

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA**

**DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

**SUSTAINING PROGRESS MADE FROM GIRLS' EDUCATION INITIATIVES -  
PERSPECTIVES FROM CARE'S 'REGAL' PROJECT IN RURAL AND URBAN  
COMMUNITIES OF THE SEKYERE CENTRAL DISTRICT**

**BY**

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## DECLARATION

This is to certify that this thesis is the result of research undertaken by John Tetey Luwornor towards the award of the Master of Philosophy degree in Geography and Resource Development, University of Ghana and that information derived from the literature has been duly acknowledged in the text and list of references provided.

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## ABSTRACT

Ensuring sustainable development across the globe means reducing poverty to its lowest ebb among the world's poorest groups of which women are in the majority. The surest way of achieving this aim is through education hence a lot of education initiatives and investment in educational infrastructure particularly for girls across the world by different organizations over the years. Amid the immense strides made, a lot of challenges persist limiting the success of gains made in respects of new global agenda especially in deprived and rural districts. It is in this context that this study examined the sustainability of gains made and examines drawbacks from a girl's education improvement initiative, the REGAL Project by CARE International in rural and urban communities in the Sekeyre Central District. Drawing on Unterhalter et al, (2014) Theory of Change and Shediak-Rizkallah & Bone Sustainability framework, the study assessed the current state of school facilities and interventions aimed at improving girls' enrolment, community participation and how challenges to sustained improvement in quality education for girls in deprived and poor areas are being negotiated. Using a multi stage sampling procedure, 150 respondents were selected for a survey in two rural communities (Abasua and Ankamadoa) and two urban communities (Nsuta and Beposo) in the Sekyere Central District. Personal interviews and observation were also used to solicit information. The study shows improvement in girls' access, attendance and progress over the years in all communities but one rural community still underperformed in key indicators in sanitation and health, community and parental support and obstacles to girls' education confirming results of other studies. Accordingly, the study suggests continuous advocacy and community engagements in rural communities, teacher involvement and drastic reduction in cost of education at all levels by government and the continuous courting of support from opinion leaders in communities by organizations that undertake education improvement projects for continuous benefits.

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To God be the Glory!!

## **DEDICATION**

This thesis is dedicated to My Father, Emmanuel Tettey Luwornor and twin brother, James Tettey Knowels Luwornor.



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### LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	-	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BECE	-	Basic Education Certificate Examination
BIAAG	-	Because I Am A Girl
CAMFED	-	Campaign for Female Education
CARE	-	Cooperative for Assistance and Relief Everywhere
CEDAW	-	Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women
DOVVSU	-	Domestic Violence and Victim Support Unit
CEI	-	Community Education Initiative
CERGIS	-	Center for Remote Sensing and Geographic Information Systems
DA	-	District Assembly
DFID	-	Department for International Development
EFA	-	Education for All
EIU	-	Economic Intelligent Unit
ESP	-	Education Strategic Plan
FAWE	-	Forum for African Women Educators
FCUBE	-	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
FGM	-	Female Genital Mutilation
FTI	-	Fast Track Initiative
GDP	-	Gross Domestic Product
GES	-	Ghana Education Service
GETFUND	-	Ghana Education Trust Fund
GEU	-	Girls' Education Unit
GOG	-	Government of Ghana

GPE	-	Global Partnership for Education
GPI	-	Gender Parity Index
GSPF	-	Ghana School Feeding Program
GSGDA	-	Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda
GSS	-	Ghana Statistical Service
HIV	-	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
IDS	-	Institute for Development Studies
ICT	-	Information Communication Technology
JHS / JSS	-	Junior High School / Junior Secondary School
KG	-	Kindergarten
MDG's	-	Millennium Development Goals
MOE	-	Ministry of Education
NGO's	-	Non Governmental Organizations
PLA	-	Participatory Learning and Appraisal
PTA	-	Parent Teachers Association
R\C	-	Roman Catholic
REGAL	-	Responsibility for Education of Girls Active Learning
RESA	-	Region of Eastern and Southern Africa
SAGE	-	Strategy for Advancing Girls Education
SDG's	-	Sustainable Development Goals
SHEP	-	School Health Education Program
SHS / SSS	-	Senior High School / Senior Secondary School
SMC	-	School Management Committee
SMT	-	Science, Mathematics and Technology
STI's	-	Sexually Transmitted Infections

UN	-	United Nations
UNESCO	-	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNFPA	-	United Nations Population Fund
UNGEI	-	United Nations Girls Education Initiative
UNICEF	-	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	-	United States Agency for International Development
WARO	-	West African Regional Office
WHO	-	World Health Organization



## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background to the study

Women and girls account for majority of the world's people and also accounts for majority of the world's poorest billion persons. UNESCO (2015a) holds the view that this phenomenon is attributable to the huge number of illiterate women who make up 64 percent of the 781 million illiterate people worldwide probably never having access to basic education. Although basic education is seen as a basic right for everybody worldwide, UNESCO (2013) establish that children not attending primary school are about 69 million around the world and more than half of these children not attending primary schools are girls. Also UNICEF (2014) recognize that Sub-Saharan Africa alone accounts for 47 percent of out-of school children worldwide and 54 percent of these out of school children are girls whose dropout rate is as high as 70 percent. Winthrop and McGivney (2014) further states that out of the total of 75 percent of girls that are able to start school in Sub Saharan Africa, only 8 percent are able to finish.

Following from the above, Lloyd et al (2010) and Winthrop and McGivney (2015) observes that more girls disadvantaged of getting into schools and completing as well as learning are in rural areas and from the poorest families thereby perpetuating poverty and increasing inequality among rural and urban folks and evidence from (UNESCO, 2015b) has shown that, it is the underprivileged and rural girls that are greatly behind in education. King and Winthrop (2015) shows that at current rates it will take 70 years or longer for girls in poor and rural areas to reach universal lower secondary completion as privileged boys. Focusing on inability of achieving equality in education around the world and particularly Sub-Saharan Africa, Tanye (2008) enumerated many barriers which are also more pervasive in rural areas

affecting quality education and girls' access to education due to the many vulnerabilities girls in these areas are exposed to. These barriers to getting many girls educated includes early marriage, adolescent pregnancy, child labour, school related gender based violence, poverty, unfavorable school environment, and entrenched discriminatory social norms.

As acknowledged by Swaisson (1996), the surest way to empower women is through education which necessitated the need for numerous gender specific education projects since the 1980's in many developing countries to remove barriers that hinder the education of more women. As observed by the UNESCO (2007), the goal of these initiatives has not just being about putting children into classrooms but also to support more girls and boys realize the true erudition they require to be able to survive the vicissitudes of life. Sperling and Winthrop (2015) noted that tangible, impactful and important improvements in girls' education have been realized from the time when the Education for All and Millennium Development Goals were instituted by the United Nations. Some of these successes are the achievement of gender parity in many developing countries at the basic level, tuition free basic education and the increasing number of educated women. They attributed these successes to the amazing efforts by girls, indigenous and national leaders, dedicated public and international NGO's, foundations and academics.

Though numerous strategies by various organizations has been identified as helpful in enrolling girls and keeping them in schools, Akukwe and Chapman (2006) suggest that there is the need for such programs and strategies to be sustained and improved if the aim of ensuring that all girls around the world are to be educated and complete secondary school by 2030 as underscored in the SDG's. UNESCO (2015b) for this reason note that sustaining good practices by various stakeholders particularly that of NGO's in relation to female education in deprived areas is the surest way to finish the job of having all educated for a sustainable development.

It is for this reason that Care International Initiated the Responsibility for Education of Girls Active Learning (REGAL) project in the Amansie West, Mampong Municipal and Sekyere Central Districts of the Ashanti Region through the support of General Electric Foundation in 2008 to 2013. But drawing attention to externally funded programs, Sarriot et al (2009) have also argued that these benefits from such programs are most often cloistered and one off. This is not good news if the quest for getting all educated by 2030 is to be a reality. Sarriot et al (2004) stressed that the scale of programs and matters on sustainability are related and that programs are bound not to succeed whether undertaken on large or small scale so far as such programs have unsustainable goals. This research looks at how various stakeholders in education are sustaining gains made from the Responsibility for Education of Girls Active Learning (REGAL) project by CARE International in rural areas as compared to urban areas of the Sekyere Central District.

## **1.2 Problem Statement**

UNESCO (2015b) extensively acknowledge that empowering girls leads to the ultimate aim of empowering women. The returns on empowering girls through education according to Sperling & Winthrop (2016) is not just important in developed countries but much more important in developing countries as the extent of positive impact transcends the traditional economic areas of growth to more pronounced areas like health, politics, science and technology and environment. These impacts can be seen according to EFA Monitoring Report (2015) in reduction in child marriage, reduction in the incidence of HIV/AIDS and malaria, increase in higher agricultural productivity, resilience to natural disaster and political empowerment.

Even though Ghana has made tremendous strides in the march towards increasing access to education and narrowing gender gaps under various global and national policy initiatives, key

challenges still persists particularly in rural areas which must be tackled according to Adu-Agyem & Osei Poku (2012). Some of these challenges are adolescent pregnancy and early marriage, lack of educational, sanitation and recreational facilities, cost of education, poverty and gendered attitudes (Lambert et al, 2012). Whilst Akyeampong et al (2007) observed that Ghana was declared to have achieved gender parity in primary education in 2006, they insist there are still issues with the studying environment tailored to favor boys than girls and infrastructural development skewed in favor of urban areas than rural areas. For this reason, WHO (2014) and Herz and Sperling (2004) recognized that simply ensuring access to education for girls is not adequate, but the various gaps in rural and urban areas needs to be resolved.

Poverty is more pronounced in rural areas of Ghana coupled with long distances girls trek to schools vis-à-vis lack of basic necessities makes it difficult to close gaps in girls education attainments in rural areas as compared to urban places (Tanye, 2008). Some pupils in rural areas have to study under trees and in dilapidated classrooms posing danger to their lives. Their instructional time is sometimes determined by weather conditions. Consequently, Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf (2009) also noted that this differentials in rural and urban socioeconomic and educational resources in Ghana results in gendered poverty bringing about migration of girls to urban areas thereby curtailing the education of many compounding poverty situations in rural areas and urban slums which affects the sustenance of gains that can be made from girls' education. The Sekyere Central District is fraught with numerous challenges to education especially in rural areas and this challenges includes lack of classroom facilities, untrained teachers and high school drop out in the Afram Plains areas of the district (Owusu-Bempah, 2013).

With NGO's collaboration seen as a better option for the achievement of poverty reduction programs according to Bentil (2008), many NGO's and donor organizations have supported

girls education through various interventions and support (Unterhalter et al, 2014). In Ghana, one such initiative to support girls' education particularly in rural areas is the Responsibility for Education of Girls Active Learning (REGAL) project in the Amansie West, Mampong Municipal and Sekyere Central Districts of the Ashanti Region by CARE International through the support of General Electric Foundation. With the Population of the Sekyere Central District almost 70 percent rural according to the Population and Housing Census (2010), the district is bedeviled with numerous educational challenges especially in the Afram Plains portions as noted earlier by (Owusu-Bempah, 2013) constraining girls' education attainments hence the 'REGAL' Project.

Kadingdi (2010) noted that the project aimed to improve girls education through creation of improved learning environments by the provision of girl-friendly sanitation and recreational facilities, quality water, orienting teachers in gender sensitive teaching methodologies, providing resources to focus on girls' access, retention and quality improvement in their learning environment, working with parents, school managers, teachers, traditional authorities and other stakeholders.

Various studies assessing impacts of girls' education projects and initiatives have been commissioned by International bodies and project organizers like Sutherland-Addy (2002); Plan RESA (2012) and Plan WARO (2012). Others have assessed how a combination of interventions affects girls' education towards the attainment of gender equality (Unterhalter et al, 2014). However, unusually do they carry forward evaluating sustainability for a sufficient number of years. Shediak-Rizkallah & Bone (1998) suggested that due to the poor culture of maintenance and hostile environment towards perpetuating activities, projects in Africa have a minimal chance of been sustained as compared to other continents.

Whereas low financial resources and low level of education in rural areas may affect sustenance of gains in rural areas as compared to urban areas, political cohesion according to Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone (1998) and Adukia (2014) may result in community competence which may promote gains in rural areas as compared to urban areas. It is therefore important to delve into such challenges and opportunities that rural and urban areas presents for sustaining gains in girls education in order to attain SDG's four and five.

Patton (1987) argues that evaluating projects impact helps to notice lapses and how such pitfalls can be corrected. Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone (1998) also note that evaluating sustenance of projects is good for maintaining benefits and continuation within organization and capacity of recipient communities.

In view of these it is important that such a gender sensitive project like the REGAL project is given similar attention so that we can identify how persistent obstacles to girls' education (which may resurfaced following project completion) are being tackled in view of opportunities that rural and urban areas present. This research work seeks to unravel and determine whether gains from the REGAL project are being sustained. It will further ascertain outcomes between rural and urban areas and their ability to sustain gains in respect of the Sekyere Central District.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

The main research questions to be addressed in order to solve the research problem include the following;

- What is the current state of school facilities and interventions provided during and after the REGAL project as compared between rural and urban areas?

- How are communities showing sustainability of gains through community engagement and support, trends in enrolment and school performance in rural and urban areas of the District?
- What are the challenges constraining efforts of sustaining intervention gains in girls education between rural and urban communities of the Sekyere Central District?
- How are obstacles that confront girls' education in rural and urban communities in the face of numerous interventions being negotiated by communities?
- What recommendations can be given for policy considerations and project planning of education initiatives for long term sustainability?

#### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of the study is to compare the performance of selected rural and urban schools on sustenance of benefits from the REGAL project in the Sekyere Central District of Ghana.

Specifically the study looks to achieve the following objective:

- To examine and compare the present state of facilities and interventions provided during and after the REGAL Project in rural and urban project schools of the Sekyere Central District.
- To determine how communities are sustaining gains by assessing community engagement and support, enrolment trends and school performance in selected rural and urban schools of the Sekyere Central District.
- To appraise persisting challenges confronting efforts at sustaining intervention gains between rural and urban communities of the Sekyere Central District.

- To determine how obstacles confronting efforts of sustaining intervention gains are being tackled in rural and urban areas of the Sekyere Central District.
- To make suggestions for policy considerations and project planning for continuous benefits from education projects.

### **1.5 Research Justification**

Ending poverty in all its forms everywhere as goal one of the Sustainable Development Goals can only be achieved if women who are more than 64 percent of the world's poorest billion people are empowered. This can be done only if they are educated and it can be done if rural areas which have more illiterate women as compared to their urban centers are prioritized in formulation of girls' education policies. As noted by Patrniou & Psacharopolous (2002), educating women leads to higher wages for both men and women and this is sure way to ending poverty, hunger and misery.

The attainment of SDG'S goal 1 and indeed all the 17 goals is achievable when education of females everywhere is on course. Ending hunger, attaining food security and enhanced nutrition together with promoting sustainable agriculture can all be achieved when women and girls have the know-how and ability to earn income because women have more responsibility of taking care of their babies and providing their basic needs in developing countries which leads to promoting wellbeing and ensuring healthy lives for all at all ages (SDG's goal 3). Indeed the attainment of the SDG's cannot be successful when women are not educated. Because women in rural areas are less educated as compared to their urban folks, attention must be drawn to how they compare to counterparts in urban areas on girls education initiatives to help measure progress for governments and international bodies to effect policies that take their views and standpoints into account.

As noted by Sen (2000) “the changing agency of women is one of the major mediators of economic and social change....Nothing, arguably, is as important today in the political economy of development as adequate recognition of political, economic and social participation and leadership of women” ( cited in Herz and Sperling, 2004. p.15).

This research will also inform NGOs on measures to use to ensure a successful consequence in their program interventions. The study result will also inform the Ministry of Education about the complimentary role of NGOs in girl-child education and education in general in Ghana. This study will also contribute to existing literature.

### **1.6 Organization of the Thesis**

This Research Work is organized into six chapters. Chapter one introduces the study and state the research problem. This chapter also outlines the research questions and objectives and provides a rational for the study (i.e. justification). Literature on issues thought to be pertinent to the study is reviewed in Chapter Two and a conceptual framework for the study is also provided. In Chapter Three, the study area is looked at closely and the methodology employed in this thesis examined. Particularly, the methodology section outlays and spells out the method of data collection and data analysis. A brief on the ‘REGAL’ project is also given. Chapter Four examines the main findings of the study. The background characteristics of respondents is presented and current state of facilities and interventions is assessed. The chapter also discusses community participation in girls’ education and improvement strategies from the REGAL project. Chapter Five on the other hand delves into trends in enrolment, challenges confronting intervention gains attainment in communities, community perception on progress of girls to higher levels of education and how such problems are addressed. The Final Chapter (Six) covers the Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews literature on progress in educating girls and factors affecting girls' education, global and national policies promoting girls education. Roles of Non-Governmental Organizations in promoting girls education and sustainability matters are also reviewed. The chapter concludes with theories on girls' education and conceptualization of sustainability from the literature. A conceptual framework for the study is shown too.

#### 2.2 The Importance of Educating Girls

One of the surest means to development that encompasses the individual, family, community and the nation in general is through education especially the education of girls. Sperling and Winthrop (2015) enumerated many studies showing that education is not only a basic human right for all but also its contribute to the growth of nations. When the obstacles to education particularly for girls are tackled, then we are sure of combating the very basic cause of misery, underdevelopment and poverty. Herz and Sperling (2004) and Lloyd and Young (2009) have shown numerous studies that have enumerated different social and economic benefits derived from education in many different circumstances especially the education of girls showing that it is the best and well-grounded investment any nation can make.

It has emerge across the globe that when women attain higher levels in education, they become more resilient when crisis beckons. They are in good stead to anticipate, prepare and recover quickly from disasters extending their resilience to their children and family. With the greater focus now on climate change, weather extremes and natural disasters, Tickly & Barret (2011) has noted that numerous studies have assessed the social and economic variables that reduces vulnerability especially in the case of young girls. The education of

women has emerged in the words of one rigorous study, as “the single most important social and economic factor associated with a reduction in vulnerability to natural disasters” (Sperling & Winthrop, 2016. pg. 59 cited in King & Winthrop, 2015). The more educated women are have shown to be a very important factor in helping to protect children from environmental and economic shocks because mothers can draw on wide range of knowledge to provide quality care and welfare. When most women in a country are educated, it helps reduces death rates due to injury and displacement from weather disasters. Educated women are also able to embrace new ideas that may improve their resilience to natural disaster as reiterated by Blankespoor et al (2010). It also helps in reducing vulnerabilities to disaster of natural origin and occupational hazards thereby improving coping mechanisms resulting in fewer deaths and limiting impact of natural disasters (Hideki & Sidmore, 2007).

Again, education of girls is synonymous with improved income for the individual, family and the country on the larger scale. Educating both boys and girls leads to higher productivity and growth of national economies in general but it has been found that educating girls may lead to bigger income gains as established by Sperling and McGivney ( 2014). It has been observed that education of women is a catalyst for economic growth as established by David & Roberta (1999) where they showed that educating women fosters economic growth. Klasen (2002) also drew attention to the fact that gender disparity has held back annual per capita growth by one percent and that this growth that has been held back will be restored thereby putting the country on a firm footing for economic prosperity. Increasing girls education therefore add more people into the working class lifting countries from lower income countries into middle class societies (Klasen 2002). The World Bank (2004) maintains that countries that fail to educate girls and women will pay the price for this negligence through slow growth rates and meager incomes. When more women gets education in mathematics and science and technology, it propels economic growth the more as science, technology and

mathematics is seen as the bedrock for industrial and economic growth as claimed by Hanushek & Kimko (2000). This shows that countries that want their economies to grow and seeking the general wellbeing of their citizens should invest more in developing the human capital and capabilities of the citizens by investing in education paying special attention to the education of girls. Malhotra et al (2003) also points out that when women gets educated, they are more likely to join the formal sector of employment where they gain sustain wages which is also higher than the informal sector. It is also observed that as women climb the educational ladder, the less likely they will be in domestic and informal employment where wages are low and not sustainable. Education also reduces the disparity in wages between women and men according to EFA (2013).

Again, King and Winthrop (2015) noted that food security can be highly improved if farmers both male and female do get access to education which exposes them to new technologies in farming and other farming resources. Because women have less access to resources and entitlements , education is the avenue that they can use to get access to resources to catch up. This will result in higher agricultural productivity adding more food to the sector. Sperling and Winthrop (2015) showed that women in Sub-Saharan Africa accounts for three-fourths of all agricultural produced but these women who are involved in farming have lower education than men and even their fellow women. When these women get educated, it paves the way for higher food production and overall agricultural productivity.

According to Herz & Sperling (2004) educating women has a big influence on sizes of families and population trends in general. As women get educated, employment opportunities opens up for them which results in earning of income elevating their status in their families and the societies they come from which also position them in marrying educated husbands where they normally choose to have smaller family size in order to be able to provide the required health and education needs of their children (Herz and Sperling, 2004). Educated

women therefore have much smaller, healthier and a better educated families. Likewise, EFA (2012) maintain that education of women affects population trends due to the fact that educated women marry later than their uneducated peers. They usually marry in their twenties instead of their teens. They are also opened to contraceptives use reducing early and unwanted pregnancies reducing fertility. And because they are working women, they space their births so as to have time for work as observed by Lloyd and Young (2009). According to Subbaro & Raney (1995) when there is the doubling of the number of women who completes secondary, average fertility rates will reduce from 5.3 to 3.9 children per woman because as noted earlier educated women together with their husbands choose to have fewer children.

Herz and Sperling (2004) again posits that educating women saves lives of children thus female education helps to drastically reduce infant mortality as decisions by women especially mothers have profound effects on lives of children or survival rates of babies. When mothers are educated, they engage in activities that may not harm the fetus in their wombs. They take ante-natal and post-natal care serious and so give birth to stronger and bigger children. King and Hill (1993) drew attention that primary education helps very much in reducing infant mortality so the effect of secondary education is much greater. Such mothers easily learn what they are to do to keep their babies healthy and the kind of environment that is needed for better growth of babies. They also seek to provide the necessary nutrition because they can afford it. Child survival can be increased by forty percent in Africa when women are educated for five years according to Summers (1994) and Klasen (1999) reiterated the point that infant mortality will be one-quarter lower when girls gets the same education as boys. Educated women are also more likely to immunize their children more than uneducated ones.

Having educated parents also ensures that children get the necessary education that prepares them for life. Educated mothers see to it that their children receive the education they desire thereby educating the next generation. When women from poor families get educated, they help break the cycle of poverty because they see to it that their children are educated and the trend continues. Filmer (2000) shows that women tend to have more influence on children education than men. Although children's education accomplishment is affected when both mother and father are educated, it has been proven that a mother who is educated helps in ensuring a longer stay in school for children and therefore studying more thus educating women helps educate the next generation. Therefore educating women has a bigger effect on children's schooling than men's education.

On issues of sexually transmitted infections (STI's) Herz and Sperling (2004) opined that girls with primary education are less likely to be involved in risky sex behaviors which make them prone to HIV/AIDS and other STI's. When they move beyond primary education they use contraceptives which help both to prevent STI's and unwanted pregnancies. Educated women are aware of situations that makes one contract STI's and therefore may stay away from sex or use contraceptives if need be. Educated women therefore are more likely to stay away from sex or remain virgins than uneducated women and Malhotra et al (2003) noted that they also do not shy away from talking to their partners about contraceptive use and discussing about sex.

As emphasized by Sen (2000), roles of women change in their families and societies they come from when they are empowered through education. They are able to take good care of their children and themselves raising the standard of living and helping in the progress of the country as a whole. Through their agency, they shape the lives of children by providing them with better education and quality healthcare as well as improving their own wellbeing (Sen, 2000).

There is also reduction in domestic violence as more women get educated because there is equal access to family properties as the women also contribute to buying them. As noted by Heise et al (1999), women education helps to remove discriminatory norms as women have more voice and choice to do things their own way thereby changing societal perceptions about roles of women. Educated women are also less likely to marry early to face abuse from men due to their dependence on them. They space their pregnancies, plan their lives, and resort to healthy behaviors. They are therefore free from domestic abuse because they are not going to entertain it. Sperling and McGivney (2014) in similar fashion noted that Female Education reduces Female Genital Mutilation (FGM) because the practice is more common among women who are less educated or uneducated and are in rural areas where most of the populace tend to have little education (Herz and Sperling 2004). Also mothers who are educated will not allow their daughters go through this practice.

Finally, educating women can help boost democracy and greater women's participation in politics (Sperling and Winthrop, 2015). There is less corruption and a better functioning of governmental and other institutions when more women gets opportunity to be part of them due to education according to UNESCO (2015b). Also, educated women also take part in political activities and may vie for positions to be political leaders than uneducated women.

### **2.3 Global Policies, Treaties, Agreements and Conventions Promoting Girls Education**

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, set the tune for recognition of education for all no matter where one finds herself or himself. This was later followed by The Convention on the Rights of the Child, which was accepted by the United Nations General Assembly in New York in 1989, and to be followed a year later by the World Declaration on Education for All, in Jomtien, Thailand. This brought to fore international collaboration in providing all children the opportunity to go to school.

This declaration in 1990 at Jomtien rolled out the dream to make access to education all over the world a reality. Ensuring access and equity for girls, women and all marginalized groups was at the core of discussions. It was revealed that two-thirds of the world's children not attending primary school are girls and it was also made known that majority of the world's illiterate people were women (UNESCO, 2015). UNESCO (2015) again noted that preceding this conference which drew the world's attention to gender inequalities was the UN's 1979 Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) which set the foundation for understanding that there must be equity between women and men in education, politics and owning of properties.

Empowering women and equality for women was at the forefront of discussions during the Fourth World Conference on Women at Beijing. It was recognized for the first time to make sure of the right of women and girls to education. EFA (2012) stated that targets were set to ensure that by the year 2000 countries should be able to make accessibility to education for all a reality and also to see to it that 80% of primary school children complete school. It points out that Gender disparity in primary and secondary education should be closed by 2005 and all countries must make access to primary education universal by 2015. Similarly, there was also the realization that the march towards equality must be recognized by both men and women and not women alone and stressing on the principle of power in the workplace, family and community.

The Dakar Framework for Action, according to UNESCO (2015c) set the agenda for inclusive education to be the fulcrum around which to tackle the nemesis of marginalization and exclusion. Six goals with targets were set out to be achieved by 2015 with the gender parity target set out to be achieved by 2005. The Darkar Framework was a reaffirmation of the Education for All Declaration in Jomtien, 1990. As noted by Goldstein (2004) big

emphasis was placed on Universal access to primary education and eradication of gender disparity both on class and ethnicity.

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) were accepted at the United Nations Millennium Summit, held in September 2000. The MDGs has eight main goals which seek to reduce poverty and improve lives. Goldstein (2004) recognized that education was not left out and was highlighted as a main tool for the success of the goals with MDG 2 seeking for the achievement of universal primary education for all children where ever they find themselves to be achieved by 2015 and MDG 3 focusing on gender equality and the empowerment of women, having a target to do away with gender bias in primary and secondary education, possibly by 2005, and at all levels no later than 2015 (UNESCO 2007). With the end of the MDG's in 2015, EFA (2015) observed that the Sustainable Development Goals which replaced it has Goals four (4) and five (5) concerned with sustaining gains made in female education and empowerment. It seeks to ensure that there is inclusive and quality education for all children and the provision of learning opportunities throughout one's lifetime. Further it also seek to help attain gender equality and empowerment for every woman and girl. With the inability of the world to ensure gender equality and universal access to education at the deadline of the MDGs by 2015, the SDGs emphasized on equitable quality education and access to secondary education by all as the best way of ensuring sustainable development.

### **2.3.1 United Nations Girls' Education Initiative**

The United Nations Girls' Education Initiative (UNGEI) is a multi-stakeholder partnership established at Dakar in 2000, which has been paramount in universal actions promoting gender equality and EFA. Raising the awareness of the benefits of educating girls through advocacy and seeing to it that policies on education are influenced to get more girls enrolled

are some of its activities (UNESCO, 2015). UNESCO (2015b) also observes that UNGEI through partnership at local, national and global levels seeks to promote good practices in education with emphasis on girls. There is also a strong tie with the Global Partnership for Education (GPE, previously the Fast Track Initiative) to help in developing country level policies and actions from global initiatives. There are many other initiatives by various international and local organizations promoting gender equality in education. They all have a single aim to see to a world of equal opportunities for both boys and girls.

#### **2.4 Ghana Government's Policies and Interventions to Promote Girls Education**

As noted by Plan International (2012), States are to make sure every citizen's right is protected including the one to education of which they are morally, socially and legally obligated to do so. They are therefore the principal financiers of girls' education. This role of States is made explicit by national constitutions and many other treaties at sub regional and international levels that seek to make governments committed to the provision of this basic right to its citizens. In committing themselves to these international conventions and treaties, governments in Africa have formulated policies and pass laws to make primary education universal and if possible free (Plan WARO, 2012). Before reviewing policies and interventions at national level aimed at improving girls access, progress and conclusion of educational programs, the larger socio-economic and political environment where these interventions are supposed to work must be looked at so as be able to gauge the likelihood of a program to deliver or not succeed (Plan RESA, 2012).

##### **2.4.1 Educational Reforms in Ghana**

Foster (1965a) explained that traces of Ghana's current educational structure and curriculum have links with education in the colonial time where schools were mainly built to provide

educational needs for mixed raced children of European merchants and later for locals employed in the civil service. Much of the later expansions in education were done by Christian missions in order to broaden their missionary activities. Efforts were made later to provide education for most children with Northern Ghana provided with free education so as to get more people enrolled (Acheampong et al, 2007). The demand for education resulted in opening of more schools by missionaries.

Acheampong et al (2007) explains that these gains were mainly found in the southern part of the country until the time of Governor Gordon Guggisberg who contributed immensely to educational expansion nationally with the suggesting of 16 tenets for education development in the Gold Coast that stressed equal chance for boys and girls. These tenets also emphasized the importance of education in development and having quality teachers, vocational and technical education as well as the use of vernacular in teaching (Forster, 1965a)

There was a proposed 10-year educational expansion plan in 1945 due to the massive claim for education and this plan seek to attain universal primary education in 25 years (Foster, 1965a; Acheampong et al, 2007). Then there was the Accelerated Development Plan in 1951 with the goal to achieve universal primary education with the strategy of abolishing tuition fees to improve access. Foster (1965a) noted that the 1961 Education act was formulated to see to the success of this aim when Ghana attained independence in 1957.

Acheampong et al (2007) established that reforms in education in 1974 phased out the old system and introduced the notion where students attend thirteen years of pre-tertiary education and six years primary school. They then go to three years Junior Secondary School (JSS), and four years senior secondary school (SSS). He noted that this reform was unfortunately fraught with implementation challenges as the country's economy began to slump and many teachers left for neighboring Nigeria who just discovered oil and have their economy booming. There were shortage of almost all essential materials needed for the

educational sector and other sectors of the economy. The World Bank (2000) observed that enrolling in schools at all levels was at its lowest ebb in 1983 and girls education was worst off because families need to make a choice of either sending their male or female children to school base on exiguous money they have.

Addai-Mensah (2000) concludes that removing gender streaming in subjects in basic schools and ensuring gender equity were some of the concerns looked at in the 1987 educational reforms. There was also the setting of standards to aid equal participation of females and males in educational attainments at all levels

#### **2.4.2 The Free compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE)**

With the return to constitutional rule in 1992, the right of all persons to equal educational opening and establishments was guaranteed under the 1992 Constitution of the Republic of Ghana (Article 25) (GOG, 2004). For the realization of this right, there was the commencement of free education in Ghana in 1995 under the FCUBE program. In spite of this intervention, many school going children still do not attend school. Lewin (2011) notes that six year olds attending school are about 40% across the country and drops to almost 10% for children aged 11. Ghana (2012) pointed out that children who have not enrolled above age 11 are not likely to ever attend school.

#### **2.4.3 Creation of the Girls Education Unit (GEU)**

Atakpa (1995) observed that the GEU has as its mission the promotion of education of girls by ensuring gender parity and access in our education system as well in educational opportunities. There is also the need to help girls contribute more to the nation's development. Also, the stautus of girls and women should be raised together with developing their social capital and garnering support for funding and helping to mainstream gender related issues. Again Ghana (2012) added that the GEU was established due to the fact that,

girls access to education was still behind boys between 1987 and 1995 notwithstanding the reforms between this period. This culminated in the organization of a seminar by the MOE, the World Bank and UNICEF on education of girls' in June 1995 and out of this seminar and other international conventions on girls education, the GEU was formed in 1997. Atakpa, (1995) elaborated that as a subsidiary of the Basic Education Division in the GES, the GEU as its prime aim is to see to the removal of hindrances to girls' education in Ghana.

#### **2.4.4 Education Strategic Plans (ESPs) and other reforms**

In order to give more impetus to meeting the goals of the United Nations Education for All policy, the Government of Ghana outlined its Education Strategic Plan in 2003 to 2012 and then again in 2010 to 2017. The four key areas outlined under the ESP 2003- 2015 were the focus on equitable access, quality education, science and technology education and training. In seeing to the smooth implementation of the ESP's, the Government of Ghana issued a white paper on education reforms in 2004 which seek to facilitate and ensure the provision of good quality free basic education to every Ghanaian child (Ghana, 2012). Also, there should be more inclusiveness in secondary education appropriate to the country's economy and in tandem with needs of Ghana's youth population. Basic education was therefore expanded to include preschool (2 years), primary education (6 years) and JHS education (3 years) which is compulsory and free. The primary curriculum was also reduced and replaced with a more general comprehensive curriculum and the number of years in SHS extended by a year making it four years (Ghana, 2012). The ESP revised in 2010 reduced the number of years in SHS to three years and placed more emphasis on developing infrastructure at all levels of education in the country and ensuring all groups of people get at least primary education. It seek to address issues bothering quality of education and equity issues and a focus on developing and

shaping all levels of the educational system by prioritizing ICT and SMT and placing of emphasis on monitoring and accountability in the sector.

The Fast Track Initiative, endorsed in 2003-2004 by the government Ghana put emphasis on promoting girls' education. This resulted in funds been allocated to Ghana to provide essential materials for education.

According to Lewin, (2011), the Schools' Capitation Grants on its introduction in 2004 has helped to increase enrolment tremendously across the country. This is due to school children not ben sack to go for fees from parents which was a major hindrance to enrolment in most schools especially in rural areas. It has increased girls' enrolment and stabilized attrition rates Lewin (2011).

The School Feeding Program on its introduction seek to provide food for school children in areas with high poverty and low enrolment so as to increase enrolments. It was introduced in September 2005 with collaboration from the Dutch government in selected areas across the country (Ghana, 2012). Ghana (2012) acknowledge that although it has been expanded to other areas, it is still not a nationwide program with plans to expand it from about 800, 000 children to 1.3 million children. Nevertheless, it has helped in improving enrolment in beneficiary schools. This will help more girls from poor homes enroll in school.

Also the free school uniform and exercise books like the capitation grant is to increase enrolment and to remove barriers that poor families face in educating their children. Because children from poor families cannot afford to buy uniforms and exercise books that are very important for their participation in academic work, a policy of this nature is essential to get them stay in school and to get involved in school work.

As recognized by Aikman & Unterhalter (2005) decentralization offers an effective framework in the work of girls' education officers so that girls' education can be improved if it is utilized well. And as reiterated by Acheampong et al (2007) attaining targets in education

for can be boosted with this policy as it will help to bring efficiency into educational service delivery at the district, community and school level. However, it has also been observed by some Acheampong et al (2012) that disparity in rural and urban areas and provision of resources may be widened if not implemented well.

Other initiatives like the establishment of the Gender ministry, free uniforms and textbooks distribution, Livelihood Empowerment against Poverty and National Health Insurance Scheme and currently the Free SHS policy are all helping in one way or the other to increase access to education.

## **2.5 Factors affecting girl's education in Africa**

Many governments all over the world recognized and accepted years back in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights that a basic human right for every child is education (Sperling and Winthrop, 2014; Plan WARO, 2012). This notwithstanding, millions of African children particularly girls don't have access to this basic human right (education) denying them of the opportunity to acquire knowledge, capabilities and skills which is instrumental to lifting them from squalor and poverty. It also hinders their ability to be empowered to lead lives free from servitude and to get equal opportunities in society. Due to their gender and age many girls face discrimination in double form leaving them at the lowest ebb of the social ladder. When we educate girls, we are making a conscious effort of breaking the cycle of poverty found among the poor and making lives better for not only girls but boys and everyone in the society but the issues determining when a girl is capable of being in school or not are complicated and always changing. These obstacles according to King & Hill (1993) inhibits the education of girls and can be seen in the home, in the school environment and in the community at large. Some of the obstacles hindering girls' education in developing countries and mostly in Africa and for that matter Ghana according to Lambert et al (2012) includes

early pregnancy, cost of education, poverty, corporal punishment, and distance to schools, child marriage and entrenched societal norms.

### **2.5.1 Child Labor**

Lambert et al (2012) noted that the struggle for time between being in the classroom to learn and child labor which many children cannot do away with in the pursuit of food or money for their survival or that of their families. For many children across Africa, getting enough time to focus on studying is an everyday tussle amidst the bigger responsibility of fending for their families and themselves. Boys are mostly engaged in pastoral activities or farming or petty trading to generate income for sustenance whilst girls are into rigorous domestic labor such as cooking, taking care of younger ones, fetching water and other domestic chores which shows how labor is shared according to existing gendered roles mostly in rural areas. Because of the many hours these girls spend on daily chores, they find it difficult going to school or even if they go end up sleeping in class or not being able to concentrate or get fully involved in classroom activities. Due to fatigue, these girls don't learn at home which eventually leads to them dropping out of school because they cannot cope with the rigor of academic exercise as emphasized by Plan WARO (2012). UNESCO (2015) maintains that these burdens are compounded when families are affected by HIV/AIDS which put further pressure of caring for sick ones and orphans on girls and women. Because of poor conditions due to poverty which many orphaned children have to grapple with the lasting benefits of education will have to be on hold for the prioritization of immediate income earning potential of their labor. Plan International (2012) explains that many girls are now faced with a double burden of generating income (to support themselves and their families) and that of household chores. Ardayfio-Schandorf, (2009) agrees that this phenomena may result in some girls moving to urban centers to find work which makes them vulnerable to sexual exploitation and isolation.

Awumbila & Ardayfio-Schandorf (2008) maintains that in the northern parts of Ghana, many girls migrate to the urban centers of Accra, Kumasi, Takoradi and other big towns in search of jobs, and these girls are prone to sexual exploitation and commercial sex work. Girls in these situations have limited chance to further their education.

### **2.5.2 Early Marriage**

Early marriage is prevalent in many parts of Africa and EFA (2012) observed that it can often be the antecedent or outcome of early pregnancy and children who find themselves in this quagmire may have their education terminated or they may be limited from having access to education and remaining in schools for the period required. Marriage and motherhood responsibilities therefore make it unsuitable for girls or teenage mothers to keep attending school and the negative effect does not just affect the mother but extends to the next generation. WHO (2014) hold the view that because these children of uneducated and youthful parents may not even survive infancy and to a lesser extent having a proper start to education, they may end up not performing well in school thereby dropping out at the basic levels of education. Because parents find it difficult to care for them, daughters of teenage mothers may not go the full hull of basic education and may also drop out and get pregnant at an early age continuing the cycle of poverty and early pregnancy. The UNFPA Child Marriage Factsheet shows that where child marriage is widespread, poverty is also common and countries with the lowest GDP and less development have much problem with this phenomenon.

### **2.5.3 Gendered attitudes in society**

The most complicated and paramount issue to assess, according to Sperling & Winthrop, 2015 when looking at issues confronting the participation and progress of women in

education is the cultural perceptions people have about female education. This has been there since ages and are the basis of entrenched gender inequalities. Because there is deep seated mindset about what girls are supposed to be and do, it has greatly influenced how people perceive girls education and the kind of opportunities that are available to them (Plan International, 2012). Attitudinal and behavioral change is not just one of the biggest difficulties confronting tackling girls' education problems but also one of the most sophisticated issues to address. Most parents will keep their sons in schools rather than their daughters when they are in difficult situations and have to choose who to keep in school. Because most society sees girls becoming wives or carers who may eventually marry and depend on their husbands, parents will not keep their daughters even if they are performing better than the male counterparts in school (Plan WARO, 2012). Even in some societies, being an educated woman hinders your chance of getting married as many men are afraid of educated women or girls. These ways of thinking hinders the ability of girls to be educated and does not support them in getting the needed push in their pursuit of education. This according to Plan International, (2012) has the tendency to determine the kind of education women get and how long they stay in school.

#### **2.5.4 The Cost of Education**

Plan WARO (2012) again notes that although many African countries have free basic education policies, this is far from the actual reality where there are many 'hidden cost' of education. Parents still pay for school uniforms, books, examination fees and others. This problem is further exacerbated as the child moves to second cycle school and to tertiary levels (Plan WARO, 2012). Poor families are burdened financially and so have to make economic decisions of getting one child educated. These decisions usually do not favor female children as their immediate usefulness at home and their suitability for marriage at

this time makes them the victim of these decisions (Lambert et al, 2012). Due to this interwoven issues and gendered roles, girls may be taken from school at the very important stage where the education and knowledge they may have acquired can equip them with employable skills and wisdom to see them through life (Plan RESA, 2012).

### **2.5.5 Early Pregnancy**

UNESCO, (2007) posits that early pregnancy is a common phenomena across sub Saharan Africa with an estimated 50 percent of young women and girls giving birth on or before they attain the age of 20. Many factors have been attributed to this unfortunate situation and chief amongst them according to Plan WARO, (2012) are poverty, child marriage, low educational attainment, limited access to sexual and reproductive health services and information, the prevalence of sexual violence and transactional sex. Many of these girls have their education cut short as a result of this phenomenon and for those who may return to school, completion may not be achieved as stigmatization from peers, boys and teachers may discourage them from school. The already slim chance of going to school is thwarted by early pregnancy. Many parents may not even send their girl child to school as they see it to be an exposure to bigger risks of early pregnancy because male students and in some situation teachers are seen as perpetrators of this incident.

### **2.5.6 Distances to Schools**

Plan International (2012) again notes that, trekking long distances to school is a very important factor for dropout rate especially for girls. With many countries introducing free basic education, the number of students have increased and more infrastructure have been added. But this expansion in infrastructure is still not sufficient for students especially in rural areas where access to school is not easily accessible and gets more profound at the secondary

school levels. Girls are here again disadvantage due to their vulnerability to sexual abuse when they trek long distances to school. Because of these security and safety considerations, parents may end up preventing girls from going to school. The extra costs that may come from staying in boarding homes or renting in big towns also discourage parents. Girls may also engage in transactional sex to meet their need whilst they are far from their parents and all these serves as disincentives to parents to send their wards to schools in distant places.

### **2.5.7 Harassment and Discrimination/ Hostile School Environment**

Tanye, (2008) noted that harassment and discrimination, which may be perpetrated by teachers and male peers poses difficulty to female students. A normal occurrence in the classroom is discrimination from teachers. Male students are given more attention than female students teachers who believe males are brighter than females which gives unfair advantage to males in the school environment (Lambert et al, 2012). This insidious way of discrimination against females may be compounded when teachers use canes, whips and other objects to punish which further deter girls from coming to school. Herz and Sperling (2004) and UNICEF (2003) also agree that girls suffer higher risk of sexual abuse, exploration and pestering from male students and teachers. Although harassment may not automatically stop girls from attending school, it demoralizes them as they face these problems all through their education. Schooling does not become attractive to girls as they feel unsafe in the school environment. This may affect academic performance not only for girls but boys too.

### **2.5.8 Poverty**

Clinton Foundation et al (2015) admits that the most overriding hindrance to the education of girls and women is the extensive poverty that permeates throughout Ghana and sub Saharan

Africa. Although primary education is basically free in Ghana and other African countries, it is not so in reality as students pay other fees like registration and teacher motivation fees. Compounding this issue is the buying of uniforms, books, pens and other costly materials if the child offers technical or vocational courses. Worst of all is punishment meted out to students if they fail to pay fees or buy items affecting their attendance to school as they fear to be embarrassed or punished (Ghana, 2004).

Also due to poverty, WHO (2014) observed that girls may engage in exchange sex to get some basic necessities to support themselves. This phenomenon is mostly common among secondary school girls and those in tertiary institutions. Those involved may do it for luxury items like mobile phones, perfumes, and sometimes cars. This affects the participation of those involved in full academic exercise. Teenage pregnancy or the contractions of sexually transmitted infections are associated with this occurrence. Girls may drop out as an outcome of the consequences of sex for money thereby truncating their progress in education.

#### **2.5.9 Lack of Proper Sanitation Facilities**

The lack of separate bathrooms, toilets and urinals in schools make a lot of girls become uncomfortable using these facilities and this may affect their zeal to go to school (Lloyd, 2010). If there are no separate bathrooms and toilets, menstruating girls may stay at home as they may be scorned or treated badly by male colleagues or told to move out of bathrooms and urinals quickly when there are others waiting to use the facility. Many girls stay home when it is time for menstruation for fear of harassment and end up missing lessons and class exercises or sometimes examinations. Others may not have sanitary pads and end up using rags or other unhygienic materials as pads thereby soiling their dress during menstruation. The embarrassment they get from this experience may prevent them from attending school during menstruation or they may eventually drop out. Clean, separate bathrooms and in some

cases provision of sanitary pads are needed to avoid these problems (Lambert et al, 2012, King & Winthrop, 2015).

## **2.6 Types of Girls Education Interventions**

These are interventions put in place by various governments and organizations within and outside the school environment to enhance the education of girls and promote gender equality. Because many girls are disadvantage when it comes to education in many developing countries, Filmer, (2000) observed that these interventions are important to increase girls access and progress in schools which leads to the ultimate aim of gender equality and women empowerment. Unterhalter et al (2014) & Lloyd (2009) distinguished between three kinds of interventions that are employed in girl's education initiatives.

The first are interventions that focus on resource and infrastructure in the form of financial support and infrastructure provision. These includes scholarships, feeding programs, building of roads and school buildings, provision of water and sanitation facilities, and free bus ride for students. The second form of interventions concentrates on policy development and the change in institutional cultures from the international to the local level. In this case legislations aimed at gender mainstreaming in various levels of education administration and policies across governmental institutions to promote gender and women interests are important. It can be in the form of gender sensitive curriculum and teaching methods, educational materials, health programs and community engagements. Lastly, there are interventions that seek to change norms relating to gender and girls and rights of women. Forming of girls clubs, working with boys, awareness creation of importance of girl's education, working with parents and marginalized groups and communities are key to the success of this intervention.

Although each intervention on itself can effect change or enhance girls education, Unterhalter et al (2014) suggest that its impact will be more complete when there is a merging of two or all the various categories of interventions and when special attention is paid to the milieu within which interventions are initiated.

## **2.7 Progress in Girls' Education**

Although there is a long way to go in the battle to get all girls in school, momentous progress has been made. Sperling and Winthrop (2016) attributed these progress over the last 25 years to the effort of many actors working with parents, communities and governments.

A lot more girls are attending school during the past few years as compared to other periods. Krishnaratne (2013) states that between 1999 and 2009, 52 more children have enrolled in primary school. UNESCO, (2015) also adds that girls of primary and lower secondary school age who were not attending school numbered 109.9 million in year 2000. This shows that the number of out of school girls have reduced by half since 2000 with a corresponding 8 percent increase in enrollment. Also, Winthrop (2014) acknowledge that the number of countries that have close gender gaps in primary school enrollment increased from 86 to 124 and those that have done so in secondary school education also rose from 40 to 69. Primary education have been made free (tuition) by 89% of developing countries whilst 97% of middle income countries and all developed countries have made education at the primary level tuition free. This has helped to put more girls in school as girls are likely to stay out of school due to financial problems than boys (UNESCO WORLD Policy Analysis Center, 2015).

## **2.8 The Concept of Community Participation in Girls' Education**

Participation has a variety of meanings; in simple terms, it denotes the act of taking part in an activity or event. Coleman (2011) considers participation as contributions by people to public programs to the complete involvement in the decision making process. Participation involves

people's inclusion in every step of the entire decision making process and its implementation (Muller, 2011). Institute of Development Studies (2012) also defines participation as a right held by all people to engage in society and its decisions that impact their life. According to IDS (2012) "participation in the political realm challenges the oppression and discrimination in particular of the poorest and most marginalized people". Participatory process allows people to perceive issues more closely and gain insight into challenges that they are confronted with and to work towards solving them. People recognize opportunities and map out strategies for tackling problems and further gaining solidarity to bring about changes through participation.

Community participation therefore, can be defined as the organization of activities by groups of individuals who have or share the same characteristics within a well-defined geographical area. Booth (2011), explained community participation as a way for people with similar aspirations, needs and goals to come together through consensus to change their fate. According to Speer (2012), community participation is the theory that "the local community should be given an active role in programs and improvements affecting it". He posits that it is only logical to hand over control of affairs and decision making on issues that affect people to themselves. He further affirms that, since authorities do not have all the solutions to public issues, people affected should be involved in matters that affects them directly. Norad, (2013) elaborates that community participation is a strong notion which means ways in which various groups such as families, professionals, governments and common members work out common needs.

It has been acknowledged by Sperling & Winthrop, (2016) that the key to sustaining progress made in girls' education is the engagement of communities, parents especially mothers in managing school committees and other related organs. When relationship between communities and school committees are improved, it does not only raise awareness about how

school committees do their work but also invoke interest of not only ordinary members but also elites to help improve education in their respective communities. They reinforce and largely impact the success of gains made in education by taking and advancing concrete actions. These actions may be the provision of facilities for schools, enforcing community actions to promote education such as checking absenteeism. There is also monitoring of teachers, SMC and PTA activities and action plans (Akukwe & Chapman, 2006). Sperling & Winthrop, (2016) also affirms that community participation have helped in the success of sustaining impacts of projects that have been financed by external sources by the involvement of dynamic leaders who invest their own resources and time into seeing to implementation of interventions and strategies.

## **2.9 Role of Non-Governmental Organizations in promoting girls' education in Ghana**

Iddrisu and Sulemana (2003) drew attention to the use of NGO's for some period now in Ghana to help spread development programs all over the country. It has also been observed that resources for development have most often been directed through and to NGO's to aid education especially in basic and girls' education (UNESCO, 2012). Again Iddrisu and Sulemana (2014) pointed to the knowledge that gatherings on meeting EFA targets in Dakar and Johannesburg all applauded the enormous task that NGO's have done in promoting equity in education everywhere through the support they give to education service delivery and advocacy to make governments be on their toe in provision of Education for All. Some provide support by adopting schools to improve the quality of government programs (Rose, 2009).

Multifarious reasons are seen all over the development literature as to why there should be a greater participation of NGOs in the education sector with many echoing the need for

increase role in basic and girls education due to their work at the grassroots or community – level which makes them more efficient and thus affecting social change.

Lambert et al (2012) hold the view that NGO's are a very important agency of change in Ghana although they are not the only organizations seeking to find solutions to girls' education issues and that they try to solve a particular problem through different means which serves a testing ground for programs. Atakpa (1995) reiterates that leadership training, management skills, and governance of schools are very essential for the improvement of education and helping to enroll more girls. NGO's play a key role by establishing and building capacities of SMC's so that they can have control over issues that will promote education. They also play many roles in infrastructure provisions and learning materials.

In enhancing the attendance of girls and enrolment in schools in Ghana, the Catholic Relief Services provided take-home rations (THR) for 85% of days in a month to many girls who are attending school so as to remove the barrier of girls staying home due to food insecurity (Sutherland-Addy, 2002). Also, others helped to improve capacity of GES officials to be able to monitor girls' participation in schools and to find out ways of helping to do away with barriers to girls' education. There is the need for the approval and funding of gender sensitized curricula and materials for teaching that can effectively promote girls participation in lessons throughout the basic level of education and also in the training of teachers. NGOs are partnering GES to endorse this initiative and helping to enroll and retain girls at the basic level and beyond through the promotion of the connection between gender equality and sustainable development in communities and at the district level.

UNICEF-Ghana (2002) made it clear that girls' education barriers and concerns connected to unwanted beliefs and norms must be studied so that the panacea to girls' education problems can be tackled head-on. Many NGO's are helping to solve this problems by promoting girls education week celebrations, Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) and sensitization. They are

also making funds available for girls' scholarships at the District Assembly level (UNICEF-Ghana, 2002).

Addressing issues of teacher shortages in rural and difficult areas are some of the problems being tackled by various NGO's. Rural Education Volunteer program was used by Action Aid where they employed large number of secondary school leavers found in rural areas to help address teacher shortages. According to Sutherland-Addy (2002), girls who have to walk long distance before getting to schools were provided with bicycles and others were provided with books, beds and mattresses in many parts of the Northern Regions of Ghana.

In other to tackle the issues of discrimination, people must know of their rights so as to be able to stand against them. Basic human rights training for the youth especially girls to question and be assertive against abuse to help in changing discriminatory norms and entrenched attitudes so that this barrier to education will be reduced was provided by some NGO's. They also urged research into community-based matters affecting girls' education from the angle of human rights and helping to encourage discussions so that these issues can be curtailed. Some NGO's also promote girls education through Youth training in basic human rights to bring changes in behavior and this help in changing discriminatory norms and entrenched attitudes that act as barriers to education. There is Also research into local issues affecting children from the human rights perspective and the instigation within communities of discussion and debate on issues related to girls' education were encourage.

Sutherland-Addy (2002) noted that in other to have a sustainable support from parents to sponsor their girls to school, income generating ventures and programs to empower women were initiated by NGO's and donor organizations in the Savannah Regions of Ghana. These programs helped to sustain girls through basic and secondary education as issues that border on hunger and poverty will be removed for regular school attendance that will result in better academic performance. These programs also improve food security among beneficiary

families and more so contribute to bridging disparities in boys' and girls' enrolment and performance. NGO's are much involved in helping to get children in primary schools to read, write and perform well in numeracy so that these skills acquired after primary school will equip children and especially girls to become literate to be able to partake in activities that can benefit them if they continue or even if they fail to continue their education. As observed by UNICEF-Ghana (2002) they help to increase or better still maintain attendance of students with emphasis on girls by organizing in-service training for teachers to enhance gender sensitive teaching and moreover to improve community participation in school activities. They also provide interventions at school levels by providing needed facilities that will improve healthy lifestyles of children. They are very much involved in organizing health promotion programs like health check-ups and workshops and increasing advocacy on student's health (UNICEF-Ghana, 2002).

Developing confidence in school system to shore up community participation for girls education improvement is an activity as noted by Sutherland-Addy (2002) that NGOs do through increasing community awareness and strengthening school community. They also help in boosting management structures in schools and building support organizations in communities which go a long way to increase community participation in devising ways of applying and monitoring activities that help to improve schools (ibid). All these supports go a long way to increase girls' education because schools and communities have been made conducive to support education due to the increase awareness by stakeholders on the importance of getting all children educated and the role a congenial environment in schools and around schools play to make girls comfortable to study. Moreover these projects by NGO's bring out best practices that teachers, educationist, community leaders, parents and children can continue to perform to maintain standards that improve education (Sutherland-Addy, 2002).

NGO's again helps in promoting girls education by their continuous research and evaluation of existing girls' education initiatives so as to see problems and come out with novel strategies to strengthen existing and new programs. This help to increase information and understanding of issues concerning education of girls. Materials that are modern and try to incorporate innovative ideas are provided by NGO's to boost quality education in schools. These may include ideas on new methodologies for teaching that may improve academic performance by girls tremendously. Public and private institutions are also strengthened in the course of NGO programs which enable them to better implement policies and strategies on girls' education.

As noted by UNICEF-Ghana(2002) problems that are associated with girls underperformance in subjects like mathematics and science are also address by some NGO's through group discussions and special support to teachers, communities and stakeholders. Teachers are equipped with materials in these subjects and taken through trainings to boost their knowledge so that they can use methods that will encourage girls to participate more during mathematics and science lessons. Incentives are also provided for female teachers to enable them stay in rural areas as their presence in these areas serves as big boost to remove stereotypes about female education in rural areas (Casely-Hayford, 2002). Again, award schemes are sponsored by NGOs at different levels to encourage teachers to do more to improve performance of girls and students in general. In some instances, teachers bungalows are built in deprived areas to get teachers to stay in these communities and this go a long way improve teachers' attendance and thus improve pupils' enrolment. Information education initiatives are organized by NGO's in the form of community drama and school open days which addresses pertinent issues that are detrimental to the education of females in communities. Churches, mosques and other social gatherings can be visited by special task force to help disseminate information on good practices by parents to support education of

girls. As elaborated by UNICEF-Ghana (2002), Learning through Partnerships are enriched by NGO's when they support the making of manuals for Circuit Supervisors and head teachers that are gender sensitive and incorporate ways by which schools can make girls feel more at home in learning programs and other co-curricular activities. There is training of women and the quest to get them involved in the taking of decisions that will improve education at community levels and making them part of School Management Committees to improve relationships between schools and communities.

Finally, Rose (2009), draws attention to NGO's that are making it possible that children that have been marginalize and considered officially out of school are also provided with opportunity to be educated. They may be child soldiers, orphans, street children or children that are disabled. Also children living in extreme poverty or those found in ethnic and religious language groups, refugees and those of pastoralists like the Fulani's in Ghana are all catered for so as they can also have some form of education (Sayed and Soudien 2003).

### **2.9.1 Sustainability of NGOs Programs**

Sustaining NGO programs is important the for immediate and long term benefits that the programs are meant for. When programs that are meant to solve social issues that permeate societies are terminated and the issues meant to be solved recur then the programs have not yielded the necessary objectives they were meant for. NGO's must therefore plan and implement programs imbedding in them elements of continuity when the period of implementation ends. As opined by Edward and Hulme (1995), for NGO program to be sustainable, careful planning is essential because resources will not be available in the long term. Proper training must therefore be provided for people involve in implementation of programs and also efforts for continuity (succession planning) should be inherently built into programs during their design (Edward & Hulme, 1995).

Local people must therefore be encouraged to be part of program planning, designing, implementation and evaluation to ensure sustainability. Projects that tackle problems that people really need should be the focus of NGOs and proper judgment is paramount to undertake programs to solve problems that affect people. Demand driven must be what should be looked at for in programs to be chosen for implementation. When personal gains are not the main reasons for undertaking projects and clarity is provided on spending, it is an important way of ensuring sustainability of project gains as people see projects to be more of tackling their problems rather than being a money making avenue for NGO's.

Edward and Hulme (1995) stressed that in sustaining programs, networking and collaboration should be factored in their design so that other organizations like governments, stakeholders and partners must be joined to improve coordination among various establishments. When this is done, programs can last over time to bring the needed benefits that they are meant for because resources will be of no use when after programs people continue in their old ways and repeat behaviors that the projects have been meant to tackle.

EFA (2015) stressed that because education is vital for sustainable development of a country, it is important that policies and programs aimed at improving conditions of citizens must themselves have sustainable elements to bring about the sustainable development that we all crave for. Women and girls as targets for program implementers to change conditions of societies help sustains gains made as what they have learnt permeates their personal lives, thus bringing lasting benefits to themselves, their families and communities. That is why the people who are really involved in solving problems confronting girls' education are to be included in making and implementation of programs for them to acquire the needed expertise to keep gains after the implementation of programs. This will ensure that facilities provided are maintained and taken care of and additional ones added through continuous collaboration with various stakeholders.

## **2.10 Conceptualizing Sustainability of NGO Programs**

The term sustainability has been defined severally by many scholars to suit their area of study. For this reason, Sugden (2003) hold the view that, sustainability “has become one of the most over used and abused words in the development vocabulary”. More simply, the term “sustainable” pertains to something which can be able to last, or continue for a long time. Considering our lifestyles, it recognize ways of using resources that will not affect them and our society. For the purpose of this study the following definitions are considered.

The World Bank defines it as the capacity of a project to continuously offer benefits it was originally meant to over a longer period of time. Also, Shediac-Rizkallah and Bone (2008) noted that a program is sustainable if it has attributes to deliver and show a felicitous amount of help for a longer period of time when technical, oversight and fiscal support has been aborted by donors. McConville (2006) defines it as a way which consolidates empowerment and ownership in community members through direct involvement in decision making on issues that affects their communities. The above definition is part of a group of five factors which is a result of the sub division of the ‘the three pillars of sustainability’ which are environmental, social and economic. The group of five factors by McConville (2006) are environmental sustainability, socio-cultural respect, political cohesion, community participation and economic sustainability.

From the above definitions, it is clear sustainability have many facets which shows how the process of continuation can be seen in its various forms and course. Apparently, a program may continue in whole. It may also continue in its original form or in a different manner. Whilst some aspect of the program may become established as “individual component”; communities may obtain ownership of some aspects of the program or the entirety of the program (Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998). Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone (2008) also noted

that apart from the organizational level, perpetuating benefits can happen at individual or network levels. Notable community members may take responsibility in disseminating information, activities and help at the individual level. At the network level, there is the coming together of individuals and organizations to produce a coterie that bolster gains from programs and garner corroborative actions.

As explained by Shediak-Rizkallah & Bone (1998), sustainability as a term encapsulate thoughts and notions. First it takes into account two necessary ideas of continuation which are 'permanence' and 'time' without restricting its basic notion in any way. Secondly, the above explanations of sustainability does not imbue a program with no change or action as the word 'institutionalization' and 'routinization' portrays by showing that something is static (Shediak-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998 pg. 11). There is the notion of nourishment implying a living entity with the power to change when the word sustain is carefully looked at (ibid). Bossert, (1990) noted that the notion of nourishment shows that a program can change to embrace new situations and actions so that it can continue to be relevant. For programs to survive, they should be able to reflect new trends in their environment for a period of time so as not to lose its savor.

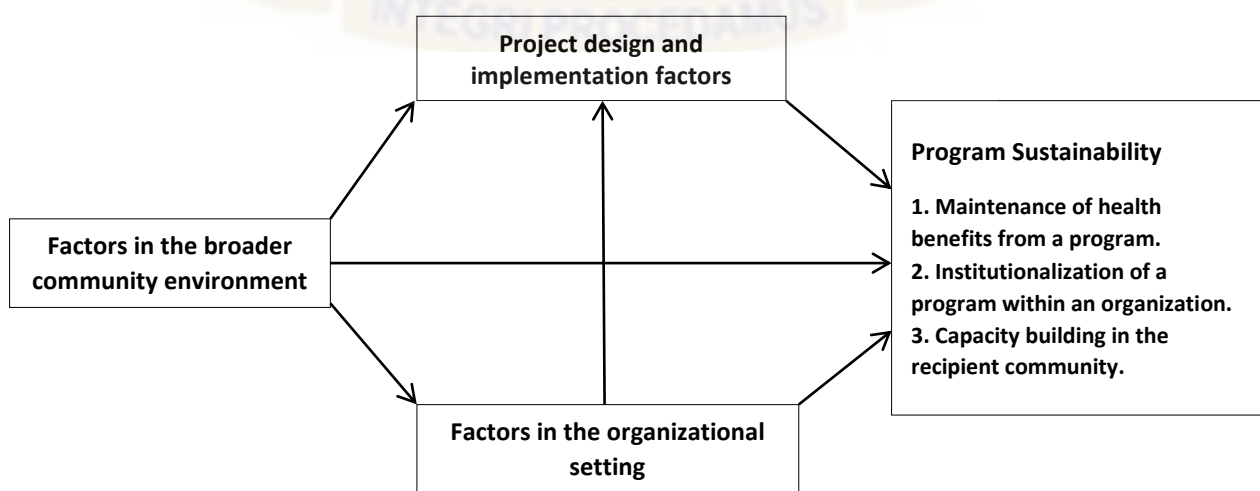
Shediak-Rizkallah & Bone (1998) in their work on sustainability of community based health programs in the United States gave three perspectives on sustainability that are keenly distinct. The first perspective is the maintenance of benefits achieved through the initial project. The second is the continuation of program activity within an organizational structure and lastly, building the capacity of the recipient community.

Using principles from public health, they showed why intervention programs should find ways to sustain a behavior but not just to proffer plans that looks at the initial change of behavior. First there is the need for an environment which strengthens and encourage change because habits that have become entrenched are slowly changed through continuous

education and social change which takes time. The long term sustenance of programs is therefore important to change attitudes towards the education of girls as some of the obstacles towards girls' education are very much entrenched. The second perspective on organizational change shows that new knowledge and the organization change to adjust to each other in a process of mutual adjustment (ibid, pg.6). As time goes on, these new ideas fuse with the regular activity of the organization by losing its distinct identity. This process is known as "routinizing" (Butterfoss and Goodman, 1993).

The last perspective which views sustainability as community building takes into account models from community level change and community development (Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone, 1998). Studies from Flynn (1995) shows that community ownership of projects comes from participation by community which leads to building of capacity or competence leading to continuation or maintenance of programs. Community competence is therefore seen as a measure of community ownership. It can be measured as an organizational and individual entity because individuals or organizations can have their capacity enriched. Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone (1998) suggested that the three perspectives on sustainability hints the different ideas and approaches in the conceptualization of sustainability. Below is Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone (1998) sustainability framework.

**Figure 2. 1: Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone (1998) Sustainability framework**



### **2.11. Unterhalter et al Theory of Change (2014) by DFID.**

Theory of Change is basically a detailed explanation and illustration of reasons why there should be change in a particular situation and the specific way in which it should happen. Anderson (2006) notes that a theory of change describes ways in which a group of initial and intermediate undertakings sets the stage for achieving long term outcomes.

The theory of change by Unterhalter et al, (2014) has as its pivot the understanding that issues within and outside of schools have huge impacts on girls education and gender equality. Prominent among these issues or processes entails resource allocation (which can be between countries or various sectors, inside households or schools, and between various regions or rural and urban locations) and arrangements with power, hierarchies and other ways of exclusion. Paramount to the understanding of this theory is acknowledging that institutional processes are conditioned by gender norms and relations with resultant social, economic, cultural and political influences (Unterhalter et al, 2014). These undercurrents may either constrain or increase the abilities of girls and women to affirm educational rights and capabilities to fight and help do away with gender discrimination.

The theory has many key assumptions on which the theory is based in respect to global, national and local context within which various interventions are given. As noted by Unterhalter et al, (2014), it involves the magnitude of supporting climate for girls' schooling be it cultural, political, social or economic and the availability of complementary legal and regulatory frameworks. Development and implementation of girls education interventions and its capacity to lead in enhancing gender equality in and outside education are greatly affected by such processes. Not only are these processes vital to the success of girls education intervention development and its implementation but the ability of states to facilitate policy

implementation and committing to making them succeed and also involving all key stakeholders for social capital gains and involvement. The theory also considered diversity issues and wants and aspirations of various girls' and women groups which may affect the impact of a particular intervention used.

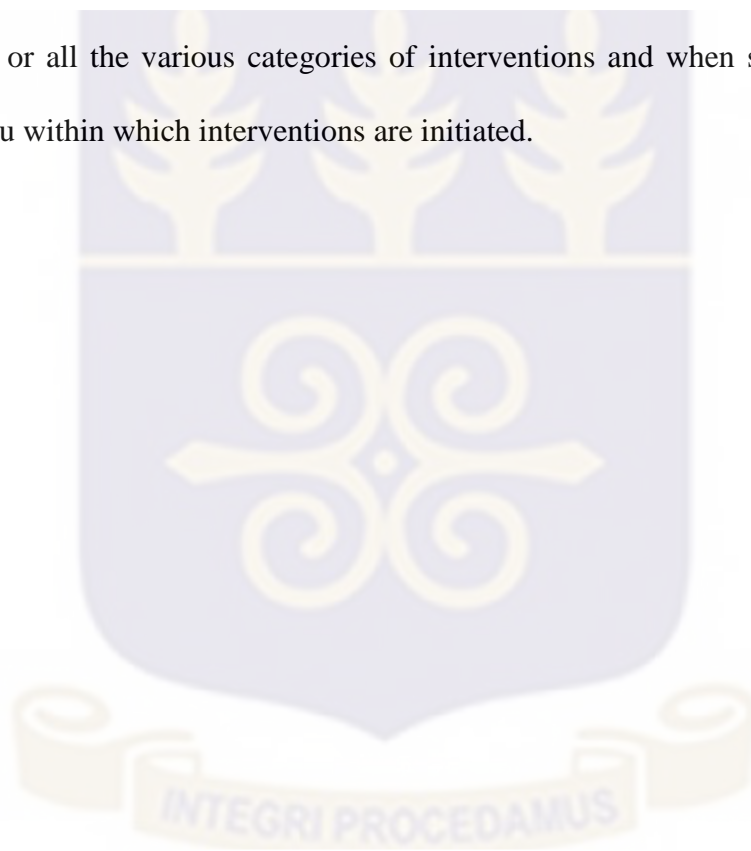
Three main kinds of interventions which target enhancing girls' education and gender equality are differentiated in the theory. The first form of interventions are those that focus on resources and infrastructure be they material inputs aimed at supply, demand or a combination of both. They include giving financial support through scholarships, child support grants or lower fees, stipends, school feeding programs and cash transfers. In terms of infrastructure development, it may be in the form of roads, water, sanitation, boundary walls, provision of electricity, building of dormitories or boarding facilities, provision of laboratories and their equipment and recreational facilities. The second form of interventions focus on policy development and changing institutional cultures at various levels, that is international, national, regional or local by changing the cultural and social relations of institutions or through carrying out changes in policy and practice. Legislations, gender mainstreaming in various levels of educational administrations, pedagogies, using gender sensitive approaches to teach. Increasing the number of female teachers and school managers, making learning materials gender sensitive are some of the ways in which this form of intervention is implemented.

The third group of interventions targets doing away with norms in relation to gender, girls' and women's rights and support that improves inclusion, mainly in discourse, reflection, decision making and taking initiatives for groups and individual previously left behind. These interventions involves creating girls clubs, advocacy campaigns for girls education, working with boys, linking with women right activists, collaborating with faith communities and

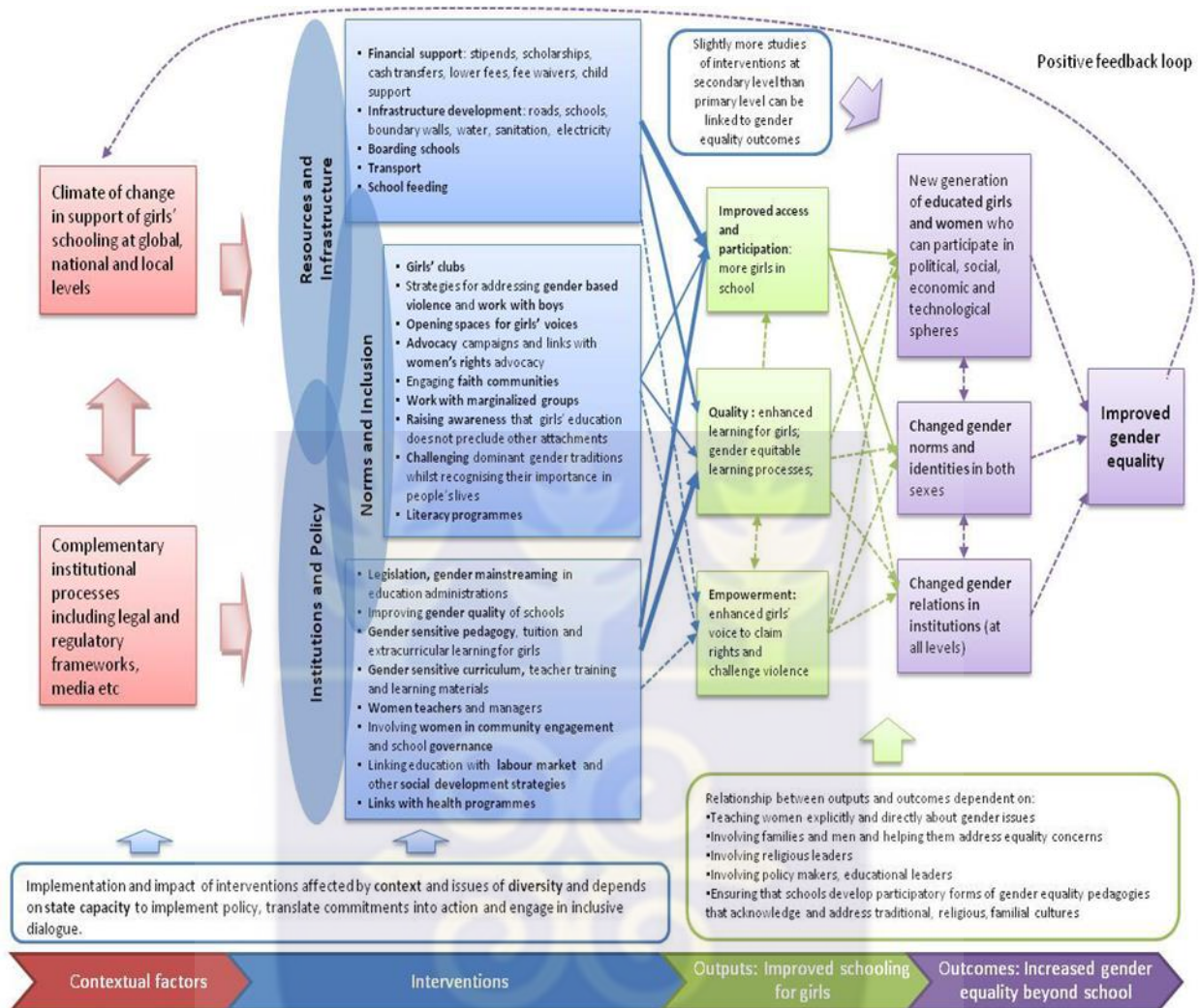
awareness creation, giving chance for girls voices to be heard and working with marginalized groups.

The theory shows a dynamic relationship between the various interventions. An intervention may work on its own or may have traits of another form of intervention. A program may use only a single form of intervention or a combination of two or all three forms.

Although each intervention on itself can effect change or enhance girls education, Unterhalter et al (2014) suggest that its impact will be more complete when there is a merging of two or all the various categories of interventions and when special attention is paid to the milieu within which interventions are initiated.



**Figure 2. 2: Unterhalter et al Theory of Change Model, (2014)**



## 2.12 Conceptual framework for the study

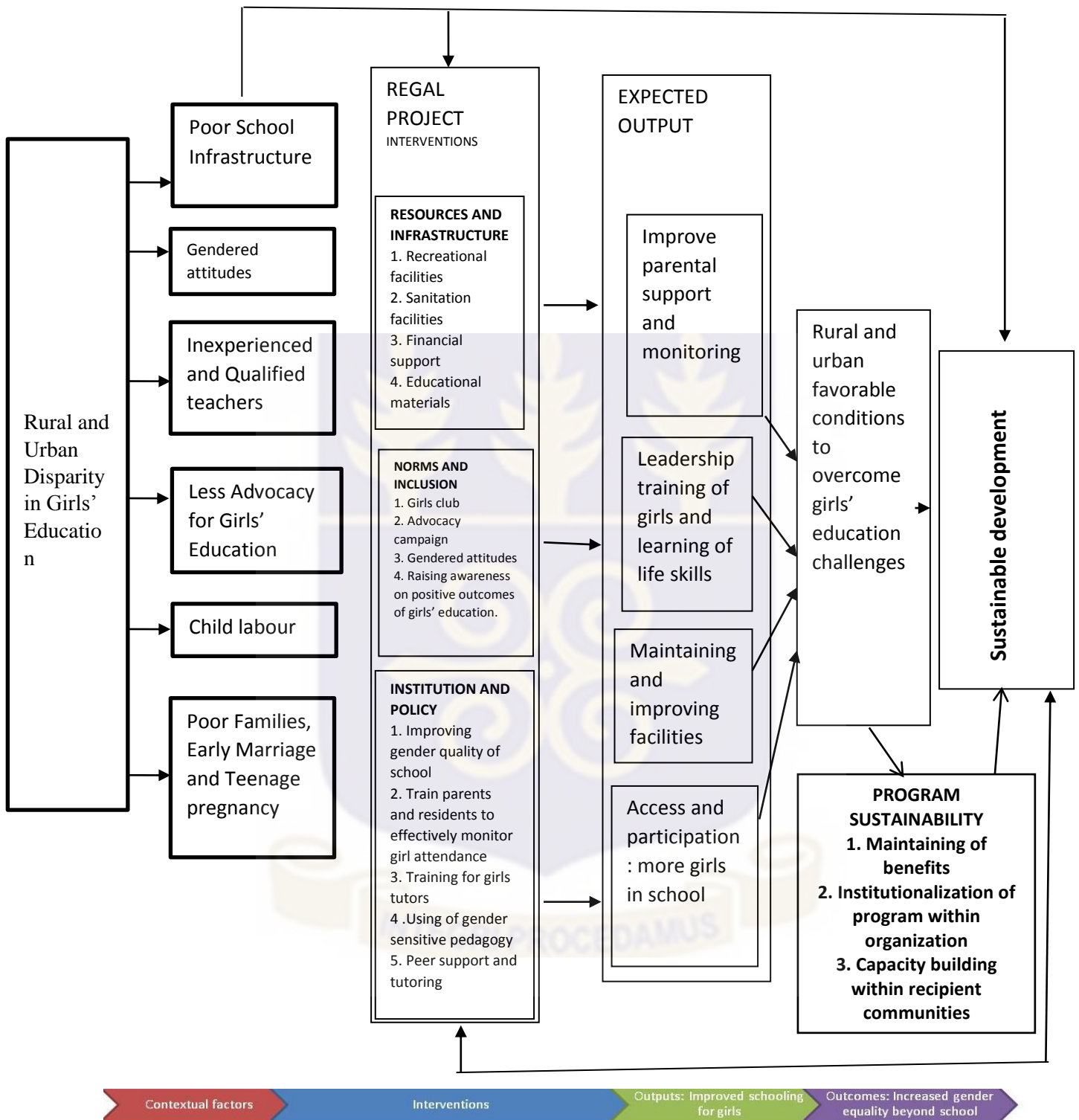
This study which assess sustainability outcomes between rural and urban areas on a girls' education initiative modifies the theory of change from Unterhalter et al (2014) and Shediack-Rizkallah & Bone (2008) to suit this study. The original framework may not be suitable for the study because it factored many issues from the global and national levels of various countries and continents with different environmental, socioeconomic and culture factors which may differ from issues from the Sekyere Central District. Also, it took into account a host of various projects whilst this study is focused on the 'REGAL' Project.

Moreover, it assessed impacts which may have some tenets of sustainability imbedded in them but did not appraise how local sustainability capacities are helping to negotiate challenges to sustainability. Shediack-Rizkallah & Bone (2008) sustainability framework was mainly used in assessing health interventions although it is helpful in assessing gains from education too as it considers how factors within community, organization, and project implementation help to maintain gains from interventions.

A conceptual framework for the study is shown below.



**Figure 2. 3: A framework for Assessing Progress on Girls' Education Intervention**



Source: Adapted from Unterhalter et (2014) & Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone (1998)

The contextual factors focus on local context within which project interventions are given takes into account disparities that existed between rural and urban areas as per this study. These variations between rural and urban areas may be the form of socioeconomic and educational resources. Urban areas may have higher financial resources, more educational and better facilities, educated parents who have the education of their wards at heart than rural areas as enumerated by Lloyd, (2010).

Poverty in rural and gendered attitudes may also results in less resources being spent on children particularly girls leading to teenage pregnancy, early marriage and poor families. Supporting climate for girls in terms of political, cultural and socioeconomic and complementary legal and regulatory frameworks may all have impacts on sustainability between rural and urban communities (UNESCO, 2015b). Availability of qualified teachers which was a major problem in the Sekyere Central District during REGAL project may all affect outcomes. However, rural areas may have a central authority in the form of a chief or opinion leader and community engagement and participation which may also be lacking in urban areas working to their advantage, which when taking advantage of may be a pivot around which gains from interventions may be sustained as noted by Kiwanuka et al, (2015).

The interventions given during the REGAL Project includes all the three kinds of interventions. It includes interventions which focus on resources and infrastructure such as recreational facilities, building and rehabilitation of toilet and classroom facilities, water and sanitation facilities which according to Adukia, (2014) are vital to keeping girls in school.

Again, interventions which focused on addressing changing norms regarding gender and girls' education rights and support were included. Girls' clubs were formed in all schools in the district with the District Girl Child Coordinator at the forefront. Advocacy campaigns and community engagements to garner support for girls' education were undertaken. Lastly,

interventions which focused on policy development and changing institutional cultures at different levels were undertaken from the district level to the community level with training of all frontline members of the various Education offices. Training was also done for community leaders, girls' club members and boys. As noted by Unterhalter et al, (2014) even though a single intervention may effect change or enhance girls' education, a combination of two or all the various categories of interventions gives best results. On expected output, there were improvements in enrolment and reduction in dropout rates in project schools. Communities mobilized resources to put up facilities like urinals and toilets for schools. Recreational facilities were also provided. All girls clubs in schools were active.

Outcomes deal with sustainability beyond project years. It is expected that more educated girls will be in various communities, there will be community engagement and support for girls education, provision of recreational facilities to schools, maintenance of benefits and ability of communities especially rural areas to negotiate obstacles to girls education due to institutionalization and capacity building undertaken in communities which according to Kiwanuka et al, (2015) proves that gains from project interventions are being sustained.

### **2.13. Summary**

This chapter examine some existing literature on the subject under discussion. I have in the process examined and showed that educating girls have potential for a sustainable growth of all sectors of the economy. The chapter also analyses International and local policies aimed at improving the education of girls from the Universal Declaration on Human Rights in 1948 to the current SDG's. Types of interventions to support education of girls, the role of NGO's, and issues bordering on sustainability of NGO programs were all reviewed. The last section focused on theories on girls' education and the development of a framework for the study. The next chapter explore the study area and the methodology employed in the study.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY AND STUDY AREA

#### 3.1 Introduction

This chapter is a presentation of the methodology and geography of the study area. The chapter is organized into two major subsections. The first section provides information on the processes and methods used in conducting the study. Specifically, it constitute the research design used for the study, the sampling procedure and sample size, types and sources of data, and the methods of data gathering, processing, and analysis. The second section of the chapter examines the geography of the study area. Specifically, the physical and socio-economic characteristics of the study area which is the Sekyere Central District was explored. Also the educational profile of the study area is duly covered and a brief on the 'REGAL' project and benefits to communities.

#### 3.2 Research Methodology

The research method is a plan of enquiry, which moves from the principal assumptions and investigation design and data gathering (Myers, 2013). Basically it is the processes by which investigators go about their work of telling, elucidating and predicting occurrences.

##### 3.2.1 Research Design

The research design chosen for the study was the case study design. Yin (2003) explains that the case study design is principally appropriate to circumstances where it is very challenging to detach a phenomenon's variables from its actual setting. Yin further states that the case study method makes usage of several approaches of data collection such as interviews, documents reviews, archival records direct and participant observations and consequently a

dense description of the phenomena under investigation. A cardinal strength of this design is that it makes it easier to study complex social phenomena (Yin, 2003). Again, Mohammed, (2014) noted that the approach allows for establishment of connections between the factors that have resulted in the phenomena under investigation. The design was adopted for this study because it suited the underlying objective which is aimed at comparing rural and urban schools sustainability of girls' education initiative over time in the Sekyere Central District. Furthermore, this design was deemed most appropriate because it was helpful in getting across-the-board assessment of a situation as it stands at the time of the study. This overarching strength of the case study design is echoed by Mohammed (2014), who expounded that the design allows for the establishment of relationship between variables. Also a methodical way to assemble data, analyze evidence and reports are all embedded in this study design and thus helped to get a full grasp of the particular problem investigated. The research thus will help in elucidating differences in performance between rural and urban communities and schools. Data was collected from the target population to ascertain as to whether rural or urban areas are performing well on gains from the REGAL Project. As addressed by Kelly (2004) program evaluation as applied to intervention projects is basically carried out to address social issues in a community setting.

Mixed method research strategy involving quantitative and qualitative approaches were used in the collection of data for the study. According to Creswell (2009), the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection and analysis is in the fact that, when multiple observers, theories, methods and empirical materials are amalgamated, inherent predispositions and the problems that originate from single-method, single-observer and single-theory are overcome by the researcher. According to Barbie (2007), the mixed method gives more in-depth knowledge about a situation taking into consideration the merits and demerits of single methods. Touted for its flexibility and cogent manner of bringing out

meaning of socio-economic situations, the qualitative method has been criticized for its ineffectual ability for drawing associations between phenomenon (Holland & Campbell, 2005). Teye (2008) contends that the quantitative method however allows for generalization, prediction and comparison but can get complicated if one does not have ability of engage in calculations. The quantitative approach resonates within the positivist's paradigm that perceive science as value-free, neutral and objective that aims to explain generic behavior pattern (Teye, 2012) and very useful for analyzing quantifiable data and also suitable for generalization and predictions. However, the quantitative method is also critiqued for its failure at providing good and detailed account of peoples' perceptions, emotions, beliefs, experiences and behavior. The use of the mixed method strategy thus allowed for complementarity of methods where qualitative methods makes up for the shortfalls inherent in the quantitative methods, and vice versa. Whilst the survey component will help readers understand the extent of people benefitting from the project interventions, the qualitative aspect will illuminate people's personal experiences of how the project has impacted their lives.

### **3.3 Sources of data**

Primary and secondary sources of data were engaged for the study. Data on the REGAL project was obtained from the CARE International's Kumasi office. Primary data was obtained from the field using instruments like interview schedules and questionnaires. Interview schedules were used to obtain data from the REGAL project facilitators, staffs of GES, head teachers, Girls club coordinators and girls and SMC/PTA members. The questionnaires were used to obtain responses from parents. The secondary sources of data used include both published and unpublished reports on topics relating to the issues being

investigated, journals, records of performance on main subjects by girls, school report cards and school based assessment data.

### **3.4 Questionnaires Survey**

When both qualitative and quantitative information is generated depending on the structure and analysis of a questionnaire based method of research, then such a research is called social survey or questionnaires survey. They can be used in a vast range of settings and can also aid to garner different variety of data. A questionnaire survey is a process of gathering information concerning a specific group of people by sampling some of its members, commonly through a method of standardized questions. The basic goal of a survey is to obtain information. Surveys can be carried out by mails, phone, website and face to face. It can also be administered to groups or to individuals.

Yin (2003) distinguishes between 3 types of data variables that may be collected through questionnaires. These are opinion, behavior and attributes or characteristics of subjects. He observed that a good questionnaire should encompass all these variables. The respondents for the survey were parents who have stayed in their respective communities for not less than 10 years (the REGAL project was undertaken from 2008 to 2012). One hundred and fifty (150) respondents were selected based on the population of the sampled communities. This was due to the fact that, the two rural communities (Ankamadoa and Abasua) have only one basic school each, all parents who met the above criteria qualified as a respondent. In Nsuta and Beposo communities which are urban areas, only parents whose wards are from selected schools qualified as respondents. The questions were read and translated into local language to parents who could not read with help from research assistants.

### 3.4.1 Sampling Technique

The concept of sampling is most essential to the undertaking of any study and the interpretation of research result. Mohammed (2014) noted that sampling assists the investigator to investigate a comparatively small number of entities in place of the target population and to obtain data that are characteristic of the whole target population. Teye (2008) clarifies that a sample is a sub-group of the population which is a perfect representative of the whole population. Teye (2012) further states that because investigators cannot make direct observation of everybody in the population, working with a subset (sample) of the total observed helps to make inferences about the entire population. The need to undertake sampling or sample survey is directed by some factors. In various instances a comprehensive involvement of the population (universe) is not possible. As a result, sampling functions as a practical purpose of making possible the study of issues that otherwise could not be undertaken due to prohibition of cost, time, personnel or scope.

The study adopted a multistage sampling procedure for the survey. The first stage involved the clustering of the communities into rural and urban clusters. The reason for the clustering is to get respondents from both rural and urban enclaves so as to get a balanced representation. As a result four communities were randomly selected and stratified based on the population of each locality (see Table 3.1). These four communities were then purposively sampled from the clusters representing two urban and two rural clusters. Again, all selected communities had benefited from the REGAL Project. At the third stage, systematic sampling was used to select the houses for the survey. Every third house after the first selected house was chosen until the quota for the community was achieved. Afterwards, household was randomly selected from each house. However, in the case of no one being at home at the point of entry, the researcher considered the next house. Parents of students of each household were purposively selected to respond to the questionnaire. Priority was given

to the household heads since in most traditional settings; they oversee the upkeep of the children, including their education. Nonetheless, there were instances where spouses were interviewed together with household heads to ensure better recall of responses. Another criterion that was considered in the selection of the respondents was that, they must have lived in the community for a period of not less than 10 years. The reason for this consideration is that the REGAL Project was undertaken between 2008 and 2012. Thus parents who have stayed in the community for this period had higher chance of benefiting from lessons shared and were therefore most appropriate respondents for the study.

**Table 3. 1: Community and its Population and Number of Respondents for Survey**

COMMUNITY	LOCATION	POPULATION	PERCENTAGE	NO. OF RESPONDENTS
<b>Abasua</b>	Rural	275	13.3	20
<b>Ankamadoa</b>	Rural	850	20.0	30
<b>Beposo</b>	Urban	12,00	33.3	50
<b>Nsuta</b>	Urban	14,000	33.3	50
<b>TOTAL</b>		27,125	13.3	150

Source: (GSS, 2010; Field Survey 2016)

### 3.4.2 In-depth Interview

In-depth interview was used to solicit information from some key informants for the research. Being a data gathering method through the administration of oral quiz using sets of pre-planned core questions, interviews tend to be very productive as the interviewer can obtain detailed information. It is a qualitative method of analysis. It has as its advantage time for respondents, tranquility and peace of mind to give further details without the influence of other respondent's opinions. Also, few participants are needed to obtain comprehensive information.

Interview can be structured, unstructured, semi structured or can be group interviews (focus group), closed or open ended depending on what the researcher wants. A total of eleven (11) stakeholders were selected and interviewed during the field work. This included four (4) school girls, four (4) head teachers, one (1) official from the District Assembly, the District Girl Child Coordinator from the GES office, and a representative of the project sponsors. Teye (2012) noted that interviews does not require large sample sizes, rather, emphasis is placed on the processes and meaning, and in-depth knowledge of the topic under investigation. The in-depth interview was conducted in English since participants had influence and command over the language. In addition of the key-informant interviews, informal interviews were also held with some local people and opinion leaders who were not household heads. In this regard, direct observation was used and where required question were asked. Interview guide were not used at all in such informal interviews. There were also normal conversations with local people specifically women, school children and teachers. Such informal interaction emerged naturally and allowed interviewers to talk about the topics within their own frame of reference. With the consent of the respondent, some of these interactions were recorded, others were written down just after the conservation. This procedure has its own shortcoming that is; they may be subject to the common problem of bias, poor articulation (Teye, 2008). On the other hand, there was the conviction that the technique would allow the researcher to unravel other issues that might not even be revealed through the structured interviews.

### **3.5 Method of Data Analysis**

A significant feature of data analysis in qualitative case study is the quest for meaning through direct interpretation of what is observed by themselves as well as what is experienced and reported by the subjects. The aim of analysis of qualitative data is to discover patterns,

concepts, themes and meanings. In case study research, Yin (2003) discussed the need for searching the data for “patterns” which may explain or identify causal links in the data base. The process of data analysis begins with the categorization and organization of data in search of patterns, critical themes and meanings that emerge from the data. A process sometimes referred to as open coding is commonly employed whereby the researcher identifies and tentatively names the conceptual categories into which the phenomena observed would be grouped. The qualitative data were subjected to intensive content analysis; quotations were used to emphasize certain statements and assessments. Qualitative data were also transcribed from the audio version, coded, categorized and analyzed according to the themes and objectives of the study.

On the part of quantitative data, the processing of the data collected involved data editing to overcome errors. The quantitative data was analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). All the completed questionnaires were sorted and collated and were subjected to analysis. Responses to questions were coded and entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistical analysis techniques were used to analyze the data. Quantitative data was analyzed by the use of frequencies, tables, percentages, and chi square and cross tabulations. The analyzed data were also presented in the form of graphs, pie charts and other appropriate presentation techniques. Chi-square was used to test the results. Excel was also used in the statistical computation of the analysis.

### **3.6 Analysis of the Study Area**

This research was conducted in the Sekyere Central District of the Ashanti Region of Ghana. This district is the most diverse in terms of ethnic composition among all project districts (GSS, 2014). It also has the highest percentage of untrained teachers among project communities according to Kadingdi (2010). The district also has a vast portion of its land in

the Afram Plains which is one of the most deprived areas in the country (Owusu-Bempah, 2013). Further, it has a high percentage of its population staying in rural areas. These reasons justified the choice of Sekyere Central District for this study as Tanye (2009), Sperling and Winthrop (2016) and UNESCO, (2015) expounded that rural districts, areas with diverse minority ethnic groups and high percentage of untrained teachers have problems in sustaining gains from educational projects that target girls.

It would not be prudent to do a sustainability appraisal of interventions from an initiative for only one community. Therefore, it will be better to deal with project communities and where interventions were given. Due to this the researcher interviewed household heads, education officers', girls and questionnaire surveys were held in four communities namely Nsuta , Beposo (which are urban) and Ankamadoa and Abasua (rural communities) in the Sekyere Central District. These communities were purposively selected to ensure representation of the REGAL project communities taking into accounts rural and urban context. Upon consideration Nsuta and Beposo, the two largest urban communities in the district were found to be the best for the study as the other urban areas have rural features because the district is predominantly rural. These communities have high population. Akamadoa which is a rural community found in the Afram Plains portion of the district which is the most deprived portion was chosen to ascertain how rural project communities in the Afram plains areas and those not in the Afram Plains areas (Abasua) perform in sustainability of gains against urban areas. Also, the languages spoken in these four communities are predominantly Twi (Akan) which the researcher understands. Although other languages such as Konkomba and Hausa are spoken in Ankamadoa, Akan is understood by many unlike other areas of the Afram Plains. This was considered that it would be easier to obtain information from respondents in these villages. That was why the researcher deemed it fit that these communities were good to be selected for this research.

### **3.7 Ethical Considerations**

Respecting the rights, values, desires and needs of informants is an obligation of the researcher. Creswell (2003) notes that researchers should have at the back of their minds that participant's private space are being actually impinged upon in the process of their study. Researchers must therefore be mindful with these and other concerns before, during, and after the conduct of their research. The following ethical issues were considered in this study. An introductory letter of permission to elicit data/information was obtained from the Department of Geography and Resource Development, University of Ghana. Then the purpose of the study was explained to the participants as an academic exercise as well as the procedures to be used. Also, the confidentiality of their responses was explained for the appreciation of the participants. In all, before the commencement of any interview or the filling of questionnaires, the participant or respondents were alerted that it is their right to participate or not, and in addition their involvement did not have anything to do with their job evaluation or their responsibility as stakeholders and that it will not affect withdrawal or dismissal from work and for the parents it will not bring any suit against their negligence as parents. As a form of assurance, it was emphasised that their involvement are entirely voluntary.

### **3.8 Limitation of the Study**

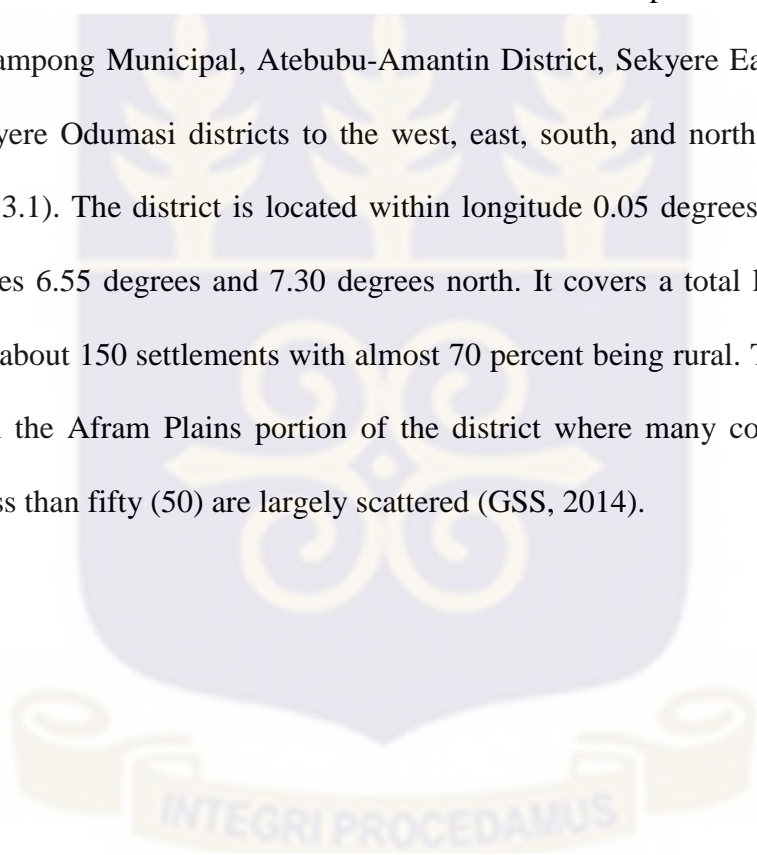
This study assessed the level of sustainability of gains from a girls' education initiative (REGAL project) between rural and urban areas in the Sekyere Central District of the Ashanti Region, Ghana. Community participation in education (ownership), state of facilities from the project and how they are improving education, and collaboration between various stakeholders in promoting girls education. Only four (4) communities were studied (two rural and two urban project schools). It is clear that a study of both project and non-project schools

and a study between districts will have given more insight into how communities are addressing issues of girls' education. Time constraints, financial inadequacy, logistics problems and poor nature of roads served as limitations to the researcher to which a more extensive study that capture more communities and schools would have been done.

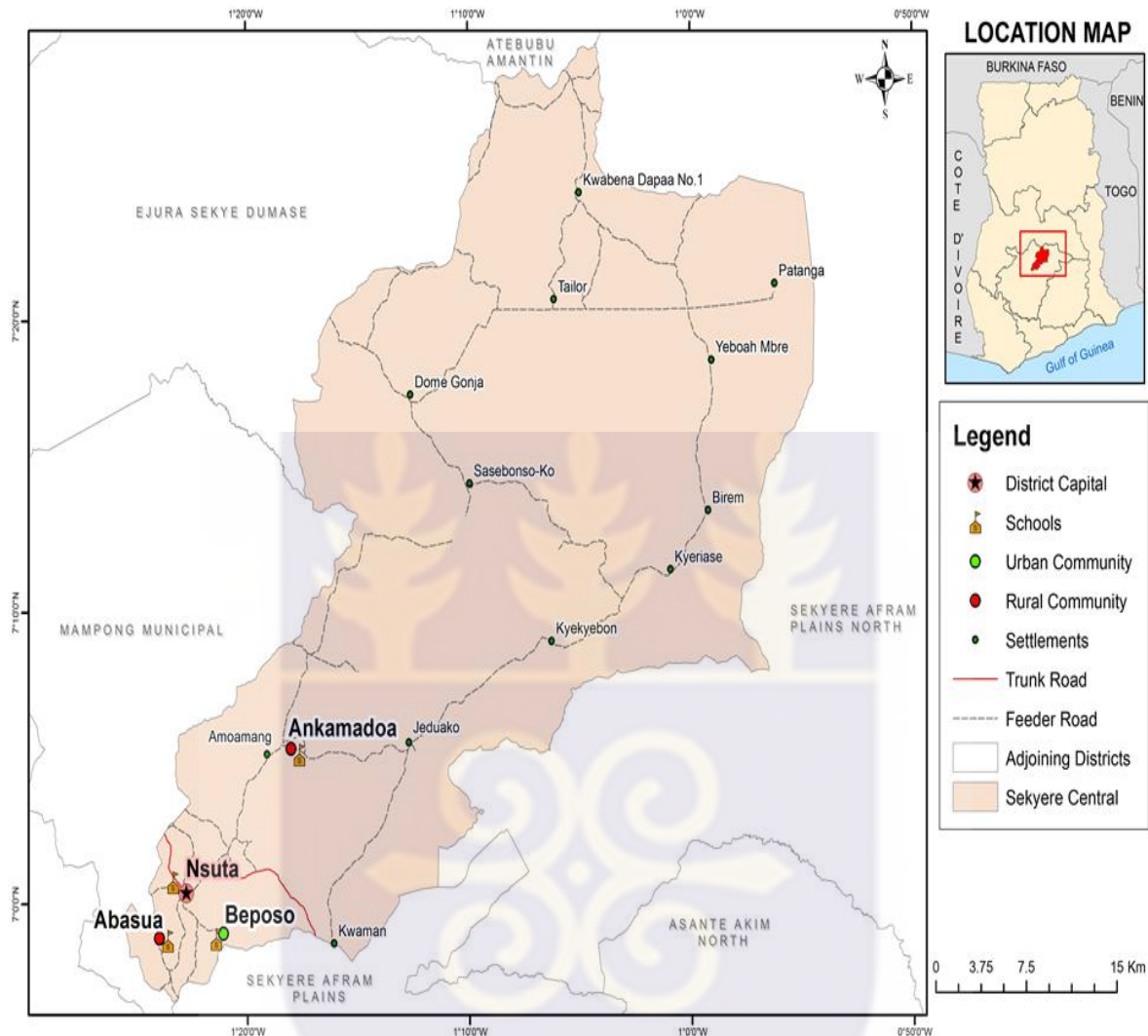
### **3.9 Characteristics of the Study Area**

#### **3.9.1 Location and Size**

Sekyere Central District is among the twenty seven (27) administrative districts of the Ashanti Region of Ghana. The district is located on the northern part of the region, sharing borders with Mampong Municipal, Atebubu-Amantin District, Sekyere East, Sekyere South and Ejura –Sekyere Odumasi districts to the west, east, south, and north-west respectively (refer to Figure 3.1). The district is located within longitude 0.05 degrees and 1.30 degrees west and latitudes 6.55 degrees and 7.30 degrees north. It covers a total land area of about 1,564km. It has about 150 settlements with almost 70 percent being rural. The rural areas are mostly found in the Afram Plains portion of the district where many communities with a population of less than fifty (50) are largely scattered (GSS, 2014).



**Figure 3. 1: Topographical Map of Sekyere Central District Showing Study Communities**



Source: CERGIS, Department of Geography, University of Ghana, (2016)

### 3.9.2 Relief and Drainage

The district largely has a low lying terrain which gradually rises through rolling hills extending southwards toward Nsuta. It is partially situated on the Mampong scarp, which runs from west to east. The highest point is 2,400 meters whilst the lowest point is 135 meters above mean sea level. The scarp is an extension of the Kintampo-Bisa ranges. The district is fairly watered by several streams and rivers, particularly Afram, kyirimfa, Sene, and Sasebonso (GSS, 2014).

### **3.9.3 Climate**

An average annual rainfall of 127mm between two seasons is experienced. The main rainy season starts in March peaking in May. The rainfall slightly dips in July hitting again in August and finally tapering off in November. The dry season which is dry, hot, and dusty is experienced between December to February. Average temperature in the district is about 27 degrees Celsius with differences in mean monthly temperature alternating between 22 degrees to 30 degrees Celsius during the course of the year (GSS, 2014).

### **3.9.4 Vegetation**

The district is situated within the wet semi-equatorial forest zone. As a result of human activities and bushfire, the vegetation has now being reduced to savannah particularly in the north-eastern part. The vegetation of the zone has been reduced from its original rain forest of the moist semi-deciduous type in most areas to secondary forest as a consequence of human actions through farming and felling of trees. Flora of primary origin can merely be seen in a reserve identified as the Kogyae Nature Forest Reserve, which has a total land area of 115 sq. kilometer (GSS, 2014).

### **3.9.5 Age and Sex Distribution**

According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, the population of the district is 71,232. With a population growth rate of 2.8 percent, the population of the district is projected to be 83,192 by the end of 2016. Females characterize the dominant sex in the district, constituting 51.5% of the population whilst males make up 49.5% with age-dependency ratio of 1:0.7. This trend is anticipated to stay unaffected for now (GSS, 2014).

### 3.9.6 Population Distribution by Age and Sex (2010)

The age structure is broad at the base relatively small at the top. The age structure for the district shows a relatively large proportion of younger people (0-14 and 15-64years) and a small proportion of older people (65years and older). The young population forms about 40.1% of the population and those in the working group of (15-64years) forms 52.3% with only 7.7% found within the old age group of 65 years and above. The table 3.2 below depicts the various age groups according to the Ghana Statistical Service (2014). It can also be noticed from the table that, Males constitute majority of children in Basic Schools as males have higher numbers than females in the 0 to 15 year group.

**Table 3. 2: Population Distribution by Age (2010)**

AGE COHORT	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	PERCENTAGE (%)
<b>0-14</b>	15,442	14,426	29,868	40.9%
<b>15-64</b>	17,903	18,825	36,728	51.6%
<b>65+</b>	1,880	2,756	4,636	6.5%
<b>TOTAL</b>	35,225	36,007	71,232	100

**Source: Population and Housing Census Reports for 2010**

### 3.9.7 Population Density

The district has a total land area of 1,631.1 km<sup>2</sup>. The population of the district in 2010 was 71,232. The population density as at 2010 was 44 persons per square kilometre. The projected population density of the district for 2016 is 47 persons per square kilometre (GSS, 2014).

### **3.9.8 Cultural Structure and Socio-economic**

Sekyere Central district is known for its ethnic diversity. Almost every ethnic group in the country can be found in the district. This diversity is one of the reasons why this district was chosen for the study as results will have a general implication for education of girls in the country. According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census (PHC) data, the Sekyere Central is dominated by the Akans who constitute about 64.1% followed by mole-Dagbani 17.9%, Gurma 12%, Grusi 4.1%, Mande 0.4%, Ewe and Guan are both 0.3%, Ga-Adangbe 0.1% and other tribes 0.8%. The Akwasidae is the most adored festival celebrated by the various paramount seats (GSS, 2014).

Farming is the predominant economic activity and employs about 75% of the economically active labour force. Processing is also done by small-scale industrialists who mostly transform the produce into other forms for direct consumption like brewing, cassava processing, oil palm extraction and soap making (GSS, 2014). As noted by GSS (2014), most poor people are engaged in peasant farming in Ghana and the percentage of farmers in the district shows that the district is a rural district and therefore will be faced with numerous challenges to girls' education as expounded by Ghana (2012).

### **3.9.9 Rural - Urban Split**

The population is concentrated mainly in rural areas of the district. The rural population of about 68.3% is scattered in villages and hamlets all over the district (see Table 3.3). It is expected that due to the seasonality of farming activities in the district resulting in under employment within the district, many people will move to the urban centres in future in hunt of non-existing jobs which will increase the urban population. The existing social amenities will come under severe pressure and agricultural production is expected to be low since

virtually all the active labour force will move to urban centres. It is therefore vital to lay importance on rural strategy of development whilst in similar manner providing the required facilities to assist the few urban settlements execute their roles as service centres (GSS, 2014). Being a predominantly rural district, many challenges to education particularly for girls as they are the most affected when poverty levels are high (UNESCO, 2015b).

**Table 3. 3: Rural- Urban Composition (2010)**

Type of Population	Total Figure	Percentage (%)
<b>Rural</b>	48,666	68.3
<b>Urban</b>	22,566	31.7
<b>TOTAL</b>	71,232	100.0

*Source: Population and Housing Census Reports for 2010*

### 3.10 Educational Facilities in the Sekyere Central District

There are 175 educational facilities in the district comprising pre-school, primary, JHS, and SHS, as shown in Table 3.4.

**Table 3. 4: Summary of Educational Institutions in the District**

CIRCUIT	PRE-SCHOOL	PRIMARY	JHS	SHS	TERTIARY
<b>Kwamang/Atonsu</b>	11	11	8	1	0
<b>Beposo</b>	9	9	6	1	0
<b>Nsuta South</b>	8	8	8	1	0
<b>Nsuta North</b>	7	7	6	0	0
<b>Afram Plains North</b>	13	13	4	0	0
<b>Afram Plains Central</b>	9	9	4	0	0
<b>Afram Plains South</b>	8	8	6	0	0
<b>Total</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>0</b>

**Source: GES, Sekyere Central 2016**

Most of these facilities are not in good state especially in the three Afram Plains circuits (Owusu-Bempah, 2013). A number of them require new construction and others too require major renovations. The District is served by only one Public Senior High School at Nsuta and two missionary owned ones at Beposo and Kwamang respectively. There is also one private Senior High School at Amoamang. Tertiary Education (Teacher Training and University) are not accessible within the district (Sekyere Central District Assembly).

### **3.10.1 Accessibility to Education**

There are Sixty- seven (67) Primary Schools in the district, Forty-one (41) Junior High Schools and three (3) Senior High Schools. Although there are many educational facilities in the district, the standard of education is not inspiring. Financial limitations make about 30% of pupils of school going age to stay out of school (Owusu-Bempah, 2013).

### **3.10.2 Physical Accessibility to Senior Secondary School**

There are three Senior High Schools in the District; these are Nsutaman Catholic Secondary School and newly established Community Schools at Kwamang and Beposo. Secondary education is available to people in the main urban areas and others on the main trunk road (District Planning Office). The siting of these SHS's shows that they are only available to people in the catchment areas of Nsuta, Kwamang and Beposo. People in the Afram plains areas cannot therefore have access to Secondary school education.

The Pupil/Teacher Ratio in the District for 2015/2016 academic year stands at 16:1 (refer to Table 3.5).

**Table 3. 5: Teacher Pupil Ratio for 2015/2016 Academic Year**

<b>LEVEL</b>	<b>TRS M</b>	<b>TRS F</b>	<b>TEACHERS TOTAL</b>	<b>PUPILS TOTAL</b>	<b>TPR</b>
<b>K.G.</b>	54	219	273	5,119	19:1
<b>PRIMARY</b>	339	165	498	10,617	21:1
<b>J.H.S</b>	312	82	394	3,294	8:1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>705</b>	<b>466</b>	<b>1,165</b>	<b>19,030</b>	<b>16:1</b>

**Source: GES, Sekyere Central 2015/2016**

The pupil teacher ratio of 16:1 for the 2015/2016 academic year shows that, there are 16 pupils for every teacher in the district. This is a huge improvement over the years when there were only few teachers to man schools. It must also be noted that most rural areas in the Afram Plains portion of the district do not have enough teachers and so the above ratio applies mostly to urban areas where most teachers are concentrated. With the current policy of phasing out pupil teachers in the country, it is expected that by the end of the 2016/2017 academic year, all teachers will be trained teachers.

### 3.10.3 Performance in BECE

There has been improvement on previous performance in the Basic Education Certificate Examination since 2012 when the District recorded 45.9% pass rate (see Table 3.6 and 3.7).

**Table 3. 6: Number of Candidates Obtaining Various Aggregate 2012/2013**

	<b>AGGREGATE</b>				<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>PERCENTAGE PASS</b>	<b>OVERALL % PASS</b>
	6	7-15	16-24	25-30			
<b>BOYS</b>	-	24	211	162	191	39.9%	<b>69.1%</b>
<b>GIRLS</b>	-	8	142	140	115	29.2%	
<b>TOTAL</b>	-	<b>32</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>302</b>	<b>308</b>	<b>69.1%</b>	

**Source: GES, Sekyere Central District**

**Table 3. 7: Number of Candidates Obtaining Various Aggregate 2015/16**

	AGGREGATE				TOTAL	PERCENTAGE PASS	OVERALL % PASS
	6	7-15	16-24	25-30			
BOYS	-	35	188	175	468	52.4%	<b>83.9%</b>
GIRLS	-	8	141	140	115	31.5.2%	
<b>TOTAL</b>	-	<b>43</b>	<b>339</b>	<b>302</b>	<b>583</b>	<b>83.9%</b>	

Source: GES, Sekeyere Central District

### 3.11 Responsibility for Education of Girls Active Learning (REGAL) Project

The Responsibility for Education of Girls Active Learning (REGAL) was a project funded by the General Electric Foundation (based in the USA), and in partnership with CARE Gulf of Guinea, to work in 100 communities in two underserved districts (Sekyere West and Amansie West `districts) in the Ashanti region of Ghana. The project worked in close collaboration with the regional and district actors including the Ghana Education Service (GES), which has overall responsibility for managing education in the two project districts, the District Assemblies (DAs) which have direct local government responsibility throughout the districts, and UNDP funded Millennium Villages Project based in Amansie West district with the primary objective of improving the welfare of poor rural farmers including working towards enhanced education quality for their children (CARE Int., 2010) The project was undertaken in three phases (REGAL1, 2 and 3). The first 2 phases involved 40 communities each whilst the third phase (REGAL 3) involved 20 communities. The project duration was three years, from 2008 to 2011/2012.

Key Project key goals were:

1. Create a more conducive learning environment for girls;
2. Facilitate community and institutional commitments for girls' education (REGAL Project, CARE Int. 2010).

The objectives of the REGAL project were to:

1. increase girls enrollment and retention in 100 communities
2. create improved learning environments for girls in 100 communities
3. strengthen community and institutional collaboration and commitment to girls education in 100 communities
4. support the sharing of lessons learned and "best practices" between 100 schools at the district, regional and national levels; and
5. Improve the capacity of communities to advocate for increased support for girls education.

The principal beneficiaries included approximately 20,700 primary school pupils and 740 teachers in 100 schools in the two deprived and underserved districts of Sekyere West and Amansie West. Indirect beneficiaries included traditional leaders, members of school management committees, parents and local organizations (Kadingdi, 2010).

### **3.11.1 REGAL Project Interventions, Strategies and Activities**

Lloyd (2010) differentiates between three forms of interventions that are used in ameliorating girls' education and enhancing gender equality. These are interventions that concentrates on resource and infrastructure which includes stipends, school buildings, water and sanitation, food, school fees, scholarship and other learning materials. The second form of intervention as recognize by Unterhalter et al (2014), are interventions that centers on institutions and policies. Policies and legislation on gender mainstreaming in various levels of education and administration, involving women in school governance, training of teachers on gender sensitive pedagogies all falls under this interventions. The third form on interventions put emphasis on changing norms apropos of gender and girls and women rights. Formation of girls clubs, advocacy campaigns and working with marginalized groups as well as

sensitization of different groups on need to educate women and questioning dominant norms and traditions that oppugn girls education and empowerment. Combinations of these interventions were used by implementers during the various phases of this project.

Collaborating with various stakeholders in education was seen as a crucial factor to help bring quality ingredients to project districts in order to realize project goals. As a result, all relevant stakeholders and key partners were identified, actively engaged through participatory processes for sharing of information, pinpointing problems and misgivings and coming up with solutions and support to improve girl child education. The various stakeholders engaged are: parents, school managers, teachers, traditional authorities and other organizations based in communities.

### **3.11.2 Startup Activities**

In the startup activities for the project, planning and selection of schools and workshops were held at district levels and a baseline survey (situational analysis) undertaken. As noted by all Bossert (1990), Projects that are likely to be sustained are ones that have a ‘mutually respectful negotiation processes’ between various stakeholders. A lot of activities were therefore undertaken to mobilize communities to generate a groundswell of support for education of the girl-child. Training was conducted for girls’ education facilitators and staff of the district education offices. Community action plans were developed and awareness creation activities were conducted and adapted in the 100 REGAL communities. There was also quarterly appraisal of programs and annual social audits of quality of education services were also conducted (Kadingdi, 2010).

### 3.11.3 Capacity Building for Project Participant

Capacity building activities were organized. Training of trainers approach was used in the building of capacity of stakeholders. School-based girls' club facilitators were giving special training so as to manage than make the girls clubs active and pleasant for girls. In-service training was conducted for girls for teachers in target communities to incorporate gender sensitive practices in teaching and learning. Management and leadership training were held for school management committees and parent teachers associations. Community based girls club facilitators were also trained to augment the work of the school based facilitator. District education staffs were taken through refresher courses for effective monitoring of activities. Also, parents and residents were provided with some form of training to effectively monitor girl s attendance (see Plate 3.1).

**Plate 3. 1: Capacity Building for Head Teachers and Girls Club Facilitators**



**SOURCE: CARE International, Kumasi Office, 2016**

#### **3.11.4 Participatory Learning and Action (PLA)**

REGAL's Participatory Learning and Action (PLA) activity is an effective way of getting communities equipped at the early stages of project implementation to make sure activities recognized as solutions remain active over the extended period. Communities, once involved from the start, remain dedicated to project implementation and monitoring by tracking PLA activities.

#### **3.11.5 Facilitating the Return of Drop-out Girls' to School**

School dropout means children who start but do not finish a cycle of basic education. School dropout is used in several situations, but most usually, it refers to a student abandoning school before he or she finish. It cannot constantly be determined that a student has abandoned school, as he or she may stop been present without stopping school. Motives for students drop out are wide-ranging and may comprise: finding work, escaping intimidation, family emergency, poor grades, unanticipated pregnancy, unfavorable school environment, absence of freedom, and weariness from absence of lessons pertinent to the world of work, boring classrooms, disenchantment with the education structure, boring teachers and a absence of schools in certain areas (Kadingdi, 2010).

#### **3.11.6 Peer Tutoring**

Put precisely, peer tutoring is students assisting students. Peer tutoring aids one-on-one support for students having problems in particular matters. Peer tutoring profits both students and tutors.

### 3.11.7 Girls' Clubs

REGAL's Girls' Club concept is one of the intervention activities meant at increasing girls' enrolment, retaining and improving their performance in school. The girls' clubs seek to enable teenage girls in the target deprived communities to successfully affirm their rights to education and to create learning prospects for their illiterate parents on the most vital religious, cultural and social issues affecting the education of girls. Girls' clubs are an active way to offer girls with information and new skills. The more dynamic the club, the more likely girls will exhibit positive outcomes (see Plate 3.2).

**Plate 3. 2: Activities of Girls Club**



**Source: CARE International, Kumasi Office, 2016**

The clubs involve girls in undertakings which help to improve their knowledge and life skills, child and girl rights, assertiveness, science education, reproductive health HIV/AIDS education, and other areas of concern to girls.

Other strategies used are inter – school competitions in quiz and games, adult role model talks, mentor camps, award and disbursement of Community Education Initiative (CEI) grant and educational fora.

### **3.12 REGAL Project in the Sekyere Central District**

The Sekyere Central District which was part of the erstwhile Sekyere West District had a fair share of interventions from the REGAL project. Twenty-five (25) primary schools benefited in various forms during the project life span. They are: Abasua D/A Primary, Adutwan D/A Primary, Akyiase Dida Methodist Primary, Amoamang Methodist Primary, Anansu Presby Primary and Ankamadoa R/C Primary. Others are: Anwanya D/A Primary, Asuafo Salvation Army Primary, Asuboasu Santaso T.I Alhamdiya Primary, Atwea R/C Primary, Bimma Methodist Primary and Dome Afram Plains D/A Primary. Also, Ghana Muslim Mission Primary, Beposo, Jansa R/C Primary, Jeduako Methodist and Presby Primary schools, Jetiase Primary, Kyebi Methodist, Kyeise D/A Primary and Kyekyebon D/A Primary all benefitted. Further, Kwamang S.D.A Primary, Nkujua A.M.E Zion Primary, Nsuta Presby and R/C primary schools and Nkwabirem D/A primary add to the number of selected schools for the project. All other schools in the district benefitted in other ways from the project. There were formation of Girls Clubs in all schools in the district, school and community based facilitators were trained and there was formation of PTA's and SMC's in schools where there were none and the revival of dormant ones. Officers of GES were taken through various workshops to help achieve the goals of the projects and traditional authorities were encourage to help support the education of girls.

### 3.13 Summary

This chapter examined methodology for the study, characteristics of the Sekyere Central District and educational issues in the district. It looked at educational facilities, enrolment trends, performance in BECE and accessibility to education in the district. It further delved into the REGAL project, its goals and objectives, the various strategies, activities and interventions used for the project. Finally, the chapter looked at schools that benefited from the project in the district.



## CHAPTER FOUR

### CURRENT STATE OF FACILITIES AND INTERVENTIONS AND COMMUNITY

#### PARTICIPATION IN EDUCATION

##### 4.0 Introduction

This chapter analyse results that were obtained from the field data pertaining to the background characteristics of communities and the state of facilities and interventions from the REGAL project and other stakeholders. Age, gender, sex, religion, residential and marital status, level of income and educational status of respondents is analysed in the first section of the chapter. Also, community participation in ensuring sustainability of gains is also assessed.

##### 4.1. Demographic Information

Table 4.1 below shows a cross tabulation between demographic characteristics (age, gender, religion, residence status, marital status, income and educational status against the sampled research communities. From the Table (4.1) below, most respondents were within the ages of 18-29 and 30-39. As they represent 39% and 33% of respondents respectively. Out of the 58 total respondents within the ages of 18- 29, Abasua, Ankamadoa, Beposo and Nusta recorded 30%, 40%, 42% and 38% respectively. The ages of 60 years and above recorded the least as only 5 people were within this category representing 3.3%. These figures are not surprising Ghana's population dynamics is skewed to the direction of high youthful population. There is no statistical relationship between age and communities. This means age distribution did not bother on where respondent live.

**Table 4. 1: Cross Tabulation between Demographic Characteristic and Communities**

Demographic Characteristics		Name of Town n (%)				Total	p=value
		Abasua	Ankamadoa	Beposo	Nsuta		
Age	18-29	6 (30)	12 (40)	21 (42)	19 (38)	58 (38.7)	.371
	30-39	4 (20)	12 (40)	16 (32)	17 (34)	49 (32.7)	
	40-49	5 (25)	4 (13.3)	11 (22)	9 (18)	29 (19.3)	
	50-59	3 (15)	2 (6.7)	2 (4)	2 (4)	9 (6)	
	60+	2 (10)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (6)	5 (3.3)	
Gender	Male	7 (35)	15 (50)	25 (50)	22 (44)	69 (46)	.666
	Female	13 (65)	15 (50)	25 (50)	28 (56)	81 (54)	
Religion	Christianity	16 (80)	18 (60)	17 (34)	37 (74)	88 (58.7)	.000
	Islam	3 (15)	8 (26.7)	31 (62)	13 (26)	55 (36.7)	
	Traditional believer	1 (5)	4 (13.3)	2 (4)	0 (0)	7 (4.7)	
Residence Status	Native	17 (85)	14 (46.7)	32 (64)	31 (62)	94 (62.7)	.055
	Migrant	3 (15)	16 (53.3)	18 (36)	19 (38)	56 (37.3)	
Marital Status	Married	12 (60)	25 (83.3)	33 (66)	27 (54)	97 (64.7)	.001
	Single	5 (25)	3 (10)	13 (26)	17 (34)	38 (25.3)	
	Divorced	0 (0)	2 (6.7)	4 (8)	4 (8)	10 (6.7)	
	Window	3 (15)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (2)	
	Widower	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (4)	2 (4)	
Income	300 and below	10 (50)	19 (63.3)	27 (55.1)	15 (33.3)	71 (49.3)	.114
	300-600	6 (30)	6 (20)	15 (30.6)	14 (31.1)	41 (28.5)	
	601+	4 (20)	5 (16.7)	7 (14.3)	16 (35.6)	32 (22.2)	
Educational status	No formal education	3 (15)	10 (33.3)	1 (2)	2 (4)	16 (10.7)	.000
	Primary	1 (5)	10 (33.3)	0 (0)	6 (12)	17 (11.3)	
	JHS/Middle School	16 (80)	10 (33.3)	31 (62)	23 (46)	80 (53.3)	
	Secondary	0 (0)	0 (0)	16 (32)	12 (24)	28 (18.7)	
	Tertiary	0 (0)	0 (0)	2 (4)	7 (14)	9 (6)	

\*p value is significant if  $p < 0.05$

Source: Field Data, 2016

Again from Table 4.1, most of the respondents were females representing 65%, 50%, 50% and 56% from Abasua Ankamadoa, Beposo and Nsuta respectively. This put the total female respondents at 54% against 46% of males. Strenuous effort was made to get males to respond to the questionnaires and the number could have been greater for females if not for the deliberate effort to get more men to respond as Untehalter et al, (2014) acknowledged that involving men in issues concerning girls education helps in changing gendered attitudes. This also shows why female education should be of utmost importance as women are more concerned about issues pertaining to the education of their children especially in matrilineal societies.

Christianity also formed the highest population within the research communities as in total gave higher representing 58.7% out of the 150 sampled respondents. Beposo has a high number of Muslims as 62% of respondents were Muslims compared to 15%, 26.7% and 26% in Abasua, Ankamadoa and Nsuta communities. This explains why Ghana Muslim Mission School has one of the highest population of pupils in the District and there is an Islamic Senior High School at Beposo (the only Muslim SHS and 1 of the 3 SHS in the district). Ankamadoa also have a sizeable number of traditional believers as 13% of respondent were traditionalist. There is a statistical relationship ( $p=.000$ ) between religion and town.

On the basis that information to be gathered would reflect respondents' knowledge and experience of the community in which they live; an attempt was made to ascertain if respondents were natives or migrants. Again, most of the respondents were natives representing 63% while migrants were 37%. It is clear that information gathered will be a true reflection of situations on the ground. From table 4.1, Ankamadoa could be said to be a migrant community as it recorded 16 respondents representing 53% out of the 20 people sampled. Most of the Migrants in Ankamadoa are Konkombas from the Northern Region of Ghana.

Most of the respondents were married as it representing 65% of the respondents and 38 were single making up 25% respondents. But the number of single parents (single, divorced, widowed) is also high (35%) considering the fact that most single parents face numerous problems in caring for their children. There is a statistical relationship between marital status and town. According to Boateng (2005), single parenting is a contributor to children dropping out of school. The Head teacher of Ankamadoa was of the view that most teenage mothers were single.

*Most of the mothers of pupils in this school are teenage mothers who are also single. They do not work and so cannot buy anything that pupils need to learn at school. Most of these children do not eat at home and if not for the school feeding which was introduced about 3 years ago, the situation of absenteeism could be worse...(Head teacher of Ankamadoa R/C Primary).*

On income basis, it could be said that the research communities are low income communities as most residents earn below GH C300. This represents 49%. Because most respondents earn well below GH 1000, they will find it difficult to pay exorbitant fees for their children. They may even find it difficult to buy essential materials for their children's education as noted by UNESCO (2004) and Sayed & Soudien (2003). This can be one of the reasons why these communities were chosen for the REGAL project.

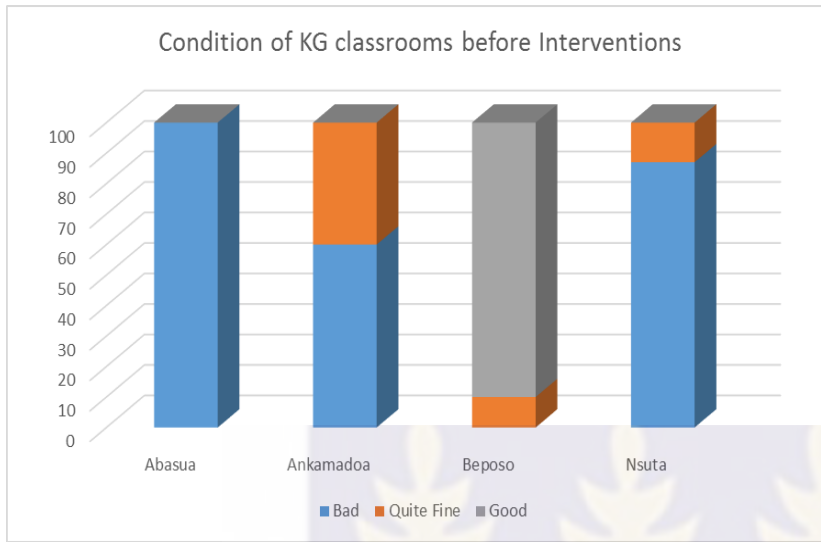
Lastly on education, most of the respondents were Primary and JHS leavers representing 53% but it is not surprising that majority of them cannot read as it conforms with UNESCO, (2015) that the failure of our educational system have had great impact on millions of adults mostly women thus poor quality basic education extends to adulthood limiting their ability to read and write. This also confirms the reason why the project selected these communities for this social support. There is a statistical relationship ( $p=.000$ ) between educational status and town as it

could be revealed that the high educational status influence once place of residence and these are mostly in the urban towns.

#### **4.2 Current State of Facilities in Schools**

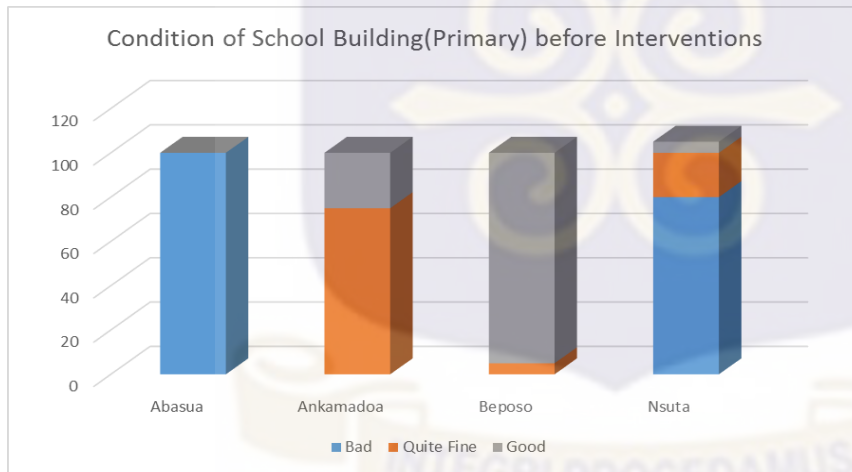
The current state of facilities provided differs from one community to the other. The following facilities will be looked at: school infrastructure, sanitation and health facilities and recreational facilities. As noted by Lambert et al (2012), the lack of separate bathrooms, toilets and urinals in schools cause many girls to feel uncomfortable going to the bathroom and this may affect their zeal to go to school. Adukia (2014) also noted that interventions on water, health and sanitation (WASH) and community engagements have been recognized as paramount in making school environment friendly and keeping students in school especially girls. Against this background, an attempt was made to find out if facilities that aim to improve education of both girls' and boys are available. Their availability or unavailability will give insights into sustainability of intervention gains on Sanitation and health which is vital in keeping girls in schools. It is therefore paramount to assess facilities provided before the project and after to see if there have been progress or not and as to how rural areas are matching urban areas.

**Figure 4. 1: Conditions of KG Classroom before REGAL Project**



Source: Author, 2016

**Figure 4. 2: Conditions of School Building (Primary) before REGAL Project**



Source: Author, 2016

From Figure 4.1 and 4.2 above, all respondents in Abasua responded that both KG and Primary classrooms were in bad condition before the REGAL Project. 50% of respondents in Ankamadoa think KG classrooms were quite fine whilst 50% think they were in good condition. None said it

was bad. More than 80% of respondents in Beposo said both KG and primary classrooms were in good conditions before the project whilst more than 75% of respondents in Nsuta said classroom conditions were bad. The response shows that bad classroom condition was not peculiar to Abasua which is a rural area before the project but Nsuta too which happens to be the district capital.

*“The classrooms were not good at all some few years ago before this one was constructed. Two classes use to share one class which affect learning as both teachers will be teaching at the same time which affects the concentration of students. The situation is even worse when pupils in one class are reciting passages and rhymes or reading aloud. There is pandemonium all over” .....( Individual interview with Headteacher of Abasua D/A Primary).*

However from Plates 4.1 below, it can be seen that primary classrooms are in very good condition in Abasua and Beposo and in good conditions in Nsuta and Ankamadoa. New classrooms block were built through the GETFUND and Millennium Development Challenge Compact in Abasua and Nsuta respectively. These two communities were having deplorable classrooms during the time of the REGAL Project and was part of discussions between project facilitators and the District Assembly to provide an enabling atmosphere for teaching and learning. More of such classrooms have been constructed in many communities over the past 8 years to provide conducive classrooms for students. But the situation seems different with kindergarten classrooms which were in deplorable conditions in rural communities through personal observations although the primary sections have good classrooms. This sum up the situation of pre-primary classroom buildings as they are in poor condition all over the country especially in rural areas (Ghana, 2012) and the recent collapse of a KG classroom block in a village in the Central Region of Ghana which killed about 5 pupils serves as a wakeup call for

urgent attention to be paid to situation of pre-primary school buildings particularly those in rural areas. The KG classrooms were rehabilitated as part of community support during the project but have not seen any facelift since the project ended. There is more that needs to be done so children in pre-primary and those in the Afram Plains part of the district can also learn in good classrooms as enabling classrooms affects girls' enrolment.

**Plate 4. 1: Old and New school Blocks at Nsuta Presby (top) and Abasua (down)**



**SOURCE:** Author, 2016

### 4.3 State of Recreational Facilities

The lack of recreational and sanitation facilities in schools affects pupils zeal to go to school and ability to socialize making its availability important in getting girls to stay in school (Lambert et al, 2012). Accordingly to Lloyd and Young (2009) education quality is comparable to good

learning environments and the absence of facilities that makes school environments conducive especially in rural areas affects the attainment of proficiency levels in key subjects. For this reason all schools under the REGAL project were provided with various recreational facilities (both outdoor and indoor) which hitherto were not available in schools (see Plate 4.2).

**Table 4. 2: Respondent knowledge on state of recreational facilities**

Name of Town	Don't Know	Bad	Quite Fine	Good	Very Good	Total	p value
Rural Abasua	0%	0%	0%	50%	50%	100%	.014
Ankamadoa	6.7%	0%	6.7%	53.3%	33%	100%	
Urban Beposo	0%	0%	0%	40%	60%	100%	
Nsuta	0%	4%	8%	58%	30%	100%	
Total	1.3%	1.3%	4%	50%	43%	100%	

**$\chi^2$  statistic = 25.194 df = 12**

From Table 4.2 above, there is a relationship between response of parents and state of facilities showing communities have good knowledge on state of recreational facilities in schools. Almost all respondents said facilities are in good conditions or very good conditions. But outdoor recreational facilities in the two (2) urban communities are in deplorable conditions and not functioning. Those in Abasua are in excellent conditions as shown in Plate 4.2 below. Although facilities in Ankamadoa are still been used, they are not in good conditions. The Head teacher of Beposo attributed the non-functioning of the slide and ‘Merry-Go-Round’ to high use of pupils because of the population of the school.

*“The slide and merry go round that has just got spoilt have been under intense usage by pupils in the school. The students are so many but the outdoor recreational facilities are few so they are over used by pupils. Sometimes some of the pupils will cry because they do not get access to sit*

*on them before break over. The stong ones always get to enjoy having fun if there is no teacher around” (Head teacher of Beposo Muslim Mission Basic School, individual interview).*

But the reason given by the head teacher seem weak as Ankamadoa RC also has a high student population and even much higher KG population than Beposo Muslim Mission but have their facilities functioning although not in excellent shape like that of Abasua. The head teacher of Abasua DA Primary attributed the excellent condition of their facilities to regular maintenance and keen interest shown by community members in maintaining facilities. Because Abasua is a very small community members feels part of the school and so have interest in how facilities are maintained. Situations in other communities can be likened to the tragedy of the commons by Hardin, (1986) where there is diffusion of responsibility when there is a common public good used by many people.

All the schools have football jerseys for boys and boys. Girls now take part in football competitions unlike some years back where only boys play in circuit football competitions. This was made possible by efforts from District Girl Child Education Coordinators. All the schools have few indoor recreational facilities unlike few years ago when they have a lot due to advocacy from the REGAL Project for communities to buy it for schools. Conditions of recreational facilities seem at par in both rural and urban communities showing that pupils in both areas have access to some form of facility to make them have fun at school. This according to Lambert et al (2012) encourages pre-primary children to be in school and it look like that in all communities the number of KG pupils are high.

**Plate 4. 2: State of Outdoor Recreational Facilities in Abasua, Nsuta and Beposo**



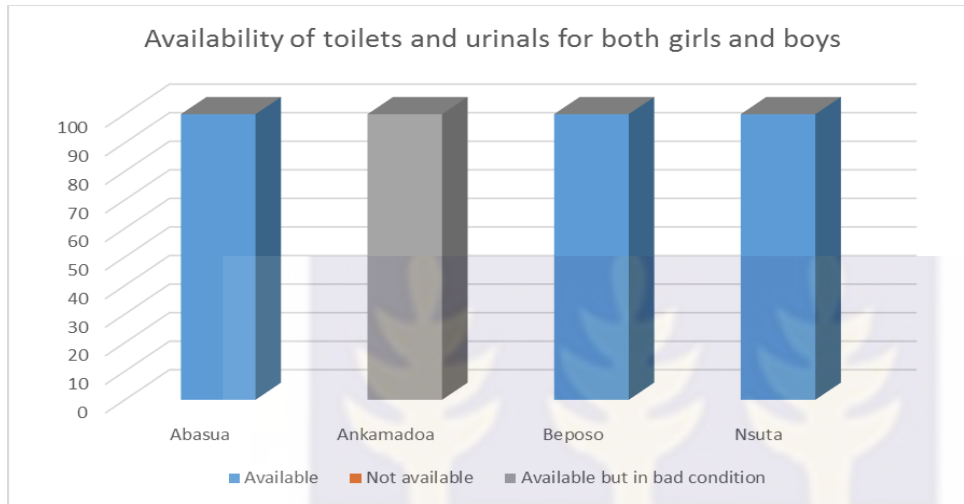
**Source: Author, 2016**

#### **4. 4. State of Sanitation and Health Facilities**

Generally, sanitation and health facilities were available in all schools as table 4.3 below depicts. Responses from parents and interviews from key individuals give credence to their availability. All the schools have good source of drinking water (bore holes in Abasua and Ankamadoa and pipe-borne water in Beposo and Nsuta). There were toilets and urinals in all the schools for both boys and girls which are essential in keeping girls in school as their unavailability according to Lambert and et al (2012) and Lloyd and Young (2009) sometimes prevents girls from going to school during their menstrual periods. Although they are available in all the schools, the

condition of the toilets and urinals in Ankamadoa were not in good condition (see below figure 4.3 and plate 4.3).

**Figure 4. 3: Current State of Sanitation and Health Facilities**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2016**

From the table above, all respondents in Abasua, Nsuta and Beposo agree that toilet and urinals were available and in good conditions. All respondents in Ankamadoa agree that these facilities are available but not in good condition. Ankamadoa which is a rural community in the poorest sections of the district did not fare well as compared to Abasua (also) a rural community and the other 2 urban communities (Nsuta and Beposo).

Past state of sanitation and health facilities according to head teacher of Abasua D/A Primary was not good before the REGAL project.

*“We (the school) were not having urinals and enough washing bowls and water containers. Our toilets were in poor conditions too. Through the efforts of CARE International new urinals were constructed by the community and we were also provided with washing bowls, new school*

*uniforms for pupils and other sanitation facilities.....” (Individual interview with Head teacher of Abasua D/A Primary).*

All schools have washing bowls or veronica buckets for washing of hands but they are not enough in the two rural schools of Abasua and Ankamadoa. Finally all schools were having first aid box but it is only Beposo Muslim Mission Primary that have enough materials in their box. Health situation in all the schools were generally good as the researcher was told there were periodic refresher courses for School Health Coordinators (SHEP) because funds were made available for them regularly by the DEO and from donor organizations.

The toilet in Ankamadoa is a dugout which is risky for children especial pupils in KG (See plate 4.3 below). Older girls do not use the toilet facility as they feel their bodies will be exposed because of the bad nature of the corrugated iron sheets used in fencing the toilets and urinals and this phenomenon according to King & Winthrop (2015) and Lambert, (2012) has the tendency to prevent girls from staying in school. Again the urinals are also very bad.

*“We feel shy using the toilet in the school so we have to walk all the way to town to use the public one which is far from the school. Most of us use going to toilet us an excuse to go home. You get exposed when you are using the schools’ toilet and urinal as they are in a very deplorable condition. Sometimes snakes and scorpions are even seen on it and some of the bad boys just hang around to come and spy on you whilst you are using the facility. In fact it is very bad so we do not come to school when we are menstruating...” (individual interview with an older girl at Ankamadoa RC Primary).*

**Plate 4. 3: Conditions of Toilets and Urinals (bottom left) at Ankamadoa RC Primary**



**Source: Author, 2016**

#### **4.5 Community Engagement Assessment**

According to Norad (2013), community participation is a strong notion which means ways in which various groups such as families, professionals, governments and common members work out common needs, preferably in a recognized or informal way. Sperling & Winthrop, (2015) in similar fashion reiterate the point that an important factor that is frequently talked about among educational practitioners and scholars as being vital to supporting the advancement made in girls' education is engaging the community, parents, and particularly mothers in the running of a school and its committees. They further established that improving relations between school

committees and their communities not only raise community awareness about school committee activities but also produce concern by leading members of the community who can promote tangible actions, like imposing learning hours in the village that strengthen and sustain advances made in schools. Akukwe and Chapman (2006) likewise maintain that community groups also take on bigger obligations in following up on and inspecting conformity with a selected school committee's action plans, besides monitoring teacher performance. Sperling & Winthrop, (2016) further note that communities that had been successful in sustaining an externally financed project's effectively had vibrant leaders who invested their time and individual funds over and above expectations. Communal action, a common idea among the community's members, and clearness about roles and tasks further boost communities' capacity to sustain activities. McConville and Mihelic, (2007) maintains that sustainability of community programs and community ownership of programs can be seen in active participation by locals. Again, IDS (2012) explains that participation makes people take part in decisions in community that impact their lives and for that matter the lives of their children. This study therefore seek first to gather respondents involvement and knowledge about communities they live in which provides a good idea about how they will be involved in other issues like education for girls.

#### **4.5.1 Knowledge on Issues in Communities**

On knowledge of issues within communities, most of the respondents were fairly and very well abreast with issues in the community. As represented in Table 4.3 below, out of the 50 respondents at Beposo and Nsuta each, 62% and 64% respondents respectively said they fairly have knowledge of issues in the community whiles 60% of respondents in Abasua said they very well know about issue in the community.

**Table 4. 3: Knowledge about Community**

<b>Knowledge About issues in the community</b>							
			How well do you know about issues in the community				Total
			Not at all	Barely	Fairly well	Very Well	
Name of Locality	<u>Rural</u> Abasua	Count	0	0	8	12	20
		% within Name of Town	0.0%	0.0%	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	5.3%	8.0%	13.3%
	Ankamadoa		0	4	22	4	30
			0.0%	13.3%	73.3%	13.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	2.7%	14.7%	2.7%	20.0%
	<u>Urban</u> Beposo		0	1	31	18	50
			0.0%	2.0%	62.0%	36.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.7%	20.7%	12.0%	33.3%
	Nsuta		4	7	32	7	50
			8.0%	14.0%	64.0%	14.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	2.7%	4.7%	21.3%	4.7%	33.3%
Total			4	12	93	41	150
			2.7%	8.0%	62.0%	27.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	2.7%	8.0%	62.0%	27.3%	100.0%

**df (9), p value = .000**

**Source: Field data, 2016**

Most respondents have idea about issues of education in their respective communities. Evidence from the table 4.3 shows that there is a significant relationship between place of residence and knowledge about communities as respondents in all locations have fairly good or very good knowledge about their communities.

#### 4.5.2 Knowledge on Educational Issues

Responses are mixed in both rural and urban communities on knowledge on educational issues in communities (see Table 4.4 below). As observed by Akukwe and Chapman (2006), having knowledge on matters concerning education is a good step to appreciation of problems that may affect girls’ education and how it can be tackled. Evidence from table 4.4 below shows a relationship between knowledge on education in communities and locations.

**Table 4. 4: Knowledge on Common Needs of education**

Name Locality		Knowledge on common needs of education in community				To.al	
		Not at all	Barely	Fairly well	Very Well		
<b>Rural</b>	Abasua	0	0	12	8	20	
		0.0%	0.0%	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%	
		0.0%	0.0%	8.0%	5.3%	13.3%	
	Ankamadoa	0	10	16	4	30	
		0.0%	33.3%	53.3%	13.3%	100.0%	
		0.0%	6.7%	10.7%	2.7%	20.0%	
	<b>Urban</b>	Beposo	0	2	28	20	50
			0.0%	4.0%	56.0%	40.0%	100.0%
			0.0%	1.3%	18.7%	13.3%	33.3%
	Nsuta	2	8	32	8	50	
4.0%		16.0%	64.0%	16.0%	100.0%		
1.3%		5.3%	21.3%	5.3%	33.3%		
Total	2	20	88	40	150		
	1.3%	13.3%	58.7%	26.7%	100.0%		
	1.3%	13.3%	58.7%	26.7%	100.0%		

$\chi^2$  value = 28.455 , df (9) p value = .001

Source: Field data, 2016

In other to get to know if knowledge about issues in the community corresponds to knowledge on issues on girls’ education in the community, community knowledge was matched to knowledge on matters concerning girls’ education as shown in Table 4.5 below.

**Table 4. 5: Cross Tabulation between Knowledge about One’s Community and Knowledge about Girls’ Education Issues**

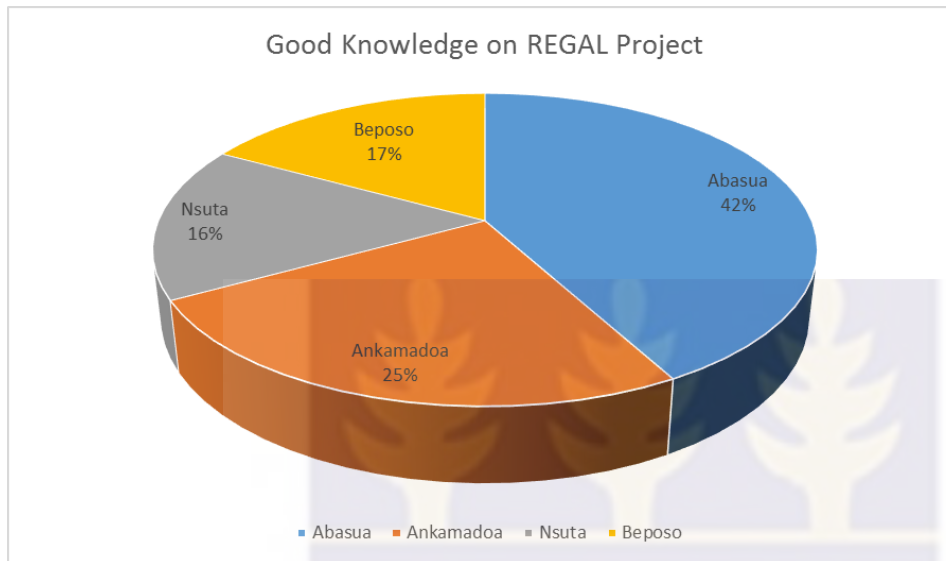
			Are you able describe matters relating to education of girls in this community				Total
			Not at all	Barely	Fairly well	Very Well	
<b>How well do know about issues in the community</b>	Not at all		0	0	4	0	4
			0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	2.7%	0.0%	2.7%
	Barely		1	7	2	2	12
			8.3%	58.3%	16.7%	16.7%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.7%	4.7%	1.3%	1.3%	8.1%
	Fairly well		0	8	59	25	92
			0.0%	8.7%	64.1%	27.2%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	5.4%	39.6%	16.8%	61.7%
	Very Well		0	0	9	32	41
			0.0%	0.0%	22.0%	78.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	6.0%	21.5%	27.5%
Total			1	15	74	59	149
			0.7%	10.1%	49.7%	39.6%	100.0%
% of Total			0.7%	10.1%	49.7%	39.6%	100.0%

$\chi^2$  value = 80.849, df (9), p value = .000

From the table above it can be deduced that how well respondents have knowledge about issues in communities gives an idea about how well such a person will have knowledge on issues concerning girls’ education and for that matter education in general. It is evident from the table that there is a significant relationship between knowledge on communities and having knowledge on matters concerning girls’ education. Only 0.7% representing one respondent barely have any knowledge about both issues in his/her community and issues about girls education. 78% who knows about issues in their community very well also knows about issues concerning girls’ education very well. This shows that active member participation in community programs enhances knowledge on educational issues concerning girls.

Drawing from the above, parents' knowledge on REGAL project was elicited and the response is shown below in Figure 4.4 below.

**Figure 4. 4: Knowledge on Matters Relating to the REGAL Project in Communities.**



**Source: Field data, 2016**

On matters relating to the REGAL project and girl child education, respondents within the various communities responded in varies degree ranging from Not At All to Good. Abasua (42%) had the highest number of respondents having good knowledge followed by Ankamadoa (25%) and Beposo and Nsuta scored 17% and 16% respectively (see Figure 4.4) The two rural communities have good knowledge about the project because their population is small as compared to Nsuta and Beposo. This can also be due to number of schools in communities as Abasua and Akamadoa boast of only one school whilst there are several schools in Nsuta and Beposo. It is not surprising too as members in small rural communities take part well in community programs than those in urban areas. As noted by Unterhalter et al (2014) knowledge and appreciation of the nature of problems that girls face are very important in mapping out strategies to solve them and sustaining such programs too. This assertion is not true in this

instance as Community members in Akamadoa have good knowledge about the REGAL Project but have perform so far on sustainability of gains. With the high level of appreciation of such issues, communities should be well placed to undertake programs that can help solve girls' education issues.

#### 4.6 Community Participation in Education

Asked whether respondents attend PTA meetings, majority of the respondents said they sometimes attend PTA meetings (Table 4.6). This recorded 35% of the total response in Abasua. At Ankamadoa, majority of about 60% said they do not attend their wards meetings at school. This also recorded a different response at Beposo where 50% and 20% of the respondents said they sometimes and often do respectively. At Nsuta, 36% and 20% also said they sometimes attend while others also said they often do attend their wards school meetings respectively.

**Table 4. 6: Attendance of PTA Meetings**

<b>Communities</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Seldom</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Often</b>
<b>Abasua</b>	6 (30)	3 (15)	7 (35)	4 (20)
<b>Ankamadoa</b>	18 (60)	8 (26.7)	4 (13.3)	0 (0)
<b>Beposo</b>	6 (12)	9 (18)	25 (50)	10 (20)
<b>Nsuta</b>	9 (18)	11 (22)	18 (36)	12 (24)
<b>Total</b>	39 (26)	31 (20.6)	54 (36)	26 (17.3)

**Source: Field Data, 2016**

In all it could be seen in Table 4.6 that majority of the respondents do attend PTA meetings of their wards. However, individual communities participation tend to be low in one rural area especially at Ankamadoa and this may affect citizen power to effect change as corroborated by

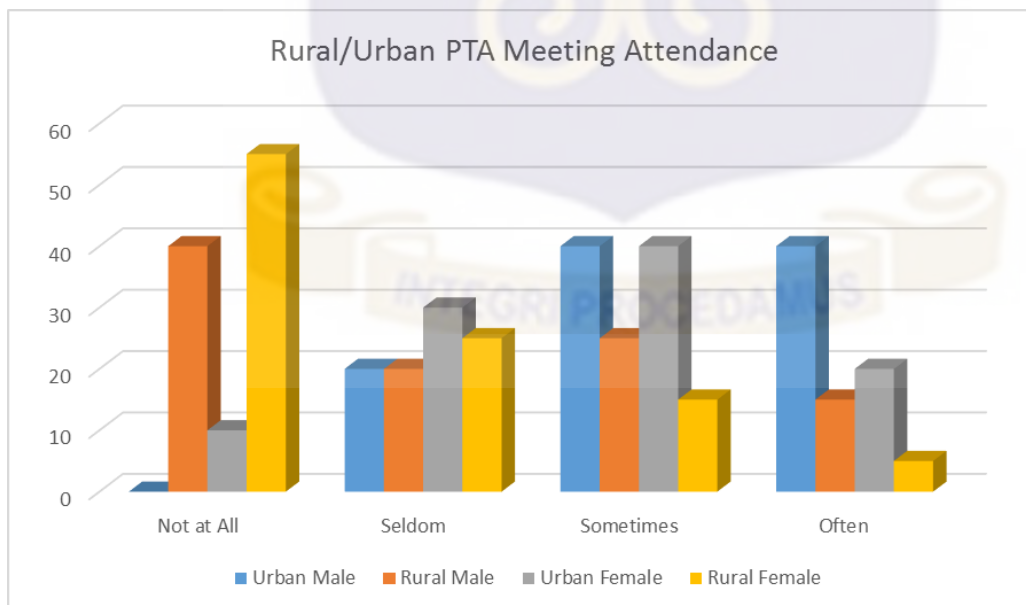
Anstein, (1990) that the more citizens participate in community programs, they gain citizen power that helps to put one in a position to help bring improvement in the community. A very important element to sustaining the progress made in girls' education is engaging the community, parents and especially mothers in the management of schools and its committees (Sperling & Winthrop, 2015). Amongst many reasons why some parents do not go to meetings include engagement in farming and other economic activities and non interest in education. The head teacher of Ankamadoa when asked about attendance of PTA/SMC meeting attendance gave the following narrative:

*“We have not been able to organize any meeting about a year and a half. The parents will not attend. They do not see the need for them to attend these meetings. We have tried all we could but they still will not come. Only 2 PTA executives are serious about the school. These are the only parents who are part of the executives. Their inability to come to meetings has made our work very difficult. It is really difficult for parents to provide basic school needs of their children because they do not come to meetings to know what they should be doing for their children...”(Head teacher, Ankamadoa, individual interview )*

One rural community did not fare well on attendance of PTA meetings. This shows that members in this community will not get to know what is needed by their wards to help them learn at school. Because rural parents are most often illiterates as compared to urban counterparts, Lloyd and Young (2009) reiterate the point that they will not appreciate the importance of education and as such may not put in the needed effort to support their wards. Attendance result from figure 4.5 supports this claim as this rural area after all the advocacy still lag behind in attending meetings.

#### 4.6.1 Attendance of Meetings between Gender Groups

Comparing PTA attendance between various gender groups and rural urban habitations, evidence from Figure 4.5 below shows rural women performed worse in comparison to both rural and urban men and urban women. Urban men often attend PTA meetings more than the other groups which is surprising as men most often go to work and allowed women to represent them. The situation is different and may be attributed to the nature of towns as they are not big in size and do not have big corporations as most of the respondents are self-employed. The performance of rural women on attendance of PTA meetings give credence to many studies like Lambert et al (2012) and King and Winthrop (2015) that poor rural women will not be much involved in the education of their girl child as they may be occupied with activities to earn some paltry amount of money to cater for their many children (most uneducated rural women give birth to many children). This assertion mirrors the situation in Ankamadoa which is a rural community in the poorest part of the district.



**Figure 4. 5: Gender and Location and PTA meeting Attendance**

Source: Field data, 2016

#### 4.6.2 Contributions to Help Schools

Urban communities contribute more to their schools than those in rural areas. Due to the disparity in financial wherewithal of residents in these localities, rural people may not have money to help as counterparts in urban areas. That is where UNESCO (2015) claims that if current trends continue; it will take 70 years for rural girls from poor areas to achieve education attainment like urban boys. Disparities still exist between rural areas and urban areas in term of support from communities, learning facilities, quality education and literacy. Assessment was done to appraise whether the situation is different after project interventions. From table 4.7 below, it was seen that parents from urban communities and Abasua, a rural community not found in the deprived part of the district do help to contribute to school programs. The situation is different in Akamadoa, a deprived rural community showing that poor rural areas may not contribute to help in the education of children.

**Table 4. 7: Contribution to School Fundraising and other Educational Activities**

		Are you able to contribute to school fundraising and other educational activities				Total
		Not at all	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	
Name of Locality	<b>Rural</b> Abasua	0.0%	40.0%	30.0%	30.0%	100.0%
	Ankamadoa	66.7%	20.0%	6.7%	6.7%	100.0%
	<b>Urban</b> Beposo	4.2%	20.8%	54.2%	20.8%	100.0%
	Nsuta	14.0%	42.0%	20.0%	24.0%	100.0%
Total		19.6%	30.4%	29.7%	20.3%	100.0%

$\chi^2$  value = 70.429 , df (9) p value .000

Source: Field data, 2016

From Table 4.7, respondents at Beposo said they sometimes contribute to school fundraising and other educational activities while others said they seldom and often do. These recorded 54% of total respondents. At Nsuta, majority of the respondents said they seldom contribute to school fundraising and other educational activities while others said they sometimes and often do. These also recorded 42%, 20% and 24% respondents respectively. This same scenario was also drawn from the case of Abasua where 40% said they seldom contribute, 30% said they sometimes do and another 30% also said they often contribute to school fundraising and other educational activities. On the other hand, most respondents from Ankamadoa (67.7%) said they do not contribute at all to such activities. This can be related to their attendance of PTA meetings as most of the respondents do not attend PTA meetings. This shows a significant relationship between localities and financial contributions to school ( $\chi^2$  value = 70.429, df (9) p value .0001).

**Plate 4. 4: School Building and Pavement Constructed By PTA at Beposo**



**Source: Author, 2016**

### 4.6.3 Parental Involvement in Children's Education

Asked when how well do parents and guardians visit their wards in school to check on their performance, 10 people in Abasua representing 50% said they do not visit their wards in school. This followed through Ankamadoa with 87%, Beposo with 52% and Nsuta with 44%. It can therefore be said that parents and guardians participation in education of their wards in school could be said to be very poor (see Table 4.8 below).

**Table 4. 8: Visitation of Your Ward in School to Check His/her Performance**

Community	Not at all	Barely	Fairly well	Very well
Abasua	10 (50)	7 (35)	0 (0)	3 (15)
Ankamadoa	26 (86.7)	4 (13.3)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Beposo	26 (52)	6 (12)	13 (26)	5 (10)
Nsuta	22 (44)	8 (16)	8 (16)	12 (24)

**Source: Field Data, 2016**

The response from parents in Ankamadoa shows little interest of parents in getting to know what help their children actually need in school which will affect their ability to properly provide the needed assistance that they need. The case in Abasua a rural community is surprisingly different. The drawback on any intervention especially those that borders on institutional cultures and working with parents in relation to gender and girls and rights of women according to Unterhalter et al (2014) slows down progress in quality education and gender equity. In other to assess if gender have any effect on helping children learn at, a cross tabulation on gender and efforts to help children learn at home was done. It was realized that both men and women help their children to learn at home. Although it is believed that educated women help children to learn more than men, the situation from respondents does not support this claim (refer to table 4.9).

**Table 4. 9: Efforts to Help Your Ward Learn at Home**

		How much effort do you make to help your ward learn at home				Total
		Not at all	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	
Gender	Male					
		13.4%	13.4%	41.8%	31.3%	100.0%
		6.1%	6.1%	19.0%	14.3%	45.6%
	Female					
		12.5%	17.5%	37.5%	32.5%	100.0%
		6.8%	9.5%	20.4%	17.7%	54.4%
<b>Total</b>						
		12.9%	15.6%	39.5%	32.0%	100.0%
		12.9%	15.6%	39.5%	32.0%	100.0%

$\chi^2$  value = .595, df (3) p value .897

**Source: Field data, 2016**

It can be seen from table 4.9 that parental efforts in helping wards at home is very poor hence can affect their performance at school. Nevertheless, most of the respondent in the various communities responded that such practices were good and will positively influence their wards performance at school. Respondents who could not help their children learn at wish to do it but due to illiteracy they cannot do so. It is not surprising that most of such parents are in the rural communities where illiteracy is high according to (Lambert et al, 2012) and Lloyd and Young (2009). This may be as a result of more women having lower education attainment than men in communities. Most of the respondents who are females wanted to help but lack the knowledge to help their wards. This situation is more pronounce in the rural areas as females have lesser education attainment than men.

*“I sometimes wish I can help my child to learn at home but I do not have knowledge on the things they are learning at school. The father who boasts that he is educated does not help her to*

*learn. I know if we can help her learn at home she will perform well at school. Her brothers and sisters do not also know anything to help her because they don't like going to school.. (A 42 year old woman at Ankamadoa)''*

#### **4.7 Summary**

This chapter analyzed results that were obtained from the field data pertaining to the background characteristics of respondents which reveals a statistical relationship between religion, marital status and educational attainment within the communities. It also assessed the level of participation of respondents in the education of their children particularly with female children which shows that respondents in urban communities are very much involved in the education of their children than those in rural areas. There were mixed performance on current state of facilities and use of interventions that promote girls education. As with previous trends, urban areas generally have better facilities than rural areas but with Abasua performing well on many indicators as compared to the other rural community, Akamadoa. This goes to support Sperling and Winthrop (2015) and Lloyd and Young (2009) about the disparities that still exist between rural and urban areas amidst the interventions made. Due to poverty and illiteracy which is common in rural areas, the study shows that one rural community still lag behind urban areas in support given to education as women who are supposed to take the education of their children more serious do not attend PTA meeting as compared to their male counterparts both in rural and urban areas. Rural women are not able to help their children learn at home due to illiteracy and do no talk to community leaders about problems on education. Although the REGAL Project has supported girls' education in many forms including advocacy, sustaining gains is mixed between various communities with Akamadoa performing badly in this respect than Abasua, also a rural community and the two urban communities of Nsuta and Beposo .

## CHAPTER FIVE

### ENROLMENT TRENDS, CHALLENGES TO SUSTAINING PROGRESS MADE AND SOLUTIONS TO CHALLENGES

#### 5.0 Introduction

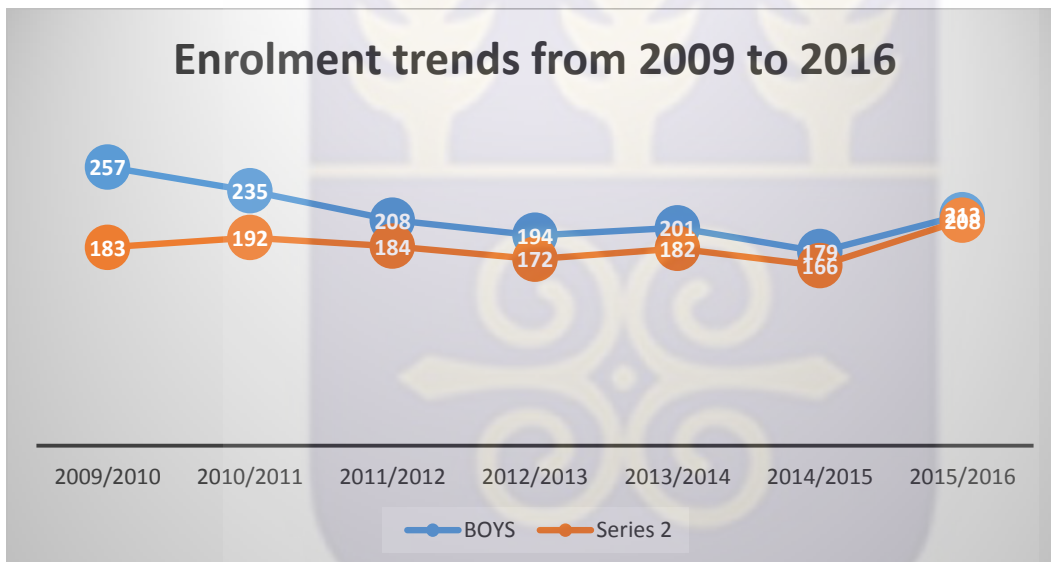
This chapter analyzes trends in enrolment and female performance between communities and an assessment on perception of progress of girls in various communities to SHS and other higher levels of education. Also ways respondents think will improve progress of girls to higher levels of education is analyzed too. The chapter also assesses how well known issues that affect girls' education in communities are still prevalent and a sample of respondents' ideas about how to tackle it will be looked at. New issues that affect the education of children in communities are also mentioned in this chapter.

#### 5.1 Trends in Enrolment

In 2005, only about 45 percent of girls in the erstwhile Sekeyre West District were enrolled in basic schools (Kadingdi, 2010). This huge disparity in enrolment and injustice for girls necessitated the investment by CARE International in improving this trend. Current trends are assessed to see how well communities are faring in regards to enrolment. This is in line with UNESCO, (2015) and Sperling & Wintrop, (2016) assertion that enrolment levels have improved with the exception of few rural areas and nations. Poor Girls in rural areas are faced with what Clinton Foundation et al (2015) call a triple disadvantage of going to school and completing as they spend less years in school even if they enrol.

From figure 5.1 below, it can be deduced that the gap between girls and boys enrolment (from 257 for boys and 183 for girls in 2009 to 212 for boys and 208 for girls in 2016) in Beposo Muslim Mission Primary has reduced and is almost at par in 2015/2016 academic year. There are many more girls in school and it is hoped this trend will continue as parents in urban areas appreciate the importance of sending female children to school. Because Muslim Mission has one of the largest enrolment figures in the District, it encouraging to see closing of disparity in enrolment as it will trickle down to other schools.

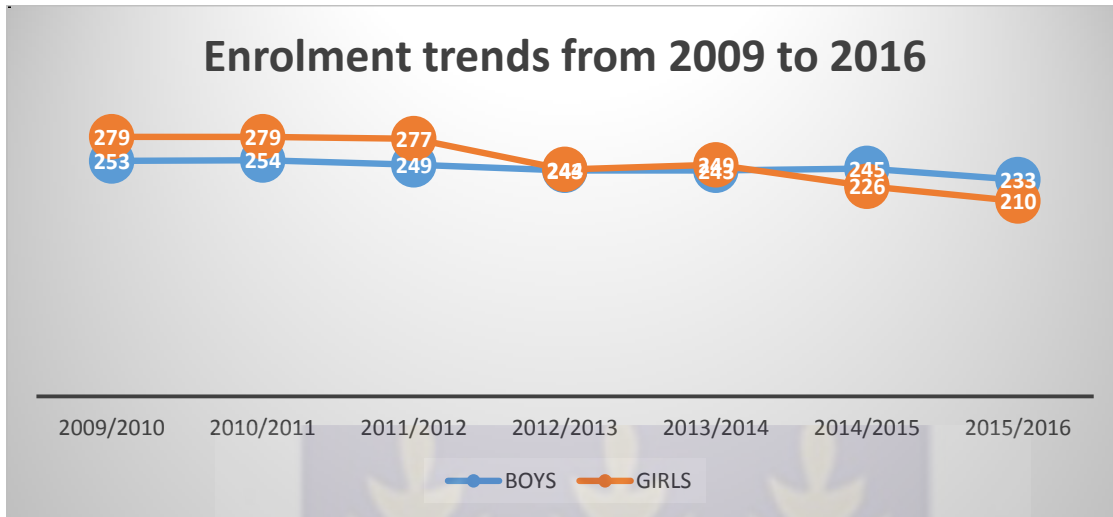
**Figure 5. 1: Enrolment Trends for Beposo Muslim Mission Basic School**



Source: Fieldwork, 2016

Nsuta Presbyterian Primary school has the highest population among primary schools in Nsuta Township which is the district capital. There are currently 443 registered pupils in the school. The numbers of girls was higher than boys in 2009 but has reduced over the years with boys surpassing girls on enrolment currently (Figure 5.2 below). The enrollment for 2015/2016 academic year and enrolment trends since the district was created in 2009 is shown below.

**Figure 5. 2: Enrolment trends for Nsuta Presby Primary**



**Source: Fieldwork, 2016**

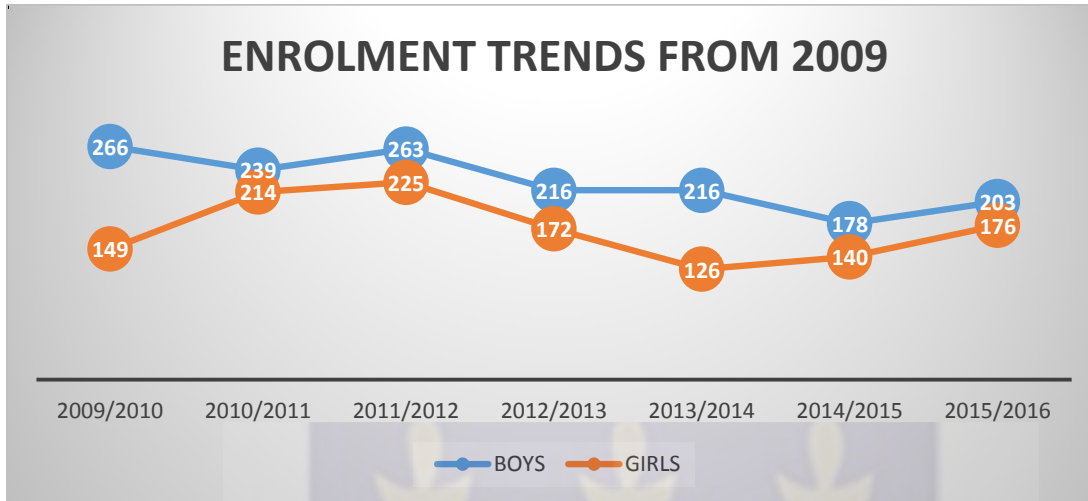
Figures from Nsuta suggest a drop in girls’ enrolment but the head teacher has this to say:

*“...there is no need to worry about this trend as all girls that are supposed to be in school are in school. This reduction in the number of girls does not suggest anything bad. It may be due to increase in number of male children..” (Head teacher of Nsuta Presby Primary, individual interview)*

His assertion is true as there is rise in male children in within the Age s of 0-14 according to population data available (GSS, 2014). (See Table 3.2).

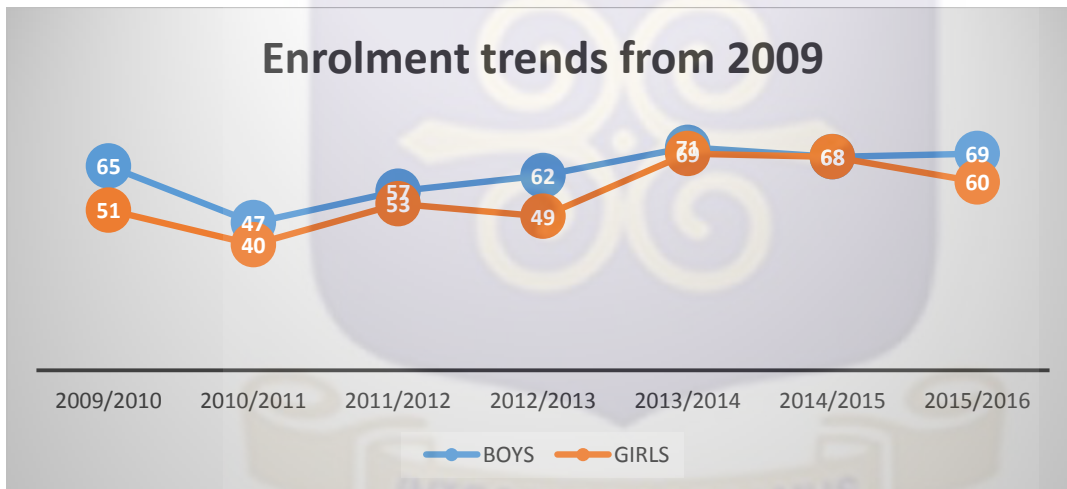
From Figure 5.3 below, it can be seen that Ankamadoa has improved tremendously on bridging enrolment gaps over the years although much needs to be done. The community was one of the communities with wide disparity in enrolment for boys and girls (REGAL, 2010).

**Figure 5. 3: Enrolment Trends for Ankamadoa RC Primary**



Source: Fieldwork, 2016

**Figure 5. 4: Enrolment Trends for Abasua D/A Primary**



Source: Fieldwork, 2016

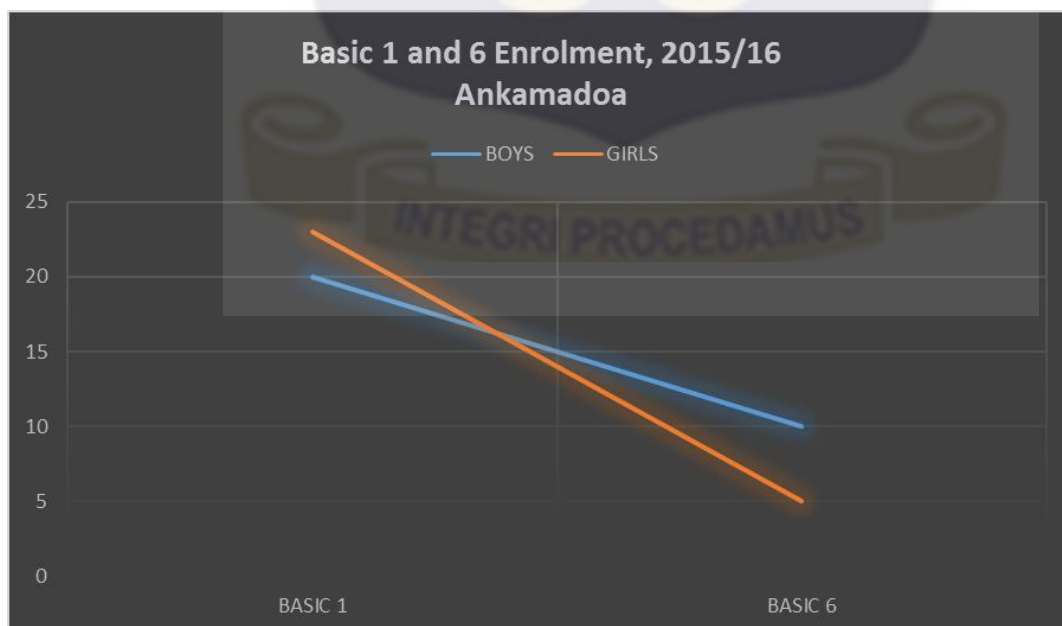
Enrolment figures have shown improvement in all communities although figures from Ankamadoa shows that some girls are still not enrolled in schools. Ankamadoa which is located in the deprived section of the district which is the Afram Plains mirrors the situation that is found in poor rural areas where girls enrolment and retention is difficult. United Nation (2014) further

maintains that poverty, gender and location are the utmost persistent issues connected to inequalities in school attendance in children of primary school and lower secondary school age and that rural girls who are poor are more likely to be out of school which is two times the number of urban boys. Though Abasua is a rural area, it does not show traits of poverty as seen in Ankamadoa. Enrolment figures for girls in urban towns are high and match those of boys and even higher as shown in Figure 5.2.

*“You know in this community (Ankamadoa) it is not easy to convince parents to send their girl child to school. Even if they do, they do not provide for the needs of girls and even boys as they progress so the children drop out from school to fend for themselves. And because early marriage is a common practice among some tribes in this community the girls get pregnant and never step a foot again in school” (Personal Interview with Community Girl Child Education Facilitator).*

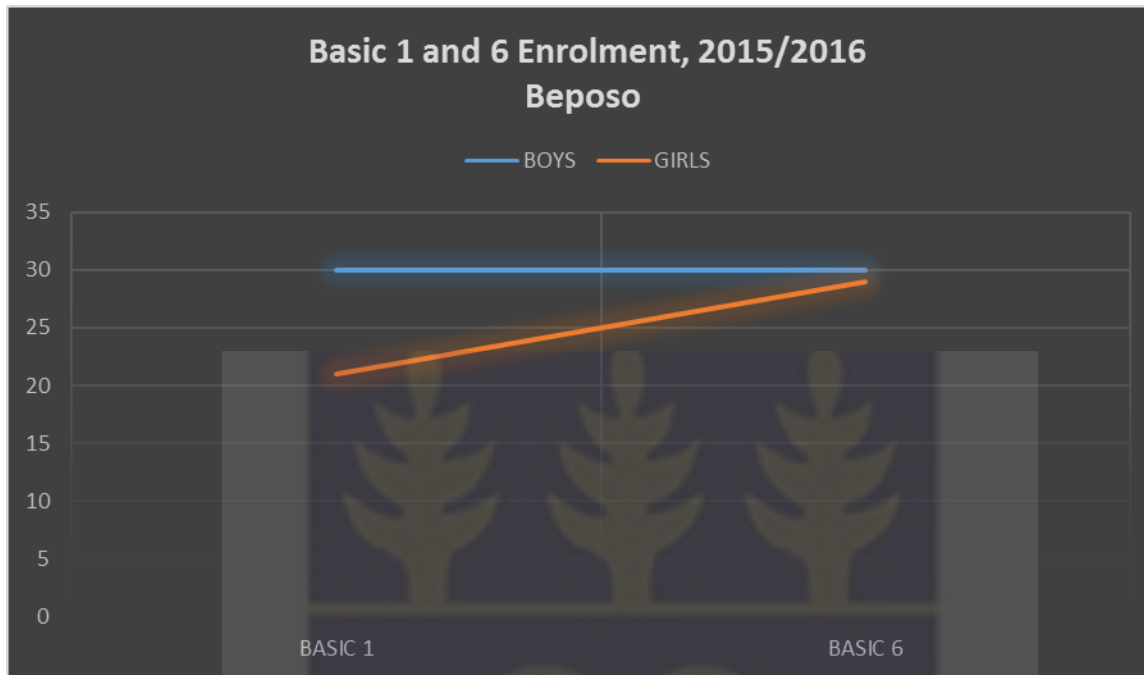
This phenomenon is shown in Figures 5.5 and 5.6 below where basic 1 enrolment and basic 6 enrolments show a huge deficit at Ankamadoa as compared to Beposo.

**Figure 5. 5: Basic 1 and 6 Enrolment for Ankamadoa R/C Primary**



Source: GES, Sekyere Central

Figure 5. 6: Basic 1 and 6 Enrolments in Beposo MM Basic School



Source: GES, Sekyere Central

Figure 5.5 and 5.6 above shows huge deficit in staying in school of pupils in Ankamadoa as compared to Beposo (Figure 5.6) which showed consistency in enrolment between Basic 1 and Basic. This situation resonates with UNESCO (2015b) that girls and also boys in poor rural areas have less chance of staying and completing basic education as compared to students in urban areas. Also Winthrop and McGivney (2014b) points out that in several places, equal number of boys and girls are dropping out of school before they complete. The similarly small figures of boys and girls finishing their education in the developing world indicate that there is a serious issue for both genders. Poverty, child labour, gendered norms are more prevalent in rural areas than urban areas. This situation also echoes Sarriot et al (2009) view that projects which are one off and cloistered may not produce long lasting effect as communities that do not have underlying problems solved may show signs of reversing to old ways. While all other

communities show improvements in enrolment and retention, Ankamadoa seems not to sustain the momentum although there are improvements.

## **5.2 Performance Assessment**

When girls enroll and stay in school, UNESCO (2015b) emphasize that it is imperative to ensure they learn while they are there. A major matter is to ensure that they are learning well when staying in school. Certainly, the value of schooling and girls' ability to finish school are closely associated. When girls do not take active part in their lessons, it is likely they will trail behind and eventually drop out. The quality of schooling is important if girls are to stay in school. Evidence has shown that many children do not meet proficiency standards for mathematics and reading and though many more children are enrolling in school, basic skills are not being learnt by millions (UNICEF, 2017). Interventions towards enhancing girls' education have inputs that seek to help address quality of teaching and learning. These interventions include using gender sensitive teaching methods, provision of teaching and learning materials, inculcating in students peer teaching, increasing more female teachers and managers. This should have a direct impact on performance of girls. It is therefore important to assess performance of pupils in mathematics and English to see if the interventions and facilities provided over the years by government, communities and those by CARE international are having impact on performance and being sustained.

**Table 5. 1: Performance Assessment in Ankamadoa**

ANKAMADOA	2013/2014				2014/2015					
	BOYS		GIRLS		BOYS		GIRLS			
	pass	fail	pass	fail	pass	fail	pass	Fail		
End of Term Results (Percentages)										
Maths Results P2	64.3	35.7	36.9	63.1		43.2	56.8	39.7	60.3	
English Results P2	33.4	66.6	36.8	63.2		48.6	51.4	42.9	57.1	
Maths Results P4	53.8	46.2	48	52		56.7	43.3	51.2	48.8	
English Results P4	41.9	58.1	44.5	55.5		47.7	52.3	39.2	60.8	

Source: GES, Sekyere Central

**Table 5. 2: Performance Assessment in Abasua**

ABASUA	2013/2014				2014/2015					
	BOYS		GIRLS		BOYS		GIRLS			
	pass	fail	pass	fail	pass	fail	Pass	Fail		
End of Term Results (Percentages)										
Maths Results P2	68.5	31.5	54.6	45.4		65.6	34.4	58.3	41.7	
English Results P2	52.3	47.7	53.2	46.8		55	45	53.4	46.6	
Maths Results P4	66.7	33.3	49.4	50.6		59.3	40.7	54.2	45.8	
English Results P4	55.8	44.2	56.3	43.7		57.2	42.8	31.5	68.5	

Source: GES, Sekyere Central

**Table 5. 3: Performance Assessment in Beposo**

BEPOSO	2013/2014				2014/2015					
	BOYS		GIRLS		BOYS		GIRLS			
	pass	fail	pass	fail	pass	fail	Pass	fail		
End of Term Results (Percentages)										
Maths Results P2	78.5	21.5	76.4	23.6		83.6	16.4	79.4	20.6	
English Results P2	75	25	79	21		68.4	31.6	68.2	31.8	
Maths Results P4	82.6	17.4	79.5	20.5		64	36	66.1	33.9	
English Results P4	69.9	30.1	74.7	25.3		65.8	34.2	67	33	

Source: GES, Sekyere Central

**Table 5. 4: Performance Assessment in Nsuta**

Nsuta	2013/2014				2014/2015			
	BOYS		GIRLS		BOYS		GIRLS	
	pass	fail	pass	fail	pass	fail	Pass	fail
End of Term Results (Percentages)								
Maths Results P2	84.3	15.7	81.4	18.6	76.7	23.3	71	29
English Results P2	83.3	16.7	85.6	14.4	67	33	69	31
Maths Results P4	90.2	9.8	85.1	14.9	76	24	78	22
English Results P4	84.1	15.9	82.2	17.8	68	32	72	28

**Source: GES, Sekyere Central**

From the above tables, it is shown that performance of pupils in rural areas is not the best as compared to those in urban areas. Whereas pupils in urban communities of Nsuta and Beposo are scoring a pass average of 70% or more in mathematics and 65 % in English for the 2013/14 academic year, those in Ankamadoa are scoring less than 50% for both mathematics and English. The disparity in performance again resonates with United Nations (2014) that girls in rural areas lag behind counterparts in urban centers in proficiency in learning. This is not good news as these girls may drop out and never attain any form of learning further perpetuating poverty in their family lines. Accordingly, Akyeapong et al (2007) emphasize that dealing with school quality and efficiency issued is undeniably one significant way of guaranteeing that high enrolments remains at the basic education level.

### **5.2.1 Girls' Progress to Higher Levels of Education**

Because more girls are completing primary education, focus has now shifted to Secondary education because this is the stage where the benefit are immense if girls move beyond this stage or even completes (Sperling & Winthrop 2016; UNESCO 2015a, b). Also, it is important to assess progression to secondary school as perceived by community members to ascertain

whether gains from enrolling children particularly girls in basic school is having impact. It will also give a view on how interventions have helped shape minds of community members on ensuring their wards' remain in school to higher levels. As noted by Winthrop and McGivney (2014b) enrolling boys and girls in basic schools is just the first step but the difficult aspect of their schooling is retaining them in schools and giving them the quality education they so much need to acquire needed skills to stay relevant after school. Assessing community's perception on progress of girls to SHS's is a good step to knowing if girls are remaining in school as opposed to dropping out. Below is a survey on community perception on progress of girls to SHS's.

**Table 5. 5: Community Perception on Progress of Girls to Higher Levels of Education**

Community	Not good	Quite fine	Good	Very good
<b>RURAL</b>				
<b>Abasua</b>	10 (50%)	8 (40%)	2 (10%)	0 (0%)
<b>Ankamadoa</b>	30 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
<b>URBAN</b>				
<b>Beposo</b>	0 (0%)	7 (14%)	39 (78%)	2 (4%)
<b>Nsuta</b>	0 (0%)	3 (6%)	35 (70%)	10 (20%)

**Source: Field Survey, 2016**

From Table 5.5, it could be seen that there is not any significant progress of girls to higher educational intuitions in the communities and this is most severe in the rural communities of Abasua and Ankomadoa where 10 and 30 respondents representing 50% and 100% respectively said progress of girl's education in higher levels were not good. Sperling & Winthrop (2016) observed that whilst there have been real progress made in basic education for girls; the real problem is in secondary level. UNESCO (2015b) further reiterates that poor girls in rural and deprived areas lag behind in attending SHS's. The perception of progress in rural communities

confirms findings from the above work. It also shows that sustaining retention in schools after the basic level is still a difficult issue particularly in rural areas. Reasons for this bad situation according to community members are child labour, high cost of education, and distance to school, early marriage and teenage pregnancy, poverty and lack of facilities near these rural areas among many others.

*“... My daughter has to stop secondary school because I cannot pay for her accommodation at the nearby town and give her additional money for feeding. If we are to get a secondary school near our village where children can go and come back, those who are able to finish basic school can go there for further studies...”* (Individual interview with a 38 year old mother at Ankamadoa).

Hence respondents proposed that in order to help the progress of girls to a higher education within the communities there should be reduction of the cost of education, creation of job opportunities for adults, formulating bye laws to check truant children, improve quality of education, and educate community on teenage pregnancy, building of schools close to the community amongst others.

### **5.3 Issues Affecting Girls Education**

This section discusses issues within the communities and its effect on their education. Sperling et al, (2016) elaborates that amid the enormous progress in girls' education, 'the state of girls' education remains nothing less than an educational, economic, health, and moral crisis' (p. 66). From the Table (5.1), there are several issues that affect girls' education within the various communities and amongst these are child labour, early marriage, teenage pregnancy, and cost of

education, gendered attitudes, and lack of recreational facilities, lack of proper sanitation facilities, poverty and lack of parental guidance. These support the assertion that the glass is just half full amid all the progress made when it comes to girls' education progress (UNESCO, 2015b; Sperling & Winthrop, 2016).

**Table 5. 6: Factors that affects girls' education in communities**

		Name of Town				Total
		Abasua	Ankamadoa	Beposo	Nsuta	
<b>Child labour</b>	Not at all	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	6 (12.0%)	6 (4.1%)
	Barely	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	23 (46.0%)	16 (32.0%)	39 (26.4%)
	Fairly well	7 (35.0%)	2 (7.1%)	22 (44.0%)	13 (26.0%)	44 (29.7%)
	Very Well	13 (65.0%)	26 (92.9%)	5 (10.0%)	15 (30.0%)	59 (39.9%)
<b>Early marriage</b>	Not at all	20 (100.0%)	0 (0.0%)	18 (36.0%)	38 (76.0%)	76 (50.7%)
	Barely	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	27 (54.0%)	6 (12.0%)	33 (22.0%)
	Fairly well	0 (0.0%)	6 (20.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.0%)	8 (5.3%)
	Very Well	0 (0.0%)	24 (80.0%)	5 (10.0%)	4 (8.0%)	33 (22.0%)
<b>Teenage pregnancy</b>	Fairly well	20 (100.0%)	6 (20.0%)	27 (54.0%)	34 (68.0%)	87 (58.0%)
	Very Well	0 (0.0%)	24 (80.0%)	23 (46.0%)	16 (32.0%)	63 (42.0%)
<b>Cost of education</b>	Barely	0 (0.0%)	1 (3.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.7%)
	Fairly well	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	11 (22.0%)	24 (48.0%)	35 (23.3%)
	Very Well	20 (100.0%)	29 (96.7%)	39 (78.0%)	26 (52.0%)	114 (76.0%)
<b>Gendered attitude</b>	Not at all	3 (15.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.0%)	4 (8.0%)	9 (6.0%)
	Barely	16 (80.0%)	1 (3.3%)	19 (38.0%)	30 (60.0%)	66 (44.0%)
	Fairly well	0 (0.0%)	4 (13.3%)	17 (34.0%)	7 (14.0%)	28 (18.7%)
	Very Well	1 (5.0%)	25 (83.3%)	12 (24.0%)	9 (18.0%)	47 (31.3%)
<b>Lack of recreational facilities</b>	Not at all	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.0%)	2 (4.0%)	4 (2.7%)
	Barely	17 (85.0%)	7 (23.3%)	6 (12.0%)	12 (24.0%)	42 (28.0%)
	Fairly well	3 (15.0%)	17 (56.7%)	27 (54.0%)	33 (66.0%)	80 (53.3%)
	Very Well	0 (0.0%)	6 (20.0%)	15 (30.0%)	3 (6.0%)	24 (16.0%)
<b>Lack of proper sanitation</b>	Not at all	3 (15.0%)	1 (3.3%)	2 (4.0%)	4 (8.0%)	10 (6.7%)
	Barely	10 (50.0%)	3 (10.0%)	7 (14.0%)	14 (28.0%)	34 (22.7%)
	Fairly well	7 (35.0%)	17 (56.7%)	27 (54.0%)	25 (50.0%)	76 (50.7%)
	Very Well	0 (0.0%)	9 (30.0%)	14 (28.0%)	7 (14.0%)	30 (20.0%)
<b>Poverty</b>	Not at all	1 (5.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.7%)
	Barely	1 (5.0%)	1 (3.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.3%)
	Fairly well	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	19 (38.0%)	22 (44.0%)	41 (27.3%)
	Very Well	18 (90.0%)	29 (96.7%)	31 (62.0%)	28 (56.0%)	106 (70.7%)
<b>Lack of parental</b>	Not at all	2 (10.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (1.3%)

<b>guidance</b>	Barely	0 (0.0%)	1 (3.3%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.7%)
	Fairly well	7 (35.0%)	2 (6.7%)	18 (36.0%)	21 (42.0%)	48 (32.0%)
	Very Well	11 (55.0%)	27 (90.0%)	32 (64.0%)	29 (58.0%)	99 (66.0%)

**Source: Field Survey, 2016**

### 5.3.1 Child Labour

On Child labour, majority of the respondents from Table 5.6 above in Abasua and Ankamadoa said issues of child labour affected girl's education. This recorded 13 and 26 respondents representing 65% and 93% of the respondents from these communities respectively (Table 5.6). These two communities are rural communities and the situation seems profound in Ankamadoa which is in the Afram Plains portion of the district. This result give impetus to EIU, (2015); Clinton Foundation (2015) and Bill and Melinda Gates (2015) Reports that poor rural children especially girls face a triple disadvantage of completing schools with child labour playing a critical role due to poverty.

*“Hmmm.....this issue of child labour is a big canker affecting education of not girls but boys too in the area. It has affected attendance of pupils so much and it can be seen in their performance in schools... My brother, you need to be here to see what the situation is like. It's heart-breaking.....” (An individual interview with The School Based Girls Club Facilitator of Ankamadoa RC Primary).*

The head teacher of Abasua which is the home of Atwea Prayer Camp said this about the issue of child labour (Plate 5.1).

*“This situation affect the girls profoundly because they stay on top of the mountain (to sell) till 8pm or sometimes as late as 9 pm before descending home. Although we have had great impact from the daytime ban on school children climbing the mountain, the issue of pupil selling after school is a tricky one as the major source of income in this community is selling on the mountain.....” (An Individual interview with the head teacher of Abasua DA Primary).*

**Plate 5. 1: Girls Carrying water and Selling on Atwea Mountains**



**SOURCE: Author, 2016**

Whiles others in Beposo and Nsuta noted that issue of child labour barely affect girl's education in the communities. These represented (46%), (44%), (32%), (26%) respectively. In all 59 respondents representing 40% (see Table 5.6) claim that child labour very well affected girls' education. Although some respondents in Nsuta and Beposo agree that child labour fairly affects education of children, there is not much evidence to show any serious form of child labour as seen in the 2 rural communities of Abasua and Ankamadoa.

### 5.3.2 Early Marriage

Most of the respondents across the various communities dismissed the assertion that early marriage affects girl child education in their communities. From Table 5.6, at Abasua almost the 20 respondents dismissed this assertion. However majority of the respondents in Ankamadoa thus 24 representing 80% said the issue of early marriage is very high in the community. Majority of the respondents in Beposo (54) said early marriage barely affected girls education while in Nsuta (76) they said it does not affect it at all. The District Girls Education Director made the following revelation on early marriage;

*“About 3 or 2 years ago, there was an issue of a Basic five pupil in Ankamadoa RC primary school who was given out for marriage to a 45 years old man. The head teacher and some teachers at the school were not happy because the girl was exceptionally brilliant. We took the matter up and it got to Kumasi where some radio stations even took it up. It was settled and the girl went back to the village. A year on, the girl got pregnant for the same man.”... (An Individual Interview with the District Girl Child Education Coordinator of Sekyere Central District)*

As noted by Tanye, 2008, early marriage brings to halt the education of girls and perpetuate poverty and illiteracy as marriage girls remain poor and will not be able to take care of their children's education. A pupil in Ankamadoa who is under pressure to marry and was not interested had this to say:

*“...my parents want me to marry a man who just came from our hometown because they have betrothed me to him but I am not willing to marry him because he is old and it will also affect my education.....” (An individual interview with pupil at Ankamadoa).*

Unsurprisingly, poor rural communities other than urban areas grapple with this problem. This scenario reiterates Lambert et al (2012); Winthrop and Rebecca & McGivney (2014a) assertions that issues that deals with norms are difficult to eradicate when communities (rural) remain uneducated and interventions aim at curbing these norms may yield results when local leaders are not fully integrated into implementation of such interventions during the project.

### **5.3.3 Teenage Pregnancy**

Teenage pregnancy was seen as one of the main factors affecting girl child education within the communities. Parents responded fairly well in Abasua, Beposo, and Nsuta scoring 100%, 54% and 68% respectively while others responded very well (80% in Ankamadoa) as represented in table 5.6. UNICEF, (2008) noted that teenage or early pregnancy is prevalent in many areas of Africa where before the age of 20 we have about 50% of girls and women given birth. According to Gyan (2013), teenage pregnancy is widespread in many communities in Ghana especially rural areas as is the situation in many parts of Africa and is common among JHS and SHS students with many of them writing their final examinations with pregnancies. Unwanted pregnancy and early motherhood put to a stop the education of many girls and women which affect their employability in the future thereby affecting the decent and good life the mother and the child may have with education. This reduces the impact they may have on society making them less beneficial to society (Gyan, 2013).

### **5.3.4 Cost of Education**

The cost of education also affected girl child education in the communities according to majority of the respondents in Table 5.6. At Abasua, Ankamadoa, Beposo and Nsuta, 100%, 97%, 78% and 2% of the respondents said the cost of education affects girls' education in the communities.

The cost of education in Ghana which keeps increasing is a big disincentive for progress of girls in education. Many families will rather concentrate on spending their meagre earnings on boys if there are some in their homes rather than girls. This study is in sync with Plan International (2012) which posited that poor families in rural areas will spend on boys' education rather than girls' when they are to choose who to take care of due to limited finances. A mother of a drop out girl from SHS had this to say

*“You see my eldest child here (pointing to a teenage girl), she was in St. Monica’s SHS (Mampong Ashanti) last year but is home for more than three terms now because we cannot pay her fees. I have many children and cannot spend all my earnings on her alone. The school fees keep rising day in day out and making it difficult for us to send our children to school. We want them to go to school especially the girls as staying make them prone to pregnancies but we do not have the money to pay for their fees...” (A 39 year mother in Abasua, individual interview).*

Many parents complained the cost of education prevents many eligible students especially girls from progressing to higher levels of education. An IMANI Ghana survey in early 2016 on what citizens think should be of critical importance to leaders ahead of the 2016 Elections has reduction of cost of education as one of the major concerns of respondents. It is therefore not surprising that majority of respondents in this survey also think same.

### **5.3.5 Lack of Recreational Facilities and Proper Sanitation Facilities**

Lack of recreational facilities in a way also affected girl's education in the community as most of the respondents fairly agreed to this effect. However such factor does not have significant outcome of effect in Abasua as 17 respondents representing 58% said lack of recreational

facilities barely have effect on girl's education in the community. Again, majority of the respondents also said lack of proper sanitation fairly well affected girl child education in the communities (Table 5.6). However, others in particular the case of Abasua responded that lack of proper sanitation barely affected girl's education in the community which is not consistent with UNESCO (2015) and Sperling & Winthrop (2016) that lack of proper sanitation and recreational facilities affects girls attendance and quality education. The responses in Abasua may be due to the availability of facilities in the school.

### **5.3.6 Poverty and Lack of Parental Care**

Furthermore, almost all the communities noted that poverty was one of the factors that have affected girl's education in the communities. In Abasua, 18 out of the 20 respondents representing 90% said poverty in the community very well affect girl's education. In Ankamadoa and Beposo 29 and 31 respondents representing 97% and 62% respectively also asserted to the same responds while same can be said at Nsuta with 28 people responding 56% of the respondents. This is consistent with UNSECO (2015b) which indicate that poverty inhibits children mostly girls from attending and progressing in school and that the poorest girls are those likely to be left behind in education. Also, Lloyd et al (2010) noted that poverty and income inequality shows over space and that inequalities in education will be high in poor and rural areas. Lack of parental guidance could also be said to be one of the factors which affect girl's education within the research communities. UNSECO (2008) also proves that poor parents will not take much interest in their children education. This accounted for 55%, 90%, 64% and 58% at Abasua, Ankomadoa, Beposo and Nsuta respectively. The issue of single parenthood plays a major role in the kind of care given to children.

*“Most of the teenage mothers are single and so cannot make ends meet how much more they can take care of their children. Even most of the children here stay with their grandmothers who cannot discipline the children when they go wrong. This result in a cycle of this girls getting pregnant early resulting in the same problem over and over again....” (An individual interview with the Head teacher of Ankamadoa RC Primary.*

### 5.3.7 Gendered Attitudes, Beliefs, Customs and values that affects Girls Education

Gendered attitude also play little role in girls education in the various communities. But the situation in Ankamadoa is different as 26 out of the 30 respondents representing 86.7% said it affects girl’s education in the community very well as showed in Table 5.7.

**Table 5. 7: Belief, Customs and Values That Affect Female Education**

Community	Not at all	Barely	Fairly well	Many
Abasua	20 (100%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Ankamadoa	1 (3.3%)	3 (10%)	26 (86.7%)	0 (0%)
Beposo	35 (70%)	10 (20%)	3 (6%)	2 (4%)
Nsuta	44 (88%)	4 (8%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)

**Source: Field Survey, 2016**

Asked if there are were exiting belief, customs and values that affected females’ education in the community, majority of the respondents with the exception of the case of Ankamadoa said there is nothing of that sort (Table 5.6). Amongst some of the beliefs and customs which affects girl’s education in the communities include, child labour and early marriage. There is also a custom

among the Konkomba tribe where a child belongs to the mother that is to say everything about his upkeep is to be done by the mother although they are not a matrilineal society. The mothers with limited resources find it difficult taking care of the numerous children they have considering that household size among the Konkombas is large. Another belief is that boys should cater for their own upbringing even if they are six years of age. This belief account for the high rate of child labour, truancy and absenteeism in Ankamadoa. Lambert et al, 2012 argued that socio cultural factors may also serve as barriers to the education of girls and most of socio cultural barriers are found mostly among tribes from the Northern Region of Ghana and UNESCO, 2015 shows that many boys may also be affected by sociocultural barriers as well.

### **5.3.8 Illiteracy**

The crux of all these problems is illiteracy. Illiterate parents do not see the need the need to spend their hard earned money on the education of their children. Illiterate people too do not get well-paid jobs to earn higher income so cannot afford to pay high school fees or take their children to attend good schools. Even those who have the money do not have the conviction to send their children especially girls to school. Many studies support the notion that illiterate parents may not take the education of their children seriously (Tanye 2008, Summers, 1996, Rose 2009). This is what this head teacher said about illiteracy in his village

*“.....My brother, illiteracy is the major cause of all these problems affecting education in this community. The issue is because they are not educated; they do not see the reason why they should waste money on the education of their children. Because of some norms and beliefs, the men don't care for their young ones leaving them to suffer. If you see the kind of farms they do,*

*you will see that they are not poor.” (An individual interview with the Head teacher of Ankamadoa RC Primary).*

### **5.3.9 Seasonal Movements (Relocation)**

The issue of seasonal movements by migrant farmers in the Afram Plains portion of the district also affects education of children. Most of these families do not stay in one community for long. They keep moving to new areas in order to get land to farm and do other activities. The education of children are affected by this constant movements which eventually make them to drop out from school as evident from Boakye et al, (1997) on how constant movement of Fulani nomadic herdsmen affect the education of their children. . The Assembly Man for the Ankamadoa Electoral Area, the Head teacher, and the District Girls Education Coordinator made mention of the negative impact this phenomenon is having on the education of children.

### **5.3.10 Gaming, Mobile Phones and watching of Television Programs**

Almost all the parents spoken to were worried about the amount of time their children (teenage girls) use on their mobile phones. There was no complaint on this issue in Ankamadoa because of the lack of Mobile phone service. But parents in Abasua, Nsuta and Beposo complained about it.

*“Because of mobile phones, children do not learn nowadays. They are either talking on their phones or on WhatsApp or Facebook. Also they stay glued to television sets at nights to watch “Kumkum Baghya” and other programs on television. The issue of gaming is even worst. The gaming machine has made this children spend every money they get on this machine. They even*

*steal from parents just to be able to play it.”... (An individual interview with the Assembly Member for Atwea-Abasua Electoral Area).*

#### **5.4 Improving Education of Girls (Addressing Challenges)**

On the other side, respondents were asked which factors improve girl’s education in the community. Among these include recreational facilities, parental support, sanitation facility, girls, club activities, teacher’s attitude towards girls and community support as seen in Table 5.8 below.



**Table 5. 8: Community Knowledge on Factors that improve girl’s education**

		Name of Town				Total
		Abasua	Ankamadoa	Beposo	Nsuta	
<b>Recreational facilities</b>	Not at all	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.0%)	2 (1.3%)
	Barely	0 (0.0%)	2 (6.7%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (8.0%)	6 (4.0%)
	Fairly well	10 (50.0%)	18 (60.0%)	20 (40.0%)	29 (58.0%)	77 (51.3%)
	Very well	10 (50.0%)	10 (33.3%)	30 (60.0%)	15 (30.0%)	65 (43.3%)
<b>Parental support</b>	Not at all	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.0%)	2 (1.3%)
	Barely	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (2.0%)	1 (0.7%)
	Fairly well	1 (5.0%)	4 (13.3%)	11 (22.0%)	8 (16.0%)	24 (16.0%)
	Very well	19 (95.0%)	26 (86.7%)	39 (78.0%)	39 (78.0%)	123 (82.0%)
<b>Sanitation facilities</b>	Not at all	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	4 (8.0%)	4 (2.7%)
	Fairly well	15 (75.0%)	8 (26.7%)	9 (18.0%)	20 (40.0%)	52 (34.7%)
	Very well	5 (25.0%)	22 (73.3%)	41 (82.0%)	26 (52.0%)	94 (62.7%)
<b>Girls club activities</b>	Not at all	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.0%)	2 (1.3%)
	Barely	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	11 (22.0%)	14 (28.0%)	25 (16.7%)
	Fairly well	15 (75.0%)	20 (66.7%)	4 (8.0%)	16 (32.0%)	55 (36.7%)
	Very well	5 (25.0%)	10 (33.3%)	35 (70.0%)	18 (36.0%)	68 (45.3%)
<b>Teachers attitude towards girls</b>	Barely	0 (0.0%)	0 (0.0%)	2 (4.0%)	2 (4.0%)	4 (2.7%)
	Fairly well	10 (50.0%)	3 (10.0%)	7 (14.0%)	19 (38.0%)	39 (26.0%)
	Very well	10 (50.0%)	27 (90.0%)	41 (82.0%)	29 (58.0%)	107(71.3%)
<b>Community support</b>	Fairly well	10 (50.0%)	2 (6.7%)	9 (18.0%)	20 (40.0%)	41 (27.3%)
	Very well	10 (50.0%)	28 (93.3%)	41 (82.0%)	30 (60.0%)	109 (72.7%)

**Source: Field Survey, 2016**

Majority of the respondents asserted that recreational facilities fairly well improved girls’ education in the communities. This accounted for about 77 respondents representing 51% from all the communities. Whiles about 43% also said such facilities helped improved girls education very well in the research communities. Another factor that community members see as important for girls’ education is parental support as the respondents across the various communities said it

helped in improving girls’ education (See Table 5.8 below). This accounted for 123 respondents representing 82%. Girls’ club activities were also noted to have improved education in the communities. This recorded 75% in Abasua, 68% in Ankamadoa, 70% in Beposo and 36% in Nsuta (Refer to Table 5.8). Again teacher’s attitude was also found to improved girls education the communities as it accounted for 107 respondents out of the overall 150 respondents representing 71%. Lastly, 109 respondents representing 73% of the total respondents also said community support has helped improved girls education in the communities.

**Table 5. 9: Parental Approval for Girls to Lead**

<b>Community</b>	<b>Not at all</b>	<b>Sometimes</b>	<b>Very Rarely</b>	<b>Very Much</b>
<b>Abasua</b>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	20 (100%)
<b>Ankamadoa</b>	7 (23.3%)	0 (0%)	7 (23.3%)	16 (53.3%)
<b>Beposo</b>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	50 (100%)
<b>Nsuta</b>	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	50 (100%)

**Source: Field Survey, 2016**

Respondents again said that they will encourage their ward (girl) to take up any leadership role at school if she is nominated for. This has 100% response rate in Abasua, 53% in Ankamadoa and 100% in both Beposo and Nsuta. Most of the respondents further said they will support this call because it will help them to build their leadership skills as well as their wellbeing for the future. Most study support girls taking up leadership roles in schools as it build their potentials, make them responsible and empower them to fight for their rights (BIAAG 2012, and Plan RESA 2012).

Lastly most of the respondents also noted that in order to improve girls child education communities in Ghana, there should be a formulation of bye laws to check on belief and practices such as early marriage, child labour, teenage pregnancy and other social vices within communities. Also, there should be strong parental guidance, reduction of the cost of education, improvement of educational facilities among others.

### **5.5 Coordination of Girls Education Activities**

Evidence from various schools shows that facilitators of girls clubs have not attended any workshop for the past six years. Girls Clubs do not meet regularly and school Girls Club Facilitators do not even know Community facilitators. The Facilitator for Ankamadoa RC Primary said this when asked about her work

*“I was chosen as the facilitator during our staff meeting. I have not been taken through the routines of my work and the district office does not organize any refresher course for us. I was told to help prepare an action plan for the club for each term but I do not have any idea on how to do it. We do not know the community facilitator...”* (Individual Interview, Ankamadoa RC Girls’ Club Facilitator).

Her response shows how many of the girls clubs have become dormant in schools. Even in schools where they are functioning, the coordinators do not know much about their work.

The District Girls’ Education Coordinator explains that lack of funds as their main problem for active engagement of all stakeholders.

*“Coordinating the activities for improving girls’ education requires funds of which we are not considered in the scheme of things. This has made our department to be almost non-functional in schools as almost all the school facilitators that are trained have left the district and the new*

*ones are not trained. This has made it difficult for them to understand the problems confronting girls in their schools and how to liaise with the community facilitators and leaders to help solve them....” (An individual Interview, District Girls’ Education Coordinator).*

On improving roles of School based Girl Child Facilitators, the District Girls education Coordinator has this to say.

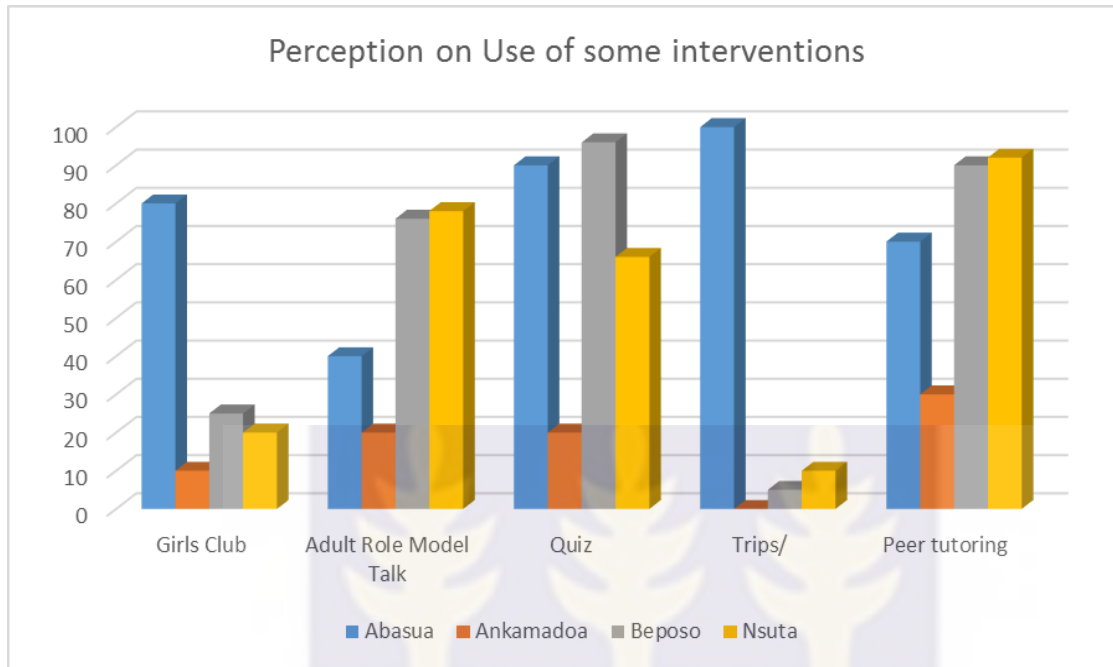
*“...we are trying our best to help improve girls’ education especially in rural areas of the Afram Plains schools. We are relying on the help of Circuit Supervisors to monitor girls’ attendance whenever they visit schools and we talk to school SHEP Coordinators whenever they attend meetings on how to help make Girls’ Clubs active in their various schools. We have been to communities where there are entrenched norms to talk to parents who try giving out their daughters for marriage and some good results have been seen...” (An individual interview with the District Girls’ Education Coordinator.)*

As noted by Sarriot et (2004), when there is institutionalization of program interventions within organizations, it helps addresses issues of sustenance of gains. It can be seen that the District Education Directorate is at the forefront of helping to sustain gains from the REGAL project when resources are not available.

## **5.6 Interventions Used to enhance Girls’ Education**

The kind of interventions currently in use is important in determining how communities are faring well on addressing issues aimed at improving girls’ education. It is important therefore to assess how various communities are faring in various capacities within their localities in sustaining progress made through the use of various interventions.

**Figure 5. 7: Current Use of Strategies and Interventions to enhance girls’ education**



Source: Fieldwork, 2016

It is important that interventions that focus on community and peer support are used in various communities to sustain gains. Figure 5.7, showed mixed performance on various strategies and interventions which were initiated during the REGAL project aimed at improving performance of students especially that of girls in various schools. These interventions hitherto none existed and if they existed they were not actively exploited. As stated by Lloyd and Young (2009), outcomes from interventions that deals directly with helping girls feel comfortable in school has proven successful in retaining girls and improving proficiency levels. Assessing how schools are faring in using of these interventions will help to understand how some of the obstacles to girls’ education are being addressed. On the use of quiz competitions, Abasua community performed better than one urban community and almost at par with the other. Quiz competitions among various classes and between boys and girls is a regular feature in their activities every fortnight. Beposo and Nsuta organize quiz competitions but not on a frequent basis.

*“We do organize quiz competitions but it is not regular. We intend to make it a regular feature now that the District Education Office is making it an annual affair among schools in the circuit. The school that wins the circuit quiz competition will represent the circuit at the circuit level to select the best school in the district. We will win it to become the best as we did during the time of the REGAL project...” (Head teacher of Beposo Muslim Mission Primary).*

Ankamadoa barely organize it. The Head teacher of Ankamadoa RC Primary has plan to do it because an annual quiz competition among schools in the district has been instituted by the District Education Office so they need to prepare some pupils to participate in it. On the issue of Adult Role Model Talk, the two rural schools of Abasua and Ankamadoa did not perform well as compared to the two urban communities. Respondents scored less than 50% on perception on use of Adults Role Models engaging girls and boys to aim higher and also become role models. Lloyd and Young (2009) attribute lack of educated people in rural areas to serve as role models other than teachers. It can be deduced that the minimal use of this intervention in rural areas falls in line with Lloyd and Young (2009) assertion that villages, especially poor ones may not be attractive to educated men and women and even the youth who migrate to urban areas in search of greener pastures. Children are therefore not challenged to do well in school and move out of the poverty cycle that threatens their very existence. Accordingly, Tickly and Barret (2011) drew attention to the fact that such situations do not augur well for populations in rural areas of developing countries as many cannot be equipped with skills that will enable them participate well in the global knowledge economy. Respondents at Beposo and Nsuta scored more than 78% suggesting the good use of this strategy. The availability of educated people in urban areas makes it easy to get access to female role models to talk to girls. Performance on educational trips and camps is not encouraging at all with the exception of Abasua where educational trips

have been embarked upon every academic year over the past five years. The headteacher was happy to say:

*“We have travelled to varioius places over the five past years. We have visted Akosombo Dam and Adomi Brigde, Boti Falls all in the Eastern Region. We have also visited Kakum National Park, Cape Coast and Elmina Castles in the Central Region, Boabeng Fiema Monkey Sanctuary and Kintampo Water Falls in the Brong Ahafo Region. In Ashanti Region, we have visited Manhyia Palace, Kumasi Airport, Kumasi Zoo, Lake Bosumtwe, Kumasi Brewery and Barekese Water Treatment Plant. This has been made possible by our interaction with community leaderson how important it is to to help support such programs ...” (An individual interview with the head teacher of Abasua DA Primary).*

On activities of Girl Clubs too, Abasua performed fairly well than all the other schools mainly because they organize themselves often for educational trips. The school even have a uniform for the girls clubs but all the girls’ clubs in various schools do not have action plans and the school based facilitators have not undergone any training for years now. The head teacher of Abasua happened to be the same head teacher during the time of the REGAL project and so have helped in many ways to keep the girls club alive. The good performance of Abasua which happens to be a rural area corroborates with Flynn (1995) and Shediac-Rizkallah & Bone (1998) studies that shows that community ownership of projects comes from participation by community and individuals which leads to building of capacity or competence leading to continuation or maintenance of programs. When certain individuals have their capacity enrinched, they become project champions become and help to sustain gains over a period of time.

Teachers’ attitude to girls is very good in all the schools. No teacher is hostile to girls in any of the schools according to the head teachers. The head teachers also gave a good impression about

the use of gender sensitive materials. They also said almost all the teachers are now trained unlike previously when most of the teachers in rural areas are not trained.

*“Formally, the number of trained teachers was few and they do not have good knowledge in situations that should encourage girls to learn. I was the only train teacher in this school when I came in 2008 and only 2 female teachers were also here and the situation was same for most of the schools in the district especially schools in the rural areas. Now the situation has changed and only one teacher is untrained in this school and she is even doing her distance studies and will soon be a trained teacher. We have more female teachers than males now.” (Head teacher of Abasua D/A Primary).*

From Figure 5.8, Peer tutoring is much practiced in urban areas than rural areas. This is mainly as a result of having students who perform better in urban areas than in rural areas. Ankamadoa has the lowest score of less than 30% followed by Abasua. This can also be attributed to low proficiency levels in reading and mathematics in rural areas as captured King and Winthrop (2015).

Lastly, there is much better community engagement in Beposo than in other communities. The Muslim leaders have undertaken a number of projects in the school in Beposo and even built the current school building. Evidence from the schools visitors’ book shows much higher visitation to the school by PTA/SMC executives and other community leaders than in other communities. Ankamadoa ranked lowest on community engagement and the head teacher said the school has not even organized a PTA meeting for more than two years.

Overall urban schools performed better on these interventions than rural schools and much needs to be done to bring performance at par. Abasua, a rural community performed creditably well in sustaining outcomes and sometimes better than urban areas showing that when capacities are

enhanced in rural communities, ownership of programs may help to sustain gains in the midst of socioeconomic disparities. The Head teacher enumerated various reasons for the sustaining of some of the interventions,

*“ ..We have made it our priority to help sustain interest in girls’ education. Teachers in this school visit students at home periodically to talk to their parents to have special interest in their education. We organize periodic exhibitions, open days, clean-ups and carols night to court support from community members. We make sure girls play active part in all these programs so that parents recognize their potentials. (Head teacher of Abasua DA Primary, individual interview)*

This interview shows that teachers in rural areas can be innovative in organizing events to whip community interest in sustaining gains in rural areas.

## **5.7 Summary**

This chapter looked at issues that negatively affect girls’ education. Though there have been much improvement over the years, the old devils of child labour, early marriage, gendered attitudes, were still prevalent in rural areas as compared to urban areas. Teenage pregnancy, rising cost of education and lack of parental care affects education in both rural and urban areas. Seasonal movements of some farmers in the district also affect education negatively. The issue of mobile phones and gaming are new issues affecting performance of students. Help from the teachers in rural communities and community support is helping sustain some gains even though some rural communities lag behind urban counterparts in terms of educational and socioeconomic resources. Much needs to be done to help more girls’ progress to higher of

education with prime focus on the reduction in the cost of schooling especially at secondary and tertiary levels. Also lack of funds affects the activities of the Girls Education Unit.



## CHAPTER SIX

### SUMMARY OF KEY FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### 6.1 Introduction

This research work investigated how rural and urban areas are faring on sustaining benefits from a girl-child education improvement initiative, the REGAL Project in the Sekyere Central District of the Ashanti Region. A framework based on Unterhalter et al (2014) Theory of Change for conceptualizing how various interventions help to enhance girls' education was relied upon using survey data collected on a sample of 150 parents and in-depth interviews with key stakeholders (girls, heads of schools, girls education coordinators). The study specifically looked at trends in girls' education access and enrolment, state of interventions and facilities in schools and community participation in education. Assessment is done on performance between urban and rural areas. It also assessed current issues hampering education of girls and how communities are finding solutions to problems to ensure sustainability of gains. A summary, main findings and recommendations are presented in this chapter.

#### 6.2 Summary of Findings

Summary on findings is organized in line with major issues resulting from the analysis of data gathered.

##### 6.2.1 Current State of Facilities and Interventions

From the evidence gathered, primary classroom blocks were in good conditions in all communities as Abasua D/A Primary (a rural community) and Nsuta Presby Primary (an urban community) have new classroom blocks constructed for them. These have provided pupils with

conducive classrooms for learning as the old ones were in deplorable conditions. On the other hand KG classroom blocks were not in good conditions in rural communities as compared to urban schools but community members in Abasua are renovating the KG classrooms with support from opinion leaders. New KG classroom blocks constructed were mostly sited in Nsuta and Beposo which shows disparity in allocation of resources between rural and urban areas as urban locations will always be favored when there is need for limited resource allocation. The nature of KG classroom block sums up the general situation of pre-primary facilities nationwide. States of recreational facilities were generally in good conditions with the exception of outdoor facilities which have broken down in Ankamadoa, Beposo and Nsuta. Sanitation facilities are in good conditions in all locations with the exception of Ankamadoa, a rural community. Ankamadoa have toilets and urinals which are in dreadful conditions and even affecting attendance of older girls to school supporting Larmbert et al (2012) work that poor sanitation facilities serves as disincentive for girls' enrolment, attendance and retention. Deworming exercises and provision of mosquito nets is now a regular feature in all communities. Again urban areas fared better on the use of interventions like the use of female role models, quiz competitions and peer tutoring. Abasua, a rural community performed better on the use of girls club, educational trips and quiz competitions unlike its rural counterpart Ankamadoa that performed poor on all indicators. This situation can be attributed the role of the head teacher of Abasua who happens to be the only head teacher now who participated in programs during the Project where his school was among the best schools for the project. This situation resonates Bossert (1990), Shediak-Rizkalla and Bone (1998) and Lyold and Young (2009) that keeping trained persons at post in intervention areas help sustain gains made. They proposed that when

projects have champions (trained leaders), they perpetuate gains made even if projects have come to an end long for a long time.

### **6.2.2 Community Participation in Education**

Community participation is seen as a crucial factor in sustaining interventions from projects. It emerged from the study that having good knowledge about general issues in communities play a major role in understanding issues cornering education especially issues around girls education. Encouraging self-reliance and self-help among beneficiary communities as being done in Abasua and Beposo go a long way to sustain gains. Rural communities have better knowledge on issues surrounding the REGAL project but Ankamadoa performed poorly on participation in educational issues as compared to Abasua and urban counterparts. This proves that when capacities are built instead of inputs there will be sustenance of gains. This supports Sperling & Winthrop (2014), Lloyd & Young (2009), Shediak-Rizkalla & Bone (2008) and other studies which emphasized that unless fundamental issues like poverty, illiteracy and genders attitudes and norms are addressed, interventions will have limited results and minimal effect after programs have ended. Rural women fared badly in comparison to urban women and men and rural men in participation due to high level of illiteracy of women in poor and deprived rural areas .Urban parents who are better educated show more support for education of both girls and boys and provide basic needs for their children also due to higher incomes as compared to rural areas. This result confirms UNESCO (2015) claim that until drastic measures are taken, girls from rural areas in developing and poor countries will take 70 more years to match urban boys on educational attainments.

### **6.2.3 Trends in Enrollment and Performance**

The results show that disparities in male and female enrolments have improved in all communities. However, most girls in poor rural areas like Ankamadoa do not make it all the way on the educational ladder as compared to colleagues in urban areas and less poor rural communities. Academic performance also shows big disparity between urban areas and rural areas. This is as a result of disparities in educational resource allocation and socioeconomic factors. Posting of trained teachers to rural areas from the District Education Directorate is expected to improve outcomes as most rural areas have untrained teachers in the district including rural project communities

### **6.2.4 Obstacles to Education**

Most girls in rural communities are not able to progress to JHS and SHS as compared to urban centers. Many parents complain of financial constraints as the main reason for their inability to send their female to school. The high cost of education is a major factor that hinders progress of girls to secondary and tertiary institutions. Teenage pregnancy is also one issue most parents attributed to girls failure to continue their education. In rural areas, child labor especially in Ankamadoa and to some extent in Abasua is a major factor affecting girls' education. The use of mobile phones, gaming and the surge in watching of television programs particular those translated in Twi has also been attributed by parents as a major issue affecting children learning at night. It has also been realized that the level of education of parents affect their contributions to the learning of children. Most parents will like to visit their children in schools and sometimes teach them at home but their inability to read and write makes them incapable and afraid to do so. Community leaders in various communities are advocating for parental supervision and to curb incidence of teenage pregnancy and child labour.

### **6.2.5 Limited Human and Financial Resources among Governance Structures**

Although most of the programs and strategies of the REGAL project was based on policies and strategies of GES, the inadequate human and financial resources have rendered most of the activities short-lived. The technical and supervisory support that is needed for the continuous institutionalization of programs is not available and so when trained facilitators and head teachers leave, they leave with the knowledge acquired. This has rendered most of the intervention strategies non-existent and in many cases dormant.

### **6.2.6 Improved level of teachers and use of gender sensitive approaches**

Because the number of trained teachers has increased over the years, there is improvement in teachers output and level of lessons delivery. Also more female teachers have found their way into rural areas as compared to years past. This is tremendously improving relationship between female student and teachers and these teachers also serve as role models for girls have increased. It has also been observed that although most of the teachers are trained teachers, they are not well versed in the use of gender sensitive curricula. It is suggested that these teachers should have aspect of their training on improving gender balance in education.

### **6.2.7 Local Solutions to Rural and Urban sustainability Issues**

Lessons from the Abasua community show that support from community members is paramount to sustaining gains. Constant reminder from the Head teacher on their continuous support has yielded result in maintaining facilities and paying for the education trips of their children. Support from the PTA and donors in Beposo have also provided many facilities to the school. Also, innovative and special programs organized in communities to solicit for funds in the form

of open days and carols nights have increased parental support and generated a groundswell of interest to support gains in Abasua. Also personal advocacy and sensitization by teachers who visit parents who have challenges with educating their girl child has also yielded results in Abasua. This shows that, when self-determination on the part of those involve in helping girls' are done in rural areas, gaps in support between rural and urban areas can be bridged. Again, communal identity in small communities can be solicited to help sustain gains as can be seen in the case of maintaining outdoor recreational facilities in Abasua.

### **6.3 Conclusions**

Ensuring access, retention and progress of girls in school is to the benefit of all and a fulfillment of the right of every child. It lays the basis for the attaining of the SDG's. On the basis of findings from the study, it is evident that sustaining gains from girls education programs is not just about providing facilities but the fundamental issue of poverty, illiteracy and disparity in resource allocation between urban and areas should be addressed as anything than tackling this issues will drawback gains made. Although interventions were provided in both rural and urban areas, one rural community still lag behind in maintaining facilities and providing new ones as their knowledge on project does not commiserate maintenance of gains from members. Low community engagement in rural areas on educational matters is underlined by social, political, cultural and economic processes which are within and beyond their means. This processes it is realized has great impact on sustaining gains made. However, it can be seen that when necessary support is provided, rural areas can do well in sustaining gains. This situation is mirrored in Abasua, a rural community which performed well and even better on sustaining some of the gains than urban communities. In conclusion, greater commitment by governance structures in spreading resources equally among rural and urban areas and also the provision of incentives to

main figures in project communities to stay longer to help implement interventions for a long time should be prioritized especially in rural communities. Teachers should also be entreated to find innovative ways to raise parental interest in education of girls. Supporting poor communities to engage in ventures that will provide funds to sustain efforts should also be part of programs. Additionally, cost of educations should be reduced drastically or if possible made free to enable all have access to secondary education as evidence has shown that it is after this level of education that benefits to families, individuals and communities are realized. These findings resonates with Unterhalter et al (2014), Lloyd and Young (2009) , UNESCO (2015) and Sperling and Winthrop (2015) that unless the issue of poverty in rural areas and poor communities are tackled, the problems facing girls education will take longer time to attain and achieving the SDG on secondary education for all by 2030 will be a mirage. Admittedly, there have been progress but the glass is just half full.

#### **6.4 Recommendations**

The following recommendations have been made in line with findings from the stud.

Communities should be engaged periodically to remind them of their support to sustain gains. This will ensure that institutions and communities sustain gains and program interventions and will also help to institutionalized interventions.

Monitoring activities of school and community based facilitators of girls' clubs should be encouraged and improved to see to the full implementation of more girls friendly strategies in schools.

Trained facilitators and head teachers should not be transferred within a short time after training on programs and provision should be make for training of deputy facilitators to take the mantle

when facilitators leave. If possible, incentives should be provided for trained Head teachers and teachers to stay longer in communities. Circuit supervisors should be trained so that they monitor activities of girls' clubs on their routine visits and should capture them in their reports.

Activities of school SHEP coordinators are helping to improve sanitation in schools. More should be done to ensure their training is sustained and more health interventions like the national deworming exercise and school feeding should be improved.

Programs such as the REGAL project should incorporate components to help parents in deprived and impoverish communities get a sustainable source of income to help generate additional revenue to be able to support activities that improve girls' education.

Head teachers and teachers should organize programs that will showcase the things girls are learning to parents in small communities to generate the needed groundswell of support to sustain gains. Programs like open days and exhibitions should be organized periodically in communities to raise community interest in supporting girls' education.

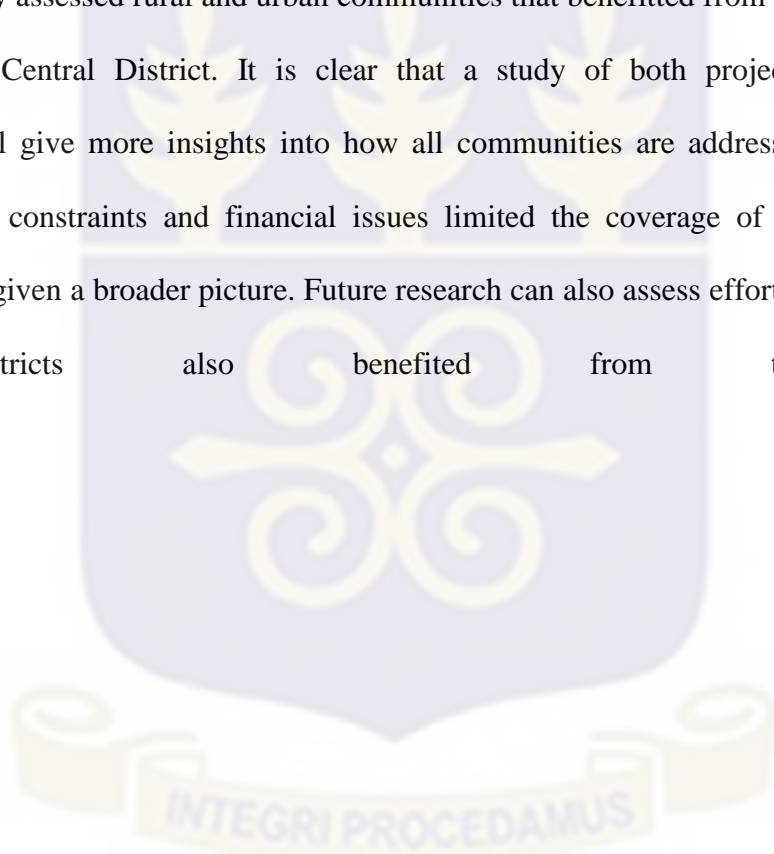
Recreational and sanitation facilities should be factored into school projects to make schools more appealing to pupils. There should be equality in spreading educational opportunities to all areas. The government should as a matter of urgency make education more affordable or provide scholarships for students from needy areas to enable all children gain access to secondary schools. The provision of secondary schools should be expanded to more areas and the gradual free education policy at the SHS level should be quickened so that all can have access to secondary education as encapsulated in the SDG's.

PTA's and SMC's should be strengthened so that they can offer more support for schools and there should be an annual training of members of these groups.

The roles of chiefs and other opinion leaders are important in sustaining gains. There should be continuous interactions with these leaders by project facilitators for them to continue supporting project gains. Mobile phone numbers of Chiefs and opinion leaders should be taken so that years on they can be called by project facilitators to elicit their continuous support and for new strategies to be communicated to them.

### **6.5 Areas for Further Study**

The research only assessed rural and urban communities that benefitted from the REGAL project in the Sekyere Central District. It is clear that a study of both project and non-project communities will give more insights into how all communities are addressing issues of girls education. Time constraints and financial issues limited the coverage of more communities which will have given a broader picture. Future research can also assess efforts across districts as other districts also benefited from the project.



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**APPENDICES**

**Appendix 1: Community Participation Assessment Questionnaire**

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON**

**DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

**COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE**

**The questionnaire forms part of a survey being conducted to seek information on the institutionalization of girls' education concerns on overcoming inequality gaps in education in the District. You are assured that your responses are for research purposes only and will be treated confidentially. Thank you.**

**Geographical Coordinate.....**

**PART ONE**

**PERSONAL DATA /DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

1. Name of Town/village: .....
2. Age of respondent.....
3. Years of stay in Town/village: .....
4. Gender:                   (a) Male [ ]                   (b) female [ ]
5. Residential Status   a) Native                   b) Migrant
6. Religion
1. Christianity           2. Islam                   3. Traditional believer           4. Other
7. Marital status
- (a) Married [ ]   (b) Single [ ]   (c) Divorced [ ]   (d) Widow [ ]   (e) Widower [ ]
8. Income per month.....
9. How much do you spend on children's education? .....
10. Number of people in household.....
11. Number of Female Children .....
12. Educational status
- (a)No formal education [ ]   (b) Primary [ ]   (c) JHS/Middle School [ ]   (d) Secondary [ ]
- (e)Tertiary [ ]

**PART TWO**

**KNOWLEDGE OF COMMUNITY**

13. How well can you describe issues in the community?

- a) Not at all                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Very Well

14. How were classroom conditions be the REGAL Project?

- a) Bad                      b) Quite fine                      c) Good                      d) Very Good

15. How well can you describe prevailing beliefs, customs, norms and values of people in this that affect girls' education?

- a) Not at all                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Very Well

16. Are you able to describe common needs of education in this community?

- a) Not at all                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Very Well

17. How well can you describe issues on CARE's REGAL Project?

- a) Not at all                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Very Well

18. How well can you describe the role of the REGAL project in the community?

- a) Not at all                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Very Well

19. Are you able to describe matters relating to education of girls in this community?

- a) Not at all                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Very Well

**PART THREE**

**PERSONAL INVOLVEMENT**

20. Are you able to attend PTA meetings?

- a) Not at all                      b) Seldom                      c) Sometimes                      d) Often

21. Explain why you do or you don't

.....  
.....

22. Are you able to contribute to school fundraising and other educational activities?

- a) Not at all                      b) Seldom                      c) Sometimes                      d) Often

23. How will you describe other community members' involvement in educational issues?

- a) Not at all Well                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Very

24. Are you able to talk to community leaders or school authorities about problems in the school?

- a) Not at all                      b) Seldom                      c) Sometimes                      d) Often

25. If NO, explain why you don't

.....  
 .....

26. How can you describe the relationship between you and your wards' teacher?

- a) Don't know her/him Good                      b) Strained                      c) Good                      d) Very

27. How well do you visit your ward in school to check his/her performance?

- a) Not at all                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Very Well

28. How often do you talk to your children about what they learn at school?

- a) Not at all                      b) Seldom                      c) Sometimes                      d) Often

29. How much effort do you make to help your ward learn at home?

- a) Not at all                      b) Seldom                      c) Sometimes                      d) Often

30. Do you think such efforts to help children have positive influence on their performance?

.....  
 .....

#### PART FOUR

#### GIRLS EDUCATION ISSUES

31. To what extent do the following factors affect girls' education in this community?

	NOT AT ALL(1)	BARELY (2)	FAIRLY WE LL (3)	VERY W EL L (4)
1.Child labor				
2.Early marriage				
3.Teenage pregnancy				

4. Cost of education				
5. Gendered attitudes				
6. Lack of recreational facilities				
7. Lack of proper sanitation facilities				
9. Poverty				
10. Lack of parental guidance				

32. Do you know of any belief, custom and values that affect female education?

- a) Not at all                      b) Barely                      c) Fairly Well                      d) Many

33. Explain why such a norm, belief or custom affects female education

.....  
 .....

34. How will describe the progress of girls to higher levels of education in this community?

- a) Not Good                      b) Quite fine                      c) Good                      d) Very Good

35. What issues affect progress of girls to higher levels of education in your community?

.....  
 .....

36. How can such issues be overcome?

.....  
 .....

37. To what extent do these factors improve girls' education?

	NOT AT ALL (1)	BARELY (2)	FAIRLY WELL (3)	VERY WELL (4)
1. Recreational facilities				
2. Parental support				

3.Sanitation facilities				
4.Girls club activities				
5.Teachers attitude toward girls				
6.Community support				

38. Will you encourage your girl child to take up any leadership role if she is nominated for it at school?

- a) Not at all                      b) Sometimes                      c) Very Rarely                      d) Very Much

39. If yes, why will you do so?

.....

.....

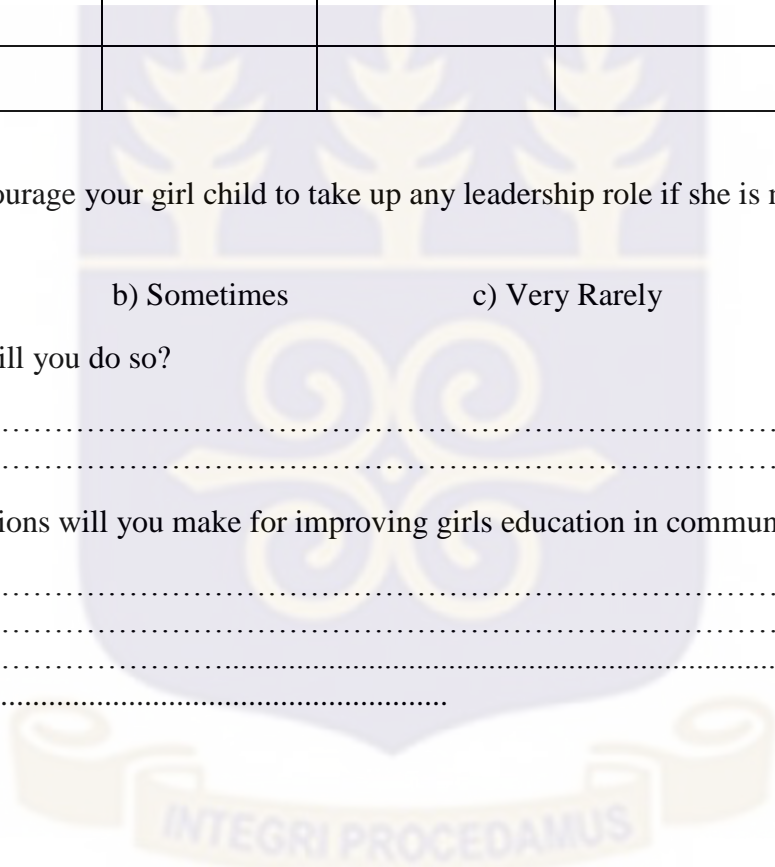
40. What suggestions will you make for improving girls education in communities in Ghana?

.....

.....

.....

.....



**Appendix 2: Interview Guide**

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON**

**DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

**QUESTIONS FOR HEADTEACHERS AND SCHOOL BASED GIRL CHILD FACILITATORS**

Good morning/afternoon/evening, I am a student at Department of Geography and Resource Development; conducting a survey on “**SUSTAINING PROGRESS FROM GIRLS EDUCATION INITIATIVES - PERSPECTIVES FROM CARE’S REGAL PROJECT IN RURAL AND URBAN COMMUNITIES OF THE SEKEERE CENTRAL DISTRICT**”. You would therefore be contributing greatly to the success of this survey if you can set aside sometime to answer the questions here. All response made shall be kept confidential.

Time and Date	
Geographical Coordinate	
Settlement	
Name	
Age	
Sex	
Position (Head teacher, Opinion Leader, Teacher, School-based Girl child facilitator, Community Facilitator)	

The question provided below should be viewed conversation starters interviewers are encouraged to ask follow up questions based on the interviewer response.

<b>Activity Checklist</b>	<b>Findings</b>
Can you please give me brief background information about yourself? (E.g. education, marital status, house, no. of dependents etc.).	
<b>Support from REGAL Project and activities of girls club</b>	
What support did the school got from the project? Did the community provide any facility as a result of the project?	
Does the school have an active girls club? What kind of activities does the	

club organise? What leadership roles do girls have in the school? How many girls compare to boys are leaders?	
Do girls have separate urinals and toilet?	
Do girls have their own sports equipment?	
How often do you organise PTA meetings and how is attendance from parents? How often do parents visit their wards in school?	
What ways do schools take to maintain and if possible add to facilities provided during the project?	
<b>Academic Performance</b>	
Do teachers use gender sensitive teaching methods? How well do girls compare to boys academically?	
<b>Challenges</b>	
What challenges do girls in this community face in their education?	
<b>Recommendations</b>	
What do you think can be done to improve girls' attendance and progress in education?	
What do you think the government can do to help improve girls' education in Ghana especially predominantly rural districts?	

**INTERVIEW GUIDE/QUESTIONNAIRE**

**UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON**

**DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND RESOURCE DEVELOPMENT**

**QUESTIONS FOR STAFFS OF GHANA EDUCATION SERVICE (DISTRICT GIRLS EDUCATION COORDINATOR)**

Good morning/afternoon/evening, I am a student at the Department of Geography and Resource Development; conducting a survey on “**SUSTAINING GAINS FROM GIRLS EDUCATION INITIATIVES - PERSPECTIVES FROM CARE’S REGAL PROJECT IN RURAL AND URBAN COMMUNITIES OF THE SEKEERE CENTRAL DISTRICT**”. You would therefore be contributing greatly to the success of this survey if you can set aside sometime to answer the questions here. All response made shall be kept confidential.

Time and Date	
Geographical Coordinate	
Settlement	
Name	
Age	
Sex	
Position	

The question provided below should be reviewed before conversation starts. Interviewers are encouraged to ask follow up questions based on the interviewer response.

<b>Activity Checklist</b>	<b>Findings</b>
<b>Support from REGAL Project and its effectiveness in participation of girls</b>	
What support did the school got from the project? Did communities provide any facility as a result of the project?	
Does schools have active girls club in the district?	
How often are they monitored?	
How do clubs help in girls’ leadership	

training in schools?	
How does recreational and sanitation facilities promote girls participation in schools?	
What ways are these facilities and strategies from the project being maintained and sustained?	
<b>Academic Performance</b>	
Do teachers use gender sensitive teaching methods?	
How are girls in rural areas faring academically as compared to counterparts in urban areas?	
<b>Challenges</b>	
What challenges do girls in this district face in their quest for education? Are challenges in rural areas different from those in urban areas?	
How is the progress rate from basic to second cycle schools like for girls in rural areas as compare to urban areas?	
What measures have you taken to bridge these disparities if there are any?	
<b>Recommendations</b>	
What do you think can be done to improve girls' attendance and progress in the district?	
What do you think the government can do to help improve girls' progress beyond basic education	