

**ASSESSMENT OF FACTORS AFFECTING FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN SENIOR HIGH  
SCHOOL EDUCATION IN GHANA: A CASE STUDY OF ASUNAFO NORTH AND  
SUNYANI MUNICIPALITIES AND KUMASI METROPOLITAN AREA**

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## CERTIFICATION

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the Master of Science Degree in Development Policy and Planning and that to the best of knowledge it contains no material previously published by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the University, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

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## **ABSTRACT**

The study focused on female participation in Senior High School education. The main objective of the study was to assess the impact of the factors which affect female access to and participation in Senior High School or Secondary education in the Asunafo North and Sunyani municipalities in the Brong-Ahafo Region and Kumasi metropolis in the Ashanti Region of Ghana.

The study showed that female access to and participation in Senior High School education are influenced by many factors such as negative attitudes and perceptions, poverty, poor academic performance, absence of specific access policies for girls and weak institutional female education support programmes. These things have become major hindrances to girls' participation in Senior High School education.

One way girls fail to gain access to Senior High School education is through the failure of parents to provide adequate care for their school needs. Without support for girls to complete their education, many of them will struggle with poverty and its effects and this will affect their participation in labour issues and decision making later in life (Stephen et al 1999 cited in Meena, 2001).

It is suggested that for the society to have girls' full participation in Senior High School education, parental support should be based on a clear philosophy so that District/Municipal/Metropolitan Assemblies, Central government and Non-Governmental Organisations could make a commitment to provide assistance for the education of girls in Senior High Schools. Provision of support for girls should include adequate financial care, reducing girls' participation in family occupational activities, institution of scholarship, science and technology schemes, introduction of affirmative action in Senior High School admissions, establishment of special girls' Senior High Schools and joint District/Municipal/Metropolitan Assemblies-NGO projects for supply of books, equipment and development of infrastructure. Above all, there is the need for parents and the society at large to wear positive attitude towards girls' education. This will help the girl-child to build up a strong ego and confidence to go through school.

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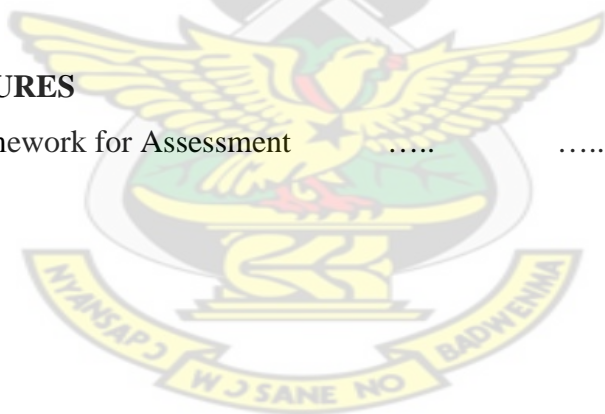


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## **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS**

JHS	Junior High School
SHS	Senior High School
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
MA	Metropolitan Assembly
GUSS	Ghana Social Survey
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
CPP	Convention People's Party
NRC	National Redemption Council
PNDC	Provisional National Defence Council
BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
WASSCE	West African Secondary School Certificate Examination
GPRS	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GPRS II	Growth and Poverty Reduction Strategy
GNP	Gross National Product
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
UNESCO	United Nation's Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
GLSS	Ghana Living Standards Survey
EMIS	Educational Management Information System
MOE,	Ministry of Education
SRIMPR	Statistics Public Relations Information Management and Research
JSS	Junior Secondary School
EICV	Viet-Nam Living Standard Survey
CRT	Criterion Referenced Test
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GEU	Girls Education Unit
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
KNUST	Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology
UNFAO	United Nations Food and Agriculture Organization
OECD	Organisation for Economic Commission and Development
UN	United Nations

FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
CEDAW	Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women and Children
SEDP	Special Education Development Plan
STME	Science Technology Mathematics and Education
WUSC	World University Service of Canada
TSH	Tanzania Shilling
GCE	General Certificate of Education
CSSPS	Computerized School Selection and Placement System
UNICEF	United Nations Information Children's Fund
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
MTDP	Medium Term Development Plan



## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

Education plays an important role in the socio-economic development of a nation. Often, governments commit huge investments to education projects and programmes in order to realize its intended benefits. In many developing countries, female participation in education provision is restricted due to many factors. This study seeks to assess the impact of the factors which affect female access and participation in Senior High School education in Ghana. The study examines a body of available literature on education provision in the world in a bid to establish the extent of female participation in education. The study analyzes gathered data from the field with the intent to assess how female participation in Senior High School education is affected by those factors. It draws a conclusion and makes recommendations to mobilize support for and advocate policy changes for sustainable female participation in Senior High School education in the country.

#### **1.0 Introduction**

Chapter one deals with the historical background of the study, the problem statement, research questions and the objectives of study. The chapter also contains information on the justification of study, scope of study, limitations of study and the organisation of the study. The main concern of the study is to examine female participation in Senior High School education in the Asunafo North and Sunyani municipalities in the Brong-Ahafo Region and the Kumasi metropolis in the Ashanti Region with the view to assess the impact of the causal factors of gender disparities in education on female access and participation within the context of the Education Reform Programmes of 1974 and 1987 in Ghana.

#### **1.1 Background**

Throughout the world, people look up to education as a conduit to achieve sustainable change and development. Education contributes to the development of analytical mind and reasoning power in the individual which helps him or her to build up a sense of confidence, self-esteem and self-respect. Anderson (1992, p. 8) states that “in today’s world, a child who is not educated is disadvantaged in terms of income, health and opportunity. In coming years, a society that does not educate its children will be

disabled in terms of the economic productivity and social welfare of its people”.

Female education has significant implications for maternal and child welfare development. Educating girls contributes to lower maternal and infant mortality and reduced fertility rates (Bruce 1997, cited in A National Vision for Girls' Education and a Framework for Action: Charting the Way Forward, 2001, p. 5). Studies have shown that one year of a mother's education could contribute to a decrease of 9 percent in under-five mortality (Anamuah-Mensah, 2000, p. 4). There is a positive relationship between female education and improved household incomes and nourishment (Caldwell, 1979 cited in Anamuah-Mensah, 2000, p. 7). Education is seen as one single important contributor to national economic growth, self sufficiency and cultural reawakening of a people (World Bank, 1999, p. 16; Abosi and Brookman-Amissah, 1992, p. 284).

The role of quality human resource in a nation's development cannot be over emphasized here. However, the expected benefits of training human capital for national development in developing countries are not forthcoming because of gender inequalities in education provision in those countries. Some studies (Sutherland-Addy, et.al., 1995; Boakye, 1997; Coombs, 1985; Psacharopoulos, 1985) have provided explanations for the prevalence of this educational travesty in modern times. It is expected that the outcome of the study will inform policy formulation or changes to address any challenges identified thereof so that quality human resource base can be developed in this country to achieve a paradigm shift in our development process.

## **1.2 Educational Development in Ghana since Colonial Time, 1529 - 1987**

A western form of education was introduced into this country in the sixteenth century to serve the primary needs of evangelism. According to McWilliam and Kwanena-Poh (1975) and Abosi and Brookman-Amissah (1992) this kind of education was provided in the castles and forts under the tutelage of chaplains attached to the castles with financial assistance from the European merchant companies in the country for nearly a century. For instance, the Portuguese opened a school in the Elimina castle early in the sixteenth century and the English also founded a school in the Cape Coast Castle in 1694. Sons of local European merchants provided the bulk of the enrolment. Anyway, some children of local prominent chiefs and wealthier African traders in the

urban centres supplemented the enrolment. For example, one Ashanti chief sent twelve boys and two girls to the castle school at Elmina in the eighteenth century to be educated. Also, the late Ashantehene, Nana Osei Yaw in 1831 sent his son, Owusu Kwantabisa and Owusu Ansah, the son of Osei Bonsu, a former Ashantehene to be educated at the expense of Governor MacLean in Cape Coast. The medium of instruction used in these schools was the language of the founders.

A few local boys who were products of the schools were sent abroad to be trained to serve as catechists and ministers for further evangelization and teachers in secondary and teacher colleges the missionaries established. The school curriculum made provision for technical and agriculture studies. Training in building construction, woodwork, metal work, shoemaking (cobbling), pottery, printing and agriculture was provided (McWilliam and Kwanena-Poh, Third Edition, 1975, pp. 7-8; Abosi and Brookman-Amissah, 1992, pp. 7-8). The colonial government played a major role in the development of education during this time. From 1882, the colonial administration initiated various attempts to start organized education in the Gold Coast. The government introduced an Education Ordinance in 1882 which was patterned on the English Education Act of 1870. The Ordinance provided for the establishment of Local Boards of education, an office of an Inspector of education and provided annual grants for buildings and equipment, good organisation, and a pass in the Inspector's examination in reading, writing, arithmetic and English language.

Later in 1887 a new Ordinance was introduced to replace the earlier one because it proved ineffective. The Boards of Education were enlarged and empowered to make their own rules to administer grants-in-aid, expand the hitherto curriculum to include the teaching of drawing, singing, elementary science, book-keeping and industrial instruction in higher grades (Bartels, 1965, p. 127). In 1902, the administration of grants on the basis of "payment by results" was introduced. The government gave grants to schools in the value of two shillings per head per annum for each "pass" in arithmetic, reading, writing and additional amounts ranging from six pence to one shilling for other subjects in an annual examination conducted by the Inspector of Schools.



The education provided at this time did not meet the development needs of the colony. The colonial government introduced measures to re-orient education provision in the colony. Governor Sir John P. Rodger in 1908 appointed a Committee to look into education provision in the colony. Later the education rules of 1909 were formulated with the intent to improve teaching methods, introduce agricultural and vocational courses into primary school curriculum and establish a combined institution for elementary, technical and teacher education in Accra (Abosi and Brookman-Amissah, 1992, 13: McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, Third Edition, 1975, p. 56).

During Governor Guggisberg's reign, the government pursued a new educational policy. He introduced the Sixteen Principles which sought among other things to ensure that "primary education must be thorough and be from the bottom to the top (1); provision of secondary schools with an educational standard that will fit young men to enter a university (2); equal opportunities to those given to boys should be provided for the education of girls (4) and that trade schools should be provided with a technical and literary education that will fit young men to become skilled craftsmen and useful citizens (16)"(McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, 1975, p. 57-58). After the educational ordinances of 1925 and 1927 had implemented the principles the government established four trade schools at Kibi, Asuantai, Mampong Ashanti and Yendi in 1912 in addition to the Accra Technical School to produce the much needed technical staff for the nation.

Secondary and teacher education was provided at this time in the country. The missionaries initiated the process. The missionaries established some secondary schools in their operational areas. Some level of private participation was allowed in the provision of secondary education. Later, the government played a prominent role in providing secondary and teacher education in the country. The government established some secondary schools and later a teacher training college. After the country gained political independence, several attempts were made to improve education provision in the country. The Convention People's Party (CPP) government under Dr. Kwame Nkrumah charted a new social policy course for the country. After Dr. Kwame Nkrumah had assumed the reins of power, he declared that his



government would establish “a society in which men and women will have no anxiety about work, food and shelter, where poverty and illiteracy no longer exist, and where diseases is brought under control; where our education facilities will provide our children with the basic possible opportunities for learning” (Kwame Nkrumah, 1967, pp. 52 – 53).

The government introduced the Accelerated Development Plan for Education in January 1952 inter alia to expand facilities at the primary level to lay the foundations for universal primary education and expand secondary, technical and teacher education. A tuition-free elementary education for children between the ages of 6 –12 years was provided and local councils were authorized to establish schools. In 1959, the government granted full university status to the university college in the Gold Coast leading to the University of Ghana and to the University of Science and Technology in 1961. A university college in Cape Coast for science education was established in 1962 with the prime objective of training graduate teachers for polytechnics, teacher training colleges and secondary schools. In 1972, it became the University of Cape Coast.

The implementation of the Plan contributed to a phenomenal increase in both enrolment and school facilities. When the CPP government was overthrown in 1966, the number of public primary schools was 8,144 and the enrolment 1,137,494. The number of public secondary schools rose to 105 with a total enrolment of 42,111 (McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, Third Edition, 1975, pp. 86, 101). The educational system, however, faced some challenges. The government interfered in the academic freedom and affairs of the universities, appointed some lecturers as professors and access at the secondary school level became inadequate (Abosi and Amissah-Brookman, 1992, p. 18-19; McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, Third Edition, 1975, pp. 78-81; 105-107).

The National Liberation Council (NLC) led by General Ankrah overthrew the Nkrumah government in February 1966 and set up two bodies, the Mills-Odoi Commission and the Kwapong Committee in 1967 to study the problems of the educational system and make recommendations for improvement. On the recommendations of the two bodies, the government halted the Accelerated Development Plan. Later, the Busia regime placed emphasis on the expansion of

Continuation Schools and secondary schools in a bid to absorb the increasing number of middle school leavers. The curriculum was diversified. Technical and agricultural courses were promoted (Abosi and Amissah-Brookman, 1992, p. 20).

The National Redemption Council (NRC) led by General I. K. Acheampong overthrew the Busia regime and in 1974 approved draft proposals for educational reforms which sought to reduce the duration for pre-university education from 17 to 13 years and emphasize the acquisition of practical skills backed by a sound general education through out the pre-university courses. Later the Limann administration established day secondary schools and “deboardinized” existing boarding secondary schools in order to cut down the costs of providing secondary education (Abosi and Brookman-Amissah, 1992, p.21). The Rawlings’ Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) ousted the Limann regime in December 1981 and initiated education reforms in September 1987. As a result of this, the duration of pre-university education was reduced from 17 to 12 years. The policy of deboardinization of secondary schools was vigorously pursued and admissions into public secondary schools were done on quota basis.

It appears that education and development are intertwined. Quality education provides a conduit for the socialization of a people into their political and cultural value-system and makes available quality human capital for economic development (Webster, 1988). The quality of education and the active participation of all groups of people (male and female) are significant indicators which should come into play before a nation can realize the full benefits of education. The realization that the Ghanaian educational system is traditional, conservative and parochial in nature in the midst of tough demands and challenges of rapid social and economic development (GPRS II, 2006, pp. vi-vii) guided past and present regimes in this country to initiate changes to the educational system to make it more responsive and relevant to the nation’s social, economic and political milieu. The obvious question that all and sundry should be asking is that what has these “reforms” achieved with regard to equity participation of the sexes in Senior High School education? Or has female participation in Senior High School education attained acceptable national standards all these years of “reforming” our educational system? Or yet still why do we continue to battle with gender inequality or low female access and participation in our educational system especially at the Senior High School level?

In the second half of the twentieth century, governments in the developing countries expended a huge part of their budgetary allocations to the education sector. In Sub-Saharan Africa, for instance, between 1965 and 1973, Cote d'Ivoire despite experiencing economic difficulties allocated high proportions of its gross national product (GNP) and public expenditure to education. This represented 7.4 per cent of GNP and 31.7 per cent of public expenditure respectively in 1973 and in 1981 it represented 45.0 per cent. Similarly, other African countries spent between 25 per cent and 30 per cent of their GNP on education with a larger proportion on higher education during this time (Assie-Lumumba, 1995 cited in Higher Education in Africa, Crises, Reforms and Transformation – N'Dri T. Assie-Lumumba, 2006).

The expansion in educational expenditure was against a backdrop of considerable political change as newly independent nations like Ghana accepted the challenge for determining their educational policies and choices. The rationale was, among other things, to increase access to education, foster national unity, satisfy social justice and provide an urgent need to develop a human resource base for the socio-economic growth of their nations (Hallak, UNESCO, 1990). The investment made by governments paid off. A tremendous growth in literacy rates, educational access, facilities and personnel occurred especially at primary and secondary levels in most developing countries.

In Sub-Saharan Africa, by 1990 female enrolments had increased to 72.5 per cent of those of males. In Latin America, literacy rates increased from 72 percent in 1970 to 83 per cent in 1985 with near gender parity achieved. In other countries such as Chile, Cuba, Bahrain, Panama and Tunisia significant levels of school life expectancies of more than 10 years very similar to those of the wealthier countries of the North were achieved (Elbakri, 1998, p. 6). Notwithstanding this positive development, the problem of gender inequality in education provision continues to persist in many countries of the developing world (UNESCO, 2003a). Ghana is no exception. Ghana's educational system is characterized by gender inequality at many levels.

## **2.0 Problem Statement**

Education provision has formed an essential service in the social sector of both developed and developing countries over the years. In the last thirty to forty years

there has been an increased demand for education provision in the developing countries. As a result of this, enrolment increased dramatically at both primary and secondary levels in these countries within the period. For instance, in 1960, fewer than half of the children aged between 6 – 11 years in developing countries enrolled in primary school. By 2002 the world average net primary enrolment reached 81 percent (UNESCO, 2006).

Within the period, girls' participation in education has been on the increase. From the last three-and-a-half decades, girls' enrolment witnessed considerable increase. In the 1970s, girls represented 38 per cent and boys 62 per cent of primary enrolment in the least developed countries. By 2005, the gender gap has narrowed. While girls represented 48 per cent boys represented 52 per cent of primary enrolment (OECD/UNESCO, 2005). The increased demand for education contributed to a decline in the number of children who are out of school. Between 1990 and 2006, the number of children who were out of school worldwide declined from about 100 million to 75 million.

Notwithstanding improved access to education, female participation in education in most developing countries is still characterized by disparities. Girls continue to constitute the majority of children out-of-school. Girls represent 55 per cent of all children who are out of school world wide. Available data have indicated that world wide, for every 100 boys out of school 122 girls are also out of school. This varies from country to country. For example, in Benin, for every 100 boys out-of-school, 127 girls are also out-of-school (UNESCO, 2006).

Access to secondary education, however, has been deteriorating in most developing countries. According to UNESCO/UNICEF, nearly 1 in 4 children between the ages of 10 – 15 years and 1 in 2 children between the ages of 11 – 14 years do not attend primary and upper secondary school respectively (UNESCO/UNICEF, 2005). Secondary education provision is characterized by large gender disparities between the sexes in terms of access, retention and performance. Again, according to UNESCO/UNICEF (2005) in 1960, only one child in twenty aged between 12 – 18 years attended secondary school in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Although worldwide, the transition rate from primary school to secondary school or the percentage of children who complete primary school and continue to secondary school is 85 per cent, in half of the countries in the Sub-Saharan Africa region transition rates from primary to secondary level are below fifty percent (Elbakri, 1998, p. 8). In Sub-Saharan Africa, girl's transition rate from primary to secondary school is 65.3 per cent and that of boys is 62.6 per cent (UNESCO, 2004). For instance,

According to Sperling, in Sub-Saharan Africa, majority of girls do not complete primary school and only 17 per cent of girls are enrolled in secondary school (Sperling, 2005). Again, Mulana also stated that in 43 developing countries secondary gross enrolment figures were under fifty per cent, and in spite of this, girls constituted the majority of children out of school at this level (Mulana, 2006). According to UNESCO in South Asia only 47 per cent of girls qualify for secondary school and in Sub-Saharan Africa only 30 per cent of secondary-school aged girls enrol in secondary school (UNESCO, 2006).

A study by Houphouet-Boigny (2000) into education provision in Côte d'Ivoire revealed that from 1995 to 1996 girls represented 42 percent of primary school pupils; 34 percent of students in the first cycle of secondary education; 30 percent of students in the second cycle and 24 percent in higher education (Houphouet-Boigny, 2000, p. 6). Similarly, it has been estimated that in Ghana only half as many women (6 percent) as against men (12 percent) have attended Secondary or Senior High School (GSS, 1999, p.11). According to source in 1999, 32 percent of females and 34 percent of males attended Senior High School level (GSS, 1999, p.13).

A pointer to the underrepresentation of girls in secondary education developing countries is seen in the world 1999/2000 academic year gross enrolment figures as shown below. For instance, in the 1999/2000 academic year, the world's female gross enrolment ratio fell below that of boys' ratio in many developing regions across the world



Table 1: Gross enrolment ratio, 1999/2000

Region	Male	Female
Arab States	62.6	57.7
Central and Eastern Europe	79.3	79.7
Central Asia	43.7	43.3
East Asia and the Pacific	66.9	62.9
Latin America and the Caribbean	79.6	85.9
North America and Western Europe	104.3	107.2
South and West Asia	58.8	44.3
Sub-Saharan Africa	26.4	22.4

**Source:** Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2002, Is the World on Track?

From table 1, it can be observed that except in the regions of North America and Western Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, and Central and Eastern Europe where female enrolment ratio exceeded that of males, for the remaining regions of Central Asia, South and West Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa, female enrolment ratio fell below that of males during the period. Also, it can be observed that when the gross enrolment ratios of the two sexes are compared on region by region basis, Sub-Saharan Africa had the lowest in the world as a whole and again the female ratio lagged behind the male gross enrolment ratio. This is an indication of the persistent low enrolment of girls in secondary education in the sub-region. Again, for instance, in the then Asunafo district in 1998/99, out of the total enrolment of 489 students in Senior High School while the boy's percentage share of the total enrolment was 69.3 percent female share stood at 30.7 percent (EMIS Project, 1998/99 School Census, Asunafo North Municipal Education Directorate).

Last but not the least, female literacy rates are low in most developing countries. In Sub-Saharan Africa, although adult literacy rate is 62 per cent women have a higher illiteracy rate compared to men's rate. While women's literacy rate is 54 per cent men's rate is 71 per cent (UNESCO, 2004). Girls' participation in secondary education has been associated with frequent cases of grade repetition. As a result of this, female participation in education has continued to lag behind male participation in secondary education in many developing countries. In Sub-Saharan Africa female

repetition rate is 19.4 per cent. For instance, in Rwanda, as a result of the poor performance of girls at the end of basic school examination, many girls are unable to enrol in public secondary schools. As a way out of the problem, many girls who complete basic schools enrol in private secondary schools where the entry requirements or selection criteria is lower. Female grade repetition has been associated with issues such as opportunity cost of educating girls and their contributions to the survival of their families, high cost of educating girls at secondary school, hostile teacher attitude, sexual harassment, teenage pregnancies and poor parental care for girls at this age.

In Ghana since the 1960s female enrolment has improved significantly but this has not been large enough to equal male achievement rates in access and participation in the educational system in the country (Sutherland-Addy, 2002, p. 93).

### **3.0 Research Questions**

The study will provide some research questions which will help chart a further investigational course for the research:

1. What are the factors of educational disparities or inequalities?
2. What has been the impact of the factors on female access and participation in Senior High School education?
3. What impact has the implementation of interventionist programmes under the Education Reforms Programmes (1974 – 1987) made on female access and participation in Senior High School education?
4. What has been the role of District/Municipal/Metropolitan Assemblies and NGOs in salvaging female participation in Senior High School education?
5. How has government policies in education affected female access and participation in Senior High School education?

### **4.0 Objectives of Study**

#### **4.1 Broad Aim:**

The broad aim of the study is to:

To assess the impact (negative and positive) of the factors that affect female participation in Senior High School education in Ghana.



#### **4.2 Specific Objectives:**

The specific objectives are:

1. To: examine how attitudinal or behavioural inclinations, beliefs and perceptions, socio-economic-cultural phenomena affect female access and participation in Senior High School education,
2. To: analyze the effects of school-environment conditions on female access and participation in Senior High School education,
3. To: examine the nature and extent of policy intervention in education, and the outcomes of policy initiatives on female access and participation in Senior High School education and
4. To: suggest appropriate measures to address the challenges that militate against female participation in Senior High School education.

#### **5.0 Scope of Study**

Gender disparity or inequality in education provision is prevalent at all levels of the Ghanaian educational system. Before 1974, some attempts were made by past regimes of this country at reforming the educational system to improve its performance and to evoke the active participation of all children (girls and boys) of school-going age. For example, Governor Guggisberg introduced the Education Act of 1921 and the Convention People's Party under the leadership of Dr. Kwame Nkrumah also introduced the Accelerated Development Plan for Education in 1952 which provided a fee-free elementary education to children between the ages of 6 and 12 years. Major educational reform programmes were, however, introduced in 1974, 1987 and recently in 2007. Due to constraints of time and finances, the study will cover the period of education reform programmes of 1974 and 1987. The study will focus on female participation in Senior High School education in the Asunafo North and Sunyani Municipalities in the Brong-Ahafo Region and the Kumasi Metropolis in the Ashanti Region.

#### **6.0 Justification of Study**

In the 1960s most governments in the developing countries especially Sub-Saharan African countries committed huge financial resources to promote educational development in a bid to accelerate economic growth (Assie-Lumumba, 1995, p. 19). Education provision has been characterized by the incidence of gender disparities for

many reasons in most developing countries as stated earlier. Ghana initiated major education reforms in 1974 and 1987 to invoke the active participation of children of school-going age. Despite these reforms, the problem of gender inequality in education provision continues to persist in Ghana (GSS, 1999, p.11). The present study sets out against this backdrop of events to examine female participation in Senior High School education in the Asunafo North and Sunyani municipalities and the Kumasi metropolis with the view to assess the impact of the causal factors of gender inequalities on female participation and make policy recommendations to address this developmental menace. The study is relevant because it will help to identify and understand the challenges confronting female access and participation in Senior High School education in Ghana and also will provide data for future studies into female participation in Senior High School education.

## **7.0 Research Methodology and Research Design**

Since the study aims at investigating the impact of the causal factors of gender inequalities in education on female participation in Senior High School, it is appropriate to conduct an analysis of the operations of the causal factors in a chosen study area. A research design is needed.

A research design is a logical framework which details out directions to a researcher in a study regarding the collection, analysis and interpretation of data on observed phenomenon. Yin (1984) argued that generally the choice of an appropriate research design or methodology revolved around three main issues namely: the nature of the research problem, the behaviour of the research theme and the extent of control the researcher has over contemporary events relating to the research issues (Yin, 1984, p. 63). Research approaches are not mutually exclusive. They could be combined with other approaches or used solely to undertake a research.

The present study adopted a Case Study Approach as its methodology. This is a method of inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context. This approach also addresses a situation whereby the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context are not clearly evident. Usually, this method of study relies on multiple sources of evidence. The researcher adopted the case study

approach because he has no control over the actions in the study. Government policies and decisions that are implemented at national and local levels including the school system constitute actions that the researcher has no control over them. The Case Study approach was chosen so that it will help to make an in-depth analysis of the phenomenon over a relatively smaller geographic scope.

### **7.1 Sampling Technique**

The study used mainly qualitative research methods. The research methods of this sort rely on data from interviews, documents and participant observation to understand and explain social phenomena (Meyers, 1997, pp. 141-157). The concepts of population and sample are important here. Population constitutes the total number of all units of a kind that fall in the area of investigation. A sample constitutes the proportion of units selected for investigation from a population. Sampling constitutes the use of definite procedures to select a part of a whole to obtain certain characteristics of the whole (population). A simple random sampling technique was used to select a sample for detailed study. The sample size was determined by obtaining the list of Senior High Schools (SHS) in each municipality and metropolitan area in the study areas and this served as a sample frame.

For purposes of the study the simple random sampling technique under the Probability Sampling technique was adopted. The Probability Sampling technique allows every individual unit in the population a known chance of inclusion or exclusion in the sample with the intent to select a reasonable number of subjects or cases that represent the target population. The sampling of schools was done randomly. Two schools in each area were selected. The selection gave a total sample size of six schools. Conscious effort was made to ensure that a fair representation of all corners of the municipality/metropolitan area was achieved. With recourse to the use of the simple random sampling technique, a sample size of 150 sampling units was obtained. This consisted of 30 current female students and female students who have completed school, 30 tutors, 30 municipal and metropolitan education officials, 30 parents and 30 municipal/metropolitan assembly and Non-Governmental Organization officials. In each study area, a total of fifty respondents was obtained giving a total of one hundred fifty respondents who were selected for the study.

The names of Senior High Schools which operated in the study areas were obtained,

and for purposes of economy and timeliness two schools were used for the study in the area. The schools selected were located far from each other. This was done to ensure that data obtained covered a wide area of the study area. In Sunyani municipality, for instance, 6 Senior High Schools were obtained and this number was divided by 2 to obtain 3. After selecting the first school randomly, the second school was also selected. Similarly, in the Kumasi metropolis, the same sampling technique was applied to a list of 6 Senior High Schools from which 2 of the schools were selected. In Asunafo North municipality, there were only two schools. The two schools were automatically selected.

Also, purposive and systematic sampling techniques were employed to in the selection of the elementary units in the study. For the selection of Senior High School graduates a search was conducted to locate the first female Senior High School graduate. Information was gathered about other female Senior High School graduates who were contacted. A number of ten (10) female graduates was obtained as elementary units. The selection of parents followed the same sampling procedure. Ten parents were selected in each study area through purposive sampling techniques. A total of 30 parents were used as elementary units in the study. In the same vein, a number of officials who work in the municipal/metropolitan assemblies, NGOs and education offices were contacted. Through purposive sampling techniques, 30 elementary units were selected. This constituted of 10 officials each from municipal/metropolitan/NGO and Education Office in each study area. In order to ensure that adequate and accurate data about the issues were gathered officials who had served five years or more in their institutions were selected.

As regards the selection of female Senior High School students, only second and third year female students were used for the study. The reason for this was to gather data from subjects that had considerable knowledge about the issues under consideration. The names of the students were used to select one hundred and twenty or one hundred and fifty students each time in a school. The number was divided by ten to obtain either twelve (12) or fifteen (15) students. After the first student was selected from the 12 or 15 students, subsequent selections were until ten female students were selected as elementary units to answer the questionnaire. In a nutshell, twenty female students were selected.

## **7.2 Data Sources, Collection Methods and Analysis**

### **7.2.1 Data Sources,**

The study relied on two main sources of data namely, secondary and primary data. The secondary data covered a review of relevant literature on the historical development of education, state of female education in the Asunafo North and Sunyani municipalities, and Kumasi metropolis in Ghana, and causes of gender disparities in education in the rest of the world. Primary data were obtained from the administration of questionnaire, personal interviews and discussions. The primary data were gathered from the administration of a structured questionnaire to subjects connected to education provision namely, parents, teachers and education office officials. Other subjects were current female students and Senior High School female graduates, municipal/metropolitan Assembly staff and Non-Governmental Organisations' (NGOs) officials.

### **7.2.2 Data Collection Methods**

The structured and open-ended questions were put together into a questionnaire to form the data gathering instrument for the discussions which were conducted. Interview participants included in the study were selected through purposive sampling. Information about girls who had completed Senior High School and parents whom interview was conducted for was obtained from visits to their homes. After scheduling a date the interview was conducted. The response rate for the administration of questionnaire to the subjects was high. Every questionnaire sent out was filled and returned. The reason for the high response rate could be that the set of questionnaire was handed over to the subjects personally and fetched when it was completed. In the case of students and illiterate parents, the researcher personally administered the questionnaire to help explain thoroughly the issues on the questionnaire to the respondents. The rest of the respondents answered the questionnaire on their own.

Secondary data were gathered from the annually published school statistics of the Ministry of Education "EMIS" Project, Admission Records of Schools and Students' Programme records, Computerized School Selection and Placement System Records (CSSPS) and the Medium Term Development Plans (MTDP) of the municipal and



metropolitan Assemblies of the three study areas. For the review of literature, data were gathered from educational publications, articles and books on female education, education development in Ghana and the world at large from government sources, international and governmental organizations sources (e.g. UNICEF, UNESCO) and the Internet.

### **7.3 Units of Analysis and Variables**

The issues addressed in the study constituted the units of analysis on which inferences were made to draw conclusions. What guided the selection of appropriate units of analysis was the nature of the research problem and understanding of the issues involved in the study. The present study examined gender disparities or inequalities in education with a focus on assessing the impact of the causal factors of disparities on female participation in Senior High School education in the Asunafo North and Sunyani municipalities, and Kumasi metropolis. The study relied on data from two municipal assemblies and one metropolitan assembly. The key variables which the study depended on in the data analysis were related to socio-cultural and socio-economic factors, school-environment factors, and political and institutional policy practices of governments.

### **7.4 Data Analysis and Presentation**

The analysis of data involved editing, coding, categorization, tabulation and interpretation. The analysis revealed unsuspecting errors and omissions which if they had not been corrected would have posed difficulties in the interpretation of the data. The responses were translated into absolute figures and appropriate percentages, tables and supporting descriptive statements were derived according to the relevant themes of the study.

### **8.0 Limitations of the Study**

Inadequate time and funds constituted constraints which limited the researcher's efforts to reach all schools. Therefore, the Senior High Schools in the study areas were sampled. Poor record keeping and data management posed some difficulties in extracting data from the existing literature in the schools and education offices.

## 8.1 Organisation of the Study

The study was organized into five main chapters. Each chapter of the study addressed a specific theme. Chapter one examined the problem statement with recourse to research questions, the objectives of study and the justification of study. It also discussed the research design, sampling approach, sample determination, data sources and data collection methods, data analysis and presentation. Chapter two provided the theoretical framework and key concepts on which the study was based, in addition to a historical development of secondary education in Ghana and a framework for assessing female participation in education. Chapter three provided information on the study areas, discussions on data collected and data analysis. Chapter four discussed the major findings of the study and their implications for sustainable female participation in education. Chapter five discussed the recommendations for improving female participation in Senior High School education and the final conclusion of the study.





## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

#### **2.0 Introduction**

This chapter sheds more light on the topic under study. Through the review of related literature the study is repositioned in the appropriate theoretical perspective. The chapter also attempts to define key concepts and terms on which the study is based, provide a historical development of secondary education in Ghana and a framework for assessing the impact of the causal factors. In this part of the study, an attempt is made to examine available literature which has been offered as major explanations for restricted or poor female participation in education in Africa and elsewhere in the world with a view to assessing their influence on female participation in education.

#### **2.1 Definitions of Key Concepts and Terms:**

The study is based on four main concepts. These are Senior High School (Secondary) Education, Participation, Education Reform and Factor. In order to gain a deeper understanding of, and develop a strong appreciation for the concepts and terms mentioned it is necessary and appropriate to explain them.

##### **2.1.1 Education**

There is no single and definite definition of the concept of education. The concept connotes different meanings to different groups and cultures. There is, however, a thin thread of commonality among all scholars and cultures regarding the meaning of the concept. “Education” refers to the act of teaching and learning. Schultz (1963) sees education as a process “to draw out of a person something potential or latent; to develop a person morally and mentally so that he or she is sensitive to individual and social choices and is able to act on them; to fit a person for a calling by systematic instruction and to train, discipline and form abilities” (Schultz, 1963, cited in Lecture Notes of Dr. Nsiah-Pepurah, 2008). In another classic definition, “Education is taken to mean all sorts of self-improvement in addition to the transfer of knowledge and skill” (Smith, 1985, cited in Lecture Notes of Dr. Nsiah-Pepurah, 2008). The Collins Colbuld Advanced Learner’s English Dictionary (2003) also explains the concept of education as the process by which an individual develops his or her mind through learning at a school, college or university, and in the process of doing so he or she gains knowledge and skills from what is being taught.

From the definitions given above, education connotes a process of sustained and systematic interaction that helps an individual and the society at large to realize self improvement and enhanced quality of life through the transfer of knowledge and skills (UNESCO, 1975, cited in Lecture Notes, Dr. Nsiah-Peprah, 2008). For purposes of this study, the working definition of the concept of education adopted is the one that perceives the concept as the process of enrolling a child in an institution with demarcated physical structures provided with teaching-learning materials, equipment, and trained pedagogical professionals who impart knowledge and skills to people within specific time frame with the intent of making the child a useful individual or person and one who contributes to the realization of the development potentials of his or her community or nation (Abosi and Brookman-Amissah, ed.,1992, p. 56).

### **2.1.2 Senior High School (Secondary Education)**

The kind of education provided to children between the ages of 11 and 16 years. This kind of education comes after elementary or Junior High School but before tertiary education as it is in the Ghanaian educational system (Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English, 1963, p.896).

### **2.1.3 Participation**

The act of taking part in an activity or event. It also refers to consenting to do something with other people for the realization of a common goal. The right to participation is a basic human right and essential for realignment of power in favour of disadvantaged groups for social and economic development (UNFAO, 1992). For purposes of this study, the working definition of participation adopted is the act of enrolling a child in a school or an institution of learning to undergo a programme of studies which is assessed at fixed periods to determine the learning outcomes of the learners.

### **2.1.4 Reform**

According to the Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2002) the term reform means a change initiated to a system or law or an organization to improve its operations in a fairer or more effective way to remove unfairness and imbalances,.

### **2.1.5 Education Reform**

Education Reform is defined as the process of initiating a change to an educational system because of perceived or observed disparities or lapses and/or inefficiencies so that it can operate in an effective way to improve upon its operations to achieve efficiency of resources and meet set targets of a nation or state. For purposes of this study, we will adopt this working definition (UNESCO, 1979).

### **2.1.6 Factor**

An event whose behaviour or operations produces some desirable or undesirable results in a particular circumstance

## **2.2 Types of Education**

Education has been categorized into three domains by scholars. According to Dr. Nsiah-Pepurah (Lecture Notes, 2008) these are formal, informal and non-formal education.

Formal education is learning about things taught in school and school-related experiences like sports and drama in a specially designed environment. Non-Formal Education constitutes educational activities like adult literacy courses and agricultural extension services like evening classes organized outside of the school setting. Informal education is a non-organized learning experience related to on the job training, culture and norms of a group or society which one can acquire depending on how fast one acquires the skills imparted to learners (Dr. Nsiah-Pepurah, Lecture Notes, 2008)

## **2.3 Framework for Assessment**

In an attempt to assess the impact of the factors affect female access and participation in Senior High School, a three-pronged framework is used.

Level I – looks at the relationship between education and development, the relevance of female education to development; highlights national and international conventions advocating female education for a holistic human resource development. The evolution of secondary education in Ghana from colonial times and the Education Reform Programmes in Ghana from 1908 to 2007 is provided.

Level II – looks at the factors which restrict or affect female access and participation in education, e.g., socio-economic-cultural practices and conditions, political and institutional policy practices and school-environment or school-related conditions.

Level III – looks at the impact of the factors including policy initiatives and/or interventionist measures implemented to mitigate the challenges of female participation in Senior High School education, e.g., government policies, NGO programmes, municipal/metropolitan gender-specific programmes supporting girls' participation in education etc.

## **2.4 Relevance of Education to Development**

Education is intrinsic to development. Education is key to a nation's development. Education enables individuals to acquire knowledge and skills which constitute the most important key to development and poverty reduction in the current international dispensation where knowledge is the leading generator of wealth (UNESCO, 2002). The presence of human and natural resources in a nation is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for development. Education provides the medium through which quality human resource is produced to exploit the natural resource endowment for economic growth and development in a nation. Referring to the invaluable role of education in training human capital for national development, Addai-Mensah (2006) states that “A nation's most treasured and dynamic assets are its human resources. A country's growth and sustenance of development depends on the development of its human population through the provision of quality education. Putting adequate resources into and paying attention to the provision of quality education normally results in considerable strides in economic development and social transformation, and raises the quality of life of peoples”.

Education also helps people to make informed choices or decisions regarding life-long issues such as life styles, diet and family size which have direct implications for health, fertility, life expectancy, productivity and per capita income growth levels of individuals and nations at large (UNESCO/OECD, 2002). Provision of universal primary education for both girls and boys on equal footing is the starting point for the realization of the invaluable contributions of education which should be supported with further training at secondary and tertiary levels.

## **2.5 Female Education and Development**

Education is the prime mover in the lives of individuals and in a nation's development. Education also provides the key to economic asset for individuals and nations. According to Psacharapoulous and Patrinos every year of schooling lost represents a 10 to 20 per cent reduction in girls' future incomes. They argued that countries could raise per capita economic growth by about 0.3 per cent points per year or 3 per cent points in the next decade if they attained gender parity in enrolment (Psacharapoulous and Patrinos, 2002). When girls are educated it has implications for improved infant/child and maternal health with rippling effects on household incomes and nourishment. For instance, a literate woman gains access to employment more easily than the illiterate woman and tends to manage scarce capital better by bringing to bear the knowledge and skills acquired in training to ensure greater success. There is a direct relationship between female education and poverty reduction. Educated women tend to have smaller family sizes and reduced fertility which has great potential benefits for their future generation. For instance, UNDP's statistics have indicated that the high fertility rate in Tanzania and Ghana in the early 70s (1970-75) dropped drastically from 6.8 births per woman to 5.1 and 6.9 to 4.1 respectively between 2000 and 2005 due to continued and sustained efforts at ensuring the participation of girls in education in the two countries (UNDP, 2004b).

Female education is important for a nation's development. The relevance of female education to Ghana's national development process has long been recognized by scholars in the past. Dr. J. E. Kwegyir Aggrey once stated that when a man is educated it is an individual who has been educated but if a woman is educated it is a nation that has been educated (Cited in IBIS Survey Report on Female Education, 2007, p.1).

## **2.6 Female Education within the Framework of International and National Context:**

### **2.6.1 Female Education in the International Context**

Since time immemorial, education has been recognized as one single significant contributory factor to economic development (World Bank, 1999, p. 16). The recognition of education as key to sustainable development, peace building and effective participation in the democratization process or governance system of a



nation has informed several international gatherings. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights highlights the importance of education in this light. In the Article 26 of the Declaration, education was considered first and foremost as a fundamental human right of everyone. The Declaration recognised that “elementary” education would be free and compulsory, and that higher levels of education would be equally available on merit for the realization of the benefits of education.

The World Conference on Education held in Jomtein, Thailand in 1990, introduced an expanded vision of “Education for All” with its six main goals which anchored education into a local, national and global context. Building upon the Jomtein Conference, after the World Education Forum in Dakar in April 2000 most governments in the world committed themselves to ensure that by 2015 all children would complete a full course of good quality primary education, significantly expand learning opportunities for youth and adults, halve illiteracy levels and eliminate gender disparities at all levels of education by 2015. The overriding importance of achieving universal primary education by 2015 and eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education by 2005, and at all levels of education by 2015 are a part of the Millennium Development Goals adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2000. The eight goals that the 189 countries signed included commitments to education, health and environmental sustainability.

### **2.6.2 The National Context**

Since 1925 female education has received official recognition and backing in the educational policy of this country. The Guggisberg’s Sixteen Principles helped to put female education in the national context. Two of the sixteen principles (4 and 2) advocated equal opportunities for both boys and girls in basic education and the provision of secondary education with an educational standard that will help young men and women to enter a university (McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, 1958, p. 58). The education reform programme of 1987 provided a great boost for the important role of female education in the development process of this nation. The legal framework for the reform which was set under the constitutional arrangement of the 1992 Constitution enjoined the government to put in place a system of education that will allow all children of school-going age to access a free compulsory universal basic



education (fCUBE) within five years of the assumption of office by the year 2005.

In the same vein, the 1992 Constitution also required the government to intensify efforts to achieve functional literacy and stressed the need for the provision of secondary and higher education. Additionally, the government was required to create equal access to technical and vocational education on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means with progressive introduction of free education (Graham and Hormeku, 1996, p. 73). Gender equality has received attention in all spheres of the Ghanaian national life. The Ghana Government has promulgated many acts on gender issues and also ratified some existing conventions with the ultimate aim of evoking contributions from all and sundry in the national development process. For instance, in 1986, the government ratified the convention on the “Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination Against Women and Children (CEDAW) (Awumbila, 2001, p. 56).

## **2.7 Development of Secondary Education**

The provision of secondary education in Ghana dates back to the 1880s. Initially, the Christian missions established schools in their operational areas but later the government took up the task of establishing schools. For instance, the Wesleyan mission established two secondary schools; a wholly boys’ school in 1876 and a girls’ school in 1884 which developed into the Mfantsipim School and Wesley Girls’ School in Cape Coast respectively. Also, the Anglican mission established the St. Nicholas Grammar School in 1910 now Adesadel College in Cape Coast. The desire of the colonial government to provide quality education in the Gold Coast informed Governor Rodger’s decision to set up the Phelps Stoke Commission which studied the education system and made recommendations leading to the establishment of the Prince of Wales co-educational secondary and training college now Achimota School in 1924 with some degree of autonomy and financial support of £68,000 grant annually representing about a quarter of the whole colony’s educational budget. Meanwhile, the government continued to give financial support to the mission schools.

Between 1945 and 1955, due to the colony’s improved external trade earnings, the government increased its expenditure on education from £347,561 in 1944 – 45 to £6,325,672 in 1945 – 55 with greater support to secondary education. Within the

period, the government established the Prempeh College and Opoku Ware Secondary School in Kumasi and the first secondary school in Tamale in the Northern Territories respectively (McWilliam and Kwamena-Po, Third Edition, 1975, p. 81). As a result, the number of recognized secondary schools increased to 12 in the Gold Coast. Some level of private participation was involved in the provision of secondary education at this time. For example, the Accra Collegiate and Grammar School was established. The private schools charged fees to cover tuition and boarding for courses with duration of four to six years which led to the award of Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (Abosi and Brokman-Amissah, 1992, p. 14).

Between the 1950s and 1960s a phenomenal increase in student enrolment and school facilities occurred. Sixth Form education was extended and this contributed to new dimensions in student assessment. For instance, in 1950, 29 candidates from Achimota School sat for the Cambridge Higher School Certificate Examination for the first time. They all passed. Also, in 1956, 930 candidates obtained the West African School Certificate. By 1966 when the CPP government was overthrown, the number of public secondary schools had increased to 105 with a total enrolment of 42,111. By the end of 1957, student enrolment in the 38 government-assisted secondary schools stood at 9, 860 and in middle schools it was about 115,831 (McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, Third Edition, 1975, p. 87).

However, the number of secondary schools was not enough to absorb the increasing number of middle school leavers and to facilitate university education during this time. Therefore, when the Busia regime assumed power it established a number of Continuation Schools, secondary schools and diversified the curriculum. For instance, subjects such as commerce, agriculture, metal work and domestic science were introduced and accorded the status of academic subjects. During Limann's regime, the government in an attempt to reduce the cost of providing secondary education and increase its coverage, the government "deboardinized" boarding secondary schools and established new day secondary schools. Later, the Rawlings' regime initiated education reforms in September 1986 to promote technical and vocational education and achieve cost-effectiveness and cost recovery within the educational system. The government continued the policy of deboardinization and instituted quota allocation in

admissions to public secondary schools (Abosi and Amissah-Brookman, 1992, p. 23)

## **2.8 Educational Development in Ghana, 1908 - 2007**

In order to espouse a deeper appreciation and understanding of the issue of educational reforms in the evolution of education in a developing country like Ghana, it is important to make a distinction between educational reforms and reforms in education here. Educational reforms constitute programmes and actions that are initiated in the education system intended to bring about major improvements within the existing educational system while reforms of education are transformations in goals and objectives generally linked to social or political changes outside of the education system (UNESCO, 1979, p. 48).

Following from the realization that the nation's educational system did not meet the developmental needs of the newly independent nation for rapid socio-economic development, past and current regimes in the nation initiated a process of reviewing and/or reforming the nation's educational system to provide quality education (Abosi and Brookman-Amissah, 1992, p.17).

The genesis of educational reforms in this nation goes back to the 1900s. Educational practices and development in African-American schools in the United States informed Governor Sir John P. Rodger of the Gold Coast to set up a committee in 1908 'to consider various matters in connection with education in the Gold Coast' which led to changes in the colonial government's educational policy and the introduction of the Education Rules of 1909 intended to provide direction to improve teaching methods, introduce agricultural and vocational courses into the primary curriculum and establish a combined institution for elementary, technical and teacher education (Gold Coast Report of the Educationists' Committee, 1920).

In 1920, Governor Guggisberg introduced his Sixteen Principles in a bid to strengthen the educational policy of the Gold Coast. The principles among other things called for the provision of universal primary education; quality secondary education; equal educational opportunities for boys and girls; trade schools with a technical and vocational education, and quality university education for men and women.

(McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, Third Edition, 1975, pp. 57-58). It is worthy to note that the introduction of these principles constituted a major educational policy direction for the nation's education under colonial rule well into the 1960s.

The Convention People's Party government introduced some changes to education during its regime. With the introduction of the Accelerated Development Plan for education in 1952, a fee-free elementary education was implemented and a number of secondary and teacher training colleges were established. When the CPP regime was toppled in a military coup by the National Liberation Council (NLC) junta in February 1966, there were 8,144 public primary schools with a total enrolment of 1,137,494 children and 105 secondary schools with a total enrolment of 42,111 students. The nation's educational policy continued to drape around the colonial master's education policy. This did not address local needs and challenges for rapid socio-economic development of a newly independent nation. The National Liberation Council (NLC) opposed the concept of free compulsory education and put a halt to the policy. Some public primary schools were closed down. By the end of 1966, enrolment in public primary schools in the Northern territory of the nation declined by one-third (Cited in McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, Third Edition, 1975, p. 116). Enrolment in primary schools in Asante and Southern Ghana registered further growth due to expansion in private preparatory schools.

The NLC regime set up two bodies to look into aspects of the education system with the view to improving its operations. In 1967, one of the committees, the Mills-Odoi Commission made the following recommendations: that the management of secondary schools and teacher training colleges by the Ministry of Education should be decentralized and given to Regional and District Authorities; establish a teaching service division of the Public Service Commission; improve the remuneration and other conditions of the teaching service. Although the government was not too happy with these recommendations they were implemented (Education Review Committee, 1967). In July of the same year, the other body, the Education Review Committee under the chairmanship of Professor A. Kwapong also submitted its report. The report acknowledged a fall in "educational standards" due to inadequate supply of qualified teachers and the appointment of some politicians and other public office holders with little amount of education to serve in the education sector (McWilliam and Kwamena-Poh, Third Edition, 1975, p. 117). The Committee recommended among other things

that six years of primary education; ten years elementary education but at the end of eighth year pupils could be selected for secondary school and those who were unable to enter secondary schools should undergo two years continuous schooling with pre-vocational bias. Also, there should be five years of secondary education and two years of sixth form education which should lead to a School Certificate of the same standard as the Ordinary Level of the General Certificate of Education and the Advanced Level of General Certificate of Education respectively.

Also, during the Busia regime, the government set up a committee which enquired into the problems of the education system. As a result in 1971, the Ministry of Education issued a document, “Curricula Changes in Elementary Education” which recommended Ghanaian Language as the medium of instruction in the first three years of primary education and the use of English language from the fourth year onwards though in places in metropolitan and urban areas where children had exposure to the use of English language the change from Ghanaian language to English language could start earlier than the fourth year. Ghanaian language was therefore studied as a subject in the curriculum.

In 1972 a military junta led by Colonel I.K. Acheampong overthrew the Busia regime and set up a committee under the chairmanship of Professor N.K. Dzobo to study the education system and make recommendations for its improvement. Upon the Committee’s recommendations, in 1974, the government introduced education reforms characterized by the acquisition of practical skills in vocational and technical subjects such as carpentry, cane-weaving, home science, textiles and masonry under the Experimental Junior High Schools and reduced the duration of pre-university education from 17 years to 13 years. A nine-year fee-free compulsory basic education was approved: six of primary schooling and three years of Junior Secondary education. The Ghana Teaching Service was converted into the Ghana Education Service and a Book Development Council to coordinate activities in the book industry was established (Abosi and Brookman-Amissah, ed., 1992, pp. 21 - 22). The changes constituted major reforms because the content and structure of education were affected.



In 1986, the Provisional National Defence Council (PNDC) initiated a new reform programme which took off in September 1987. The objectives of the programme included increased access to basic education especially in the northern half and other areas of the country where enrolment had been persistently low, increased access to senior secondary education to 50 per cent of junior secondary school leavers and tertiary education to 25 per cent of senior secondary school leavers. Six years of primary education, three years of Junior Secondary education, three years of Senior Secondary education and four years of tertiary (university) education were introduced. The nine years of basic education was free and compulsory for every Ghanaian child of school-going age. pre-university education duration was reduced to 12 years.

For purposes of assessment, continuous assessment was introduced. At the end of the nine years pupils sat for the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) to determine those who will continue to secondary schools to offer programmes in general education, business/commercial, vocational/technical, agriculture and those who will terminate their education (Abosi and Brookman-Amissah, ed., 1992, p. 23). The reform constituted significant changes to the content and structure of education in the country. By 1990, the focus of the reforms had shifted to Senior Secondary education. An Education Review Committee was set up to look into perceived weaknesses in the reform programme. In 1994 a National Education Forum was held. Some challenges were identified in the education system and recommendations made.

On January 17, 2002, the New Patriotic Party under the leadership of J.A. Kuffour set up a committee on the Review of Education Reforms under Professor J. Anamuah-Mensah, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Education, Winneba (UNEW). The Committee studied education development and delivery in the country. On the Committee's recommendations, the government introduced educational reforms which took off in 2007. Significant changes were made to the curriculum and structure of education. The changes included 11 years of basic education: comprising two years of pre-school, six years of primary education and three years of Junior High School; four years of Senior High School; three years of technical and vocational education and three years of university education.



On the issue of funding technical training, the government would absorb the cost for the first year and the trainee will shoulder the remaining years' cost (White Paper on the Report of the Education Reform Review Committee, 2004, pp. 14 – 15).

There has been significant improvement in female enrolment at various levels in the educational system in Ghana since the 1960s. Notwithstanding this, the phenomenon of gender disparity or inequality persists. We now turn to examine the factors which restrict or affect female participation in education in the world.

## **2.9 Factors Affecting Female Access and Participation in Education**

The theoretical framework for this research draws on available international and national literature. A synthesis of studies conducted in Ghana, Africa and the world at large has identified a cascade of factors that affect female participation in education. These factors are multi-faceted and interrelated. They are synthesized into socio-economic-cultural practices and conditions, school-environment or school-related conditions, political and institutional policy practices of governments.

### **2.9.1 Socio-Cultural Practices**

In many societies and communities, home-environment practices have been identified as significant influences which affect the education of children. Coombs postulated that cultural values, norms and practices, and attitudes significantly influence the enrolment and participation of children. He observed that these things contribute to sexual disparities in education of a given society (Coombs, 1985). Home-environment factors have a direct relationship with a child's education. Poor parental perceptions about the benefits of education and negative attitudes towards children's education contribute to low familial investment in children's education in developing countries. According to Fraser, parental attitudes exercise greater influence than intelligence in a child's education (Fraser, 1959). According to Clerk studies by a group of ethnographers into the forces behind the success of children in the midst of poverty in Africa indicated that poor children of all family types succeed in their education because their parents inculcate discipline and good study habits into them (Clerk, 1983 cited in Astone and Mclanaham, 1991).

Burns observed that in Buganda parents viewed western formal education with scepticism because educated girls became discontented, immoral and felt reluctant to undertake heavy field labour (that is farming). Despite this, parents invested in their children's education because it offered opportunities for the expression of one's higher social status in the community and helped their sons to obtain lucrative jobs and daughters a higher bride-wealth in marriage (Burns 1964). Khan found similar practices in Nepal. He found that economic conditions have influenced cultural practices in a way that families actively promoted the education of their daughters to increase their chances of marrying a "white collar" husband and poor families concentrated their resources to educate one son through secondary education to obtain a lucrative job (Khan, 1993).

Cultural sanctions on women have also been identified as a major factor which restricts girls' participation in education in societies and communities of Indian, African and Pacific cultures (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1988). Psacharopoulos (1985) indicated that in the Middle East and North Africa, religious and socio-cultural traditions such as early marriage, child bearing and an unwillingness to allow girls to travel long distances have contributed to low participation of women in education in those regions. This pattern of educational provision and attendance is echoed in other regions of the developing world. In Nepal, for example, early marriage and motherhood account for 40 percent of girls who get married before age 15 (UNESCO, 2003a).

Gender differences are seen as a significant influence which negatively affects female participation in education in many communities and societies. The long traditional and conservative belief that a woman's role lies in the kitchen or home has tipped the balance in favour of male children in education in many countries. Lichter's study into high school drop-outs in some developing countries indicated that while 47 percent of boys indicated that their fathers earnestly desired college education for them only 17 percent of girls reported same. Similarly, 40 percent of boys and 32.5 percent of girls respectively indicated that their mothers wanted college education for them Lichter (1962).

### 2.9.2 Socio-Economic Practices and Conditions

Certain socio-economic conditions and practices have been implicated for causing the early termination of children's education in some societies in the developing countries. Socio-economic status of families is the foremost factor. This relates to a family's level of educational attainment, occupation and income. Tadoro in his studies on school performance of children in some developing countries identified four determinants of a child's capacity to learn which eventually determine the child's participation in education. These are family environment (including income and educational level), peer group interaction and the type of children whom an individual associates with, the child's interest, intelligence and ability, and early nutrition and health. He argued that these factors affect the performance of both sexes (Tadoro, 1985, cited in Zewide, 1994, p. 7).

Some studies have indicated that there is a positive relationship between a family's socio-economic status and the education of children. A child's educational attainment would be high if the child's family socio-economic status is high and vice versa "ceterus paribus". According to Kelly there is a strong correlation between parental income and social status and school enrolment of girls than for boys (Kelly, 1984). As the Robbins' Report (1963) observed despite the astounding academic abilities of children of manual working class and those of the upper middle-class, only 11 percent of children of lower manual working-class compared to 44 percent of upper middle class children went to grammar school. Mac-Gayin's (1996) study into factors which influence educational attainment of children in Cape Coast found that about 94 percent of the subjects with lower than secondary school educational attainment had mothers whose educational attainment was lower than secondary education.

Bishop indicated similar patterns of discrimination in education provision among university students in Pakistan. He indicated that the degree of literacy within a home and the attitude of parents towards education constituted the most significant influences for admissions of students into the university for literate or illiterate parents in Pakistan. He found that at the University of Karachi, children of parents with university education were in greater percentage of about twenty times more compared to children of illiterate parents (Bishop, 1989).

Economic considerations have motivated familial preference for investing in male education rather than female education over the years (Burns, 1964; Khan, 1993). The act of families placing high premium on the economic contributions of girls has been identified as a factor which restricts girls' participation in education. Handa (1996) found that for the academically elite high school, income was the single most influential characteristic affecting enrolment. Poverty has been implicated as a major underlying factor in the decisions of parents and families to invest less in female education. In many families in poor societies and communities, girls are tasked to make contributions in the form of child care, home production, agriculture and trade which are essential for the survival of family members and the education of siblings. Girls' contributions to their families begin at an early age and this underpins low priority given to female education in those communities. Investment in the education of boys in many poor families is seen, however, as a security for old age (Psacharopoulos, 1985).

Again, Psacharopoulos argued that the phenomenon of low female participation in education goes beyond the issue of poverty. He observed that other factors such as parents' unwillingness to bear the educational cost of books, uniforms and other expenses contribute to low female participation in education. Khan (1993) found that both economic and cultural factors conspire to make women lag far behind men in terms of number of years of schooling and in grades achieved throughout the South Asian region. According to him early marriage, concern for girls' moral and physical welfare, segregation and seclusion in some countries combine in various ways to limit and restrict female education. On the economic front, he found poverty as the most pervasive barrier to female education in the South Asian region.

In the 1990s, the incidence of poverty compelled poorly educated rural and ethnic minorities like farmers and upland Kinh to drop below the poverty line with serious implications for their children's participation in education in Vietnam. As a result of the high incidence of poverty, in 1999 only 32 per cent of children of about 45 per cent rural farmers and minority Kinh ethnic which constituted only 8 per cent of majority ethnic minorities to enrol in upper secondary schools (Joint Report of Government and Donor-Non governmental organizations poverty working group, 1999, Hanoi).

Cost-sharing in education has also been identified as a factor which conspires to restrict female participation in education in developing countries. During the 1980s most governments in the developing world introduced cost-sharing in the provision of essential social services such as education and health as a conditionality of neo-liberal market policies and structural adjustment. This was intended to reduce the cost of providing such services and release funds for other services. The introduction of structural adjustment policies caused widespread income disparities and marginalized poor and disadvantaged groups within the populations of those countries. In Latin America and Sub-Saharan Africa the affected groups ended up with limited access to social services (Osei-Hwedie and Bar-on, D. Morales-Gomez, ed. 1999, pp. 30 – 38: 100 - 104).

In Sub-Saharan Africa, the feminine group was the hardest hit in the educational sector. As a result, girls became disproportionately affected by the imposition of structural adjustment policies. In Ghana, the implementation of neo-liberal market measures increased the burden on most women who managed households and this brought in its trail inequalities in the education of school-going children especially girls. The introduction of higher user charges or fees increased educational costs to families in terms of higher school fees payment and this compelled households constrained by limited resources to prefer educating boys to girls (Nikoi, 1998, p. 59; Aryeetey, 2000, p. 235). This phenomenon became increasingly characterized by increased child labour for girls especially those of poor households as their overburdened mothers tasked them to provide help to earn income for the survival of their families (Nikoi, 1998, p.60; Commonwealth Secretariat, 1989, p. 75). In Tanzania, the introduction of structural adjustment policies resulted in a dual effect of lower school enrolment and higher drop-out rate for girls (Meena, 1991).

In Sri Lanka, however, female participation in secondary education is reported to be higher than that of males. Girls' enrolment often surpassed that of males. Jayaweera (1991) indicated that gender is not an important influence but rather the type of school girls attended and the socio-economic status of a student were factors responsible for this healthy development. Jayaweera, however, observed that throughout most of the region of Asia, the educational base for women's participation in technological studies and technological work was very limited.



### 2.9.3 School-Environment or School-Related Conditions

Academic performance of the sexes is a characteristic feature in the whole saga of gender inequality in education provision. Girls are perceived as being academically inferior to boys in many societies and communities in the developing countries. A study in Mali on academic performance of boys and girls found that almost a third of households surveyed admitted that they differentiated between girls and boys because they thought boys were more intelligent than girls (UNESCO, 2003a).

Scholars are divided over the issue of female academic performance. Some scholars argue that the assertion is real and attribute its causes to the socio-economic environment. Other scholars argue that the assertion is a perceived relationship in developing countries. Duncan's (1989) review of several studies in Africa by Hussen (1977) and Kann (1981) indicated that there was a weak relationship between the socio-economic background of parents and the academic achievement of students in Ugandan and Botswana's schools. Simmon and Alexander (1980) concluded differently. They postulated that home background has important influences on the achievement of pupils and students in primary schools and lower secondary schools in those countries. The role played by girls at home has been implicated as contributing to poor female performance at school. Most girls were tasked to provide domestic services in the form of cooking, care of siblings as training for their future roles as wives and mothers. This tended to affect their attendance and performance at school.

A study which analyzed 'O' level (Grades 11 - 12) examination results in Botswana, Zambia and Kenya showed that girls performed poorer than boys in almost all subjects especially in the Physical Sciences, Biology and Mathematics. The analysis, however, showed that girls did better in English Literature in all the three countries (Duncan, 1989 cited in Zewide, 1994). In Zambia, similar analysis, however, indicated lower girls' examination scores in English, Social Science, Mathematics and Physical Science. Poor female academic performance in Zambia was attributed to parental discouragement of girls to attend school, domestic responsibilities, early pregnancies and a school curriculum geared more towards boys than girls.

Chinapa (1983), however, found no significant gender differences in achievement levels in the national examination results conducted at the end of primary level in Botswana. In Mauritius girls' performance was found to be better than boys. A similar



pattern of female performance was found in the UK. Girls attained higher performance than boys in reading, mathematics, verbal and non-verbal reasoning in school examinations. Some of the reasons adduced as explanations for boys' poor performance included a tendency for boys' disregard for academic work, indulgence in "laddish behaviour and bravado acts and male peer-group pressure. Girls, however, emphasized collaboration and sharing (Arnot and Phipps, 2003). In Chile, in university selection tests girls performed less well than boys as in the US National Assessment of Education Progress testing (UNESCO, 2003a).

Female self-imposed low self-esteem has been identified as a factor which affects female participation in education and especially in science and technology studies in many countries. As a result of girls' poor perception of their academic prowess they tend to shy away from offering subjects such as mathematics and the physical sciences. This has affected female participation in scientific and technical education in most developing countries. Houphouet-Boigny (2000) indicated that in Côte d'Ivoire female students in higher education chose liberal professions so that they can combine a career with family life rather than risk to enter into the study of the sciences. He found that in 2001-2002 female students' preference for specialized education accounted for a lower female enrolment rate (20 percent) at the Université de Cocody but 33 percent in private technical education. Similar trends are prevalent in other countries. In Chile, though girls have higher performance than boys at secondary level yet their enrolment in science and technology-related courses is lower than boys. Referring to the participation of the sexes in technical education at secondary level, it was found that from 1995 to 1996 girls achieved 82.2 percent in commercial specialization. However, boys attained 58.5 percent and girls 13.1 percent respectively in industrial specialization (UNESCO, 2003a).

The pervasiveness of the notion that girls are academically less intelligent than boys extends its influence beyond the home environment into the school system. Debele (1980) in her study of female education wastage identified the role of women in a society and the organisation of school system as major underlying factors which restrict female participation in education. At the school level, teachers indulge in segregative acts against girls. According to Evans and King (1991) the lack of female

teacher role models, male discriminative attitudes and male "image" projection are some of the institutional barriers which affect female participation in the study of mathematics and the physical sciences at school. Sex role stereotyping in school textbooks is a significant influence. The characterization of women in educational materials was found to be only 10 percent and in the few illustrations found they were portrayed as weak and passive characters, and providers of household chores (Biraimah, 1980).

According to sociologists of education, classroom interaction between boys and girls, and students and teachers exercise significant influence on the performance of girls. Male attitude especially among peers has been found to have negative effects on girls' aspirations in science. According to Kelly (1985), in Britain, adolescent boys consistently undermined girls' efforts to participate in science classes by making disparaging remarks about them and asserting that they (boys) considered science to be a male domain. It has been found that in science and technology studies, teachers tended to answer boys more often than girls in mathematics and science classes but at the same time this also provided major explanations why teachers pay more attention to girls in non-science classes (Margolis and Fisher, 2002).

Harding argues that there are no physical and intellectual barriers to women's full participation in science and technology studies except that in some countries formidable legal, cultural or socio-cultural barriers contribute to the devaluation and underutilization of women's knowledge in science and technology (Harding, 1992). Ellis (1987) has also debunked the assertion that women and girls have "low capacity" for mathematics and technological studies. He found that in the Caribbean women attained higher levels of literacy and numeracy than males. For instance, results in Secondary School Examinations at General Proficiency level showed that a larger proportion of females entered for chemistry and mathematics than males, and an equal proportion of girls as boys entered for the study of physics.

Nagat El-Sanabary's studies into women's participation in science and technological studies in the regions of the Middle East and North Africa showed that higher proportions of women participated in science and engineering courses at university

level than in western countries. Nagat attributed this healthy development to good access to science and mathematics education at the secondary level in the two regions of the world (Nagat, 1993). According to Gail Kelly, analysis of student enrolment in natural sciences, medical and health-related fields in 41 countries in Asia, Latin America and Africa revealed that 50 per cent or more of the students who enrolled were women. He also found that in 13 countries the proportion of women who enrolled in the medical and health-related fields was greater than 50 per cent. He admitted, however, that female enrolment in engineering did not exceed 50 per cent in any of the countries. The highest percentage was 32 per cent in Cuba (Kelly, 1991). According to an evaluation of the Science, Technology and Mathematics Education (STME) clinics organized in Ghana it was found that female participation in mathematics and science education was high. The report indicated that for a five-year period, from the beginning of the STME clinics in 1987 to 1992, the number of girls who entered for GCE “A” Level Science Examinations increased from 368 out of a total of 3,241 students to 2,212 girls out of 9,417 students. This amounted to 24 per cent which represented an increase of 13 percent. Also, in 1997, out of 47 doctors and five dentists who graduated from the Korle-Bu Teaching Hospital Medical School, 15 female doctors annexed 16 of the 21 prizes awarded to deserving officers. This achievement was attributed to the impact of the STME clinics (Anamuah Mensah and Atakpa, 1999; STME Co-ordinator, 2002, cited in Sutherland-Addy, 2002, p. 88-89).

#### **2.9.4 Political and Institutional Policy Practices**

Political and institutional policy practices of governments constitute significant factors that affect female participation in education in the developing world. The pervasiveness of the perception that girls are academically inferior to boys provides significant influences in decisions to sideline girls in education, employment and power sharing or governance systems. Women have become subjects of various forms of discrimination which impinge on their steady progression in the society. In some instances, women are subjected to discriminatory and segregative practices on the labour market and performance of schedules. Raj argues that often a woman’s long years of education and training do not constitute significant factors in female employment. According to him, most women suffer discriminatory acts such as lower grade placement, underpayment for equal work and shorter hiring/employment

periods despite possessing equal or better qualifications than their male counterparts (Raj, 1982).

The absence of adequate female role models and employment avenues for women underpins the under representation or marginalization of women in labour issues in developing countries (Raj, 1982). According to Coombs, limited employment opportunities for women affects female occupational aspirations and expectations and this contributes to produce few female role models which eventually impinges on female participation in education (Coombs, 1985). Duncan has drawn attention to the negative impact of labour practices against women in the teaching profession in Africa. He observes that 'While women form the majority of the teachers in primary schools in the Western countries, this is not true in many African countries. The proportions decline even further at the secondary and tertiary levels. Less information is available concerning women in administrative positions. Nevertheless, it is clear that in most African countries, few are appointed as principals. Segregating women into lowest states of jobs, school authority and staffing structures reinforce the view that women occupy a subordinate position in the work place' (Duncan, 1989 cited in Zewide, 1994, p. 9). According to a 1993 UNDP Human Development Report in industrialized countries discrimination against women largely abounds in employment and wages with women getting less than two-thirds of the employment opportunities and about half the earnings of men.

Hussain, however, argues that discrimination against women labour market issues is not a phenomenon which affects every kind of job. In professions such as the medical and scientific spheres of human endeavour women were not discriminated against men. Rather, they were favoured and paid more highly than men. According to UNESCO data on labour issues in Pakistan, in the fields of engineering and technology, and teaching women were however paid significantly less (Hussain et al, 1987). In Ghana, the provisions of Article 35 of the 1992 Constitution guarantee all persons equal opportunity to participate in all spheres of national life. Additionally, the government has ratified a convention which calls for an end to all forms of discrimination against women and children (Awumbila, 2001, p.56). On the Labour market, the Industrial Relations Act of 1965 entitles women to equal pay and since

1971 women have been entitled to three months pay of maternity leave in the country (Aryeetey, 2000, p.338).

Female participation in public life is however restricted due to a number of deep-seated socio-cultural structures, systems and practices such as traditional notions which advocate a preference for the education of male children. According to Oware, female access to the formal job market in urban areas is quite limited. This is because most women do not possess the required skills and qualifications for entry (Oware G, et al, 1998, cited in UNDP Ghana Human Development Report, 2007, p. 112).





## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3.0 ANALYSIS OF SURVEY DATA**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter covers the background of the geographical scope of the study areas namely Sunyani and Asunafo North Municipalities in Brong-Ahafo Region and Kumasi Metropolis in Ashanti Region. The chapter in addition covers the analysis of data gathered in a thematic sequence to address the set objectives. A critical analysis of the data will be done to establish how the factors affect or conspire to restrict female participation in Senior High School education in the study areas.

#### **3.2 GEOGRAPHICAL SCOPE OF STUDY AREAS**

##### **3.2.1 Region/Area**

The study covered Sunyani Municipality, Asunafo North Municipality and Kumasi Metropolis. The geographical background information of the areas is provided below.

##### **3.2.2 Profile**

Sunyani is the capital town of the Sunyani Municipality and also the regional capital of the Brong-Ahafo Region (MTDP, 2006, Sunyani Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 8).

Asunafo North Municipality was created by an act of Parliament through a legislative instrument in 2004 and inaugurated in 2005. Goaso is the capital town (MTDP, 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 1).

Kumasi is the regional capital of the Ashanti Region. It was founded in the 1680s by the late King Osei Tutu (Dickson, 1969, cited in MTDP, 2006, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2006, p. 19).

##### **3.2.3 Location**

Sunyani lies between latitude 9.65° and longitude 2.5° – 2.3° with an elevation between 229m – 376m above sea level (MTDP, 2006, Sunyani Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 8).

Asunafo North lies between latitude 6.27° – 7.00° and longitude 2.52° with an elevation between 500 - 1000ft above sea level (MTDP, 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 1).

Kumasi lies between latitude 6.35° and 6.40° and longitude 1.30° – 1.35° with an elevation



between 250 – 300 metres above sea level (MTDP, 2006, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2006, p. 19).

### **3.2.4 Population**

Population sizes in the three areas have grown rapidly over the years.

The population in Sunyani increased from 98,183 in 1984 to 178,165 in 2000. The population is composed of 49.8 percent males and 50.2 percent of females. This implies that there are more females than males in the municipality. The dependency ratio is 73.3\* (Population Census Reports, 1984 and 2000 cited in MTDP, 2006, Sunyani Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 20; Analysis of District Data and Implications for Planning, 2000, p. 21).

Asunafo North Municipality's population is 110,827. The percentage share of males is 49 percent and that of females is 51 percent implying that there are more females than males in the municipality. The dependency ratio is 101.5\* (Population and Housing Census, 2000 cited in MTDP, 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 2; Analysis of District Data and Implications for Planning, 2000, p. 21).

The population in the Kumasi Metropolis increased from 487,504 in 1984 to 1,170,270 in 2000 (Population Census Reports, 1984 and 2000 cited in MTDP, 2006, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2006, p. 34). The percentage share of males is 50.2 percent and that of females is 48.8 percent which means that there are more males than females in the metropolis. The dependency ratio is 73.1 (Population Census, 2000 cited in MTDP, 2006, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2006, p. 39 Analysis of District Data and Implications for Planning, 2000, p. 21).

- Data cover the old undivided districts of Asunafo and Sunyani in 2000.

### **3.2.5 Area Size**

Sunyani Municipality covers an area of 829.3 square kilometres (MTDP, 2006, Sunyani Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 8).

Asunafo North Municipality covers an area of 1,093.7 square kilometres with 389.7 Km<sup>2</sup> covered by forest reserves (MTDP, 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 1).

Kumasi Metropolitan Area occupies a surface area of 254 square kilometres (2000 Population Census Report cited in MTDP, 2006, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2006, pp. 19; 37).

### **3.2.6 Climate**

Sunyani Municipality falls within the wet semi-equatorial zone characterized by two rainfall seasons within the year with an average rainfall of about 170cm (MTDP, 2006, Sunyani Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 12).

Asunafo North Municipality lies within the central part of the forest dissected plateau physiographic region of Ghana. The mean temperature is about 25.5o with the month of March being the hottest period of the year. Relative humidity is highest in the wet season and lowest in the dry season. The municipality experiences a double rainfall pattern with the annual rainfall ranging between 125cm – 175cm (MTDP, 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 2).

Kumasi also falls under the sub-equatorial zone and it has minimum temperature of 21.5 percent and maximum temperature of 30.7 percent. The average humidity is 74.16 percent at 0900GMT and 60 percent at 1500 GMT (MTDP, 2006, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2006, p. 21).

### **3.2.7 Topography/Geology/Drainage**

Sunyani Municipality lies within the middle belt of Ghana drained by several rivers notably Tano, Benu and Yaya Rivers. The municipality is underlain by the Precambrian and Birrimian rock formation with extensive masses of granite believed to be rich in mineral deposits (MTDP, 2006, Sunyani Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 8; 14).

Asunafo North Municipality has a gently rolling landscape although it is rugged towards the North-Eastern area (Mim). The area is drained by two major rivers; Goa and Ayum Rivers. The area is underlain by Precambrian, Birrimian and Tarkwaian rock formation (MTDP, 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 1).

Kumasi Metropolitan Area lies within the plateau of south-west physical region of Ghana with an undulating landscape which is traversed by rivers and streams such as Owabi and Subin Rivers. Kumasi Metropolis is underlain by middle Precambrian rock formation (MTDP, 2006, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2006, pp. 21 - 22).

### 3.2.8 Vegetation and Soils

Sunyani Municipality lies within the moist-semi deciduous forest vegetation zone characterized by grassland, broken forest and forest reserves such as Asukese Forest Reserve located around Atronie (Forestry Department, Sunyani, 2006 cited in MTDP, 2006, Sunyani Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 12). Some timber species in the area are "Ofram", "Wawa", "Kyenkyen" and Teak. Two soil formations are available here. The major soil formation is the forest ochrosol type with about 85 percent strong water retention capacity and the other type of soil formation is the Birim Chichiwere Association which is an alluvial type with poor water retention capacity (MTDP, 2006, Sunyani Municipal Assembly, 2006, pp. 12 - 14).

Asunafo North Municipality has an area of 389.7 km<sup>2</sup> covered by forest reserve which include Abonyere Reserve covering 41.18 km, Bonsambepo Reserve, 135.90 km, Ayum Reserve, 112.85 km and Bonkoni Reserve, 108.564 km. Some species of timber here include "Kyenkyen", "Dahoma", "Sapele" and "Emirre" (MTDP, 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Forestry Department, 2006). The main soil formation is the forest ochrosol which is highly alkaline in nature (MTDP, 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 2).

Kumasi Metropolis is inhabited by tall and big trees. The predominant species of trees around the metropolis include ceiba and triplochlon. There is a patch of vegetation reserve within the metropolis which has been developed into the Kumasi Zoological Gardens opposite the Kejetia Lorry Terminal (Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, 2006, p. 21). The main soil type is the forest ochrosol. It is estimated that the Metropolis has 12,000 hectares of irrigable land which consist of swampy and marshy areas (Kumasi Metropolitan Agriculture Directorate, 2006). Available agricultural land is used largely for the cultivation of food crops such as vegetables (traditional and exotic type), maize, plantain and cassava.

### 3.2.9 Similarities Among Geographic Areas

The three areas have growing or infant populations. From the figures, one realizes that although each of the areas or places has a high dependency ratio, the figures show explicitly that while Asunafo North has the highest dependency ratio of 101.5 Kumasi has the lowest dependency ratio of **73.1** among the three areas. This has some implications for the welfare of the population and the development of the areas. The high dependency ratio could imply that

the worker population has a large number of dependents to support which will affect their ability to provide the needs of their dependents, let alone to save and invest.

This development provides an explanation for the high poverty level situation with its numerous manifestations such as malnutrition, high mortality, high illiteracy and poor living conditions in the three areas (MTDP 2006, Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly. 2006, p. 54; MTDP 2006, Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p. 41). Also, the large number of dependents will put huge pressure on social facilities like schools, health services, and water and sanitation services provided.

Agriculture plays a major role in the economies of the three areas. The double maxima rainfall pattern in these areas supports agricultural development greatly. This sector employs over sixty percent of the labour force available there (Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, p.58). Again, the availability of the ochrosol soil type supports the cultivation of food crops such as plantain, cocoyam, maize and cassava which are important staples in the diet of the population and which also provides a major source of income to a large section of the population which is agrarian.

The three places are underlain by Precambrian and Birrimian rock formation. These rocks are believed to have traces of mineral deposits with masses of granite. The exploitation of granite in the Kumasi Metropolis has contributed to the development of stone quarrying and sand winning promoting the building and construction industry (MTDP 2009, Kumasi Metropolis Assembly, 2006).

Female participation in education at the Senior High School level in the three areas is characterized by low participation; access and enrolment, survival and achievement rates lower than male rates (Researcher Field Report, 2006).

### **3.2.10 Differences Among Geographic Areas**

Sunyani and Asunafo North are municipalities but Kumasi is a metropolis. In the development paradigm, Kumasi Metropolis has a higher planning authority, larger population and more social overhead capital such as telecommunication, road network, schools, healthcare, water and sanitation facilities than Asunafo North and Sunyani municipalities. For

instance, Kumasi Metropolis houses a Regional Teaching Hospital, two public universities; Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology, KNUST, University of Education, UEW, Kumasi Campus), and one private University College. Sunyani Municipality has one public University College, College of Natural Renewable Resources and one private university, Catholic University at Fiapre, a Regional Hospital; Asunafo North Municipality has a hospital and two public Senior High Schools, one public Leadership Training Institute and three private Vocational Institutes.

Kumasi Metropolis has a higher percentage of males (50.2 percent) than females (48.8 percent) in the population. Sunyani and Asunafo North Municipalities have a higher percentage of females than males. All things being equal, it is expected that more females would participate in education and contribute to the socio-economic development of their economies. Educationally, male participation rates are better or higher than female rates at the Senior High School level.

### **3.3 ANALYSIS OF DATA**

The provision of education spans largely from pre-school to university level in the study areas.

Student enrolment has witnessed a significant improvement over time. For instance, between 2002 and 2005 student enrolment in the Sunyani municipality at the Senior High School level increased from 4,743 to 6,509 with female enrolment appreciating from 2,079 to 2,834 over the period, which is an increase of 36.3 per cent (Sunyani Municipal Education Directorate, 2006, cited in Sunyani MTDP, 2006, p. 52). Despite the remarkable improvement in student enrolment, female participation in education is characterized by many challenges such as under representation in science and technology studies. Perhaps, a sizeable number of girls cannot take full advantage of the opportunities which education offers the individual because they are unable to participate in Senior High School education due to many reasons. This part of the study draws attention to the analysis done on the causal factors and their effects on female participation in Senior High School education in the three study areas.



### 3.4 Parental Attitudes, Perceptions, Behaviour and Interest Patterns

The study sought to find out how parental attitudes and interest patterns, beliefs and perception influence female participation in Senior High School education. In this attempt, the issues were considered as 'factors'. The responses to questions provided by the respondents were put together and labelled "yes" and "no": “yes” responses connote the factors have negative effects and “no” responses imply that the factors did not affect female participation in education. The total frequencies generated by the responses were divided by the total number of respondents who answered the questions and then multiplied by one hundred to obtain the respective percentages. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1: Parental Attitudes, Interests, Beliefs and Perceptions

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	7	7	7	14	14	14	3	3	3	6	6	6
Parent/Guardian	7	8	6	14	16	12	3	2	4	6	4	8
Education Official	8	9	0	16	18	0	2	1	10	4	2	20
Tutor	9	0	9	18	0	18	1	10	1	2	20	2
Female Student	6	5	4	12	10	8	4	5	6	8	10	12
Total	37	29	26				13	21	24			
Percentage (%)				<b>74</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>52</b>				<b>26</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>48</b>

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

The analysis reveals that in Asunafo North Municipality while 26 percent of the responses indicate no but 74 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Sunyani Municipality, 42 percent of the responses indicates no but 58 percent indicates yes. Again, in the Kumasi Metropolis, while 48 percent of the responses indicates no 52 percent indicates yes.



In short, the analysis of data indicates that parental attitudinal inclinations, interest patterns, beliefs and perceptions negatively affect female participation in education at Senior High School level in the three study areas.

### 3.5 Social-Cultural Practices

#### 3.5.1 Teenage Pregnancy

Early betrothal of girls/early marriage and teenage pregnancy have been identified as factors which restrict female participation in education in developing countries. The results of the analyzed data on teenage pregnancy are shown in Table 3.2 which follows.

Table 3.2: Teenage Pregnancy

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFON	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFON	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFON	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFON	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	6	5	4	12	10	8	4	5	6	8	10	12
Parent/Guardian	5	5	5	10	10	10	5	5	5	10	10	10
Education Official	3	4	2	6	8	4	7	6	8	14	12	16
Tutor	4	2	2	8	4	4	6	8	8	12	16	16
Female Student	4	4	2	8	8	4	6	6	8	12	12	16
Total	22	20	25				28	30	35			
Percentage (%)				44	40	30				56	60	70

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

The analysis of data indicates that in Asunafo North Municipality, 44 percent of the responses indicates yes but 56 percent indicates no. In the Sunyani Municipality, 40 percent of the responses indicates yes but 60 percent of the responses shows no. In the Kumasi Metropolis, while 30 percent of the responses indicates yes 70 percent of the responses indicates no.

In a nutshell, the incidence of teenage pregnancy is not a factor that restricts female participation in education at the Senior High School level in the study areas.

### 3.5.2 Early Betrothal and Early Marriage of Girls

In societies or communities where the practice of early betrothal/early marriage of girls is ripe, the practice has been identified as a factor which impinges on female access and participation in education. The analysis of data on the factor is shown in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3: Early Betrothal of Girls and Early Marriage

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	2	3	4	4	6	8	8	7	6	16	14	12
Parent/Guardian	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	10	10	20	20	20
Education Official	2	0	0	4	0	0	8	10	10	16	20	20
Tutor	0	1	0	0	2	0	10	9	10	20	18	20
Female Student	8	10	6	16	20	12	2	0	4	4	0	8
Total	12	14	10				38	36	40			
Percentage (%)				24	28	20				76	72	80

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

In Asunafo North Municipality, while 24 percent of the responses indicates yes 76 percent of the responses indicates no. In the Sunyani Municipality, 28 percent of the responses shows yes but 72 percent of the responses indicates no. In the Kumasi Metropolis, while 20 percent of the responses indicates yes 80 percent of the responses indicates no.

From the analysis in Table 3.3, early betrothal of girls/early marriage does not affect female participation in education at the Senior High School level in the study areas.

### 3.6 Social-Economic Factors

#### 3.6.1 Socio-Economic Status/Poverty

Certain socio-economic conditions and practices have been identified as factors which restrict female participation in education in developing countries. For purposes of this study, poverty, girls' involvement in family businesses, girls' provision of domestic chores and cost-sharing in education were assumed as 'factors', and an analysis conducted to assess their impact on female participation in education at the Senior High School level. The results of the analysis on poverty are shown in Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4: Socio-Economic Status/Poverty

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFON	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFON	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFON	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFON	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	8	7	7	16	14	14	2	3	3	4	6	6
Parent/Guardian	8	8	7	16	16	14	2	2	3	4	4	6
Education Official	7	6	5	14	12	10	3	4	5	6	8	10
Tutor	8	6	4	16	12	8	2	4	6	4	8	12
Female Student	8	8	7	16	16	14	2	2	3	4	4	6
Total	39	35	30				11	15	20			
Percentage (%)				78	70	60				22	30	40

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

The analysis of data shows that in Asunafo North Municipality while 22 percent of the responses indicates no 78 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Sunyani Municipality, 30 percent of the responses indicates no but 70 percent indicates yes. In the Kumasi Metropolis, while 40 percent of the responses indicates no 60 percent of the responses indicates yes.

In short, poverty affects girls' participation in education at the Senior High School level in the study areas.

### 3.6.2 Cost-Sharing Policy

Cost-sharing in education constitutes the act of parents and guardians sharing the cost and burden of providing education to children with government. Again, the study sought to find out how cost-sharing affects female participation in Senior High School education. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5: Cost-Sharing Policy

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	7	9	8	14	18	16	3	1	2	6	2	4
Parent/Guardian	8	7	5	16	14	10	2	3	5	4	6	10
Education Official	6	4	4	12	8	8	4	6	6	8	12	12
Tutor	5	6	6	10	12	12	5	4	4	10	8	8
Female Student	8	10	10	16	20	20	2	0	0	4	0	0
Total	34	36	33				16	14	17			
Percentage (%)				<b>68</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>66</b>				<b>32</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>34</b>

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

The analysis of data reveals that in Asunafo North Municipality while 32 percent of the responses indicates no 68 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Sunyani Municipality, 28 percent of the responses shows no but 72 percent indicates yes. In the Kumasi Metropolis, 34 percent of the responses indicates no but 66 percent indicates yes.

From the data analysis, it is observed that cost-sharing policy affects female participation in education at the Senior High School level.

### 3.6.3 Girls' Involvement in Family Occupational Backgrounds or Activities

The next issue considered is the involvement of girls in their family occupational backgrounds or activities. The results of the analysis are shown on Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Involvement of Girls in Family Businesses/Occupation

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	8	8	2	16	16	4	2	2	8	4	4	16
Parent/Guardian	2	2	3	4	4	6	8	8	7	16	16	14
Education Official	4	2	0	8	4	0	6	8	10	12	16	20
Tutor	6	7	0	12	14	0	4	3	10	8	6	20
Female Student	8	10	0	16	20	0	2	0	10	4	0	20
Total	28	29	5				22	21	45			
Percentage (%)				<b>56</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>10</b>				<b>44</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>90</b>

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

In the Asunafo North Municipality 44 percent of the responses indicates no but 56 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Sunyani Municipality, 42 percent of the responses indicates no but 58 percent shows yes. In the Kumasi Metropolis, while 90 percent of the responses indicates no 10 percent of the responses indicates yes.

In short, the analysis revealed that the involvement of girls in their family occupational activities adversely affects female participation in Senior High School education in the Asunafo North and Sunyani Municipalities. However, in the Kumasi Metropolis, the analysis showed that this practice does not affect female participation in Senior High School education.

### 3.6.4 Girls' Involvement in the Provision of Domestic Chores

Furthermore, the study sought to find out how the involvement of girls in the provision of domestic chores affects or influences female participation in education at the Senior High School level. The results of the analysis are shown in Table 3.7 below.

Table 3.7: Girls Involvement in the Provision of Domestic Chores

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	7	5	3	14	10	6	3	5	7	6	10	14
Parent/Guardian	4	6	7	8	12	14	6	4	3	12	8	6
Education Official	8	2	2	16	4	4	2	8	8	4	16	16
Tutor	7	3	0	14	6	0	3	7	10	6	14	20
Female Student	8	3	3	16	6	6	2	7	7	4	14	14
Total	34	19	15				16	31	35			
Percentage (%)				<b>68</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>30</b>				<b>32</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>70</b>

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

The analysis reveals that in the Asunafo North Municipality 32 percent of the responses indicates no but 68 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Sunyani Municipality, 62 percent of the responses indicates no but 38 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Kumasi Metropolis, while 70 percent of the responses indicates no 30 percent of the responses indicates yes.

In a nutshell, girls' involvement in their family domestic services affects female participation in education at the Senior High School level in the Asunafo North Municipality but it is not so in the Sunyani Municipality and Kumasi Metropolis.

### 3.7 School-Environment Conditions

For purposes of the analysis, female academic performance, female participation in science and technology studies and teacher attitude and questioning techniques were assumed as 'factors', and an analysis of the collected data was carried out to assess their impact on female participation in education at the Senior High School level.

#### 3.7.1 Female Academic Performance

The results of the analyzed data on female academic performance are shown in Table 3.8 below.



Table 3.8: Female Academic Performance

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	7	7	8	14	14	16	3	3	2	6	6	4
Parent/Guardian	6	8	5	12	16	10	4	2	5	8	6	10
Education Official	2	5	4	4	10	8	8	5	6	16	8	12
Tutor	4	2	4	8	4	8	6	8	6	12	16	12
Female Student	7	8	7	14	16	14	3	2	3	6	4	6
Total	26	30	28				24	20	22			
Percentage (%)				52	60	56				48	40	44

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

The analysis reveals that in the Asunafo North Municipality while 48 percent of the responses indicates no 52 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Sunyani Municipality, 40 percent of the responses shows no but 60 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Kumasi Metropolis, 44 percent of the responses indicates no but 56 percent of the responses indicates yes.

In short, the analysis reveals that female academic performance affects female participation in education at the Senior High School level. The analysis has shown that a child's educational attainment is related to the child's level of intelligence (Tadoro, 1980, cited in Zewide, 1994).

### 3.7.2 Female Participation in Science and Technology Studies

Other analysis was done on the collected data to find out the impact of female participation in science and technology studies on female participation in education at the Senior High School level. The results are shown in Table 3.9 below.

Table 3.9: Female Participation in Science and Technology Programmes

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	6	6	5	12	12	10	4	4	5	8	8	10
Parent/Guardian	6	5	6	12	10	12	4	5	4	8	10	8
Education Official	9	8	7	18	16	14	1	2	3	2	4	6
Tutor	7	9	8	14	18	16	3	1	2	6	2	4
Female Student	2	4	5	4	8	10	8	6	5	16	12	10
Total	30	32	31				20	18	19			
Percentage (%)				<b>60</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>62</b>				<b>40</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>38</b>

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

In the Asunafo North Municipality, 40 percent of the responses indicates no but 60 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Sunyani Municipality, 36 percent of the responses indicates no but 64 percent of the responses indicates yes. In the Kumasi Metropolis, 38 percent of the responses indicates no but 62 percent of the responses indicates yes.

In a nutshell, the analysis revealed that the level of female involvement in science and technology studies has direct relationship with female participation in education at the Senior High School level.

### 3.7.3 Teacher Attitude and Teacher Questioning Techniques

Further, the collected data were analyzed to find out how teacher attitude and teacher questioning techniques influence female participation in education at the Senior High School level. The results are shown in Table 3.10 below.

Table 3.10: Teacher Attitude and Act of Questioning

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	3	1	2	6	2	4	7	9	8	14	18	16
Parent/Guardian	6	5	4	12	10	8	4	5	6	8	10	12
Education Official	2	1	2	4	2	4	8	9	8	16	18	16
Tutor	0	2	3	0	4	6	10	8	7	20	16	14
Female Student	6	6	5	12	12	10	4	4	5	8	8	10
Total	19	15	16				31	35	34			
Percentage (%)				<b>38</b>	<b>30</b>	<b>32</b>				<b>62</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>68</b>

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

The data analysis shows that in the Asunafo North Municipality, 38 percent of the responses indicates yes but 62 percent indicates no. In the Sunyani Municipality, 30 percent of the responses indicates yes but 70 percent indicates no. In the Kumasi Metropolis, while 32 percent of the responses indicates yes 68 percent of the responses indicates no.

In short, the analysis shows that teacher attitude and teacher questioning techniques have no negative influence on female participation in education at the Senior High School level.

### 3.8 Political and Institutional Government Policies

The study analyzed the policy measures of the 1974 and 1987 education reform programmes to determine their impact on female participation in education at the Senior High School level.

#### 3.8.1 1974 Education Reform Programme

The results of the analysis on the 1974 reforms are shown in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: 1974 Education Reform Programme

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	3	3	4	6	6	8	7	7	6	14	14	12
Parent/Guardian	2	4	2	4	8	4	8	6	8	16	12	16
Education Official	6	4	2	12	8	4	4	6	8	8	12	16
Tutor	4	4	7	8	8	14	6	6	3	12	12	6
Female Student	5	6	7	10	12	14	5	4	3	10	8	6
Total	20	21	22				30	29	28			
Percentage (%)				<b>40</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>44</b>				<b>60</b>	<b>58</b>	<b>56</b>

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

The analyzed data reveals that in the Asunafo North Municipality while 40 percent of the responses indicates yes 60 percent indicates no. In the Sunyani Municipality, 42 percent of the responses indicates yes but 58 percent of the responses indicates no. In the Kumasi Metropolis, while 44 percent of the responses indicates yes 56 percent of the responses indicates no.

In short, the analysis indicates that the 1974 Education Reform Programme did not have significant impact on female participation in education at the Senior High School level.

### 3.8.2 1987 Education Reform Programme

The results of the analysis on the 1987 reforms are shown in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12: 1987 Education Reform Programme

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	3	2	3	6	4	6	7	8	7	14	16	14
Parent/Guardian	5	3	5	10	6	6	5	7	5	10	14	10
Education Official	3	4	2	6	8	4	7	6	8	14	12	16
Tutor	7	7	4	14	14	8	3	3	6	6	6	12
Female Student	6	6	6	12	12	12	4	4	4	8	8	8
Total	24	22	20				28	28	30			
Percentage (%)				48	44	40				54	56	60

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

In the Asunafo North Municipality 48 percent of the responses indicates yes but 54 percent of the responses shows no. In the Sunyani Municipality, 44 percent of the responses indicates yes but 56 percent of the responses indicates no. In the Kumasi Metropolis, while 40 percent indicates yes 60 percent of the responses indicates no.

In short, the analysis revealed that the 1987 Education Reform Programmes policy measures did not bring significant changes to female participation in education at the Senior High School level.

### 3.9 Sub-Agencies Interventionist Support Measures

District/Municipal and Metropolitan Assemblies and Non-Governmental Organizations (NGOs) provide assistance to schools in the form of exercise books, library books, scholarships or bursaries or indirectly construct school buildings, libraries. The study analyzed the collected data to find out the impact of the activities of the two bodies on female education at the Senior High School level. For purposes of the study, 'support package' was considered as any social enhancement programme like scholarship/bursary or academic/moral improvement programme instituted by any agency or body intended to support female education at the Senior High School level. The results of the analysis on the support package provided by local government agencies and NGOs are shown in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13: Local Government Agencies and NGOs Support Package

Respondents	Yes			Percent (%)			No			Percent (%)		
	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI	ASUNAFO N	SUNYANI	KUMASI
Municipal/Metropolitan/NGO	2	5	2	4	10	4	8	5	8	16	10	16
Parent/Guardian	4	6	3	8	12	6	6	4	7	12	8	14
Education Official	1	5	7	2	10	14	9	5	3	18	10	6
Tutor	1	3	1	2	6	2	9	7	9	18	14	18
Female Student	3	4	4	6	8	8	7	6	6	14	12	12
Total	11	23	17				39	27	33			
Percentage (%)				<b>22</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>34</b>				<b>78</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>66</b>

**Source:** Author's Field Survey, June, 2008

In the Asunafo North Municipality, 22 percent of the responses indicates yes but 78 percent of the responses indicates no. In the Sunyani Municipality, while 46 percent of the responses indicates yes 54 percent of the responses indicates no. In the Kumasi Metropolis, 34 percent of the responses indicates yes but 66 percent of the responses indicates no.

In brief, the analysis indicated that the three Assemblies and Non-Governmental Organizations did not initiate any specific social support programmes to support female participation in education at the Senior High School level.



## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **4.0 KEY FINDINGS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the key findings of the study which are derived from the data analysis. The findings relate to attitudinal inclinations, beliefs and perceptions, socio-economic conditions, school-environment conditions, government educational policies and weak institutional social support. The chapter also discusses how these factors have influenced female participation in Senior High School education.

#### **4.2 Summary of the Findings**

1. Attitudinal inclinations, behavioural and interest patterns, beliefs and perceptions of parents directly correlate with low female participation in Senior High School education.
2. Socio-cultural practices such as early betrothal of girls and early marriage, and the incidence of teenage pregnancy have no direct relationship with female participation at the Senior High School level.
3. Poverty has negative influence on female participation in Senior High School education.
4. There is a causal link between girls' involvement in domestic services and female participation in Senior High School education in Asunafo North Municipality. Also, the involvement of girls in their family occupational activities like trading has a positive relationship with female participation in Senior High School education in Sunyani and Asunafo North Municipalities.
5. Some school-environment or school-related conditions and practices like female academic performance and female participation in science and technology studies have a direct relationship with female participation in Senior High School education. However, teacher attitude and practices have no relationship with female access and participation in Senior High School education.
6. Government educational policies such as access and participation policy of the 1974 and 1987 Education Reform Programmes have a direct relationship with female participation in Senior High School education.

7. Weak institutional social support like scholarship scheme for girls at the local level correlates with female participation in Senior High School education.

### **4.3 Discussions of Key Findings**

#### **4.3.1 Parental Attitudes, Interests, Perceptions and Beliefs**

The study revealed that the commitment and support of parents for female secondary education were low in the Asunafo North Municipality because the poor academic performance of girls over the years has contributed to few (about twenty to thirty per cent of ) female professional teachers, nurses and forestry technical officers and about sixty per cent beauticians, dressmakers, traders and ‘pupil’ teachers (Asunafo North Assembly, Head Count and House Mapping, 2000 – 2004, Goaso; Centre for National Culture, 2008, Goaso). As a result, parents have poor perceptions about the role of girls’ education and tend to show poor interests in their daughters education. It was realized that about fifty per cent of female students who attend Senior High Schools in Goaso, Mim, Kukuom, Acherensua and Hwidiem in the Ahafo area have problems of poor parental support. These girls do not get their school fees paid up fully and lack personal needs like provisions and up-keep money often times. parents rather like to support their daughters to acquire basic education so that after completion they can help them in farming and trading.

In the Sunyani Municipality, the study revealed that perceptions and beliefs largely account for poor parental support for girls at the Senior High School level. About thirty percent of the workers are civil or public servants. Nearly sixty per cent of the people who are petty traders and subsistence farmers have abandoned themselves to the fate of being poor people and seemed to believe that they are not capable of looking after their families. Due to parents’ poor estimation of their abilities and the negative socio-cultural orientation that limit a woman’s role to the home, parents tend to shy away from giving adequate support to their daughters in school.

In the Kumasi Metropolis, the study indicated that the patterns of parent’s interests and socio-cultural values constituted constraints to female education. From the group discussions it was realized that girls were discriminated against when costs of financing higher education arose because of poor community attitude towards female

education and poor parental care which often happen due to high expenses on funerals and household goods (Boakye, 1977 cited in Sutherland-Addy, 2002 pp, 12-13; National Centre for Culture, Kumasi, 2008).

This finding has reaffirmed the assertion that home-environment factors exercise greater influence than the intelligence of the child for most parents in their decisions to invest in the education of their children (Fraser, 1959; Burns, 1964).

#### **4.3.2 Early Betrothal of Girls and Early Marriage**

The study showed that early betrothal of girls/early marriage has no direct relationship with female participation in the Asunafo North Municipality because the predominant tribe, Asante, Akan-speaking people and those people of minority tribes such as Ewe, Ga-Adangbe and northern origin do not countenance the practice in their midst. The reason is that the traditional authorities abhor the practice as it infringes on the rights to higher levels of education, independent life and improved standard of living. Therefore, this customary practice is not in existence among people.

In the Sunyani Municipality and Kumasi Metropolis, the study revealed that early betrothal of girls/early marriage is not a customary practice because the people who live in the two places abhor the practice. It was realized that opinion leaders and civil society organizations have over time organized talks, durbars and radio programmes to educate parents and the general public on the bad nature of the practice and encouraged parents to send their daughters to school.

#### **4.3.3 Teenage Pregnancy**

The study revealed that the incidence of teenage pregnancy among school girls does not affect female participation. The study unearthed the fact that since the 1980s feminine advocacy groups like the “Marie Gorie” which operated educational programmes in the Basic Schools and Senior High Schools in Asunafo North Municipality has created awareness about the dangers and consequences of teenage pregnancy through various programmes and activities including seminars, debates, camp meetings, drama and tours. The study also showed that a local NGO, Rural Motivators and Initiators has also created awareness among the general public on the

dangers of the HIV/AIDS menace and the need for people to abstain and/or protect themselves from its threat through weekly radio discussions in the municipality. As a result of the activities of these groups, girls have been equipped with information on female reproductive health, relevance of female education and the need to practise chastity. This has contributed significantly to a change in the sexual behaviour of girls and a low incidence of teenage pregnancy in the municipality. For instance, within the last 10 years only five cases of teenage pregnancies occurred among female students at the Senior High School level, and this involved final year students in Ahafoman Senior High Technical School in 2007 and 2008 academic years in the Asunafo North Municipality. These students though pregnant managed their condition to write their final year examination to complete school.

The study indicated that in the Sunyani Municipality too, since the 1980s another feminine group known as the “Virgins’ Club” which operates a programme similar to that of the Marie Gorie group in collaboration with a group in Canada has organized programmes on health, education and human rights to sensitize and equip girls in Basic School and Senior High School with information on health, sex education and child rights. Additionally, the study found that a Christian group, the "Scripture Union", which promotes Christian teachings has also been organizing forums and talks for students especially its members on chastity, parenting and child up-bringing. As a result, the confidence of girls has been built up in issues of sex education and health and this has contributed to reduce the incidence of teenage pregnancy among school girls in the municipality.

In the Kumasi Metropolis, the study found that the Girls' Education Unit in the Metropolitan Education Offices has since the 1990s been instrumental in the crusade against teenage pregnancy among female students in Basic and Senior High Schools. Through collaboration with the School Health Programme Coordinators and the Ghana Health Service, the Unit has organized seminars and forums on health and HIV/AIDS for pupils and students in Basic and Senior High Schools. This has contributed to a significant behavioural change among girls especially female students in the Senior High Schools on health issues many of whom now either abstain from pre-marital sex or take precaution to avoid unwanted pregnancies as they endeavour to pursue their education.

It should be stated that the incidence of girls leaving school pre-maturely due to teenage pregnancy cannot, however, be described as 'early marriage' because the study found no evidence on the ground. The study found no reliable documented evidence or accurate data on the incident which shows that the victims of teenage pregnancy actually got married either customarily or through the church system to those men responsible for their conditions or whether the victims ended up living as single teenage parents.

#### **4.3.4.1 Socio-Economic Practices and Conditions**

The study revealed that poor economic status of parents adversely restricts female participation. About 70 per cent of parents in the Asunafo North Municipality are poor subsistence farmers, cocoa farm care-takers and petty traders (Asunafo North Municipal Assembly, 2006, MTDP 2006, p. 41). The poverty-stricken circumstances and poor perceptions of parents about girls abilities makes it extremely difficult for them to sponsor their children especially girls to the Senior High School level given the higher cost of financing education at the Senior High School level. In an attempt to provide girls with a reasonable leverage in life, parents encourage their daughters to learn trades or vocations instead. For instance, between 2002 and 2007 about 9 percent of girls in the area who graduated from Junior High School who could not pursue further education due to financial constraints enrolled for apprenticeship training in vocations such as seamstressing/sewing or hair-dressing (Centre for National Culture, 2008, Goaso, Asunafo North Municipality).

In the Sunyani Municipality, the study indicated that the poor financial status of parents compelled them to enrol their children especially girls pursuing further education at the Senior High School level as day students. Despite this decision to cut down the educational cost about 40 per cent of girls in schools do not often have adequate parental support manifesting in poor provision of school and personal needs such as back-up textbooks, pamphlets, stationery, daily up-keep and dresses.

In the Kumasi Metropolis it was realized that about 30 percent of female students (day students and borders) do not receive adequate support in schooling. Like their counterparts elsewhere, the parents of these girls do not give adequate and prompt



attention to their daughters' school needs like the payment of fees, provision of school up-keep money and back-up textbooks. As stated earlier, this group of students comprises day students and borders. The borders suffer the brunt of the hardships because like most female borders they tend to rely much more on their provisions than the food provided by their schools' catering services while on campus. In the absence of adequate parental support, these girls often feel unhappy and helpless at school and this tends to affect their studies at school which contribute to their poor attendance and weak academic performance.

This finding has reaffirmed the assertion of Tadoro (1985), Psachoropoulos (1985) and Khan (1993) that home-environment factors such as low educational attainment, income, poverty and unwillingness of parents to bear educational costs of children are major factors that play a key role in the decisions of parents and families to invest in the education of girls in the developing countries.

#### **4.3.5.2 Girls' Involvement in Domestic Services**

The study revealed that about 10 percent of female students in the Senior High Schools in the Asunafo North Municipality live with foster or surrogate parents. These girls live with surrogate parents because their parents cannot afford the boarding fees in their schools. Often these girls provide numerous domestic services such as cooking, washing of clothes and utensils, and assist their surrogate parents on their farms as a form of support to these surrogate parents. As a result of the regular provision of such services, these girls end up stretched to the limit leaving them little or no time to study. Sometimes some of these girls attend school late missing their lessons and this affects their participation at school.

The study showed that the involvement of girls in home or domestic services does not, however, affect female participation in education in the Sunyani Municipality. It was realized that parents in this area rely on the services of their sons and daughters to provide their domestic services. Often while boys are assigned duties which involve weeding around the compound of their homes, tidying or cleaning up rooms in the house girls are given tasks such as cooking, care of siblings and washing clothing. In certain instances, very few parents, about 5 percent, rely on the services of house-helpers to carry out their domestic services at home. Besides parents assigning their



children responsibilities to perform at home, they also make arrangements for them to undertake their studies. Parents allow their children to either learn in the morning before performing their house chores or study in the evening after performing their duties before they go to sleep.

In the Kumasi Metropolis, the study revealed that parents mostly use the services of house-helpers to carry out much of the domestic chores in their homes. In some cases, parents assign their daughters domestic responsibilities like cooking and washing but often the house-helpers perform much of the domestic chores in many homes, and this provides the girls with the opportunity and time to undertake their studies.

#### **4.3.5.3 Girls' Involvement in Family Occupational Activities**

The study revealed that the regular involvement of girls in the occupational activities of their parents affects their participation in higher education. It was realized that about 60 per cent of parents in the Asunafo North Municipality are subsistence farmers and petty traders. These kinds of economic ventures yield low returns and income (Oppong and Abu, 1981) and coupled with the high incidence of poverty which is over 24 percent in the municipality (Asunafo North Assembly, MTDP, 2006, p. 41) the practitioners of these ventures find the cost of engaging hired labour expensive and prohibitive. Therefore, parents tend to engage the services of their children especially daughters because girls are reckoned as “soft” people who accept stipends as remuneration for services they render. The early and regular involvement of girls in these ventures have created in them a strong desire to practise them regularly on their own as a means of raising money while in school but this affects their participation in school and drive for further schooling (Ankomah, 1998, pp. 87 – 89).

In the Sunyani Municipality, it was realized that parents regularly involve girls in their family businesses like trading because they were reckoned as reliable, trustworthy and skilful people whose participation in their ventures attracts many customers to purchase their wares rapidly contributing to increased sales or turn over. The role girls play in their parents' businesses contributes to the loss of much of their time for studies and this is something which tends to affect their academic performance.

In the Kumasi Metropolis, the study revealed that there was no positive relationship between the involvement of girls in their parents' occupational activities and female participation. Firstly, about 40 per cent of merchants who are parents engage in large scale trading such as imports of new and used household items, spare parts, pharmaceuticals etc and exports of industrial products such as timber and aluminium products scarcely use the services of their daughters in running their business concerns. These merchants rather rely largely on the services of nephews or nieces and non-relations as sales agents, security officers and porters in their business activities.

Due to the strategic location of Kumasi in-migration to the city contributes to an abundant supply of cheap labour of young and energetic men and women from many parts of the country especially the northern part of the country (Kumasi Metropolitan Assembly, MTDP, 2006, p. 40). These young men and women often engage in all kinds of odd jobs for a small fee or stipend for a living. Merchants in the metropolis rely heavily on the availability of this cheap labour to carry out their occupational activities such as collection, loading and off-loading of goods and sale of items. In some circumstances parents have resorted to the use of their daughters in their businesses but their role has been minimal and restricted to duties such as receiving cash from sales or supervising the deposit of money at banks. Since girls play a minimal role in their parents' occupational activities they often get enough time to undertake their studies and do other things at school.

The finding in the Asunafo North and Sunyani Municipalities conform to earlier studies by (Bishop 1989), (Nikoi, 1998 p.59) and (Aryeetey, 2000, p. 235) that due to the economic contributions of girls to their families, female education is a low priority in poor families and communities in most developing countries.

#### **4.3.5 School-Environment Conditions**

Some school-environment conditions and practices have a strong bearing on the low female access and participation in education at the Senior High School level.

#### **4.3.5.1 Poor Female Academic Performance**

The study revealed that fifty-five per cent of adolescent girls who attend Junior High Schools and Senior High Schools in the Asunafo North Municipality spend much of their time to engage in activities not related to their education. More often, girls do petty trading in confectioneries or telephone cards and watch video at certain centres late into the night so that they do not study in the evenings. The indulgence of girls in these acts has contributed to the poor academic performance of females at school thereby affecting their participation (Table 3.8). Attempts to solve this social problem prompted the Asunafo North Municipal Assembly to enact bye- laws to restrict the activities of school children at night in the municipality (Asunafo North General Assembly, 2004, Goaso).

Again, the study showed that in the Sunyani Municipality weak parental control and female indulgence in female bravado activities contribute to poor female academic performance. About forty per cent of parents exercise little or no control over their children especially daughters. Some parents feel that their daughters are of age and for that reason they should have some level of freedom while other parents do not take pains to interact with their daughters to find out about their problems. Due to poor parental care and control over girls about forty per cent of female students indulge in pre-marital relationships in an attempt to raise “support” for their needs. These girls spend little time on their studies both at school and home and this affect their performance and participation in education.

In the Kumasi Metropolis, the study showed that as a result of the poor economic status of some parents more often than not these parents were not able to provide the school and other needs of their daughters promptly. As a result, these girls often felt helpless and emotionally disturbed. They therefore become traumatized something that affects their participation at school (Sutherland-Addy, 2002) and contributes to the pre-mature withdrawal of a few girls from school.

#### **4.3.5.2 Low Female Participation in Science and Technology**

The study showed that female students from Basic Schools do not often offer science at the Senior High School level. While Students who study Home Economics could select science subjects like Chemistry or Biology, General Arts I Programme students

could also select Elective Mathematics in addition to Core Mathematics if they so wish. Notwithstanding this, female participation in science is low. It was realized that in 2007 only 26 females out of 949 candidates and in 2008 27 out of 935 candidates constituting (2.7 per cent) and (2.9 per cent) respectively who qualified for placement in Senior High School in the municipality offered General Science in Senior High Schools across the country (CSSPS Records, 2007 and 2008, Asunafo North Municipal Education Directorate, Goaso). This shows that the issue of low female participation in science programmes here emanates from poor female performance at the basic school level.

In the Sunyani Municipality the study revealed that the poor perceptions of female students about their academic prowess have affected girls' participation in the study of science programmes. It was realized that girls perceive science as a difficult discipline because of the numerous mathematical calculations involved which they think boys can handle better or easily than girls. Therefore, female students shy away from studying science.

In the Kumasi Metropolis, it was realized that a mix of socio-cultural and school-related factors has conspired to limit female participation in the study of science and technology programmes. It was revealed that female students often selected courses like General Arts, Business and Home Economics which they perceive as "soft" or "manageable" because such programmes did not require a lot of mental drill and they could easily pass to gain admission to pursue nursing and teaching professions in the future. It was also realized that the absence of credible female role models tended to provide little motivation for girls in the study of science and technology and this seemed to reinforce the perception that science is a male dominated discipline (Anamuah-Mensah, 2000, pp. 17-19). The study revealed that only three female tutors teach science and mathematics in two Senior High Schools in the Metropolis. Two of these female are tutors in Kumasi Anglican Senior High School and the other one was in Yaa Asanatewaa Girls' Senior High School. Other female teachers at the Senior High School level in the metropolis teach liberal arts subjects and Home Economics. In the other two municipalities of Asunafo North and Sunyani the study did not find any female tutor who teaches a science-related subject in the schools covered under the study.

#### **4.3.5.3 Teacher Attitude and Questioning Techniques**

The study found that in the Asunafo North Municipality the attitude and work of teachers have not adversely affected the participation of girls in secondary education. The study showed that the conduct of teachers' professional duties was guided by a code of conduct of their profession which did not allow them to engage in acts of discrimination and segregation. Due to this, teachers in the act of questioning students in classrooms in an attempt to elucidate correct or appropriate responses about issues did not direct their questions to selected students in a particular sex group or even base their questions on students' abilities but rather they often tried to involve all groups of students (brilliant and non-brilliant; female and male students,) to allow them to express their opinion on issues or make contributions to issues under discussion at any time.

The study found that in the Sunyani Municipality and in Kumasi Metropolis the work of teachers was not tainted with acts of discrimination. The study revealed that teachers usually did not discriminate among the sexes. Usually, teachers in the course of presenting topics or issues for discussions, they often started at the rudimentary level on the assumption that none of the students (boys or girls) knew the topic and through acts of questioning, discussions and illustrations the students are assisted to bring up the main issues or the salient points on a topic for the consumption of all of them. The study also revealed that some group of students (boys and girls) found their studies difficult because they performed poorly due partly to their poor attendance caused by weak parental care, peer pressure and/or indulgence in vices such as gambling and pre-marital relationships.

This finding has shown that the assertion of Evans and King (1991) that discriminatory acts of teachers are a contributory factor to low female participation in education in developing countries is not applicable in the study areas.

#### **4.3.6 Political and Institutional Policies of Government**

The study indicated that in the Asunafo North Municipality the 1974 and 1987 education reform programmes policies on access and participation contributed to some level of improvement in female participation at the Senior High School level.



The implementation of the 1974 education reform programme led to the establishment of the Kukuom Agricultural Senior High School and the absorption of Goaso Ahafoman Senior High Technical School into the public system as government-assisted schools. Also, the implementation of the 1987 education reform programme led to the introduction of the Science Technical and Mathematics Education (STME) clinics which generated huge female interests in science and technology programmes at the Basic School and Senior High School levels. Despite improvement in female participation and whipping up female interests in science, the issue of low female participation in education at the Senior High School level continues.

Again, the study showed that in the Sunyani Municipality and Kumasi Metropolis though the implementation of the 1974 and 1987 education reform programmes contributed to improvement in female enrolment and provision of school facilities yet it failed to translate into sustained female participation in education at the Senior High School level because female access and survival rates have continued to lag behind male participation rates (Table 3.12).

This finding has confirmed King and Evans' (1991) claim that the issue of low female participation in education in developing countries is perpetuated largely by government policies in those countries.

#### **4.3.7 Government Sub-Agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations Intervention**

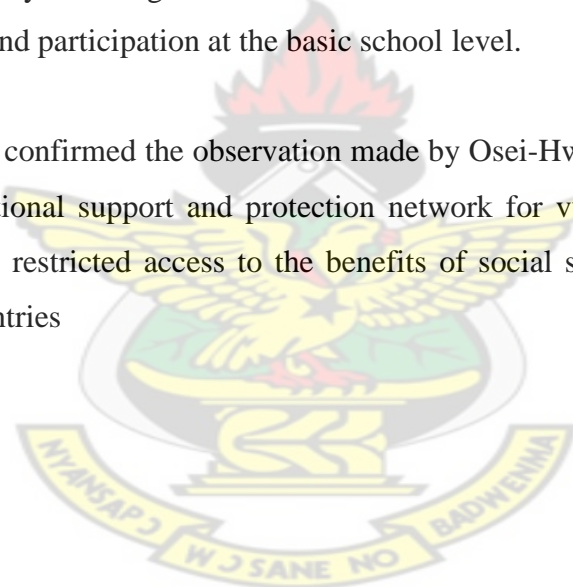
The study indicated that weak local institutional support has a direct relationship with low female participation in secondary Senior High School education. The study revealed that neither the Asunafo North Assembly nor Action-Aid, Ghana, a Non-Governmental Organisation which operates in the municipality instituted a sustainable educational programme for girls at the Senior High School level in the municipality. It was realized that since 1996 the Assembly has developed social capital in the form of school infrastructure (library structures, students' dormitory) and provided financial support for organizing Science, Technology and Mathematics Education Clinics (STME). It was also realized that between 2002 and 2008 Action-Aid, Ghana collaborated with the Asunafo North Municipal Assembly to operate an educational scheme known as the Rural Education Volunteers (REVs) programme. The scheme



offered employment to Senior High School graduates who did not obtain entry requirements to enter tertiary institutions for further studies and financial assistance to Circuit Supervisors. The scheme did not, however, provide support for female education at the Senior High School level in any way.

It was realized that in the Sunyani Municipality, the Assembly has also expended huge resources to provide classroom blocs and furniture (desks, chairs, cupboards) for Basic Schools but it has not instituted any special support programme for female education at the Senior High School level. In the Kumasi Metropolis too, the study revealed that though the Assembly has developed the infrastructure base of Basic Schools through the construction of school buildings, libraries and provision of furniture in the metropolis in the area of female education at the Senior High School level the Assembly has not given much attention to it because the assembly's aim is to expand access and participation at the basic school level.

The finding has confirmed the observation made by Osei-Hwedie and Bar-on that due to weak institutional support and protection network for vulnerable groups such as girls, girls have restricted access to the benefits of social services like education in developing countries



## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **5.0 RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the recommendations and the final conclusion of the study based on the key findings. Specifically, appropriate recommendations have been made to address the factors that have affected female participation in secondary education as discussed in Chapter Four in a bid to achieve a sustainable level of female participation in Senior High School education. The recommendations made are based on the set objectives outlined in the study.

#### **5.2 Suggestions to Achieve Sustainable Female Participation in Senior High School Education**

The factors that affect female participation in education relate to attitudes, parental behaviour and interest patterns, societal beliefs and practices, socio-cultural practices, socio-economic conditions, school-environment conditions and institutional policy practices. Any efforts directed towards promoting and achieving sustainable female participation in secondary education would require multiple perspectives and multi-sectoral approaches including policy changes to correct these shortcomings in the society.

##### **5.2.1 Parental Attitudes, Behavioural and Interest Patterns, and Perceptions**

Firstly, parents should have positive attitude and outlook towards female education and always encourage girls to adopt successfully educated women both near and far in the society as role models. Additionally, parents should often collaborate with school authorities to organize durbars and open-days for students. Some successfully educated women in the communities and outside could be invited to share their experiences or talk with the girls.

Also, parents should always endeavour to provide their daughters' schools needs such as fees, textbooks, pamphlets, stationery and up-keep money because the failure to do so make girls feel unhappy in school and tends to affect their participation in school.

### **5.2.2 Socio-Economic Practices and Conditions**

Secondly, the issue of cost-sharing in Senior High School education has served the purpose of a double-edged sword for many parents and families. While the payment of fees has helped to sharpen many parents' ability to share the cost of providing education to Ghanaian children at the Senior High School level with government, the policy has also constituted a barrier to the education of children from poor families in the society. In a bid to minimize the burden of payment of fees on parents, the government should absorb a greater percentage of the current fees in the Senior High Schools and reduce the fees from GH¢180.00 and ¢260.00 to ¢80.00 and ¢160.00 so that parents can readily afford its payment. This is because the average monthly incomes or earnings of the Ghanaian worker and/or farmer are low which range between U.S \$60 and U.S \$74 (Teal, 1998, p. 18; GLSS, 1998/99, p. 102). Therefore, the reduction in fees will make the payment of school fees easier and also help parents to provide other basic needs of their daughters.

Also, the government should also give special dispensation to girls in the payment of fees. Lower levels of school fees of GH¢ 90.00 and ¢130.00, constituting a fifty percent reduction in fees should be fixed for day students and boarders respectively. The government should absorb the proportion of the fees to be slashed off for girls. It is suggested that the government should use part of the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GETFUND) to pay the fees. If this is done, it will constitute a firm commitment by the government towards promoting girls' education and this will also make the payment of fees for girls in Senior High Schools affordable to parents. Again, parents should form and operate cooperative schemes just as some social groups do to enable them pool their resources together to finance the education of their daughters. When this is done, it will afford poor parents greater capacity to pay their wards' school fees and provide the school needs of their daughters.

### **5.2.3 School-Environment Conditions**

Thirdly, improved female academic performance will contribute to improved female participation in Senior High School education, and will enhance female training and skill acquisition in the country. The government should amend the national curriculum designed for Senior High Schools to incorporate a new formulation of the concept of "remedial tuition". The government should formulate a policy that would

expand the scope of remedial tuition to serve the needs of weak students and provide extra tuition for female students. It is suggested that a Remedial Tuition Scheme should be incorporated into the national curriculum of the Senior High Schools. The scheme should make provision for additional teaching hours of at least two and at most three hours of tuition for three days each in every week.

It is also suggested that the government should pay an allowance of three Ghana Cedis (GH¢ 3.0) per teacher per week in the Senior High Schools to compensate for the extra man-hours they would spend on the remedial tuition because head teachers and heads of institutions in the Ghana Education Service currently receive responsibility allowances between GH¢ 2.0 and GH¢ 4.0 from the government (Payment of Allowances to Heads of Schools, 2008, Asunafo North Municipal Education Directorate, Goaso).

Additionally, the government should institute a Science and Technology Scheme for female education with support from industries and organizations. The scheme should give recognition and support to all female students and female teachers in the field of science and technology. Female students in Junior High Schools and Senior High Schools who excel in science and mathematics should be given awards and a support package of financial award and study material to encourage them to pursue science in their education.

#### **5.2.4 Political and Institutional Policies of Government**

Fourthly, for the nation to derive the expected benefits of female education, it is suggested that the government should formulate a policy of selective admission with elements of affirmative action for female students at the Senior High School level in the country. Currently, any candidate who obtains a total aggregate between 6 and 30 is deemed qualified to be admitted to pursue a programme of study at the Senior High School level. For purposes of economy, the government should incorporate this selection procedure into the Computerized School Selection and Placement System (CSSPS) at the Basic School level and any other admission selection procedures for tertiary institutions other than the universities and lower the qualifying entry grades to 35 for girls. It is worthy to note that the universities have already instituted the policy of affirmative action on their own volition in the admissions of students.

What needs to be done at the university level regarding female admission is that the

government should appoint a committee of officials from the Universities, Polytechnics, Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports, Ghana Education Service and eminent Ghanaians. The Committee members should be mandated to visit institutions that implement the programme to check its implementation, and if lapses are found the Committee should make recommendations to the government to apply the necessary regulatory measures to ensure that the scheme operates smoothly.

Alternatively, government should enact a policy that will ensure gender equity in the admission of girls at the Senior High School level. For instance, the government should introduce a quota system in the admission of students into Senior High Schools. One way equity can be achieved is to spell out the admission of Junior High School graduates on a fifty: fifty (50:50) or fifty-five : forty-five (55:45) male-female basis to ensure that girls with lower pass grades are admitted. Another way to achieve gender equity is to operate special Senior High Schools for female students who do not meet the admission entry requirements. Girls who will be admitted to these Senior High Schools with lower grades should undergo an initial one year tune-up tuition after which they can join the mainstream of Senior High School. This means that if the SHS programme is four years, this group of female students will pursue their course in five years. Both parents and government will need to make sacrifices to achieve the objectives of such a programme.

In addition, government's policies should give recognition to the issue of female education at all levels in the education sector of this country. The government should formulate a policy that would accord female education at the Senior High School level greater attention such as issues of prudent economic management of the national economy, low-cost health finance provision (health insurance) and energy matters have occupied central positions in the activities of political parties in the country. Political parties should formulate policies on female education in their manifestos. Each party should spell out the nature of the problem, measures it will employ to solve the problem at each level and how it will mobilize resources to deal with the problem. The policies of parties should be tabled on the political platform of the parties for scrutiny by the general public so that the issues which will emanate from the discussions will inform the decisions of the electorate whether to vote for or vote against a party in the general elections.



Again, government should set up a separate fund with contributions from government, private individuals and institutions within the country solely for financing female education in the country. The fund could serve the purpose of providing financial support for the organization of sensitization programmes such as durbars, fora and talks on the relevance of female education, provide scholarship or bursaries for girls who excel in their studies, pay tutors who will organise extra tuition for female students as stated earlier on and purchase materials and equipment for female students.

### **5.2.5 Government Sub-Agencies and Non-Governmental Organisations**

Next, District/Municipal/Metropolitan Assemblies should show more commitment to the development of education at the Senior High School level than they are doing now. Currently, the Assemblies spend a lot of their development budget on education at the basic level as stated earlier on. Firstly, the Assemblies should increase their share of development assistance to education for female education at the Senior High School level. Most of the Senior High Schools do not have adequate on-campus residential accommodation or facilities for girls. The Assemblies should now focus their attention on the provision of residential accommodation in the form of dormitory facilities to increase female intake in the Senior High Schools.

Secondly, the Assemblies should establish a scholarship scheme for female education. From the scheme, financial assistance could be given out to support girls who enrol in the Senior High Schools. Every year, provisions and stationery items could be supplied to all female students from the scheme. Additionally, the Assemblies should collaborate with school authorities at the local level to establish night schools for girls who have completed Junior High School or Senior High School who did not obtain the entry requirements to enter Senior High Schools or tertiary institutions. The purpose of the night schools is to organize and conduct remedial classes for these girls to enable them improve upon their performance to further their education.

The assemblies should take steps to attract Non-Governmental Organisations to their operational areas. District/Municipal/Metropolitan assemblies should enter into collaborative programmes with NGOs to provide study materials such as textbooks,



pamphlets and stationery for girls. Alternatively, NGOs should develop programmes which will bring parents, school authorities, female students and officials of the Assemblies together to discuss issues related to female education such as girls' welfare, academic performance and human rights at the Senior High School level. Besides, NGOs should organise talks and seminars at certain times for parents, girls and government officials at local and national levels to sensitize them on their roles and responsibilities so that the stakeholders would be empowered to demand changes to policies and practices that might be harmful or retrogressive to female education especially at the Senior High School level when ever necessary.

#### **5.2.6 Early Betrothal of Girls, Early Marriage and Provision of Domestic Duties**

Lastly, the issue of teenage pregnancy is a multi-faceted problem and this needs a multi-faceted approach to overcome it. Both parents and victims have a role to play to overcome this social and moral challenge in the society. Parents should exercise greater responsibility towards the welfare of their children especially girls. Parents should foster the culture of parent-child interaction in their family relations. Parents, especially mothers should often interact with their daughters to find out their needs, interests and challenges at any time so that they can take immediate steps to solve any emerging problems their daughters may face in their education. On the part of the victims, it was realized that most of them suffered child-isolation or neglect because they neither had access to, nor the moral courage to discuss their problems with their parents.

School clubs and social groups such as the Virgins' Clubs which seek women's welfare and development should regularly organize workshops for girls on fundamental human rights and advocacy skills. When girls are empowered this way, it will help them to have self-confidence to discuss their problems with their parents. Constant parent-child interface will enable parents to know the problems and needs of their daughters and give quick attention to save them from falling victims to the machinations of unsuspecting but irresponsible people.

### 5.3 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is worthy to note that circumstances differ from place to place and the social terrain being dynamic keeps changing from time to time just as the factors which precipitate events in the social milieu also change status from time to time. The study has revealed that factors such as early betrothal of girls, early marriage, girls' involvement in home management services and the act of questioning students in schools which some scholars postulated as significant factors which negatively affect female participation in education turned out to be insignificant influences and non-starter factors in the issue of female participation in education at the Senior High School level in the study areas.

The study, however, revealed that parental attitudes, behavioural and interest patterns, beliefs and perceptions about the roles and abilities of women, poverty, cost-sharing in education, poor female academic performance, low female participation in science and technology studies, girls' involvement in family business, government educational policies and weak institutional social support at the local level turned out as significant factors that conspire to restrict female access and participation at the Senior High School level in the study areas. This latter group of factors have negatively affected female participation in education at the Senior High School level and have contributed to the whole saga of low female participation in Senior High School education in this country.

From the findings, it can be concluded that a combination of attitudinal, socio-cultural, economic, political, operational and institutional factors have conspired to restrict female participation in education at the Senior High School level in the study areas. As a way out of the problem, a number of recommendations have been made which if accepted and implemented by policy makers, policy implementing agencies, social support groups and parents as a whole would help to correct the lapses that have plagued female education at the Senior High School level in the three study areas and help to improve female participation in education to acceptable levels in the country as a whole.

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## Appendix I

### Questionnaire for Senior High School Female Students and Graduates

#### **FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AT THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF THE EDUCATION REFORM PROGRAMMES IN GHANA: ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF CAUSAL FACTORS OF GENDER INEQUALITY**

#### **A CASE STUDY OF ASUNAFO NORTH AND SUNYANI MUNICIPALITIES IN BRONG-AHAFO REGION AND KUMASI METROPOLITAN AREA IN ASHANTI REGION**

KNUST

Questionnaire Number .....

Name of Municipality/Metropolis.....

1. Is female education important in the development of this country?

Yes [ ☐ ]

No [ ☐ ]

If “yes” why is it important?

.....  
.....

2. Is the level of female participation in education at Senior High School (SHS) level in your municipality/metropolis what you expect it to be?

Yes [ ☐ ]

No [ ☐ ]

If “no”, explain why.

.....  
.....

3. Is female participation in education at SHS level affected by socio-economic practices here? Yes [ ☐ ] No [ ☐ ]

Explain:

4. Does the perception or belief that female academic performance is poor affect female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

No [ ]

.....

.....

5. Is female participation in education at SHS level affected by parental attitude in your municipality/metropolis?

No [ ]

.....

6 Would you say that beliefs that a woman's role lies in the kitchen or in housekeeping affect female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

No [ ]

.....

7. Should parents bear part of the cost (fees, levies etc) of providing education at the SHS level in this country?

No [ ]

.....

.....

8. In your opinion, does poverty affect female participation in education at SHS level

in your municipality/metropolis?

Yes [   ]

No [   ]

if “yes” how?

.....  
.....

9. How does the act of girls performing domestic chores affect female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....  
.....

10. Show how the act of engaging girls in family businesses like trading or farming affect female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....  
.....

11. What role do you expect government to play to improve female participation in education at SHS level?

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

12. What has the Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly done to improve female participation in education at the SHS level here since 1986?

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

13. In order to improve female participation in education at the SHS level in your municipality/metropolis what do you suggest these groups should do:

Parents/Guardians:

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

Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly:

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

End. Thank you, God Bless you

KNUST



**Appendix II**  
**Questionnaire for Parents and Guardians**

**FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AT THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF THE EDUCATION REFORM PROGRAMMES IN GHANA: ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF CAUSAL FACTORS OF GENDER INEQUALITY**

**A CASE STUDY OF ASUNAFO NORTH AND SUNYANI MUNICIPALITIES IN BRONG-AHAFO REGION AND KUMASI METROPOLITAN AREA IN ASHANTI REGION**

KNUST

Questionnaire Number .....

Name of Municipality/Metropolis.....

Sex: Male [    ]                      Female [    ]

Age: 25 – 34 [    ]    35 – 44 [    ]    45 – 54 [    ]    55 – 64 [    ]

1. How would you describe the level of female participation in education at the Senior High School (SHS) in this municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....  
.....

2. Would you agree to the claim that female participation in education at SHS level is constrained by the following societal perceptions or socio-cultural practices?

i.    Girls are academically weak?

Yes [    ]

No [    ]

If “yes”, how has female participation at SHS level been affected here?

.....

.....

ii. Beliefs that a woman's role lies in the kitchen/house-keeping?

Yes [   ]

No [   ]

If "yes", how has female participation at SHS level been affected here?

.....

.....

iii. Parental attitude?

Yes [   ]

No [   ]

If "yes", how has female participation at SHS level been affected here?

.....

.....

3. Is it necessary that parents and government share the cost (fees, levies etc) of providing education at the SHS level in this country?

Yes [   ]

No [   ]

Explain:

.....

.....

4. In what ways does cost-sharing (payment of fees, levies etc) affect female participation in education at the SHS level here?

.....

.....

5. Is female participation in education at SHS level affected by economic circumstances and practices such as poverty and families' engaging girls in their businesses in your municipality/metropolis?

Yes [   ]

No [   ]

ii. if "yes", explain how has female participation at SHS level been affected here?

.....

.....



i. Have you heard about the Education Reform Programmes of 1974 and 1986?

Yes [   ]

No [   ]

ii. What changes did the 1974 Education Reform Programme bring to female education at SHS level here?

.....  
.....

iii. What new changes did the 1986 Education Reform Programme bring to female education at SHS level here?

.....  
.....

6. Which bodies or organizations (e.g. NGOs, Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly etc) provide support for female participation in education at the SHS level here?

.....  
.....

i. How has the work of NGOs helped to improve female participation in education at SHS level here since 1974?

Explain

.....  
.....

ii. How has the Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly helped to improve female participation in education at SHS level here since 1974?

Explain:

.....  
.....

7. What can these stakeholders do to improve female participation in education at the SHS level in your municipality/metropolis:

Parents/Guardians:

.....  
.....

Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly:

.....  
.....

NGOs:

.....  
.....

End. Thank you, God Bless you

KNUST



### **Appendix III**

#### **Questionnaire for Education Directorate Officials**

#### **FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AT THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF THE EDUCATION REFORM PROGRAMMES IN GHANA: ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF CAUSAL FACTORS OF GENDER INEQUALITY**

#### **A CASE STUDY OF ASUNAFO NORTH AND SUNYANI MUNICIPALITIES IN BRONG-AHAFO REGION AND KUMASI METROPOLITAN AREA IN ASHANTI REGION**

Questionnaire Number .....

Name of Municipality/Metropolis.....

Sex: Male [ ☐ ] Female [ ☐ ]

Age: 25 – 34 [ ☐ ] 35 – 44 [ ☐ ] 45 – 54 [ ☐ ] 55 – 64 [ ☐ ]

Position/Rank: Director [ ☐ ] Assistant Director [ ☐ ] Principal Superintendent [ ☐ ]

Other [ ☐ ]

1. Should female education be encouraged in national development efforts in this country?

Yes [ ☐ ] No [ ☐ ]

Explain:

.....  
.....

2. Assess female participation in education at SHS level in your

municipality/metropolis.

.....

.....

3. How would you like female academic performance to be like in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....

.....

4. What are some of the obstacles to female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

Please, list them:

.....

.....

.....

5. How have these obstacles you listed in question 4 affected female participation in education at the SHS level in institutions in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....

.....

.....

6. Would you say that policies in the education sector have contributed to low female participation in education at SHS level over the last thirty (30) years?

Explain:

.....

.....

7. What should government do to improve female participation in education at the SHS level?

.....

.....

8. i. Did the Education Reform Programme of 1974 address the issue of female participation in education at the SHS level?

Yes [    ]

No [    ]

ii. If your answer to question 8i, is “yes” explain its effects on female participation in education at SHS level since 1974 in your municipality/metropolis.

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

9. i. In your opinion did the Education Reform Programme of 1986 address the issue of female participation in education at the SHS level?

Yes [    ]

No [    ]

ii. If your answer to question 9i, is “yes” explain its effects on female participation in education at SHS level since 1986 in your municipality/metropolis.

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

10. What interventions or female-related programmes have the Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly introduced to improve female participation in education at the SHS level here?

.....  
.....

11. Has female participation in education at SHS level improved since the interventions?

Explain:

.....  
.....

12. What can these stakeholders do to improve female participation in education at the SHS level in your municipality/metropolis:

Parents/Guardians:

.....

.....

.....

Ministry of Education, Science and Sports:

.....

.....

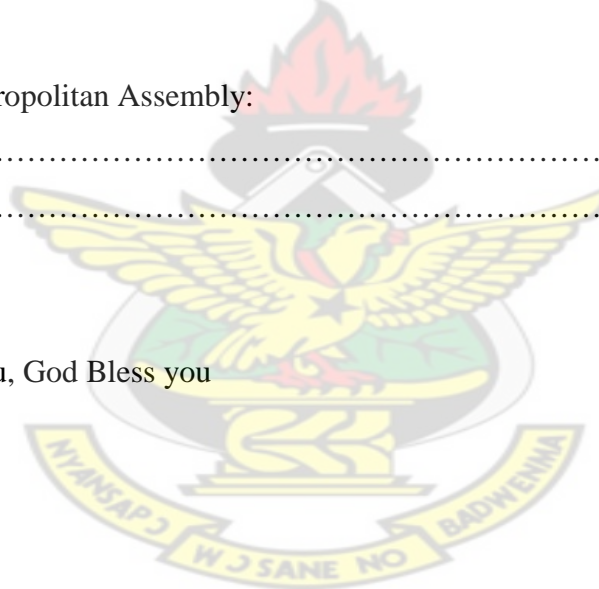
.....

Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly:

.....

.....

End. Thank you, God Bless you





**Appendix IV**  
**Questionnaire for Tutors**

**FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AT THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF THE EDUCATION REFORM PROGRAMMES IN GHANA: ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF CAUSAL FACTORS OF GENDER INEQUALITY**

**A CASE STUDY OF ASUNAFO NORTH AND SUNYANI MUNICIPALITIES IN BRONG-AHAFO REGION AND KUMASI METROPOLITAN AREA IN ASHANTI REGION**

KNUST

Questionnaire Number .....

Name of Municipality/Metropolis.....

Sex: Male [    ]

Female [    ]

Age: 25 – 34 [    ]    35 – 44 [    ]    45 – 54 [    ]    55 – 64 [    ]

1. What role can female education play in national development efforts of this country?

Explain:

.....  
.....

i. Are you satisfied with the level of female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

If your answer is “yes”, explain.

.....  
.....

ii. If your answer is “no”, what are the constraints to female participation in education at SHS level here?

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

2. What is the level of female participation in the study of science-related courses in institutions in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....  
.....

3. What are some of the hindrances to female students’ participation in the study of science-related courses at SHS level in institutions in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

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

4. What is your view of female academic performance at the SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....  
.....

5. How can female students’ academic performance at SHS level in schools/institutions be improved in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....  
.....

6. Whose responsibility is it to ensure that female participation in education at the SHS level meets national standards?

Explain:

.....  
.....

7. In your opinion, was the issue of female participation in education at the secondary or SHS level addressed by the Education Reform Programmes of 1974 and 1986?

Explain:

.....  
.....

i. In your view, what was the impact of the Education Reform Programme of 1974 on female participation in education at SHS level here?

Explain, please, give specific examples:

.....  
.....

ii. What has been the impact of the Education Reform Programme of 1986 on female participation in education at SHS level here?

Explain, please, give specific examples:

.....  
.....

8. Suggest means stakeholders can effectively use to address the issue of female participation in education at the SHS level.

School Authorities:

.....  
.....

Government:

.....  
.....

End. Thank you, God Bless you.

**Appendix V**  
**Questionnaire for District/Municipal/Metropolitan Assemblies and NGO**  
**Officials**

**FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION AT THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL LEVEL WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF THE EDUCATION REFORM PROGRAMMES IN GHANA: ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF CAUSAL FACTORS OF GENDER INEQUALITY**

**A CASE STUDY OF ASUNAFO NORTH AND SUNYANI MUNICIPALITIES IN BRONG-AHAFO REGION AND KUMASI METROPOLITAN AREA IN ASHANTI REGION**

Questionnaire Number .....

Name of Municipality/Metropolis.....

Sex: Male [    ]                      Female [    ]

Age: 25 – 34 [    ]    35 – 44 [    ]    45 – 54 [    ]    55 – 64 [    ]    65+ [    ]

Schedule: .....

Position/Rank: .....

1. How relevant is female education in current national development efforts in this country?

Explain:

.....  
.....

2. What are some of the challenges to female participation in education at SHS level

in your municipality/metropolis?

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

3. In your opinion would say that female participation in education at SHS is constrained by socio-cultural practices or factors such as parental attitude, early marriage and beliefs that a woman's role lies in the kitchen or house-keeping?

Yes [    ]

No [    ]

Explain:

.....  
.....

4. How have the following perceptions or practices influenced female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

i. parental attitude

.....  
.....

ii. beliefs that a woman's role lies in the kitchen

.....  
.....

iii. belief that women perform academically poorly

.....  
.....

iv. early betrothal of girls

.....  
.....

5. Is the claim that economic circumstances and practices (e.g. poverty, girls performing domestic chores, engaging girls in family businesses like farming/trading etc) affect female participation in education at SHS level true?

If your answer is ‘no’, explain.

.....  
.....

6. If your answer question 5 is “yes”, how have these practices or circumstances affected female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

i. poverty

.....  
.....

ii. the act of engaging girls in family businesses, e.g. farming/trading

.....  
.....

iii. girls performing domestic chores

.....  
.....

7. What are your expectations about government policies on education at SHS level?

Explain:

.....  
.....

8. Did the policy initiatives or measures in the Education Reform Programmes of 1974 and 1986 meet your expectations regarding female participation in education at the SHS level?

Yes [   ]

No [   ]

If “yes”, explain how the initiatives have helped to improve female participation in education at SHS level in your municipality/metropolis.

.....  
.....

If your answer to question 8 is “no”, state your reservations about the policy initiatives.



i. 1974 Education Reform Programme

.....  
.....

ii. 1986 Education Reform Programme

.....  
.....

9. i. Has the Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly any programmes that address challenges female students encounter in schooling at the SHS levels here?

Yes [    ]

No [    ]

9ii. If your answer is “Yes” what have been the effects of these programmes on female participation in education at the SHS level in your municipality/metropolis?

Explain:

.....  
.....

10. What can the following stakeholders do to improve female participation in education at the SHS level in your municipality/metropolis:

Parents/Guardians:

.....  
.....

Ministry of Education, Science and Sports:

.....  
.....

Municipal/Metropolitan Assembly:

.....  
.....

The End. Thank you, God Bless you.