UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

OBSTACLES TO FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AT THE BASIC LEVEL: A CASE STUDY OF WASA AMENFI DISTRICT IN THE WESTERN REGION OF GHANA

BY

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Dissertation Submitted to the Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, Faculty of Education, University of Cape Coast, in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of Master of Education Degree in Educational Administration

MAY 2007
DECLARATION

Candidate’s Declaration

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

Candidate’s Signature: .................................. Date: 29-6-07
Name: Joseph Lugyela Bagbin

Supervisor’s Declaration

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

Supervisor’s Signature: .................................. Date: ......................
Name: Dr. A. L. Dare
ABSRTACT

The purpose of the study was to find out the main causes that accounted for the low participation and retention of the girl-child at the basic level of education in the Wasa Amenfi District of the Western Region of Ghana. The study period covered September 1997 to August 2004. The descriptive survey design was adopted. Samples were drawn from five (5) circuits out of the 13 circuits of the Wasa Amenfi District. Respondents were made up of 476 parents/guardians, 150 teachers/circuit officers and 500 female pupils at the basic level.

Data for the study were obtained through questionnaire and interview schedules. Statistical data was also obtained from both the Wasa Amenfi District and the Western Region Education Offices. The data collected were organised into tables, frequencies and percentages which were the main statistical techniques used to analyse and interpret the data. Poverty accounted for parents' inability to enroll and maintain girls in school. The high poverty level probably also accounted for poor parental care leading to truancy and teenage pregnancy resulting in the girl-child dropping out of school.

Preference for sending boys rather than girls to school, and distance covered by girls to school similarly left girls out of school. Similarly, single parenthood accounted for truancy of girls that finally led to her drop out of school. Furthermore, the absence of female teachers was found to be a disincentive to girl retention in school.
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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my wife Elizabeth A. Biekpe and my children Gilbert A. Bagbin, John-Baptist S. Bagbin, Vitalis K. Bagbin, Martha A. Bagbin and Isaac S. Bagbin for their endurance and encouragement they gave me during the period that I was away from home to pursue this course.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>DECLARATION</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>iii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEDICATION</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE OF CONTENTS</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDICES</td>
<td>ix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST FOR FIGURES</td>
<td>xii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ONE</strong> INTRODUCTION</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Purpose of the Study</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Questions</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delimitation</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Limitation of the Study</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Study Area</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TWO</strong> LITERATURE REVIEW</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section</td>
<td>Page</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conceptualisation of the Problem</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural, Religious and Traditional Barriers</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Attitude</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Environment</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude of Students</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>THREE METHODOLOGY</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Research Design</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sampling Technique and Procedure</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instruments</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Validity and Reliability of the Instruments</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Collection Procedure</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Data Analysis Procedure</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FOUR RESULTS AND DISCUSSION</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FIVE SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RECOMMENDATIONS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Findings</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusions</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recommendations</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Areas for Further Research</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REFERENCES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>APPENDICES</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A  Questionnaire for Parents</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B  Target Respondent Headteachers/Teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C  Target Respondent: Girl-Child at Basic Level BS 5 – JSS 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E  Map of Ghana showing Western Region</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F  Map of Western Region showing Study Area</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G  Map of the Study Area (i.e. Amenfi West District)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Page 73
## LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Composition of Sample</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Distribution of Parents by Sex</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Distribution of Respondents by Age</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Level of Education Attained by Parents</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Distribution of Parents by Occupation</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Distribution of Parents by Religious Affiliation</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Distribution of Parents by Marital Status</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Parents Response to Number of Children</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 How pupils Travel to School and Back</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Distance s Pupils Travel to get to School</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Number of Public Basic Schools in the Study Area</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Amount of Pocket Money Parents Claim they give to their Daughters each Day</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Girl-child Engagement in Work after School on Daily Basis</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Parents Decision Regarding Gender of Child Preferred to send to School when Family Finances are Scarce</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Parents Response to Sponsorship of their Pregnant School Girl</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 People with Whom the Girl-child stayed with while Attending School</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 Respondents Choice of Programme in Senior Secondary School</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
18 Causes of Low Participation of the Girl-child in School 63
19 Staffing in Public Basic Schools in Wasa Amenfi District 65
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

Prior to the inception of formal western education, there was indigenous African education that catered for both male and female. This type of education was based on the fact that all people were equal and should have the same rights and opportunities. According to Meighan and Siraj-Blachford (1997), inequality of opportunity in education between females and males was rarely recognised as a problem. The agents of education to them were parents, significant adults and the community at large. All children were taught socio-cultural behaviour, good morals and ethical values without discrimination.

Since independence in 1957, various governments have provided for equality to access to education, elimination of gender-role stereotyping and for an education system that is expected to close the gap in educational levels between females and males. Educational policies and programmes provided for equal opportunities to all citizens regardless of sex differences, race or geographical location. To this end, every Ghanaian is capable of pursuing any type of education to any level according to his/her ability and interest without any, political or regional restrictions. However, Mills (1997), lamented that females constitute 51% of the population of Ghana but available information prove that enrolment figures of girls in basic schools drastically reduced at the secondary level and further decreased at tertiary level. A situation that is discouraging and
totally unacceptable in a country that needs to tap fully all its human resources, the girl child inclusive.

The perception about equal opportunities for both boys and girls did not change much with the coming of the Christian missionaries. McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh (1975) stated that, by 1918 the Basel Mission Schools in Akwapim area had as many girls as boys. However, they went on further to indicate that taking all Basel Mission schools in the country into consideration, the ratio of boys to girls was 3:1. This state of affairs has not changed.

Currently available data indicate that there are outstanding gender disparities in education participation in the country with the Wasa Amenfi District being one of the most disadvantaged. For example, during the 1994/95 school year, whilst the school participation rate for the Western Region for primary and JSS were 75.8 and 55.5 respectively, that of the Wasa Amenfi District were 69.8 and 54.9 respectively. Also, the teacher-pupil ratio of Primary, JSS and SSS were 1:30, 1:28 and 1:25 respectively. These ratios are below the national ratio of 1:45, 1:35 and 1:35 for Primary, JSS and SSS respectively. The above statistics are indicative of the fact that quite a number of children in the school going-age bracket are not in school in the Wasa Amenfi District. The statistics also clearly confirm that there are marked disparities in the enrolment, retention and completion rate between the Wasa Amenfi District and the rest of the Western Region, and other parts of the country.

The Wasa Amenfi District has been declared one of the most deprived districts in the country. Such deprived districts are noted to lag behind in the
availability of many social amenities including access to education. It is obvious therefore, that girls would be the more disadvantaged in the dismal picture of educational participation of children in the district. There is therefore the need to identify the obstacles that militate against enrolment, retention and completion of schooling of children and for that matter the girl-child in the Wasa Amenfi District.

Statement of the Problem

In Ghana, an attempt to have total development of the much-needed human resource is becoming a mirage because females always lag behind their male counterparts. Osei (1994) observed that enrolment of females has been falling below that of boys at all levels of formal education in the country over the years. Atakpa (1978) also asserted that females constitute 45%, 33% and 25% of student population at primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education respectively. This suggests that females lag behind their male counterparts in education at all levels.

Available statistics at the Wasa Amenfi District Assembly (WADA) indicate that the status of girl-child education in the district is not different from the national perspective. It may even be more pathetic considering the fact that the Wasa Amenfi District is one of the deprived districts in the country.

WADA in its Five-Year Development Plan (1996-2000) stated that “out of the 32.4% (district population) that have not had any formal education, about 68.5% are women” (p.51). The document further revealed that the “potential of a large portion of the population needed in development of the district is therefore
left untapped”. This presupposes that it is mostly the potential of females that is untapped.

Statistics from the District Directorate of Education corroborates the view point of WADA. Enrolment figures (Fig. 1) were obtained from the district education office during the period under review (1993/94 -2003/04) and were compared with enrolment figures for the region (Fig. 2). The comparison with the regional figures was necessary to ascertain the level of girl-child participation in school in the context of regional participation.

Source: Wasa Amenfi District Directorate of Education.

**Figure 1:** Pupils Enrolment for Wasa Amenfi District (1997/98-2003/04).
From Figure 1, it is seen that in 1998/99 and 1999/2000, there was a fall in enrolment of girls at primary levels. After that, there has been significant increase in enrolment for the rest of the period. On the other hand, at the JSS level there was an increase over the years up to 2000/2001, after which there was a decrease in the two succeeding years. This situation was contrary to the regional enrolment records where there has been an increase at all levels of education throughout the study period from year to year.


Figure 2: Pupils Enrolment Figures for Western Region (1997/98-2003/04)

Figures 3 and 4 indicate the percentage attrition rates from primary to JSS for Wasa Amenfi District and the Western Region respectively.
Figure 3: Pupils Attrition Rate in the Wasa Amenfi District.

From Figures 3 and 4, while enrolment of girls at the primary level seem to be increasing generally, the attrition rate to the JSS level was rather high reaching a maximum of 77.8% in 2002/03. Similarly, compared with the regional records, Wasa Amenfi District attrition rate was generally high (i.e. above 70%) while the regional attrition rate was below 70%. For example, while the attrition rate in the study district ranged between 72.6% (1998/99) and 77.8% (2002/03), that of the region was between 68.3% (2002/03) and 69.4% (1997/98). This means that while the attrition rate for the region dropped, that of the study area increased around the end of the study period,
Figure 4: Pupils Attrition Rate of Western Region

It can also be seen from the two figures (1&2) that boys' outnumbered girls throughout the study period. However, in 1998/99 even though boys outnumbered the girls, the attrition rate was the same (i.e. 72.6%).

The disparity in enrolment figures between boys and girls further confirmed the preference for boys schooling to girls' education by parents in the study area and probably the western region in general.

Various governments of Ghana have endeavoured to completely tap the human resources, male and female, by adopting pragmatic educational policies aimed at bridging the gender gap in access to education. In spite of all these measures to redress the gender disparities in education, females continue to lag
behind their male counterparts at all levels especially in the Wasa Amenfi District. There is therefore the need to find out the obstacles to female participation in school in the Wasa Amenfi District.

**Purpose of the Study**

Despite enormous efforts by successive governments over the past thirty to forty years to extend access to schooling with the view to achieving universal basic education for all, many districts are far from achieving this goal. Majority of children of school-going-age in the rural areas, especially girls, are still not in school. The numbers of out-of school children keep on increasing year after year. To assert that everyone has a “right” to education, as is often done by most governments, has little practical meaning unless this “right” is translated into terms of minimum package of attitudes, knowledge and skills for all without any barriers.

Despite the emphasis of the 1987 educational reforms on girl-child education and provisions made in the 1992 constitution that protect the rights of the girl-child to education, girl-child participation in school still remains very low.

The purpose of this study is therefore to:

(a) find out obstacles that militate against participation of the girl-child in education at the basic level in the Wasa Amenfi District and to suggest ways to improve girl-child participation in school at the basic level.

**Research Question**

To achieve the desired purpose of this study the following research questions constituted the hub of the study:
Major Research Question:
How can girl-child participation in education be improved in the Wasa Amenfi District?

Minor Research Questions
1. What was the level of participation of the girl-child in school at the basic level in Wasa Amenfi District for the period 1997/1998 – 2003/2004?
2. What factors account for the low enrolment and poor retention of the girl-child in school in the Wasa Amenfi District?

Significance of the Study:
The study is intended to find out the causes for the low participation of the girl-child in education and to make recommendations to improve upon the situation.

The studies therefore seek to provide information that will make educational planners aware of the gender discrepancy in education in the study area. Such awareness would inform their planning decisions.

Delimitation
The study is confined to the geographical boundaries of the Wasa Amenfi District, which also falls within the educational boundaries of the district. More information about the district i.e. size of population, relief, climate and an overview of level of education is briefly discussed under the background to the study area.
Limitation of the Study

For relevant and reliable data, there was the need for frequent travel to and from data sample group to administer the instruments. The inaccessible nature of most settlements in the district posed a big constraint in the smooth administration of data instruments and quick collection of data. It is therefore possible that some important information that might enrich the study was not collected.

The researcher does not perfectly understand the local language (Twi). Meanwhile most parents are illiterates. There was therefore the need for interpreters. The issue of bias on the part of the interpreter may have affected the validity of information obtained.

The Study Area

Available Statistics at the District Directorate of Education indicate that, Wasa Amenfi District was created in 1968. Before then, it was under Tarkwa.

At the time of this study, the district was again been split into two- the Amenfi East with Wasa Akropong as the capital and Wasa Amenfi West still with Asankrangwa as the district capital. The study will continue to cover the newly created district as part of the Wasa Amenfi District.

Wasa Amenfi District can be found in the northern part of the Western Region (Ref. Appendix I). It has a total land area of 4,747 square kilometers (Appendix ii). The relief is undulating with three of the major rivers of the country flowing through it. These are Tano, Ankobra and Offin rivers. These
rivers are potential sources of irrigation in the district and small scale-fishing.

The district has Asankrangwa town as the capital. The district is bounded in the South by Jomoro and Nzema East Districts; in the South-East by Wasa West District, in the North-East by Upper Denkyira District, in the North by Bibiani-Anhwiaso-Bekwai District and finally on the west by Sefwi Wiaso and Aowin Suaman Districts. The district is rural and has been declared deprived by all standards.

Wasa Amenfi District has a population of about 302,971. Population density for the district stands at 49.5 persons/km² (Ghana 2000 census). The dominant ethnic groups in the district are Akans who constitute 81%, Wasas' 10.6%, Ewes 28% and Northerners 6.6%. The dominant religion is Christianity, which constitutes 77.5% followed by Islam 16.8% and finally pagans who form 5.7%.

According to available statistics, about 52.5% of children of school-going age are in basic school (i.e. primary school and junior secondary), 9% in SSS while 1% are in tertiary level of education (WADA 1996-2000 development plan). This indicates that quite a number of children of school-going age are not in school (37.5%). According to the report this state of affairs is attributed to limited opportunities for higher post primary education in the district among other things.

The major economic activity of the people in the district is agriculture, which forms 63.6%, services 12%, commerce 10.8%, and industry 1.6% while unemployment is pecked at 12%. Of the 12% unemployed, 6.8% are females.
Forest as part of agriculture is one of the major contributors to the economy of the district. Currently, there are 11 forest reserves in the district. According to the District’s Economic Survey Report, revenue generated from timber royalties in the reserved and unreserved areas from 1992 to 1995 amounted to four hundred thousand dollars ($400, 000). Major tree species from the forest are mahogany, sapele, dahoma, edinam, wawa and kyenkyen to mention but a few. An economy that seems to be basically peasant agriculture by nature is bound to impact negatively on the quality of life including education. The annual rainfall of Wasa Amenfi District is 173mm with an average temperature of about 24°C. Humidity is 81% (WADA 1996-2000)

Generally the climate has a favourable effect on the conservation of natural resources and agricultural production. However, there are extremes of rainfall that causes floods, viral and fungal diseases of cocoa, a major source of livelihood of the citizens of the district. This adversely affects agricultural production. The high humidity experienced throughout the year is also a major constraint to cereal production during harvesting period. It is difficult to dry these cereals for lack of sunshine. There are three (3) vegetation zones within the district, which include the rain forest, semi-deciduous and transitional zones (WADA 1996-2000). From the background study it could be observed that the district natural resources were not fully utilised for the benefit of their children education.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Low participation of the girl-child in education in Ghana and particularly in the Wasa Amenfi District is currently a topical issue. No nation can develop without first developing its human resources. The type and level of education delivery is therefore a pre-requisite in determining the level of socio-political and economic development of the country.

In spite of all attempts to close the gap between male and female participation in education by various governments, the girl-child still lags behind in this respect. The inability of females to participate in formal education still persist in the Wasa Amenfi District and therefore creates concern among educational administrators, concerned individuals and stakeholders in education in the district.

In this chapter, literature on the obstacles to girl-child participation in education generally is reviewed by reference to such documents as periodicals, books, journals, newspapers and other research materials on girl child education. This will give a theoretical framework of the study. The literature review is done under five (5) main headings related to female participation in school and they include:

i. Conceptualisation of the problem

ii. Cultural, Religious and Traditional Barriers

iii. Parental attitude

iv. School Environment

v. Girl-Child Attitude
Conceptualisation of the Problem

It is estimated that in Africa the primary school enrolment ratio for girls will be 87% as against 97% for boys. The proportion of women in higher education has tended to rise significantly in all regions except Africa (Combs 1980). In Egypt, whereas the prevailing illiteracy rate for men was 50% in 1985, it was 90% for women (Bishop, 1994). In Asia, illiteracy rate of female is as high as 80% while in Africa 85% of females are illiterate (Avakov, 1980).

Globally, the absolute number of out-of-school children aged 6 to 11 years that will rise to 162 million by 2015 half of them will be girls. More than 273 million adolescents aged 12 to 17 are out of school, of these 54% are girls and of the 885 million illiterates in the world aged 15, about 64% are women (World Bank, 1996). Since 1990, the world has called for all children to be able to complete primary school, but more than 100 million primary-school-age children remain out of school (World Bank 2005).

The Federation of African Women in Education (FAWE 1996), in their report observed that, progress with education in Africa has been slow and serious. The report further revealed that in spite of efforts over the past 30 years to boost numbers of school entrants, levels of education in Africa remain the lowest in the world. According to the report, almost half the children of primary school age are not enrolled and some two-thirds of these non-starters are girls.

The above predictions of the future status of the girl-child in education worldwide and in Africa in particular are rather unfortunate for any realistic development in the world. Females currently dominate the world population and
if more than half of the world population is deprived of meaningful education, then it means that majority of females are still wallowing in abject illiteracy, a prelude to poverty.

McCready (1970) cited in Buah-Bassuah (1996), stated that education is the means whereby females could make a contribution to nation building, home, life and inevitably to manpower in general. However, Buah-Bassuah (1996) noted that according to a UNESCO report, 70% of the worlds illiterates are females and less able to be aware of laws, social or health services, which could protect or help them and their families.

Krishna (1982) corroborating the UNESCO report stated that there is increasing numbers of girls enrolling everywhere, but at the same time more girls than boys continue to drop out of school at all levels.

If Krishna’s assertion is true then, McCready views about the positive roles of females in national development are unachievable. It would therefore be very necessary for government, individuals, and stakeholders in education and sympathisers of female predicament to think of possible solutions to improve girl-child education. This will enable them to properly take and play their expected roles in global and national development.

Information gathered by UNESCO showed that there are more females than men that are illiterates. For example, United Nations statistics on Focus on Women (1995) reveals that there are one billion adults in the world, out of which 66% are females. According to the report, approximately 15 million start primary
school but more than two-third (2/3) which of course are females, drop out before completing four (4) years in primary school.

Coombs (1981), in his studies observed that there was a low rate of female participation in Senegal and Cameroon educational system. His findings showed that female population at the primary and secondary school levels were less than 40% and 33.7% respectively, and persistently less than 20% at the tertiary level. Similarly, Hyde (1995), observed that dropout of girls remains a major problem in many countries in Africa. Many countries are reasonably successful in enrolling children of both sexes in the first year of primary school, but girls leave at a more rapid rate than boys.

This pattern of low female student population and high concentration in a few disciplines was observed at Ahmadu Bellow University (ABU) and tend to compare well with findings in Ghana by Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford (1997). Meighan and Siraj-Blatchford reported that there has been a small steady growth in total female population in British Universities. They observed that:

... girls' are overrepresented in arts courses, whereas they make up only one in three of enrolments in science courses'(p..319).

The information above do not only indicate low enrolment of the girl-child at all levels of education, but also goes to buttress the fact that the number of female students tend to drop as they move up the educational ladder. The information further indicates that female school retention rate is very low. The report also shows that female students were only found in the faculty of arts
female students tend to drop as they move up the educational ladder. The information further indicate that female school retention rate is very low. The report also shows that female students were only found in the faculty of arts pointing to the fact that female students probably did not have the mental ability to go into science and technology.

In an article “Gender imbalance in decision making in Ghana” (Daily Graphic, September 9th, 2004), Salome Donkor, stated among other things that

...there are only 19 women in the 200-member parliament; only 9 women hold ministerial and deputy ministerial positions in the present government against 68 men; women make up 16% in the Council of state which is an advisory body to the president”. The situation is worrying when one considers the fact that women constitute about 51% of the country’s 18 million population. This means that majority of the populace is not participating in decision-making, implying that the interests of over half the country’s population was not reflected in decisions made’ he concluded.

Donkor’s observation is true in almost all establishments and agencies, public and private except in nursing and secretarial duties. This again goes to buttress the views of some authorities that women can only engage in less enduring jobs.
Cultural, Religious and Traditional Barriers

Culture, which is the beliefs, ideas and ways of behaviour of a particular ethnic grouping, has been blamed for low female participation in education throughout Sub-Saharan Africa.

Svanikier (1997) stated that females started off their educational history from a disadvantaged position because the missionaries discriminated against the girl-child. He substantiated this by stating that by 1920, the ratio of boys to girls in Basel mission schools was 100:59, Catholic mission 100:28, while that of the Wesleyan mission was 100:11.

Svanikier may be right. A cursory observation of the country currently, indicates that of the Senior Secondary Schools established by the missionaries, there are many single sex boys’ schools than single sex girls’ schools. However as to whether this disparity is willful neglect by the missionaries is an issue that is debatable. Similarly, in co-educational institutions at all levels, nursery to tertiary, private and public, males are more than females. The causes for this disparity between males and females are ascribed to various reasons by different authorities.

Even though Svanikier may be right, it can also be said that discrimination against the girl-child even started from the home, at birth. Very often when a woman gives birth to a male child in most Ghanaian cultures various phrases are used to indicate that a real human-being is born. For example in the Akan culture the phrase “wa wo nipa” literally meaning a “human being is born”. In the Dagaaba culture the phrase “Yiri kuu me” literally meaning, “the mother of a
"child" is used. On the other hand, when a female is born in the Dagaaba community, the phrase “A Fulani is born” is used. Philosophically, this means that, the female child will soon leave and follow men just as the Fulani follows cattle and so may be of no economic importance to the family.

Bishop (1994) opined that there are many reasons for the disparities due to sex in education available to and utilized by men and women. Bishop further stated that:

... some parents (especially in animist tribes) are opposed to the schooling of girls because of the value attached to traditional role of females as wives and mothers (p.49)

Bishop’s assertion may be true because according to the Girls Education Unit of G.E.S (1997) report, socio-cultural factors are the major obstacles that impede female participation and retention in education. According to the report, some of these factors include early marriage, religious beliefs and the undecided and entrenched negative attitude toward female education. Cultural practices like girl-child betrothal and “dipo” indirectly encourage female adolescent into early marriage resulting in low female participation in school.

Beechey (1986) is of the view that society has not done enough for girl-child education. To him, society has refused to address the very problems, which are creating avenues for girl-child to become dropouts. He identified society’s failure to provide enough educational facilities and encouragement to the female as the major causes that lead them to drop out of school. For example, in some regions in Cameroun, educated girls are perceived as being too independent and
demanding, and are likely to challenge the traditional submissive role expected of them in marriage (Cammish and Brock, 1994). Cammish and Brock observation therefore corroborates Beechey’s assertion.

It is however doubtful whether Beechey’s assertion still holds water for Ghana at this time of the country’s independence. For example, since the 1961 “Free Education For All” policy, there has been massive increase in access to education. The 1987 Education Reforms in Ghana whose slogan was “education to the door steps of the masses” has further increased access to education throughout the country with emphasis on girl-child education.

Addae-Mensah (1973) writing about the Kintampo District, argued that, girl-child education in reality has not engaged much attention from parents, traditional rulers and some religious organisations in the country. He further observed that the religious belief of some tribes especially Moslems do not recognise the importance of secular education. To him, Moslems belief that formal education would convert their children to other religions has placed barriers to girl-child education in the district.

Robertson (1986) corroborated Addae-Mensah’s assertion when he opined that Moslem parents prefer Islamic education for their daughters for fear that western education will promote in the girls values and behaviour which are contrary to Islamic ethics. According to Bishop (1990), Koranic schools in Islamic countries exclude girls after the age of puberty. Niles (1989), observed that in Chad some parents believed that schools exposed girls to prostitution, made them unfaithful to their husbands and difficult to control by parents.
Despite attempts by various governments and non-governmental agencies to diffuse some of these beliefs and perceptions with the objective of improving the educational status of the girl-child, Bening (1990) observed that unsuspecting and outmoded cultural and religious values still limit the progress of the girl-child. Bening opined that Moslem and traditional worshippers might think that public schools do not promote social values like honesty, righteousness, sympathy, love and respect. He went on further to argue that, they feel that public schools and higher education could result in their daughters acquiring certain undesirable social attitudes which might be inconsistent with their religious believe.

Addae-Mensah, Robertson, and Bening might be right because a cursory survey indicate that even in modern times in Ghana, Moslem communities tend to have more illiterates and high school drop out rates than Christian communities. This is because Christian communities tend to encourage their children in formal education than Moslem communities.

Aikens (1994) believed that the age-old concept of female inferior mental abilities and limited social positions acted as barriers to establishment of education for females. This to him is enough justification for the difference in educational opportunities available to men and women. It is a general notion held in West Africa that the woman’s place is in the kitchen (Osei, 1991).

Historical analysis of female education shows that it has usually not measured up to the standard of male education not because females are not capable of being educated to the level men attain, but because of society’s attitude
towards girl-child in general (Lee and Lockheed, 1990). It could therefore be said that low female participation in school is an old issue. However, comparing Lee's stand that females are capable and Aikens' conviction that females have inferior mental abilities then one is at a loss why females are not in school and so there is the need to probe for more obstacles to girl-child participation in school.

Wyatt (1991), writing on female education, blamed low female participation in school on gender stereotyping. According to him, gender stereotyping is a fundamental obstacle to female participation in education. This according to him results in ascribing to females, the caring, home-based dependent and low status roles. They cook, clean the house, fetch water and help their mothers in trading. There is some truth in these views. Such household chores are not only burdensome but also detrimental to effective participation and retention of females in the educational system. They become tired and so sleep in class the following day.

It can be said that cultural and religious beliefs are a major problem to low participation in school. Since it is people who practice culture, and every child has parents or belongs to a particular family, the cultural dimension and its influence on the attitude of individual parents and their beliefs cannot be overlooked as contributory factors to low participation of girl-child education.

Parental Attitude

The role of parents in shaping the future of their children cannot be over emphasised. Many authorities in education blame low participation of the girl-child to parental attitude in various ways.
Phelps Stockes (1925) indicated that low participation of the girl-child in school in Africa was due to neglect. It was observed by Phelps Stockes that the chief reason for the apparent neglect of girls in education is probably due to differences and sometimes opposition of negative people of these girls.

Phelps Stockes may be pointing to the fact that someone or somebody has to be held responsible for educating the girl-child. The immediate people that come to mind are the parents and the community. Parents and the community could be blamed for the low participation of girl-child in education.

A short educational advertisement on Ghana Television (GTV) by FAWE portrays the kind of treatment given to the girl-child right from childhood. The advertisement dubbed “Send your girl-child”, screens a family with an only female among boys. The boys happen to be learning and the little girl goes to join them. She was pushed away by these boys and insulted too. She rushed crying to her parents only to be shouted at and sent to the kitchen to get something (i.e. food) for the family.

According to a USAID (1975) report, studies conducted from 1973 to 1974 showed that the highest dropout rate for girls occurred between 9-12 years who could not therefore make their own informed decisions about the usefulness of education.

Dolphyne (1992), reacting to the USAID (1975) report was emphatic that negative attitude towards girl-child education exposes the ignorance of some parents about the benefits of education. She stated that:
the probable reason for the low enrolment of females in schools might be that parents are not very convinced of the value of formal education for the girl-child (p.14)

Dolphyne might be right in that at the tender age of 9 to 12, the individual lacks sense of direction in almost all spheres of life including education and therefore need parental and societal guidance in decision making. At that age, negative adult role models could even negatively impact on the girl-child. For example, in most Ghanaian communities, wealth is synonymous to knowledge and respect in the community. Illiterate but rich businesswomen will therefore be wrong role models because the girl-child will think that education is not necessary for one to be a respectable person in society since the rich are often more respected than literates in African communities.

Studies have shown that the impact on daughters schooling will increase if the parents, especially the mother, were educated. Mensah (1992) reported that:

the educational background of many parents in the rural areas influences decisions and attitudes in favour of enrolling boys rather than girls. It was clear that parents without any educational background had little interest in educating their female children. On the other hand those with much higher level of education place emphasis on the quality of education their female children should have (p.39).
Parents’ educational background therefore goes a long way to determine their attitudes towards girl-child education and consequently may either increase or decrease the number of female children who participate in school.

Wedge and Essien (1982), in their study found out that children born into poverty have few resources to enable them buy educational materials which will enhance their learning. Their living conditions may also suffer from the adverse physical effects associated with poverty. Unsatisfactory housing and disease for example has been shown to be associated with lower achievements in the primary school.

Skellington (1992) buttressed the views of Wedge and Essien. He stated among other things that poverty affects the chances or the success of a child in school. A child who is constantly hungry will have difficulty giving her full attention to the lesson in class. For example, in Uganda, Grade VII pupils when asked what they had had to eat before school, 18.5 per cent replied “nothing to eat or drink” (Bishop 1994), p.115

Twumasi (1986) asserted that, the attitude of the community towards girl-child education has not changed. He contended that when the family finances are very low, the young girls are asked to stop schooling. Abambilla (1984) observed that in the Kasanaba circuit of Bawku in the Upper East Region girls are seen as a source of wealth of parents, due to the strong value they attach to the early marriage of their daughters. As a result of this it led to a fall in the level of female educational participation in the area. Income from bride price is an important source of money to many poor families. Such families therefore encourage their
daughters to marry early resulting in low female participation in education. Abukari (1996) affirmed that most parents withdraw their daughters for marriage purposes at ages between 15 to 20 years because of poverty.

Hyde (1992) maintains that, girls’ household activities, especially in Asia and Africa seem to have more impact than boys’ activities on the parents’ earnings. Girls work at home often permit parents’ especially mothers, to work more on their farms or in the labour force. In sending girls to school, the family loses the income that the mother might have earned because the daughter substituted for the mother in doing home chores. This is particularly true among poor families where girls labour may be crucial to family survival.

From the above, it means that poverty level has a dramatic influence on first, the participation and second, the success of the girl-child in school. It can therefore be said that children who come from impoverished areas and often suffer from malnutrition and ill health do not have the same opportunity in education as those who are well-nourished and healthy. For example, a survey in a school in Uganda about whether the pupils ever suffered from specific health problems revealed the following results: 78 per cent claimed to have had malaria, 12 per cent had seen blood in their stools, 10 per cent had had trachoma, 8 per cent hookworm, and 5 per cent had been treated for malnutrition when they were babies. In Paraguay 10 per cent of parents stated that their children had to drop out of school because of ill-health.

Carefully analysing the Ugandan and Paraguay cases, it is obvious that such children would lag behind their counter parts who are healthy because they
(the sick) would always be absent from school. In both cases the girl-child is likely to be in the majority because fathers who are the breadwinners of the family often care very little when the girl-child is sick as compared to the boy who is likely to succeed them (men) when they die.

According to Silver (1983), parental economic status was not related to academic achievements in any meaningful way. Perhaps even more startling is Murphy and Gipps (1996) finding that African children from illiterate homes in Zimbabwe did better in secondary school than children from homes whose parents were literate. Peil (1982) opined that examination success is by no means all due to social advantages. According to him, in the case of parental education, the differential is the reverse of what was expected. The social and family background of parents therefore plays a very important part in what progress children make or do not make in school.

This kind of attitude negatively impact on the participation and retention of the girl-child in education. The practice of discontinuing school and returning later does not make her focus on her studies like the boys. She has to definitely lag behind she has missed classes and home conditions are not better for private studies.

It is also observed that poor parents would force their girls into early marriage with the hope of making money from the bride price. This attitude result in the girl-child remaining out of school or drop out of school to satisfy the parents economic desires. Obviously a better choice because, even if she had remained in school, the parents would not cater for her needs.
The economic barrier to female enrolment and retention in school is further emphasized by a study conducted in Ethiopia. According to the research report, a woman argued that parents preferred boys' education to that of girls because boys sell fuel wood, plant trees, keep chicken and involve in other trading activities, the proceeds of which is used in buying their own exercise books and pens, thus sharing the cost of their education. According to her argument girls are involved in household chores, some farming activities and so they do not help them much in sharing the cost of their education.

From this it can be concluded that even though the labour of girls directly assist the family economy, it is not recognised as being beneficial as boys, because it does not directly earn cash.

The above views have been supported by an International Labour Organisation (ILO) report. ILO (1989:86) report in Sierra Leone observed that parents seem more willing to continue investing in the education of their boys who have dropped out of school, because they felt that eventually,

...the boy will become the main breadwinner in the family
while the sister on the other hand even if educated will leave the family to marry elsewhere (p.86)

From the above, parental attitude could be said to be one major reason why the girl-child is not in school. Parents feel that the girl-child will end up dropping out of school to marry in future and secondly it is not economically viable to invest in their education. The economic notion about parents' attitude, is confirmed by “Population, Action International” an NGO. They asserted that
parents in many societies are of the view that educating girls is of limited economic benefits.

Yeboah Dominic, the District Chief Executive of Adansi South District lamented that ‘the high drop out rate in the district was due partly to broken homes, uncontrolled family sizes, teenage motherhood and the abuse of children rights’, p.16. From Yeboah’s speech, it can be deduced that he was more or less talking about the girl-child. This is because uncontrolled family size means the girl-child in that family will have to care for her siblings. Similarly, broken homes result in girls playing truancy that lead to teenage motherhood while child abuse most often than not occurs when the child is adopted or taken as housemaids, mostly the girl-child.

Girls, traditionally, marry early and leave their families whilst the boys are more likely to contribute financially to family income and support their parents as they grow old. Girls who attend school are also less available to help with household chores and childcare for younger siblings. In view of this, investing in girls’ education seems uneconomical to many parent hence low enrolment and retention rates of girls in school.

School Environment

Some educational authorities and concerned citizens among others blame low educational participation and retention of the female on school environment.

According to Kelly and Elliot (1982), parents usually tend to insist more on quality of the school before they consider paying the costs of educating females. In most schools curricula are overloaded, irrelevant for life in the country
concerned, and ineffective at teaching such essential subjects as mathematics and science. Girls' schools are particularly likely to lack capability in science and mathematics. Curricula may be heavily biased towards low paying skills such as knitting, sewing and secretarial work. This shortcoming observed by Kelly and Elliot has a major effect on girls' future employment opportunities as it hinders women's access to better-paying jobs.

Many textbooks and other teaching materials have a pronounced sexist bias that discourages girls from thinking of themselves as good students or as suited to any but a few traditional occupations. Often books portray men as intelligent and adventurous seeking employment in new exciting and profitable fields. On the other hand, females are depicted as passive, admiring and suited only for traditional roles, if they are shown at all.

In the Gambia, a review of textbooks for English, Mathematics and Science and the teacher's handbooks for science and mathematics corroborate a study by Lange (1991) in Kenya where images of females are conspicuously missing out. The study concluded that despite efforts to get rid of gender bias in schools, the tendency of portraying females in cooking, sewing and playing household chores or jobs in relation to men persist and tend to impact negatively on female achievements.

Bellew and King (1991), however, are of the view that there is no empirical evidence linking gender stereotyping in books with low female attainment in schools. They therefore concluded that gender stereotyping in books do not have any negative impact on the performance of females.
Atakpa (1987) opined that most schools in rural communities are without separate urinal and toilet for females and males. Parents may not therefore be encouraged, especially Moslem communities to send their daughters to school. Similarly, Atakpa (1996) emphasized that the lack of dormitories is an issue that prevented parents from sending their daughters to secular school.

Hyde and Kadzamira (1994) corroborate Atakpa's assertion. In their studies they reported that the school environment with its gender related factors which include sexual harassment, inadequate number of female teachers to act as role models, non-availability of girl-specific structures and finally the distance to school have been found as constraints to female education. A widow interviewed by Palme (1993) in rural Zambia stated that:

...the greatest problem is school pregnancy. We struggle to raise fees for them (daughters) but they disappoint us. This influences us to give priority to boys (p.36).

The girl-child in school who get pregnant, sometimes even by their own class teachers are left to the care by the parents instead of the man responsible for the pregnancy. Kelly (1987) opined that these bitter experiences may explain why Christian parents marry off their daughters at puberty even if they have not finished primary school. However, Grant Lewis et al (1990) in a study in Malawi suggested that the problem of girl-child pregnancy especially by male teachers may be an exaggeration.
Adams (1994), in a study of ten (10) selected senior secondary schools revealed that teasing, humiliation, verbal bullying and ridicule of girls by boys among others were a major problem of girls not in school.

Adam's study therefore corroborates Atakpa (1987) and Hyde and Kadzamira (1994) assertions that school environment could be a hindrance to girl-child education even though as can be deduced, Adams emphasis was on the negative attitude of members of the school community (i.e. administrators, teachers and student boys).

Boakye-Donkor (1997), blamed the school environment as a contributory factor to low participation of the girl-child in education. Like Adams, Boakye-Donkor's emphasis was on school administrators and the teacher. To him, females are often advised to stay away from certain subjects (e.g. science, mathematics and technology) by school administrators and teachers. Females who excel in these subjects are often branded "witches" or given nicknames by both teachers and schoolmates he contended. The boys ridicule those girls who expressed an interest in these subjects he further stressed.

Other authorities also blame the curricula as a cause for females not being in school. Clynet (1966) acknowledged that in Cote d'Voire and Cameroun, girls in technical post-primary education are oriented to becoming seamstresses' beauticians and home economists. In a similar vein, Amenda (1982), a female liberationist, observed that education along with income generation capacity has been perceived as a golden door of success and so gave the girl-child equal participation in the development process.
Clynet (1966) and Amenda (1982) want to indicate that education of the girl-child seem to be geared towards only income generating subjects like catering and fine arts. Their belief as is equally asserted by some other authorities may be that females are not mentally capable to pursue brain exhaustion subjects like science and technology. This assertion is incorrect since we have a lot of female engineers, doctors and other scientist of late.

It is clear from the above that school environment may impact negatively on girl-child education. The attitude of school authorities, teachers, male students and most often the curricula are bias against girl-child education.

Attitude of Students

The negative attitude of students towards their own education has a reflection on the quality of their schoolwork and examinations. These students become school dropouts because they begin to dislike the teachers, have reading difficulties and generally score poor grades. Basset (1978), points out that the aims and aspirations of students help greatly to determine their performance in the classroom. Basset further stated that students whose performance is bad will drop out of school. Becker (1967) opined that “grades” are the “currency” with which the economy of a school operates. Therefore students whose grades/scores are good will develop interest in school and further it. In contrast, students whose scores are bad, develop bad feelings and attitudes. They therefore feel they do not belong to the education field because it will not enable them secure a good future. Hurlock (1976) is of the view that, students who develop unfavourable attitudes
towards education become under-achievers and so work below their tested abilities.

The assertion of Becker (1967) and Hurlock (1976) may be of substance. A cursory observation of students involved in indiscipline and truancy are most often those who do not perform well. They therefore automatically drop out of school or are forced by the school system to drop out. The girl-child in Ghana tends to believe that no matter what she does boys are better than them and normally lose hope. They also think that no matter their status in education, man will look after them in future and so the negative attitude by the girl-child to education.

Summary

From the literature review it can be observed that one of the critical issues facing most developing countries is spreading educational opportunities to the many millions of children and adolescents without such opportunities, especially in the rural areas. Among the most seriously neglected most of whom are girls, are:

i. Pre-school children

ii. School-age children who are not at school

iii. Adolescents who have not been to school or who have dropped out early.

From the literature review, some constraints that act as barriers to female participation and retention in school include:

(1) Outmoded cultural values, religious and traditional beliefs
(2) Negative attitude of parents and community members to education of girl-child

(3) Parental poverty and economic level

(4) Gender stereotyping

(5) Lack of a female-friendly school environment

(6) Gender insensitive curricula

(7) Negative girl-child attitude to education.

Since education is a means of achieving development, it will be critical for a developing country such as Ghana, to waste one half of the brains and talents that could be devoted to national development. Furthermore much brain wastage at the district level in the wake of the concept of decentralisation will be too costly an exercise for a deprived district such as the Wasa Amenfi District. The present study therefore sought to find out whether these obstacles are encountered in the Wasa Amenfi District and whether there are still other obstacles that have not been highlighted.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

The study was intended to find out obstacles that hinder female participation and retention in school in the Wasa Amenfi District in the Western Region. The chapter describes the procedures followed during the investigation to obtain a reliable and relevant database for the study. The following headings in that sequence are adopted for presentation:

1. Research Design
2. Population and Sampling
3. Instrument
4. Data Collection Procedure
5. Data Analysis Procedure

Research Design

The study is a descriptive survey. The descriptive survey methodology is used to enable the researcher break up the population to components or strata in order to have fair representation and information from different perspectives and shades of opinions on obstacles to female participation in education in the Wasa Amenfi District.

The descriptive survey tends to have such shortcomings as biasness, inadequate sample size and to some extent exaggeration of facts by some respondents. Very vital information may also be left out in the collection of data.

Additionally, the problem of recency not withstanding, the descriptive survey according to Gay is most reliable for the assessment of demographic
information, opinions, attitudes and conditions. According to Gay (1976) it is good for generalisations resulting from sampling of population so that conclusions could be made about attitudes, behaviour and characteristics of the population.

The Descriptive Survey was also used because of the large population size.

Population

The study was carried out in the Wasa Amenfi District in the Western Region. The population consisted of parents, headteachers/teachers, female pupils/students at the basic level, circuit supervisors representing the district education office and assemblymen and women (representing political interest) and traditional rulers. Six categories of people were therefore involved in the study.

Sampling Procedure

The sample consisted of parents, teachers, circuit officers, assemblymen and women, female pupils of basic level and traditional rulers. Random sampling using the lottery technique was employed. The district is divided into 13 education circuits, each with a circuit supervisor. The circuits included:

1. Asankrangwa Circuit
2. Afransie Circuit
3. Asankran Bremen Circuit
4. Manso-Amenfi circuit
5. Bawdie Circuit
6. Akyekyere Circuit
7. Samreboi Circuit
To give a fair representation of the various circuits, the following procedure was employed. The multiple-stage sampling involving the cluster sampling was adopted.

1. Twelve circuits were put into 4 clusters of 3 circuits in each zone. One circuit was selected from each zone using the random lottery method (i.e. 4 circuits were selected). The district capital (i.e. Asankrangwa Circuit) was purposively included to make five circuits because of its cosmopolitan nature. This sample formed 38.5% of the circuits in the district.

2. All the 13 circuit supervisors were interviewed forming 100%.

3. Three Primary and three Junior Secondary Schools each in each of the five selected circuits were covered by the study (i.e. 30 schools) using the sampling with replacement technique. The names of all schools in each selected circuit were written on pieces of paper and folded. The folded papers were then put in a small container and thoroughly mixed. Then one piece of paper was selected and the name on it was recorded. Every time a school was selected and the name was written, the paper was refolded and placed back and the process was repeated until the requisite number of
and JSS 1-3 respectively were included in the study. In total 500 female pupils participated in the study.

3. The purposive sampling was used for parents. Once a pupil was selected, the parent paying fees automatically was selected. The purposive sampling was adopted for various samples including parents because according to Manion (1989), it is the most manipulative of large sample sizes. Furthermore it would also be necessary to group parents on the basis of gender. In total 476 parents were sampled.

4. Teacher respondents were randomly selected through the lottery technique. Three teachers each from both primary and junior secondary Schools in each of the five selected circuits were included. Since the study was on female participation in education, it was important to cover a large number of female teachers. In all 150 teachers were selected.

**Instruments**

A field survey using interview and questionnaire was employed. The instrument had different features. A four-point graphic ratings scale (i.e. "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree"), multiple choice and dichotomous response (i.e. Yes/No) items were also employed. Open-ended questionnaire was used as well.

The questionnaire was in two parts. The first part elicited background information of respondents without names while the second part sought respondents' views on the education of the girl-child in the district. Issues that were of interest included:
The questionnaire was in two parts. The first part elicited background information of respondents without names while the second part sought respondents’ views on the education of the girl-child in the district. Issues that were of interest included:

1. Parents’ preference between educating their sons and daughters.
2. Distance covered by their daughters to school.
3. Work girl-child engage in after school.
5. Religious and parents readiness to send their daughters to school.
6. Tradition and cultural beliefs of parents and their preparedness to send heir daughters to school.
7. Economic level of parents in relation to their ability to send their daughters to school.

Available district and regional statistics on male and girl-child enrolment ratios for the past seven (i.e. 1997/98-2003/04) academic years were used to help make relevant conclusions. Similarly, male-teacher to female-teacher ratios in the district for the same period was also used.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

To ensure the validity and reliability of the instruments a pre-test of the instrument was done in one of the circuits not covered by the sample. The instruments were administered in one circuit. Fifteen parents, 30 female pupils, 10 teachers, two officers from the district education office (who were not circuit
officers) and two assembly members were sampled in the trial study. This was intended to correct all inconsistencies and clarity of the instruments before the final administration of the instruments.

**Data Collection Procedure**

The researcher obtained a letter of introduction from the Director of IEPA which he submitted to the education authorities. He was then given letters of authorization by the District Director for permission to contact the targeted respondents. This permission was necessary because according to most authorities, entering another person's premises without permission is tantamount to a breach of the law.

Administration of the instruments covered a period of three weeks through, personal visits. Some teachers' were selected and trained on how to administer the questionnaire. The teachers were trained to assist respondents to answer the questionnaire on the spot and questionnaire collected back by the teacher. There was the need for selected teachers to be trained on the administration of the instruments because first and foremost, a good percentage of parents in the district are illiterates. Secondly the researcher was not fluent with the local language (twi) and so the needed translators and interpreters.

**Data Analysis Procedure**

The researcher employed both descriptive and inferential statistical tools in the analysis of the data. Further to this, the data were organised into frequencies and percentages to facilitate interpretation and the provision of answers to the various research questions.
Responses to various questionnaire items were coded and tabulated in frequencies and percentages except for questions where reasons from respondents for selecting a particular factor as to the most contributing factor hindering girl-child participation in education.

For some items on the instruments the four point graphic rating was used. The four-point graphic rating was considered to be most suitable for measuring parental attitudes towards female participation in education. It enabled the respondents to indicate the degree of their belief in a given statement (Best and Khan, 1996). The four point graphic rating was preferred to the more conventional five-point scale because of the recommendations of Casley and Kumar (1988). They argued that if an odd number response rating is used, there is the tendency for individuals to select responses in the centre of the ratings.
CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of the study was to find out the causes of low participation of the girl-child in education at the basic level in the Wasa Amenfi District of the Western Region. The chapter is devoted to the presentation of the results of the analysis of the data collected.

The chapter is organised under two sections. The first section deals with the analysis of the background information of parents and their influence on girl-child participation in school. The second section deals with the attitude of both parents and pupils on girl-child enrolment and retention. The second section therefore tries to answer the two minor research questions. Frequencies and percentages are used to facilitate the presentation and interpretation of the data.

Parental Background Characteristics on Female Enrolments

This section presents information on the different backgrounds and experiences of parents since these could have an influence on girl-child education. The background information was necessary in order to draw informed conclusions about parent's attitude towards girl-child education.

The study involved 476 parents, 500 female pupils from basic level and 150 teachers respectively from five circuits in the study district. A break down of the sample is shown in Table 1.
Table 1

Composition of Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Circuit</th>
<th>Parents No.</th>
<th>Parents %</th>
<th>students No.</th>
<th>students %</th>
<th>Teachers No.</th>
<th>Teachers %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asankrangwa Circuit</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>24.4</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agona Circuit</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manso Amenfi Circuit</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samreboi Circuit</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wasa Akropong Circuit</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>22.9</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>20.8</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>24.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 2, the researcher was interested in the composition of parent respondents by sex.

Table 2

Distribution of Parents by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>159</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>67.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 2, it is seen that there were more females, 67% than males, 33%. One major reason for the imbalance was the fact that the data collecting period coincided with the farming season. Most of the men had left for their
cocoa and other farms and did not return on time and in some cases stayed away for some days before returning.

The researcher was interested in the ages of parent respondents. Table 3 therefore shows the age distribution of parents.

Table 3

Distribution of Respondents by Age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age (Years)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30-34</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-39</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-40</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-49</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>476</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age composition as indicated in Table 3 shows that 311 (65.3%) of parents were within the ages of 30-49 years. This shows that majority of parent respondents were in the active year bracket.

Table 4 shows parents’ level of education. It was important to look at the level of education of parents because studies conducted on female education by Hyde (1992) and Danso (1995) pointed to the fact that the higher the educational level of parents, the more positive the attitude they had towards girls’ education. This position was similarly emphasised by Safilious-Rothschild (1987), who contended that the higher one’s achievement in education, the more positive the attitude towards girl-child education. On the other hand, the lower one’s
attainments in education, the more negative one's attitude towards the education of girl-child.

Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Education Attained by Parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level of Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS/MSLC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GCE/SSS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Degree/Diploma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 4, it can be seen that 95 (19.9%) of parental respondents had secondary education, while 260 (54.6%) respondents had middle school or junior secondary school education. Similarly, a very low number 5 (1.1%) respondents had education up to tertiary level while 116 (24.4%) of respondents had no formal education at all.

Even though about 74.5% (355) of respondents have had some form of basic education, the level of education was generally low. Since those who had been to school were mostly up to the basic and secondary levels, the data suggest that such respondents had dropped out of school for some reasons. The type of occupation of parents often tends to have influence on their wards education. Table 5 shows the occupational analysis of respondents.

From Table 5, it can be inferred that majority of parents 214 (45.0%) were engaged in farming while those in trading were 126 (26.5%).
formed 52(10.9%) while teaching and civil service were 48(10.0%) and 29(6.1%) respectively. Other occupations such as the security services, drivers and nurses constituted 1.5%.

Table 5

Distribution of Parents by Occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Occupation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farming</td>
<td>214</td>
<td>45.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trading</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tradesmanship/Craftsmanship</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil Service</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others (Nurses, Drivers, etc)</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study did not go into the level of farming or trading. However, a cursory observation by the researcher while in the field indicated that they were mostly peasant farmers and petty traders. Table 5 further shows that majority of respondents were in some kind of occupation that could earn them some income to enable them attend to the educational needs of their wards.

The researcher was interested in the influence of parents' religious affiliation in relation to girl-child participation in education.
Table 6

Distribution of Parents by Religious Affiliation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religion</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>30.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islam</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Christianity</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6, shows the religious affiliation of parents. It was clear that majority of respondents, 273 (57.4%) were Christians while 143 (30.0%) were traditionalists with 60 (12.6%) respondents being Islam. The data showed that there were two (2) major religious bodies in the district, Christianity and traditional African religion. This compares favourably with statistics from WADA Five (5)-year Development plan (1996-2000).

From Table 7, it is seen that 217 (45.6%) of the parents were staying together as husband and wife. An equally high percentage 42.6% (203) was divorced, while 56 (11.8%) respondents were widows. This data were collected because Danso (1995) opined that single-parenthood had economic hardships that often leave most mothers no option than to retain their daughters at home to assist them.

From Table 7, it could also be inferred that many parents 54.4% were single. This has economic implications for education of the girl-child in a fragile economy such as that of Ghana. The need for support for each other (father and
mother) is therefore of paramount importance to girl-child education. Absence of such support tends to force girls out of school.

Table 7

Distribution of Parents by Marital Status

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married and Staying Together</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Divorce</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widow</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8, shows the number of children per family. From table 8, it is noticed that 317(66.6%) respondents had more than five (5) children in the family. Such large family sizes in the wake of many parents doing subsistence living definitely has both economic and social implications likely to negatively affect schooling in general and girl-child education in particular. Parents with large family sizes may not be able to provide the needed facilities for their children’s education because of the low levels of income.
Table 8

Parents Response to Number of Children

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Children</th>
<th>No. Parents</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-6</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>34.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-8</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>23.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 or More</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Research Question 1

What factors account for low enrolment and poor retention of the girl-child in school in the Wasa Amenfi District?

The research question tried to identify causes of low participation of the girl-child in school at the basic level in Wasa Amenfi District. For answers to this question, research instruments on responses (Appendix A), items 6-17 were considered. Similarly considered were responses from (Appendix B), items 5-12 and responses from (Appendix C), items 2-8.

Table 9 identifies the means by which parents claim their daughters travel to school and back.
Table 9

How Pupils Travel to School and Back

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Means of Transport</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Walking/By Foot</td>
<td>415</td>
<td>87.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bicycle</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lorry/Car</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>476</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 9, it can be seen that more parents 415 (87.2%) indicated that their daughters walked to school while 38 (8.0%) used bicycles to school, 23 (4.8%) went to school by car or lorry. The data suggest that the use of bicycles and other vehicles were not common in the area. It could also mean that parents probably could not afford lorry fares or bicycles for their daughters to go to school. This might be attributed to poverty or poor road net work or both. Similarly, it could also be said that the district did not meet the national education policy requirement that no child should walk more than three (3) kilometers to attend school.

The researcher was interested in distances travelled to and from school and its relationship to participation in school and the girl-child. Table 10 shows distances travelled by pupils to and from school.
Table 10

Distances Pupils Travel to Get to School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Distance Travelled</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 km</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>24.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 – 4km</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 – 7km</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 7km</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The norm is distance of three (3) kilometers

From Table 10, 292 (61.2%) respondents claim that their girl-child travelled five or more kilometers to school while 184 (38.8%) travelled one to four kilometers to school. In their response to item 24 as to whether distance covered by their daughters posed any threat to girl-child education, most parents expressed a lot of anxiety. About 329 (69.2%) responded in the affirmative while 147 (30.8%) disagreed that distance covered posed any threat to their wards access to education.

Parents agreed that the distances covered were a threat to girl-child education because:

1. dew on grass and leaves of trees along foot paths soaked the uniform of their daughters making them feel cold and constantly sick. Such pupils are often out off school for a long time due to sickness (especially cold) and so they finally drop out of school for poor performance.
walking such long distances make their daughters tired on arrival at school. They claimed that negatively affected their daughters’ concentration in class leading to poor performance, resulting in their eventual withdrawal from school by school authorities.

The worries of parents about tiredness associated with long distances and its negative impact on girl-child participation in school is consistent with Soumare’s (1994) assertion. Soumare was of the view that the long distance girls’ travel to school is a hindrance to participation and performance in school. He attributed this to tiredness due to walking with its associated hunger.

The researcher was interested in finding out whether there were enough public basic schools for children of school going age in the study district. Table 11 shows the number of public primary and JSS schools in the study area.

Table 11

Number of Public Basic Schools Available in Wassa Amenfi District

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Pre-School</th>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>JSS</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1997/98</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998/99</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>231</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>463</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999/2000</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>467</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000/01</td>
<td>162</td>
<td>228</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2001/02</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>484</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002/03</td>
<td>163</td>
<td>235</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2003/04</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>521</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table II, the number of JSS schools is less than the number of primary schools. It means that some pupils will have to attend JSS outside their school. It is therefore plausible to say that such JSS pupils walked longer distances than their counterparts in the primary school in the study area.

The issue of safety of the girl-child under such circumstances cannot be guaranteed since the area is typically rural and forest. Only narrow footpaths through these forests link most villages to each other. The danger of attack by snakes, wild animals and sometimes by unsuspecting men was a perpetual fear of most parents.

Although there is the problem of walking long distances to school in education, it is by no means the only reason. The state of the parents’ finances and the amount of money available to the girl constitutes another problem area. Table 12, shows amount of pocket money parents claim they give to the girl-child to cater for her needs in school on a daily basis.

**Table 12**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Amount of Money (¢)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1,000.00 - 2,000.00</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>56.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,000.00 - 4,000.00</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,000.00 or More</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Money Given</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From table 12, a very low number of parents, 48 (10.0%) indicated that they gave more than five thousand Cedis (¢5,000.00) to their daughters on daily basis to go to school. On the other hand, 94(19.8%) did not give their daughters any money to spend at school. 267 (56.2%) parents gave between one thousand Cedis (¢1,000.00) to two thousand Cedis (¢2,000.00) per day to spend at school.

With reference to the high cost of living in the country, two thousand Cedis (¢2,000) for the girl-child for a whole day meant that, such a child was likely to starve during the school period. Such a situation could result in the girl-child sleeping in class, not paying attention in class and consequently failing her examination which would force school authorities to withdraw her from school or herself might drop out of school due to frustration. However the claim by parents on the amount of money given was not verified from the girl-child.

The amount of money given by parents and guardians to the girl-child to spend at school is largely a true reflection of the economic level of most families in the district since the district is one of the twenty-one deprived districts in the country. Simmons (1980), writing about the performance of the poor in school opined that they (poor) are often the first to dropout of school because they need to work and so the first to be pushed out of school because they fall asleep in class as a result of malnourishment.

Another issue which often turns to make the girl-child drop out of school that is often sited in the literature is the work girl-child do after school. Table 13 shows the types of work the girls’ surveyed were engaged after school hours.
Table 13

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Farming</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>11.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooking</td>
<td>381</td>
<td>76.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trading/Selling</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care for Siblings</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>500</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 13, 381 (76.1%) of girl-child respondents were engaged in cooking the family supper after school, 56 (11.3%) engaged in farming, 34 (6.7%) were engaged in trading while 29 (5.8%) took care of their junior siblings.

These activities are not only laborious but also make the girl-child tired and sleepy in class the following day. According to Bishop (1994), in many cultures girls started work very early in the day in trading or agricultural production and as the family cannot afford to do without their economic contribution they are kept away from school.

The researcher was interested in finding out the gender of the child that parents would prefer to send to school when financial circumstances would not permit both sexes to be sent to school. Table 14 indicates parents’ preference in this regard.
Table 14

Parents Decision Regarding Gender of Child Sent to School When Finances are Limited

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender of Child Preferred</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boy</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>55.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Girl</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>16.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both Sexes</td>
<td>132</td>
<td>27.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 14, majority of parents’ 264(55.5%) preferred educating boys while 132 (27.7%) of parents preferred educating both sexes. Eighty (16.8%) of parent respondents preferred educating only their daughters.

Respondents supported their decisions or preference for boys’ education by giving the following reasons:

1. to secure lucrative jobs so that they would be able to take good care of them when they (parents) are old.
2. boys don’t become pregnant in the course of their education.
3. people tease you if your boy does not attend school at all.
4. education will make their sons socially respectable anywhere they find themselves.
5. boys do not go to marry to other families and rather fend for those families after we (parents) have toiled for their education.

It is not surprising for parents to think about lucrative jobs for their boys since to the African, and for that matter the Ghanaian, education is an economic...
venture or investment on the child for him/her to pay back in future. The views expressed by the parents betray their ignorance about the job market. Currently, many women occupy top management positions in both the private and public sectors of the economy and so earn good salaries.

Parents who preferred girl-child education to that of boys advanced the following reasons:

1. girls become good mothers if they are educated.
2. girls can do what boys can do and sometimes even do it better
3. when the girl-child succeeds, she thinks about her parents more than the boy who may go to the city and never come back to the village.
4. education enable girls get good and responsible husbands.

The researcher also tries to find out from parents whether they will continue to sponsor their daughters who got pregnant while in school. Table 15 summarises parents' views.

From Table 15, 253 (53.2%) respondents disagreed to strongly disagree to sponsor their girl-child education if she got pregnant in the course of her schooling while 149 (31.3%) agreed to strongly agree continue to support their daughter should she become pregnant. Seventy four parent respondents, (15.6%) were undecided.
Table 15

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parents Response to Sponsorship of Their Pregnant School-girl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree To Sponsor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree To Sponsor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Those who agreed they will continue to sponsor their pregnant daughter maintained that since education was to serve as an eye-opener to their daughters, they (girl-child) would be enlightened about the dangers associated with sexual promiscuity and so would avoid it this time around. Those who disagree to sponsor were of the view that once the girl-child tasted sex, she would continue to engage in sexual malpractices and so will continue to perform poorly in school. For them it was a waste of their hard-earned money and limited financial resources. Such conclusions have no empirical basis. It is possible that after such a bitter experience, that could have caused her education or even life, she would have turned over a new leaf as contended by those who agreed to sponsor.

The researcher is interested in who the girl-child stayed with while in school. Table 16 indicate the type of relative the girl-child stayed with whilst she was in school.
Table 16

People with Whom the Girl-child Stayed With While Attending School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Relation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both Parents</td>
<td>224</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother Only</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father Only</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guardian</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>500</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 16, a large number of students, 276 (55.2%) were staying with single parents, i.e. mother only, father only or a guardian. Further to this, 155 (31.0%) respondents of the girl-child were staying with their mothers only, 59 (11.8%) with guardians of all sort and 62 (12.4%) were staying with their fathers only.

The possibility of the girl-child becoming delinquent and for that matter truant as a result of single parenthood cannot be overemphasised. Table 16 also point to the fact that there was the likelihood of broken marriages/homes, 217 (43.4%) in the study area. This situation tends to breed girl-child truancy resulting in teenage pregnancy leading to high school drop out rate among the girls.
The high teenage pregnancy menace in the district was confirmed when it was revealed that as many as 24 girls were pregnant during the 2005 Basic Education Certificate Examination.

The researcher was also interested in the type of programme respondents will choose for the girl-child to pursue in the senior secondary school. Table 17 shows respondents' views in this regard.

Table 17

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Choice of Program</th>
<th>Child</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Teachers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq. %</td>
<td>Freq. %</td>
<td>Freq. %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Arts</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>41.6</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agric Science</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pure Science</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home Economics</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>476</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 17, it can be seen that general arts followed by home economics were subjects chosen for the girl-child in the secondary school by all respondents, including the girl-child herself. Respondents claim general arts and home economics were reading subjects and did not require more time to study.

However, while parents and teachers preferred agricultural science as the third subject for the girl-child in secondary school, the girl-child herself opted for business as her third preference. Such disagreement in the choice of subjects
between parents and teachers on one hand and the girl-child on the other hand often create confusion in the child's education. Parents of such girls threaten withdrawing their sponsorship if they (girl-child) will not agree to study the subjects they (parents) have chosen for them. The girl-child is therefore forced by circumstances to study subjects she might not have interest for. This might result in abysmal performance of the girl-child leading to her withdrawal from school.

From Table 17, it can also be seen that pure science was least preferred by all respondents. To the parents, reasons for their low preference of pure science were that it is a subject meant for boys who will later become engineers or doctors doing surgical operations at the hospitals. 'Such jobs are for men' they contended.

On the part of the teacher respondents, they claimed that pure science was rather expensive at higher levels, a situation they believed most parents with their low incomes could not meet.

The girl-child and again teacher respondents claimed that science involved a lot of calculations and needed more time to study. General arts, they opined needed little concentration as compared to subjects such as the pure science that needed a lot of practice. To them, since most girls are always engaged in various household chores, that are burdensome and tiresome, after school, they will not have enough time to practice subjects such as pure science and so may perform poorly in school resulting in their withdrawal from school.

The researcher is also interested in the possible causes of low participation of the girl-child in school. Table 18 indicates the possible causes of low participation of the girl-child in school. It can be seen that both girl-child and
parents were of the view that inadequate financial support and poor parental care were the main causes of low participation of the girl-child in school. On the other hand, teacher respondents graded poor parental care and financial support as the two main causes of the girl-child not in school. Pregnancy is seen as the third cause while traditional belief was graded as the least cause of low participation of the girl-child in school by all respondents.

**Table 18**

| Causes of Low Participation and Retention of the Girl-Child in School |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Parents | Girl-child | Teacher |
| Cause | Freq. (%) | Freq. | % | Freq. | % |
| Pregnancy | 176 | 37.0 | 68 | 13.6 | 30 | 20.0 |
| Inadequate Finances | 228 | 48.0 | 243 | 48.6 | 42 | 28.0 |
| Poor Parental Care | 64 | 13.4 | 60 | 12.0 | 22 | 14.7 |
| Traditional Belief | 8 | 1.6 | 129 | 25.8 | 56 | 37.3 |
| Total | 476 | 100.0 | 500 | 100.0 | 150 | 100.0 |

Inadequate financial support rated first as cause of low participation of the girl-child in school confirms earlier assertions that majority of parents were in low income bracket as shown in Table 12. Asomaning (1994) opined that poverty is widespread in Africa and affects schools and their families.

Poor parental care rated high as a cause of low participation of girl-child in school by teachers is not strange since inadequate financial support could lead to parents' inability to purchase new clothes and educational materials for their wards in school. This corroborates Lloyd and Gage-Brandon (1992) who asserted
that the cost of education is higher in girls than in boys. According to Lloyd and Gage-Brandon, girl-child education was more costly than boys because of the high cost of girls' uniform and so girls' were likely to go to school in torn or ill-fitting uniforms.

Poor parental care also leads to child delinquency that could result in girl-child seeking assistance from unsuspecting men who may put her in the family way. This may cause the girl-child to be irregular in school or drop out of school completely.

Parents' respondents were not so much bothered about the availability of toilet and urinal facilities. A cursory observation of the schools by the researcher while in the field indicated that most schools did not have toilet and urinal facilities. In most schools, both boys and girls went to toilet or urinated in the nearby bushes. The few schools that had these facilities were clearly identified for the two sexes or located at different sites.

It was also important to look at staffing in public basic schools in order to find out whether teacher quality and gender affected girl-child participation and retention in school. Table 19 therefore shows the level of staffing of public basic schools in the study area.
### Table 19

**Staffing in Public Basic Schools in Wasa Amenfi District**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>PRIMARY SCHOOL</th>
<th>J. S. S.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trained</td>
<td>Untrained</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>97/98</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>437</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>98/99</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>99/00</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00/01</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01/02</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02/03</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>338</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>03/04</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


From Table 19, it was seen that female teachers were very few at both primary and JSS. Further investigation by the researcher while in the field also revealed that those female-teachers were mostly citizens of the area. Majority of the female teachers were also untrained. For example in 2000/01, at both primary and JSS level when the district recorded the highest number of female-trained teachers’ (112), their male counterparts were 566. Similarly, in that year the untrained female teachers numbered 48 while their male counterparts were 469. With regards to teacher population (trained and untrained), in the study area, it means that while male teachers numbered 1035 (86.6%), the female teacher
population was only 160 (13.4%). While in the field, the researcher also found out that 90% of the untrained teachers were SSS and GCE O' Level holders.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the study and major findings. It also draws conclusions drawn and offers suggestions for further studies.

Summary

The purpose of the study was to investigate the causes of low participation of the girl-child in school in the Wasa Amenfi District of the Western Region of Ghana.

To achieve reliable and relevant data for the study the following factors that hinder enrolment and retention were investigated: preference of parents for boys or girls' formal education; economic issues associated with parents/guardians inability to enroll and maintain their girl-child in school; possibility of using female teachers as role models to encourage girl-child participation in school; parents religious affiliation in relation to girl-child education.

Also investigated were: attitude of both literate and illiterate parents to girl-child education; distance travelled by girl-child to and from school in relation to enrollment and retention in school; work performed by girl-child after school in relation to enrolment and retention in school.

Furthermore, parents' traditional and religious beliefs in relation to girl-child education were investigated. Also investigated was parents attitude to the availability of places of convenience (toilet and urinal) for their daughters at school.
Findings

The study revealed the following findings:

1. Majority of parents (55.5%) preferred educating their sons to their daughters.

2. Parents were generally peasant farmers, petty traders and craftsmen whose incomes were very low.

3. There were fewer junior secondary schools than primary schools because many primary schools did not have junior secondary schools attached to them.

4. Parents were not prepared to sponsor their daughters who were interested in going back to school after they got pregnant whilst schooling.

5. The girl-child was usually engaged in household chores and petty trading after school every day.

6. Many basic schools lack better places of convenience (toilet and urinal).

7. Traditional beliefs and religious affiliation of parents were not found to be obstacles to girl-child education in the district.

8. Most female teachers hail from the study area and were similarly found to be untrained or unprofessional with O’ Level/SSCE as the highest academic qualification.

Conclusions

From the findings the following conclusions were drawn:

The study revealed that most parents were peasant farmers with very low income levels. Their scarce resources were therefore used to support boys’ education at the expense of the girls. This resulted in more boys than girls participating in school.
The study also showed that the girl-child had no time to study at home because she had to engage in household chores such as child care, cooking and petty trading to support the home economy. Further to this the girl-child got tired as a result of these laborious household chores and was therefore inactive in class the following day leading to poor performance in school. Such girls finally drop out of school.

With reference to use of female teachers as role models thereby encouraging female participation and retention in school, the study revealed that the girl-child did not admire female teachers as role models to whip up their participation in school. This was because most student girls rather saw well-to-do business women and traders as role models. Further to this they saw most of the female teachers in the study area as pupil-teachers with very low educational background (i.e. MSLC, O’ Level and SSCE). It can be concluded that it will not be feasible to use female teachers in the present stage as role models to encourage girl-child participation and retention in school in the study area.

The girl-child when at school was compelled to use the surrounding bushes as places of convenience (toilet and urinal). This situation was however not a bother to many parents. This suggests that the absence of places of convenience was not a hindrance to girl-child participation and retention in school.

The study also revealed that parents were not prepared to financially support their daughters who got pregnant in the course of their schooling even if
such girls expressed interest in going back to continue schooling after giving birth. Such girls were forced to drop out of school.

The fact that most primary schools did not have Junior Secondary Schools attached to them resulted in the girl-child traveling long distances to attend junior secondary school. This made them tired and so negatively impacted on their participation in class. Further to this, long distances travelled exposed the girl-child to unsuspecting men who may rape them.

Recommendations

Education is a key factor which could determine the ability and the level of participation of women in the labour market. Therefore providing education to more girls is a pre-requisite for their active participation in the country’s future economic activities. Yet, many families tend to withdraw their daughters from school when they become financially handicapped. Many are the benefits that could be derived from girl-child education. Parents and guardians, government and all stakeholders in education, should make an effort to retain and educate the girl-child.

The findings of the study therefore culminated in the following recommendations:

1. The District Assembly should use part of its Common Fund to established income generating activities and also give loans to parents. This will increase their income levels to be able to cater for both sons and daughters.
2. The District Assembly in collaboration with the government should establish more junior secondary schools in the area. This will reduce the distances travelled by the girl-child to attend school. Parents are similarly advised to encourage their daughters to attend school in groups to reduce the danger of being victims of wild animals and unsuspecting men.

3. The District Assembly should sponsor more students at the training colleges to augment the shortage of teachers in the study district.

4. Efforts should be made by the Ministry of Health (District Directorate) in collaboration with District Education Directorate to educate parents on family control measures such as teenage pregnancy, reduced fertility rate, sex education and family planning methods.

5. Incentive packages such as 'food for school girls' should be instituted for the girl-child in school by the District Assembly and NGOs working in the study area.

6. Queen mothers should invite educated women from the area who are working outside the district to visit home regularly to serve as role models. They should interact with the young school girls to encourage them to participate in school.

Areas of Further Study

The researcher was not able to investigate the level of poverty in the district. There is the need for further research to determine the actual poverty level
of the people in the study area. This will enable stake holders in education to adopt efficient and sustainable educational interventions to increase girl-child participation and retention in school in the Wasa Amenfi District.
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APPENDIX A

DEPARTMENT OF INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION (IEPA)-UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST
CAPE COAST

OBSTACLES TO FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AT THE BASIC LEVEL: A CASE STUDY OF WASSA AMENFI DISTRICT IN THE WESTERN REGION OF GHANA

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PARENTS

This research is purely an academic exercise and all responses will be treated as Confidential. Thank you.
Please tick or fill in the appropriate spaces provided for the success of this research.

PERSONAL DATA

1. Age: ................. Gender: Male ( ) Female ( )

2. Religion: Christian ( ) Islam ( ) Traditional ( )

3. Level of Education ......................... Occupation: .....................
   Specify .........................

4. Marital status: Married and staying with partner ( )
   Widower ( ) Widow ( ) Married but not staying with partner ( )

5. How many children do you have? 1-2 ( ) 3-4 ( ) 5-6 ( )
   7-8 ( ) above 9 ( )
II. ATTITUDE TOWARD GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION

6. How much money do you give to your daughter to go school daily?
   - £1000-£2500
   - £3000-£4000
   - £5000 and more

7. Do you assist your daughter in doing her homework/assignments?
   Yes ( ) No ( )
   If No, why? No time due to official work ( )
   Cannot read nor write ( )
   No time due to business schedules ( )

8. How often do you visit your daughter’s school to interact with the teachers?
   - Once a term ( )
   - Once a month ( )
   - No visit ( )
   PTA meeting days only

9. If you are to make a choice which one would you prefer?
   Daughter’s education ( )
   Son’s education ( )

   Give reasons for your answer.
   ............................................................................................................
   ............................................................................................................

10. What subject area would you advice your daughter to study at Senior Secondary School level?
   Science ( )
   General Arts ( )
   Vocational Subjects ( )
   Agriculture Science ( )
   others specify ...........................................................................................

11. It is believed “that girl-child education is not good because it delays marriage and child-birth”. How far do you agree with this statement?
   false ( )
   partially true ( )
   true ( )
12. Assume your daughter gets pregnant while in school would you continue to finance her education? Yes ( ) No ( )
Give reasons for your answer.
...........................................................................................................

13. Would you send your daughter to a school without separate toilet and urinal for boys and girls? Yes ( ) No ( )
Give reasons for your answer.
...........................................................................................................

14. In your own opinion to what extent would you agree to the assertion that "girl’s education benefits mostly the husband and the in-laws and not the parents" Strongly agree ( ) agree ( ) disagree ( ) strongly disagree ( )

15. Using 1, 2, 3.4, as major to least cause, rank the following causes of girls not completing basic education in your locality?
Pregnancy ( ) Inadequate financial support ( ) Poor parental care ( ) Cultural and traditional beliefs ( )

16. State some cultural and traditional beliefs that discourage parents from sending their girl-child to school in your area.
...........................................................................................................

17. (a) How far is your daughter’s school from home? Less than 1km ( ), 2-4km ( ) 5-7km ( ) 8km and more ( )
(b) Distance covered by your to school is far so her safety to and from school not guaranteed? Disagree ( ) agree ( )
strongly disagree ( ) strongly agree ( )

18. What do you think should be done to increase girl-child enrolment and retention in your area?

........................................................................................................................................

........................................................................................................................................

........................................................................................................................................
## APPENDIX B

DEPARTMENT OF INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL PLANNING AND ADMINISTRATION (IEPA) - UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

CAPE COAST

OBSTACLES TO FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AT THE BASIC LEVEL: A CASE STUDY OF WASSA AMENFI DISTRICT IN THE WESTERN REGION OF GHANA

TARGET RESPONDENT: HEADTEACHERS/TEACHERS

This research is purely an academic exercise and all responses will be treated as confidential. Thank you.

Please tick or fill in the appropriate spaces provided for the success of this research.

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>a). Age ................  b) Teaching Experience. ............ c).Rank. ............</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Position held in your school currently:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Head teacher ( ) Classroom teacher ( ) Subject teacher ( )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>What is the status of your school? Public School ( ) Private School ( )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>What is the level of your school? Basic ( ) JSS ( )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>Rank the following causes of low enrolment of girls in your school using 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th as major to least in descending order: Financial ( ) Cultural believes ( )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Girl-child own interest in Trading ( ) Poor Parental care ( )

6. Do you have separate toilet and urinal facilities for the girls and boys in your school? Yes ( ) No ( ).

7. Pregnancy of the girl-child whilst in school discourage parents from sending their daughters to school?
agree ( ) disagree( ) strongly disagree ( ) strongly agree ( )

8. Which religious denomination in your school has the highest influence on parents’ failure/refusal in sending their daughters to school?
Christian ( ) Islam ( ) Traditional ( )

9. Distance to school from most children’s homes is a factor to failure of girls in attending school. agree ( ) disagree ( ) strongly agree ( ) strongly disagree ( )

10. How far would you agree with the assertion that the refusal/failure of female teachers to stay in the village and teach discourage parents from sending their daughters to school? disagree ( ) agree ( ) strongly agree ( ) strongly disagree ( )

11. The boys in your school often bully, tease and give nicknames to the brilliant girls: agree ( ) strongly agree ( ) disagree ( ) disagree ( )
If yes give reasons ...........................................................................................................

12. What subject/programme would you advise your student girl to pursue in future? Science ( ) General Arts ( ) Agriculture ( ) Business ( ) Home economics ( )
Give reasons for your answer


13. What do you think should be done to increase girl-child enrolment and retention in your school?


This research is purely an academic exercise and all responses will be treated as confidential. Thank you.

Please tick or fill in the appropriate spaces provided for the success of this research.

1. Age.............. Class: .................

2. How do you go to school? walking ( ) bicycle ( ) car/lorry ( )

3. Do you eat before going to school? Yes ( ) No ( )

4. Who are you staying with?
   Both parents ( ) father only ( ) mother only ( ) guardian ( )

5. Which of the following do you do after school? Help in cooking in the house ( ) Engage in selling after school ( ) Takes care of younger ones ( ) Goes to the farm after school ( )

6. What course will you like to do in SSS? Accounting ( ) Science ( ) General Arts ( ) Agricultural Science ( ) Home Economics ( )

7. Has your school any toilet and urinal facilities? Yes ( ) No ( )
If yes, is the girls’ toilet and urinal separated from the boys? Yes (  )  No (  )

8. What is the main cause for most girls in your locality not attending school? pregnancy (  ) lack of financial support (  ) early marriage (  ) interest in trading (  ).

9. Suggest some ways by which many girls in your area can be encouraged to attend and complete school.

........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
........................................................................................................................................
APPENDIX E

Figure 1: MAP OF GHANA SHOWING THE LOCATION OF WESTERN REGION

LEGEND
- Regional Capital
- District Capital
- Regional Boundary
- International Boundary

Figure 1 shows the map of Ghana highlighting the location of the Western Region. Key cities and regional boundaries are marked for clear identification.