerment only has meaning within these specific contexts. Malhotra, Schuler and Boenda (2002) observe that in many cases, local structures of gender inequality are typically experienced as natural, and therefore may seem unalterable to actors in a particular social setting. Such socio-cultural structures are essentially part of broader aspects of tradition and culture which are so taken-for-granted that they have become naturalised.

According to Medel-Anonuevo and Bochynek (1995), when women internalise their subordinate status and view themselves as persons of lesser value, their sense of their own rights and entitlements is diminished. They may

acquiesce to violence against them, and make choices that reinforce their subordinate status. Writers such as Stromquist (1993) and Alsop and Heinsohn (2005) therefore assert that, empowerment includes cognitive and psychological elements. It involves women's understanding of their conditions of subordination and the causes of such conditions at both micro and macro levels of society. According to Alsop and Heinsohn, empowerment also involves understanding the self and the need to make choices that may go against cultural and social expectations. Education plays a critical role in self-consciousness through creating the awareness of legal rights and existing statutes that protect the woman's virtue and existence.

Challenges in girl-child education

UN Population Information Network (UNPOPIN) (2003) notes that one of the concerns most frequently raised regarding efforts to further gender equality and the empowerment of women is socio-cultural barriers. In many societies concerns are raised that such efforts constitute undue interference in the culture, religion, or traditional practices of a country. For example, Legovini (2004) maintains that in Ethiopia, the application of customary laws to their economic and social relationships has reinforced damaging attitudes and customs toward women. . In many other societies, some parents culturally believe the girl's place is the home maker and therefore refuse attempts to send their girl-child to school (World Bank, 2005).

Asare (2009) reports that, the complexities in the challenges to attain gender parity in school enrolment, retention and completion and appreciating that,

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the existing quantity and quality defects in girls education, is a result of structural deficiency, deeply rooted in policy and practice. However, some practices, such as gender-based violence, forced early marriage, and female genital mutilation are evidently harmful to females (UPOPIN, 2003).

According to UNFPA (2005), among the best ways to aid the poor of the developing world and to reach women at the grassroots level, is to provide technical and financial assistance to the organisations that they themselves create and control. The World Bank (2011) adds that weaknesses in local institutions can reflect in a poor focus of local government on girl-child education concerns, misallocation and misappropriation of donor funds, and a general misalignment of the objectives of local institutions with that of donors and education implementation agencies. Nduru (2003) writes that, by the time the upper primary level was reached, there were hardly any girls left in school and at the territory's foremost secondary school, Rumbek, there was a solitary girl. According to Nduru, 560 of 8,000 teachers in southern Sudan are women, which was seven percent.

By advocating for the inclusion of local representatives in government policy-setting dialogue and facilitating NGO participation in the meetings, partnerships can be built to strengthen alliances between beneficiaries, NGOs, and governments, and serve to legitimise the participation of civil society (UPOPIN, 2003). This is to obtain a consensus on the socio-cultural practice, which may be harmful to girls and by what means they can be removed from society.

In some cases, some educational systems inhibit stereotyped teaching and employ gender- biased educational materials. For example, it was found that children's text books often reinforce occupational stereotyping and family gender roles, thus leading children to accept those norms and occupational classifications as they grow. Furthermore, the World Bank (2011) recommends that revising stereotyped teaching and education materials, diversification of the educational and training opportunities available to women and girls, and the promotion of self-esteem and leadership in girls can help overcome this challenge.

In Ghana, several hindrances to girl-child education have been identified by the Ministry of Education (2008). According to the Ministry, parents are unable, not unwilling, to send their children to school due to economic constraints. Plan Ghana (2012) also reports that, difficulties faced by girls, their families, communities and teachers across Africa, are influenced by policies, cultural practices and traditional values. According to Plan Ghana, African girls are still less likely than boys to enrol and remain in school because they continue to face discrimination and abuse, which threatens to undermine the potentially transformative power of the education they receive.

Teenage pregnancy also accounts for high drop-out rates among girls, and low education of parents also amounts to low expectations of education and unwillingness of parents to take their wards to school (Bardley, 2000). Bardley further added that, parents feel that money invested in girls' education is money wasted since their roles are to procreate and remain in the kitchen. Gender stereotyping both at school and at home is also mentioned in the challenges girls

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encounter in their education. Pryor and Ampiah (2003) posit that, at school, girls are considered less intelligent than boys and the textbooks testify to this According to Pryor and Ampiah, girls do household chores while their brothers are out playing. Overburdening girls with household chores also deters girls from education. There is little time for school and homework with the amount of work around the house and in the market.

Conceptual framework of education and girl-child empowerment

The conceptual framework (Figure 1) depicts empowerment of the girl-child as a continuous process which feeds back into the model.
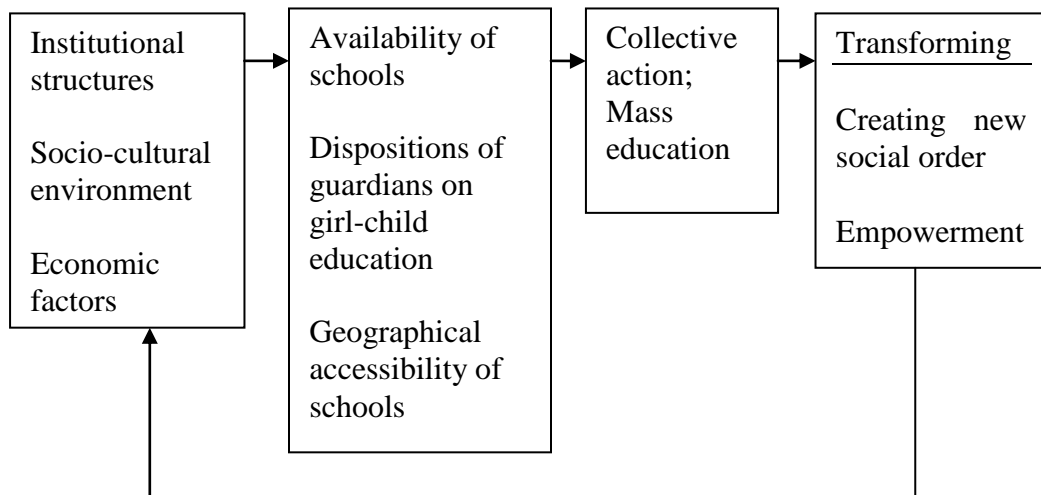
Figure 1: The role of education in girl-child empowerment

Source: Author's construct, 2012

The framework assumes theoretical underpinnings that at the initial stage, institutional structures, socio-cultural environment, and related economic factors influence the education of the girl-child. The physical structures of schools, their

availability and geographical access also influence the extent to which girls can take advantage of educational opportunities.

As indicated in the framework, empowerment through education occurs through educational awareness campaigns to conscientise society, institution, and the actor, which in this case is the girl-child, about the existing disadvantages and oppression that the girl-child faces, as a result of unfavourable institutional structures. At this stage, the role of education is to instigate collective action, such as mass education for girls, legislative proceedings and constitutional amendments to promote girl-child empowerment.

Collective action engenders institutions at all levels and the human actor to assist in transforming discriminatory and disempowering social norms and institutional structures into a new social order, that reinforces conscientising and collective programmes for further empowerment. Girls would have better opportunities and access to education and would also be in a better position to take advantage of the opportunities they are given.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Research methodology is a way to find out the result of a given problem on a specific matter or problem that is also referred to as research problem. The methodology helps the researcher use different criteria for solving or searching the given research problem. (Goddard & Melville, 2004). The Industrial Research (2010) reports that, in research methodology, the researcher always tries to search the given question systematically in his own way and find out all the answers till conclusion. This chapter deals with the methodological approach used for the study. It elaborates on the study design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, as well as the methods and instruments of data collection. The pre-test, methods and instruments for data collection, and data analysis techniques are also discussed in this chapter.

Study area

Jamestown is a major fishing community inhabited primarily by the indigenous Ga. According to GSS (2006), the total population of Jamestown stands at 13,617. With an average household size of 4.1, the total number of households was estimated at 3,312. Most males end up as seamen and the females engage in fish mongering. The town is also noted for its high rate of street children. Jaynii (2011) reports that, there are several children of both sexes

between the ages of five and fifteen living in the streets and many others who spend the day walking about the beach and in towns during school hours. The AMA (2006) reports that there are five public basic schools, with extensions for Junior High Schools in Jamestown, but enrolment rates are as low as 34 percent for females and 42 percent for males.

Study design

The study adopted descriptive and cross-sectional design. Descriptive research according to Leary (1995) is about assessing a situation as it is found on the ground without any manipulation in the area where the studies were conducted. Sarantakos (1998) also stated that, descriptive research aims at describing social systems, relations or social events and providing background information about the issue in question and also to stimulate explanations. The Association for Educational Communications and Technology [AECT] (2001) further reports that, descriptive research does not fit neatly into the definition of either quantitative or qualitative research methodologies, but instead it can utilise elements of both, often within the same study.

Descriptive design is adopted for the study, because the study seeks to describe the existing conditions of girl child education and its association with girl child empowerment in Jamestown. The study does not seek to introduce interventions to perceived challenges in appraisal systems, but to report them as they pertain. The study also aims to employ quantitative and qualitative analysis of data, thus a descriptive survey would be suitable for showing descriptive

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statistical tools in describing quantitative data and to also report in depth discussions of quantitative data.

According to Levin (2006), a cross-sectional study is employed for studies covering relatively short periods. It is therefore a quick way to ascertain existing conditions of a particular phenomenon, especially through field surveys. It may however, not cover adequate data on previously existing situations and it is not a recommended option for making predictions and introducing interventions. The study does not seek to institute any intervention to perceived challenges with girl child empowerment but seeks to describe the state of girl child education in the town as well as its influence on girl child empowerment.

Study population

The study population comprised household heads from Jamestown, JHS female students and the Accra Metropolitan Assembly Director for Ghana Education Service. According to GSS (2000), the population of Jamestown as at 2000 was 3,312. Using an exponential annual growth rate of 3.36 to project the population for 2011, an estimated population of 19,706 was calculated. Given an average household size of 4.1, the estimated number of households was 4,806. The target population for household heads was therefore 4,806. All female students from all forms and classes of Junior Secondary Schools in Jamestown formed part of the target population.

Sample and sampling procedure

The sample size for household heads was calculated using Cochran's (1977) formula, which is given as:

$$n_0 = \frac{t^2 \times (p)(q)}{d^2}$$

Where, n_o is the uncorrected sample size

t is the t-value for the selected margin of error

p is the population proportion

q is $1 - p$

d is the acceptable margin of error for the sample size being estimated

The study adopted a margin of error (*d*) of 0.05, which indicates the level of risk the study is willing to take that the true margin of error may exceed the acceptable margin of error. The chosen (*d*) corresponds to a t-value (*t*) 1.96. Since the household heads were sampled the population proportions used corresponded to the proportion of the household to the average household size (4.1) of each household. This, therefore, gives a '*p*' of 0.244 and a '*q*' of 0.756. An approximated figure of 283 is calculated for n_0.

However, the population for household heads had to be corrected for the 0.05 or five percent margin of error using Cochran's (1977) correction formula, which is given as:

$$n_1 = \frac{n_0}{1 + \left(\frac{n_0}{P}\right)}$$

Where, n_1 is the sample size

n_o is 302.

P = 4,806

The formula generated a corrected sample size of 252 household heads. The sample size for female students was purposively determined. The children were homogeneous in background characteristics, so sampling size and randomness were not essential.(Patton,1990). Babbie (2001) posits that, purposive sampling is one that is selected based on the knowledge of a population and the some characteristic. From the five Junior High Schools, ten female students were purposively targeted from each form. This comprised 10 students from JHS 1, 10 from JHS 2, and 10 from JHS3.The study used simple random sampling to select household heads for the study.

According to Yates, Moore and Starnes (2008), simple random sampling is a subset of individuals chosen from a larger set or population. They further added that, each individual has the same probability of being chosen at any stage during the sample process, and each subset of individuals has the same probability of being chosen. The researcher selected the houses randomly, and because of that, no enquiries were made from the residents whether there was a JHS pupil living in a particular house.   A numbered list of all households in Jamestown was obtained from the Accra Metropolitan Assembly. This formed that sampling frame for household heads.   Using Q-Basic, the computer was instructed to generate 302 random numbers from 1 to 4,806. The generated numbers that corresponded to numbers on the sampling frame for household heads were included in the sample.

The study used purposive sampling procedure to select female students from the schools. Three schools were selected and 10 female students from each form, that is, JHS 1, 2, and 3, were selected. From each school 30 students were selected, with 10 students from each form. The final sample for female students added up to 150. The total sample size for the study, that is household heads with students, was 402.

Sources of data

The data needs of the study included data on the socio-cultural factors influencing girl-child education. This was solicited as primary data from household heads. Data on the attitudes of household heads towards girl-child education were also collected as primary data from household heads. Data on the efforts made to encourage girl-child education in the town was collected as primary data through interviews with the Metropolitan Director for GES. Data on efforts on girl-child education, also necessitated the collection of secondary data on the Assembly's annual expenditure on education in Jamestown. This was solicited from the Metropolitan Director for AMA and GES. The challenges confronting girl-child education was solicited from female students and household heads as primary data.

Instruments for data collection

Separate interview schedules were designed for household heads and students. The interview schedule for household heads comprised five modules.

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Module 1 covered the socio-demographic data on the household heads. Module 2 captured data on the attitudes of household heads towards girl-child education. Module 3 was dedicated to the efforts made to encourage girl – child education by household heads. Module 4 sought data on the challenges confronting household heads in providing formal education for their female wards. The items used consisted of a combination of both open and closed – ended forms. The closed – ended items dominated the items on the interview schedule. This was done because it was easier to record their responses. Open-ended items were added to allow the respondents to freely express their opinion on some issues.

Ethical Issues

The researcher sought permission from school authorities in the various schools and further sought the consent of pupils to whom the interviews were to be administered. The research also sought the consent of the household heads and explained the purpose of the research and who was conducting the research. The respondents were also assured that the information given would be kept private and confidential and none of it would be misused or disclosed at any point of time.

Field work

The field work began on 2nd September, 2011 and lasted till 12th October, 2011. Some of the respondents were able to complete the instruments on the same day. Others told the researcher to go back the next day to administer the

instruments because of their busy schedule. The field work took place at the Jamestown vicinity and its environs. Each visit to the community school took about two hours and the researcher went there on Thursdays and Fridays, during their recess periods, so that their lessons were not disrupted. The researcher was able to administer about thirty instruments a day.

Field Challenges

During the course of the study, the researcher encountered many challenges. It was apparent that some of the respondents were unwilling to divulge certain personal information about themselves. They inquired why they had been selected instead of going elsewhere. The researcher had to explain to them that the research was for an important purpose, hence the choice.

Methods of data analysis

After collection of the instruments, they were sorted out and coded. Descriptive statistics and tables generated by the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSSv17) and Excel were used for the data presentation. The Likert-type scales were analysed using frequencies. Specifically, the mode, which represents the response with the highest frequency (Sarantakos, 1998) was employed to represent general responses from the Likert scales. A framework for the analysis was developed out of issues, which came out of the literature review and conceptual framework with the objectives of the study in mind. Where

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applicable, the researcher included chi-square analysis and reported phi-coefficients with associated p-values.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents the results of analysis and data collected for the study. Results of statistical significance and practical importance are explained with respect to the effects of human influence on the role education plays in the empowerment of the girl-child within Jamestown. A total of 252 interviews were conducted with household heads and 150 interview schedules were also administered to students. Implications of practical and educational significance were derived from the findings and reported in this chapter. The first section of the results focuses on demographic issues, while subsequent sections discuss the findings for the specific objectives.

Demographic characteristics of respondents

The demographic characteristics of the respondents studied were sex, age, as well as educational, occupational and household characteristics. These were studied in order to provide a background profile of respondents and to examine the association between the variables and their attitudes and efforts towards educating their female children.

The study covered 124 males, which formed 49.2 percent and 128 females, which formed 50.8 percent of the household heads (Table 1). Thus, the results reflected fairly equal representative view of males and females. The ages

of the respondents were examined to put the study into context. It was important to know the age description of respondents based on the assumption that, age differentials could influence perceptions and views. Lewis (2006) reports that, husbands of young wives are often older men, who expect their wives to follow tradition, stay home and undertake household and child-care duties.

This becomes a cycle and children, especially girls, born into such marriages also leave school at a very young age and marry. Moreover, for the sake of reliability of the study, it was also important to know the age range of respondents so that analytical similarities and differences in the characteristics of respondents can be made in replicated studies.

The study examined the ages of household heads to establish the context within which the study was conducted. The results, as shown in Table 1, indicates that majority of respondents (54.4%) were within the age group of 31 to 40 years. This was confirmed by the disaggregated results which showed that more of the females (72.7%) and male (35.5%) household heads were within the age group from 31 to 40 years.

Table 1: Sex and age description of household heads

Age groups	Sex		Total
	Male	Female	
	f(%)	f(%)	f(%)
20-29	0(0.0)	2(1.6)	2(0.8)
30-39	44(35.5)	93(72.7)	137(54.4)
40-49	34(27.4)	30(23.4)	64(25.4)
50-59	4(3.2)	3(2.3)	7(2.8)
60 and above	42(33.9)	0(0.	42(16.7)
Total	124(49.2)	128(50.8)	252(100)

Source: Field survey, 2012

The occupational characteristics of respondents were also examined under the assumption that the economic characteristic of respondents could influence their conformance to girl child education (Kabeer, 2001). In that respect it was found that the study sample comprised more traders (16.7%) and civil servants (15.5%) than any other occupational group. Only 5.2 percent of responses were unemployed (Figure 2). With respect to the findings, it was established that the occupational groups were diverse and thus, the responses covered were likely to be representative of the issues and concerns within the varied occupational groups.

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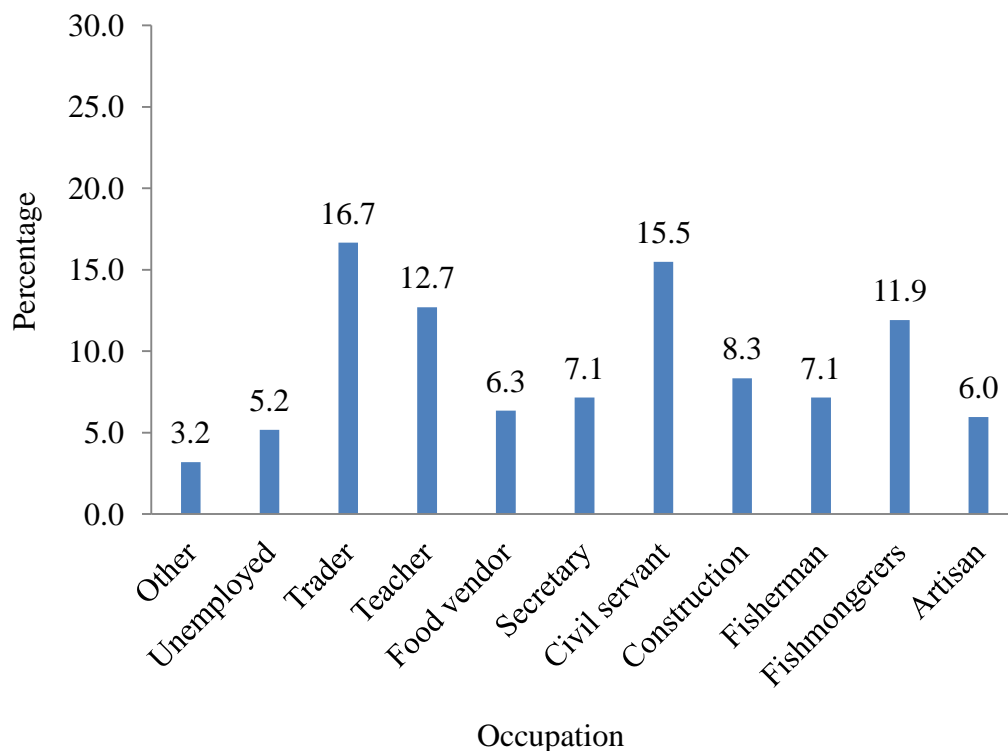
Figure 2: Occupation of respondents

Source: Field survey, 2012

The household characteristics described also included the number of children of school going age as compared to the number of girls who were of school going age. This was also done to add to the background characteristics of the households surveyed and to also make clearer the context within which the study was conducted. According to the results from Table 2, all the households surveyed reported to have at least one child of school going age, but 210 household heads reported to have to have at least one girl-child of school going age in their households. On the other hand, 93 household heads indicated that they had at least one female foster child.

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Attitudes of household heads towards girl-child education

The general attitudes of household heads in Jamestown were examined in relation to their socio-demographic background in order to bring out the characteristic differences in attitudes that may be influenced or associated with certain demographic traits of household heads. During these discussions and interviews with the teachers, head teachers and parents, it became apparent that for many, there was a commonly held view that girls were academically less capable than boys. This attitude has a negative effect on girls' participation in education in particular in a number of ways. They further posited that, in a situation where parents have to make a choice, those who uphold this belief will choose to educate boys at the expense of girls.

Table 2: Gender-based perception of the importance of girl-child education

	Sex		
	Male	Female	Total
Importance	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)
Very high	115(92.7)	120(93.8)	235(93.3)
High	3(2.4)	3(2.3)	6(2.4)
Moderate	6(4.8)	5(3.9)	11(4.4)
Total	124(49.2)	128(50.8)	252(100)

Phi = 0.023; Chi-square = 1.134; df = 2; p-value = 0.935

Source: Field survey, 2012

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Table 2 associates the sex of household heads with their perception about the importance of girl-child education. In the general response, 93.3 percent of the household heads were of the view that, girl-child education was highly important, and this was reflected in the disaggregated responses, in which 92.7 percent of the males and 93.8 percent of the females agreed that girl-child education is highly important.

With regard to differences in importance placed on girl-child education based on the sex of respondents, the results indicated that there were no statistically significant, differences between the perception of male and female household heads with respect to the importance they place on girl-child education. According to Rea and Parker's (1992) classification, the phi-statistic of 0.023 reported for the distribution indicates a negligible association between the variances in respondents' sex and the importance that they attach to girl-child education. This was confirmed by a p-value of 0.935 (>0.005) that indicated that there was no statistically significant differences between the sex of respondents and the level of importance that they accord girl-child education. This meant that irrespective of respondents' sex, they generally regarded girl- child education as important.

The education of parents is linked to their children's educational attainment, and the mother's education is usually more influential than the father's. Educated mothers are more likely to be in the labour force, allowing them to pay some of the costs of schooling, and may be more aware of returns to schooling (UNFPA,2003). However, the results are in contrast with Chelsea's (2009)

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assertion that the importance placed on girl-child education, among household heads tends to reduce with lower levels of educational attainment. Chelsea's study was within the context of a rural agrarian community, thus that may account for the differences in findings.

According to Ndong-Jatta (2009), the general societal values may rather be an influential factor in such perceptions, such as those held about girl-child education. Thus, the general societal value for girl-child education was explored based on respondents' perception and experience in Jamestown.

The study indicated that generally, more of respondents either agreed (46.8%) or strongly agreed (34.1%) that societal values in Jamestown largely encourage girl-child education (Table 3). In this respect, the results may therefore partly explain for the high importance that male and female household heads, as well as respondents of all educational attainments accord girl-child education. Thus, the findings support Hunt's (2008) claim that the societal values has implications for the general attitudes towards girl-child education.

While more (62.5%) of the females agreed that societal values encouraged girl-child education, only (30.6%) of their male counterparts had such an opinion. A phi-statistic of 0.408, according to Rea and Parker (1992) indicated a relatively strong association between respondents' sex and the level to which they agreed that societal values supported girl-child education. It was therefore inferred that females were more likely to agree strongly or agree that societal values support girl-child education. This was also confirmed by a p-value of 0.000 that indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between respondents' sex and

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the extent to which they support the assertion that societal values support girl-child education.

Table 3: Gender perception of societal values and girl-child education

Importance	Sex		Total
	Male f(%)	Female f(%)	f(%)
Strongly agree	44(35.5)	42(32.8)	86(34.1)
Agree	38(30.6)	80(62.5)	118(46.8)
Undecided	42(33.9)	118(4.7)	48(19.0)
Total	124(49.2)	128(50.8)	252(100)

Chi-square = 41.943; d.f = 2; Phi = 0.408; df = 2; p-value = 0.000

Source: Field survey, 2012

Nwagi (2004) asserts that single parenthood can also have implications for girl-child education. According to Nwagi, the death or desertion of a mother can add responsibilities like household chores and taking care of young one on the girl child, while the absence of a father in most cases, creates financial problems for girl-child education. This assertion was tested by investigating the attitudes of parents or guardians towards household responsibilities given to the girl-child. Household responsibilities were targeted because of various assertions that those chores take away the time needed for educating girls, especially when they are scheduled inappropriately.

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The findings show that common daily chores that household heads allow their female wards to engage in before school included fetching water (44.0%) sweeping (38.5%) and cooking (17.5%) (Table 4).

Table 4: Effects of pre-school hours' chores on girl-child education

	Parenthood		
	Single	Supported	Total
Variables	f (%)	f(%)	f(%)
Chores			
Fetching water	68(55.7)	43(33.1)	110(44.0)
Sweeping	44(36.1)	53(40.8)	97(38.5)
Cooking	10(8.2)	34(26.2)	44(17.5)
Total	122(48.4)	130(51.6)	252(100)
Effects (negative)			
Agree	11(9.0)	59(45.3)	70(27.8)
Disagree	87(71.3)	53(40.8)	140(55.5)
Undecided	24(19.7)	54(13.9)	42(16.7)
Total	122(48.4)	130(51.6)	252(100)

Source: Field survey, 2012

Further analysis indicated that, more than half (71.3%) of the single-parented household heads were of the view that the chores performed by their female wards before school had no detrimental effects on their education. On the other hand, 45.3 percent of supported parents also were of the view that, chores

performed before school by their wards do not affect their academic performance. Studies conducted by Levison and Moe (1998), show that girls are responsible for various domestic work that have effects of fatigue and takes time away from private studies. As a consequence, some girls tend to sleep during classes and also often underperform. Thus, the effects of chores may be laid in the severity of the chores and in the extent to which the chores exhaust the girls before school.

The study also revealed that after school hours, students' chores included cleaning, cooking, fetching water and washing. In the disaggregated responses indicated that in single-parent households, cooking after school was more common than any other household responsibilities for girls. On the other hand, in households where both parents lived together, cleaning (43.1%) was given more precedence as a daily chore after school (Table 5). A higher percentage (54.2%) of the household heads also disagreed that the chores that their female wards performed after school had any unfavourable influence on the performance of their wards.

According to Glick and Sahn (2000), it is often the assumption of the general public that women and girls alike should be able to handle school work or occupations along with household responsibilities such as cleaning, cooking and washing. The fact that pre-school chores remain a part of societal household institutional framework suggests that any possible effects of these chores have been in society for long and are now possibly seen as acceptable collateral damage for being a schooling girl-child. Moreover, in many African societies, Offorma (2009) notes that the quality of a woman is judged by her ability to be a

homemaker and as such, guardians inherently begin to train their wards within that respects even if it may have some adverse effect on the education of the child. This study thus confirms such findings and maintains that these attitudes are also common among household heads within the Jamestown community.

Table 5: Effects of after-school hours chores on girl-child education

	Parenthood		
	Single	Supported	Total
Variables	f (%)	f(%)	f(%)
Chores			
Cleaning	42(34.4)	56(43.1)	98(38.9)
Cooking	65(53.3)	15(11.5)	80(31.7)
Fetching water	12(9.8)	31(23.8)	43(17.1)
Washing	3(2.5)	28(21.5)	31(12.3)
Total	122(48.4)	130(51.6)	252(100)
Effects			
Agree	38(31.1)	18(13.8)	56(30.6)
Disagree	59(48.3)	73(56.2)	132(54.2)
Undecided	25(20.5)	18(13.8)	43(17.1)
Total	122(48.4)	130(51.6)	252(100)

Source: Field survey, 2012

Students were asked to rate the effects that chores before school hours have on their studies. According to the general responses, 50.7 percent of the students were of the impression that household chores before school had no diminishing effects on their school performance (Figure 4). However, the rest felt that the chores before school had some negative effects on their school performance, thus indicating that empowerment through education for girls could be hindered through assigning chores to girls before school.

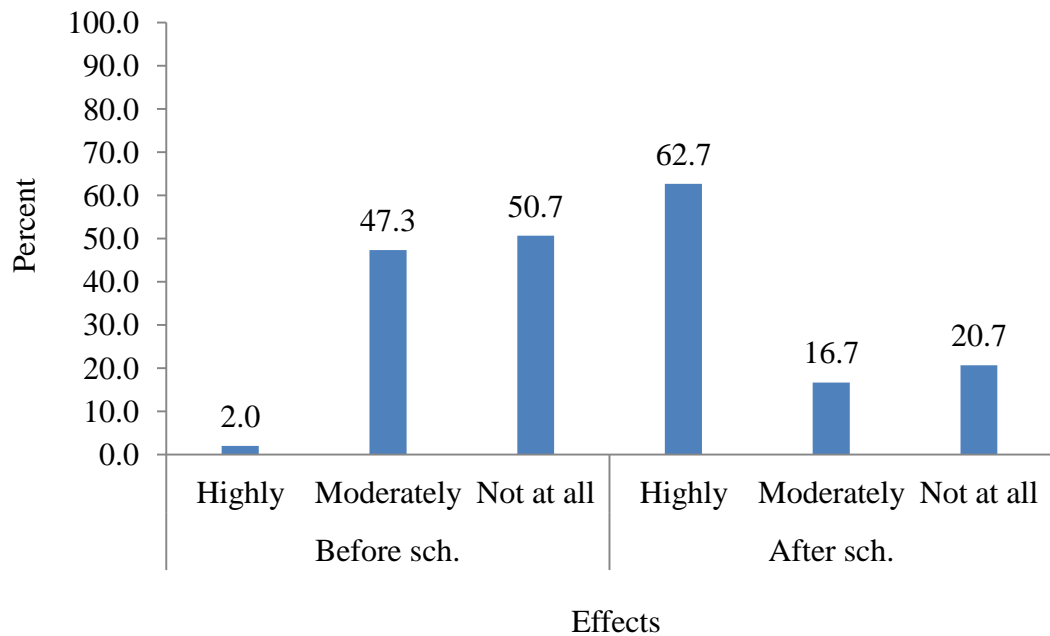**Figure 3: Effects of domestic work on education of the girl-child**

Source: Field survey, 2012

Contrary to household heads' perception that after school chores have no unfavourable effects on the education of the girl-child, 62.7 percent of the students indicated that after school chores highly and unfavourably affect their school performance. This represented a perceptual difference between the girl-

child and her parents or guardians. The results also suggest that girls are not able to express their opinions about the issues that negatively affect their performance at school, thus the perceptual differences. In CEDPA's (2007) description, empowerment includes free expression and the ability to influence decisions concerning one's life and their families. Elements of fear and repressed opinions as the results may suggest, disempower the girl-child.

The conceptual framework asserts that, societal attitudes towards girl-child education have been manifested through the predisposition of societal members on girl-child education. The results show that, 48.4 percent of male household heads and 53.1 percent of female household heads had the view that educating their male wards would be more beneficial in the long run than educating their female wards (Table 6). A phi co-efficient of 0.297, according to Rea and Parker (1992) indicated a moderate association between the sex of household heads and their predisposition about girl-child education. The association was found to be statistically significant (p- value=0.000, alpha level = 0.05)

Such a view, according to Offorma (2009), is popular among many societies. It is explained that male chauvinism manifests in decisions regarding education, thus it is found that in cases of limited funds, households choose to send their male wards to school with the belief that males may be more capable of achieving greater heights through education and in-turn become breadwinners for the family. In support of girl-child education, 23.8 percent of the household heads expressed the view that girls exhibit higher academic intelligence than boys.

However, several studies conducted indicate that generally males are seen as more intelligent, but the intelligence of females is often stereotyped to certain areas of studies and careers (UPOPIN, 2003) and this placed a limitation on female empowerment.

Table 6: Guardians' predisposition about girl-child education

Variables	Parenthood			Phi
	Male	Female	Total	
	F (%)	F (%)	F (%)	(p-value)
Predisposition				
Beneficial to educate males	43(34.4)	55(43.1)	98(38.9)	
Girls are less intelligent	66(53.3)	15(11.5)	80(31.7)	0.297
Girls are more intelligent	12(9.8)	30(23.8)	43(17.1)	(0.000)
Preferred gender to educate				
Male	39(31.1)	18(13.8)	77(30.6)	0.031
Female	60(48.3)	72(56.2)	137(54.2)	(0.627)
Expectations				
Support during old age	17(13.7)	60((46.9)	77(30.5)	
Independence of the child	53(42.7)	46(35.9)	99(39.3)	0.329
Knowledge for future use	54(43.5)	22(17.2)	76(30.2)	(0.000)

Source: Field survey, 2012

For example, Ofuani (2010) found that in many African societies, nursing is stereotyped as female oriented, while other technical areas of study such as engineering are stereotyped as male oriented. Thus, the issue of educating women and girls may therefore not be so much associated with denying females education, as it relates to bridging stereotypes and encouraging the inclusiveness of females into more male stereotyped areas of study and occupation.

Offorma (2009) states that, equal weights are not given to female and male education, such that often, educating boys is accorded more importance. Respondents were asked to identify with the gender that they would rather educate in times of limited funds to support both sexes. It was found that the majority of male (67.7%) and female (64.8%) household heads indicated that they would rather educate the girl child in times of limited finances and resources. The association between the sex of household heads and their preference to educate their male or female wards was found to be negligible, based on Rea and Parker's (1992) classification of phi-statistics. This association was also found not to be statistically significant, given a p-value of 0.627. The findings contradict several studies, including Legovini's (2004) and Offorma's (2009) that claimed on the other hand that often male education takes precedence of female education.

The expectations of household heads about educating their female children may also indicate their implicit attitudes towards girl-child education. From the study it has been shown that, while male household heads expected that education would encourage the independence of their wards, female household heads expected that their female wards, through education, would be in a better position

to give them support during old age. These assertions and expectations point to the fact that household heads were implicitly of the view that, one major role of educating the girl-child is to empower her to be economically independent and economically able to support their parents in the future.

Efforts made to encourage girl-child education

The second objective of the study sought to examine the efforts made to encourage girl- child education in Jamestown. Nine strategies were suggested. Amongst them were the need for good academic performance, improve general knowledge, develop interests, gain focus, understand rights and privileges, gain good careers, economic independence and support their families.

According to Bardley (2000), the empowerment of the girl-child through education is promoted through parental support, and also the support of policies and statutes that encourage girl-child education and reduce the vulnerability and prejudice context of the girl-child.

As a precursor to the analysis of educational efforts for the girl-child, the study delved into the self-confidence and the perceived benefits of education from the perspective of the girl-child. This is because, in discussing empowerment of the girl-child, UNFPA (2005) notes that self-confidence in abilities and goals may represent some level of empowerment. Thus, efforts made to improve the child's self –confidence and accrual benefits of education are desirable. In this study, students identified the immediate and long-run empowerment that they seek from being educated. The results are presented in Table 7.

Table 7: The girl-child's perspective of educational empowerment

Empowerment	Frequency	Percent
Short-term		
Good academic performance	44	29.3
Improve general knowledge	37	24.7
Develop interests	31	20.7
Gain focus	23	15.3
Understand rights/privileges	15	10.0
Total	150	100.0
Long-term		
Gain good career	56	37.3
Economic independence	39	26.1
Support parents/family	35	23.3
Participate in development	20	13.3
Total	150	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2012

With regard to the immediate targets of educational empowerment, students reported that they seek good academic performance (29.3%), improvement in their general knowledge (24.7), and development of interests (20.7%) and to gain focus in life (15.3%). Through this means, respondents indicated that they would be empowered to gain good careers (37.3%), economic

independence (26.1%), ability to support their families (23.3%) and to participate in development (13.3%).

The results imply that the respondents have a sense of purpose which in itself may represent some level of empowerment (CEDPA, 2007). According to CEDPA, accrual benefits of education to girls represent one form of female empowerment. This is emphasised in the conceptual framework. Thus, in line with the result of this study, these expectations, as indicated by the students require the support of guardians, government and other stakeholders in society in order to materialise (UNESCO, 2005). In an adverse situation, as noted by UNESCO, many girls have high expectations and hopes, but often find themselves disappointed due to adequate institutional support.

The ICRW (2008) notes that a major disempowering factor for the girl-child is early marriage, which is reported to be highest in African regions. This study therefore explored household heads' reaction to early marriage of their female wards. According to the study, 85.7 percent of the household heads did not support early marriage of their female children, but about 14.3 percent indicated that they would encourage early marriage of their daughters (Table 8). The study therefore delved into the specific reason for their support for early marriage and found that, the major reasons for supporting early marriages was to provide economic comfort to the girl (41.7%), to reduce poverty and struggles (30.6%) and others (27.7%) believed that it would create economic opportunities for the girls.

The underlying factor for these responses narrows to reasons relate to poverty and the aim to reduce economic hardship. The results therefore support Mwangi's (2004) and Offorma's (2009) assertions that child marriages often occur as a way to escape poverty, especially in areas where there are few economic opportunities for women. For this group of respondents, it can be inferred that their position about child marriages could jeopardize the opportunities that their female wards may have for real economic independence.

As shown in Table 8, the commonest reasons given for discouraging girl-child marriage included the fact that it could impede the education of the child (33.3%), and that such marriages could make the child dependent on her husband (31.9%). Some respondents (19.5%) were also convinced that such marriages could turn into a master slave relationship where the younger child gets controlled by the adult male. Yet others (15.3%) were concerned about the economic disempowerment that may result and lead to the girl's inability to cater for the elderly in her family.

The fact that the majority of respondents discouraged child marriages of their wards indicated a more positive attitude towards supporting child education. In Pryor and Ampiah's (2003) analysis, discouraging early marriage as established by respondents rather broadens the scope of economic empowerment of the child, both in the present and the future.

Table 8: Parents' reaction to girl-child marriage

Response	Frequency	Percent
Supports early marriage		
Provides comfort	15	41.7
Reduces poverty and struggle	11	30.6
Provides economic opportunities	10	27.7
Total	36	100
Discourages early marriage		
Impedes education	72	33.3
Girl becomes dependent on husband	69	31.9
Turns into master/slave marriage	42	19.5
Girl is not able to cater for elderly relatives	33	15.3
Total	216	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2012

The support of girl-child education and the resultant empowerment options may also be fostered by granting females equal access to quality education (Narayan, 2002). This may be manifested through the prompt payment of tuition fees and providing them access to textbooks and the requisite learning materials. From the perspective of students, the study sought out the extent of support given to them by the guardians in terms of school fees and other expenditure on textbooks and learning materials.

The results are deduced from the row percentages in Table 9, and the applicable sample for each row is 150 students. The study indicated that a higher percentage (44%) of students were often sent home by school administrators for failure to pay school dues, such as examination fees and PTA dues. This indicated that in regular cases, the guardians were not very supportive in paying for necessary dues that may preclude the child from missing some classes or examination in case they are sent home.

Table 9: Parental support for girl-child education

Variable	Response		
	Often	Sometimes	Never
Sent home for debts in school dues	66(44.0)	31(20.7)	53(35.3)
Learning material provision	125(83.3)	25(16.7)	0(0.0)
PTA attendance	0(0.0)	81(54.0)	69(46.0)
Help with homework	0(0.0)	12(8.0)	138(92.0)

Source: Field survey, 2012

It was also established by 83.3 percent of the students that their guardians often provide them with the necessary learning materials for their studies. This showed a positive attitude towards encouraging education of the girl-child for empowerment. Some studies note that often, boys are given precedence over females in the provision of educational assets and access to education (CEDPA, 2007; Offorma, 2009). However, the findings in this study somewhat suggest that

females may also be getting the requisite attention in terms of being provided with educational accessories for effective studies.

On the other hand, it was noted that parents or guardians do not regularly attend PTA meetings. This was implied by the fact that 54 percent of students indicated that their guardians only sometimes attended PTA meetings. According to Martinez (2004), parents miss out on pertinent issues that may help them understand or to guide their wards toward a better empowerment approach when they fail to meet with school staff. It also denies the opportunity for the parent to be involved in the child's education and to make inputs that could help direct the educational approach towards more desirable outcomes.

In another way parents can be involved in their wards education and provide necessary qualitative additions to school work by getting involved in home assignments. According to Martinez (2004), parental involvement not only has educational benefits but also serves as a bond, which instils confidence in the parents and the children themselves. In this study, the majority (92%) of students indicated that, their guardians had never helped them with their homework. This indicated a low level of support with homework and thus, indicated a low level of involvement of guardians in the education of their female wards, apart from providing them with regular supply of learning materials. Girls do enormous work at home and at the fields. Of the 28 percent of children engaged in child labour, more than two- thirds were also going to school. Boys and girls tend to do different type of work.

The support of guardians may also be shown by their willingness to compromise on the before and after school hours activities and responsibilities that take up time from studies. As seen in Table 10, household heads made up of 62.7 percent said they will not consider allowing their wards to seize performing chores in the house.

Table 10: Parental willingness to cease chores and child-labour

Variables	Frequency	Percent
Ceasing chores		
Highly	55	21.8
Slightly	39	15.5
Not at all	158	62.7
Total	252	100.0
Ceasing child-labour		
Highly	134	53.2
Slightly	79	31.3
Not at all	39	15.5
Total	252	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2012

These activities often relate to the chores and other minor economic activities that the girl-child may be engaged in. It was noted in the study that 21.8 percent of respondents were willing to allow their wards to cease or reduce after school chores in order to allow their female wards enough time to study after school (Table 10).

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On the other hand, 53.2 percent of the respondents indicated that they would highly consider the option of ceasing child labourinorder to make time for studies. The study thus showed that while parents might compromise on not allowing their wards to continue with economic activities, they were less willing to do the same with respects to household chores.

Educational challenges faced by the girl-child

The third objective set to examine the educational challenges faced by girl – child. Over the years the girls' education has been given a high level of priority at the highest level. However, despite all these incentives, girls' education in the country is still faced with series of challenges. Some of the challenges examined included financing education, too many children to cater for and inadequate time to monitor progress. Suggestions for solution were, extension of free education to junior high school and senior high school, implementation of comprehensive free education policies.

The study showed that about 162 household heads indicated that they faced some challenges in sending their wards to school. Out of this number, 64.2 percent noted that the major challenge in educating their female wards was related to the money needed to pay for fees and other ancillary expenses, such as buying text books, transportation and school feeding (Table 11). Others also reported that the challenge had to do with the number of children they had to cater for (27.2%) and the time they needed to monitor the girls' educational progress (8.6%).

Table 11: Challenges faced by guardians in education of the girl-child

Variables	Frequency	Percent
		(n = 162)
Challenges		
Financing education	104	64.2
Too many children to cater for	44	27.2
Inadequate time to monitor progress	14	8.6
Suggestions for solution		
Extend free education to JHS/SHS	109	67.3
Implement comprehensive free education policies	53	32.7

Source: Field survey, 2012

According to Legovini (2004), the girl-child may face several challenges in education. These may be rooted in societal values, economic situations or in personal perspectives. In order to empower girls through effective education, World Bank (2005) suggests that these challenges must be identified and addressed. In this respect, the challenges that guardians face in educating their wards were explored by the study.

With respect to the challenges, 67.3 percent of the household heads suggested that an all encompassing free JHS educational system for government school could help them to overcome some of the financial challenges they face in

sending and retaining their children in school. According to them, the government should extend its educational policies concerning the distribution of school uniforms and textbooks to both primary and junior high school students. In addition, it was mentioned that the idea of free primary education should also cover costs such as PTA dues and examination (32.7%), since those expenses were still high and were borne by guardians.

According to UNICEF (2005), countries such as Ethiopia, Kenya and South-Africa have embarked on free and compulsory primary education to offer equal opportunities for females to be literate and educated. Thus, the request by household heads for extension and intensification of free education is in line with ongoing policies that have in some cases contributed to the empowerment of the girl-child through education. Students also noted that, they had personal challenges, some of which were a derivation from the challenges that parents and guardians encounter in sending their wards to school. The applicable sample for this examination was 115 students that indicated that they faced some challenges in their daily encounter. About 39 percent of the students reported that the major challenge for their education was related to engagement in after school economic activities (Figure 5).

Others (27%) also noted that after school, household chores were most challenging for them, while some indicated that stigmatisation (23.5%) by peers and inappropriate behaviour of teachers (6.1%) were most challenging. According to the later, stigmatisation as a result of a past incident or in some cases as a result of a regular characteristic of the student such as constant appearance to school in

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torn and patched clothes, resulted in name calling that discouraged them from attending school. On the other hand, some inappropriate behaviour of teachers noted included victimisation, verbal abuse as well as indirect and explicit erotic advances.
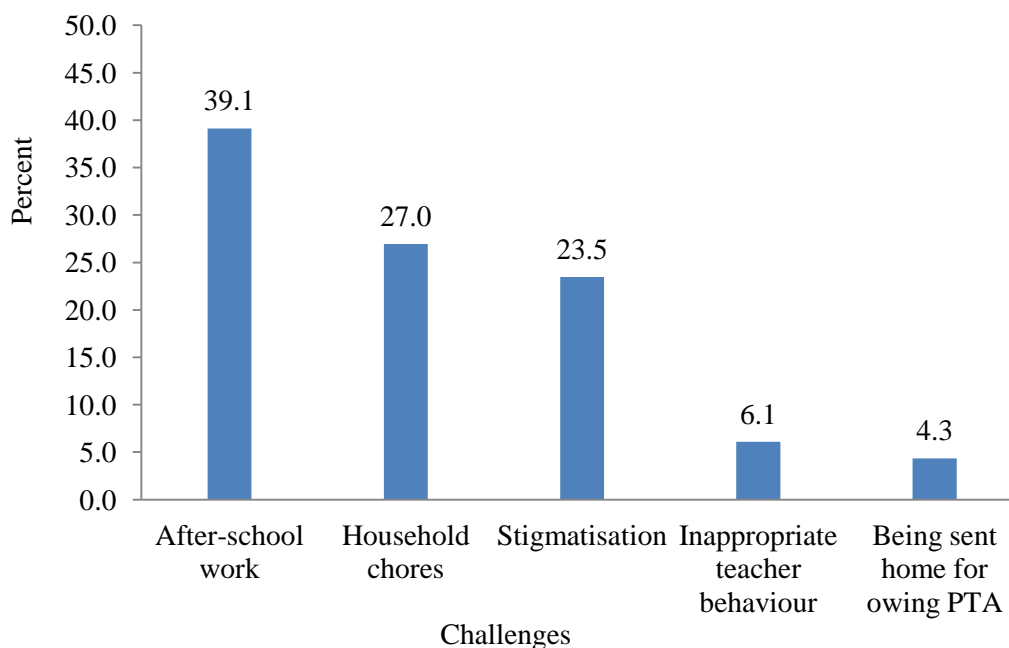
Figure 4: Challenges of the girl-child in education

Source: Field survey, 2012

According to UPOPIN (2003), there are common challenges that have been found in several countries with regard to female students. These challenges, especially those that had to deal with the self-confidence and morals, such as stigmatisation and inappropriate behaviour of teachers have been noted by World Bank (2011) as particularly disempowering as they create self doubt and also lead to some psychological stigma.

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Given the fact that economic engagements by students came on top of the list of challenges, the study inquired into the effects of economic activities on the children and the ways in which these challenged their studies. The main economic activities that the girls were involved in included selling sachet water (44.3%), petty trading in the streets (37.4%), selling in the market (10.4%), house helping (5.2%) and babysitting (2.6%). More than half (53.9%) of the students reported that their engagement in after school made them exhausted to the extent that, they were unable to revise as they would have wished to (Table 12).

Table 12: Effects of economic activities on girl-child education

Variables	Frequency (n = 115)	Percent
Activities		
Selling sachet water	51	44.3
Petty trading	43	37.4
Selling in the market	12	10.4
House keeping	6	5.2
Babysitting	3	2.6
Effects		
Fatigue	62	53.9
Takes time from studies	37	32.2
Academic underperformance	16	13.9

Source: Field survey, 2012

Others also noted that work takes away time needed for studies (32.2%) and thus they often underperformed in school (13.9%). Similar effects on girls have been found on other studies in Zambia (Jensen & Nielsen, 1997) and Kenya (Moyi, 2011). According to these studies, street peddling was the commonest form of economic activities that the girl-child often engaged in. In their study it was established that, due to the fact that those activities were having negative effects on the education of the girls, those activities could be termed as child labour.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents the summary of major findings of the study. It also presents the conclusions drawn from the study, as well as recommendations derived from the conclusions of the study. The first section of the chapter summarises the entire study and also presents the key findings. This is followed by the conclusions and recommendations drawn from the findings. Suggestions for further studies are added in the end.

Summary

The study set out to examine the role that education plays in the empowerment of the girl-child within Jamestown. Descriptive and cross-sectional designs were adopted to study 252 household heads and 150 students. Interview schedules were used to collect data from both set of respondents. Statistical tools used to analyse the data collected included descriptive tools such as means, medians, frequencies, and percentages. Inferential analysis, such as chi-square and phi-statistic were also used to test for significant differences and associations where applicable.

The study explored the attitudes of household heads towards girl-child education as the first objective and the following were found:

1. The majority (70.6) of household heads had a very high regard for girl-child education. This was true for both male and female household heads and across all educational attainment levels.

2. The common chores for the girl-child included cleaning, cooking and fetching water, which were done before and after school hours. More than half (55.5%) of the household heads disagreed that household chores had any negative effects on the children's education.

3. About 32 percent of household heads were of the opinion that, girls were less intelligent than boys. However, more than half (54.2%) of the household heads would rather educate their female children than the males.

The second objective was to examine efforts made to encourage girl-child education in Jamestown and the major findings were that:

1. The expected roles of education in empowering the girl-child were in helping them to develop careers, developing interests and also in making them economically independent.

2. In order to help achieve these roles, the majority (85.7%) of parents disagreed to early marriages in order to allow their female children to have a good education.

3. About 44 percent of the students indicated that, their parents were not able to pay for their school fees on time. Others (46%) also indicated that their guardians did not attend PTA meetings and 92 percent of students noted that their guardians had never helped out with their homework. However,

it was common for household heads to provide their wards with learning materials.

4. Most (53.2%) household heads were willing to let their wards cease working to have time for studies but less than a quarter were willing to do the same with respect to household chores.

The final objective of the study was to examine the educational challenges faced by the girl-child and the results were that:

1. Parents faced the challenge of financing education and making time to monitor the progress of their wards.

2. The major constraint for the girl-child was related to after-school economic activities. This had the effect of tiring the students, taking time from their studies and causing academic underperformance.

3. The girl- child had to grapple with negative attitudes of parents towards their education.

Conclusions

Household heads generally showed supportive attitudes towards educating their female wards. They exhibited preference in educating females.However, some predispositions about girls, that girls were less intelligent than boys, were not indicative of a positive attitude towards girl-child education.

The commonest challenge faced by household heads in educating their wards, had to do with financing education of the girl-child. On the other hand, the girl-child was often confronted with several unfavourable effects on her education

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resulting from engagement in economic activities after school hours. These included fatigue and time taken from revision and studies.

In line with the conceptual framework, the study concludes that most household heads and students expected education of the girl-child to empower them in economic spheres, through financial independence and also in society, by helping them to contribute to development.

Recommendations

The following recommendations were drawn from the findings and conclusions of the study. Household heads and guardians are recommended to:

1. Maintain positive attitudes towards educating their female wards; for example, maintaining a high regard for girl-child education and being willing to compromise on allowing the child to have time for studies.

2. Involve themselves more in their children's education by monitoring their performance and development through attending PTA meeting and helping out with homework and other school assignments. This can assist the child in many possible ways, such as adding further explanations and clarity to classroom work.

3. Have discussions with their wards on the effects of household chores and work on their education and to find appropriate solutions to possible challenges.

Students are also advised to:

1. Report all inappropriate behaviour and physical abuse by teachers to their guardians and head teachers for redress. This can discourage both illegal and immoral acts among teachers that may lead to long-term psychological effects on the child.

2. Seek school-counselling, where available, to deal with some of the stigma issues. Where counselling is not available, students could talk to their parents and guardians to help them overcome some of the issues related to stigmatisation.

Suggestions for further research

Further studies into the practical approach to getting parents and guardians involved in the education of their female wards, can be conducted. Moreover, further studies into the methods of dealing with stigmatisation and its effects on girl-child empowerment are recommended.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HOUSEHOLD HEADS

The interview schedule examines girl-child education and empowerment in Jamestown. Your response will contribute greatly towards meeting this objective and shall be used only for the purpose of this study. The responses will be used for only academic purposes and the confidentiality of your responses is assured.

MODULEA: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. Sex   a. Male   b. Female

2. Age...

3. Level of education

    a. No formal education   b. Basic education only

    b. Junior High only   c. Senior High only   d. Tertiary or

        higher

4. Marital status

    a. Never Married   b. Married   c. Widowed   d. Divorced

    e. Separated

5. Household size   a) 3   b) 4   c) 5 d) 6   e) 7 and above

6. Occupation   a)Labourer b) Teacher c) Trader d) Driver e) Farmer

7. Average income per month...

8. What percentage does your personal income contribute to your household

    income?..

9. Number of children of school going age a)1 b)2 c)3 d)4

10. How many of them are girls a)1 b)2 c)3 d)4

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11. Do you have females in your household who are lesser than 18 years?

    Yes/No

12. If yes, how many are they?

13. Are you fostering any children? Yes/No

14. If yes how many are they?

MODULE B: ATTITUDES OF HOUSEHOLD HEADS TOWARDS GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION

15. To what extent do you think that educating your girl-child will benefit you in the future?

    a. Very highly b.Highly   c.Moderately d. Lowly e. Undecided

16. To what extent would you agree that this community encourages education of girls?

    a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Disagree   d.   Strongly disagree   e. Undecided

17. To what extent would you agree that the girl-child has to do chores for the household?

    a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Disagree   d.   Strongly disagree

    e. Undecided

18. What types of chores should the girl-child be responsible for?

    a. Sweeping   b. Cleaning   c. Cooking   d. Fetching water

    d. Washing   e. Other specify...

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19. Are your male children responsible for similar chores?

20. If no, what chores do your male children do? a)Sweeping b)fetching water c)Cleaning d) Selling

21. What types of chores do you think the girl-child should do before school?

    a. Sweeping   b. Cleaning   c. Cooking   d. Fetching water

    d. Washing

22. What types of chores do you think the girl-child should do after school?

    a. Sweeping   b. Cleaning   c. Cooking   d. Fetching water

    d. Washing   e. Others specify

23. To what extent would you agree that these chores have a negative effect on girl's education?

    a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Disagree   d.   Strongly disagree

    e. Undecided

24. What is your predisposition about girl education?

    a. Educating males is more beneficial   b. Girls are less intelligent at school

    c. Girls do not like school   d. Girls are more intelligent

25. If you could only cater for one of your children which of your children would you send to school?   a. Male   b. Female

26. Explain your choice in question 27

27. What do you expect to gain from educating your girl-child?

a. Support during your old age   b. To be married off

c. For her to be responsible for herself   d.   To gain knowledge for a brighter future

28. To what extent do you expect that your daughter would grow up to take care of you if you educated her?

a. Highly   b. Moderately   c. Lowly   d. Undecided

29. To what extent would you agree that your daughter would only marry and live with her husband one day with all her education?

a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Disagree   d.   Strongly disagree

e. Undecided

30. Would you agree that you expect to benefit more from educating your son than your daughter? a. Yes   b. No

31. Does your daughter have to sell or do any work to support the household or herself? Yes/No

32. If, yes what type of work does she do?

a. Petty trading by road side   b. House help to others   c. Sells at the market

d. Other specify

33. At what time of the day does she do these jobs? Tick all that apply

a. Before school   b. After school   c. All day   d. Weekends

34. To what extent do you agree that these jobs negatively affect her school performance?

    a. Strongly agree   b. Agree   c. Disagree   d.   Strongly disagree

    e. Undecided

MODULE C: EFFORTS MADE TO ENCOURAGE GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION

35. If you were asked not to let your gild-child do household chores because it affects her education, to what extent would you consider it?

    a. Highly   b. Slightly   c. Not at all   d. Undecided

36. In what ways have you tried to improve education for your girl-child? Tick all that apply

    a. Pay for after school tutoring   b. Send her to a better school

    b. Pay for weekend classes   d. Help her with homework

    e. Give her privacy to study   f. Provide regular teaching and learning materials for the child   g. New school clothes

37. Have you ever had any talks with your child's headmaster or teacher on her school performance? a Yes   b. No

38. If no why?

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MODULE D: CHALLENGES TO GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION

39. Which of the following creates difficulties in educating your girl child?

TICK ALL THAT APPLY

a. Money for fees b. School feeding c. School clothing

d. Books and texts e. Number of children to cater for

f. Others specify

40. Which of the following poses the greatest challenge?

TICK ONLY ONE

a. Money for fees b. School feeding c. School clothing

e. Books and texts e. Number of children to cater for

g. Others specify

41. What do you think can be done to help you overcome these problems

APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR STUDENTS

The interview schedule examines girl-child education and empowerment in Jamestown. Your response will contribute greatly towards meeting this objective and shall be used only for the purpose of this study. The responses will be used for only academic purposes and the confidentiality of your responses is assured.

MODULE A: DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND

MODULE A: ATTITUDES OF HOUSEHOLD HEADS

1. Are you made to do household chores before school?

2. If yes, what types of chores do you do?

   a. Sweeping   b. Cleaning   c. Cooking   d. Fetching water

   d. Washing   e. Others specify

3. To what extent do you think that these chores negatively affect your

   school performance?

   a. Highly   b. Moderately   c. Not at all

4. Do you do household chores after school?

5. If yes, what chores do you often do?

   a. Sweeping   b. Cleaning   c. Cooking   d. Fetching water

   d. Washing   e. Others specify

6. To what extent do chores after school prevent you from studying in the

   evenings?

   a. Highly   b. Moderately   c. Not at all

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MODULE B: CHALLENGES TOWARDS GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION

7. Have any of your female friends ever been touched by any teacher inappropriately?

8. Which of the following creates difficulties for you in your education?

    TICK ALL THAT APPLY

    a. Being sent home for fees b. Not being able to buy necessary text books c. Torn clothes and shoes d. Teasing by peers

    d. Chores at home e. Selling after school f. Poor attitudes of teachers

    g. Molestation by teachers i. Other specify……………………………

9.   Which of these causes the greatest challenge for your education?

    TICK ONLY ONE

    a. Being sent home for fees b. Not being able to buy necessary text books c. Torn clothes and shoes d. Teasing by peers

    e. Chores at home e. Selling after school f. Poor attitudes of teachers

    h. Molestation by teachers i. Other specify……………………………

10. What do you think can be done to resolve the problem?

THANK YOU