

**GENDER ACCESS GAP: FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY IN
ENROLMENT AND ATTENDANCE IN BASIC SCHOOLS IN THE NORTHERN
REGION OF GHANA**

BY

ELIASU ALHASSAN



**THIS THESIS IS SUBMITTED TO THE UNIVERSITY OF GHANA, LEGON IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE AWARD OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY SOCIOLOGY DEGREE**

JULY, 2013

DECLARATION

I, Eliasu Alhassan, hereby declare that this Doctor of Philosophy thesis is my own work produced from the study I undertook in the Northern Region of Ghana. It has not been previously submitted for examination to another University or to any department within the University of Ghana, Legon. I was supervised by Professor Clara Fayorsey, Professor Steve Tonah of the Department of Sociology, University of Ghana, Legon and Dr. Seidu Alhassan of the Institute for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research, University for Development Studies, Tamale.

.....
ELIASU ALHASSAN

(STUDENT)

DATE:

SUPERVISORS

.....
PROFESSOR CLARA FAYORSEY
(PRINCIPAL SUPERVISOR)

DATE

.....
PROFESSOR STEVE TONAH
(SUPERVISOR)

DATE

.....
DR. SEIDU AL-HASSAN

(SUPERVISOR)

DATE

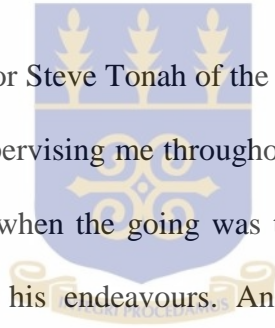
DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my parents, the late Alhaji Alhassan and Mattah Tahiru Jiraso and to all my lovely children. May God the Almighty bless all of them.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My first and foremost thanks go to the Almighty God for giving me the courage, confidence and guidance during the writing of this thesis. In the midst of all the difficulties I encountered during the production of this work, I still deem it necessary to single out some persons who have helped in diverse ways for my dream to become a reality. I wish to sincerely thank Professor Clara Fayorsey of the Department of Sociology, University of Ghana, Legon, not for only guiding me throughout the thesis but also for making sure that I complete the thesis on schedule. I am grateful to her for the patience and the enthusiasm she showed throughout the writing of the thesis. May God the Almighty reward her and give her long life.



I am also very grateful to Professor Steve Tonah of the Department of Sociology, University of Ghana, Legon not for only supervising me throughout the work but also for the patience and encouragement he gave me when the going was tough. May the Almighty God bless him and guide him throughout his endeavours. Another individual who was of great assistance to me was Dr. Seidu Al-hassan of the Institute for Continuing Education and Interdisciplinary Research, University for Development Studies, Tamale. I would like to thank him very much for his patience and the dedication he showed in the course of writing this thesis and also guiding me throughout the work. May God the Almighty bless him.

I would also like to take this opportunity to thank Mr. Alhassan Andani of the University for Development Studies for his assistance during the production of this thesis and all the authors and publishers whose books, articles and dissertations I have read relevant to this thesis. Finally, I thank my wife Madam Eliasu Sahalatu for her patience and understanding in the course of pursuing the PhD programme and the encouragement she gave me during

the difficult times. If readers see anything valuable in this thesis, credit should be given to the persons I acknowledged above. Any shortcomings of the thesis are solely my responsibility because conducting such a study in the Northern Region was not without difficulties. If others can build upon my shortcomings and what I have left out, I would be most grateful.



ABBREVIATIONS

AAG	Action Aid Ghana
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
BESIP	Basic Education Improvement Plan
CAMFED	Campaign for Female Education
ECLSPP	Eastern Corridor Livelihood Security Promotion Programme
EFA	Education for All
FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
GER	Gross Enrolment Rate
GES	Ghana Education Service
GLSS	Ghana Living Standard Survey
GPI	Gender Parity Index
GPRS	Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy
GSS	Ghana Statistical Service
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ILO	International Labour Organisation
IMF	International Monetary Fund
JHS	Junior High School
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MOE	Ministry of Education
NAR	Net Admission Rate
NER	Net Enrolment Rate

NGO	Non Governmental Organisation
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
PWD	Persons with Disability
SEND	Social Enterprise Development
SfL	School for life
SFP	School Feeding Programme
SHS	Senior High School
SMC	School Management Committee
SPIP	School Performance Improvement Plan
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO	United Nations, Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNO	United Nations Organization
WEAD	World Declaration of Education for All
WFP	World Food Programme

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION.....	i
DEDICATION.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT.....	iii
ABBREVIATIONS.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vii
LISTS OF FIGURES AND CHARTS.....	xii
LISTS OF TABLES.....	xiii
ABSTRACT.....	xiv
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1 Background of the Study.....	1
1.2 Rationale for the Study.....	3
1.3 Problem Statement.....	5
1.4 Objectives of the Study.....	8
1.5 Justification of the Study.....	9
1.6 Organisation of the Study.....	10
CHAPTER TWO.....	15
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	15
2.1 Introduction.....	15
2.2 Relevance of Basic Education.....	16
2.3 Socio-Economic Challenges.....	20
2.4. Socio-Cultural and Contextual Challenges.....	31
CHAPTER THREE.....	54
PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA: NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA.....	54
3.1 Introduction.....	54
3.2 Geography and Climatic Conditions.....	54

3.3 The world View of the People of the Northern Region	56
3.4 Kinship and Marriage and Political System.....	59
3.5 Economic Characteristics.....	61
3.6 Educational Profile of the Northern Region	62
CHAPTER FOUR.....	70
METHODOLOGY	70
4.1 Introduction.....	70
4.2 Research Design and Methods.....	70
4.3 Sampling Strategy.....	71
4.4 Sample Size Determination.....	72
4.5 Profile of the NGOs Selected.....	75
4.5.1 The Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED).....	75
4.5.2 Send Foundation (SEND).....	76
4.5.3 Action Aid Ghana.....	78
4.6 Data Collection Methods	84
4.7 Data Handling.....	85
4.8 Theoretical Framework.....	86
4.9 Linking the Theory to the Methodology of the Study	91
4.10 Model Specification	93
4.11 Household Respondents by Age	94
4.12 Rural-Urban Residence.....	94
4.13 Assessment of the Data from the Household Respondents	95
4.14 Assessment of Data from the NGOS	96
4.15 Assessment of Data from Ghana Education Service (GES).....	97
4.16 Evaluation of Data Reliability and Validity.....	98

4.17 Ethical Issues and Concerns.....	98
4.18 Limitations and Challenges.....	99
CHAPTER FIVE	103
SOCIO- ECONOMIC AND CULTURAL FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY IN BASIC SCHOOL.....	103
5.1 Introduction.....	103
5.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents	104
5.2.1 Household Headship.....	104
5.2.2 Levels of Parental Education	108
5.2.3 Religious Affiliations of Household Heads.....	111
5.3 Socio–Economic Factors Affecting Gender Disparity	115
5.3.1 Occupation of Household Heads	116
5.3.2 Household Chores.....	128
5.3.3 Market Days and Gender Disparity in Attendance.....	140
5.4 Socio-Cultural and Contextual Challenges of Gender Disparity	142
5.4.1 Early Marriage	142
5.4.2 Polygyny.....	149
5.4.3 Fostering	155
5.4.4 Menstruation.....	158
5.4.5 Funeral Celebration	162
5.4.6 Funerals and School Attendance	162
5.4.7 Festival Celebration.....	166
5.4.8 Festivals Celebration and School Attendance	167
5.4.9 Rural Residence and School Attendance.....	169

CHAPTER SIX	173
SCHOOL-BASED FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY IN BASIC SCHOOLS	173
6.1 Introduction.....	173
6.2 Programmes Put in Place in School to Promote Girls’ School Attendance.....	173
6.3 Effects of the School Curriculum	177
6.4 Class Sizes (Number of Pupils in Class).....	180
6.5 Teacher Absenteeism	182
6.6 Teacher-Girl Relationship.....	188
6.7 The Capitation Grant.....	192
6.8 National Gross and Net Primary Enrolment Ratio	192
6.9 The School Feeding Programme.....	202
CHAPTER SEVEN.....	214
NGOs AND GES COLLABORATION: EFFECTS ON ENROLMENT AND ATTENDANCE.....	214
7.1 Introduction.....	214
7.2 Collaboration in the Area of Research.....	215
7.3 Advocacy and Education	219
7.4 Scholarship Schemes for Girls by NGOs.....	221
7.5 Capacity Building in the Region.....	224
7.6 Formation of Girls’ Clubs in the Basic Schools by NGOs	227
7.7 Challenges of NGOs and GES in the Collaboration.....	227
7.7.1 Non Availability of Data in Some of the District Offices in the Region.....	227
7.7.2 Lack of Cooperation.....	232
7.7.3 Lack of Logistics at the District Offices.....	234

CHAPTER EIGHT	236
SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS	236
8.1 Summary	236
8.1.1 Introduction	236
8.1.2 Major Findings	236
8.2. Socio- Economic Factors	240
8.3. Socio-Cultural and Contextual Challenges	242
8.4 School–Based Factors Affecting Gender Disparity	245
8.5 Institutional Collaboration	249
8.6 Conclusion	252
8.7 Recommendation and Policy Implication of the Study	254
REFERENCES	258
APPENDICES	268
Appendix A: Questionnaire	268
Appendix: B: Tables and Calculations in the Text	292
Appendix C: Maps of Selected Districts.....	304
Map of Zabzugu Tatale.....	304
Map of Bole District	305
Map of Saboba Chereponi District	306
Map of Savelugu/Nanton District.....	307
Map of Gushegu/Karaga District.....	308
Map of Tamale Metropolis	309
Map of Tolon/Kumbungu District.....	310
Map of East Mamprusi District	311
Map of West Mamprusi District.....	312
Map of East Gonja District.....	313

LISTS OF FIGURES AND CHARTS

Figure 4.1: Map of the Northern Region	73
Figure 4.2: Factors Affecting Gender Disparity in Basic Education	102
Figure 5.1: Level of Parental Education	109
Figure 5.2: Religious Affiliation of Household Heads	112
Figure 5.3: Occupation of Respondents.....	116
Figure 5. 4: Number of Days Parents Give their Boys’ and Girls’ Money for School.....	126
Figure 5.5: Work Girls and Boys do at Home	130
Figure 5.6: Number of days Girls attends school in a Week as a result of Market Days	141
Figure 5.7: Number of Children in Polygynous Families in School.....	154
Figure 5.8: Absence from School as a result of Menstruation in Days/Per Month	159
Figure 5.9: Perceptions about Menstruation	161
Figure 6.1: Methods to Promote Girls’ Participation in School	175
Figure 6.2: Weekly Absence of Teachers from School	183
Figure 6.3: Percentage Enrolment for Primary One before the introduction of School Feeding Programme	203
Figure 6.4: Absolute Enrolment for Primary One after the introduction of the	204

LISTS OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Gender Parity Indices in enrolment in the Northern Region of Ghana	5
Table 4.1: Distribution of Sample Size.....	72
Table 4.2: Selected Districts and Metropolitan Areas and their Populations	74
Table 4.3: Study Communities in the Various Districts	80
Table 4.4: Selected Schools and their Districts	81
Table 4.5: Selected Schools for the School Feeding Programme.....	82
Table 5.1: Household Headship by Gender.....	104
Table 5.2: Marital Status of Household Respondents.....	105
Table 5.3 Monthly Income of Household Respondents.....	119
Table 5.4: Termly Expenditure by Parents on males' and Females' in School.....	122
Table 5.5: Income, Religion, Marital Status Cross-Tabulated with the Number of.....	135
Table 5.6: Summary of the OLS Result.....	137
Table 5.7: OLS Result of the Effect of Income on Gender Disparity on Enrolment of Girls	138
Table 6.1: Primary School Gross Enrollment Rates (GER)	193
Table 6.2: Primary School Net Enrolment Rate (NER): 2004/2005 and 2005/2006 Academic Year.....	194
Table 6.3: Primary School Net Attendance in Ghana since the Implementation of the Capitation Grant in 2005/2006 School year.....	200
Table 6.4: Parity Indexes between 2004/2005 and 2008/2009.....	206

ABSTRACT

The focus of the study is on disparities in enrolment and attendance between males and females in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. The literature reviewed showed that factors such as high cost of education, household chores, household resources and government subsidy on education militate against the participation of females in basic education. Also, cultural factors which include fostering, child betrothal and religion in some cases as well as school-based factors such as teacher absenteeism, lack of female teachers as role models are responsible for the females' inability to participate effectively in basic education. Gender was virtually ignored in most of these studies.

This study investigated how the socio-economic, cultural and school-based factors as well as the collaboration between GES and the NGOs affected and created disparity in school enrolment and attendance either in favour of the males or females in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. Multi-stage cluster sampling technique was used to select the respondents and both questionnaires and interview guides were used for the data collection. The data was processed with the Statistical Package for Social Scientists and percentages. Charts, cross-tabulation and regression were used for the analyses of the quantitative data while the qualitative data was used to support and explain the quantitative data, except instances where some variables emerged in the course of the interviews. These variables were analysed thematically. The study found that socio-economic factors such as households' income, resources, household chores, market days and cost associated with schooling have affected females' enrolment and attendance more than males. The preference for males and the belief that investing in females' education means investing in the prospective husbands accounted for the disparity in enrolment and attendance. The cost of

educating the female child per annum was higher than the cost of educating the male child (GHc 81.3 and GHc 69.9 respectively) due to the fact that female needs such as school uniform, books, “chop” money to effectively participate in education were more when compared to males and this created disparity in enrolment and attendance in many schools. The levels at which parents acquired education in the region does not determine the levels at which their children acquire education. Pupils in basic schools were not enrolled because their parents’ have attained higher levels of education.

Polygyny, early marriage, fostering, menstruation, festivals and funeral rites affected disparity in attendance in favour of males because of the negative perceptions of households about females’ education. Large class size, teacher absenteeism in many instances discouraged females from attending school more than males. The School Feeding Programme and the Capitation Grant positively affected the enrolment of females more than males. Capitation Grant does not affect school attendance in the region because there was no evidence in the schools or from GES to show this. While the Gender Parity Indices in enrolment favoured the females, the indices in school attendance favoured the males in the region. NGOs have collaborated with GES in research, provision of incentives to girls, training of the personnel of GES, advocacy, scholarships and formation of girls clubs in schools but lack of trust and effective preservation of data as well disparity in enrolment at the start of school cycle by many schools accounted for the continued disparity in enrolment between males and females. A policy review to include all the stakeholders in basic education (parents, teachers, pupils’ and NGOs) is necessary else, a key target of the Millennium Development Goals which aims at achieving parity at the basic school level will remain an illusion and a “wild goose chase.”

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

According to the United Nations Organisation (2011), gender refers to socially and culturally imposed differences between males and females in terms of their roles and character traits. While sex is the biological difference between males and females, gender is psychological and a cultural construct. Gender is determined by the way in which children are socialized, first, by their families, later in the school and society. Narrowly defined, gender disparity in education refers to different outcomes between males and females in education. It goes beyond observation to include statistical differences in possession, statuses and opportunities between males and females in the society (Anderson 2002). To learn what are considered to be appropriate male and female roles, different patterns of behavior are learned by males and females through interactions with their primary caretakers and peers.

The socialization patterns which males and females go through in the society lead to unequal access to education and expectations from males and females in the society. The different pattern of socialization and treatment which females receive at home and in the society at large puts them in the position of an educationally and economically disadvantaged group. Available statistics from the Ghana Statistical Service (2012) showed that women constitute 51.4 percent of Ghana's population. Despite the growing body of literature such as Wazir (2000) and Weis (2002) detailing discriminatory practices against women in most institutions in the world, gender is virtually neglected as

a category for concern, especially in equity and disparity issues in basic education. The operational definition of Basic Education by the researcher is that, it refers to the whole range of educational training taking place in various settings (formal or informal) that aims at meeting the basic educational needs. It comprises pre- primary, primary and lower secondary training.

Globally, disparities in literacy between females and males remain everywhere, although narrowing considerably from the 1970s to 2000s except in Latin America and the Caribbean. The gender gap is greater in North Africa, the Middle East, Sub-Saharan Africa and Southern Asia. In Southern Asia today, the female literacy rate has gone up; for every 100 literate males there are 62 literate females (UNDP report 2012). According to UNO report (2011) the global struggle for universal education is nearly 60 years old and those involved over the decades can often recount the milestones off hand. Universal education was recognized as a right in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and again in 1989 when the UN General Assembly adopted the Convention on the Rights of the Child. In March 1990 at Jomtien, Thailand, the World Education for All Conference reiterated that every child has the right to complete primary education. Girls' education was identified as a development tool in September 1990 at the World Summit for Children at Jomtein with emphasis on reducing the disparities in enrolment in basic education between males and females (UNO 2011).

The UNO report (2011) further explained that in 2000, the United Nations established eight Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to meet the needs of people in developing

countries around the globe. The two goals that are considered the most critical for achieving the remaining goals pertain directly to gender parity in basic schooling, achieve Universal Primary Education, promote gender equality and empower women by achieving gender parity in education at primary and basic levels by 2005 and at all levels by 2015. In most countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, much emphasis has been placed on gender and basic education; the aim is to serve as a foundation on which national development is built.

A UNESCO report (2011) further noted that the greatest gender gap can be found in Liberia where primary school enrolment among females is 61.3 percent less than that of the males. The report again indicates that the illiteracy rate for females in Africa exceeds 60 percent and there are 26 million African females out of school. This figure increased to 36 million in the year 2000 and will double by 2015 if measures are not taken to reverse this trend. In spite of the global commitment to achieve gender parity, much remains to be achieved. Key obstacles are related to the attention given to theoretical and political issues. This means that development policies and work have been theoretical and typified by a concern for economic growth rather than human wellbeing.

1.2 Rationale for the Study

Ghana has made good progress towards achieving gender parity in basic education yet, it is still a long way from achieving this goal. A Ghana Education Service report (2011) explained that as of 2010, only 72 percent of eligible Primary School children (those aged 6-11years) were enrolled in basic school. At the Junior High School level, only 51

percent were in school. The report further explained that among these children who are enrolled, a disproportionate number of them were females.

The quality of education received in Ghana differs from one region to another and notably, district to district. The participation of girls in schooling in the three regions of the North has been extremely low. In 2010 the enrolment figure for females in primary schools in the Northern Region was 40.6 percent against 59.4 percent for boys. In the Upper East Region, it was 42.7 percent against 57.3 percent and in the Upper West Region 40.3 percent against 59.7 percent for boys (GES report 2011).

The report further indicated that between 2001 and 2009 the Upper East and West Regions had gender enrolment rates of 23.5 percent and 17.5 percent respectively. These were less than the national average of 68.5 percent. In 2010, the figures increased to 76.4 percent and 74.9 percent respectively; though less than the national average of 83.1 percent indicating a much faster growth in female enrolment. Indeed, whilst the national figure in terms of enrolment increased by 9.5 percent over the period of 8 years (from 2001-2009), that of the Upper East and West regions grew by 31.4 percent and 26.1 percent respectively. The policies of successive governments of Ghana since independence have generally aimed at universalizing basic education for all citizens. However, the disparities in educational participation of males and females persisted over the years. The issues of equity, quality, access, retention, attendance and performance have remained unresolved. These disparities are greater in the Northern Regions than in the Southern Regions of the country as observed above; hence there is therefore the need

to study the root causes of gender disparities in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

1.3 Problem Statement

The Millennium Development Goal Report (2010) indicates that the Northern Region of Ghana suffers in terms of poverty, literacy, educational enrolment and attendance of children in basic schools. The gender parity index (GPI) of 1 for enrolment in basic schools in both the rural and urban areas was not achieved as at 2010. What are the factors accounting for this? A UNICEF (2012) report corroborated this in table 1.1

Table 1.1: Gender Parity Indices in enrolment in the Northern Region of Ghana

ITEM/ GPI	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	Target
<u>Urban Areas</u>										
Kindergarten	0.74	0.97	0.95	0.95	0.94	0.92	0.94	0.93	0.98	1.0
Primary	0.80	0.95	0.96	0.90	0.94	0.90	0.91	-	1.01	1.0
Junior High	0.76	0.91	0.92	0.88	0.91	0.88	-	0.94	0.93	1.0
<u>Rural Areas</u>										
Kindergarten		0.90	0.89	0.91	0.90	0.90	0.93	0.95	1.01	1.0
Primary		0.87	0.87	0.90	0.89	0.88	0.90	0.96	0.99	1.0
Junior High		0.86	0.87	0.88	0.80	0.87	-	0.98	0.95	1.0

Source: UNICEF education report (2012)

Table 1.1 shows the average parity indices in enrolment in both the rural and urban schools in the Northern Region from 2003-2011. The table shows that apart from the target of 1 in pupils' enrolment not being achieved even by 2011, both the rural and the urban communities recorded parity indices in favor of the boys except in 2011 where the gender parity indices for kindergarten in rural areas and urban primary schools are in favour of the girls. It can be observed again that there was yearly improvement in the

indices from 2003 -2011 but the disparity in enrolment favors the boys in most cases.

¹The parity indices for the urban areas are higher than the indices for the deprived areas.

What factors account for this disparity? Additionally, since the educational reforms in 1987, some gains have been made nationally, especially in girls' access to basic education but the Northern Region still lags behind the rest of the regions in Ghana. A Ministry of Education report (2010) explained that considering the average number of pupils enrolled in the basic schools in Ghana, the Northern Region ranks 8th out of the 10 regions of Ghana. The Ministry of Education (2010) again reported that the regional capital, Tamale has one of the lowest gender parity indices, placing 105th out of 110 districts in the Northern Region. The report further noted that between 2001 and 2010, the alarming dropout rate among girls in basic schools in the region was a great concern. Although the ratio of males to females registered in the primary schools was 50:45 as at 2010, the percentage of girls dropped considerably at the Junior High School level. What are the factors accounting for this? Are there reasons to explain the drop in the percentage of girls at the JHS?

The participation of girls in the three Northern Regions (Northern, Upper West and Upper East) has been extremely low. A Ghana Education Service report (2010) indicates that the average enrolment figure for girls in the primary schools in the regions was 40.6% as compared to 57.8% in the Southern Regions, 59.4% for boys as compared to 72.5% in the Southern Regions.

¹ Any parity index less than 1 means disparity in favour of boys and index greater than 1 means disparity in favour of girls. Parity index equal to 1 means there is parity between boys and girls.

Between 2000-2010, the Northern Region and Upper East respectively had gender enrolment rates of 40.5% and 32.5% behind the national average of 68.5%. In 2007, the figures increased to 53.4% and 46.9% respectively behind the national average of 83.1% indicating a much faster growth in girls' enrolment (GES 2010).

The Northern Region suffers from an acute shortage of both trained and untrained teachers and this compounded the task of improving educational access and participation at the basic level. What is the pupil-teacher ratio in both the rural and the urban areas in the Northern Region of Ghana?

In view of the above, frantic efforts have been made by governments of Ghana since independence to bridge the disparity gap in enrolment and attendance via various policy formulations. These include a free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (fCUBE) policy and Basic Education Sector Improvement Project (BESIP) which placed emphasis on achieving access; quality and equity in basic education were implemented in the late 1990s. Girl Child Education Units were created within the Ministry of Education, District Girls' Education Officers were employed and three Ministers in Charge of Basic, Secondary and Girl Child Education were appointed. The institution of the Capitation Grant and the Ghana School Feeding Programme were all efforts by the government to improve enrolment and attendance in basic school and currently the introduction of Free School Uniforms as well as the contribution of the NGOs, especially in providing incentives to females to motivate parents to enroll their females are all cases in point.

In spite of all these efforts, disparities still exist in the basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. What are the socio- economic and the socio- cultural factors that affect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance and what are the effects of school-based factors on gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region? Do the activities of the NGOs have any effect on gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in the basic schools in the Northern Region? These are the questions that this study will attempt to answer.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The main objective of the study is to identify factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana and the specific objectives are:

1. To examine socio-cultural and economic factors affecting gender disparity in basic schools in the Northern Region.
2. To examine school- based factors affecting gender disparity in basic schools in the Northern Region.
3. To examine the effects of the School Feeding Program and the Capitation Grant on gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region.
4. To examine the effects of the collaboration between the Ghana Education Service and the NGOs on gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region.
5. To make recommendations towards closing the gender disparity gap in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region.

Socio-cultural factors investigated include: early marriage, polygyny, menstruation, funeral celebration and festivals and how these affect enrolment and attendance in basic schools. The study will also examine socio-economic factors such as the occupation of the households, incomes of the households, household chores, market days and the cost associated with both females' and males' education and how these affect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance.

Additionally, the study will further examine NGOs (Action Aid, Send Foundation and Camfed) contributions to research, advocacy, award of scholarships and incentives, capacity building and the formation of girls' clubs in various schools in their collaboration with GES. It will further examine how these factors affect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance.

1.5 Justification of the Study

Acquiring basic education is key to economic and political advancement in most developing countries including Ghana. Also, getting a career in government service, the army, police or any profession depends on having an academic qualification. Additionally, education is a basic human right recognised in Human Right Instruments ranging from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1949 to the World Declaration of Education for All in Jomtein, Thailand (WDEA 1990), therefore, every citizen in the world is entitled to basic education. Ghana being a signatory to the Convention on the Rights of the Child and other relevant and obligatory treaties, every Ghanaian child has the right to basic education.

The government of Ghana has a duty to provide Basic Education to all its citizens and as such, the low participation of girls in education in the Northern Region should be a matter of concern to the government of Ghana. An empirical study is therefore vital to determine the extent of gender disparity in basic education by examining the effectiveness of interventions by all stakeholders in education.

A study of this nature will also help policy makers, development partners, researchers and the Ghana Education Service to provide accurate facts and figures relevant to gender disparity in basic education in the districts in Northern Region. The research will assist the government to formulate policies which will be focused and directed towards achieving gender parity in enrolment and attendance in education in the country.

The study will also help the NGOs to re-examine their relationship with the Ghana Education Service. It will provide researchers in education, especially those in gender and education adequate knowledge for further research. Consultants can make good use of the study by advising the policy makers in gender and education when it comes to the formulation of policies on education. Students of Sociology of Education, Gender and Development can use the document as references in their long essays, dissertations and theses.

1.6 Organisation of the Study

The thesis is organised into eight chapters. Chapter one is the introduction which defines gender and basic education and explains the state of gender disparity in global, African and Ghanaian perspectives and the problem statement on which the objectives of the

study are built . It makes a comparison of the gender parity indices and explains the focus of the study as well as the gaps that are to be filled by the current study. The chapter further outlines the general and specific objectives of the study and make specific reference to factors that are examined in the study. The chapter again justifies the study by explaining reasons why the study is needed and how the study will contribute to academia and to sociological theory. Lastly, the chapter ends with the organisation of the study.

Chapter two is solely a review of the literature relevant to the study. This chapter examines the various literature from published theses, journals and books that are relevant to the study. It includes a review of literature on the relevance and determinants of female education , the socio-economic and socio-cultural factors that are likely to affect gender disparity in education, the school based factors like the school environment, the teacher and the School Feeding Programme. The chapter further examines the contribution of NGOs and how it affects gender disparity in school enrolment and attendance. Gaps are identified because most of the literature reviewed were not explaining gender disparity issues that occur in the school and which of the variables are likely to affect disparity either in favour of the males or females.

Chapter three describes the study area by explaining the geographical location of the Northern Region as well as the climatic conditions the people experience within the year. The chapter further describes the world-view of the people of the North in terms of Islam, Christianity and African Traditional Religion. Kinship, marriage as well as traditional

political systems were described. The chapter also explains the succession pattern of the people in the Northern Region, economic characteristics are examined in relation to the type of economic activities the people are engaged in and how these activities affect their livelihood. The chapter further presents the history of education in the Northern Region from 1909-2010 and finally, the chapter describes the effects of the thematic areas and how they affect gender disparity in enrolment and in some cases pupils attendance in basic schools in the region.

Chapter four explains the methodology. This includes the research process and design, theoretical framework, how the theory is linked to the methodology, model specification and examination of data from the study population. It explains the sampling procedure the cross sectional design which is triangulated with the qualitative procedure. In this chapter the brief profiles of the selected NGOs are outlined and how NGOs are in one way or the other assisted in basic education. There is a model developed in this chapter which explains the variables that are used in the regression in chapter four. Also, all the data collection methods are explained as well as how the data is analysed.

Chapter five examines the socio- cultural and economic factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance. The chapter explains how the marital status of the respondents, levels of parental education and religious affiliation affect gender disparity in basic schools. The chapter further examines the effects of polygyny, fostering, menstruation, funerals and festivals on gender disparity in basic education. It further presents the occupation of household heads, incomes of household heads, household

chores and market days and how these variables specifically effect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance. The chapter again makes a comparison between the cost of educating the female child and the male child and which child is likely to go to school when households are in financial crisis.

Chapter six presents and examines school-based factors affecting gender disparity in basic education in the Northern Region. The effect of the school enviroment on gender disparity is examined as well as the class size, teacher absenteeism, teacher-pupil relationship and the pupil-pupil relationship. How these relations effect gender disparity in school attendance is examined. As part of the school-based factors the Capitation Grant and the School Feeding Programmes are all examined in this chapter. Chapter seven examines the effects of the collaboration between the NGOs and Ghana Education Service in research, advocacy and training, institution of scholarship schemes, capacity building and the formation of female clubs in basic schools on gender disparity in enrolment and attendance. The chapter further explains the challenges facing NGOs and the GES in their collaboration and how these challenges affect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the districts.

Chapter eight summarizes the main findings of the socio economic, cultural factors, the school based factors and the institutional collaboration between the NGOs and GES. The chapter further draws a conclusion on the findings and adds that every educational theory, like the Capability and Social Justice theory by Amarty Sen, should include all the stakeholders in education and also, for the government to achieve the goals set in the

Millenium Development Goals all the stakeholders: teachers, parents, pupils and NGOs must play a role in the process of policy formulation. The chapter finally makes a recommendation based on the findings of the socio- economic, cultural and school based factors as well as the institutional collaboration. Concluding on this chapter, it can be stated that the chapter is the bedrock of the entire thesis since all the contents in this chapter are expantiated in the subsequent chapters. The following chapter presents the literature review relevant to gender and basic education.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic education in Ghana and Africa as a whole. In most parts of sub-Saharan Africa, females are likely to have less access to basic school and remain in school as compared to males. Since independence in 1957, Ghana has experimented with a range of educational policies to combat some imbalances in basic education. These policies led to the universal basic education and according to the Ghana Statistical Service report (2012), 54.7 percent of children of basic school age in Ghana today are in school. Basic Education in Ghana is compulsory but disparities between females and males in most basic schools in Ghana are obvious. There is either disparity in favour of females or disparity in favour of males.

The chapter further presents a review of what females will benefit if they get the opportunity to attend school, the tradition and customary practices that negatively prevent parents from enrolling their females, or if enrolled, prevent them from attending school regularly. It discusses cultural practices such as early marriage and child betrothal, polygyny and fostering. The chapter further discusses economic factors like low subsidy for basic education, unemployment, poverty, income of households, household chores, parental education and the cost associated with males' and females' education. The effects of inadequate school facilities like class rooms, wash rooms on children enrolment and attendance were reviewed. Additionally, the chapter discusses the food programmes in

schools within and outside Ghana. The factors outlined above were reviewed because they affect female education and in some instances male education. In spite of the review of these contextual challenges of gender disparity in basic education, many gaps were still identified within the socio-economic, cultural, the school based factors and the activities of the NGOs and GES which the current study has addressed.

2.2 Relevance of Basic Education

Anderson (2002) explained that a mother's schooling increases the educational attainment of her children, especially her daughters. In many cases, it has been found to have a larger impact on children's schooling than the father's education (even though the father's education also implies an income effect). A study of female students enrolled in public schools in Cairo by Anderson found that differences in measures of their self-confidence were associated with their mother's education. The more formal schooling a mother has acquired, the more she gives praises and confidence to her daughters and the more her standards and expectations differ from those of less educated mothers.

The author maintains that education enhances women's ability to exercise their rights and responsibilities. The right to own land, for example, is diminished by not being able to read and understand contracts or to do simple arithmetic. The right to vote is meaningless unless women can inform themselves of the issues of the day. According to the author, violence against women in the home or on the streets has been associated not just with poverty but also with illiteracy which prevents women from asserting their rights and protecting themselves through the due process of law.

Anderson (2002) further noted that mother's schooling also improves her own health; one reason for this is that more schooling seems to accord her greater control over the frequency and spacing of child bearing and to influence her use of health services during pregnancy and child birth. Frequent pregnancies take their toll on the mother resulting in what is termed as "maternal depletion syndrome" especially, in the poorest areas where the higher dietary requirements of pregnant or lactating women often remain unfulfilled. The author's assertion is true to some extent because in the Northern Region of Ghana, it can be observed that girls who are highly educated had educated mothers in the past but it is not always true that only if one's mother is educated that one can also be educated as reported in Alhassan (2010). There are many instances in the Northern Region where illiterate mothers have been able to educate both their male and female children up to the university level. Even if Anderson's assertion pertains in Southern Ghana, it is not always so in the Northern Region of Ghana. Also there are many instances in the Northern Region where mothers have not been to school but their husbands have acquired the highest education.

Summers (1993) cited in Samuel (2000) noted that educating girls offer the best hope of breaking the cycle of female deprivation. The author maintains that an increase in schooling years has similar effects on the incomes of both males and females, but educating girls generate much larger social benefits because of what women do with the extra income they earn and the extra leverage it affords them within the family.

A comparison should have been made of the extra incomes both males and females make and what they do with the incomes. This was not captured in summer's analysis. There is a perception that encouraging girls to go to school to learn, to read and experience more

of the world beyond their homes is a strategy that pays off only in the long run. A story that the late US President, John Kennedy, used to tell about a boss of a company who asked his gardener how long it will take for a certain seed to grow into a tree. The gardener said it would take a hundred years. The boss replied “then plant the seed this morning there is no time to lose”. The story was only to show the relevance of early training and for girls to be better off in future, they must be provided with quality basic education at early ages so that it will benefit them in future.

Kwesiga (2002) explained that educated women contribute to the wellbeing of their families, communities and countries. According to the author, educated women serve as resources for the promotion of the social as well as physical health of their communities. The author, therefore wonders why there has been so little change if the benefits are readily apparent. The author’s argument was not complete in the sense that he failed to explain the contribution that educated women make to the well-being of their families, the communities and the country as a whole. This would have thrown more light on the benefit of women’s education to the society.

Amalu (2003) indicated that the unique and far-reaching benefits of educating the girl child include the proven fact that educating her is the best investment for societal development. The short and long term benefits to girls’ education are based on the evidence that educated girls develop essential life-skills which include self-confidence, the ability to participate effectively in society and protect themselves from sexual exploitation, pressures for early marriage and child birth. The author further explained that, educated girls are more likely to protect themselves from HIV/AIDS than non-educated girls; this is due to the training they undergo in the course of education.

Abstinence from sex will automatically prevent girls from contracting HIV/AIDS therefore; it is not only education that will protect girls from HIV/AIDS.

According to Dolphyne (1991), the importance of education to the emancipation of women cannot be over emphasized, if it is ignorance that has made women accept the inferior position to which they have been relegated by the society for centuries, education would be the weapon through which women can be properly emancipated. In Ghana, illiteracy on the part of women has made them to always play subordinate roles creating disparity in all spheres of life. The author further argued that spurious beliefs about women's subordinate position based on cultural and religious concepts that cannot stand up to close scrutiny as well as misconception about her physiology and her intelligence have made women accept without questioning the superiority of men.

The author further argued that such beliefs and misconceptions have made women feel generally inadequate and incapable of functioning effectively in the society. It is only education that can foster in women an analytical and critical mind that will make them question the religious, cultural and physiological bases of their supposed inferiority. Only education can give women knowledge that would expose the fallacies behind the cultural practices that keep them in subordination. This clearly shows that without education being made available to girls, the emancipation of Ghanaian women will take several more centuries. Dolphyne (1991) recognised the importance of girl child education but could not make suggestions as to whether there are other factors that can lead to the emancipation of women from cultural and the religious beliefs apart from education.

2.3 Socio-Economic Challenges

Socio-economic factors have been operationalized by the author to mean the social and economic experiences and realities that hold an individual's personality, attitude and lifestyle. This section of the review discusses the negative influences of socio-economic factors which directly or indirectly affect children's education in basic schools in Ghana and Africa.

Wazir (2000) noted that in African education systems, often, the poorest regions receive the lowest subsidy per school age child; remote rural areas that are sparsely populated often do not have enough children of school-going ages to justify the establishment of school, so children who live in these "hard to reach" areas often have to walk long distances to school. Where these schools exist, the buildings are often in poor condition, equipped with inadequate learning materials and teachers who are ill-trained or untrained, underpaid and lack motivation. The author's assertion is true to some extent. Comparing the situation in Ghana to some parts of Africa, the situation is different, especially in the Northern Region where there are enough children of school going age to justify the establishment of a school but there is non availability of resources to warrant such establishment. Additionally, in the rural areas of northern Ghana, the author failed to explain some of the economic factors like poverty, low income of households which prevent parents from enrolling their children and this is a gap because establishing a school in the rural areas alone does not warrant enrolment; other factors might come in to complement.

Also, whether or not a child in the rural area attends school depends on the costs associated with schooling which Wazir (2000) did not discuss. These costs are of two kinds; direct and indirect costs. The direct costs include contributions in kind and in cash to the construction and repair of schools, recurrent contributions to teachers' salaries and the costs of schooling accessories such as uniforms, books and writing instruments. The indirect costs of schooling are largely in the form of income parents will lose from a child when the child is sent to school, therefore in order for parents to maximize their income, they prefer not to enrol their children and allow them to attend school. Opportunity costs are also in the form of the invisible work that children perform in the domestic arena. For mothers, especially, sending their daughters to school means more domestic responsibilities for themselves which indirectly affect their income earning abilities. Studies by the Ministry of Education (2005) suggests that the direct costs of education are one of the main reasons children are not attending school. The study by MOE did not specify what the direct cost consist of and how the cost directly prevents children from attending school.

Parents who think that they will be able to finance their children's education discover with time that they are unable to raise the money required for the variety of costs associated with schooling. Some of which include providing food allowances for children attending school, providing transport funds and many others. A study conducted in Ghana by Boakye et al. (1999) cited in Anderson (2002) explained that about 43 percent of the dropouts in Ghana lack financial support and this was the main reason for dropping

out of school. The author failed to explain why these children lack financial support to stay in school.

In relation to that, Amalu (2003) explained that in some places such as the coastal areas of Ghana where parents are seasonal migrants, parents leave their children in the care of grandparents who are unable to undertake the financial support for the children's schooling. As a result, the children finance their own education and often work after school hours as weavers, fisherfolk, traders and selling food items. The author added that children help to increase the labour power of parents both by engaging in domestic chores thus freeing their parents for income generating activities or by working to subsidize family income.

In extremely poor families, Amalu (2003) further noted that children contribute as much as 40 percent to family income. They may be sent to school only when the labour needs of the family have been met in order to ensure household food security. Newly married men in deprived rural areas are therefore less inclined to send all their children to school because there will be no extra children to spare for the farm. As echoed by one rural parent, "those on the farm feed those at the school" and the girl child is always at a disadvantage.

Casely-Hayford (2002) explained that the decisions to continue in school or dropout are contingent, first, on the decision to enrol and then on a continuing reassessment of the child school situation aided by feedback on achievement. According to the author, the

recurring and sequential nature of decision about schooling has theoretical and methodological implications, actions that result in entering, continuing, or dropping out of school occur at several sequential points or decision nodes. At each point, the decision for or against schooling may be influenced by the characteristics of the individual, the home, the community, the school and the school system. The author's explanation is vague in that it failed to look at how individuals, the home and the school can influence decision against schooling. Factors like the individual's attitudes, household factors and school based factors were completely left out in Casely Hayford's analysis.

Kasente (2003) found out that overall, girls receive less education than boys and they tend to dropout or are withdrawn earlier for economic reasons. The author further argued that the opportunity cost of sending girls' to school in rural areas where girls are married quite early is high because the benefits of their schooling will not accrue any income to their parental household. The situation is not different in the Northern Region of Ghana where parents still believe that sending girls to school means a loss of income to the family.

Regarding the impact of parental education, Kakuru (2003) indicated that the impact differs by gender, the education of a father increases the expected level of school retention for boys and that of the mother enhances the educational attainment for girls. Similarly, other studies by Behrman et al. (2004) reported a consistently positive and significant coefficient of fathers and the mother's education at all levels of education except at the senior secondary level. The socio-economic background of parents, their

attitudes about educating girls, the mother's education and the family income contribute to shaping decision about schooling for daughters. A family's need for child labour may add a high opportunity cost to any other reasons for not sending daughters to school.

The author's explanation lacks facts because socio-economic background of parents is a broader term which involves many factors. What is the author explaining? Mothers or fathers education, their income and attitudes alone do not give females opportunity to attend school. There may be other factors that can influence the decision but the school based factors and how the children are motivated to stay in school are also important.

According to Weis (2002), girls who come from socio-economic advantaged families are more likely to continue or enter and remain in secondary school than girls from disadvantaged families. This can be seen and experienced in the Northern part of Ghana where girls from poor families dropout of school often. Another possible explanation, according to the author, is that, the growing enrolment in Ghana is made possible because of the provision of new schools rather than the expansion of the existing ones. The result is that the opportunity for girls and other disadvantaged groups to gain entrance were greater and enhanced in the new schools. This assertion cannot be taken seriously to some extent because many schools in Ghana are still under trees, especially in the Northern Region of Ghana.

Weis (2002) again found that girl students at the secondary school level in Ghana are also disproportionately drawn from educated families compared to their male counterparts. The class advantage was even more striking when contrasted with historical patterns of

male enrolment. Even when Ghana's educational system was much smaller, the sons of uneducated fathers were not unduly at a disadvantage despite their higher socio-economic status. However, female students were more likely to attend inferior schools. This pattern, according to Weis differs in Cote d' Ivoire where the smaller size of the school system and the lower proportion of female students explain why girls are as likely as boys to attend good schools.

Aggarwal (2005) explained that in Jordan, the level of education attained by fathers has a direct relationship with the schooling of their daughters; this is a clear indication that there is a positive relation between fathers' education and that of their daughters. Assie (2000) supported this assertion with the view that a girl in Cote d' Ivoire with a university graduate father is more than thirty five times as likely to enter a secondary school as compared with a girl of a father with no education. In relation to that, Kossoudji and Mueller (1984) cited in Assie (2000) also explained that households headed by educated females are more likely to send girls as well as boys to school and to keep them there longer than households headed by uneducated females. The authors noted that the women's ability to support themselves and their children in part depend on their own schooling since education is usually what allows women to find jobs in the formal sector. This assertion cannot be disputed only that in some few cases in Ghana, uneducated mothers knowing the importance of education have been able to sponsor their children up to the university level therefore it is not in all cases that the level of parental education has an influence on their children education as portrayed by the authors.

Mehra and Osheba (1986), cited in Assie (2000), argued that the level of education a girl's parents have is probably the most important factor in determining her educational opportunities. Educated people want and appreciate education for their children and often push them to acquire at least as much education as they themselves have. The authors indicated that educated parents are also more likely to have access to resources and information. The authors further noted that holding income constant, parental education had the most influence on educational aspirations of children in both rural and urban areas in Egypt. The higher the educational attainment of the parents, the greater their aspirations for their children and these were largely for girls than for boys' education. Is this applicable in the Northern Region of Ghana.? The study will investigate the efficacy of these assertions.

According to El-Sanabary (2001), women from middle income and upper income families are more likely than those from low-income families to enter schools and progress all the way to the University. The author noted that wealthy families are able to enrol their daughters in public or private schools at home or abroad. According to the author, before Saudi Arabia opened its first public girls' school in 1960 many well-off families sent their daughters to public and private schools in Egypt and Lebanon. These families were also the first to take advantage of university education for women when it became available at home.

The author maintains that the educational advantages conferred by high socio-economic status are even more pronounced at the university level. The methodology used by the

author does not adequately explain his findings. He does not explain in detail what he meant by socio-economically disadvantaged families. The author again pointed out that female students at the tertiary level in Nigeria have been drawn disproportionately from more privileged families. This assertion does not hold for Ghana because in almost all the tertiary institutions in Ghana one can still find a large number of students who come from underprivileged families (FAWE 2001).

FAWE (2001) again noted in Ghana that well-to-do families hardly find their females dropping out of school. The necessary care is given to ensure that their females attain the highest education. This clearly shows how parental income is related to girl-child education. It is only in rare instances where children from poor families have been able to acquire university education.

Mathew (2000) discussed many forces that combine to spell an early end to education for girls. According to the author, the most common among these forces are poverty. Cost of voluntary contribution, uniform, books and bus fares can make even free education expensive, especially, if there are many children in the family. According to the author, when a poor family considers how much a daughter can help in cleaning, cooking, collecting wood and water and looking after young children and how little opportunity there will be for her to get a paying job even if she is educated, the returns rarely seem to warrant the expenditure. The author further argued that, even when girls are enrolled, the burden of domestic chores stands in the way of their educational progress. The author explained vividly how domestic work retards the progress of girls' education but failed to

explain the type of work males also do at home and how it retards their progress in basic education.

In relation to the domestic chores, a study in Mozambique's primary schools by Mathew (2000) explained that the single most important factor in poor performance was time and strain imposed by the child's workload. Mathew did not explain other factors in Mozambique which affect girls' performance as compared to boys' and that was an oversight because the workload on girls at home is not enough to explain girls' poor performance. Teachers, especially absenteeism on the part of many teachers and lack of adequate logistics were not discussed. The author discussed poverty as a hindrance to girls' education but did not measure the extent to which it affects girls' education with regards to enrolment, drop out and attendance.

Sen (2007) explained that as household income increases, the need for girls' domestic work diminishes and this reinforces the Harvard analytical framework which posits that men as decision makers determine who is entitled to which resources. If household resources are well invested there is a chance for better girls' education. If the opposite obtains, girls always lose out, as decisions are made in favour of boys. In relation to poverty, Odaga and Hanevard (1995) noted that poverty plays a leading role in educational deprivation. According to the authors, poverty means parents cannot afford the cost of sending their children to school or are unable to dispense with the labour provided by the children within the households.

However, poverty has a more negative impact on girls' education than boys because of the culture of boy preference. For many households in the Northern Region, the main

value of education is first and foremost, perceived economic benefits. Households will choose to educate their children or not base on the prospects that schooling ensures employment. UNICEF (2012) noted that just like other developing countries, the economy is unable to generate enough jobs for even university graduates: thus there are threats to devalue education in the eyes of the public, therefore, parents see less the need to educate their children and this is exacerbated by gender segregation in recruitment which means girls have fewer chances of getting employed and parents are less motivated to educate them.

Similarly, in the rural areas, job opportunities for school leavers are fewer compared to high potential areas and urban centers. A study by Oxfam (2005) shows that high level of unemployment has become a hindrance to primary enrolment in the Northern Region as parents get increasingly disappointed after investing in their children's education. Additionally, the norms and values among most of the ethnic groups in the area clearly demarcate roles of men and women and a strong gendered division of labour that is behind preference of boys to girls in education. This disadvantaged position combines with discrimination in the labour market to reduce their chances to assess education. (OXFAM, 2005; FAWE, 2001).

Studies by Saito et al. (1994) cited in OXFAM (2005) indicate that women spend fifty percent more time working than men. The author noted that among the people of Northern Ghana, it is difficult for girls to keep up with school work, at the same time complete work at home. This assertion is true to some extent because, it is observed that at home, the girls cook, fetch water, collect firewood, wash clothes and look after younger ones. It is also true to some extent that girls have more work to do while the

boys have time to play and to do school work. So far as domestic chores are concerned, both girls and boys are negatively affected only that, the girls are affected more than the boys in school attendance. The author failed to state the type of work boys do at home. This could have given the reviewer the chance to make a comparison. The author again failed to state the time both boys and girls use at home. This also would have given the reviewer the opportunity to compare. The above is corroborated by a research conducted by Arnove (2003), which identified domestic labour burden as one of the main reason for girls' dropout of school in Sub-Saharan Africa. Studies done by OXFAM in 2005 in Zambia, Kenya, Mali, Cameroon and Uganda also corroborated the study when the author showed that girls are more involved in domestic work than boys and that enrolment of girls is greatly affected by this burden.

Kabeer (2005) noted that economic theories on the determinants of the provision of schooling begin with cost-benefit analysis, which posits the tendency for investments to raise the anticipated returns and vice versa. A gender dimension is visible in this whereby women's benefit from schooling may be lower than men's due to intrinsic sex differences or discrimination against women. The anchoring of women's societal position to marriage and family and their unshared role in household tasks means that they have shorter careers than men, which in turn motivate smaller investments in schooling, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Kabeer (2005) further maintained that these theoretical notions have also found support in scholarly work which concludes that gender differences in education have persisted because of lower returns of women's education relative to that of men in the labor

market. The argument leans heavily on parents as key decision makers in the schooling of their sons versus daughters as they weigh the benefits that will accrue in returns of labor market gains and material outcomes and old age security just to name a few. Thus, failure to enroll daughters as opposed to sons is viewed as an efficient rather than discriminatory decision. It can be explained that discriminatory practices can only stem from difficult economic conditions in the Northern Region of Ghana. In this case, families will wish to educate their daughters but when constrained by resources, they view investment in sons as a better strategic choice.

2.4. Socio-Cultural and Contextual Challenges

Socio-cultural factors are operationalized as those issues that are related to both social and cultural factors that affect an individual positively or negatively in the society. This section of the review presents a number of socio-cultural factors that affect male and female children in basic education. The section further presents the contextual factors that are likely to affect females in basic education. Girls face numerous hindrances in accessing basic education with several factors being identified as barriers to their education. These factors are categorized into socio-cultural factors such as polygyny, child betrothal, early marriages, Female Genital Mutilation and fostering as reported by FAWE (2001), Leach (2003), Okwany (2004) and Odaga and Heneval (1995). Political and institutional factors which include funding and policies on gender issues in education as well as school based factors also limit pupils' access to basic education.

Colclough (2000), Subrahmanian (2002) and Wazir (2000) all noted that the above category of factors are interrelated yet, there has been more emphasis on supply-side factors with the postulation that if the state provides education, more children will enroll. Wazir (2000) argues that a focus on supply as distinct from demand runs the risk of overlooking ways in which policy and practices are embedded in the socio-cultural environments in which they function. Consequently, the two categories are equally important and therefore require equal attention when examining the problems of females' access to basic education.

There are a variety of socio-cultural challenges affecting gender disparity in basic schools. Female illiteracy is one of the challenges. According to Mensah (1992) cited in Samuel (2000), illiterate parents are less able to assess the benefits of schooling for their children, especially, their daughters and are therefore less inclined to put their children through school. The author noted that women in adult literacy programme are more likely to send their children to school; keep them and encourage them to read at home. Illiteracy on the part of parents is not the only factor that will undermine the education of children. It may play a role among many factors which the author has failed to mention and explain. In the Northern Region of Ghana one can still find high educated parents whose children are out of school and they are learning a vocation at home which could have also been learnt in school. This is not surprising since it is observed that the level of parental education does not always determine the children's level of education.

Okojie (2001) further explained that another socio-cultural factor that works to the disadvantage of girls is the cultural perception concerning their role in the family and society and the preference to invest in boys' education. Traditional society's preference for boys' education restricts girls' ability to access formal education systems. Several other socio-cultural practices which also widen disparity in basic schools and impede girls' education include: early marriage and fostering. The author just mentioned this variable but failed to explain how it retards the progress of female education. The author further explained that in many societies in Sub-Saharan Africa, gender disparity in favour of males in school enrolment is regarded as an ideology in foundation in which males in the society have accepted especially, in a patriarchal² structure where males are the head of families and the society places women in the subordinate position.

FAWE (2001) noted that the people of the Northern Region have higher preference for boys' education which they see as more prestigious than girls' education and that many respondents held the view that girls have low ability compared with boys and educating them is a "waste of money". This perception contradicts the theory by Sen 2007 which the study used as a guide and which explained that both males and females have equal capability therefore they should be treated equal. The negative attitude of the society towards women in general and to females' education in particular has contributed to low enrolment of females in primary school, while investing in males education is seen to be a feasible investment with returns including the care of parents in old age: females'

² Patriarchy is defined as "a set of social relations with material base that enables men to dominate women. Patriarchy gives material advantage to men while at the same time placing constraints on the role and activities of women in the society" (Okojie, 2001 p.g 102)

education is perceived as an unwise investment because the girl will get married and it will benefit another family.

El-sanabary (2001) reported that in the Democratic Republic of Congo, higher bride-wealth paid for educated daughters was a reason why parents send their daughters to school. This situation is different in the Northern Region of Ghana where the level of girls' education has nothing to do with the bride-wealth; therefore parents enrol their daughters in school and allow them to attend not because they want high bride-wealth at marriage. It is also clear that no matter how high or low the bride-wealth is, parents in the Northern Region do not spend the wealth, it is given to the girl's mother to buy the items needed by the girl for the preparation of the marriage ceremony.

Robertson and Berger (2004) pointed out that Islam as a socio-cultural factor should not be held responsible for the low enrolment of girls in Africa. The author argued that Sudan stands as a counter example: the Muslim North has significantly higher school enrolment rates than the Christian and traditional South. The author further claims that since independence, the predominantly Muslim countries in Africa have had the highest enrolment growth rates. His findings are true in some cases, but cannot be applied to Ghana because in all the Muslim dominated areas the enrolment and dropout rates for girls are nothing to write home about (MOE report 2010). Robertson and Berger did not explain whether Islam discourages Muslim girls' from acquiring formal education or encourages their acquisition of formal education.

It is true that the records of Muslim countries on women's education as compared to the records of non-Muslim countries have generally been wanting but contrary to the Western stereotype; however, no inherent bias against educating girls exists in these countries. Muslims quote the saying of the Holy Prophet of Islam "the search for knowledge is the duty of every Muslim man or woman" (Hadith Abu Huraira). Wazir (2000) further argued that, within Islamic culture however, certain attitude and perception inhibit girl-child education. Muslims have a strong concern for the modesty and safety of girls and women, a desire to guide their honour is evident in their seclusion and veiling. The working of the system provides an insight into the limitation it imposes on the private and public roles of Muslim girls and women. However, it is an Arab tradition rather than Islam itself that has constrained girl's education (Alhassan, 2010).

Chernichovsky (2002) explained that in Nigeria, the education of girls was hampered because Northern Nigeria is the only area in Sub-Saharan Africa that observed "purdah", a kind of religious ceremony that debar girls from participating in any public activity and the only area in the world that observed it so strictly. Western education was regarded as a threat to both Muslim and Hausa values, a threat that was seen as dangerous for women. The author found that higher educational levels were associated with more school-age children in a family. Those who went to school attended for long periods but those not enrolled were more likely never to have been enrolled. The reason Chernichovsky gave was the diminishing returns to labour in a household with a given amount of assets. Some children are reserved for productive activities and others are allowed to study. In Botswana, Lesotho and Swaziland, this calculation appears to operate to the advantage of

girls because they are chosen to fill their families need to have educated children. In most other countries, boys are more likely to gain this educational advantage (Chernichovsky 2002).

Denzer (2002) argued that the wish to protect daughters from undesirable influences appears strongest in areas that are still very traditional. This explains, for example, why Northern Nigeria stands in sharp contrast to other parts of the country in the percentage of girls not enrolled in schools. The reasons for the relative underdevelopment of girl-child education in Muslim Northern Nigeria are often held to arise from the British government's laissez-faire attitude towards the region, the resistance of the emirs to the introduction of Christian missionaries and the spread of Western education. But Tembo (2000) has a contrasting view. He noted that, the lack of schooling in Northern Nigeria was as a result of British attitude rather than the Emirs resistance.

Leach (2003) indicates that pregnancy and child bearing usually ends a female's school carrier. It can be seen from the above that marriage can affect primary school children in societies where the schools have significant numbers of average children or where betrothal takes place at a very young age. A Ministry of Education report (2010) found in the Girl Child Education Unit in the Northern Region indicates that the enrolment and retention of the girl child are hindered by some negative socio-cultural practices. The report noted that girls of school going ages are given out for marriage at tender ages; some are betrothed at the age of two years; and girls' dropout of school, day in and day

out, because of pressures from their families to get married. The overall retention rate of girls who started from primary one to primary six is low.

According to Samuel (2000), the exploitation of the girl child for economic gain in the northern part of Ghana is widespread. A combination of factors is responsible for this situation. The author noted that traditional practices like child betrothal; foster parenting by aunts and marriage requirement account largely for many girls not going to school. He added that some religious beliefs do militate against girl child education as well. Samuel, in his study, did not show how these factors really militate against girl-child education.

Alhassan (2010) explained that foster parenting is a common practice in the Northern Region. The author failed to explain why fostering is still a practice in the Northern Region. The author further noted that households in the region practice fostering more than child betrothal. The practice of child betrothal used to be common but these days' parents in the Northern Region have stopped giving out their girls for marriage at early ages.

Similarly, Kasente (2003) and Kakuru (2003) explained that in Uganda, early marriage influences children's dropout, especially, with regard to the girl child as it is perceived by parents that marrying off the girl child is an escape route from poverty. The authors further explained that in Uganda, marrying off girls would benefit their families in terms of the bride wealth. The situation is the same in the Northern part of Ghana where the bride wealth paid is used by the family to buy the necessary items for the preparation of

the wedding ceremony. It is also true that early marriage influences female dropouts but the study did not explain how this creates gender disparity in school attendance.

Magwe (2006) noted that school related factors could be an important determinant of whether girls entered and remain in school. According to him, the quality of the schools, especially the courses offered and the messages about sex roles conveyed by educational materials and by teachers influence how parents as well as students make schooling decision. Eshiwani (2000) indicates that schools of poor quality inhibit the educational attainment of girls and affect the choices about what to study.

Weis (2002) argued that girls were over represented in secondary schools of low quality, that is, in institutions that were less successful than others in preparing their students for the Ordinary Level and the Advanced Level examinations that are often prerequisites for continued study or employment in the formal sector. One of the greatest disadvantages experienced by the girls was lack of access to science and mathematics. These fields are often regarded as unfeminine. Eshiwani (2000) also reported that majority of girls in secondary schools in Kenya were in “Harambee” schools (schools created and maintained through community self-help) few of these schools offered any science course and those that did were without the infrastructure needed to teach them effectively.

In Swaziland as reported by Magwe (2006), girls in single sex schools were less likely to choose physical sciences than were girls in mixed schools, despite the fact that the single sex schools in their sample admitted students selectively and were well equipped. Tembo

(2000) reported that the poor quality of institutions men and women attend and their limited curriculum choices also put women at a disadvantage after leaving school because they are less likely to have acquired permanent functional literacy and the skills that employers value in educated workers.

Aggarwal (2006) explained that education is a life long process of development from infancy to maturity. It includes the effects of everything which influences human personality. He explained that education is regarded as a tripolar process involving the interaction of the personality of the teacher and the student in a social setting which affect the modification of the behavior of the student. The knowledge of the student is very useful and essential; similarly, the teacher must also thoroughly understand himself and act accordingly in educating the student. The social setting must be presented by the teacher to the student in a simplified manner. It must be noted that the unconscious influence of the environment is subtle and pervasive. It is obvious in Aggarwal's (2006) explanation that the teacher and the environment play an important role in educating the child at the basic level.

Aggarwal (2006) further noted that the teacher is fully aware of the fact that his aim is to develop the personality of the child along defined lines through the modification of his behavior; the teacher must understand the nature, interest, capabilities and limitations of the child. Sociologically, the teacher must also interpret the behavior of the child in a social setting; this implies that the interaction between the teacher and the child is crucial in the development of the child. Aggarwal (2006) failed to include external factors like

the family, peers, and the availability of school classrooms, class size and the teacher-pupil relationship as well as male-female relationship in school that might affect the learning process of the child and create disparity in school attendance.

If a family decides to send their daughters to school, then a second set of contributing factors relating to the school may come into play to determine if they can actually get to school (school location) and remain in a high quality, safe, meaningful, and gender responsive learning environment (i.e quality of the environment, quality and content of the curriculum, learning materials, and learning processes). These are all variables affecting gender disparity in the basic schools in Ghana.

Pant (2002) and Leach (2003) explained that in many parts of sub Saharan Africa, teachers continue to harass girls sexually or impede on their learning time by sending them on errands during and after school hours. Despite the efforts of successive governments, access to basic education in Ghana is far from complete. Access and participation rates stand at about 78.5 percent (Ghana Statistical Service 2012), the retention rates for Ghanaian children who start primary one is also very low. The Ministry of Education data reveal that of the 80 percent of school children who attend schools, 25 percent drop out before completing the first six years of basic education, and another 30 percent drop out after completing the nine years of basic education (GSS 2012).

According to Anderson (2002), the task of improving educational access at the basic level has been extremely difficult, some districts in the Northern Region, for example, have low teacher-school ratio and high pupil-school ratio - which indicates that school size in the north is predominantly quite small. The author failed to explain pupil- teacher ratio in the Northern Region. The author further noted that the incidence of children out of school, especially girls is also quite severe in the North. Thirty percent (30 percent) of girls at the primary level compared to 19 percent of boys. On child betrothal, the author noted that in Ethiopia, 20 percent of the primary school children were either promised marriage or divorced in this case both boys and girls were affected.

Casely-Hayford (2000) noted that teachers, particularly trained teachers, are often unwilling to serve in rural deprived areas of the country. This hinders the Ghana Education Service's ability to provide the necessary services to basic schools in these areas, hence the gender disparity in these areas keep on widening. The unwillingness of the trained teachers to serve in the deprived areas alone cannot be used as a yardstick to measure disparity. Casely-Hayford (2000) and Aggarwal (2006) assertions recognized the important role that teachers play in helping to address gender disparity in Ghana, though these are not extensively discussed. The argument that alternative complementary route to achieving basic education in Ghana particularly, those that focus on educating girls and other underserved populations need to be a high priority on the government agenda lends credibility. Absenteeism on the part of teachers and how it affects school attendance has not been discussed by both Aggarwal and Casely-Hayford.

Field research by Action Aid Ghana (2002) indicated that about 39 percent of children in the Lawra District of the Upper West Region are out of school and about 40 percent of communities in the Sissala District are without schools. In the Lawra District about 78 percent of the people can be classified as illiterate and only 5 percent of the over 11 years old have ever been to primary school. The study failed to explain the reasons for these percentages. Several key challenges emerged during the study of educational programming in the deprived rural areas in Northern Ghana by Action Aid. These are distance and small populations, limited formal education opportunities and lack of commitment adversely affect the formal learning environment and create more disparity between boys and girls in basic schools in Ghana.

The study by Action Aid further revealed that poor communities felt dis-empowered and helpless in the face of GES officers who were viewed as close colleagues of the "trained teachers". Most communities were hesitant to report absentee teachers for fear that the GES would not post additional teachers to their communities, forcing the schools to be closed.

According to Schaeffer (2000), the formalized school systems which work on fixed timetables and a loaded curriculum that depend mostly on trained teachers are often not performing in rural environments with respect to providing basic literacy, numeracy and other skills/competencies that are relevant to the local environment. Studies by Schaeffer (2000) suggested that despite the increasing numbers of children gaining access to the formal school system, the disparity between boys and girls in basic schools in Ghana cannot be overemphasized. However, the author should have made suggestions as to what

can be done to address the issue and how the school curriculum negatively affected attendance was not explained by Shaefer. The author further explained that “brick and mortar” system of education (mixed system) alone will not improve the achievement rates of both boys and girls in basic schools. The author failed in his study to explain other systems that may be effective in addressing the gender disparity in basic schools in Ghana.

Abdulai (2007) noted that the Catholic Relief Service (CRS) since 1958 has worked in Northern Ghana with the goal of improving quality of life among the poorest and the most vulnerable population. Its food programme has benefited pupils in the primary schools as well as those in the pre-school. The school enrolment for the beneficiary schools has increased as compared with the non-beneficiary schools in the region. The author noted that the provision of hot lunch to pupils daily as well as a monthly grain ration to girls had a tremendous impact on school enrolment and attendance. Enrolment particularly, for girls, increased considerably. In Bugya, for instance, a Primary school in the West Mamprusi District, enrolment of both girls and boys increased from 73 pupils in 2001 to 320 pupils in 2007 (Abdulai 2007). The author further noted that the Food Programme benefited the pupils, parents, the school and the community. It did however impact negatively on teaching and learning as the pupils spent hours taking their lunch and spent precious school time fetching water and firewood. The Food-For-Education programme by CRS, according to Abdulai (2007), was gender sensitive. Girls who were able to make 100 percent attendance at the end of the month were privileged to receive monthly take-home ration and this encouraged most of the girls to attend school every

day as well as encouraged the parents to enroll their girls in school. It can be argued that since the CRS Food Programme had a positive impact on school enrolment ipso facto, the government's School Feeding would definitely have positive impact on enrolment and attendance.

The achievement of the CRS Food Programme, especially in enrolment and attendance particularly the girl-child was one of the reasons why the government of Ghana instituted the School Feeding Programme as a strategy to address the problem of enrolment in basic schools. The difference is that no monthly take-home ration is given to the girl child in the case of the School Feeding Programme. The author further explained the interference by the Ghana Education Service officials and politicians in the CRS Programme and the anticipation of the full implementation of the government School Feeding Programme as two of the many reasons why the CRS Food Programme was truncated in the Northern Region.

Tembo (2000) again surveyed a number of primary and lower secondary school textbooks from Zambia as part of UNESCO's project on gender stereotypes in textbooks. According to him a number of occurrences of male and female characters were tallied and their activities and characteristics noted. The results were instructive, the books contained many more male than female characters and those female characters that appeared did so primarily in domestic roles and were presented as passive, stupid, and ignorant. No study has attempted to measure the impact of such stereotypes on girls in this region but one can conjuncture that the educational and occupational aspirations of

girls will be those of mother and wife when those roles are portrayed as the only appropriate ones for women.

Data on the educational achievement of girls usually come from comparing test results often on national examinations. Research on the relationship between gender and achievement yields mixed results. For example, Keyreman (1989) cited in Tembo (2000) found that gender was the single most important variable in explaining differences in achievement in Ugandan schools before 1975, with boys performing notably better than girls. Using a national sample of secondary school leavers in Tanzania, Tembo (2000) again found that boys out-performed girls in secondary schools in almost every subject. Yet an intensive study of performance in primary school in Mauritius indicated that girl's out- performed boys in both urban and rural areas.

The author also found that girl students in urban schools achieved more than those in rural schools but failed to discuss the mechanisms of this advantage. This explains the advantages girls are likely to achieve when enrolled in urban schools than in rural schools. In Ghana, it is only in few instances where girls in the rural schools do better in examinations. Going through the 2004 Senior Secondary School Examination results, one could see the poor performance of the rural schools as compared to the urban schools (Daily Graphic February 5, 2005).

Boit (2004) found that girls in government aided schools in Nairobi performed just as good as boys but also those pupils in single sex schools performed better than those in

mixed schools. A Ministry of Education Report (2010) revealed that, in Ghana and on average, single sex schools perform better than mixed schools. A recent testimony is the 100% performance of Wesley Girls' High School in Cape Coast and Saint Xavier Boys School in the Upper West Region in the 2010 Senior Secondary School Examination report. Unfortunately, none of the studies above on sub-Saharan African countries attempted to investigate directly the factors important for the achievement of girls in single sex schools. Several factors are probably relevant. These include family influences and school characteristics. Some of the findings related to family factors have already been discussed. Girls are more likely to be burdened with household tasks than boys and these are more likely to take precedence over school work for them than for their brothers.

Eshiwani (2000) reported that in Kenya girls primarily entered "Harambee" schools that had poor-equipment, less qualified teachers, and more limited curricular than did the government-aided schools that boys were likely to attend. This assertion was supported by Weis (2002). He explained that in Ghana 86 percent of secondary school girls were enrolled in low status schools compared with 43 percent of secondary school boys. Majority of teachers have negative perceptions on girl's education and this leads to differential treatment based on gender. A number of studies have showed that teachers have the belief that boys are more intelligent than girls and that girls are not interested in subjects such as engineering and medicine (Subrahmanian, 2002). This corresponds with Samuel (2000) who noted that schools propagate a "hidden curriculum" which is operational in the school environment and seen in the differential treatment given to boys

and girls and roles each is assigned. Girls are advised to take “soft” subjects such as history and languages and boys “hard” subjects like Mathematics and Physical Sciences. This is an example of reinforcement of gender roles by schools as argued by the Harvard framework of gender analysis where educational organizations reinforce gender discrimination and stereotyping.

In the Northern Region of Ghana, girls’ schools are few and learning materials inadequate (Action Aid, 2004). Teachers give priority to boys when allocating textbooks and when facilities such as desks are not enough, boys get the priority (ibid). There are also cases of maltreatment by teachers who also give girls little or no attention (FAWE 2001). This differential treatment is an indication that teachers are not adequately trained to provide gender-sensitive education. FAWE (2001) further identified poor training of teachers as a major contributing factor to low enrolment of girls.

It is argued that textbooks further portray sex roles by references to women and men in the roles they play in the society, the work they do and the traits that characterize them. According to Odaga and Heneveld (1995) and Nabisere (1999), textbooks and other learning materials have perpetuated a stereotyped view that woman have little contribution to the economy. It is interesting to note that teachers in Ghana are reported as saying that girls feel and act inferior to boys and that there is a common belief that boys do better in school work. These teachers also concede that they use gender insensitive language and examples when teaching and that some examples in the textbooks they use are not gender responsive (FAWE, 2001). Majority of teachers are of

the view that the curriculum is biased against girls and is based on experiences of the rural communities. The curriculum does not capture the interest of the children nor their parents who perceive it as irrelevant. Parents' fear that girls will be badly influenced which will make them disobey their parents. This is not always the case in the Northern Region of Ghana since disobedience may emanate from the home and not through the activities of the school the children attend.

UNICEF (2012) noted that distance to school is a hindrance to school enrolment to both children and parents. A study conducted by this organization in Ghana indicates a correlation between distance to school and girls school attendance. This is also corroborated by Subrahmanian (2002) who found distance as a formidable barrier to girls' education. Distance to school brings about some concerns; there is insecurity of girls' seen in the exposure to attacks and thus, parents have concerns about the sexual safety of their daughters and attacks by bandits in the remote areas of Ghana. The study by Subrahmanian is further supported by the World Bank report (2001) and UNICEF (2012). The situation explained by both UNICEF and the World Bank has never occurred in the Northern Region of Ghana since there is no evidence so far to support these assertions.

FAWE (2001) also noted that distance to school is a serious inhibiting factor and some pupils have to trek as long as 10-16 km. This situation is only related to schools in the rural areas in Ghana. According to Nabisere (1999) and Okawany (2004), school girls experience unwarranted sexual advances on their travel to and from school. School girls

are sexually harassed by male neighbors and relatives at home. Moreover, male teachers and school boys might present a similar threat in the Northern Region of Ghana.

The type of institutions girls have access to also has a relationship with their educational achievement. Girls in single sex schools sometimes perform better than boys even in Science and Mathematics (Heneveld 1995). The author failed to give concrete evidence to back his assertion. It can be explained that girls' primary schools in the Northern Region are few and far apart and those available lack facilities such as girls' toilets, desks and inadequate water supply.

In relation to the School Feeding Programme, the number of hungry school-age children is unknown, but it is likely to be a significant problem in various circumstances. Many factors contribute to hunger in school children; the long distances children have to travel to school in some cases, cultural meal practices that include no or small breakfasts or lack of family time or resources to provide adequate meals to children before and/ or during the school day. Simply alleviating this hunger in school children helps them to perform better in school. In Jamaica providing breakfast to primary school pupils significantly increased attendance and arithmetic scores (Glewwe and Hanan 1994).

Meyers and Sampson (1989) explained that the benefits of providing breakfast to disadvantaged primary school pupils, according to the authors, before the start of a school breakfast program in Tanzania, eligible low-income children scored significantly lower on achievement tests than those not eligible. Once in the program, the test scores of the children participating in the program improved more than the scores of non-participants.

Ja Pollitt and Cueto (1997) noted that in Peru, 23 malnourished and 29 well-nourished between 9 to 11 year old boys were studied to assess the effects of breakfast on cognitive performance. Each boy served as his own control in a manner comparable to the Tanzania study cited above. Breakfast was a nutritionally fortified beverage and a baked grain product fortified with iron, similar to the meal provided in the government-sponsored school breakfast program. A series of cognitive tests were administered in an experimental setting. Speed in performing a short-term memory test and discrimination of geometric patterns were improved under the breakfast condition in both groups. The effect was more pronounced in the nutritionally disadvantaged children. A study in Nepal found that the probability of attending school was 5% for stunted children versus 27 percent for children of normal nutritional status (Moock and Joanne 1986).

Glewwe and Jacoby (1994) again reported that in Ghana malnourished children entered school at a later age and completed fewer years of school than better nourished children. The number of days that a child attends school is related to cognition and performance. In relation to this Pollitt and Cueto (1997) noted that School Feeding Programmes have a positive effect on rates of enrolment and attendance in schools that the programme operates. The authors failed to explain enrolment and attendance with respect to gender which would have informed the reviewer about who benefit more than the other in terms of boys and girls.

A recent evaluation of an on-going School Feeding Program in Burkina Faso found that school canteens were associated with increased school enrolment, regular attendance,

consistently lower repeater rates, lower dropout rates in disadvantaged provinces and higher success rates on national exams, especially among girls (Moore, 1994). World Food Programme in 1996 carried out a pilot survey over three months on School Feeding Programme in Malawi and the results showed that it has positive effects on enrolment and attendance in basic schools. Over the three month period there was a 5 percent increase in enrolment and up to 36 percent improvement in attendance compared to schools that do not benefit from the Feeding Programme over the same period.

According to World Food Programme report 1995, Niger has one of the lowest school enrolment rates in the world. The School Feeding Program was introduced and intended to enhance enrolment and attendance, particularly girls' enrolment and attendance. Beneficiaries receive daily recommended food intake in three meals per day. In addition, and as an incentive for girls' participation in schools, some families receive an additional take-home ration and this encouraged many parents to enroll their children and allow them to attend school.

Ahmed and Billah (1994) noted that the School Feeding Program has been used successfully to improve enrolment and attendance among school-age children, particularly girls. In Bangladesh a program of school-based food distribution increased enrolment by 20 percent versus a 2 percent decline in non-participating schools. The authors added that in Pakistan, a program provides an income transfer in the form of one or two tins of oil to families whose girls attend school for 20 days per month. In its pilot phase the oil incentive program demonstrated that it could make a significant contribution

to full enrolment and attendance of girls. In participating schools, enrolment improved by 76 percent compared to 14 percent in the entire province. Attendance increased from 73 percent to 95 percent among participants. The program also claims to put additional food into the hands of mothers and to serve as a contact between mothers and teachers on distribution days (WFP report 1995). Fortification of school rations is the most efficient and effective route to alleviating micronutrient deficiencies in school children where SFPs are in operation. A relatively new breakfast program in Mali, which includes an iron-fortified ration, was evaluated for its short-term impact on diet, amongst other factors. The program significantly increased dietary intakes of energy by 25 percent, protein by 28 percent and iron by 46 percent (Pollitt, and Cueto 1997).

Pollitt and Cueto (1997) further explained that schools that depend on the community to organize and implement School Feeding Programme offer certain advantages. These advantages include: increasing the contact and communication between parents and teachers, officials and others; giving parents the opportunity to become more aware of what goes on at schools; and serving to raise the value of education for parents and the whole community. For example, school canteens are viewed as an important feature of education policy. In Morocco a WFP report (1995) explained that the government has supported School Feeding Programme since 1978. The programs have strong government and community support and are viewed as part of a necessary package of inputs for improving education. The feeding program is credited for helping to maintain high enrolment and attendance and encouraging community participation in education. School

cooperatives support the school canteens and parents associations assist with the transportation of food aid (WFP report 1995).

Concluding on the above review, it can be stated that all the variables discussed are relevant to the current study. In many instances the literature explained the effect of some socio cultural, economic and school based factors including the School Feeding Programme on enrolment and attendance. The literature is in line with the study on the factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance. A conceptual framework has been developed from the review indicating possible variables to guide the analyses. Many of these variables were tested outside Ghana. However they are still relevant to the current study because some of the variables are likely to be tested in the Northern Region of Ghana. Although, the literature discussed many factors that are likely to affect enrolment but how these factors create gender disparity in basic schools either in favour of the boys or the girls was not explained by the authors. It is also noted that the literature on the relevance of School Feeding Programme was not adequately explained as gender was virtually ignored. All the same the literature has given direction on which the current study will build upon.

CHAPTER THREE

PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA: NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the profile of the Northern Region of Ghana in thematic areas such as the geography and climatic conditions, religious activities, kinship, marriages, political administration/chieftaincy, economic activities of the people and the educational development from 1909 to 2010. The chapter further discusses the activities of the people in the region in relation to how the activities in one way or the other affect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the region. The purpose of this chapter is to further explain how the people of this region relate to one another and how they are able to cope with the environment within which they live. Though, the purpose of the study is to identify the socio economic, cultural and the school base factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance, this chapter is relevant to the study because children in the Northern Region attend school in the environment which affects their enrolment and attendance.

3.2 Geography and Climatic Conditions

The history of the Northern Region as part of the modern state of Ghana started with the push by the British soldiers, garrisoned in the coastal forts and castles, into the interior to conquer and colonize the people. The land was carved out by the European powers at the Berlin Conference in 1884/85 for the British and by 1900 that task had been accomplished. The eastern boundary of the British Colony, then called the Gold Coast was shared with the German Colony. Togoland was marked by the Volta River in the

South and extended to the North along the Daka River, part of the contemporary Northern Region. Yendi and the Volta Region were part of the German possessions until the Germans lost the World War I and all their African possession in 1919. From then and not until 1957 when the country gained independence from the British and changed its name from Gold Coast to Ghana. The whole of the upper half of the country was one big region called the Northern Territories and at independence, the name changed to Northern Region (Bening 1990).

In 1960, the Upper Region was carved out of the Northern Region but the Northern Region still remains the largest region covering one third of the land surface of Ghana. The Northern Region is the largest of the ten regions of Ghana covering about 70,384 Square Kilometres. of the country's 230,020 Square Kilometres (GSS 2012). It stretches across one third of Ghana from its western boundary with la Cote d' Ivoire and to its eastern frontier with Togo. The total population of the region, according to the Ghana Statistical Service (2012), is 2,479,461. This is made up of a good proportion of non indigenous people including the expatriates but more than 95% belong to the 50 indigenous ethnic groups. Prominent among them are the Dagomba, Gonja, Mampurusi, Bimobas, Konkombas, Basaris and Nawuris.

The climate of the region is relatively dry with a single rainy season that begins in May and ends in October. The amount of rainfall recorded annually varies between 750mm and 1050mm. During the rainy season pupils' school attendance, according to the Ghana Statistical Service (2012), is negatively affected as compare to the dry season, the boy

child in this regard is affected more than the girl child because parents use the boys on the farm often than the girls. The dry season starts in November and ends in March/April with maximum temperature occurring towards the end of the dry season (March-April) and minimum temperature in December and January. The harmattan winds which occurs during the months of December and early February have considerable effect on temperature in the region which may vary between 14 degree celcius at night and 38- 40 degree celcius during day. The main vegetation is classified as vast of grassland interspread with the guinea savanah woodland characterised by drought- resistant trees such as the acacia, boabob, sheanut, dawadawa, mongo and neem.

According to Ghana Statistical Service (2012), the predominant ethnic group is the Mole-Dagbon accounting for 52.2 percent of the population. They represent the largest ethnic group in 14 of the twenty districts of the region. The Gurmas are the next predominant ethnic group making up 21.8 percent of the population. They are largely concentrated in seven districts and constitute the majority in three districts namely Nanumba, Zabzugu-Tatale and Saboba-Chereponi. The bulk of the Guan ethnic group in the region is concentrated in four districts, Bole, West Gonja, East Gonja and Kpandai District.

3.3 The world View of the People of the Northern Region

Islam is the dominant religion in the region with 57.1 percent of the population professing the faith. Traditional religion is the next dominant faith with 22.3 percent while Christians represent 19.6 percent of the population. At the district level, Islam is the predominant religion and more than 64 percent of the population in ten out of the

twenty districts practicing the faith. Traditional religion and Christianity each constitutes about a third of the population in Bole, Saboba-Chereponi and West Mamprusi (GSS 2012).

The effects of religion on gender disparity in enrolment at the primary and Junior High levels in the Northern Region are measured by the percentage of Muslims in the population. According to FAWE (2001) the effects of Islam on enrolment is influential and impacting negatively on gender disparity in basic schools. Many Muslim households still prefer the Arabic education for their girls to formal education thus creating disparity in favour of the boys in Muslim dominated areas in the region. It is important to recognize that the FCUBE policy stand point on compulsory basic education holds firmly in the region but Muslim communities in the region may not respond appropriately to the demand of the policy, especially when it contradicts their world view of educating females in line with the provisions of Islam.

Christianity in the region has not impacted negatively on gender disparity in enrolment as compared to Islam and the traditional Religion. Ghana Statistical Service report (2012) indicates that about 89 percent of the Christian households have their children enrolled in school. In this case both boys and girls are affected. The report further indicates that the 11 percent of Christians whose children were not in school as at the time of the survey mentioned poverty as the reason for non enrolment of the girls and this creates disparity in enrolment in favour of the boys in those households. The Christian faith is intertwined

with formal education since the two (formal education and Christianity) were historically introduced in the region at the same time (Bening 1990).

The belief in the ancestors is an important element in the African Traditional Religion in the Northern Region. The belief occupies an important place in the understanding of the role of the traditional religion including the dead of harmonious living among the traditionalists of the Northern Region of Ghana. The traditional religion of the people holds the ancestors as the closest link between the physical living and the spirit world, rites, marking the transition of individuals and groups from one significant stage of life to another. Traditional belief still counts so much among the people. However, in some of the communities Islam has taken deep root among the people like the Dagomba, Mamprusis, Gonjas and the Nanumbas (GSS 2012).

Prior to the introduction of western or formal education, initiation rituals provided the most effective avenue for socialization and transmission of key beliefs, ideas and values of the community to succession generation, therefore the religion in the Northern Region has not seen what the formal education can offer the young ones, especially the females, hence the girl child is not enrolled in school thus creating disparity between the boys and the girls in enrolment in most typical traditional households in the region (GSS 2012). Against this background of the oral culture transmission of religion in the Northern Region, the believers rely on oral media as speech forms, dramatic performance and symbolic forms to communicate the important ideas, beliefs and values to the members of the community.

3.4 Kinship and Marriage and Political System

The Northern Region is divided into 20 political administrative Districts. These are Bole, Bunkpurugu-Yunyo, Central Gonja, East Gonja, East Mamprusi, Gushegu-Karaga, Nanumba North, Nanumba South, Saboba, Savelugu-Nanton, Sawla-Tuna-Kalba, Tolon-Kumbungu, West Gonja, West Mamprusi, Yendi, Zabzugu/ Tatale, Tamale, Chereponi and Kpandi. These districts and communities within it are traditionally administered by the traditional lineage chiefs. Communities in the region have known chieftaincy prior to the era of colonialism. For Dagomba, Mamprusi, and Gonjas the culture of chieftaincy goes back in time to the 15th century (Awedoba 2006).

The Northern Region has a localized corporate lineage system in which lineage groups are the basic units of settlement resource ownership and social control. In the Northern Region and among the people, towns and villages are grouped into districts in which patrilineal descendants of the same ancestors reside. Members of this group jointly own land in which they hold hereditary rights. Also, the royal lineage holds the title to chieftaincy position. Lineages in the region have internal authority structure under the lineage head. The lineage is also a ritual unit holding observations and sacrifices for the important ancestors. The people of the Northern Region attach economic, political and ritual importance to the lineage system.

Among the people of the region succession of property is passed from fathers to their children, thus succession is patrilineal in nature. Among the Dagomba people, for example, a person cannot succeed to a chieftaincy office that is higher than the one his

father once held in life (Awedoba 2006). Marriages in the region are mostly exogamous and are forbidden between relatives. As a condition for the formalization of marriage the bridegroom and his family has to make a transfer of prescribe items and services to the parents of the relatives of the bride. The quantum of these items and services and their type vary between the people of the Northern Region of Ghana.

The tradition dictates that family heads or elders arrange marriages of their sons and daughters, but the spread of western education and cash economy have modified customary marriages in the region. The incidence of polygyny is higher as compared to monogamous marriages. There is therefore more preference for marriages within ethnic groups, especially between people from the same town. Ghana Statistical Service (2012) reported that the proportion of households headed by females in the region (7.2 percent) is much lower than the national average of 11.0 percent. Savelugu- Nanton has the lowest proportion of female-headed households (0.7 percent). East Gonja has 1.2 percent, Bole 1.4 percent and Tamale Metropolis 2.1 percent. These figures were all below the national average.

The complexity and size of the households in the districts of the Northern Region depend largely on the headship of the household in terms of both gender and the socio-economic status. The more affluent the head of the household the more complex the household is likely to be. According to Ghana Statistical Service (2012), the households in the region have an average of 7 members. Of this number, 44.6 percent are children of the household head and 21.4 percent are children of other relatives. The average household

size varies from 6 in Savelugu-Nanton District to 10 in Gushegu-Karaga District. Tamale Metropolis, the most urbanized district has an average household size of 7. The nature of the Kinship system and marriage endorse the division of labour between girls and boys within the household and in the community, therefore when girls are enrolled in school the tradition and customary practices prevent the girls from participating effectively in basic education which create gender disparity in favour of the boys (GSS 2012).

3.5 Economic Characteristics

The productive capacity of a country is directly linked with the size of its workforce. The bulk of the economically active population in the region is employed in agriculture. Only about 5.7 percent according to the Ghana Statistical Service (2012) of the workforce is made up of professionals or clerical staff. Agriculture which is the main work of the people of the Northern Region and comprises largely of farming, animal husbandry hunting and forestry, a variety of other enterprises in the industry section in the region such as fishing, hotels and restaurants, communication and education together comprise 10 percent of the total industrial activity of the region (GSS 2012). The proportion of the population in Agriculture in the Tamale metropolis- the capital of the Northern Region is the smallest. In the other districts the figure ranges between 62.2 percent in Savelugu-Nanton to 87.2 percent in Zabzugu-Tatale District. The highest proportion of mining and quarrying activities is recorded in Gushegu-Karaga (1.0 percent), Bole (1.1 percent), East Mamprusi (1.0 percent) and Tamale (1.0 percent) (GSS 2012).

Poverty is high and widespread and many cannot afford the cost of educating their children (GSS 2012). Agriculture remains the predominant sector with over 90 percent of the

productive age group being peasant farmers. Mechanized agriculture is possible on this terrain although limited in practice because of the high cost of inputs. However, the peasant farmers produce the bulk of the cereals, tubers and groundnuts in the region. Sheanut is the most important cash crop in the region. Cotton Ginnery is perhaps the only industry with a high out-put level. Notwithstanding the low activity in this sector, the establishment of the Intermediate Technology Transfer Unit has been a booster to entrepreneurs who depend on it for the manufacture of spares, tools etc. for their light industries.

The bulk of the people in the region are employed in the private informal sector and this justifies the policy to encourage and reinforce the private sector to lead and speed up the growth of the economy in the region. Incomes according to Ghana Statistical Service (2012), are very low and household resources are limited, therefore many households are unable to enrol their children in school and this affect gender disparity in enrolment either in favour of the males or females. In many instances female school attendance does not match with the male attendance due to the fact that females in the region are overburdened with household chores and some economic activities of their parents like buying and selling as well as farming (GSS 2012).

3.6 Educational Profile of the Northern Region

According to Bening (1990), formal education began in the Southern part of Ghana over hundred years (100) before the Northern part of the country. The Chief Commissioner of the Northern Territories Lt. Col. A. E. G. Waterston in 1907 lamented that the variety of tribes, languages and dialects even within a small area necessitated the employment of

numerous interpreters at political meetings. Government employees from the coast could not speak any of the local languages, though a corrupted form of Hausa was a lingua franca, especially in the large commercial centers. The commissioner felt the pressing need to establish schools at the various administrative centers to produce clerks and translators to serve the colonial establishment. The first school was formally opened in Tamale, the capital of the Northern Territories in March, 1909 with 14 pupils. By April 1909 the enrolment rose to 44 and by the end of 1909, there were 48 pupils in the school. Unfortunately, all were boys. The following year the enrolment reached sixty-two and most of the pupils were drawn from the families of chiefs and other prominent families of the protectorate (Bening 1990).

As a result of increasing enrolment of the pupils in Tamale, a boy's brigade was opened at Gambaga known as Gambaga Boys Brigade and by the end of 1909 there were thirteen boys in the brigade. In 1910, because the brigade had not been developed into a school, the Provincial Commissioner recommended that the brigade should be disbanded because it was unpopular with the chiefs and people since the pupils learn nothing but roamed about in the cantonment (Bening 1990). A school was then started at Gambaga in 1912 by Mr. J. K. Hinney, a fourth grade teacher. Of the initial fourteen pupils who were enrolled, three were of Southern parentage and it was generally acknowledged that many people could not be expected to attend the school for the first few years until the institution was firmly established. By September 1915, there were only eleven pupils at the school and the Director of Education Mr. D.J. Oman entertained doubts as to whether to continue the primary school at Gambaga.

The initial success of the Tamale school encouraged the Chief Commissioner to demand the establishment of another school at Wa, as it was difficult to persuade the boys from the North Western Province to attend the premier school in Tamale. In 1914, Captain C.K. Amitiga, the Chief Commissioner of the Northern Territories informed the governor that the chiefs and headmen of the North Western Province fully realized the benefit of education but did not want to send their sons to Tamale as they stayed with strangers who did not look after them properly. He admitted that the arrangements whereby the boys stay with native clerks who gave them food in return for small domestic services were unsatisfactory. In 1917, a school was opened at Wa by Mr. Pajiah on the 16th January with forty two pupils including three sons of Muslims.

The school rapidly achieved success as anticipated and the progress made in some of the initial schools led to the opening of other schools in Lawra and Tumu districts both in the current Upper West Region. In 1919 the chief of Bole requested for a school in his town and upon consultations with the commissioner, the school was rather opened at Salaga in 1923 with forty two pupils (Attitiwu 1986, Cited in Benning 1990). Benning further noted that Christian Missionary activities started in the Northern Territories in 1905 and by 1911, twenty-three boys were enrolled into the first mission school in Navrongo. From 1908 to 1925 a lot of schools were put up by the government and the various missionary bodies in the North (Benning 1990).

Most of the early schools opened between 1909 and 1925 were somewhat reserved for the sons of the kings and the chiefs as a way of consolidating the indirect rule of the

British administration. According to Kuyini (2009) missionary activity was restricted by colonial policy and for that matter no schools were to be opened by missionaries in the Northern Territories, until the late 1940s. Despite this, the Ahmadiyya Muslim Mission set up in 1928 successfully established the Ahmadiyya Primary School at Zogbeli, a suburb of Tamale in 1940. The colonial government's education policy also limited educational provision to basic education whereby school graduates from the Northern Territories could only attain a maximum of what was called Standard 7 education. There was also the concentration on trade, so that graduates could learn skills for working in the mines and plantation in the South (Kuyini 2009).

A slight shift in policy occurred from the late 1930s when the reality of expanding the school system meant that schools in the territory needed trained teachers who could speak the local languages. Some exceptional school leavers, mainly the sons of the chiefs were chosen to train as teachers and some subsequently furthered their study at Achimota School in Accra. Two of such scholars were the late Alhaji Yakub Tali (Tolon Naa) and the late Alhassan Gbanzaba who became the first university graduate from northern Ghana in 1957. The relaxation of the restriction on missionary activity in the late 1946 saw the establishment of schools in the Northern Territories. The change of the policy coincided with the establishment of the first Secondary School in Tamale so that pupils from the first established primary schools could now travel to Tamale to further their education. This premier secondary school evolved into the first government secondary school (known today as TAMASCO) in 1952.

The introduction of the Universal Compulsory Education Policy by Kwame Nkrumah in 1952 was a great milestone in educational expansion in the Northern Territories. Schools were established in other towns such as Walewale, Gushegu, Sandema and Bimbila. The expansion of secondary education coincided with independence in 1957 and the newly independent nation tried to conceptualize education as a tool for development therefore, the national vision witnessed the establishment of the Ghana Education Trust Fund (GET Fund) as part of Nkrumah's educational agenda. Several schools were built under the GET Fund Programme, beginning in 1959. In Northern Ghana, these included Navrongo Secondary, Ghana Secondary in Tamale, Bawku Secondary and Lawra Secondary (Roger 1975 p. 427).

In line with Nkrumah's Seven Years Development Plan (1963-1970), Technical Colleges were opened to meet the manpower requirement of over 600 factories and industries being set up in the newly independent Ghana. Through this policy vision, new technical colleges and secondary schools were established in northern Ghana and others projected to open in the 1970s. The climax of this educational development in the Northern Regions was the establishment of polytechnics in Tamale, Bolgatanga and Wa and the opening of the University for Development Studies in 1992.

Roger (1975) explained that there was no single girl in any of the schools opened in the region between the 1910 and 1925. Women were relegated to the background in education in the Northern part of the country and this probably accounted for the low participation of females in education in the Northern Region for decades. Due to the late

start of education in the region, enrolment figures for both males and females are extremely low as compared to the other regions. There is a wide gap in educational attainment between the country and the region as a whole. At the national level 33.1 percent of males and 44.5 percent of females of the population 6 years and older have never been to school as compared to 59 percent males and 89 percent females in the Northern Region as at 2010 (GSS 2012).

According to the Ghana Statistical Service (2012), Tamale alone has 50.8 percent (42.5 percent males and 59.0 percent females) who have never been to school. Gushegu/Karaga has the highest proportion (84.3 percent) of the population that has never been to school (79.3 percent males and 89.0 percent females). The population of the region who have ever been to school stands at 47.5 percent, this is made up of 43.6 percent males and 53.5 percent of females. Twenty two (22) percent of the population which is made up of 22.2 percent males and 21.1 percent females have attained Junior High School level. Those who attained secondary school level accounted for 13.1 percent (15.7 percent of males and 10.4 percent females). At the tertiary level the figures stand at 3.9 percent for female and 4.6 percent for males (GSS 2012).

The primary school remains the highest level of education attained by a significant proportion of the population ranging from 33.8 percent in Tamale to 52.4 percent in West Mamprusi for the males and that of the females vary from 43.6 percent in Tamale to 64.8 percent in Savelugu. The proportion of females enrolled at the primary school is higher than that of the males (53.5 percent and 43.6 percent respectively). This is the case in

almost all the districts except Gushegu, Karaga, Saboba and Chereponi. The report by the Ghana Statistical Service (2012) further indicates that the dropout rates in the Northern Regions stand at 78.3 percent for females and 33.4 percent for males. Tamale alone which is the capital, has 245 public primary schools, 89 public Junior High Schools and 62 private basic schools as at 2010 (MOE 2010).

Existing government policy recommends the citing of primary schools within 5 kilometres of the localities taking into consideration the population density. Although the policy of the Ministry of Education on the distance to basic education facility is far from satisfied. The distribution of the primary school facilities in the Tamale Metropolitan area is far ahead of the other districts, with a local primary school facility (over 60 percent) siting in the localities. All the other districts have less than 50 percent of communities with primary schools. There is a considerable drop in the accessibility and availability of Junior High Schools (JHS) in the region compared to primary schools. The disparity between the availability of JHS and the primary school facilities implies that many localities in the region do not have a JHS complement. Unlike the primary and the JHS only 1.0 percent of the localities have SHS facility and 11 out of the 20 districts are 10 kilometres away from the SHS facility (GSS 2012).

It can be concluded that the people of the Northern Region of Ghana attach so much importance to religion and the economic activities that they engage themselves in. Apart from farming which majority of the people do, there are other economic activities like fishing, mining and quarrying which are done on a small scale. The environment within

which the people of the Northern Region live affect their livelihood as well as their children education and in most cases female children are affected more than the male children, especially in enrolment and school attendance. The next chapter discusses the process and procedures used in sampling, data collection and data analyses as well as the theoretical framework and how the methods are linked to the theory.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research design and methods, processes and procedures involved in sampling, data collection, data analysis, theoretical framework and the relationship between the theory and the research methods. It further presents the assessment of the data on demographic characteristics of the household respondents, the assessment of the primary data from households and the secondary data from the Non-Governmental Organization, the Ghana Education Service and the data from the school registers of the selected schools of the study communities.

4.2 Research Design and Methods

A cross-sectional design and exploratory procedure were used in order to gain an insight into not only gender disparity in attendance and enrolment but also how the socio-cultural, economic, school-based factors as well as the Capitation Grant and the School Feeding Programme affect gender disparity in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

Data were collected within a time frame of twelve months at different levels with different research instruments (questionnaires and interview guides). According to Fayorsey (2010), cross-sectional design entails the collection of data on more than one case at a particular time without intervals. It also entails the collection of a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with more variables which are then

examined to detect patterns of associations. Although this design is more often associated with quantitative research it does allow triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative methods at a point in time. The author further noted that exploratory procedure is often possible to use when the real purpose of an issue is unclear. Babbie (2006) noted that a cross sectional design is a preferred strategy especially, when “how” and “why” questions are being posed, when the researcher has little control over the events and when the focus of the study is on the contemporary issues within an institution or an organization.

4.3 Sampling Strategy

The most appropriate sampling technique employed was the multi-stage cluster sampling technique. It is the selection of respondents from clusters at different levels within the target population and with the combination of different sampling techniques (probability and non-probability techniques). Kish (1967) cited in Babbie (2006) pointed out that when individual selection of elements in a study seems too expensive, it can only be facilitated by using the multi- stage cluster sampling technique. The author noted that this sampling technique is inexpensive. It may be associated with some errors but as compared to the usage of only sampling techniques like systematic sampling, quota sampling and simple random sampling it is the best technique for the study. It is also the technique that allows the researcher to use other sampling techniques especially, the non-probability sampling like accidental, purposive and stratified sampling one after the other. The study therefore used simple random sampling, purposive sampling, and convenient sampling as part of the multi-stage sampling technique.

4.4 Sample Size Determination

Where time and resources are available, a big sample size would have been appropriate; the danger with small sample size is that, it does not reproduce the salient characteristics of the accessible population. The population of the Northern Region is 2,479,461, according to the Ghana Statistical Service (2012). Five cases from the major ethnic groups in the region (Dagombas, Gonjas, Mamprusi, Nanumbas and Konkombas) would have been enough but the law of representation says that the larger the samples size the more representative it is in the population. Reasons why the various samples were selected are explained in the course of the research processes and procedures. This included 10 District Directors of Education, 3 NGOs, 30 headteachers, 96 pupils and 152 household heads. The table below presents the sample sizes of the various study population in clusters.

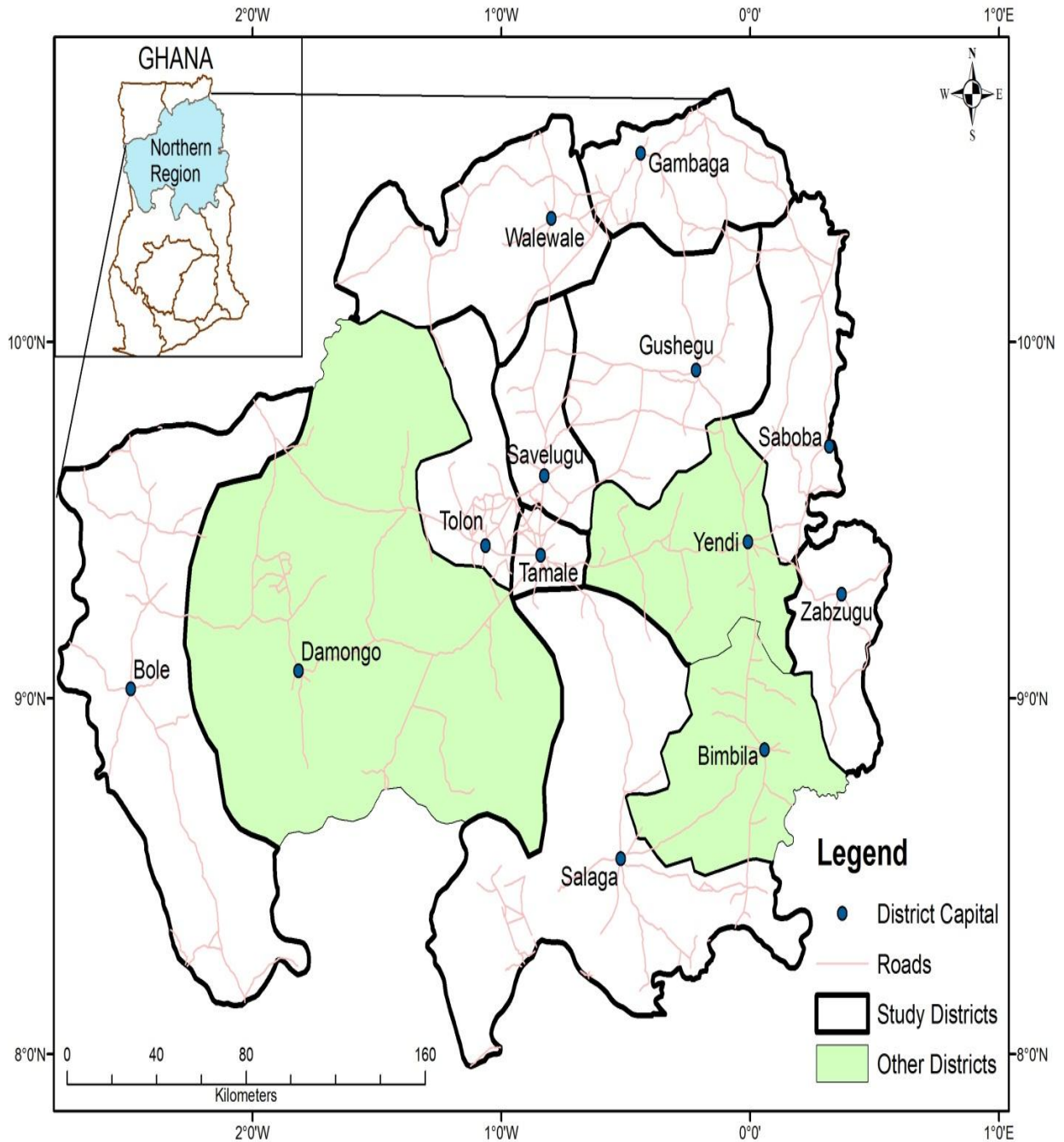
Table 4.1: Distribution of Sample Size

CATEGORY OF RESPONDENTS	SAMPLE SIZE
District Directors	10
NGOs	03
Head teachers	30
Pupils	96
Household heads	152
Total	291

Target Population: These included household heads, headteachers, school pupils, District Directors and the NGOs assisting in gender and basic education in the selected ten districts. The schools and the NGOS selected are listed in due course. At the district level, and based on the 2000 population census, the region had 13 districts, the 2010 population

and housing census recorded 20 districts for the Northern Region of Ghana. The map below is the map of the Northern Region indicating the various districts.

Figure 4.1: Map of the Northern Region



Source: Author's own construct with the help of Mr. Gerald Yiran of the Department of Geography, University of Ghana Legon.

Figure 4.1 is the map of the Northern Region of Ghana indicating the various districts, roads, district capitals and the study districts. The populations of these districts were officially published in 2012. Ten (10) districts were randomly selected out of 20 districts to represent the region through simple random sampling. Babbie (2006) noted that when simple random sampling is used it makes the researcher far from being bias. It also allows all respondents to have the equal chance of being selected. In each district ten (10) Districts were purposively selected through purposive sampling, contacted and interviewed, because, they had relevant information regarding gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in their various districts. Babbie (2006) again noted that purposive sampling allows the researcher to save time and deals with respondents who have requisite knowledge about his objectives he wants to achieve. According to the author, the process involves selecting respondents with specific characteristics. The selected districts through simple random sampling are indicated in table 4.2

Table 4.2: Selected Districts and Metropolitan Areas and their Populations

DISTRICTS	MALE POPULATION	FEMALE POPULATION	TOTAL
1.East .Mamprusi	59,453	61,556	121,009
2.Tolon Kumbungu	56,046	56,285	112,331
3.West Mamprusi	83,005	83,006	168,011
4.Savelugu Nanton	67,531	71,752	139,283
5.Tamale	185,995	185,356	371,351
6.Gushegu /.Karaga	91,522	97,443	188,965
7.Zabzugu Tatale	61,085	62,769	123,854
8.Saboba/.Chereponi	58,526	60,574	119,100
9. East Gonja	69,721	65,729	135,450
10.Bole	31,022	30,571	61,593

Source: Ghana Statistical Service (2012)

Table 4.2 indicates the selected study districts and their populations published by the Ghana Statistical Service in (2012). The maps of the selected Districts including the selected communities are illustrated (See Appendix C).

At the community level, three (3) communities were again purposively selected from each district, especially communities where there were cluster of schools and the presence of NGOs in the 10 districts. These communities had met the criteria for purposive sampling that is cluster of schools and the presence of the NGOs. Sixteen (16) NGOs were listed and only 3 NGOs were identified to have been operating in all the ten districts selected. The rest were either operating in one district, two or three districts. The three NGOs were also purposively selected for interview, because, they had also met the criteria for selection via purposive sampling. The selected NGOs were the Campaign for Female Education, Send Foundation-Ghana and Action Aid Ghana.

4.5 Profile of the NGOs Selected

4.5.1 The Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED)

The Campaign for Female Education is an international non-governmental and non-profit organisation dedicated to eradicating poverty in Africa through the education of girls and empowerment of young women. The NGO operates in Zimbabwe, Zambia, Ghana, Tanzania and Malawi. It was founded by Ann Cotton after being inspired by her travel to Zimbabwe in 1992. In 1993, Ann started CAMFED by fund raising and the first 32 girls were supported into school in two of the most impoverished districts of Zimbabwe.

Camfed Association, popularly known as “Cama,” was established in 1998 to connect young female school leavers and offer them post-secondary school training opportunities in managing money. Cama provides a structure through which its members can develop their activism and leadership. The NGO has its headquarters and a registered charity in the UK which was established in 1993. In Ghana the NGO was established in 2002 and the focus is on rural areas where poverty is widespread and girls and young women face exclusion from education and opportunities that are offered by education.

Camfed works to build around girls a supportive environment in which they can attend and succeed at primary and secondary school levels and progress into young adulthood with opportunities that include professional training, higher education and job creation. By the end of 2010, Camfed had provided: 1,451,600 children in some of the poorest communities in rural Northern Ghana with access to a safer, improved school environment (www.camfedghana.com).

4.5.2 Send Foundation (SEND)

Send Foundation is a Non Governmental Organisation (NGO) established in August 1998 with the maiden name of Social Enterprise Development Foundation. The NGO started the implementation of its first programme of the Eastern Corridor Livelihood Security Promotion Program (ECLSPP), aimed at addressing the practical needs of communities through an intergrated approach to service delivery. The Social Enterprise Development Foundation Ghana has marked fourteen years of empowering individuals with skills to hold public office holders accountable as well as projecting the rights of the disabled, women and ordinary citizens.

Established on the 8th of August 1998, SEND Ghana revolutionised pro-poor policy advocacy thereby contributing to creating the enabling environment for citizens-government engagement and building capacity of different categories of poor people to claim their development rights. The Social Enterprise Development Foundation has three branches across West Africa; SEND Ghana, SEND Liberia and SEND Sierra Leone. Some of the overriding successes of SEND Ghana are the projection and recognition of Persons with Disability (PWD's) in policy document and programme implementation. The increased participation of small scale food crop farmers in policy making and the identification and recognition of gender equity in basic education as a development challenge in Ghana especially in the Northern Region and the confidence of rural girls and young women and other marginalized groups to participate in policy discussion and demand transparency, equity and accountability in the use of public financial resources. Being the oldest of such organizations in the sub-region SEND is credited with the introduction of innovative Participatory Monitoring and Evaluation (PM&E) framework which has been successful in promoting girls participation in basic education in the Northern Region.

The NGO's Livelihood promotion programme empowers the poor to attain sustainable livelihood security through farmer co-operatives, credit unions and market access, while Financial NGO delivers micro-finance schemes in the Northern Region. The Eastern Corridor programme promotes livelihood security for the poor and marginalized in conflict-ridden districts in the Northern Region. The programme creates independent community-based farmer co-operatives capable of advocating and addressing the

livelihood needs of their families. SEND Ghana mainstreams gender in education and is currently the only NGO in Ghana with gender policy not just for beneficiaries, but for management practices of the organization since 2006 (www.sendghana.com).

4.5.3 Action Aid Ghana

Action Aid was founded in 1972 in the UK by a businessman called Cecil Jackson-Cole as a child sponsorship charity that helped communities. It was originally called Action in Distress. During the first decade, the NGO established long-term programmes in India, Rwanda, Kenya, Burundi and the Gambia and responded to emergencies in Honduras and Bangladesh. The focus of the organization is on education, health, sanitation and agricultural projects to improve living conditions for children and their families. The NGO started in Ghana in 1990 with one million people living in 279 communities in Upper East, Upper West, Northern Region, Brong Ahafo, Volta Region and Greater Accra Region. The NGO's vision for education extends to working with the government to form partnerships across society to ensure quality early childhood education and adult learning that is linked to social change (www.actionaidghana.com).

The organization aims at increasing citizens' participation in farming and managing education policy, promote access to basic education as a right, support efforts for sufficient resources to the education sector and support efforts to increase access to basic education and retention of girls in school and secure their rights. By the mid-eighties Action Aid was reaching over 40,000 children in Asia and Africa, and expanded further by setting up affiliates in Ireland, Italy, France and Spain. The NGO began to shift its

focus towards tackling the root causes of poverty and gender disparity in education. The organization began to work with communities to boost agricultural production, improve water supplies, gain access to basic education, healthcare and find new ways of making a better living. The NGO helped poor people organise themselves to challenge injustice and demand their rights from their own governments. By 1990 ActionAid was working in over 30 countries, helping people get good healthcare and basic education (Action Aid Ghana 2012). In the mid 1990s, after pilot projects in Bangladesh, El Salvador and Uganda, ActionAid launched Reflect, a pioneering adult literacy tool. Its success rate means it is now used by over 500 organisations in over 70 countries. In 1998 the organisation expanded its work to include peace building and conflict resolution in Africa and lobbying financial institution such as the World Trade Organisation in 1990 (*actionaidghana.com*).

In 2003 ActionAid International headquarters was launched in South Africa and working towards giving all our country programmes an equal say in how the organisation works, the new structure makes real the organisation's commitment to accountability to the people, communities and countries. The organisation work just to make it more effective in fighting and eradicating poverty and by the end of the decade, the NGO has helped over 25 million people in over 40 countries in the world with their own fight against poverty and increasing access to basic education (*actionaidghana.com accessed*).

Thirty (30) communities were selected through purposive sampling. This included urban and rural communities. Simple random sampling procedure was not used because it was

possible that the researcher could select communities with only urban or rural characteristics. These study communities are illustrated in table 4.3 below.

Table 4.3: Study Communities in the Various Districts

DISTRICTS	COMMUNITY (1)	COMMUNITY (2)	COMMUNITY (3)
West Mamprusi	Walewale	Gimsi	Duu
Savelugu Nanton	Savelugu	Tampion	Nyolgu
Tamale Metro	Tamale	Kanvilli	Jisonaayili
Saboba Cheriponi	Saboba	Cheriponi	Wunjuga
Gushegu /Kariga	Gushegu	Kpatinga	Tamalugu
East Gonja	Salga	Buya	Kpalibe
Bole	Sawla	Tuna	Tinga
Zabzugu/Tatale	Zabzugu	Kuyulli	Waribogu
Tolon/Kumbungu	Nyankapala	Dalun	Kasulyili
East Mampurisi	Gambaga	Nakpanduri	Wundua

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

Twenty two (22) schools were also purposively selected through purposive sampling procedure and these schools were non beneficiary of the School Feeding Programme schools. This was to make sure that the beneficiary schools were not included in the twenty two schools since the researcher wanted to deal with beneficiary and non-beneficiary school feeding school separately. The schools included primary schools and Junior High Schools in the districts. Table 4.4 shows the selected schools and the districts in which they are located.

Table 4.4: Selected Schools and their Districts

Name of School	District	Name of School	District
Duu Primary & JHS	West Mamprusi	Gbemja Primary	Saboba/Chereponi
Catholic JHS	West Mamprusi	Kpalba Primary	Saboba/Chereponi
Kanville Primary school	Tamale	Gambaga JHS	Gambaga
Kpalibe Primary School	East Gonja	Sawla JHS	Bole
Waribogu Primary School	Zabzugu/ Tatale	Wunduwa Primary	East Mamprusi
Kasulyili Primary & JHS	Tolon/Kumbungu	Zabzugu primary & JHS	Zabzugu/Tatale
Dalun Primary & JHS	Tolon/Kumbungu	Tinga Primary	Bole
Nakpanduri Primary	East Mamprusi	Tuna primary & JHS	Bole
Nyankpala primary & JHS	Tolon/Kumbungu	Salga Primary & JHS	East Gonja
Tamalgu Primary	Gushegu/Karaga	Tampion Primary & JHS	Savelugu/Nanton
Kpatiga JHS	Gushegu/Karaga	Savelugu Primary & JHS	Savelugu/Nanton

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

In each school, the pupils, both the primary and the JHS, were interviewed. The classes were divided into clusters, lower clusters and upper clusters. Three (3) pupils from the primary clusters in each school were selected through non-probability method precisely accidental with the assistance of the headteachers and interviewed. These pupils represented the lower cluster, therefore, a total of 54 pupils from the non-beneficiary primary schools were interviewed. This comprises (2) girls and (1) boy in each school.

In the Junior High Schools, (2) pupils from the (13) JHS non-beneficiary schools in the districts were also selected with the assistance of the headmasters and interviewed making a total of (26) pupils (13 boys and 13 girls).

In the School Feeding Programme Schools two (2) children from the eight schools were also accidentally selected with the assistance of the headteachers to represent the school for the interview, making a total of 16 children (8 boys and 8 girls). The researcher wanted to make sure that no school pupil was ‘coache’ as to want to say during the interview and this was one of the reasons why accidental sampling technique was used.

In all 384 pupils were found in the selected schools and the author interviewed 25 percent of the total number which is 96 pupils. This sample cuts across all the clusters as indicated above. The selected beneficiary schools of the School Feeding Programme are listed or shown in the table 4.5 with the number of pupils interviewed in each school.

Table 4.5: Selected Schools for the School Feeding Programme

Districts	Selected Schools	Number Interviewed
Tamale Metropolitan	Koblismaahu Subria Islamic school	2
Gushegu/Karaga	Zori Yapala Primary School	2
Savelugu/Nanton	Nyolgu Primary School	2
Saboba /Chareponi	Wunjuga L/A Primary school	2
West Mamprusi	Gimsi Power of God Primary School	2
East Gonja	Saint Anthony Primary School	2
Zabzugu/Tatale	D/A Primary School	2
Bole	Sanyo Primary School	2
Total		16

Source: Author’s field Survey (2012)

The District Directors as well as the members of NGOs who were treated as key informants were purposively selected and interviewed. In each of the community, one (1) headteacher was purposively selected and interviewed and since 30 communities were selected 30 headteachers were interviewed from the selected 30 schools both the non beneficiary and beneficiary schools. Ten (10) headteachers were headteachers for primary and JHS schools, 17 headteachers were for only primary schools and 3 headteachers were for only JHS schools in the region.

At the household level, houses were put into clusters and selected through simple random sampling. This was applied to all the urban towns like Tamale, Gushegu, Bole and Karaga. In all the households visited, lists of households were made before a household was purposely selected and interviewed because the researcher was interested in households with both male and female children. A total of 304 households were listed from all the cluster of houses and 50 percent of them representing 152 households were used to give a fair representation. In each community five households were selected and household heads were interviewed. There were many instances where houses were selected and the households within those houses did not meet the criteria explained above for selection and this compelled the author to include houses which were not initially sampled. It was observed during the interview that the entire households visited seemed to be experiencing similar problems regarding childrens' education in the region. It was further observed in the houses that there were some multiple households within a single house but only households with male and female children were selected and the household heads were interviewed.

4.6 Data Collection Methods

The study used both primary and secondary data. The primary data were gathered through observations, key informant interview guides and through questionnaires. Interview guide was used for the key informants like the staff of NGOs and the District Directors of Education and the semi structured interview schedule for the pupils, headteachers and the parents. Observation as a tool for data collection was used throughout the study. It was used on studying the behavior of the respondents during the interviews, especially what happened within the households, the accuracy of the information given and what happens within the school environment. The behavior of children before and after the preparation of food was also observed. Observation was also made on the relationship between the teachers and the pupils. The author also participated thrice in PTA meetings and observed how the discussions went on. The author also made an observation on the relationship between the NGOs and the GES as well as the relationship between the NGOs and the headteachers in the various schools.

The secondary data were gathered through the Internet, journals, published theses, dissertations and relevant textbooks. Two research assistants were employed during the data collection and this made the data collection faster. The study also employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods which were in line with the theory used (Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education by Sen 2007).

According to Mugender and Mugender (1999), the qualitative research is advantageous in that it permits the researcher to go beyond the statistical results usually reported in the quantitative research. The author noted that human behavior is best explained by using

qualitative research and behavior that cannot be investigated by direct observation such as attitude and feeling are best studied using quantitative methods. The quantitative methods like cross tabulation charts, percentages and regression which the author used in analyzing part of the data only showed descriptions, relationships between variables and the significance of some variables when the other variables are held constant. Behavior and attitude could not be explained using these methods. Additionally, a questionnaire alone which is an instrument for collecting quantitative data is inadequate in explaining human behavior.

Babbie (2006) argued that it is advantageous to combine both qualitative and quantitative methods especially when some of the objectives are better assessed using qualitative while others are assessed using quantitative methods. When both are used, they complement each other in the analysis. Olive (1999) cited in Mugenda and Mugenda (1999) also explained that both qualitative and quantitative methods have some bias so, using both will help to avoid such bias. Each method is used to check the other.

4.7 Data Handling

The qualitative data which included data from the interviews and observed data were used to support the quantitative data except in instances where some independent variables emerged in the key information interviews; in that case, it was analyzed separately. Also, case study analysis was done in the case of the School Feeding Programme and the Capitation Grant. The quantitative data were coded, edited and entered into the computer and Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) was used for the data processing after which the author did the analyses. Frequency tables,

percentages, bar, pie and column charts were used for the description of the data at the uni-variate level. At the bi-variate level of analyses, cross tabulation in some cases was used to show the relationships between variables. At the multi-variate level, Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression was used to explain the statistical significance and contribution of variables like income, religion and marital status of household heads to gender disparity in enrollment in basic schools in the Northern Region.

4.8 Theoretical Framework

The study employed the capability and social justice in education theory as a guide to investigate access and disparity in basic education in the Northern Region of Ghana. The theory envisages that when both girls and boys are treated equally at home and at school and given equal opportunities in policy implementation in basic education, girls are capable of closing the disparity gap which has existed in Africa for decades.

Sen (2007, p.2) defines capability as a person's ability to do valuable acts or reach valuable states of being; it represents the alternative combinations of things a person is able to do or be. Thus, capabilities are opportunities or freedoms to achieve what an individual reflectively considers valuable. The significance of this idea rests on its contrast with other ideas concerning how we decide what is just or fair in the distribution of resources. For example, some ideas about distribution rest on what an outsider determines is the best to create maximum opportunities or achieve appropriate outcomes for say, different kinds of schools or pupils.

The problem is often phrased in terms of what forms of curriculum, teaching, school management, household behavior and learning resources will yield the educational achievements of both girls and boys such as examination results, enrolment and attendance or skill sets that an economy needs. Sometimes the question is posed in terms of how learners can acquire appropriate knowledge to act as full members of a particular group to which they are deemed to belong. In both instances, the emphasis is on what kinds of inputs (ideas, teachers, learning materials) will shape particular opportunities to achieve desired outcome (economic growth or social solidarity and equity). Ideas influenced by utilitarianism pose this in terms of outcomes deemed the best result for the largest number, for example, the number of people who will benefit nationally and internationally from growth in an economy or the number of people who will draw together through practices of religious or cultural belonging.

The capability approach critiques this way of posing and solving questions of evaluation. Its central tenet is that in evaluation, one must look at each person not as a means to economic growth or social stability but as an end. We must evaluate freedoms for people to be able to make decisions they value and work to remove obstacles to those freedoms, that is, expand people's capabilities. While the capability approach regards each human being as an end, it is not an individualistic theory concerned with libertarian notions of self-actualization above all other goals; rather, it embraces ethical individualism, a normative approach that stresses that action should be judged by their effects on individual human beings and that individuals are the primary objects of moral concern (Sen 2007, P.108).

An evaluation is thus not simply a response to what particular individuals want or say they want; designing policy only to respond to what people want could mean that a government might use up nearly all the education budget for a country to provide resources for the small number of children of vocal parents who want schooling only in lavish buildings with one-to-one tuition leaving very meager resources for the majority of children whose parents want the best education that they can not afford. Evaluating capabilities rather than resources or outcomes shifts the axis of analysis to establishing and evaluating the conditions that enable individuals to take decisions based on what they have reason to value. These conditions will vary in different contexts, but the approach sets out to be sensitive to human diversity, complex social relations, a sense of reciprocity between people, appreciation that people can reflect reasonably on what they value for themselves and others and a concern to equalize not opportunities or outcomes but rather capabilities.

The capability approach thus offers a broad theory to conceptualize and evaluate individual well-being and social arrangements in any particular context or society. It is not a complete theory of justice, but it does deal with questions of the balance between freedoms and equality that have characterized work on social justice since the late eighteenth century. Sen (2007, p.4) asks the core question, “Equality of what?” As he explains, all egalitarian theories that have stood the test of time pose the issue of equality of something, for example, of income, welfare levels, rights, or liberties. In education this question emerges in sociological work on how to theorize and analyze the provision of equivalent learning opportunities for both girls and boys. There is nothing to show that

men have capabilities more than women, but why the disparity in educational opportunities and attainments? The choice of the space in which to assess equality determines what equality we prioritize. We could prioritize equalizing education in every country and thus place equality in education in the space of evaluation (Sen 2007, p.5).

Sen argues that what we should equalize is not resources, for example, a strict ratio of teachers (both male and female) to pupils, or a certain amount of expenditure per capita on each pupil, (both boys and girls) and not outcomes, for example, that every child leaves school with a particular qualification. The author writes that what should be equalized are human capabilities, that is, what people are able to be and to do which the author thinks both men and women have equal capabilities in education and in all sectors of the economy.

Crucial to this, is the process for people to come to decisions about what they have reason to value in education, or any other aspect of social action. Thus the expansion of human capability involves “the freedoms people actually enjoy choosing the lives that they have reason to value” (Sen 2007, p.108). People should be able to make choices that matter to them for a valuable life. The notion of capability is essentially one of freedom; the range of options a person has in deciding what kind of life to lead. Therefore, women should not be left behind as second class citizens in any country (Sen 2007, p.110). Capabilities might then also be explained as actions one values doing or approaches to living one’s values.

In other words, when we evaluate social and educational arrangements against a criterion of justice and considerations of equalities, it is people's capabilities that must guide the evaluation rather than how much money, education resources, or qualifications they are able to command. In assessing the global social justice in education, Sen further argues that there is the need to consider not only international pattern of access to education and very narrowly defined achievement in education, but also the distribution of other aspect of education deemed valuable, particularly, given the complex global class, especially, gender and ethnic inequalities. He explained that the Millenium Development Goals have their targets as well as the Education for All (EFA). The concerns are not whether the targets have been met or whether targeting is the appropriate approach in basic education but the concern is whether there is social justice in education. The question is that, are these targets having social relation with all the stakeholders- parents, teachers, pupils and the NGOs? In explaining social justice further, Sen again provided a very useful way given the complexity of the diverse societies in the world to think about social justice in education. He added that investing in education for boys and girls is justified by its benefits not for them but for the society. This approach does not look at whether a girl or a boy has been discriminated against in the provision of education because according to Sen, education is not for an individual, but it is for the larger grouping- the community, the nation and the future generation.

Sen concluded that gender inequality in education cannot be fully addressed by any single approach, the complexity and import of social justice suggest that all the stakeholders in education- the parents, teachers, pupils, and the government and all

relevant stakeholders like the NGOs must complement each other for policy and practice. This theory is crucial to the study since the study is based on gender disparity in access to basic education and the disparity that both the home-based and the school-based factors create in enrolment and attendance. Provision of educational resources can be the means, but not the intrinsic ends of human well-being and not an end to disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic education. Other stakeholders might come into play to address issues relevant to education in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

4.9 Linking the Theory to the Methodology of the Study

The ability to track progress and change is important from the point of view of human capital, capability and human right. However, assessing disparity in education, particularly through the use of numbers is a controversial issue. In the first place, there are certain limits to which quantitative data particularly at the macro level can reveal about educational process. In relation to gender in particular, over reliance on quantitative data can be at the expense of understanding the differential experiences of girls. Statistical methods alone are insufficient for exploring complexities relating to gender differences. A qualitative study is crucial for understanding individual interpretation and motivation and dealing with the direct experiences with the people in specific contexts.

Awareness of the need to examine context and individual experiences has led to the classification of the qualitative framework for measuring disparity, although the quantitative and qualitative distinction is increasingly being challenged as a false dualism. Quantitative description commonly present inequality in education as an

objective reality, yet, in order to understand the limits of existing measurements, we must first look more closely at ways in which inequality can be socially constructive due to different ideas about which aspect of education require equal distribution (Foster 1996). The issue of educational measurement has become pressing particularly in developing countries including Ghana owing to the growth of particular kinds of reforms of evidence based policy and practices and the assumption that flows from these within international development policy. Currently, the most visible examples of this are the Education for All (EFA) campaign and the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) both of which contain concrete time-bound quantitative targets (World Bank 2004).

Specific targets at the national levels accompany the international goals for basic education. This trend has provoked concerns that reliance on simplistic educational indicators may mean that policies have a negligible or detrimental effects on educational experiences as reforms become focus on the achievement of narrow goals such as enrolment (Goldstein 2004). Exploring inequalities in basic education, there is the need for quantitative data to highlight educational disparities via comparison and to address them efficiently. Goldstein (2004) further noted that almost all educational research projects start from some sort of quantitative basis. The use of numbers enables cross tabulation and regression which explore links between certain educational characteristics and other contextual variables. The authors further explained that in the United Kingdom, for example, significant use was made of quantitative data to highlight gender disparities in education. To engage fully with current development policy, researchers may have more power if their critiques employ similar methodological tools and if they

are expressed in qualitative terms. International agencies are themselves acutely aware of the current limited picture that quantitative measure reveals about gender inequalities in education. Data availability and quality issues mean that only a handful of indicators such as school enrolment and expenditure are internationally comparable: only a few others such as dropout rates make appearance in international policy document and reports.

Strategies for improving and expanding existing quantitative measurement are a common feature in recent campaign documents. There are more questions concerning further theoretical exploration of gender disparity in education. How should educational disparity be conceptualized and evaluated beyond basic access measure? It is with this question in mind that educational researchers, including me, have recently turned to capabilities approach and social justice in education theory for understanding and examining educational disparity in the Northern Region since the theory combines both qualitative and quantitative measures for understanding educational disparity.

4.10 Model Specification

The model specification below is the author's own formulation. It establishes the effect of income, religion and marital status on gender disparity in enrolment in the next chapter. This type of model was estimated using Ordinary Least Square (OLS). Incomes of the household heads were measured on the interval ratio scale while both religious affiliations and marital statuses of household heads were measured on the nominal scale.

$$\mathbf{GDE = \beta_0 + \beta_1 ICM + \beta_2 REL + \beta_3 MAR + \epsilon}$$

Where GDE = Gender Disparity in Enrollment of Girls

β_0 = constant or intercept

$\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3$ = parameter change in Y value given one unit change in any variables above

ICM. = Income of Household heads

REL. = Religious Affiliation of Household heads

MAR. = Marital Status of Household heads

ε = Error Term

4.11 Household Respondents by Age

The age pattern for both males and females follows closely in all the selected districts of the region with the slight variation between the young age (between 20- 34 years) and the middle age (between 35-54 years). Apart from Bole, Gushegu and Saboba, the percentage of the middle age is higher (69.1 percent), that of the young age was 14.4 percent and old age was 16.5 percent. Age plays an important role within the households in the region. In every household, work is distributed according to age, the young age category; middle age category and the old age know which work to do. It was observed that apart from the Tamale Metropolitan area, the population of the older age persons is increasing in rural areas.

4.12 Rural-Urban Residence

The rural, peri-urban and urban definition of localities is based on population size. Out of the 152 household respondents, 30 percent of the respondents were in the urban areas, and another 30 percent were in the peri-urban area and the remaining 40 percent were in the rural areas. The Tamale Metropolitan Area has remained the largest settlement in the

region. Bole and Gambaga are other two important urban settlements. Now Karaga and Zabzugu have gradually increased their population and will soon move to the urban status. A lot of localities like Chereponi, Kpandai and Kunmbungu are all gradually moving from peri-urban status to the urban status and some rural communities are also changing their status to peri-urban (GSS 2012).

4.13 Assessment of the Data from the Household Respondents

A significant aspect of the field work was sourcing data from the household and more specifically from the parents. These interviews with the households gave the author the opportunity to interact with parents and get their reactions in response to the questions the author design. The interviews were conducted in ten districts of the Northern Region between May, 2012 and October, 2012.

Initially, the interviews with the household heads were supposed to last one hour as scheduled but because of the need to translate the questions into the local language for clearer understanding in some cases, it finally lasted one hour thirty minutes. The author observed that households were dominated by males and most of the data collected were from the male household heads. The data taken from the household heads were used to explain the state of gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in the region. It was reliable and could be verified. Apart from the Christian households where English language was used as a medium of interviewing, in all the other households, the local languages were used. There were many inconsistencies in the answers of most of the respondents and that delayed the interviews for hours. Data given in most cases look

similar in all the households visited and suggested that the diversity with respect to gender disparity in enrolment and school attendance is not much.

4.14 Assessment of Data from the NGOS

The interviews with the officials of the NGOs were done in the Tamale Metropolitan Area since their offices were found there. The author spent an average of forty- five minutes with the Programme Directors and thirty minutes with the staff incharge of the programme on girls' education. This was in the Month of November and December 2012. NGOs and other organisations provide complementary education in the region; therefore there was the need to source data from some of them. Although the study did not cover all the NGOs assisting in basic education three of them were contacted because they had programmes operating simultaneously in all the ten districts (There were the SEND Foundation, CAMFED and Action Aid Ghana).

These NGOs provided the author with data relevant in their area of collaboration with the Ghana Education Service, their experiences and the challenges they face in the collaboration. They provided the author with facts and figures. Although it was observed that most of the data on programmes executed on the girl child before 2010 by Action Aid Ghana could not be traced due to infestation of viruses.

All the same, the NGOs were able to provide 2011 data on gender disparity in school enrolment and attendance especially, SEND Foundation which had data on School Feeding Programme operating in the selected districts. The author was able to source data on collaborated research finding on the girl child and the factors accounting to her low

participation in basic education. The accuracy of the data could not be doubted. There was uniformity in the data from the selected NGOs.

4.15 Assessment of Data from Ghana Education Service (GES)

Another key institution in the study was the Ghana Education Service. The District Directors who served as key informants were interviewed in January, 2012. Each District Director was interviewed within forty-five minutes in his office and the teachers' in charge of girls' education units were also interviewed in February, 2012. The author spent one hour each with the Programme Officers who were located within the directorate. The headteachers and the pupils were interviewed in the various schools within the selected districts between January, 2012 and April 2012.

The author received data on areas of GES collaboration with the NGOs and also facts and figures on school enrolment, especially, data on girls' enrolment in the various districts. Data on the challenges of the Ghana Education Service in respect to data management was also received. Although the author observed some inaccuracies in the data when compared with the data from the NGOs on the same variables. The author could not get up to date data on girls' enrolment. Out of the ten District Education Offices visited only four districts could provide data up to 2009 and these districts were East Mamprusi, Saboba, Bole and West Mamprusi. The rest could only provide data on girls' education up to 2006. This compelled the author to use the school registers to compute current gaps in school enrolments and attendances.

4.16 Evaluation of Data Reliability and Validity

To ensure that the emerging findings of the study were valid and reliable, the author was vigorous during the data collection and the data analysis. The impact of the socio-cultural, economic and the school-based factors were looked at from different angles. During the data collection process, regular discussions and feedback between the research assistants occurred after every week in order to ensure validity and reliability of the data. The constant discussions with the research assistants and the headteachers to reflect on the responses of parents added more value to the research. Editing of the data was done before analysis and the subsequent writing of the report.

4.17 Ethical Issues and Concerns

Research Assistants carried with them copies of a letter from the Regional Education Office which introduced the study. The letter indicated that it was part of a Doctor of Philosophy degree which the researcher is pursuing at the University of Ghana, Legon. However, there were some critical concerns particularly relating to how to identify households with both male and female children. During the initial community visit, care was taken to ensure that the focus of the study was broadly described as issues of access, disparity in enrolment and attendance and how parity can be achieved at the basic level. School children were told simply that they were to be selected to represent pupils of their classes in order to participate in the interview.

A key concern was the out-of school girls whose expectations would have been raised by the author's visit to their homes. Due to the nature of the issues being investigated, there were some very difficult moments during the data collection period. For example, as one

of the parents narrated her life story about how her husband died and left seven children and none of his family members is ready to assist her in taking care of the children and at the moment, five of them have stopped schooling.

4.18 Limitations and Challenges

One limitation of the use of the cross sectional design is that with the emphasis on quantitative research, an in-depth examination of the phenomenon being studied was difficult. However, this study was designed to investigate the socio economic and cultural factors affecting gender disparity, the effects of the strategies put in place and the extent to which the partners in basic education collaborate.

In terms of the challenges faced during fieldwork, lack of up-to-date records at the schools presented specific constraints. Particularly, most of the schools did not have up-to-date records regarding enrolment, attendance and drop-out. Most of the school registers were not closed (addition of total attendance for boys and girls and how many girls and boys were enrolled for the past academic years before the beginning of a new academic year). The author had to spend much time ‘closing’ the registers before taking the needed information. Another challenge faced was the difficulty in reaching pupils who had dropped out of school within the year. Most of the school heads were males and were the executives of the School Management Committees in most of the schools visited. In addition, identifying research assistants in the communities of the same degree and capability for uniformity was a huge challenge. This introduced a huge cost for the supervision in order to standardize the research and ensure reliability.

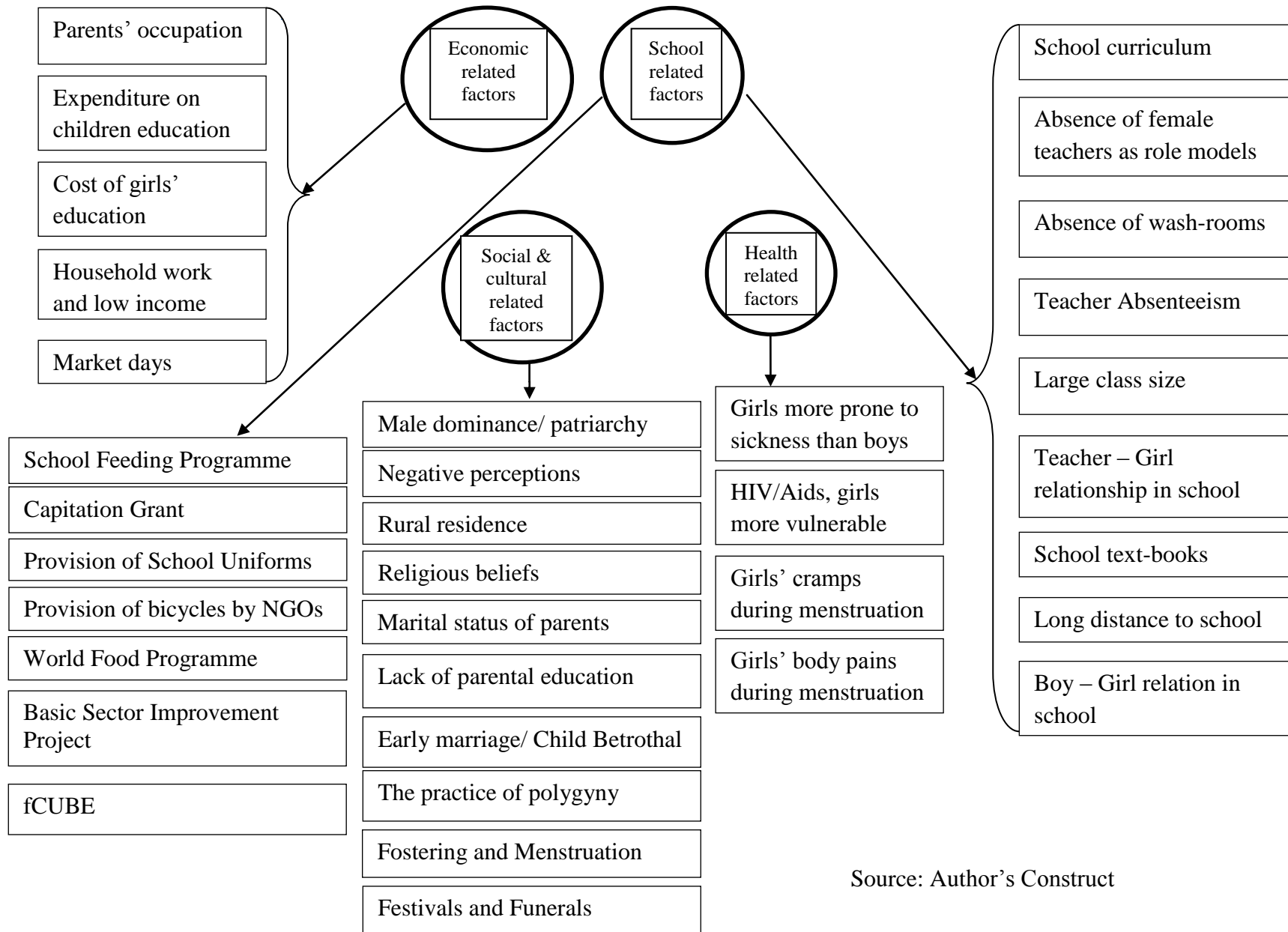
Some headteachers were quite unreceptive at first, while others took a long time to finally attend to the request such as completing the questionnaire. The interviews took much longer time that some household heads were not prepared to bear with the author and some being rather passionate on the subject. They tended to drag the conversation on and on and then got bored when it did not end in less than the one hour as planned. The challenges of operating in contexts of extreme poverty were that, there was an expectation that the information would be given in exchange for some money in spite of the fact that they were told that it was part of an academic work. It was rather sad to see how deflated many became when the author was unable to offer much assistance at once. It can be concluded that the methodology was without difficulty, the processes and the procedures involved were satisfactory though, the observed data from the NGOs, GES, headteachers, parents and the pupils had some gaps, especially data from the GES, all the same it served the purpose for which the study was done.

Concluding on this chapter, it can be said that the processes and procedures in sampling, data collection and analyses are one of the important aspects of the entire thesis without which no analysis and inferences can be made. Though there were a number of limitations to the study it did not prevent the author from carrying out such an important study. Capability and Social Justice in education theory is one of the middle range theories. This has been used to show its relevance in sociological analysis of gender inequality in enrolment and attendance in the Northern Region of Ghana.

The attached conceptual framework (Fig. 4.2) was developed by the author as a summary of the findings. The author does not show the interconnections between the variables on the framework. The interconnections between the variables are only explained in the analyses, the factors are only packed on the framework to guide the author, give examples of their various dimensions and therefore do not need any high level explanation at that stage. The author has acknowledged the fact that the variables on the framework are interconnected to affect gender disparity in school enrolment and attendance and these are shown in the subsequent chapters.

The framework is relevant to the socio-economic, cultural and school-based factors that affect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance. This contributes to knowledge in terms of analyzing factors that affect gender disparity in education at all levels. It must be cautioned that it will be misleading to make a generalization of the framework as showing all factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in the Northern Region of Ghana. Further study can still be done on some of the school-based factors, especially the effects of the PTA, the School Management Committees and female teachers as role models on enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. The next chapter presents the analysis and discussions of the interconnections between socio cultural and economic factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

Figure 4.2: Factors Affecting Gender Disparity in Basic Education



Source: Author's Construct

CHAPTER FIVE

SOCIO- ECONOMIC AND CULTURAL FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY IN BASIC SCHOOL

5.1 Introduction

In the subsequent chapters, factors affecting gender disparity in basic schools in the Northern Region are analysed and discussed. This chapter examines and discusses the demographic characteristics of household heads in relation to gender disparity in enrolment and school attendance. Factors discussed include marital status of household heads their levels of education and religious affiliations. The chapter also presents the analyses and discussions of the socio-economic and cultural factors that affect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. These include the occupation of the household heads, household chores, type of work both males and females do at home, household heads' income, market days and cost associated with males and females basic schooling. The socio-cultural factors include early marriage, child betrothal, polygyny, fostering, menstruation, funeral rites performance and festival celebration. Although these factors independently affect enrolment or attendance, in some instances, they affect both enrolment and attendance at the same time, because, whilst a child is enrolled he or she is expected to attend school. Factors which affect only enrolment or attendance are also specifically examined in the chapter. These variables are outlined in the conceptual framework developed by the author (See Figure 4.2 in chapter four).

5.2 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

5.2.1 Household Headship

The composition of households in the Northern Region remains largely traditional and the families are extended families except in Christian households where nuclear families dominate even among the urban dwellers in the region. Table 5.1 below shows the household responses on headship within the household by sex.

Table 5.1: Household Headship by Gender

Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Male Heads	112	73.7
Proxy Female Heads	6	4.0
Female Heads	34	22.3
Total	152	100

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

It is depicted in Table 5.1 that males dominated the responses in the households (73.7 percent). They are the heads of their families and the decision to send children to school or withdraw them from school is in the hands of the men. The study found that female headed households do exist in the region as can be observed from Table 5.1. (22.3 percent). These heads were seen mostly from Savelugu-Nanton District, East Gonja and Tamale Metropolis. The other category of female heads (4 percent) explained that their husbands were not at home to respond to the questionnaire. It was observed from the study that households in which both spouses live, men are the heads of the families but where the husband is not present the mature male son becomes the head of the family. It can be interpreted that female headed households are uncommon in the region and when it comes to the enrolment of their children they take the decision either in favour of the

male child in many instances or both. In relation to the headship in the households, marriage was an important variable that was further examined. Table 5.2 shows marital status of the household heads:

Table 5.2: Marital Status of Household Respondents

Marital status	Frequency	Percentage
Single	6	3.9
Married	134	88.2
Separated	4	2.6
Divorced	1	0.7
Widowed	1	0.7
Living together/Cohabitation	6	3.9
Total	152	100

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

Table 5.2 indicates that 88.2 percent of the household heads were married, 3.9 percent were single, 2.6 percent separated, 3.9 percent were living together 0.7 percent were divorced and 0.7 percent were widowed. There was a wide variation in the proportion of the population who are married and those unmarried in the Region. Marital statuses of the respondents were measured on the nominal scale specifying the categories of the statuses which are illustrated on Table 5.2 and the sampling was purposive. This may not reflect exactly what pertains in other districts because the questions were restricted to only households with both male and female children. Those who are married were more than those who were not married. It was observed that the unmarried but with children

were not respected in their communities as compared to the married with children, especially, when it comes to decision making in the communities.

It was further observed that when couples are legally married and staying together it imbibes some confidence in their children and reduces the incidence of school dropout. The peace that exists within the marital home also motivates the parents to send their children to school. It was found that children of those who are not legally married are teased in school which caused some parents to withdraw their children from school. One of the household heads who is not legally married attested to this in a question relating to marital status. He said;

“I always feel unhappy anytime my son comes back from school to tell me that his colleagues are insulting him that he is a son out of wedlock. I sometimes feel not to allow my son to attend school again till I get money and perform the marital rites. Our parents are aware that we are living together but the community has failed to recognize our children.”

With reference to Table 5.2, the percentages of those who are married were couples who had passed through all the processes and procedures recognized by the society for such a purpose (Nukunya1992). Children out of this form of marriage are recognized as the legitimate offsprings of the couple by the society. The singles were those who are not married at all, they were interviewed for the fact that the author wanted to understand how they feel in such as situation. Both men and women explained that they wished they

had married but because of lack of resources they are not able to marry. They added that with time they will find their future spouses. Those living together or cohabitating were not recognized by their communities.

They did not pass through the recognized processes and procedures for marriage. It was observed from the households that they had children but the respondents explained that their children are not recognized by their communities until such a time that they perform all the marital rites. This form of marriage is not common in the region. It was further observed that there were some household heads, who were divorced as shown in Table 5.2. These were couples who were once married but separated permanently due to some problems they encountered in their marriages. The author was not interested in the reasons why they divorced because that was not the main purpose of the study.

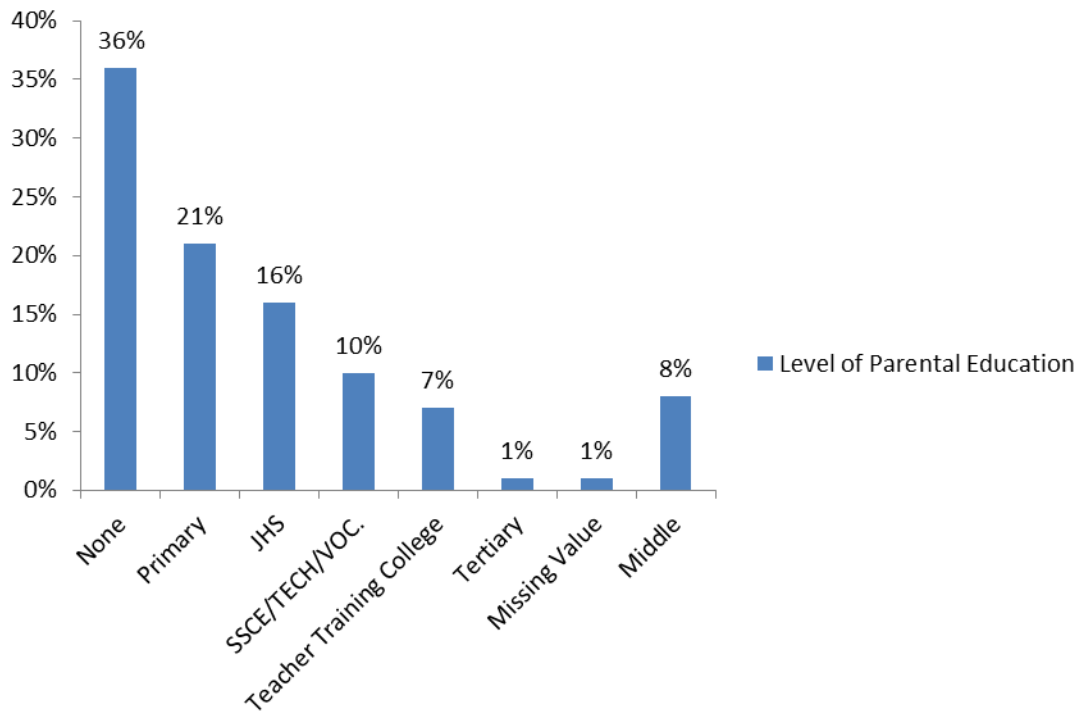
Those separated were those who have passed through the processes and procedures recognized by their communities for marriage yet, the couples were not staying together. It was again observed from the households that this form of marriage was not also common in the region. Even though the singles, separated, divorced, widowed and those living together have all cherished marriage, they said it is sad they have found themselves in such a situation and that they wish they were all legally married. Those with children explained that the psychological discomfort they experience within their households prevent them to constantly allow their children to attend school and in some cases withdraw them because of the way other children treat their children in school. One of them again lamented;

“I wish I were legally married but circumstances beyond my control have put me in this situation. My parents are aware of my living with my prospective husband when the situation changes for both of us we would get marry”.

It can be interpreted that marriage is an important institution and cherished by the people of the Northern Region of Ghana. When couples are legally married to each other it has positive effects on their children schooling. Those who are not legally married are unhappy about their situation; their children too are unhappy in school which sometimes discourage the children from attending school regularly.

5.2.2 Levels of Parental Education

Level of parental education plays an important role in the education of children in many cases. The current study in the Northern Region found that the level of parental education has little to do with childrens' level of education. Children are in school because parents have seen the need to educate them. The study further found that most children in basic schools in the region are children from parents who have never attained higher education as indicated in figure 5.1; they are able to enrol their children in school especially, the girl child. Only 1.1 percent of parents have schooled up to tertiary level.

Figure 5.1: Level of Parental Education

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

As the pictogram above shows, some household heads in the Northern Region have attempted schooling but only a few have been able to reach the tertiary level (1 percent). This is a confirmation that the level of parental education has very little to do with the level of education of children in the Northern Region of Ghana. The Ghana Living Standard Survey VI report (2008) indicates that the literacy rate among males is higher than among females in the Northern Region. Although some could read and write, their educational levels could not earn them a better living.

The current study in the Northern Region of Ghana does not support the study by Anderson (2002) in Pakistan where the level at which parents attain education has an effect on the educational levels of their children, especially their daughters. This study does not also support that of authors like Kwasiga (2002) and Dolphyne (1991) who have explained that higher levels of parental education has a direct link to their children's level of education, especially the education of girls. According to the authors the higher the level of parental education, the higher the level their children are likely to acquire in education. These arguments are all being supported by the levels of education of parents whose children are in school as indicated in figure 5.1.

The current study in the Northern Region does not again support the study conducted by Stuart (1991) cited in Aggarwal (2006) which revealed that in Jordan, the higher level of education attained by fathers was symmetrically associated with higher schooling of their daughters. Assie (2000) backed this assertion by noting that a girl in Cote d'Ivoire with a university graduate father is more than thirty five times likely to enter an academic secondary school as compared with a father with no education.

Comparing the situation in Jordan and in Cote d'Ivoire, it was found that in almost all the households in the districts, households headed by educated fathers and mothers have their girls in school, they keep them there much longer as compared with households headed by uneducated fathers and mothers. The study did not find that the higher the level of education of a father or a mother, the higher the children are likely to acquire education. It can be interpreted that parental education may have positive effect on girls' education in some parts of Ghana and Africa, the situation is different in the Northern Region since

majority of the parents have never attained higher education yet, they have their children enrolled in basic schools and some even had their children completed Polytechnics and Universities.

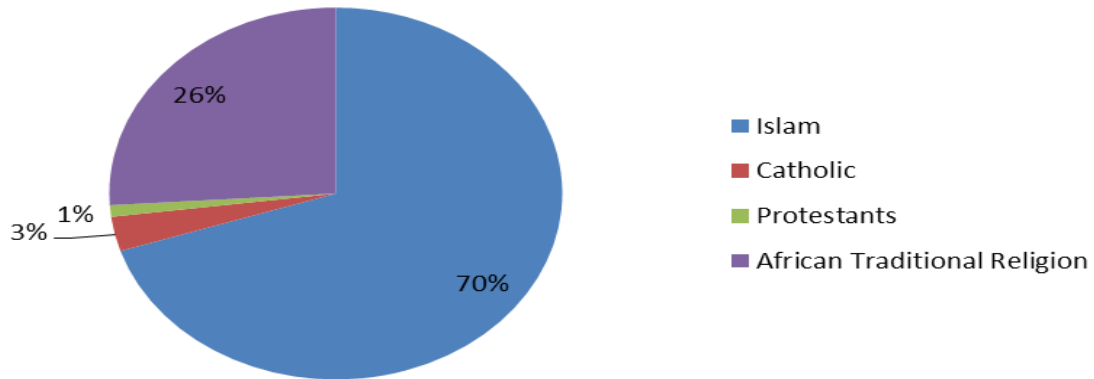
In relation to the level of parental education, UNICEF (2012) studies in the Upper West Region supported the current study in the Northern Region. The study noted that illiterate parents are able to access the benefits of education or schooling for their daughters and they are therefore, more inclined to see them attain higher education. One of the household heads who have never been to school said;

“My inability to go to school does not negatively affect my girls’ education. I sometimes see the need to educate the girl child, but prefer the boy-child to attend because of cultural reasons.”

It can be interpreted that both males and females in the Northern Region are enrolled in school not because their parents have attained higher level of education. It has been recognized that the level of parental education plays an important role in some parts of Ghana and parts of Africa, especially in enrolment and attendance of the girl child.

5.2.3 Religious Affiliations of Household Heads

The three main religions practised in the region are Christianity (which is sub-divided into Roman Catholic and Protestants), Islam and African Traditional Religion.

Figure 5.2: Religious Affiliation of Household Heads

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

Figure 5.2 indicates that 70 percent of the household heads were Muslims, 3 percent were Catholics, 1 percent of the household heads were Protestants and 24 percent were Traditionalists. It was observed that Christian household heads in the region enrolled both their male and female children in school and allows them to attend. Out of 6 Christian households visited 5 household heads had all their children in school except one household head who explained that his children are not in school because of his inability to pay fees that are charged by the school authorities. Confirming the findings, one of the Christians said in the interview;

“Girl child education is part of the Christian faith and that Christianity was introduced in Ghana with a package and that package was education. Therefore, there is no point in Christian’s life where Christian parents will deny their daughters education.”

Out of the 106 Muslim households visited 90 household heads had their girls enrolled in school and 16 household heads did not enrol their girls in school and this is a clear manifestation that Islam does not discourage girls' education, it only prefers the male children to be more educated than the female children because of the fact that women marry out of the households, therefore investing more in them to acquire higher education means investing in the prospective husband. To further support the augument, one of the educated Muslims during the interview also said "*formal education is alien to Islam. Islam was not introduced with formal education; it was due to technological advancement that Muslims saw the need to educate their children especially, the male child.*" This statement suggested that Muslims prefer to educate the male child rather than the female child.

Out of 40 African Traditional households visited only three household heads had their children in school and all were male children. It was clear from the study that African Traditional Religion has not seen the need to educate female childrens. Formal education is thus seen as a threat to the beliefs and practices of the adherent of African Traditional Religion in the region. The African traditionalists were also of the view that the question of disparity between the girl child and the boy child in enrolment and attendance in education should not even arise in African Traditional Religion at all. Being the oldest religion in Ghana, men and women had their roles to play in the society. One of the traditionalists remarked;

“Formal education for girls is a necessary evil, though modernization had made the religion to accept formal education, at the same time; it is a threat to the beliefs and practices of the religion.”

Murshid (1996) supported the study by noting that despite the broadly equalizing influence of recent development on educational attainment of boys and girls, a number of historical influences can result in the persistent disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic education in Christianity, Islam and African Traditional Religion. The authors explained that higher educational attainment among Christians can be attributed to the acceptance of secular education while majority of the Muslims still prefer education in Arabic because Arabic education started before secular education. These divergent historical paths in secular education have also led to the Christians being better represented in Service- Sector Occupations.

In many districts in the Northern Region, Arabic schools still exist, especially in the urban and the peri urban areas where many parents still enrol their girls and make a lot of investments in the growth of “madrasahs” (Arabic schools) as a way of increasing access to basic school among the disadvantage Muslims. Though, the disparities in school enrolment still exist in these schools the trend has changed as the current study revealed. More girls are now being enrolled at the primary school level than boys in the Arabic schools but more males are allowed to pursue higher education than the females.

The situation is different at the JHS, SSS and the tertiary levels where the disparity in enrolment is still in favour of the boys as reported by FAWE (2001). It can be interpreted

that male preference still dominates in Islam. While the African Traditional Religion discourages girls to acquire higher education in the Northern Region, Islam encourages both being enrolled but preferring the males to acquire higher education than females. This goes contrary to the Capability and Social Justice in Education Theory which emphasizes that there should not be any discrimination of any kind in educating both the girl and the boy child. According to the theory both children have equal capabilities therefore, allowing only the boy child to acquire higher education does contravene the theory of social justice in education and hence the persistence disparity in enrolment and attendance in the Northern Region of Ghana.

5.3 Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Gender Disparity

The study looked at the socio-economic factors that affect gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. These factors include the occupation of the households, household heads income, cost associated with boys and girls education, household chores, market days and the type of work both girls and boys do at home. These have been outlined in the conceptual framework (figure 4.2) developed by the author in chapter four.

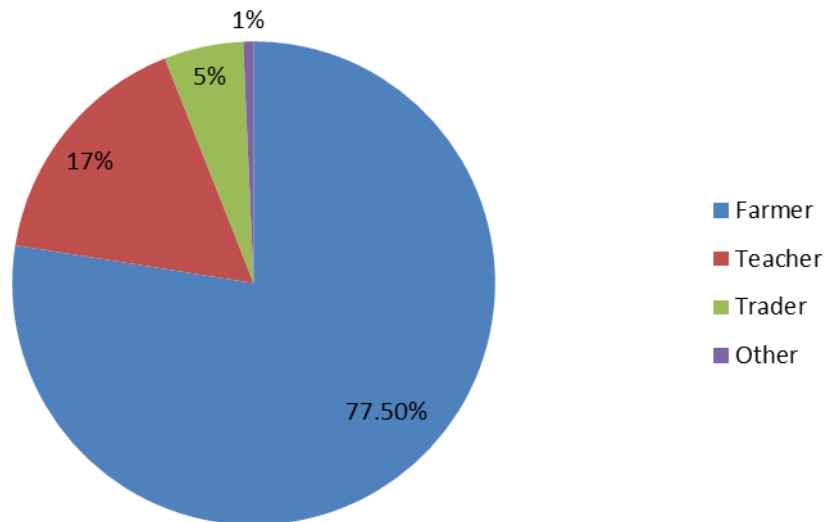
Household heads were the target population mainly because they are part of the stakeholders in basic education. The principles of Capability Approach and Social Justice theory states that for effective basic education and strategies to address inequality in school enrolment and attendance, parents must be involved, especially in policies that affect enrolment and attendance in basic education. It is on the basis of this theory that the opinions of the household heads were sought in relation to the socio economic and

cultural factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

5.3.1 Occupation of Household Heads

The study revealed that agriculture (particularly farming) and hunting are the main economic activities in the Northern Region. These account for the employment of an active population in the region (77.5 percent). It was found that there were other economic activities like forestry and pito brewing which some household heads were engaged in. The household heads attested to this in a response to a question relating to the occupation of the household heads. Figure 5.3 shows the responses:

Figure 5.3: Occupation of Respondents



Source: Author's field survey (2012)

It is clear from Figure 5.3 that 77.5 percent of the household respondents were farmers, 16.5 percent were teachers, 5.3 percent were traders and 0.7 percent were involved in

petty industry and fishing. All the major ethnic groups in the region (Dagomba, Gonjas, Mamprusis, Nanumbas and Konkombas) are involved in some sort of farming. In the Christian households, it was observed that some were involved in pig rearing in addition to yam farming. This was only observed in the Sababa-Chereponi District where the Konkombas dominate and some parts of Zabzugu and Tatale Districts.

The household heads further explained that their current occupation affect their female children enrolment and attendance more than the males. One of the household heads in the interview said;

“My current occupation will significantly shape my family’s ability to invest in my girls’ education”.

It was found that the occupation of the household heads was related to the income of the household. Households’ earn their income through the work they do. Households with low incomes (Income of households discussed in the next pages) are unable to meet the cost of educating their children especially the female children. As one of them said;

“I do not earn much at the end of the month; sometimes the income from the sales of my farm produce is so low that I am unable to meet the cost of educating my children.

It was revealed that the monthly and yearly income of households are inadequate to meet the cost of educating children in the region. (See Table 5.3 and footnotes 3).

In a question relating to cost, the household heads confirmed that the cost of educating the girl child termly is higher than that of the boy child (cost discussed in the subsequent pages) and that due to their current occupation they cannot meet the termly cost of educating their girls in schools. It can be explained that the occupation of the households and what they earn make them to take decisions on schooling either in favour of the male children or both male and female children and the decision in the household normally favours the boy child. This further means that whenever a decision is taken in favour of the boy child, the disparity gap in enrolment also widens in favour of the boy child and this does not augur well for effective participation of the girl child in basic education. The table below indicates the households' monthly income:

Table 5.3 Monthly Income of Household Respondents

Monthly income in Ghana Cedis	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulative Frequency	Mid Point (X)	FX
Less than 10.00 cedis	13	8.5	13	5	65
11-20	5	3.3	18	16	80
21-30	28	18.4	46	25.5	714
31-40	17	11.2	63	35.5	603.5
41-50	12	7.9	75	45.5	546
51-60	14	9.2	89	55.5	777
61-70	12	7.9	101	65.5	786
71-80	20	13.2	121	75.5	1510
81-90	5	3.3	126	85.5	427.5
91-100	4	2.6	130	95.5	382
Above 100	22	14.5	152	100.5	2211
Total	152	100			$\Sigma fx=8102$

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

The average monthly income of household heads is GHc 53.3 and yearly is GHc 639.6.³ Footnote 3 shows the calculation of the monthly income of household heads. Table (5.3) further indicates the percentages and the ranges of the amount of money in cedis households earn in a month. The household heads explained that the monthly and yearly incomes are too low to meet the cost of educating their children. They further explained that out of this yearly income they spend GHc 8.50 to buy books yearly apart from what the government gives, GHc 15.00 for school uniforms, GHc 10.00 for school bags, GHc 75.00 for “chop money” and GHc 21.00 for payment of exam registration for three terms every year.

El-sanabary (2001) supports the findings of the current study by noting that girls from the middle- incomes and high- income families in Africa are more likely to be enrolled and remain in school as compared with the girls from low income families. It was observed in the households that parents from rural areas in the Northern Region are unable to meet the cost of educating both their girls and boys. Some of the children were seen in school with torn uniforms which make them feel uncomfortable among their peers in class and they sometimes discourage them to attend school. Even if they attend, they feel reluctant to participate in class and other school activities.

The household heads again said that their income is too low to meet the cost; therefore, they prefer the boy child to be enrolled and allowed to attend school. As to the sources of

³ The average monthly income of respondents (households) is $8102 \div 152 = \text{GHc } 53.3$ and Multiply this by 12 months the average yearly income will be $\text{GHc } 639.6$.³

income, the household heads explained that they get their income through various sources; 68.2 percent said they get their income through the sale of their farm produce, 13.8 percent said through petty trading which involves fishing, pito-brewing and selling of planted trees, 2.3 percent said through teaching and 15.7 percent said through trading. (See the responses on Table 1 in Appendix B).

The study further found that the household heads prefer the male child to go to school when the household heads' income is low. In a question relating to which child should be sent to school in this situation, the household heads supported the findings. Seventy four (74 percent) of the household heads preferred to send the boy child to school when their incomes are low, 21 percent prefer the girl child and 5 percent said none of them will be sent to school (See the responses in Table 2 in Appendix B).

On the preference of the boy child, one of the respondents remarked;

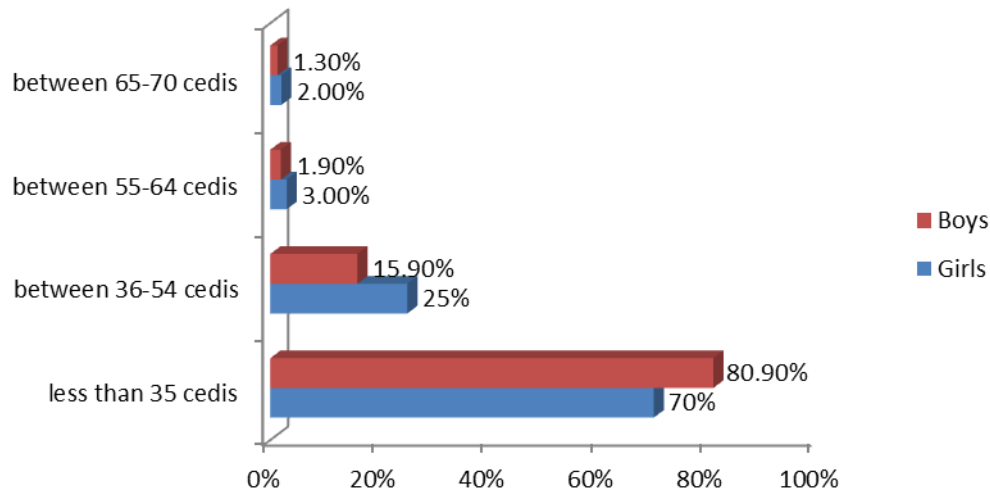
“The boy- child will not get married and move out to stay with another family so investing in him will definitely bring good returns to the household in future. The girl child will definitely marry to someone outside the family so she will leave the household, therefore investing in her means investing in her future husband.”

Household heads' who preferred to educate the girl child with low income explained that girls can equally perform and help the household as compared to the boy child, if not even better and that investing in the girl child will lessen the burden on parents because the education will give her a better husband in future. The responses of the household

heads who prefer to educate the girl child and the explanation they gave confirmed the theory of the study – Capability Approach and Social Justice theory which lays emphasis on what the individual is capable of doing (both girls and boys are included). The theory states that there is no scientific prove that boys have more capabilities than girls therefore, should be treated differently. The theory added that both boys and girls have equal capability in education and should be treated equally without discrimination.

Those who choose not to educate their children due to low income explained that education is about employment so allowing the child to take the profession of the parents will earn him or her better living in future.

They further explained that their parents never sent them to school but were rather trained to take up the work of their parents and no matter their income levels they are able to feed their families. It can be interpreted that the more incomes household heads earn, the more they will send their children to school. Also the income of a household head determines whether the boy child or the girl child should be sent to school. The boy child stands the chance of being enroled and remains in school when household heads income is low. El-sanabary's (2001) study in some African countries including Ghana found that girls in most African countries are always at a disadvantage when the family income is low and this supported the current study in the Northern Region. The following figure shows the termly expenditure of households on their males and females education.

Table 5.4: Termly Expenditure by Parents on males' and Females' in School

Source: Author's field survey (2012).

The study revealed that household heads spend more money on females' basic schooling than on males' schooling and the situation where household income is low it negatively affects females' enrolment and attendance. This creates disparity, especially in attendance in favour of the male child. The household heads attested to this in a question relating to expenditure on females. Seventy percent (70 percent) of the household heads spend less than 35 Ghana cedis each termly on their females' education and 80.9 percent of them spend the same on their males' education. Twenty five (25 percent) spend between 36-54 Ghana cedis on females' education while 15.9 percent spend on their males education. Three percent (3.0 percent) spend between 55-64 Ghana cedis on females' education as compared with 1.9 percent who spend on their males' education. Two percent (2.0 percent) spend between 65-70 Ghana cedis on females' as compared to 1.9 percent who spend 65-70 cedis on males' education. It was observed that many households spend

more on books, examination fees, uniforms and school bags, these items are bought for both males and female children.

When the household heads were interviewed, they explained that they often buy other things like panties in addition to books for their girls every term. Others explained that they used the money for school uniform and “chop money” for the girls every term. The fact remains that the same; books, uniforms, bags, examination fees are still what household heads spend their income on. The pupils, when interviewed, confirmed that their parents buy books for them each term and sometimes, school uniform. Ninety seven (97 percent) attested to this while 3 percent declined (See the responses in Table 3 in Appendix B) and this was attributed to the low income level of their parents. One of the girls said;

“My father normally buys textbooks we use in class for me, sometimes if he does not have money, my uncle buys the books and this always makes me to compete with the boys in class.”

The household heads further explained that the money is inadequate and when they are ‘hard pressed’, they do not buy the items for their girls and this makes it difficult for the girls to attend school regularly as compared to boys.

The mean termly expenditure by parents on their girl’s education is GHc 27.1 and GHc 81.3 yearly.⁴ The mean termly expenditure by parents on their boys is GHc 23.3 and GHc

⁴ The final calculation from the table is $4115 \div 152 = \text{GHc } 27.1$ and 81.3 Ghana cedis yearly.⁴

69.9 a year.⁵ (See Table 4 in Appendix B and the calculations in footnotes 3 and 4). This means that parents spend more on their girls termly and yearly as compared to the amount they spend on their boys termly and yearly. One of the parents remarked;

“when I look at what I am supposed to buy for my girls before and during school time I am always scared to enrol the girls for the fear that I may not be able to meet the cost and this is a disgrace so I prefer she assists her mother in selling and buying so that I concentrate on the boy.”

This further shows that the cost associated with girls’ education prevents some parents to enrol the girls; they rather prefer the boy child to be enrolled because the cost of his education is lower than that of the girl. Also when households are in financial difficulty, the boy child stands the chance of being enrolled.

The study found that households apart from buying books, school uniform and paying PTA dues, they buy cotton for their girls to manage menstruation in school. One of the household heads in Savelugu Nanton remarked;

⁵ The calculation was obtained from the above tables. $3546 \div 152 = \text{GHc } 23.3$ and yearly expenditure approximately is 69.9 Ghana Cedis when multiply by three terms because three terms constitute an academic year in the Ghana Education Service.⁵

“I buy cotton wool too for my girls every month to manage their menstruation and this is an additional cost so far as their education is concerned.”

It can be interpreted that household heads spend more termly and yearly on the education of their girls’ as compared to the boys. The cost associated with girls education in the region is higher than the cost associated with boys education hence many parents are unable to meet the cost therefore, find it difficult to allow their girls to attend school and this widens the disparity in school attendance in favour of the boys.

It was found that the household heads give their girls chop “money” for school everyday in communities where the School Feeding Programme does not operate and this encourage many girls to attend school regularly. It was again found that the pupils who do not receive chop money for school were from schools where the School Feeding Programme operates in the region. The household heads attested to this in a response to a question relating to “chop money” for girls. Ninety three percent (93 percent) of the households give their girls “chop money” for school every day while 3.3 percent give every two days and three days respectively and 0.4 percent does not give at all. (See responses in Table 5 in Appendix B).

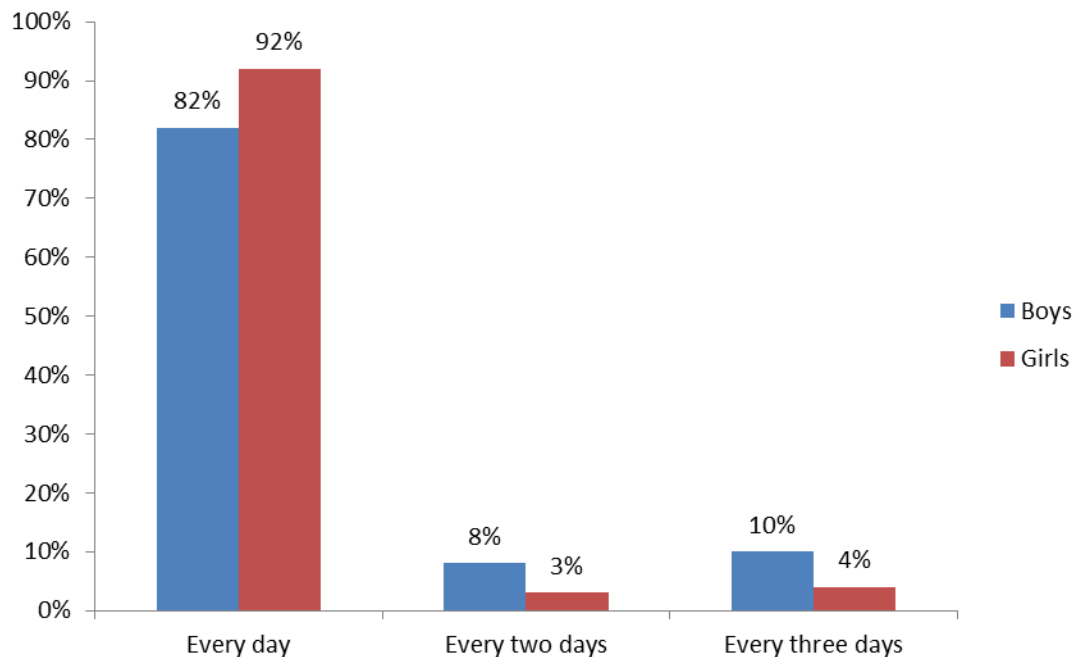
The pupils also supported the findings, 96 percent of them said that their parents give them chop money for school only 4 percent said they do not receive any “chop money” for school from their parents (See responses in Table 6 in Appendix B). Parents who give

their girls “chop money” in spite of the presence of the School Feeding Programme were educated parents and some were from Christian households. The inability of some parents to give money to their girls for school according to the study makes the girls run home anytime they are hungry. Some follow their friends to eat. These, according to the girls discourage them from attending school every day. One of the girls said;

“If my father does not give me chop money where will I get money to buy food and eat?”

Figure 5.4 further support the finding on the number of days household heads’ give their boys’ “chop money.” It also indicates the number of days, household heads gives boys and girls chop money for school.

Figure 5. 4: Number of Days Parents Give their Boys’ and Girls’ Money for School



Source: Author’s field survey (2012)

Figure 5.4 shows that 82 percent of households give their boys money for school every day as compared with 93 percent of households who give their girls money for school, 8 percent give their boys money every two days as compared with 3 percent who said they give girls money for school every two days in a week. Ten percent (10) said they give their boys money to school as compared with 4 percent of the parents who give their girls money. It can be observed that majority of the households give their girls money for school as compared with the boys. One of the parents said;

“Girls’ needs are more than boys and that the boys are always prepared to eat the left over at home before going to school as compared with the girls; the boys do not care if you do not give them “chop money”, more often than not I give my girls “chop money” for school.”

In a question relating to why parents cannot meet the cost of educating their girls, the study found that poverty is a major barrier to girls’ education in the Northern Region of Ghana. In this case, both boys and girls were affected. It was observed that the inability of some household heads to meet the cost associated with the girls’ education makes most of the household heads not to enroll the girl child or allow her to attend school.

The household heads confirmed these findings in a response to a question why parents are unable to meet the cost of educating the girls, 66 percent of the respondents said poverty is a constrain to meeting the cost of their girls education, 28.2 percent said because of low income they are unable to meet the cost of their girl’s education, 3.9 percent said unemployment and 1.9 percent said because of many children in the

household (See responses in Table 7 in Appendix B). It can be interpreted that poverty, low income and unemployment are all household factors affecting the education of childrens especially the girl child. When household heads incomes are high and overcome poverty, household heads will enrol their children in school especially the girl child.

Mathew (2000) supported the study when the author discussed many foctors which combine to spell an end to the education of the girl child. Among these are poverty, cost of voluntary contribution, school uniform, books and transport fares which can even make free education expensive. This widens the disparity in enrolment between boys and girls in the basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

5.3.2 Household Chores

It is observed in the households that specialisation of tasks is traditionally associated with gender. Girls in households are seen as future mothers, care takers and domestic managers while boys in the households are seen as future income earners. The conceptual frame in chapter four (Figure 4.2) has shown that household chores are one of the factors that create disparity in school attendance between males and females in basic schools. This current study examines the effect of household chores on girls' attendance to school as compared to boys' in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. The study found that the single most important factor that creates disparity among pupils in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana is the household chores especially in girls' non attendance or late attendance to school.

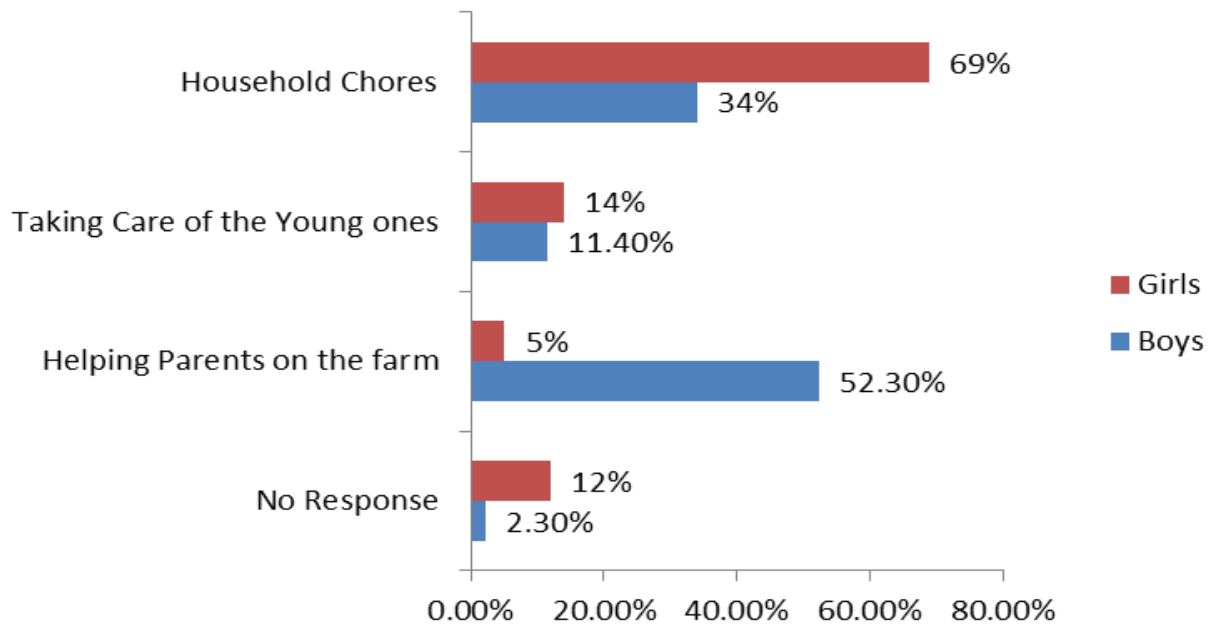
The pupils attested to this in their response to a question relating to household chores by gender (73.9 percent were female while 26.1 percent were male), they were all between the ages of 10-16 years (See Table 8 in Appendix B). The pupils explained that they have brothers and sisters who also assist them to work at home. Those who do not have brothers or sisters at home to assist them explained that they do the work alone. For those who have sisters and brothers, only 6.8 percent of them do not attend school regularly and those who do not have sisters and brothers to assist them, 93.2 percent of them do not attend school regularly (See Table 9 in Appendix B). Out of this percentage, 57.8 percent of them were boys and 42.2 percent of them were girls. This further shows a clear disparity in favour of the boys

It was found that the household chores included sweeping, fetching of water, helping mothers to cook, washing of bowls and clothings and taking care of young siblings.

One of the girls said in the interview;

“For me, I do a lot of work at home before going to school in the morning. Sometimes, I go to school late and I get punished by the teachers.”

Households engaged their children in some sort of work and this cut across all the religious groups, educated and non educated households, rural and urban dwellers and the various ethnic groups in the region. Figure 5.5 shows the sort of work both girls and boys do at home.

Figure 5.5: Work Girls and Boys do at Home

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

Figure (5.5) compares the type of work both females and males do at home. It indicates that 69.2 percent of the girls said that the most common work they do at home are the household chores as compared with 34 percent of boys who said they also take part in the household chores. Fifteen percent (15 percent) said they take care of their young siblings as compared with 11.4 percent of the boys. Five percent (5 percent) said they help their parents in the farm as compared to 52.3 percent of the boys who said they help their fathers on the farm at home.

The pupils admitted that they all do participate in all the three categories except that the household chores dominate in the work girls do at home as indicated in figure 5.6. It was

observed in the communities that there were boys seen herding livestock at the outskirts of the rural communities but none of the respondents mentioned it in response to the question. Some girls were also seen assisting their mothers in buying and selling during market days but none of the girls mentioned it. For mothers especially, allowing their girls to attend school means more domestic responsibilities for themselves which indirectly affect their income earning ability. As one of the parents said:

“Our girls work to free us for income generating activities or they work to subsidize our family income.”

The boys do more work on the farm as compared to the girls. One of the boys said:

“My parents do not put pressure on me to work at home, most of the work like washing of bowls, sweeping, fetching of water and fire wood are normally carried out by my sisters so the work I do at home does not make me to attend school late. If I am late for school or do not attend school is not as a result of the household chores.”

It can be interpreted that household chores are more often than not done by girls and apart from the chores affecting their school attendance more than the boys, buying and selling were other activities the girls engage themselves in which also negatively affect their school attendance. Boys herd livestock in the rural communities before attending school

in the morning and sometimes after school session and these also affect their school attendance and performance in class.

OXFAM (2005) studies in Zambia, Kenya, Mali, Cameroun and Uganda which showed that both girls and boys are equally involved in household chores and that the enrolment and attendance of boys are greatly affected by this burden. The situation in those countries is different from the situation in the Northern Region of Ghana. It can be recognized that though some boys do engage in household chores, the degree of engagement is not equal to the girls as claimed by OXFAM (2005).

Mathew (2000) supported the current study by noting that household chores have added to many factors that can combine to spell out the early end of girls' education. According to the author, if poor families consider how much a daughter can help in cleaning, cooking, collecting fire wood and water as well as looking after young siblings and how little opportunity there will be for her to get a paying job if she is educated. The household chores are preferred to sending the daughter to school and allowing her to attend. The author further added that even if the girl child is enrolled, the burden of domestic chores stands in a way of her educational progress, especially in school attendance.

In an interview, the girls explained that due to the enormity of household chores, they are unable to learn at home. Neither can they do their homework because they do not have enough time to do so. Regarding the number of hours used by girls at home, it was

observed that those hours were inefficiently used by many girls at home. Although the study did not employ any vigorous time series analysis to look at the number of hours both boys and girls use to study at home, a number of observations were made in each of the communities regarding the number of hours both boys and girls used to study at home.

Repeatedly, boys spent three hours to learn at home while the girls spend one hour twenty minutes. It was observed in all the communities that boys had one hour to study immediately after regular classes and two hours to study after seven o'clock in the night. The girls however had thirty minutes after regular classes and less than one hour after meals in the night. The remaining hours of the day for both boys and girls are used to assist their parents at home. A 12 years old girl said:

“I have only 1 hour to learn at home because of the work I do. I need more than 2 hours to learn and to do my homework.”

Supporting the finding in terms of the hours both boys and girls use to learn at home, the girls explained that the boys have more than 2 hours to study at home while they have less than 2 hours to learn at home. According to them, soon after school their parents engage them in household chores while the boys do their homework. The house chores continue till night and sometimes during week ends where they have to wash dirty bowls before they can do their homework. At times they have to leave the homework and sleep because of tiredness. The home work is left for the following morning and this negatively affects their performance at school.

On the contrary, the parents disagreed with their children. One of them (Madam Gloria) said;

“Despite the fact that we engage our girls at home to work more than the boys, they have some time that they can learn. Apart from the household work which takes some of their time, some of them spend their time playing, chatting and visiting their friends. In school, while many boys spend their time outside classroom discussing academic problems, girls may be seen or found in clusters gossiping and this negatively affects their performance in class as compared to their boys, therefore the poor performance by girls can not be attributed to household chores.”

The fact remains that, though both boys and girls had insufficient time to study the boys had more time to study than the girls at home and this affect their school attendance and performance as compared to the boys in school and this widens the disparity between boys and girls in school attendance and performance.

It was observed in the rural areas where some teachers live that the girls, apart from the insufficient time they have at home to study, also sometimes spend a great deal of time running errands for their teachers during and outside school hours. The headteachers could not deny this fact but only added that the time girls have at school is not efficiently used and their non-participating fully in the class discussion is attributed to the traditional practices which prohibit girls from entering into any discussions with boys. Instead, they

are only to listen, hence, the girls are not able to share with the rest of the class the ideas they may have and this discourages many girls from attending school.

Variables such as income, religion and marital status of household heads which are outlined in Figure 4.2 in chapter four all affect disparity in enrolment as described and explained in the earlier discussions but the researcher was not really clear the extent to which these variables affect disparity in enrolment. Religion and marital status were measured on the nominal scale while incomes of the household heads were measured on the interval- ratio scale. The purpose of the following crosstabulation in Table 5.5 is to explain how many girls' households were actually enrolled in school if other variables were held constant and which variable among the three contribute significantly to determine gender disparity in enrolment.

5.5 Income, Religion, Marital Status Cross-Tabulated with the Number of

Girls in School

Variables	No. of Girls Enrolled/ Per Household Head							Total
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Income	3	17	26	5	6	4	2	63
Religion	16	10	7	2	4	-	-	39
Marital status	28	13	4	2	-	3	-	50
Total	37	40	47	9	10	7	2	152

Source: SPSS generated data (2012)

Table 5.5 indicates a relationship between income, religion, marital status of household heads and the number of girls household heads are sending to school. It can be observed that all the variables have effects on girls' enrolment. When household heads earn high

income, a total of 63 girls will be enrolled in school at the basic level and if incomes are low, less than that number will be enrolled in school.

Three (3) household heads will not enrol any girl in school as compared to 16 girls for religion and 28 girls for marital status. 17 households will enrol 1 girl as compared to 10 girls for religion and 13 girls for marital status. 26 will enrol 2 girls as compared to 7 girls for religion and 4 girls for marital status. 5 households will enrol 3 girls as compared to 2 for religion and 2 for marital status. 6 households will enrol 4 girls as compared to 4 girls for religion and none for marital status. 4 households will enrol 5 girls as compared to none for religion and 3 for marital status and 2 households will enrol 6 girls as compared to none for religion and none for marital status.

The income of the household heads has more influence on the education of girls than the religion of the household heads. It was further observed that with religious affiliation of household heads, a total of 39 girls will be enrolled in school as compared to income if other variables are held constant. Marital status of household heads also has an influence on girls' enrolment. Table 5.5 shows that 50 girls will be enrolled if other variables are held constant. The contribution and significance of each variable can only be explained when it is regressed with the independent variable girls' enrolment. The result was therefore regressed to see which variable is really significant and also positively or negatively affect girls' enrolment in basic schools. The rationale was also to find out whether there is a significant relationship between gender disparity in girls' enrolment on

one hand and the incomes of households, their religion and their marital status on the other. The model below shows the summary of the entire regression.

Table 5.6 Summary of the OLS Result of Income, Religion and Marital Status of Household Respondents

Model: 1	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean squares	F	Significance
Regression	35.753	3	107.259	0.311	.000
Residuals	23.112	149	3443.688		
Total	58.865	152			

Source: Field data regressed using SPSS (2012)

Table 5.6 indicates the summary of the entire regression. It shows that with three variables (income, religion and marital status) regressing on gender disparity in enrolment of girls as a dependent variable the entire model is generally significant at (.000) when the sum of squares of the regression is divided by the means of the squares of the regression. The sum of squares is the fraction in the dependent variable that is predicted by the independent variables. It is secondary and less important in the study since the author is not testing any hypothesis and also interested in predictions. The purpose of Table 5.6 is to find out whether the variables are statistically significant at 5 percent and at 95% confidence level. .

Table 5.7 further indicates which variable specifically is significant at the various probability levels (0.05). The regression model ⁶shown below is statistically significant

⁶ Model is statistically significant at the probability levels of (0.5). Any variable with the probability value, less or equal to this is statistically significant and any value greater than this is not statistically significant.⁶

since the model indicates significance at 5 percent. Based on this premises, the religion (REL) of the household heads has the probability value of 0.55 that is (P= 0.55) and statistically not significant at 5%.

Table 5.7: OLS Result of the Effect of Income on Gender Disparity on Enrollment of Girls

Variables	Coefficient (Unstandardized)	P. values/Sig.	Confidence levels	Std. Error
Constant	2.01	.000		0.454
INC	3.702	.000	5%	0.01
REL	2.682	.055		0.001
MAR	.109	.232		-0.05

Source: field data regressed using SPSS (2012)

$GDE = \beta_0 + \beta_1 INC + \beta_2 REL + \beta_3 MAR + \varepsilon$. The regression will stand as $GDE = 2.01 + \beta_1 3.702 + \beta_2 2.682 + \beta_3 0.109 + 0.454 = 8.957$ approximately 9. This figure becomes the standard measure of the variables. This means that all the variables are expected to increase enrolment of girls by 8.957. It is observed from Table 5.7 that the variable religion will have an equation like this if income and marital status are held constant. $GDE = 2.01 + \beta_1 INC + \beta_2 2.682 + \beta_3 MAR + 0.001 = 4.693$ approximately 5 girls. The coefficient of REL. is positive (0.2682) indicating an increase in enrolment of girls by 5 if other variables are held constant in the model. It is also not significant at 0.05. Also, it further indicates that religion has a positive effect on girls' education, although there were few instances in both the Muslims and the traditionalist households where household heads down played the role that the girl child can play if given the formal

education. It can be interpreted that religion contributes positively to girls' education in the region but statistically not significant at 5%.

Incomes (INC) of household heads as observed on the regression model has the probability value of .000 that is ($P=.000$) and it is statistically significant at 0.05. This is an indication that the author was 95 percent confident that incomes of household heads determine the number of girls who will be enrolled and allowed to attend school. The equation is $GDE=2.01+ \beta_1INC+3.702+ \beta_2 REL+ \beta_3MAR+0.01=5.722$.

This means that approximately household income will increase enrolment by 6 if marital status and religion of household heads are held constant. This variable is very strong in this determination as compared with religion when other variables are held constant. The coefficient is positive, indicating a positive contribution to girls' enrolment, an added value of one to the variable in the regression means an increase in the number of girls who will be sent to school and a decrease value of one also means fewer girls will be in school. The study did not reveal that high incomes caused parity in basic schools in the region. The result on income was expected since it can be interpreted that when incomes of household heads are low, less number of girls will be enrolled and allowed to attend school if other variables are held constant. It is observed that the results do reflect exactly what is on the ground that incomes of household heads are invariably related to income levels and functions more as a proxy for poverty.

Marital Status (MAR) of household heads has a probability of .232 that is ($P = .232$) and a coefficient of (.109). The equation is $2.01 + \beta_1 \text{INC} + \beta_2 \text{REL} + \beta_3 0.109 + (-0.05) = 2.15$. This means that the marital status of the households is not significant at 0.01, 0.05 or 0.10 because the probability level of the variable is bigger than the significance levels and this was not expected. This variable in the regression seemed to be related to girls' enrolment, the coefficient being positive indicates a positive contribution to girls' enrolment. It increases the girls' enrolment by 2 if other variables like income and religion are held constant. The unexpected level of significance might have occurred by chance or due to an error in the regression.

5.3.3 Market Days and Gender Disparity in Attendance

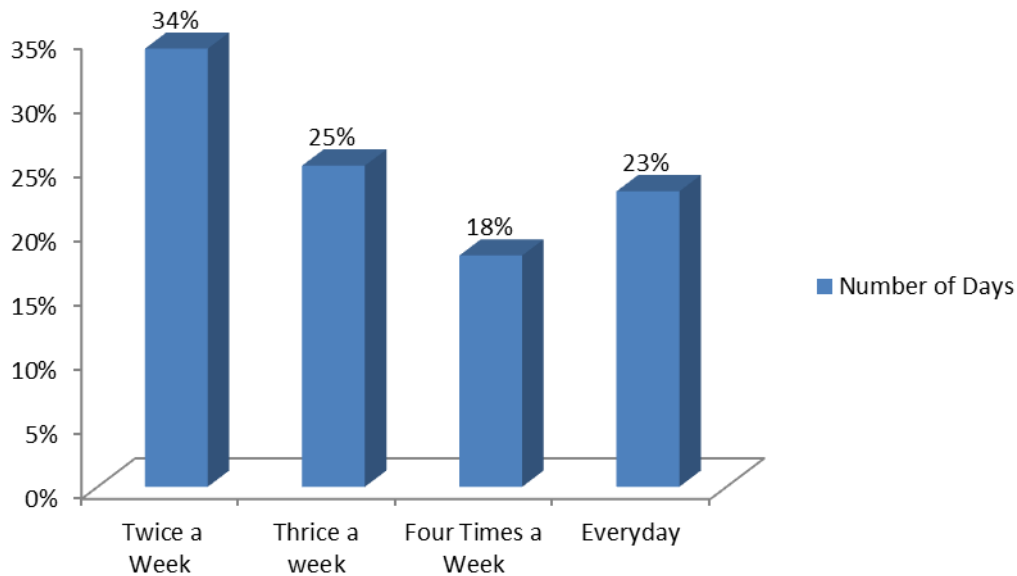
The study found that girls do not attend school on certain market days in the Northern Region of Ghana. They go to the market to sell their parents' wares. These market days were the Tamale market days, Techiman market days in some cases and the village or community market days. These market days are patronized by the people of the Northern Region of Ghana. The result from the school registers when cross-checked showed that girls absent themselves from school more than the boys on market days. It was observed that out of the total number of market days, the boys recorded a total of 211 market days while the girls recorded 110 market days in a year. It was observed that the disparity in attendance favored the boys, a total of 3,597 days for all boys put together and 2,528 for girls.

After an observation was made in each of the community, the girls were asked either confirm or deny the findings. In a response to a question relating to market days, 97.3

percent of the pupils responded that during these market days they do not attend school and 2.7 percent said they do attend in the morning and run home during the first break in order to go to the market (See Table 10 in Appendix B). There is one market day in a week in each community and in addition to the Tamale and Techiman market days, one could count three market days in a week, which if multiplied by four weeks one arrives at 12 market days in a month. It can be further multiplied by 9 to get the number of market days in a year. There are therefore 108 market days in a year holding other official and unofficial holidays constant. The girls further supported the findings in a response to a question relating to the number of days they attend school in a week as a result of the market days, the following chart shows weekly attendance by girls as a result of market days.

Figure 5.6: Number of days Girls attends school in a Week as a result of Market

Days



Source: Author's field survey (2012)

Figure 5.6 shows that 34 percent of the girls attend school only two days in a week, 25 percent said they attend school three days in a week, 18 percent of the girls said they attend school four times in a week and 23 percent said they attend everyday even during market days. These responses further explain the reasons for gender disparity in attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region. In comparison, the study did not find any situation where the boys are asked by their parents to sell wares at any market day.

The boys explained that they do not go to the market to sell anything with their parents and it is their sisters who go with their mothers. During the interview with the headteachers, they explained that the situation in which the girl child has found herself in the Northern Region is considered excessively exploitation, harmful and detrimental to her education and development. It is also a hindrance to her preparation to adult roles and responsibilities.

Bia Zen and Jung (1988) cited in Theresa and Heneveld (1993) supported the current study by explaining that in Northern Nigeria, parents depend on their daughters to help with the market activities. According to the authors, mothers in Northern Nigeria depend on their girls to sell their wares on the street and in the market therefore, allowing these girls to attend school regularly may curtail their income generating activities.

5.4 Socio-Cultural and Contextual Challenges of Gender Disparity

5.4.1 Early Marriage

The constitutional age for early marriage in most African countries is 18 years. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW), the most comprehensive international bill of rights for women states that any betrothal or marriage of a child should have legal status. The Committee that monitors

this convention states further in General Recommendation 21 (Article 16(2)) that the minimum age for marriage for both male and female should be 18 years, the age when girls and boys have attained full maturity and capacity to act. This age limitation was not binding on all countries and that a country could decide on the average age at which her young males and females get married (UNO 2002).

The legal minimum age for marriage of whatever kind in Ghana is 18 years under the 1985 Marriage Ordinance Act 127. This age limitation was used in the study for the fact that many girls in the Northern Region marry before attaining 18 years as reported by FAWE (2001). According to the researcher's own operational definition, early marriage refers to any form of marriage that takes place before a child has reached the age of 16 years. It includes some element of force, sometimes without the full knowledge or consent of both the boys and the girls. The author has also recognized the fact that a child below the age of 16 years sometimes can choose to freely marry with or without the consent of the parents. A child has the right to refuse betrothal, to be a subject of a dowry or transaction and to be married under 18 years (1985 Marriage Ordinance Act 127). In cases where juveniles are forced to marry, action is instituted at the Law Court and the parents of the juvenile together with the would-be-husband are restrained from executing the marriage.

The 1985 Marriage Ordinance Act 127 of Ghana makes the legal age for marriage as 18 years for girls and 21 years for boys respectively. Customary practices in certain parts of the country lead to both early betrothal and marriage of girls. Where it can be proven that

the girl's consent to an early customary marriage was absent, a prosecution for forcible marriage can be carried out. Many females do not know that they have the right to refuse early marriage; many feel compelled to cohabit with a man by circumstances such as poverty. Public education is geared towards educating families about the health hazards of early marriage to the girls and encouraging parents/guardians to allow girls to go to school and spend more years in school before marrying and starting families.

Early marriage and children betrothal are all among the many key factors in the society that affect both boys and girls' access and participation in basic education in the Northern Region of Ghana as stated in the conceptual framework (Figure 4.2 in chapter four). The researcher operationalized child betrothal as a formal state of promise of marriage and the selection of the bride is usually done by the couple's families with bride and groom having no knowledge at all until they attain maturity. In this case both boys and girls are affected.

The study found that girls' marrying before the age of sixteen years is a common practice in the region as compared to the boys and this negatively affects girls' school attendance more than the boys. This practice is also against the Capability and Social Justice in education theory which has explained that any action by parents which does not recognize girls as having equal capability as boys is discriminatory and that both boys and girls should be allowed freely to consider what they think is valuable to their livelihood in society. It was observed in almost all the rural areas that girls and boys who are 16 years were seen with their spouses. Indeed, some girls in this category were seen

nursing babies and they were out of school. One of the girls who got married before the age of sixteen years and stopped schooling confirmed the findings by explaining in an exclusive interview with the researcher.

“Alima” aged fourteen (14) years was seen carrying a baby in Nyolgu a community in Savelugu-Nanton District. She had this to say:

“I was living with my senior sister and her husband in Tamale. One day my mother asked my sister to let me come to the village. Immediately I arrived in the village, the following day, my mother told me that my father has decided that I got married to Yakubu whom I have never known before. I had no option than to agree. The following week, Yakubu’s father came to our house and begged my hand in marriage and that resulted to my current situation. I was not able to continue my education because by then, I was in class six in Tamale. When I got married, my husband said that I cannot attend school again now that I am married.”

Attempts were made to contact Yakubu who declined to speak. The household heads also confirmed the findings in a response to a question relating to early marriage and its effects on schooling. Eighty seven percent (87 percent) of the household heads confirmed that they do give out their daughters for marriage before they attain 16 years, out of this percentage, 56 percent of the respondents were in the rural communities while 43.3 percent were in the urban areas. Thirteen (13) percent said they do not give out girls for early marriage Those household heads who practice early marriage explained that marriage as an institution is much cherished in the society and that parents want their

daughters to get married early and take the name of another family immediately and this is a prestige to many families therefore, investing in the education of the girl child will only benefit the family of her prospective husband.

Those household heads who do not practice early marriage were mostly Christians, except in Saboba Chereponi District where many of the Christians said their daughters sometimes marry before they attain 16 years of age. They further added that there is no difference in returns of their educated boys and girls; what they do know is that highly educated girls in their society always have their bride-price higher as compared to the less educated girls. Parents allow their girls to acquire the best education before they get married. According to them, early marriage may end a girl's education; she may not be able to combine her studies with matrimonial task, she may even find it difficult to attend school and learn. All these factors contribute to widen the disparity in school attendance between her and her male counterparts. It can be explained that early marriage is a common practice in the rural areas and cherished so much among Muslim and Traditional homes. Though, both boys and girls were involved in the practice in the rural areas, the practice affects girls' school attendance more than the boys which sometimes leads to the withdrawal of the girl child from school.

A study by Junge in Kenya in 1988 (cited in Odaga and Haneveld 1995) confirms the current study in the Northern Region. The author noted that actions including early marriage compete with school for girls in most societies in Africa and that the age at which girls marry make marriage an important institution in the society. El-sanabary

studies in Zaire (2001) did not support the study. In Zaire, the higher bride-wealth paid for educated girls are one of the reasons that parents in Zaire send their daughters to school. The study did not find this and therefore the situation in Zaire is different from the situation in the Northern Region. The current study does not show that there is a correlation between higher education for girls and their bride-price. As to whether the household heads practice child betrothal in their communities, 43 percent responded in the affirmative while 57 percent responded in negative.

Those who practice early marriage in the region were mainly found in Saboba Chereponi District, parts of Bimbila and parts of Bole (mainly inhabited by Konkombas) Districts. These districts recorded the highest in terms of child betrothal (37 percent out of 43 percent of those who practice it) and Bole recorded the lowest (6.0 percent). In these districts, households who practice it either have their daughters withdrawn from school or are not allowed by the prospective husbands to attend school regularly. One of the victims in an exclusive interview ‘Usanpun’ (Gloria) aged (11) years in Wunjuga, a community in the Saboba District confirmed the current study. She had this story to tell.

“I was raised by both my parents in this community. My father always tells me that my husband’s name is Daja-ari who is in Obuasi working in the mines. I had never seen him before. When I asked my father how the man he refers to became my husband, he said that, he gave me to him immediately I was born and therefore, at the appropriate time he will come for me. My father added that my husband said I should not be sent to school because somebody might snatch me from him.”

Those who practice it further explained that it is better for the girl to know who the husband is while attending school. It is also the responsibility of the husband to take good care of the girl while in school. They added that in many families, girls who are betrothed are not enrolled because their husbands are unable to take care of them in school and the decision to continue school if even enrolled or withdrawn from school lies heavily on the shoulders of the prospective husband.

Fifty seven percent (57 percent) of the households which do not practice it explained that the prospective husband will not allow the girl to be enrolled in school; she may not even be able to compete with the marital responsibilities at home and at school. The study found that many girls were not enrolled in Saboba District because their husbands could not afford the financial obligations associated with girls' education.

Ministry of Education report (2010) further confirmed the study. The report indicates that in the Northern Region of Ghana, girls in the school going age are given out for marriage at tender ages. Some are betrothed at the age of 2 years and this leads to non-enrolment of girls in the schools. If even enrolled, they drop out because of pressures from their families to go and stay with their husbands. This report was too general. The current study only found the practice in Saboba, Chereponi and some parts of Bimbila Districts as well as part of Bole District.

Ahamed et al. (2000) noted that in Ethiopia, 20 percent of primary school girls were either promised marriage or divorced. In this case, both girls and boys were affected. The situation in Ethiopia is not so different from the current study in the Northern Region of

Ghana; the only difference is that child betrothal in the Northern Region was not the most common reason for non enrolment of girls in schools as reported in Ethiopia. This study did find that both boys and girls were promised marriage and not divorced in the Northern Region of Ghana. As one of the boys in Bole Mathew aged (15) said in an exclusive interview. *“I got married when I was 3 years old. This was the marriage I did not know about until my father told me that he and my wife’s father arranged it when we were all infants. I am still in school but I know it will be difficult for me to acquire higher education because of my situation.”* Another socio-cultural factor that affects the education of children is polygyny. This variable is also outlined in the conceptual framework (See Figure 4.2 in page four).

5.4.2 Polygyny

The author’s operational definition of polygyny is the practice of having more than one wife at the same time. It is the practice whereby a man marries two, three or four wives. According to Robertson and Berger (2004) the practice of polygyny has its roots from the African Traditional Religion and was Islam was introduced in the Northern Region it gave credence to the practice. The study revealed that polygyny is widely practiced in the Northern Region and negatively affects children’s education, especially school enrolment and attendance.

The study further found that when Islam was introduced as a religion in the region it gave credence to the practice of polygyny; it has restricted its followers up to four wives. On the contrary, African Traditional Religion encourages a man to marry more than four wives. In an interviews with “Mba Alaru” in Buya in East Gonja District and “Mba

Nindoo” in Kuyilli in the Zabzugu Tatale District confirmed further how polygyny affect girls’ enrolment and attendance in education. The following narrations were given. Mba Alaru aged (58) years is a Muslim living in the community mentioned above. He has 4 wives with fourteen children nine girls and five boys. Out of the nine girls only two are attending school in Tamale the rest of the children only assist their parents in the market and on the farm. The two girls who attend school live with Mba Alaru’s junior brother in Tamale. When Mba Alaru was interviewed and asked why his children are not enrolled and allowed to attend school. He had this to say:

“I live with my four wives and twelve children. My only source of income is what I get from the farm. I need to feed my wives and the children at all times so, if I send my children to school, who is going to assist me again on the farm? Again, he added, I regret that my father did not send me to school and it was the same problem he faced when I was young... my inability to send my children to school is as a result of the number of wives I have, it is Islamic teaching that I can not refuse.”

The author was able to interview one of the wives of Mba Alaru, “Mma Ashetu” (third wife of Mba Alaru) and one of Mba Alaru’s children (Amina aged (9) years). Mma Ashetu aged (40) years said

“I would have wished that my children are enroled in school but I look up... to my husband, the decision is his. Anytime he decides that they should go to school, I will be very happy” Mba Alaru’s daughter Amina said *“My father did not send me to school and anytime I see my friends*

going to school I become sad. One day I asked my father to send me to school and he told me that if he sends me and my siblings to school he can not take care of us and our mothers.”

Apart from the interview, the household heads confirmed the study in a response to a question relating to how the practice affects girls' education, 75.7 percent of the household heads said that it has a negative effect on girls' education as compared to monogamy (A man marries only one wife) while 24.3 percent said it does not negatively affect their girls' education they explained that except instances where the family's resources are limited, then, they have no option than to enrol the boy child or prefer the boy to be enrolled. About 1% of the respondents did not answer the question relating to polygyny. Households with monogamous families, most of them being Christians (86.7 percent), explained that the resources that they will have hitherto used to maintain the other wives are used to better educate their girls. In this case both boys and girls are affected as compared to polygynous families where resources are divided into taking care of the wives and investing in the girls' education.

Mba Nindoo was also interviewed in relation to the effects of polygyny on children education. He was sixty-three years old and practice African Traditional Religion. He had four wives with twenty-eight children (seven girls and twenty-one boys) who were currently in the house with Mba Nindoo. 5 children out of 28 children were children of his two wives he divorced some time ago, so in all, Mba Nindoo had 28 children from 6 women (7 girls and 21 boys). In an interview with Mba Nindoo, he said:

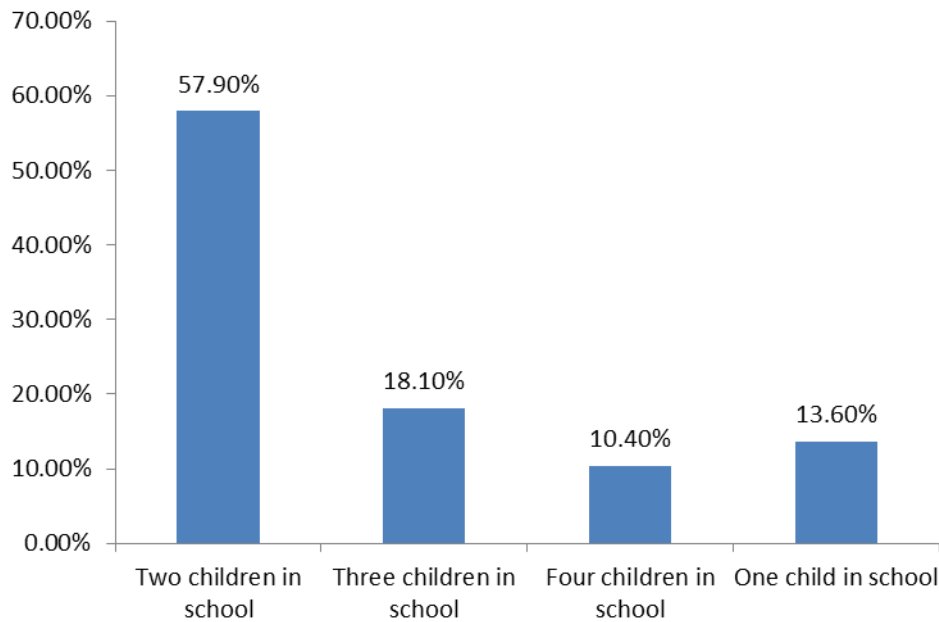
“It is a duty for me to have many wives and many children, so that I can join my ancestors when I die... You see my son, with the number of wives and children I have now, can I send all these children to school? The boys work on my farm to feed the family and the girls assist their mothers in the farm and in the market. My male children are all farmers and three of my... daughters are all married and are staying with their husbands. I know that all my children will survive without education because, my late father never attended school he had 40 of us and we all survived. I want to also reach where my father got to before I died.”

Attempts were made to interview at least one of the wives but the wives insisted that what their husbands told me is the fact and that they had nothing to add, also, none of the children was at home as at the time of visit.

The study did not find out why monogamous marriages were found mostly in the Christian households as compared to the Muslims and African Traditionalist households in the region but FAWE (2001) in the literature explained that Christians largely maintain monogamous marriages in Ghana. Few instances were observed among some Christians in Saboba and Chereponi where some Christians married more than one wife and some had concubines outside their matrimony. Those with many wives explained that their action was purely part of their traditional values and not the religion they belong to. The study further found that the negative effect of polygyny on girls' enrolment and

attendance were only worse at the basic school level. FAWE (2001) supported this assertion by noting that at the tertiary level in Ghana, 56.8 percent of the girls from the three Northern Regions were from polygynous families and only 13.3 percent of them were from monogamous families.

It can be interpreted that majority of Muslims throughout the Northern Region of Ghana practice Polygyny and this is often cited as one of the many reasons why gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools still exists in the Northern Region of Ghana, especially in the Muslim dominated areas because many children of the school going ages are still not in school. Muslims in the region cherish polygyny to the extent that those with only one wife are being considered as bachelors. The practice of polygyny though a cultural phenomenon has a documentation in the Islamic religion. The current results on polygyny show that there are still Muslims in the region who do not still enrol their daughters' and allow them to attend school and this violates the saying of the prophet Mohammed that "*Seeking of knowledge is compulsory upon both men and women.*" Although questions were not purposively design to test the relationship between polygyny and the number of girls' household heads will enrol in school. In a response to the question by household heads as to how many children are in school as a result of the practice of polygyny, figure (5.8) presents the findings.

Figure 5.7: Number of Children in Polygynous Families in School

Source: Authors field survey (2012)

The result shows that 57.9 percent said two children are in school, 18.1 percent said three are in school, 10.4 percent said four boys and 13.6 percent said one child is in school. It was observed from the households that out of the number of children in the polygynous families who are in school, only an average of three girls are in school as compared with an average of seven boys in school. There were many children in those households and household with single wives recorded few children, especially in Christian households. Men with many wives had many responsibilities and when it comes to which child should be sent to school, the girl child stands at a disadvantage.

Confirming this current study, Robertson and Berger (2004) noted that women in polygynous families bear the large burden of educating their children (both boys and

girls). The author added that the girl child stands at a disadvantage when it comes to which child should be withdrawn from school in these families. This situation is not different in the Northern part of Ghana. Relating the effects of polygyny to fostering, both the girl child and the boy child in urban areas stand at a disadvantage. Both girls and boys are given to other relatives in the urban area to take care of. This practice is very common in the Northern Region of Ghana.

5.4.3 Fostering

Fostering may have different definitions, for the purpose of the study, the operational definition is the act of providing parental care and nurture to children who are not biologically related to the foster parent but who are children of the extended family members. In a question relating to whether fostering is practiced in households, the household heads confirmed this in the responses below. A total of 91 percent of the household heads said that they practice fostering but added that both boys and girls are sometimes given out to other relatives either in the urban or rural areas to take care of. While only 9 percent said they do not practice fostering (See Table 11 in Appendix B). Out of the percentage of households which practice fostering, 67.8 percent of the household heads were from rural areas while 31.2 percent were from urban areas.

Foster mothers and fathers in many cases do not allow their foster children to attend school. The girl child is mostly affected than the boy child. It was further observed that the practice is more in the rural areas as compared to the urban areas. Those who practiced it explained that it aims at maintaining the extended family system and also

foster unity among relatives. Majority of the people in the rural areas give out their children to other relatives in the urban areas to take care of as the percentage showed. Some of these relatives do not allow these children to attend school because they might not be able to complete household chores themselves. Where they are enrolled in school at all, they are sometimes withdrawn before attaining the basic school certificate.

These girls tend to be house-helpers in the urban areas and are not allowed to attend school. It was difficult getting out- of- school children to interview but the researcher was able to get “Sanatu” aged eleven (11) and whose narration confirmed the findings. Sanatu ‘was out of school and currently staying with her aunt in Saboba. She had this to share with the researcher

“I stayed with my father’s sister for almost seven years now. I stopped schooling when I was in class three because my aunt said she has no money to let me continue my education, but I noticed that my aunt’s first child is in secondary school in Tamale and her other two children are in Yendi with their father attending school. When my mother visited us in Saboba I told her and she said, she will discuss it with my aunt since then I have not heard anything again.”

“Sanatu” further explained that the treatment she goes through in the hands of the aunt made her perform poorly when she was in school. The paradox of the issue is that these parents do allow their own biological children to attend school and prevent their foster

girls from going to school. It was further found that it is not in all cases that foster parents do not enrol their foster children in school. “Alimatu” aged (14) who stayed in Tamale who with her foster mother said;

“I stay with my aunt in Tamale but she does not joke with my education and my other siblings; we all attend school at the same time, it is only when we are to do house chores that she discriminates against me. She will over burden me with more work which sometimes makes me to get to school late and sometimes I cannot concentrate in class.”

Darkwah’s (2010) studies in Ghana also supports the current study. The author noted that fostering is an old cultural practice in Ghana and that many Ghanaians are raised by other relatives but the practice does not augur well for girls since most of them are denied access to education. As to whether the parents in the rural areas are aware of the situation of their daughters in the urban areas in relation to their education, 80 percent of the household heads explained that they are aware but taking their daughters back may create disunity among the extended family systems. They further explained that most of them went through the same fate by being raised by other relatives.

Twenty (20) percent of the household heads said they are not aware of the situation of their daughters but explained that should the girls run back to them because of maltreatment they may not be sent back. It can be interpreted that it is not in all situations that foster children are not enrolled in school. The difficulty is that those enrolled do not

attend school on time because they are overburden with household chores. The phenomenon is practiced more in the rural areas as compared to the urban communities in the region, some foster mothers do allow their foster children to attend school, but the fact remains the same; these mothers do not treat the foster children and their biological children equally and this affects their school attendance if they are enrolled.

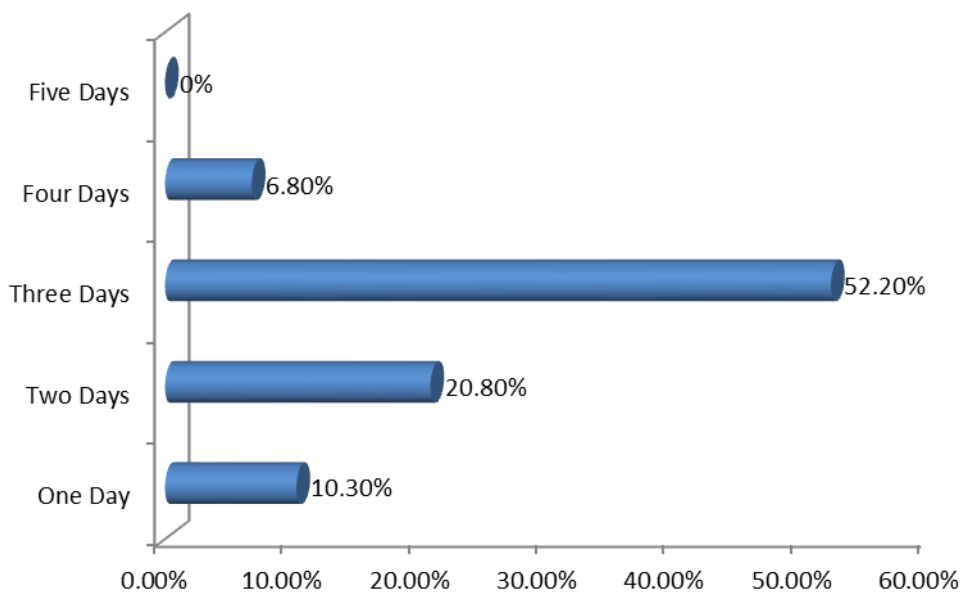
5.4.4 Menstruation

Menstruation is a natural event experienced by women during certain times of their lives. Yet, it is often a topic which is seldomly and openly discussed. The study revealed that many girls lack sufficient or accurate knowledge about menstruation. The parents often have misunderstanding and mistaken beliefs passed on by their families and communities. Many women do not understand the purpose of menstruation and what happens in their bodies during menstruation. They do not attend school during this period because of cramps that is associated with menstruation. The household heads and the pupils attested to this in a response to a question relating to the negative effects of menstruation on attendance.

In a question relating to the awareness by household heads of the effects of menstrual cramps on their girl's school attendance, 80 percent of the household heads attested to the fact that menstruation is a factor affecting girls' school attendance and they were fully aware of it whilst 20 percent of them said they were not aware of the effects on attendance. When the pupils in class six and the JHS were asked whether they have ever menstruated, 64 percent of the girls responded in the affirmative while 38 percent never menstruated. Those who ever menstruated explained that they experienced many

symptoms such as headache, restless, pains and sometimes abnormal pains during menstruation. As to whether their conditions affect their attendance, they explained that the pains they normally go through sometimes prevent them from attending school. They sometimes do not want to go closer to their boy counterparts during this period because, if they get to know that they are menstruating they will tease them and laugh at them and this discourages many of them from attending school. In a response to a question on how many days the girls absent themselves from school as a result of the experiences during menstruation, the following figure shows the responses.

Figure 5.8: Absence from School as a result of Menstruation in Days/Per Month



Source: Author's field survey (2012)

Figure 5.8 shows that 10.3 percent of the girls do not attend school in a day during menstruation in a month. Twenty-one percent said they absent themselves only two days in a month, while 52.3 percent said they absent themselves three days in a month and 6.8

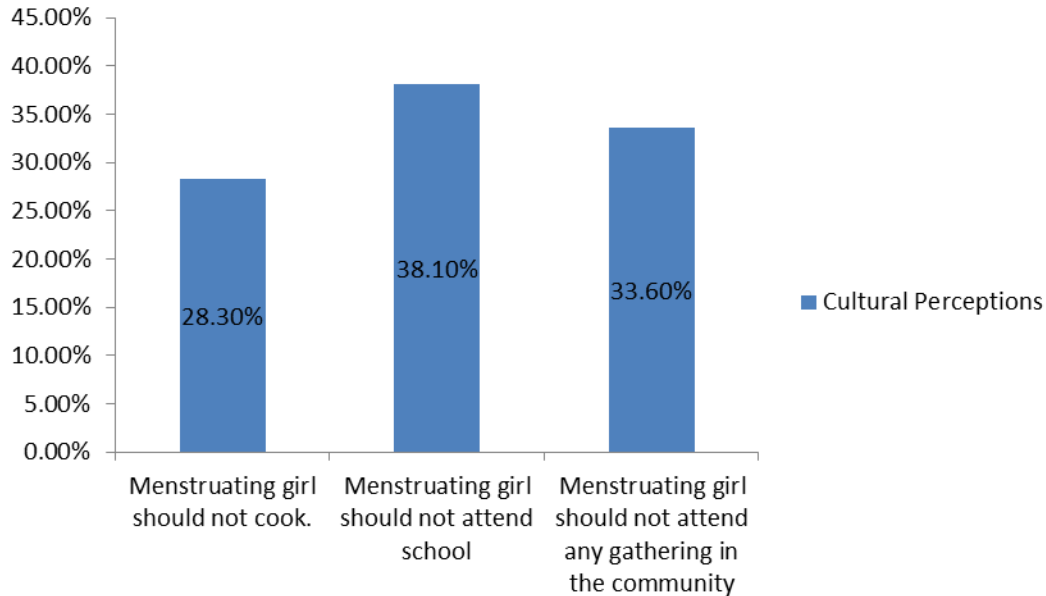
percent do not attend school four days in a month. The study revealed that the absence of girls from school in a month ranges between one day and four days. None of the girls absented her self from school for five days.

It was observed that the number of days vary since the girls do not experience the same problems during menstruation. The girls further explained that the condition in which they find themselves even, if they attend school, prevent them from participating in class and in extra curriculum activities like sports and debates. One of the girls aged (14) said:

“I do not attend School when I am menstruating. I experience painful menstruation all the time so my parents are aware of my situation. At times I do not attend school 3 days during menstruation”

As to whether the female teachers discuss menstruation with them at school, 67 percent of the girls said they do not discuss it with them while 33 percent said they sometimes discuss it with them.

The study further found that at home, 56 percent of parents do not discuss menstruation with their girls while 44 percent said their parents discuss menstruation with them. This responses cut across all households (Christian, Muslim, urban or rural). In a response to a question relating to perceptions of households heads about menstruation and how these perceptions affect the girls’ educational and psychological development. Figure 5.9 presents the responses.

Figure 5.9: Perceptions about Menstruation

Source: Author's field survey (2012)

The figure (5.9) indicates that household heads hold a strong perception about a menstruating girl in the Northern Region. Thirty four (34 percent) of the respondents said that when a girl is menstruating, she is not supposed to attend any public gathering in the community or elsewhere; 38 percent said she is not supposed to attend school while 28 percent said she is not supposed to cook food. It was observed that these perceptions were strongly held in the rural areas of the Northern Region where African Traditional Religion was highly practiced.

The Christian and the Muslim household heads did not hold these perceptions. The household heads explained that girls during this period are considered unclean. This does

not deter them from active participation in public affairs. When the girls were interviewed about what they think about these perceptions, 91.8 percent of them explained that these beliefs and perceptions about menstruation affect them psychologically and their emotional development in school hence their inability to catch up with their male counterparts in attendance and performance. It can be explained that not all the girls experienced the same problems during menstruation, many girls absent themselves during this period because of the persistent headaches and this widens the disparity in school attendance in favour of the boys.

5.4.5 Funeral Celebration

One of the most solemn events in life is when a loved one dies. It is therefore not surprising that in many communities in Ghana funeral rites are performed in honour of the departed soul. Christians, Muslims and African Traditionalists all perform funeral rites in different ways. The current study was not intended to find out how these religions celebrate funeral but how the activities affect school attendance in the Northern Region of Ghana.

5.4.6 Funerals and School Attendance

The study observed that the people of the Northern Region adore the dead and commit so much food and resources to performing funeral rites. The study further found that during the performance of funeral rites, pupils in both the primary and JHS schools do not attend school because they are asked by their parents to assist the bereaved families in cooking, fetching of water and firewood. This was found in the Muslim communities in the

Northern Region. In this case, the facts from the school registers showed that the girls are affected more than the boys in school attendance. It was found that the funeral rites in Muslims and Traditional households are performed in 5 days in a year if other cases of death are held constant in the region.

The day (1st) in which the death occurs, the third (3rd) day in which the relatives of the deceased who are far and near will gather for first prayers to be said for the deceased, the seventh (7th) day in which the family and the “malams” will say prayers for the dead, by this time it is believed that all relatives, especially those far from home have all arrived, the 40th day after the death and exactly a year after the death. In all these days prayers the dead person is remembered and sacrifices are made for the departed soul (1st 3rd day, 7th day, 40th day and yearly rites).

The researcher had witnessed funeral rites in Kpatiga and Wundua communities (Muslim Communities) on Monday and Thursday respectively and it was observed that the school recorded low attendance of pupils, especially girls as compared to the boys. Cross-checking from the registers of Kpatiga JHS in Gushegu Karaga District and Wundua Primary School in East Mamprusi District of the two days within the week of funerals rites, it was observed that out of the total of 2,150 weekly attendance of both boys and girls of the two schools, the girls had a total of 760 attendances for the week while the boys had a total 1,200 attendances. (Individual total attendance of boys and girls for the week was taken into consideration).

The researcher compared the total attendance from the registers of the two schools in Saboba/ Chereponi (Gbemja Primary) and West Mamprusi (Duu Primary) in the week in which no funeral rites were performed in the two communities and realized that there was disparity in school attendance between the boys and the girls. Out of a total of 2,140 school days the girls recorded 955 total attendances while the boys recorded 1,185 total attendances. Though there was still disparity in the week of non funeral rites, the disparity gap was wide in the week of the funeral rites in favour of the boy-child.

On these days, it was again observed that the girls were asked by their parents to fetch water and firewood for the bereaved families while some boys absented themselves when there was drumming and dancing. The headteachers though were not definite in their responses confirmed the findings during the interview. Eighty-nine percent (89 percent) of the headteachers explained that during the performance of funerals in their communities about 70-80 percent of girls do not attend school.

The headteachers further explained that some boys do assist the bereaved family in firewood gathering and fetching of water and that the majority of them absent themselves when there are cultural drumming and dancing. The remaining 11 percent of the headteachers' explained that though they are aware of the fact that some households do not allow their daughters to attend school during the performance of funeral rites, some do allow their girls to attend during these celebrations because they know how it will negatively affect their girls' education. The pupils also supported the observation when the girls were asked about the number of days they absent themselves from school during funerals. Ten percent (10 percent) said the day the person died, 21 percent said the day

the person dies and the third day; 39 percent said the day the person dies the third day and the seventh day. Ten (10) percent said the day the person dies the third day the seventh day and the 40th day and 20 percent said the day the person dies the third day the seventh day the 40th day and the day in which the yearly rites are performed (See Table 12 in Appendix B).

According to the girls, these days are very important to them because their parents always ask them to go to the bereaved family to assist in cooking, fetching of water and gathering of firewood. The pupils confirmed what their headteachers earlier said in the interview. It was difficult calculating the actual number of days girls are likely to absent themselves from school as a result of funeral celebration because deaths are always unexpected and one does not know when it comes.

It can be explained that funeral rites affect school attendance of children from the Muslim and the Traditional African Religions households negatively as compared with the children from the Christian households; and this is more pronounced in the rural areas than in the urban areas. In Tamale, for instance, the non school attendance is restricted to only the girls of the immediate family of the deceased and the relatives who are around. In supporting the observation made, one of the Christians said;

“Our funerals negatively affect our children school attendance on only the day of the death, but we do allow our children to attend school in subsequent days. In this case both boys and girls are affected.”

One of the headteachers in the Tolon Kumbungu District precisely Dalun Ahmadiya Primary School headteacher said;

“The celebrations of these funerals in our communities more often than not make us to enjoy unofficial holidays because the pupils will not come to school”.

In this case both boys and girls were affected and as to whether Ghana Education Service is aware of “unofficial” holidays, the responses were affirmative. It can be explained that the performance of funerals in the region is an important aspect of the people’s lives; it does unite families and foster unity among them. On the other, it creates disparity in school attendance in favour of the boys in basic school since many girls do not attend school during the performance of these funerals. It makes the girl child to lag behind that of the boy child in school and this does not augur well for the participation of the girls in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

5.4.7 Festival Celebration

Festivals in the Northern Region occur within the whole year and are used as a means to remember the ancestors. They are also held to purify the community and allow its people to go into the new-year with hope. The rituals and the celebration are important part of daily life and can be easily seen by large gatherings that are usually seen in funerals and marriage ceremonies. In the Northern Region of Ghana, there are two festival celebrations in a year and the ethnic groups like the Dagombas, Gonjas, Mamprusi,

Nanumba and the Konkombas celebrate these festivals. The current study investigated how the activities involved in these celebrations affect school attendance in the Northern Region of Ghana.

5.4.8 Festivals Celebration and School Attendance

This study revealed that the “Damba” festival is not celebrated by the Christian households but Christians who belong to the ethnic groups mentioned earlier celebrate the “Bugum” or fire festival. There was therefore uniformity in the activities involved in the celebration. The celebrations of these festivals involve a display of a colourful tradition of the people in the region.

The study further revealed that during the celebration of these festivals both boys and girls do not attend school; the girls are more affected than the boys. Checking from the school registers, it was observed that the “Bugum” festival only lasts for one day the process starts from morning and ends in the evening. The school registers for 2010/2011 academic year of the various schools revealed that the days for the “Bugum” and the “Damba” (including the “Somo” and the “Naa” Damba) for the year were not marked meaning all children were absent from school. The average attendance for both boys and girls in Gushegu/ Karaga, Bimbila, Bole and Tolun Kumbungu decreased by four days, when compared with the 2009/2010 as well as 2008/2009 academic years. The girls’ attendance was far below that of the boys therefore disparity in attendance was in favour of the boys (1,432 and 2,134 respectively).

The headteachers, in an interview, supported this finding by acknowledging that festivals are very necessary in the Ghanaian society but added that they negatively affect school attendance of pupils in the basic schools in the region. In the same interview the headteachers explained that during the celebration of the festivals like the “bugum” and the “Damba” in the Northern Region, both boys and girls do not attend school.

The girls stay at home to cook, and fetch water for their families on this occasion and prepare to dance and sing at the chief’s palace in the evening. Not all the boys remain at home, some do attend school but run home before the school closes. When the household heads were asked whether their children are allowed to attend school during these festivities they confirmed the findings. 87.8 percent said they do not allow them to attend while 12.2 percent said they do allow them to attend, especially, the boys. As to why they do not allow them to attend school, they explained that during these days the girls are supposed to cook, fetch water and firewood. They again explained that some of the girls go to the nearby urban communities such as Tamale, Yendi, Damongo, Gushegu, Bole, and other urban areas to dance at the chief place. The festivals, especially, “the Damba” festival last for one week but only the “Somo Damba” (Preparatory Damba) and the “Naa Damba” (Chief Damba) that both boys and girls absent themselves from school.

In the rural areas, the headteachers explained that the “unofficial” holidays of these festivals disrupt their academic calendar since they do not know the exact dates of the festivals. They further explained that even the death of an important person in the community calls for “unofficial” holiday because both boys and girls are affected in this

regard. Additionally, the study revealed that during the enskinment of regents or chiefs, attendance of the girl -child is poor as compared with the boy child.

The headteachers explained the reasons for this phenomenon by stressing that during this time families asked their girls to cook, fetch water and firewood for the occasion and this further widens the disparity in attendance between the boys and girls in the basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. In a response to the question relating to unofficial holidays during this period, District Directors said that it is a tradition and that they allow it because they do not want to have problems with the community chiefs since they are also partners in education. It can be interpreted that festivals though a cultural practice negatively affect pupils' attendance to school. The effects are more on the girls than the boys because girls do not attend school on the celebration days and this creates gender disparity in favour of boys in attendance to basic schools in the region.

5.4.9 Rural Residence and School Attendance

It was found in the rural communities that children, particularly girls who stay in the rural areas and commute to school in the nearby communities, do not attend school regularly. They sometimes do not attend school at all. The headteachers attested to this in a response to a question relating to rural residence of pupils. Seventy nine percent (79 percent) of the headteachers explained that not all the girls live in the communities where the schools are located. They further explained that those girls who live in communities without schools had to commute daily to schools in neighboring towns. Only 21 percent of the headteachers said their girls stay in the communities where the schools are located.

The girls also supported the finding in an interview, 49 percent of them attend school in their communities while 51 percent attend school outside their communities.

Out of this percentage, 41.2 percent of the girls attend school late, 29.7 percent do not attend school, 17.3 percent said they attend school but perform poorly in class and 11.8 percent said they attend school but are tired and do not participate in class discussions. It was observed that the roads in the rural communities are not in good condition and in some place there were no roads linking one community to the other. The non availability of good roads in the districts for the school pupils who live far away from school makes it impossible for both the girls and boys to be regular in school and participate actively in class.

One of the girls who attend school outside her community and aged 12 years in Duu primary in West Mamprusi District said:

“I live in the nearby village with my parents far away from my school. Every morning, I have to travel about three miles before I reach my school. Sometimes I arrive at school very late and sometimes, when my parents realise that I am late they tell me not to attend school. This distance negatively affects my school attendance and performance in class.”

In the rural areas, it was observed that parents get increasing worried about the potential danger that their girls may face in walking long distances to school that are far from their

communities and this potential danger prevents most parents from enrolling their girls in schools unless the school is cited within their communities. It can be concluded on this chapter that factors within the households play an important role when it comes to which child should be send to school, allow to attend or withdrawn from school.

The decision to enrol children in school and allow them to attend still remains in the hands of the households heads. It can be explained that pupils who stay far away from their school had difficulty in attending school early or sometimes do not attend school at all. It can also be explained that girls are mostly affected than the boys and this creates gender disparity in attendance in favour of boys in basic schools in the region. In the Northern Region, especially in the rural areas, many girls have to cummute daily to school, some become tired after reaching school and could neither concentrate in class nor perform well in class examination. This further widens the disparity in performance in favour of the boys.

The socio-cultural and the economic factors affect both boys and girls that the girls are more affected in the households than their male counterparts in the Northern Region of Ghana. These factors create gender disparity in favour of the boys in many instances. The introduction of gender dimension into the discussion of these factors which literature has not taken into consideration is a significant contribution to knowledge. Also, identifying factors such as festivals, funeral rites, death of an important person, menstruation, market days which affect girls' attendance more than boys to school are all contributions that the researcher has made to the existing knowledge.

These socio-cultural and economic factors are not the only factors that affect enrolment and attendance of pupils in basic schools in the Northern Region as outlined on figure 4.2 in chapter four, the school as an entity has its own challenges that prevent households from enrolling their children and allowing them to attend school regularly. These are known as the school- based factors. The next chapter examines the school-based factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in the basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

CHAPTER SIX

SCHOOL–BASED FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY IN BASIC SCHOOLS

6.1 Introduction

Parity in enrolment and attendance are often seen as crucial issues affecting girls' education at the basic level. The various factors which have been found to adversely affect the successful participation of girls in relation to boys in the basic school system are often divided into school-based factors and home-based factors. The home-based factors have been examined in the previous chapter. This chapter therefore, concentrates on the discussions of the school-based factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. Apart from the factors outlined in the conceptual framework in chapter four (Figure 4.2), it is also in line with the Capability Approach and Social Justice Theory by Sen (2007) which explained that Social Justice in education cannot be achieved unless those who are involved in decision making at school are part of policies that affect education and this include teachers and head teachers. Factors that are discussed include programmes put in place in school to ensure parity, teacher expectations and attitudes, the school type, the school curriculum, government school based policy (School Feeding Programme and the Capitation Grant) and the attitude of the boy child towards the girl child in school.

6.2 Programmes Put in Place in School to Promote Girls' School Attendance

The study found that there were a number of methods or programmes put in place in the basic schools in the Northern Region to ensure that girls catch up with their male

counterparts in school enrolment and attendance. Checking from the local curriculum of the various schools, it was found that the programmes included the selection of school prefects which is done yearly, school inter class debates between boys and girls on every last Thursday of the month and quizzes between boys and girls on every Friday. Out of the 13 JHS schools visited it was found that out of a total of 78 prefects 36 of them were females and out of 17 primary schools visited 16 girls were prefects (representing 50 percent), out of a total of 32 prefects. The programmes in the schools motivated the girls to attend school regularly.

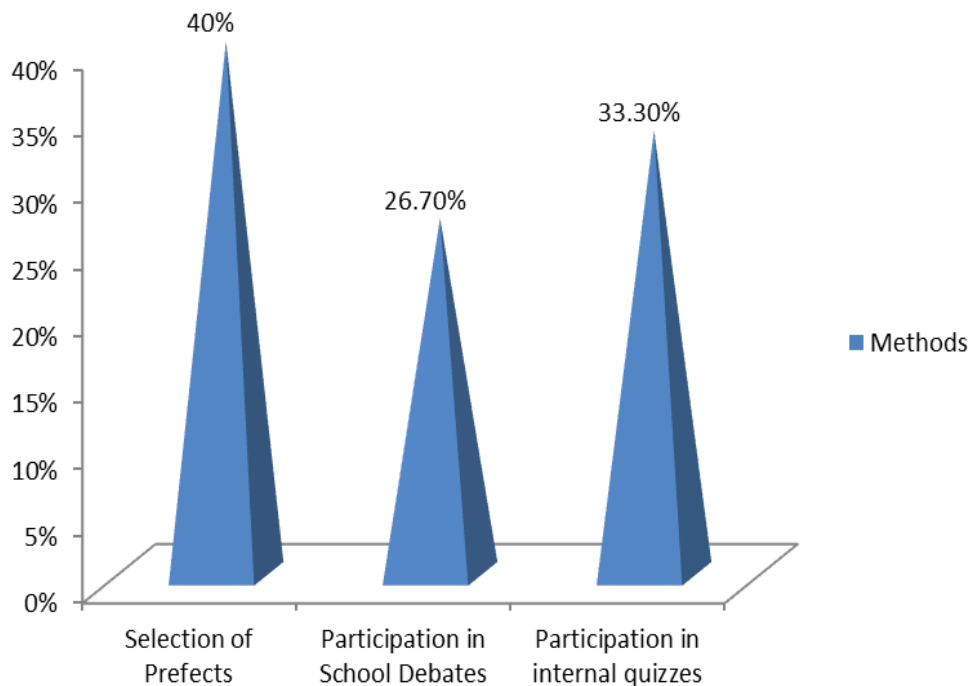
The headteachers confirmed the finding in a response to a question relating to the programmes put in place. Eighty six (86) percent of the headteachers attested to the fact that there are programmes put in place while 14 percent said there are no programmes in place to promote girls' education apart from what Ghana Education Service has initiated. It was observed that not all the schools visited had girls' clubs which some headteachers had claimed. One of the headteachers in the Saboba District who did not have quizzes and debates in place to promote gender parity in school attendance remarked that he cannot design his own programme to ensure that girls fully participate in education apart from girls club which was instituted by the Action Aid Ghana.

The headteachers, especially, those who agreed with the researcher further stated that in choosing school prefects and participation in the school's extra curriculum activities, like school debates, gender is being considered seriously in that both girls and boys are chosen to participate just to enable the girls to lift up their confidence levels and compete

favorably with the boys in school attendance. This assertion by the headteachers is in line with the Capability Approach and Social Justice theory by Amartya Sen (2007).

The theory explained that Social Justice should prevail in the school environment in order to allow the girls to develop their capabilities in school. The girls are as capable as the boys; therefore they should be treated equally in the school environment. This will go a long way to instill confidence in them and motivate them to attend school regularly and also to compete effectively in class in order to close the disparity gap. Figure 6.1 shows the various methods put in schools to motivate girls to attend school regularly.

Figure 6.1: Methods to Promote Girls' Participation in School



Source: Author's Field Survey (2012)

Figure 6.1 shows that 40 percent of the headteachers select the girls when it comes to selection of school prefects, 33.3 percent said they encourage and allow them to participate in the local quizzes organized by the school and 26.7 percent said they select the girls to participate in school debates and this will encourage them to learn hard and motivate them to attend school.

The description above shows how important all the programmes are looking at the percentage differences. According to the headteachers, internally, they have institutionalized these programmes in the school and more often than not organize them on weekly and monthly basis. It is only the selection of the prefects which was done yearly. The girls also supported the findings in a response to question relating to programmes in school. 93.4 percent said the programmes are in the right direction. According to them, it builds their confidence and always encourages them to attend school, 6.6 percent of the pupils explained that the programmes are good but not all of them have the chance to participate in the school debates, quizzes and prefectship. One of the girls remarked.

“You see, the teachers at times select those closer to them and not the intelligent ones.”

It can be interpreted that not all the schools have instituted quizzes and debates among boys and girls. Also, there are a number of programmes put in place which promote girls' participation in basic education. It motivates girls to attend school in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. It also means that, the more girls are made to be part of these activities, the more it motivates them to attend school regularly.

6.3 Effects of the School Curriculum

In relation to the programmes/methods put in place in the schools, it was found that out of the 30 schools visited 27 schools had school curriculum and only 3 schools did not have. These schools were Tamalgu Primary in Gushegu Karaga District, Tampion JHS in Savelugu-Nanton District and Kpalibe Primary and JHS in East Gonja District. The curriculum plays an important role in every school as it indicates when and how the school activities are to be organized and who should participate in the activity.

It was again found that school curriculum in some schools like Sawla JHS in Bole District, Zabzugu Primary and JHS in Zabzugu Tatale District, Gambaga JHS in Gambaga District and Kasulyili Primary and JHS in Tolon/Kumbungu District conflicts with girls domestic work at home since the girls have to complete morning chores and still attend school as early as 7.00 am in the morning. The schedule of attendance therefore affects girls' attendance to school thus creating disparity in attendance in favour of boys. In a response to a question relating to the school curriculum, most of the headteachers claimed that they have school curriculum and explained that apart from what they have been given by the government they have their own local curriculum which does not conflict with the government curriculum. These local curricula allow them to organize their own internal activities which they make sure that girls fully participate in.

The girls have equal capabilities as compared with boys as explained by Sen in capability approach and Social Justice Theory. This, according to the headteachers, will encourage

the girls to attend school regularly in order to close gender disparities in school attendance and performance in school. The schools include programs like football matches and excursions which expose many of the pupils to the outside school environment.

It was observed that girls participate fully in school's extra curricular activities and also some school curriculum allows the girls to compete with the boys and this positively affects disparity in school attendance and performance of girls in the school.

Sutherland (2002) studies in Ghana explained that the hidden school curriculum (which is not official) negatively affect school attendance in Ghana. The author explained that some schools propagate what the author called a "hidden" curriculum which is operational in the school environment and seen in the differential treatment given to boys and girls and roles each is assigned to. In those schools according to Sutherland (2002), girl are advised to take "soft" subjects such as history, and the languages while the boys are asked to take 'difficult subjects' such as mathematics and the sciences. Sutherland's (2002) assertion though was well explained and possible but this current study in basic schools in Northern Region of Ghana did not reveal that and does not support such a claim.

In the rural areas, parents see extra curricular activities as a culture that may make the girl child disobedient at home because of the exposure; therefore they prefer not to allow their children to participate in the activities. Some prefer not to enrol the children or if enrolled

they are prevented from participating in these activities. As one of the parents in the rural areas said in the interview;

“My girl sometimes comes home with certain bad behavior which I think is learnt from school. Sometimes the girl argues with me before carrying out household work and I believe that such behavior is acquired in school which is not good. The parent added I prefer not to enroll my girl in school because of the fear that she will disobey me at home”.

The perception that girls are not supposed to speak or expose themselves in public is still strong in the rural communities in the Northern Region of Ghana and this is an affront to the Capability and Social Justice Theory by Sen (2007) which states that girls should be included in all activities that are likely to affect them in school. School curricular activities are very laudable strategies that encourage girls to develop their potentials and capabilities, parents in the rural communities see it as a hindrance to their girl's upbringing.

It was further found that some headteachers in the region supported the assertions by the parents that curriculum is a hindrance to the girls' upbringing. These headteachers see curriculum as being biased against girls and based on the experiences they acquired in the rural communities. The curriculum does not capture the interest of the girl child nor their parents and therefore, parents' fears are that their girls will get alien influences which

will make them disobey them at home, hence most parent still refuse to enrol their girls for the fears that they might be addicted to the foreign culture.

6.4 Class Sizes (Number of Pupils in Class)

It was found from the Ghana Education Service guidelines document for the operation of basic schools in the Northern Region that the normal class size of every class is 45 pupils be it primary or JHS. It was observed that the number of pupils in one class exceeded 45 pupils in the urban areas. While the teacher-pupil ratio in the urban areas was found to be 1: 75 except in Gushegu and Bole where the ratio was 1: 50 the ratio in the rural areas was 1: 30 lower than the required number of 45 pupils per teacher. This means that the rural areas in the region are still facing the problems associated with enrolment of pupils to meet the standard set by the Ghana Education Service. It also means that the class size in the urban areas is higher than the rural areas and this negatively affect both boys and girls' school attendance. This situation discourages many pupils from attending school regularly, especially the girls for fear that they might not always get seats to sit on.

In a response to a question relating to the number of pupils in one class, the headteachers agreed with the author. Ninety five percent (95 percent) of the headteachers said that the large class sizes in the schools negatively affect pupils' attendance, especially girls. Five (5) percent of the respondents however said that large classes do not affect pupils' attendance. These headteachers explained that in situations where the classes are very large, two teachers are normally assigned so that there can be effective teaching and class

control. When this is done, pupils are encouraged to attend school because there will be effective teaching in class.

These headteachers were not being realistic because it was observed in all the communities that only one teacher was assigned and seen handling the classes that were considered large (classes exceeding 45 pupils) Ninety five percent (95 percent) of the headteachers who earlier on said that large classes negatively affect pupils' attendance further explained that with the large class size teachers' struggle to teach, even if two teachers are assigned to those classes and that the situation prevents both boys and girls from attending school regularly. The girls are more affected than the boys. It can be explained that when classes exceed the normal 45 pupils, it negatively affect school attendance, especially girls' attendance and this further creates gender disparity in attendance in favour of the boys in basic schools in the region.

Kelly (2004) and Hyde (2002) studies in Malawi did not support this current study when the authors noted that in Malawi large class sizes militate against a conducive learning environment and effective teaching and where some pupils are asked to attend school in sessions, girls' attendance in particular tend to be burdened with other work at home which negatively affect their commitment to schooling.

Kelly and Hyde (2004) did not give specifics as what constituted a large class in Malawi for the author to compare with what constitute large class in the Northern Region, therefore, the situation in Malawi could not be compared to the situation in the Northern Region of Ghana.

6.5 Teacher Absenteeism

The study found that absenteeism among teachers in the Northern Region was high when the attendance books for teachers in the various schools were cross-checked. It was observed that many teachers did not sign the attendance books on Thursdays and Fridays in each week, meaning they did not attend school on those days. Out of five teaching days in a week, many teachers attended school only three days. It was further found from the attendance books that out of a total number of 70 days, many teachers were absent for 28 days.

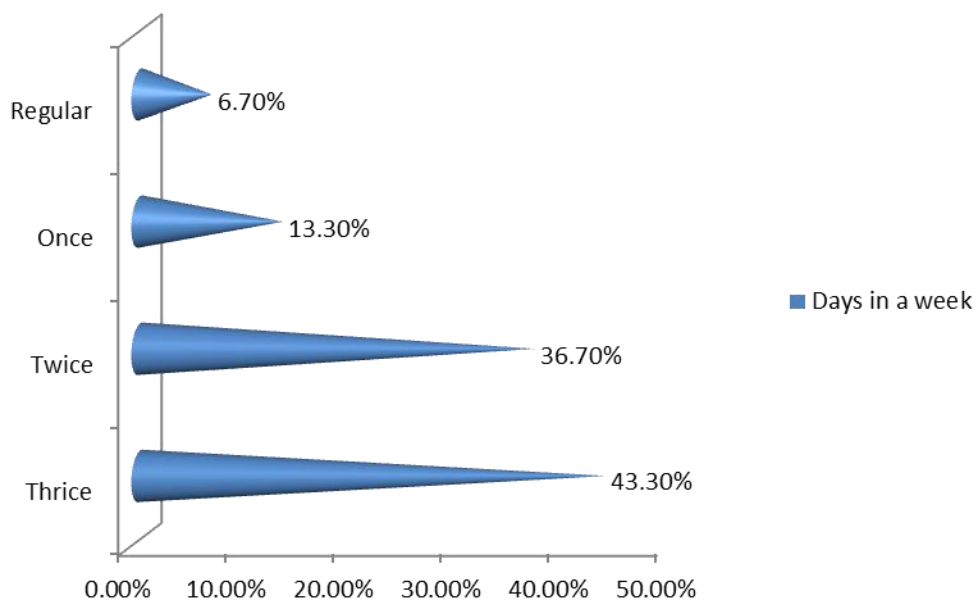
The effects of this absenteeism on the part of some teachers cannot be over emphasized. It was found out that out of a total of 744 days for both girls and boys, the girls attended school on 221 days while the boys attended 523 days. This was for the 2 days that teachers absented themselves from school. The figures were calculated using the total number of pupils in the classes of the schools visited. It can be interpreted that absenteeism on the part of some teachers negatively affect girls more than boys and this further widens gender disparity in attendance in favour of the boys. Absenteeism was high in the rural areas as compared with the urban areas and this was due to the lack of proper supervision in the rural areas.

In a question relating to teacher absenteeism, the headteachers were not realistic in their responses they contradicted themselves. Eighty seven percent (87 percent) of the headteachers said that their teachers do attend school regularly but the records from the attendance register in the school did not support their claim. They explained that though

not all the teachers live in the communities in which they teach, they do attend school, some live in the big towns and commute daily to school. There is no assurance that every teacher will be in school at all times. Thirteen percent (13 percent) of the headteachers who said that their teachers do absent themselves from school showed the researcher the teachers' attendance register as evidence and it was found that not all the teachers attend school regularly. The headteachers further explained the reason why most of the teachers do not attend school regularly due to the lack of supervision in the rural areas. In a response to a question by the headteachers as to how many times the teachers absent themselves from school in a week the headteachers were not again realistic because their responses did not actually tally with what was found in the teachers' attendance register.

Figure 6.2 shows the responses:

Figure 6.2: Weekly Absence of Teachers from School



Source: Author's field survey (2012)

It can be observed from Figure 6.2 that only 6.7 percent of the teachers attend school regularly, 13.3 percent attend once in a week, 36.7 percent attend twice and 43.3 percent attend thrice in a week. The figure shows that majority of the teachers in the Northern Region absent themselves from school thrice in a week while only a few teachers attend school regularly. These were the opinions of the headteachers but the fact in the school registers remains the same, many teachers absent themselves on Thursdays and Fridays and this does not augur well for effective teaching and learning if other variables are held constant.

Confirming the absenteeism on the part of some teachers, Tonah (2011) noted that trained teachers are unwilling to reside in the rural communities therefore the few who are trained and found themselves in the rural communities are unwilling to stay thus absenting themselves on certain days in a week as already explained above.

The attitude of teachers in the region has negative effect on pupils' attendance. When a question was asked why some of the teachers do not come to school regularly the headteachers explained that some of the teachers are businessmen and women and that they devote their time selling their wares in a number of areas. Another explanation they gave was that majority of them do not stay in the community. The effects of teacher absenteeism in most of the basic schools in the Northern Region on the pupils' attendance to school regularly are so serious that the headteacher of Tinga Primary school in Bole District said *"On a day that a particular teacher does not come to school, the pupils of that class run home immediately after break and the pupils do not learn anything till the*

school closes.” It can be observed that teachers absent themselves more in the government public rural schools in the Northern Region of Ghana and this is as a result of lack of proper supervision in the rural areas. Girls in particular take this opportunity not attend school as compared to boys. They remain in the house to continue with household chores and this creates more disparity in favour of the boys in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

This study again found that there were no punitive measures stipulated by schools to ensure that the teachers who absent themselves from school are dealt with. The headteachers explained that when they report the absentee teachers to the District Directors of Education, the only punishment they give is to transfer the teacher to a different school and sometimes those of them in the rural areas find it difficult to report teachers who consistently absent themselves from school for the fear that they might not post any teacher to their schools. They cited many instances where they reported teachers and after they transferred them up till now they have not yet got a replacement.

Khalid (1996) reported that the assignment of teachers post in Pakistan is often based on political connections. The situation in Pakistan is not different from what happens in the rural areas of the Northern Region regarding posting of teachers to these places. One of the rural headteachers confirmed this when he remarked that;

“These days, as a head teacher in the rural area, if you do not have connections in the District Education Office, it is likely that no

teacher will be posted to your school throughout the academic year.”

In an interview with the District Directors of Education, they alluded to the fact that the headteachers have got it wrong. They added that postings of teachers are based on the urgent need and not who you know at the District Office.

The study further found that female teachers absent themselves more than the male teachers. These teachers serve as role models for the girls therefore their absence sometimes further widens the disparity in attendance and performance of girls in the school. Many girls are unable to confide in the male teachers what their problems are and the difficulties they face regarding their school attendance and participation in class. The female teachers who were at post at the time of the study confirmed that their absence sometimes affects the girls more than the boys because the girls find it difficult to express what they feel regarding their education to the male teachers. They explained that they serve as mentors to these girls as well as social mothers. Their absence sometimes means that the girls have nobody to look up to in the school and nobody to always encourage them at the school.

Furthermore, the study found out that female teachers dominated in the number of schools visited, especially in the urban school. The preponderance of these teachers in the urban schools in the Northern Region was attributed to the fact that most of them had their husbands working in the urban areas. Also, the young females want to select their spouses from the urban areas at the expense of teaching in the rural areas. The absenteeism on the part of these teachers, especially in the rural areas discourages many

parents from enrolling their girls in school. When the Directors of Education in the selected districts were asked as whether there was a guideline relevant to posting of teachers, the answer was in the affirmative. The directors added that the guidelines for posting teachers does not specify which category of teachers should be sent to an urban area or a rural area.

It was again revealed in the study that teachers upon completion of the Teacher Training College want to teach in the urban area in the region. The study revealed that supervision of teachers in the region has gone beyond the powers of the headteachers in the various districts as the headteachers explained. According to the headteachers some teachers in their schools more often bribe some of the Circuit Supervisors just to get favours from them when they absent themselves from school and this does not augur well for effective teaching and learning in the school.

It was further found that girls in the basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana have few females as role models to emulate. For example, out of the 30 headteachers visited only 13 percent were female and out of a total of 78 teachers in the selected districts, only 22 were female teachers most of them in the urban centres. It was observed that female teachers were scarce in the rural areas and Tonah (2011) confirmed the observation made by the author when he explained the scarcity of female teachers in the rural communities in parts of West Mamprusi District in the Northern Region of Ghana. The female teachers in the schools visited were handling subjects like Social Studies, Citizenship Education,

Religious and Moral Education and English while the so called ‘hard’ subjects such as Mathematics and Science were handled by the male teachers.

The girls explained that when they do not see female teachers handle the so called “hard” subjects like Science and Mathematics, they consider them to be subjects that are only being taught by males. This does not boost their morale to perform well in these subjects. The parents also explained that when they do not see many female teachers in the school, they feel that education is not compulsory for girls and therefore there is no need to enrol the girls. The effects of the absence of female teachers as role models on gender disparity in basic schools in the Northern Region are limited. A systematic study is therefore needed. This study should control key factors such as class size, type of school, teacher and headteacher characteristics. It can be explained that many girls would have wished that they have more female teachers as role models because their absence discourage many of the girls from attending school which creates disparity in attendance in favour of the boys. In relation to the teachers’ absenteeism, it is important to find out how the teachers relate to the female pupils in the school and how their relationship affects girls’ attendance.

6.6 Teacher-Girl Relationship

It was found that teachers in the basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana relate well with the girls at the primary level and do not relate well with the girls at the JHS level. There were instances the author observed in a JHS that some teachers do not relate well with their girls at the JHS just because the girls do not accept sexual advances that some teachers have made to them. Such instances prevented the girls from attending

school regularly. In a response to a question relating to whether the teachers relate well (ie. Advising, encouraging them, taking them as their children, being friendly and caring for their welfare) with the girls they teach, 80 percent of the headteachers said the teachers relate well with their female pupils at both the primary and the JHS levels which the author did not observe in both cases.

Twenty (20) percent of the headteachers said the teachers do not relate well with the girls, especially at the JHS level. These opinions supported the earlier observations made by the researchers. When a similar question was posed to the female pupils, they supported the observation. 84.6 percent of the girls said they relate well with their teachers and these were females from the primary levels while 15.4 percent said they do not relate well with their teachers and these also were pupils from the JHS.

Supporting the findings further, one of the girls at the JHS said *“once in a while, I experience sexual advances by some of our male teachers and that negatively affect my school attendance and performance because of the psychological discomfort I always experience.”* The girls further explained that those teachers who normally harass them sexually and do not succeed hate them and sometimes disgrace them either in class or at the assembly. As to how it retards their progress, 46 percent said that after the harassment they feel timid in class so they cannot learn. Forty-four (44) percent explained that they are not comfortable in school, therefore do not attend school sometimes and 10 percent said that after the harassment, they find it difficult to attend school.

It can be explained that not all the girls in the district are being harassed; only a few are harassed at the JHS level and this prevent these girls from attending school regularly. One of the headteachers narrated a case of sexual harassment where one of his teachers impregnated a Form Two girl and when he reported the case to the District Director of Education, the teacher was only transferred to another school. As to how the girls relate to their male counterparts, 93 percent of the girls said their relationship with their boy counterparts is friendly while 7.0 percent said it is not friendly and these were mostly Junior High School pupils where the girls explained that they are being verbally harassed by some of their male counterparts. In the course of the interview with the headteachers, the headteachers denied categorically that both male teachers and male pupils have never harassed the female pupils; they added that no female pupil has ever complained to them concerning sexual harassment by their male counterparts or any male teacher.

In response to a question relating to whether there are mechanisms put in place to deter the teachers from harassing the female pupils in the school, the headteachers responded in affirmative and explained that the mechanisms are to report the teacher involved to the District Director of Education for the teacher to be sanctioned. The mechanisms also involved the refusal of the school to support the teacher concerned when the victim's parents decide to take punitive measures.

It was noted that reporting the teacher to the District Director of Education is a mechanism that was in place for years. According to the headteachers, there were instances in some school where the victim's parents had to beat up the accused teacher

and even attempted sending the matter to court. One of the girls at the JHS further remarked that;

“sexual harassment sometimes occurs both within and outside classroom and that teachers sometimes collude with their male counterparts in the verbal harassment in the classroom either directly or indirectly”.

When the headteachers were asked to confirm or deny these allegations, all the thirty (30) headteachers found it difficult to answer but stated categorically that no incidence of sexual harassment has ever been reported. They were quick to say that they hear about it in some schools.

Nyamzi (2002) supported the finding when he noted that girls are more often being harassed in schools in Zimbabwe and added that it is hard for male pupils to refrain from sexual activity in school if their male role models are engaged in the same practices. In Zimbabwe, according to Nyamzi (2002), in 1988 and 1989, 520 and 468 teachers respectively were dismissed for misconduct including sexual harassment of girls in their schools. The measure in Zimbabwe is not applicable in the Northern Region of Ghana as teachers who misconduct themselves sexually are not dismissed but transferred when their misconduct is reported to the appropriate authorities. It was observed in the urban areas that in instances where sexual harassment resulted in pregnancy, the cost to girls is not only loss of education potentials but also the health risk which is connected with the pregnancy which may put a permanent end to girls' school attendance.

6.7 The Capitation Grant

The government of Ghana in 1996 implemented the free Compulsory Universal Basic Education Programme (FCUBE) which has existed since the 1960s, arising from article 39(2) of the 1992 Constitution. It seeks to provide every child of school going age with basic education. It was almost after a decade that the Capitation Grant was extended to all basic schools in Ghana. The grant is expected to cover cost and levies for activities such as examinations, registration, facilities and sports which were hitherto paid by parents as school fees in public basic schools. The amount paid by government per pupil per term was GHc 4.50 as at the 2011/ 2012, equivalent to \$2.00 as at 2012. The decision by the government to replace school fees with Capitation Grant had positive effects on national enrolment related figures.

6.8 National Gross and Net Primary Enrolment Ratio

The policy intervention and initiative have not only resulted in the structural transformation of the education system but also helped to improve considerable access, especially immediately after the introduction of the Capitation Grant. The following table shows the national primary Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER) for 2003/2004 – 2005/2006 academic years. The figures were calculated immediately a year after the introduction of the Capitation Grant to see the impact of the Grant on enrolment. This current study only uses the figures to support the effect of the grant on enrolment in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. The Ministry of Education Preliminary Education Sector Report 2010 reported these figures to show the positive impact of the Capitation Grant immediately it was fully implemented in 2005/2006 academic year.

Table 6.1: Primary School Gross Enrolment Ratio (GER)

	Gross Enrollment Ratio (%)		
	2003/2004	2004/2005	2005/2006
Total GER	86.5	87.5	92.1
Boys GER	89.5	90.5	95.3
Girls GER	83.1	84.0	88.8
Gender Parity Indices	0.93	0.93	0.95

Source: Ministry of Education Preliminary Education Sector Performance Report (2010)

It can be observed from the national data that the total GER rose from 86.5 to 92.1 percent within three years. The rate for both boys and girls have all increased by 5.6 and 5.7 percent respectively indicating an increase in enrolment for girls more than the boys for the same period. The parity stagnated between 2003/2004 and 2004/2005 academic years but increased in 2005/2006 academic year due to the introduction of the Capitation Grant. The gender parity index was still in favour of the boys as shown in Table 6.1 above. The Ministry of Education also in 2010 reported the Net Enrolment Ratio (NER). Table 6.2 shows the national Net Enrolment Ratio of the primary schools between 2004/2005 and 2005/2006 academic years.

Table 6.2: Primary School Net Enrolment Ratio (NER): 2004/2005 and 2005/2006**Academic Year**

	Net Enrollment Ratio		
	2004/2005	2005/2006	% increase
Population of pupils between 6-11 years	3,518,468	3,593,027	2.12
P1-P6 Enrolment between 6-11 years	2,079,786	2,484,855	19.5
NER	59.1	69.2	17.1

Source: Ministry of Education Preliminary Education Sector Performance Report (2010)

Table 6.2 shows that the NER which reflects the proportion of children of school going age who attend school increased from 59.1 percent to 69.2 percent considering the population of the pupils between the ages of 6-11 years. In all the academic years the percentage increase was 2.12 percent and 19.5 percent respectively. The evidence above is supported by this current study on the positive effect of the Capitation Grant on school enrolment in the Northern Region of Ghana.

This study found that contrary to the perceptions of some sections of the general public that pupils at the basic schools in the Northern Region do not pay fees as a result of the Capitation Grant, the headteachers in basic schools in the Northern Region still charge levies as a way of mobilizing additional revenue for the running of the school. The fees charged, as the study found out, were for examination and Parent Teachers Association levy, some schools charge fees for the payment of Arabic teachers. However, considering the level of poverty and low levels of household incomes coupled with the fact that the

Capitation Grant was introduced as a way of reducing the burden of parents, provide school infrastructure and to remove some financial barriers to basic educational access, any form of fees, be it examination or Parent Teachers Association fees, have indirectly defeated one of the purposes for which the grant was introduced.

The study found that parents in basic schools in the Northern Region still pay 16 Ghana cedis in a year. They pay ten Ghana cedis yearly as PTA dues and six Ghana cedis per annum as examination fees. When the household heads were interviewed, 62.2 percent said they pay between sixteen to twenty Ghana cedis a year, 30.1 percent said they pay between eleven to fifteen Ghana cedis a year, 5.4 percent said they pay between five to ten Ghana cedis a year and 2.2 percent said they pay twenty-one to twenty-five Ghana cedis a year (See table 13 in Appendix B).

One of the household heads said:

“I am made to pay fees as PTA dues and examination fees before my children are allowed to write examination, at times, when I do not pay these fees my children are sent home and ask not to come to school again until I pay the money”

The headteachers disagreed with the parents by explaining that they pay only five Ghana cedis for termly examination and six Ghana cedis for yearly PTA dues. When the District Directors were interviewed they could not give any amount they only accepted the fact that parents still pay some money but it varies from school to school.

It was found that generally, enrolment has improved as a result of the grant (see Table 6.1 and 6.2). In a response to a question relating to the effects of the Capitation Grant on school enrolment, the headteachers gave no statistics and only referred the author to the Ghana Education Office. In spite of the fact that eighty six (86 percent) of the headteachers said that since the introduction of the grant fully in 2005/2006 academic year, there is nothing to prove significantly that their schools have experienced an increase in enrolment as a result of the grant. They were not able to substantiate their claim with any evidence and only added that because fees are still being paid by parents, it is still a challenge to most of them to enrol their children, especially the girl child. Only 14 percent said they have seen an improvement in enrolment (See Table 14 in Appendix B).

When the author requested and checked enrolment figures from the school registers of 8 primary schools in (Saboba Chereponi, Gushegu/ Karaga, Savelugu/Nanton and Bole Districts, it was found that enrolment figures went up from 876 to 1,945 from 2006 to 2012 (See Table 16 in Appendix B) and this is supported by the national data on enrolment in 2005/2006 academic year (Table 6.1 and 6.2). When the headteachers were asked to comment on these increases observed in the registers, 80 percent of the headteachers said that the observed increases were not as a result of the Capitation Grant. They said parents have now seen the need to enrol their children which did not convince the author because the records from the school registers and the 2003-2006 national results showed that since the introduction of the capitation grant enrolment have since increased. Twenty (20) percent of the respondents said the increases were as a result of

the grant because Capitation Grant have replaced some fees which were hitherto paid by parents and these were schools in the rural communities (See Table 15 in Appendix B).

It was also observed that there was still gender disparity in enrolment in these schools. The disparity was in favour of the girl-child and this means that more girls were enrolled than boys (See Table 16 in Appendix B). In order to still prove the positive effects of Capitation Grant on enrolment, two case studies of two schools were used and the variables that were likely to influence school enrolment were held constant. The two schools were not beneficiaries of the School Feeding Programme and had no assistance from any NGO in the region. It was found from the registers of these schools that there were increases in the school enrolment. For instance Kanvile Local Authority Primary School in a suburb of Tamale had its enrolment figures rise from 67 to 342 from 2006 to 2012. Waribogu L/A Primary School in Zabzugu-Tatale District had its enrolment figures rose from 45 in 2006 to 231 in 2012.

The parents supported the findings when they were asked whether the Capitation Grant has a positive effect on the enrolment of their girls, 92 percent of the households responded in the affirmative and 8 percent responded in negative. Those who were affirmative in their response explained that though they do not know how the grant operates, it does impact positively on their girls' enrolment. The parent added that in spite of the fact that they are still paying some fees; it did not prevent them from enrolling their children. They also said that they heard that the government was paying the school fees

for them which they do not realize and that they are still being asked to pay some fees. One of the parents remarked;

“I am disappointed in the government because we were made to understand that we will no more pay fees but you see I pay 15 Ghana Cedis before my child is allowed to write terminal examination.”

Those household heads who responded in the negative explained that because of the money they still pay, they were unable to enrol their girls in school and this were the household heads from the rural areas in the region. It can be explained that the Capitation Grant had positive effects on school enrolment, especially girls' enrolment. Gender disparity in enrolment favours the girl child in the Northern Region of Ghana. In terms of school attendance, there was no evidence from the school registers or from Ghana Education Service or from the national report to prove that the Grant had positive effects on school attendance since its implementation as in the case of school enrolment.

The headteachers also supported the findings in a response to a question relating to attendance as a result of the grant, 85.3 percent of the headteachers said that attendance has not improved as a result of the Capitation Grant. They explained that because fees are still being paid, parents are not comfortable to allow their girls to attend school regularly. Fifteen percent explained that they have seen the differences in attendance figures as a result of the Grant. In this case also, none of the headteachers was able to provide data to support the claim (See Table 18 in Appendix B).

In a response to a question relating to attendance as a result of the Grant, 71 percent of the girls said they do not know how the grant has influenced their school attendance. They further explained that they attend school not because of Capitation Grant, 29 percent said that their parents allow them to attend school because they are not asked to pay more money as fee (See Table 19 in Appendix B). One of the girls who said that their parents send them to school as a result of Capitation Grant said;

“You see, my father had said he will remove me from school because he does not have money any more to take care of me in school but when the government started paying our fees he does not say anything again”.

The explanation by this respondent was rather in support of the fact that some girls were enrolled in school as a result of the Capitation Grant.

It was observed that the schools where the School Feeding Programme operates were schools where majority of the headteachers claimed an improvement in school attendance as a result of the Capitation Grant. The national data confirmed the finding that the Capitation Grant has not improved pupils’ attendance in the Northern Region since the time of implementation. The trend has not changed even in 2012. Table 6.3 below shows the national Primary Schools Net School Attendance Figures of the year after the Grant was extended to all Basic Schools in Ghana.

Table 6.3: Primary School Net Attendance in Ghana since the Implementation of the Capitation Grant in 2005/2006 School year

Percentage of Children of Primary School Age Attending School in Ghana in 2006						
	Male		Female		Total	
Regions	Net Ratio	Number of Children.	Net Ratio	Number of Children.	Net Ratio	Number of Children
Western	73.3	259	68.8	236	71.2	495
Central	65.8	208	71.5	195	68.5	403
G. Accra	78.3	294	81.8	290	80.1	584
Volta	69.3	191	61.4	197	65.8	387
Eastern	78.4	259	75.8	275	77.1	533
Ashanti	74.5	385	75.4	350	74.9	734
B. Ahafo	64.3	266	68.2	207	66.0	474
Northern	52.2	404	47.2	404	49.7	808
U. East	61.3	134	64.6	127	62.9	261
U. West	50.7	78	57.4	72	54.0	150

Source: Ministry of Education Preliminary Education Sector Performance Report (2010).

Table 6.3 shows regional primary school attendance of both males and females of the very year that the Capitation Grant was extended to all basic schools in Ghana. The regional differentials show at least 9 out of the 10 regions experienced significant Net attendance over 50 percent except in the Northern Region where the total Net is below 50 percent (See Table 6.3). The data supported the finding in the Northern Region that Capitation Grant has not contributed much to the improvement of school attendance because there was not much evidence from the school registers to show; neither was there

any evidence from the Ministry of Education to show nor Ghana Education Service to prove it. It is also observed that the Net Attendance Ratio for females is higher than for males in all regions except Western, Volta, Northern and Eastern regions and this also shows that disparity in attendance still favour the males.

It was further found that the Capitation Grant was not gender sensitive in that there was nothing in the disbursement procedure that was reserved solely for either the boys or the girls, the amount given was equal irrespective of gender. The headteachers did not support the findings in a response to a question relating to gender sensitivity of the grant, 56.8 percent of the headteachers said that Capitation Grant is gender sensitive while 43.2 percent maintained that the grant is not gender sensitive and these were the headteachers who supported the findings. Those who said the grant is not gender sensitive explained that all the pupils irrespective of gender receive the same amount; therefore they do not see how gender sensitive the grant is.

Those who maintained that the grant is gender sensitive explained that though not specified in the guidelines for the utilization of the grant and not part of the objectives, some urgent needs of the girls are normally taken care of, for example, they provide sanitary pads for those who menstruate at school and this goes a long way to encourage the parents to send their girls to school. When the girls were asked in an interview to substantiate what the headteachers said regarding the provision of sanitary pads, majority of them decline to answer. One of them said, *“The headteachers sometimes give us “cotton” during menstruation but not always. At times, they will tell us to go home and*

clean ourselves. If the money they use to buy the “cotton” were part of the Capitation Grant, they would have been giving us the cotton always.” This remark by the girls further goes to support the fact that the Capitation Grant is not gender sensitive. In relation to the school enrolment, the School Feeding Programme was also one of the variables outlined on the conceptual framework (Figure 4.2 in chapter 4) as one of the school based factors affecting gender disparity in enrolment and attendance of pupils in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

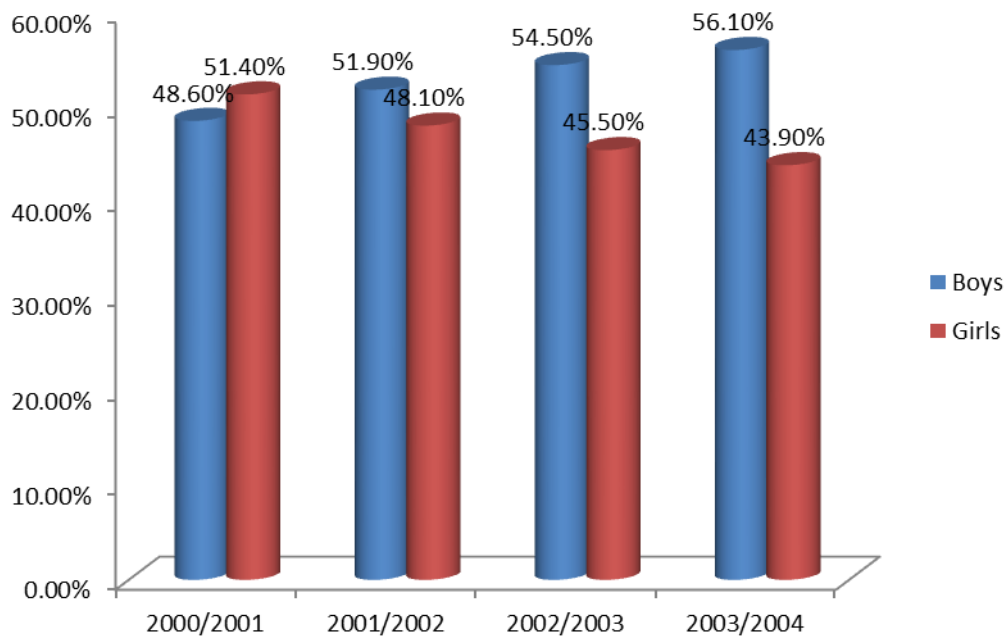
6.9 The School Feeding Programme

Despite the policy of free tuition in the basic schools in the Northern Region and as a way of addressing the problem of enrolment and attendance, the government of Ghana with the support of the Dutch Government commenced the School Feeding Programme in 2005 with the immediate objectives of reducing hunger and malnutrition among school pupils, increase school enrolment, attendance, retention and to improve domestic food production throughout the country (MOE 2010).

It was found that gender was virtually ignored during the plan and as the programme went on, it had unintended effect on the enrolment of girls’ as compared to boys’ in the Northern Region of Ghana. This study found very weak capacity to boost domestic food production in most beneficiary communities. However, the programme has contributed significantly towards the enrolment of girls in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

This study found that in general, enrolment figures increased in all the selected schools where the School Feeding Programme operates. It was also observed from the school registers that whilst enrolment figures increased in some schools, funds for the School Feeding remained the same. This affected the capacity of the programme to cope with the challenges associated with the increased in school enrolment. Enrolment figures were taken from Primary One registers of the selected schools from 2000 to 2004 and percentages were calculated. The intention was to further look at the enrolment figures of the same schools after the introduction of the programme. The table below indicates the percentages of enrolment figures before the introduction of the feeding programme.

Figure 6.3: Percentage Enrolment for Primary One before the introduction of School Feeding Programme



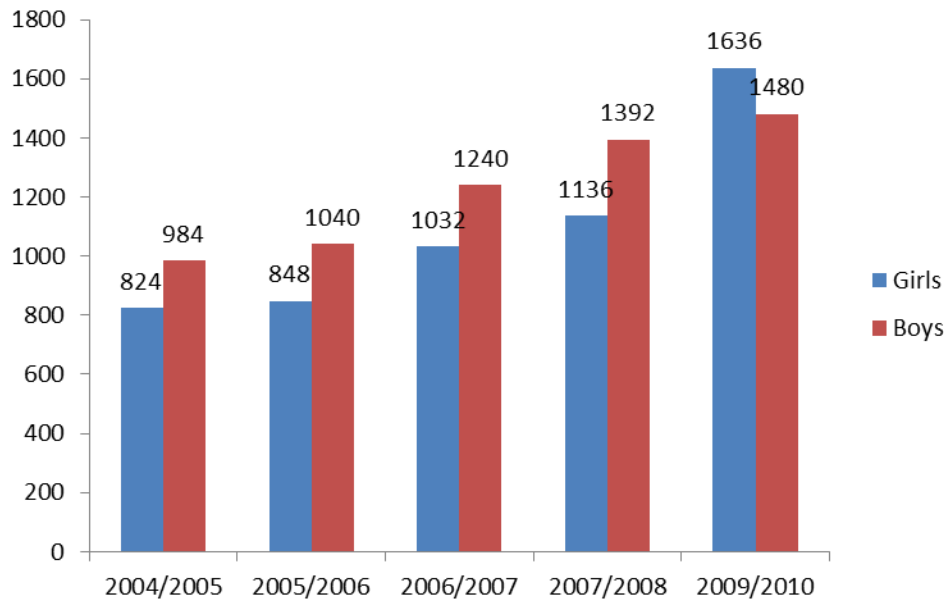
Source: Author's field survey (2012)

Figure 6.3 represents the percentages calculated from the school registers from the period 2000-2004 Academic Years, that is, before the introduction of the School Feeding Programme. It shows that there was a decline in the percentages of girls' enrolment in all the academic years as compared to the enrolment of boys except in 2000/2001 academic year. When it comes to the absolute enrolment figures there was slight increases in the enrolment of both boys and girls in absolute figures (See absolute enrolment figures in Table 20 in Appendix B). It can be seen that between these periods more boys than girls were enrolled. While the percentage increase for girls between 2000 and 2004 was 16.2 percent that of the boys was 51.4 percent and 33.3 percent in overall increase between the periods.⁷ (See calculation in the footnotes and absolute figure on table 20 in Appendix B). Figure 6.4 shows the absolute figures of enrolment of both girls and boys which were calculated in percentages to determine the percentage of increase after the introduction of the feeding programme in the selected schools.

Girls: $(344-296)/296 * 100 = 16.2\%$ Boys: $(424-280)/280 * 100 = 51.4\%$ and overall : $(768-578)/578 * 100 = 33.3\%$ ⁷

Girls: $(1136-824)/824 * 100 = 37.9\%$ Boys: $(1392-984)/984 * 100 = 41.5\%$ Overall: $(2528-1808)/1808 * 100 = 39.8\%$

Figure 6.4: Absolute Enrolment for Primary One after the introduction of the School Feeding Programme



Source: Author's field survey (2012)

Figure 6.4 shows that between 2004/05 academic years the enrolment increased by 80 and between 2006/07 and 2007/08 academic year it further increased by 256 a fast growth in enrolment and by 2009/2010 academic year, the difference went up by 588. This shows a significant increase in enrolment of these selected schools since the inception of the School Feeding Programme.

In comparison, while the percentage of girls' enrolment before the introduction of the School Feeding Programme was 16.2 percent, the figure went up to 37.9 percent after the introduction of the programme for the period of four years. The percentage for boys was 51.4 percent but dropped to 41.5 percent after the introduction of the programme. This means that the feeding programme positively affected girls more than the boys. The

overall increase in percentage was 33.2 percent before the introduction of the programme but increased by 39.8 percent after the programme for the period of four years. This means a positive effect of the programme on school enrolment in the selected beneficiary school in the region (See calculations in footnotes in the above page).

In spite of the increase in the enrolment figures in the selected schools for this period, the issue of parity in enrolment was not given attention in most of the beneficiary schools in the region. The researcher calculated gender parity indices in enrolment for the selected school using the school registers between 2004/2005 and 2008/2009 academic year to determine whether the disparity in enrolment favours the boy child or the girl child.

Table 6.4: Parity Indices between 2004/2005 and 2008/2009

Districts	Beneficiary Schools	2004/05	2005/06	2006/07	2007/08	2008/09
Tamale Metro	Koblimahu Pri. Sch.	0.72	0.80	0.85	1.01	1.08
Saboba Cheriponi	Wanjuga L/A Pri.	1.85	1.86	1.03	1.05	1.10
Zabzugu District	Zabzugu L/A Pri.	0.59	0.55	0.49	0.63	0.70
Gushegu	Zori Yipala Pri.	0.61	0.63	0.70	0.71	0.76
West Mamprusi	Gimsi Pri	0.60	0.64	0.80	0.83	1.06
Savelugu Nanton	Nyolgu Pri.	0.59	0.63	0.64	0.71	0.73
Bole District	Sanyo Primary	0.70	0.83	0.91	1.03	1.05
East Gonja	S.t Anthony Pri.	0.81	0.89	1.0	1.03	1.05

Source: calculated from school registers in the Northern Region (2012).

Table 6.4 shows that 5 of the 8 schools had disparity in favour of the girls while 3 schools had disparity in favour of the boys in 2008/2009 academic years. It was observed that all the schools have experienced consistent increase in the enrolment of girls. For the 2011/2012 academic year, the enrolment figures for both girls and boys in kindergaten one are indicated (See Table 21 in Appendix B) The figures from the school registers have been used to calculate the overall gender parity index for the 2011/2012 academic year. The total enrolment of the kindergaten for the academic year 2011/2012 of the selected schools was 503 (301 for girls and 202 for the boys.). The Gender Parity Index when calculated was 1.487 (See the calculation procedure in Appendix B).

Enrolment of the remaining 18 primary schools that do not benefit from the School Feeding Programme were also taken from the registers and calculated so that the indices can be compared. Table 22 in Appendix B shows the enrolment figures for both boys and girls in kindargaten one in 2011/2012 academic year.

The total enrolment of both girls and boys from the schools registers were 1,403. Total enrolment of Girls was 703 and that of the boys was 700. The gender parity index in enrolment was 1.004 (See Calculation in Appendix 'B'). Disparity in enrolment does exist in non-beneficiary schools in favour of girls (See the total absolute enrolment figures on table 22 in Appendix B). It shows a clear disparity in enrolment. It is clear that more girls are enrolled than boys. The Gender Parity Indices in enrolment calculated for both beneficiary and non-beneficiary schools in the Northern Region indicated that schools where the School Feeding Programme operates had gender parity index in favour

of the girls higher than the parity index in favour of girls in schools that do not benefit from the programme (1.487 and 1.004 respectively). It further shows that in terms of enrolment of boys and girls in the selected schools, the girls were enrolled more in the beneficiary schools than the boys. This in a way widens the gender disparity gap in enrolment.

The study looked at the pupils' attendance at school as a result of the School Feeding Programme. It was observed in some selected schools in the districts that attendance has improved as a result of the School Feeding Programme. In the Saboba District and Tamale Metropolitan Area, it was observed that there was a relationship between pupil's attendance and the pupil's favorite meals, any time the schools prepare rice and beans the school experiences high attendance.

It was further observed in the all feeding schools that except Koblimahu Primary School in the Tamale Metropolis that attendance to schools by pupils in most cases is based on the preparation of the food and those instances where the food is not prepared on a particular day they record low attendance of pupils. This is especially the case during the rainy season when the rains prevent the cooks from cooking. In Zori Yipala Primary School in Gushegu/Karaga, Sanyo Primary School in Bole and Nyolgu Primary in Savelugu Nanton District it was observed that when pupils wake up early morning, at about 7.00 am they look at the direction of the school if they see smoke coming from the school's kitchen they publicly and repeatedly announce "*there is smoke, there is smoke.*" Quickly, the children prepare and attend school. If there is no smoke it means that day

they either attend school late or do not attend school at all. This is what the author termed as the power of the smoke in some of the beneficiary schools in the region. The behaviour of the pupils was more typical in the rural areas in the Northern Region.

The researcher further used a case study of the Koblimahu Primary School in Tamale Metropolitan Area to illustrate the positive effect of the School Feeding Programme on enrolment in the Northern Region of Ghana.

Case Study 1: School Feeding Programme at Koblimahu Primary School in the Tamale Metropolis

Koblimahu Primary School in the Tamale Metropolitan Area is one of the schools where the School Feeding Programme started in the 2005/2006 Academic year. Currently, it has a total primary school (Primary 1-6) population of 385 pupils, out of which 174 (45.2%) are boys and 211 (54.8%) are girls. Absolute primary enrolment rose from 77 in the 2004/05 academic year (when the programme had not started) to 98 pupils in 2005/06 academic year indicating a rise of 24% (with the Feeding Programme). Although there was a further increase in absolute enrolment in the 2006/07 academic year, the rate of increase was at a lower rate of (10.3%).

The study observed that there were many changes which occurred in the course of the programme especially, between these years. Most people started to complain about the quality and quantity of food served. According to the headteacher, this was the time pupils had to share cups and plates and many parents were discouraged to enrol their children for the fear that they might contract diseases from their colleagues.

In the 2008/2009 academic year the school enrolment figures rose to 254 pupils and out of which, 58.6% were girls and 41.4% were boys. In the 2008/09 academic year there was a further increase in enrolment. The girls' enrolment went up from 58.6% to 62.8% and in 2010/2011 academic year the absolute enrolment rose to 385 pupils. The headteacher explained that attendance always drops whenever gari and beans were prepared because most pupils dislike the food. Also, attendance increased whenever rice and beans were prepared because most of the pupils like the food. It was observed in Koblumahu Primary School that disparity in enrolment favours the girl-child while disparity in attendance favours the boy-child.

It was again observed that the matron is often compelled to share a plate of food previously meant for one among two pupils as a way of reducing cost. Also an egg, previously taken by one person every Friday was shared with two pupils while dessert was no longer served in Koblumahu Primary School. Other factors like late release of funds and lack of adequate washrooms and toilet have affected the quality and quantity of food in Koblumahu Primary School in the Tamale Metropolitan area.

There was gender disparity in attendance in favour of the boys. This means that in terms of enrolment, the girls are enrolled more than the boys in both the beneficiary and non beneficiary schools but when it comes to attendance boys attend school more than the girls. The result from the school registers, though not consistent was used to calculate the gender parity indices in attendance for 2010/2011 academic year. The total attendance in a year was 1,472 out of which 601 days attendance was for girls and 871 were for boys. The parity index calculated for beneficiary schools was 0.689, while that of schools that

do not benefit was 0.67. The study found out that more children attend school in the beneficiary schools than in the non-beneficiary school (See Calculation in Appendix 'B'). In both cases the disparities were in favour of the boys.

It can be explained that the parity indices for school attendance in the beneficiary and non beneficiary schools indicated that for the 2010/2011 academic year, the girls lagged behind the boys in the beneficiary schools and non beneficiary schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. It was further observed from the calculated figures that in spite of the achievement of the School Feeding Programme in the region the parity indices in attendance were not encouraging because it is still in favour of the boys and that could be attributed to the socio economic and some socio-cultural factors already discussed in Chapter Five.

The study found that the effect of School Feeding Programme on school enrolment and attendance was assessed by the Directors of the Ghana Education Service. The Directors looked at the school enrolment figures for a particular period usually between two to three academic years. These enrolment figures are supposed to be submitted by the headteachers of the beneficiary schools to the District Directors to write a report after which the report is circulated to the various schools for their comments. It was observed that none of the schools visited was able to provide a report as evidence so far as the assessment of the programme was concerned. The Ghana Education Service shirks this responsibility of assessment and expects the headteachers to provide data relevant to the

School Feeding Programme and this was a clear indication that the assessment of the School Feeding Programme was not being done properly.

Concluding this chapter, it is evidenced that socio-economic as well as the socio-cultural factors discussed in chapter five are not the only factors that create gender disparity in pupils' enrolment especially in school attendance, the school-based factors have all contributed to gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in one way or the other. The school curriculum and the large class sizes, especially in the urban areas discouraged many girls from coming to school as well as teacher absenteeism. Teachers relate well with their pupils at the primary level and their attitudes towards the pupils at the JHS discourage many girls from attending school regularly. The School Feeding Programme is very attractive to the school pupils in the region. Both the Capitation Grant and the School Feeding Programmes have increased enrolment. Girls are now being enrolled more than boys but when it comes to attendance, boys attend school more regularly than girls in the Northern Region of Ghana and this is a significant contribution to the existing knowledge.

As indicated in the theory of Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education, the Non-Governmental Organizations are also part of the stakeholders in education hence they must be consulted especially in policies that affect education in general. It is based on this theory that the researcher included the NGOs in the study. They contribute immensely to basic education in the Northern Region of Ghana. (See the conceptual framework in Figure 4.2). The following chapter examines the areas of collaboration

between Non-Governmental Organizations and Ghana Education Service and how this collaboration affects gender disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

CHAPTER SEVEN

NGOs AND GES COLLABORATION: EFFECTS ON ENROLMENT AND ATTENDANCE

7.1 Introduction

The Girls' Education Unit was established within the Ghana Education Service in 1997 under the auspices of the fCUBE (Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education) and it has since intensified its collaboration with Non-Governmental Organisations in the area of girls' participation in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. The objectives of these NGOs are to promote girls education and close the gender disparity gap in enrolment and attendances in the Northern Region of Ghana. The strategies used by the selected NGOs to achieve these objectives include research on girls' education, advocacy by using media to educate the public on the need for girls' education, capacity building, especially training of teachers and school girls, provision of both teacher and girls incentives and formation of girls clubs and training of parents to be able to cope with their girls' education. This chapter discusses the strategies and how effective are the strategies in the collaboration with Ghana Education Service.

The theories of Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education states that all partners or stakeholders including the NGOs assisting in education should design programmes and activities which must involve the pupils, parents and other stakeholders who matter in education in order to ensure social justice and parity in basic education. It is based on this theory that the current study examines the activities of the NGOs relevant

to gender disparity in basic education since the NGOs are partners in education in the Northern Region of Ghana.

7.2 Collaboration in the Area of Research

The study found that NGOs in the Northern Region and the Girl Child Units within the Ghana Education Service collaborate in the area of research on girls' enrolment, attendance, performance and dropout of girls in basic schools in the Northern Region. It was observed that outside the operational records of the NGOs, documentation on girls' education, especially in enrolment and attendance in the region have not been systematically consolidated and therefore, very difficult to get information relevant to gender disparity in girls enrolment and attendance.

The Programme Director of SEND Foundation, in charge of Girls' Education confirmed the findings in an interview. He said:

“To partner the Ghana Education Service in research relevant to enrolment and attendance at the basic level has never been easy. Data on enrolment and attendance are rarely documented at both the regional and national levels. At times, when information on researched work already undertaken is needed, such information cannot be found at the Regional Education Office not to talk about the national offices. This makes it very difficult to make comparison so far as disparity in school enrolment and attendance are concerned in the basic schools. ”

On the part of the District Directors of Education, they explained that they have good relationship with the NGOs operating in their districts, especially NGOs which partner in girls education but confessed that the documentation of collaborated research findings are always a problem, especially in enrolment and attendance. The Statistical Unit within the offices sometimes use manual documentation which makes a lot of the document to mix up with other documents which the NGOs find difficult to trace when the need arises. One of the District Directors of Education did not agree that the loss of the collaborated research work on enrolment and attendance should be attributed to them. It was explained that the collaborated research findings are always forwarded to the regional education office for validation before it comes back for documentation, at times, the data is sent there and in the process of validation get lost in the system.

It can be interpreted from the above that the NGOs and GES collaborate in research on girls' enrolment and attendance but there was no evidence in the form of a document containing collaborated research work from either the NGOs or the GES to ascertain the efficacy on gender disparity in education. Therefore disparity still persists in enrolment in favour of girls while disparity in attendance favours the boys. This is one of the reasons why the NGOs operated in the region for decades and gender disparity in enrolment and attendance still persists.

It was observed that the relationship between the NGOs and the GES is not as cordial as expected and in a response to a question relating to the relationship between the NGOs and the GES, the headteachers had a different view. They described the relationship as

very cordial. Sixty seven percent (67 percent) of the headteachers said that the relationship between the Ghana Education Service and the NGOs is very cordial; twenty (20) percent said it is cordial while thirteen percent (13) said the relationship is not cordial. Those who said the relationship is very cordial explained that before an NGO steps on the school premises, the headteachers will be informed first by the District Director of Education and advise them to try as much as possible to cooperate with the NGO in question.

This means that the districts are often aware of all NGOs assisting in girls' education in their various districts. As one of the headteachers remarked;

“We have enjoyed a lot from the NGOs assisting our school girls. They provide our girls with books, pens and pencils and sometimes textbooks and this motivates our girls to attend school, work hard so that they can catch up with the boys”.

The headteachers who said the relationship is cordial explained that at times the District Directors of Education only informed them about an NGO after the NGO has ended its programme on the girl child. Sometimes the District Directors of Education do not even inform them unless they go to the District Office to find out whether the directors are aware of the presence of a particular NGO and the response is always affirmative. Thirteen (13 percent) percent of headteachers had a different view as far as the collaboration was concerned.

According to the headteachers, the NGOs deal directly with the District Education Office without involving the school and this does not augur well for the school and the NGOs for effective collaboration. The NGOs, on their part, explained that the Ghana Education Service cooperates with them but the District Directors of Education sometimes delay the approval process when it comes to the implementation stage. During the interviews with the District Directors of Education, they explained that their relationship with the NGOs is very cordial but added that some of the NGO programmes need to be approved by the Regional Director of Education, which sometimes delay the process but efforts are being made to eliminate these delays so that the NGOs can implement their programmes successfully.

As to whether the collaboration in research has seen more positive effects on girls' enrolment and attendance, it was observed that there was no data at the GES offices at the district levels to confirm the positive effects on enrolment and attendance, the researcher could not also trace any from the NGOs or from the headteachers. When the headteachers were asked, they explained that they always forward such data to the District Directors Office on request, sometimes, when they need the data for references they do not get it back. One of the heads said:

“We normally experience high enrolment figures and high attendance on the part of the girls, but we have never sustained the figures because it keeps on dwindling. We can not also trace the data for references”.

It can be said that majority of the District Education Directors do not collaborate well with the NGOs, there are many challenges relevant to data documentation and validation. The numbers of enrolment, attendance and dropout were not sustainable, research on enrolment and attendance did not close the gender disparity gap therefore, gender disparity in enrolment and attendance still favour the boys in many cases in the region, especially in schools where the School Feeding Programme does not operate.

7.3 Advocacy and Education

It was observed that advocacy in various forms constituted a strong area of activity in the NGOs and the Ghana Education Service's collaboration in the Northern Region. These activities are engaged at different levels within the operation areas of the NGOs and it affected positively girls' enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. The District Directors supported this finding during the interview. They explained that advocacy continues to be an important requirement; it permeates the social fabric in response to the vast need for attitudinal change in the community. Parents in most of the districts now see the need to enrol the girl child in school and allow her to attend. The Director in Charge of Education Programme of Send Foundation Ghana also supported the observation made by the author, he said:

“As part of our programme of activities, we play advocacy for the facilitation of girls education in the region with members of the District Assembly and traditional rulers, especially, on the negative effects of customs and traditions on girls education.

This is to achieve change in traditional models of thought and adaptation of customs, public education on the need to send the girl child to school at the national and local level through community meetings, workshops and radio and television”.

The NGOs further explained that they advocate for promotion and sustain awareness about the importance of girl child education in some selected districts especially, districts where the participation of girl child in education is very low. It was further observed that the NGOs initiate programs at the district levels and dissemination of workshops for sensitization of parents, chiefs, teachers and girls on the relevance of girls’ education in order to eliminate the socio cultural and economic barriers to girls’ education and this has yielded positive results in enrolment of children, especially the girl child which has bridged the gender disparity gap in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region that have bedeviled the basic schools for decades.

The headteachers, when interviewed, explained that the NGOs are doing their best to remove many barriers to girls education in their schools but the support they receive from the District Directors of Education has not been the best because some of them explained that they have never seen any member of Ghana Education Service in their schools to monitor the activities concerning advocacy. Also the District Directors have never asked them what their schools have achieved as a result of the NGOs activities.

As to whether the advocacy by the NGOs has addressed the gender disparity problem in their schools, it was observed that disparity continues to persist in favour of the boy child in attendance, enrolment of girls and attendance are not always sustainable. It can be said that though the NGOs are doing their best in the area of advocacy in the region by training teachers on effective teaching methodology, education of parents on how to promote, sustain and creation of awareness on the plight of the girl child through workshops, it does not reflect on the purpose for which the advocacy is being carried out.

7.4 Scholarship Schemes for Girls by NGOs

It was observed that there were various types of scholarship schemes for girls at various levels. These scholarship schemes were highly pervasive in the collaboration. Most of the NGOs award incentives and scholarships to girls in order to motivate them to stay in school and attend school regularly as well as perform well in class. These scholarships which are much realized at the basic level have positive effects on girls' enrolment and attendance. It is these incentives that really make parents to enrol their girls and allow them to stay in school until they attain basic school certification. The NGOs provide incentives such as school uniforms and bicycles both at the Primary and Junior High levels in the districts.

In an an interview with the Programme Director of Campaign for Female Education (CAMFED), the director confirmed the findings by explaining that these incentives for girls are meant to close the disparity gap between the boys and girls. The study found that the CAMFED, an NGO operating in the region established scholarship schemes for

needy girls since 2008. This involves giving awards and other incentives to girls. It also included payment of school fees at the Senior High Level. During the interview, it was revealed that currently the Campaign for Female Education is supporting a total number of 16,000 females across four regions (Northern, Upper East, Upper West and Brong Ahafo) with scholarship packages such as school fees, uniform, and foot wear.

The study again found that CAMFED supplied food items to girls in some deprived schools in the districts as a special award for girls for excellent academic performance and attendance. Action Aid also provides bicycles as incentives to girls who stay about twenty kilometers away from their schools. The Programme Officer of Action Aid confirmed this finding and said;

“We provided a number of bicycles to girls at Chereponi in 2010.”

The District Director, when contacted, corroborated this finding by explaining that the Action Aid Ghana has provided 400 bicycles to girls who commute long distances to their schools in the district and this in a way made a lot of girls to attend school especially those staying far away from their schools. The study again found out that the World Food Programme is located in many districts in the region. As part of incentives to the girl child, grain ration was given to girls who attend school regularly to go home in order to motivate them to attend school, especially those who have made 100 percent attendance in a month and this is a relief to parents in the region.

In relation to incentives provided to schools, Tonah (2011) noted that the activities of NGOs in the region provide some form of relief to some sections of the population,

especially parents. The author noted that the provision of some infrastructure in some schools has somewhat improved enrolment figures considerably, especially, in West Mamprusi District of the Northern Region of Ghana. It can be interpreted then that the scholarship schemes are relevant to girls' participation in basic education. Enrolment has increased and attendance improved and these were as a result the activities of NGOs of which scholarships are part.

It was again observed that some scholarship package included exercise books for girls, sanitary pads, soap and dry food ration and in a response to a question relating to incentives for girls, 97.4 percent of the girls said they do receive these incentives while 2.6 percent said they do not receive these incentives. It was found that 55 percent of the girls from the primary schools in the Northern Region have progressed to the Junior High School and 45 percent of them have progressed from the JHS to the Senior High School. As to how the Ghana Education Service collaborated with them in this sponsorship, the Director of the SEND foundation explained that the success could not have been possible without the cooperation of the GES, parents and the teachers. All played their respective roles and this is in line with the theory of social justice as explained by Sen (2007). This means that in terms of collaboration in the scholarships, the Ghana Education Service has given the NGOs the necessary support to carry out the scholarship schemes and these positively affected girls' school enrolment and attendance more than the boys.

It was further observed that Action Aid Ghana has helped or sponsored over 300 girls to Senior High School level. This was revealed during the interview with the Programme

Director. When the author asked the Director the essence of these sponsorships, he explained that disparity between boys and girls in enrolment and attendance in the region is serious that this sponsorship is meant to motivate the upcoming girls to attend school, study hard and pass their examination. As to whether they encounter any problem with the District Directors of Education in the region, the NGO explained that the Directors were committed to the course but added that it was when we needed data on current enrolment and attendance for the evaluation of the programme that they experienced some difficulty with the directors. The Programme Director said;

“We need these data to set as bases so that proper evaluation of our achievements can be assessed”.

The study established in NGOs efforts to assist bridge the disparity gap between boys and girls in enrolment and attendance they go through difficulties with the Ghana Education Service to make their dreams come true. Though the NGOs have made important gains in area of incentives and scholarships to girls, there has not been much reflection on girls' enrolment and attendance in the basic schools in the region.

7.5 Capacity Building in the Region

The study found that the NGOs, in collaboration with the Girl Child Education Unit within the Ghana Education Service, train Ghana Education Service Officials, especially the girl child education officials on how to manage the Girl Child Education Units, also how to handle the girl child in their various districts in the region. This training is centered on issues of enrolment, attendance and retention of girls in the basic schools.

The Tolon Kumbungu District Education Director in the Northern Region corroborated the finding. He explained that in Tolon Kumbungu and the Zabzugu Districts in 2009, UNICEF provided a number of logistics support for the training of Ghana Education Service officials, the School Management Committees and Organization of workshops for the training of teachers on how to handle and motivate the girl child. It also included an orientation for teachers on gender disparity issues and also encouraged teachers to improve upon their performance in and outside the classrooms.

It was found that the Non-Governmental Organizations, as part of the collaboration with the Ghana Education Service, organized best teacher awards competition for teachers and prizes were awarded to deserving teachers in the Saboba District in 2009. The study further found that in March, 2010 the Girl Child Education Unit within Ghana Education Service organized a two day workshop on the topic;

“Communication strategies for promoting gender parity in basic schools in the Northern Region”

UNICEF Ghana provided the funding. It can be interpreted that the NGOs collaborate well with the Ghana Education Service in the area of provision of incentives; the assessment of the impact of these incentives was what the NGOs found very difficult to explain since they hardly get the outcomes from Ghana Education Service or get accurate data from the headteachers in the districts.

As to whether the headteachers received incentives of any kind from the NGOs assisting girls, 93 percent corroborated what the NGOs earlier said on incentives and scholarships. They said they receive incentives from NGOs which include: prizes for hard working teachers, scholarship in the form of money for our girls to motivate them to attend school and stay in school, while 6.7 percent said they do not receive incentives from NGOs. What they normally receive come from the District Education Office and they cannot tell whether it is the NGOs that give these incentives via the District Education Office or not.

As to whether those incentives for girls make any impact on girls' attendance, the responses were affirmative. The headteachers explained that girls now attend school than previously when they were not receiving these incentives. Nonetheless, their attendance cannot be compared with that of the boys, therefore, the disparity in attendance still exist in favour of the boy-child, and this could be attributed to socio-economic and socio-cultural factors which are beyond their control. Abdulai's studies in Mamprusi in (2007) confirmed the current results in the Northern Region.

The author explained that raw food ration for only girls in the Mamprusi West in the region as incentive had a positive impact on girls' enrolment. In that case the girls were more enrolled than the boys in schools. It can be said that though the incentives play an important role in girls' attendance but that alone cannot change the disparity situation in the region. The collaboration of the NGOs and the Ghana Education Service alone cannot resolve the problem of disparity in attendance without the NGOs collaborating effectively with the parents on one hand and the Ghana Education Service on the other hand.

7.6 Formation of Girls' Clubs in the Basic Schools by NGOs

It was observed that the Action Aid, CAMFED and SEND Foundation in the Northern Region have all formed girls' clubs in some districts to encourage girls to compete favourably among themselves which in the long run give them confidence to compete with their boy counterparts. The NGOs, in an interview, attested to this by explaining that the forming of these clubs in the schools had transformation effects on the girls' school attendance and participation in class. Also, it made them confident and studious. The NGOs further explained that the objective of these clubs is to improve girls' academic performance via regular school attendance and competition with other clubs, attending workshops relevant to girl child education and also to reduce dropout rate as well as close the disparity gap between the boys and girls at the basic school level.

As to whether the NGOs achieved their objectives, the explanation given was that they know they have empowered the girls clubs to function effectively, the achievement of the objectives is supposed to be communicated either verbally or in a written form to the NGOs by the teachers on the ground which the NGOs do not get, when the NGOs even go to the school to assess the outcome they do not get the necessary data.

7.7 Challenges of NGOs and GES in the Collaboration

7.7.1 Non Availability of Data in Some of the District Offices in the Region

According to the NGOs, non-availability of data relevant to girls' education at the District Education Office poses a serious threat in the collaboration with the Ghana Education Service. The Programme Director of SEND Foundation had this to say in an interview;

“We normally need the existing data of girls’ education to use as bases for our collaboration so that after the programme implementation, assessment can be done based on the data from Ghana Education Office.”

The NGOs complained during the interview that they experience what they called inconsistency data at the District Education Offices in the region, a problem which makes them more confused when evaluating their programme on girls’ education. They further explained that they found it very difficult to understand why data submitted to the District Offices and on request after some few months, experience errors or inconsistency in the data, either the figures are increased or reduced for the reasons best known to the District Offices. This makes it very difficult for them to trust the Ghana Education Service in the collaboration. They said it does not augur well for the collaboration. It is a clear indication that there is lack of trust between the partners involved and this is one of the reasons why the NGOs cannot achieve their targets, especially, parity among boys and girls in the region.

It was observed that non availability of research data at some of the District Offices was a common problem of both the NGOs and the Ghana Education Service in the region. The District Director of Saboba Chereponi District, during the interview, explained that because of lack of experts in data management at the District Offices, most of the data, especially, on girls’ education, get lost in the system. Those handling research findings are not competent enough to preserve the data with the help of the computer.

Some districts like Savelugu Nanton and East Mamprusi had data on enrolment up to 2008 while others have data up to 2005 and some had up to 2006. Only Bole district had data up to 2010. For the NGOs, the study revealed that CAMFED, SEND, and Action Aid had data up to 2010; the data on enrolment before 2008 were inconsistent with the data from the District Offices in the region. The District Directors of Education agreed that data on girls' education, especially issues concerning enrolment and attendance need to be preserved since all the Regional Education Offices throughout the country are working towards the achievement of the targets of the Millennium Development Goals in 2015.

One of the District Directors of Education said;

“My brother, non-availability of adequate data at the District Offices has actually made the work of the NGOs very difficult. At times; they rely on us for information before implementing their programmes on girls' education at the basic level. At times they go on their own way to conduct research and find their own data and I think this should be encouraged at all the educational levels.”

The District Directors of Education further explained that sometimes, they were accused of what they call “Data Manipulation,” an accusation they took an exception to. In their view this accusation does not augur well for effective collaboration in the region. It can be said that the above revelations explains why almost all the schools visited did not have

any records relevant to girls' attendance and also non-availability of enough data on enrolment and attendance in the schools reflected in some of the District Offices in the region.

The District Directors of Education in the selected Districts again explained that it has come to their notice that the NGOs collaborating with them in girls education do not trust them and this is manifested in the way they handle their programmes on girls education with them. One of District Directors said;

“At times the NGOs feel reluctant to provide us with data on girls’ education in the various districts any time we request for the data at times, they refuse completely to assist us with research findings when the need arises.”

It was observed that some of the NGOs at times refuse to attend meetings organized by the Ghana Education Service and this makes it very difficult to compare figures with the NGOs which sometimes result in disparities in school enrolment and attendance figures in the districts.

It was further observed that one of the major problems the GES faces in the collaboration was lack of funds at the districts to really support the NGOs to carry out their programmes on girls' education. They explained that the funds allocated to the District Directors of Education are inadequate such that they find it very difficult to assist in funding. As one of the District Directors lamented;

“I sometimes feel embarrassed for my inability to contribute to funding some programmes of the NGOs. At times I need to support by providing lunch for participants at a workshop organized by the NGOs but unavailability of funds at the district always makes it very difficult to support in this direction.”

As to how the NGOs react to this attitude, the Directors explained that their refusal to inform them how and when their programmes on girls’ education will be implemented give them an impression that they are not happy with them. Also, the NGOs attitude towards them when they request for data on girls education shows that they are not happy with them. When the NGOs were asked to react to what the District Directors said they explained that there are some programmes which need co-sponsorship especially advocacy for training Ghana Education Officers, the District Directors of GES often shirk their responsibility. The NGOs added that they do not refuse giving out any information requested by the GES as the District Directors claimed at times; when the information is not available the Directors do not want to believe them. They again explained that disparity in enrolment starts right from the first day of school cycle. Most schools right from kindargaten enrol boys more than girls at the start and some more girls than boys at the start and unless this inbalance is corrected the inevitable result is a permanent gender disparity in enrolment in the region.

7.7.2 Lack of Cooperation

It was again found that Ghana Education Service offices in the region do not cooperate effectively with the NGOs assisting in girls' education in the region. The Director in charge of girls' programme of Action Aid confirmed this by explaining that their programmes on girls education takes a lot of time at the Regional Education Office to be approved by the Regional Director of Education before we implement them in the communities, sometimes when the NGOs go to the District Offices to find out the state of their programmes they do not receive the needed attention. The NGOs again explained that they have time for the Ghana Education Service because they know that they partner them in education in the region.

It was again observed in Bole, Gushegu/ Karaga and Tolon/Kumbungu districts that the schools do not cooperate well with the NGOs to their satisfaction. At times, the NGOs find it difficult reaching the girls of these schools. The headteachers in these schools do not allow the girls to leave the school premises for any NGO programme. They always demand confirmation from the District Directors of Education. This frustrates the NGOs and retards their progress as partners in girls' education in the region. When the headteachers were interviewed, they did not deny the assertion by the NGOs they only added that it is not their making. Sometimes they do not release their girls to the NGOs for programmes because of the instructions they receive from the District Directors. The District Directors of Education in the interview explained that some of the NGOs in the districts do not follow the school calendar. At times they want to implement their

programmes during vacation which they find difficult to agree with because they could not guarantee the safety of the pupils.

The District Directors in the region explained that the major problem they face with the Non-Governmental Organizations collaborating in girls' education in the region is inadequate information flow. They said that most of these NGOs do not consult them before implementing their programmes on girls' education. They may be aware of the programme but when it comes to the implementation phase, they are left out. At times the Circuit Supervisors complain to them after their rounds about what they call girls massive absenteeism in their various districts and the reasons are that an NGO has a workshop or training for all girls in the district. The District Directors of Education further explained that due to lack of constant communication with the NGOs, the NGOs think that they do not cooperate effectively them.

One of the District Directors said;

“You see gentleman, we like the collaboration with the NGOs in research, but more often, the NGOs do not tell us the time for the implementation of their programmes so that we can prepare for them.”

The above assertion by the directors indicates that there is some collaboration but it is not effective as both the directors and the NGOs expect and this is one of the reasons why disparity in basic education still persists in spite of the collaboration between the NGOs

and the Ghana Education Service which existed over decades in Northern Region of Ghana.

7.7.3 Lack of Logistics at the District Offices

It was further observed that District Directors of Education of Gushegu Karaga, Saboba, and Tolon Kumbungu lack adequate logistics in their District Offices and this makes the data preservation very difficult. This observation was confirmed when one of the directors said that they do not have the needed computers and the needed experts to handle the data in their offices. He added that he has the data, how to preserve it in the offices is a big problem. There are no experts to handle the data and that is why we lose some relevant information in the offices. It was observed that in all the districts visited one could count only two computers; one in the District Director's Office with a printer and one computer in the General Office without a printer. The directors explained that they have been complaining to the government but no attention had been paid to their plea.

It can be concluded that the collaboration between the Ghana Education Service and the NGOs in the Northern Region has not been effective. They have not been able to address adequately the disparity gap in the region, especially in enrolment and attendance. Therefore, there is the need for attitudinal change on the part of both collaborators since the disparity gap still exists. Again, the gap still persists in spite of the presence of the NGOs in the region for decades.

The collaboration between the NGOs and Ghana Education Service is relevant for the promotion of girls' effective participation in basic education. It is real that the collaboration is bedeviled with many challenges which explain many reasons why NGOs in the Northern Region have not been able to address the problem of gender disparity in school enrolment and attendance. With dedication and commitment to the task by both stakeholders, these challenges will be minimized or even eliminated completely. The next chapter presents the summary of all the chapters already discussed, the conclusion, recommendation and policy implication.

CHAPTER EIGHT

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, RECOMMENDATIONS AND POLICY

IMPLICATIONS

8.1 Summary

8.1.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the major findings thematically, the conclusion, policy implications and recommendations. The study investigated the factors that affect gender disparity in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana with reference to disparity in enrolment and school attendance. These factors included socio-cultural, economic, school-based factors such as the feasibility of the School Feeding Programme and the Capitation Grant, class size, the pupil-teacher relationship as well as male-female pupils' relationship. The chapter further presents a summary of areas of the collaboration between the NGOs and GES and how these collaborations affect gender disparity in school enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana.

8.1.2 Major Findings

Evidence from the study has indicated that Ghana has made good progress towards achieving gender parity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the Northern Region of Ghana. Policies such as the School Feeding Programme and Capitation Grant have not been able to fully address the disparity issues therefore there are still gender access gaps in enrolment in favour of females whilst the gaps in school attendance are in favour of the males in the Northern Region.

A cross sectional design often associated with quantitative approach was combined with qualitative approach in the study. Also, a multi-stage cluster sampling technique was used. This included the probability and non probability techniques. Additionally, the data were collected through interview guides, observation and questionnaires. This was done through mixed methods (qualitative and quantitative) and with the support of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), the quantitative data were processed and analysed using tables, charts, crosstabulation and in some cases regressions.

The qualitative data, especially data from the interviews and observations were used to support the quantitative data except instances where some independent variables emerged in the course of the interview. In such a scenario, the qualitative data were organized, analyzed and examined separately. The methodology was linked to the theoretical framework of the study (Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education Theory by Amartya Sen 2007), which placed emphasizes on the capability of individuals and ensuring justice without discrimination when it comes to which child should be sent to school and allowed to stay, irrespective of the social status of the family, gender and the environment within which the boy-child and the girl-child find themselves. The theory was applied by seeking the opinions of all the stakeholders in basic education (parents, teachers, pupils and NGOs) relating to gender access gap and how gender disparity in enrolment and school attendance in the Northern Region can be collectively addressed.

Literature was reviewed on thematic areas such as the socio-economic, cultural and the school-based factors affecting girls' basic education. It was found that globally,

disparities in enrolment and school attendance between males and females remain everywhere, especially in North Africa and Middle East where disparity gaps in basic schools are still great. The gaps in school enrolment and school attendance in Sub Saharan Africa vary broadly especially, in parts of Ghana where the school enrolment and attendance among females in basic schools are still below that of the males.

The study found that parental levels of education have little impact on children's levels of education in the Northern Region of Ghana. Household chores, market days, household head income and the cost associated with basic education were discovered as factors that impact negatively on children's enrolment and attendance, especially girls' attendance. The cost associated with females' education was higher than that of the males. Consequently, many household heads give their children 'chop money' for school, especially children who attend schools where the School Feeding Programme does not operate.

The regression model showed that with high incomes parents are more likely to enrol their females as compared to scenarios when their incomes are low. The study also found that cultural factors such as fostering, child betrothal, menstruation, funerals rites and festival as well as polygyny all negatively affect gender disparity in school enrolment and attendance, especially, female enrolment and attendance and this widens the access gap in favour of the males in most cases.

School-based factors such as the class size, teacher absenteeism, pupils-teacher relationship as well as the School Feeding Programme and Capitation Grant have affected enrolment and attendance. Male household heads dominated in the region. Though there were few female heads observed in the region, this was not common. There were other categories of female heads in the households who responded to the questionnaires, they explained that their husbands had either gone to the market or to the farm and that they were not actually heads of their families.

Apart from Bole, Gushegu and Saboba Districts, the percentage of middle age persons was higher in the region (representing 69 percent). The average age of the household heads respondents was 45 years and this was significant so far as maturity in providing relevant information on gender access gap was concerned. Sixty percent (60 per) of the respondents were in rural areas while 40 percent of the respondents were from the urban areas and majority of the household heads were married. The Tamale Metropolitan Area had the lowest percentage of married couples representing 43 percent while Gushegu and Karaga District recorded the highest representing 56.7 percent and 54.6 percent respectively.

Divorce was not a common practice in the region. Tamale recorded the highest percentage of people who had never married while Bole recorded the lowest. Majority of the household heads were Muslims though other religions like Christianity and Traditional African Religion existed in the region. In addition, sixteen percent (16 percent) of the household respondents never attended school and only one percent (1%)

of respondents attended school up to the tertiary level. Most parents in the region, especially, in the Muslim households still prefer to educate their girls in Arabic.

8.2. Socio- Economic Factors

Seventy-eight percent (78 percent) of the household heads were farmers while 22 percent engaged in other income generating activity such as trading, teaching, fishing and pito brewing. In most of the Christian households, some were involved in pig rearing as part of raising more income for their children's education. This was observed in Saboba/Chereponi District and in some parts of Bimbila Districts where Komkombas dominated. The occupation of the household heads and their incomes determined the decision to enrol and allow children to attend school in the region. When incomes of the household heads are very low, the decision for schooling favored the boy child.

Household heads were unable to meet the cost of educating their girls. The average monthly and yearly incomes of households were GHc 53.3 and GHc 639.6 respectively, which the respondents said was too low to meet the cost of educating their children especially, the girl child.

The boy child is preferred to be educated because educating the girl child yields no future returns to the household. On the other hand, the female child will marry, so investing in her means investing in her future husband. While the expenditure for a school term for girls was GHc 27.1 and an annual expenditure of GHc 81.3, that of the boys was GHc 23.3 per school term and GHc 69.9 per annum. The expenditure for girls was higher than that of the boys in the Northern Region of Ghana because of the extra needs of the girls

such as extra school uniforms, panties and sanitary pads to manage menstruation in school and at home. Consequently, when families are constrained in terms of resources, the boy child is preferred to be enrolled in school.

It was further found that 93.4 percent of households give their girls “chop money” for school daily while 82.3 percent of households give their boys “chop money” for school because, boys were more prepared than girls to eat food that is left over night. This explains why more parents give their girls, rather than boys, chop money for school as a way of encouraging them to attend school regularly.

In explaining the socio-economic factors that affect gender disparity in school attendance in the Northern Region of Ghana, the negative impact of household chores cannot be discounted. The study identified the enormity of household chores as a bane to gender disparity in school attendance in the Northern Region.

It was further observed that majority of the boys helped their parents on the farm and this does not affect their school attendance because the boys only go to farm after school while the girls continue with the chores before and after school. The study again observed that there was a relationship between household’s income, religion and their marital status. Income of parents was statistically significant at 1 percent, 5 percent and 10 percent in determining enrolment of girls as compared with religion and marital status of household heads.

In spite of the significance of the entire model religion was only significant at ten percent but contributes positively in the regression trend. It was also found that marital status of the household heads was not significant but contributes positively to girls' enrolment. This result was therefore unexpected and this could occur due to an error in the regression or by chance. Market days such as Tamale and Techiman negatively affected girls' school attendance in school in the region as compared with the boys. As the study showed, only 18 percent of the households interviewed indicated that they do allow their girls to attend school during these market days and this makes the girls of such households to record high school attendance in the school. Contrary, 82 percent of households prevented their girls from attending school resulting in low attendance of girls in school.

8.3. Socio-Cultural and Contextual Challenges

Marriage is one of the key institutions that undermine girls' access to basic education in the Northern Region of Ghana. Though households in the Northern Region cherished marriage, the practice of early marriage was minimal irrespective of the fact that it is a force to reckon with. It was found that some girls marry before the age of 16. In poor rural households, the practice negatively affected girls' education, especially in attendance to school. It was further observed that in urban households, girls still marry before attaining the age of 16 years but some continue to attend school.

The practice of polygyny had its roots from African Traditional Religion in the Northern Region of Ghana. The study found that the number of wives household heads have

determined the number of children who will be sent to school. The number of wives of household heads negatively affected both enrolment and school attendance. Seventy six (76) percent of the household heads still practice polygyny while 24 percent do not. The study further revealed that in polygynous households the boy-child was preferred to the girl-child as far as the enrolment in school was concerned; a development which causes gender disparity in enrolment and school attendance. In the case of child betrothal, Saboba-Chereponi District recorded the highest (57.2 percent) while Tamale Metropolitan Area recorded the lowest (11.1 percent). It was observed that some Christian households were polygynous and this phenomenon was more pronounced in parts of Tamale, Saboba and Bimbila Districts. The study imputed the reasons for this phenomenon on traditional, rather than religious considerations.

Fostering was widely practiced, especially among the Dagomba, Gonjas, Mamprusis, Nanumbas and Konkombas. About 91 percent of the households in the rural areas attested to this. The effects of these cultural practices were felt more heavily on girls in the urban areas than their colleagues in the rural areas. It was found that not all foster girls were allowed to attend school in most cases but foster mothers did allow their biological children at all cost to attend school. Those foster girls who are allowed to attend school are sometimes withdrawn before attaining basic school certification. The treatment these young girls go through made them perform poorly in school and eventually end their schooling at early stages in their lives.

Menstruation, as a factor, negatively affected girls' attendance in school in the region. Seventy nine percent (79 percent) of the households were fully aware of this and they

explained that sometimes, the persistent cramps many girls in the communities experience prevent them from attending school. There were some cultural perceptions about menstruation which made it very difficult for girls to cope with their boy counterparts in school. These perceptions prohibited a menstruating girl from cooking, attending school or engaging in public gathering.

As a ritual which is adored by the people of Northern Region, the performance of funeral rites is regarded as a collective responsibility involving both adults and infants. Parents utilized the services of their children, both the boy-child and the girl-child during funerals. This obviously causes pupils absenteeism at school. As the services of the girl-child are mostly utilized during funerals, the scale of absenteeism skews more in the direction of the female pupils than their male counterparts and this causes a disparity in school attendance between male and female pupils in the Northern Region of Ghana.

Festivals in the Northern Region are important occasions on the traditional calendar of the people. They are occasions that re-inforce the bond or link between spiritual and material paradigms; they connect the bond between the living and the dead. As a result, the celebration of festivals in the region attracted the participation of everyone in the community.

During the celebration of festivals such as Damba and Fire girls do not attend school and this adversely affected gender disparity in school attendance. These girls stay at home cook, and fetch water for their families. All the major ethnic groups celebrated the

Bugum (Fire) and the Damba festival. During the Naa Damba and the Somo Damba “unofficial” holidays are given because most pupils do not attend school in this case both the boy-child and the girl-child are affected.

8.4 School-Based Factors Affecting Gender Disparity

As discussed earlier, negative attitudes and perceptions regarding the abilities and capabilities of both the girl-child and the boy-child were deeply embedded in the culture of the people in the Northern Region. There were activities and programmes put in place to make sure that girls catch up with their counterparts in attendance and participation in school activities. These mechanisms included school debates, quizzes and the selection of school prefects. This was in line with the theory of capability and school justice in education propounded by Sen (2007) which emphasized on equal participation in school activities and social justice in addressing issues in education. The theory was used as a guide in designing interview guides and questionnaire to capture the opinions of all the stakeholders in education. The study found that the programmes put in place in the school positively affected girls’ participation in education, especially in school attendance.

It was observed that overcrowding in the classes discouraged many girls from attending school, especially during menstruation. In most of the urban schools, it was observed that the teacher-pupil ratio was 1:75 and 1:30 in the rural areas. Comparing these class sizes to the normal class size of 45 pupils, it was concluded that the ratio in the urban areas was not conducive for learning and teaching. Teacher absenteeism in the rural areas was higher than the urban areas. Many teachers do not attend school on Thursdays and

Fridays, especially in most of the rural areas visited (and these were the teachers who were not residing in the communities they teach). This negatively affected pupils' attendance.

The absence of female teachers as role models in the rural communities discouraged many girls from attending school and some parents did not see the need to enrol their girls. Out of 78 teachers in the schools visited only 17 of them were female teachers. It was further revealed that the supervision of teachers was very poor especially, in the rural schools as compared with the urban schools. Only 6.7 percent of the teachers attended school regularly and this affected pupils' attendance as most of the pupils stay at home knowing very well that their teachers will not come to school. Additionally, there was no comprehensive system to monitor teachers in the region by Ghana Education Service and the only punishment to teachers who persistently absent themselves from school was to transfer the teachers to different schools.

Postings of teachers to urban schools was based on "whom you know" at the District Education Office. Those teachers posted to rural schools were those without "connections" at the District Education Office. Female teachers in the basic schools served as role models to many girls in the region, therefore their persistent absence had an adverse effect on these girls' school attendance and performance in class. It also discouraged them from attending school and made it difficult for them to confide their problems in the male teachers. This made them to feel psychological discomfort which negatively affected their attendance and performance.

Most of the girls in the basic schools in the region related well with their male teachers. Few did not relate well because of advances some of the teachers make towards them. This is to avoid sexual harassment that some of the female pupils fail to attend school regularly. Apart from the teachers, the girls related well with their male counterparts. Ninety three percent (93 percent) of them attested to this while 7% said they sometimes experienced verbal harassment by the boys outside the class and also during menstruation. Though there were measures outlined to sanction male teachers who harass their female pupils, they are ineffective. In most instances, transfers of teachers were used as punitive measures, a measure which affects the school more than the teacher concerned. As it is usually difficult to replace a transferred teacher with another one, headteachers are reluctant to report cases of sexual harassment of their subordinates to the appropriate authorities for sanctions.

The curriculum in most of the schools had positive effects on girls' participation in basic education. The curriculum allows the girls to compete favorably with their male counterparts. The school curricula in some cases were biased against the girl child. Some headteachers in the rural areas felt that some of these curricula did not capture the interest of the girl child in the rural communities neither did it capture the interest of their parents, there was therefore the fear that the girls might get foreign influences which will make them disobey their parents at home. Additionally, it was observed that there was a conflict between the school calendar and the work girls do at home and in some of the rural areas visited, parents did not allow their girls to attend school in time because the

girls had to finish the work at home before attending school and this also negatively affected their performance in class.

Majority of the schools visited were located in the communities and only 15 percent of the schools were located outside the communities. These were mostly in the urban areas. Contrary to the perceptions of a section of the public that pupils in basic schools in the Northern Region do not pay fees any more as a result of the Capitation Grant, parents still pay levies which included the PTA dues and examination fees. The Capitation Grant had positive effects on enrolment and did not impact positively on attendance as shown in the national result in the text. Kanville Presbyterian Primary in Tamale and Waribogu LA Primary were used as case studies because there were two of many schools where the Capitation Grant had positive effect on enrolment. Other variables like the School Feeding Programme and intervention by NGOs were used to control the study variable (Capitation Grant) and the result showed a positive increase in enrolment. The Capitation Grant was gender sensitive (unintended) in some schools especially, in the rural areas where provisions are made locally to take care of girls who experience menstruation during school hours.

Generally, the School Feeding Programme has had a positive effect on school enrolment and attendance. Since the introduction of the programme, the absolute enrolment for the beneficiary schools went up from 16.2 percent to 37.9 percent for the girls and that of the boys reduced from 51.4 percent to 41.5 percent. The average percentage changes between the years 2000 and 2008 were 33.3 percent and 39.8 percent respectively. This showed an

increased in girls' enrolment as compared to boys. The issue of parity in enrolment was not given attention. The gender parity index was 1.487 meaning there was still disparity in favour of the girl child. While the parity index for the beneficiary schools stood at 1.487 that of the non-beneficiary schools stood at 1.004; meaning, more girls were enrolled in the beneficiary schools than in the non-beneficiary schools even though, there was still disparity. The two programmes had positive effects on school enrolment and attendance. The case study of Koblimahu Primary School in Tamale further supported the fact that enrolment has gone up as a result of the School Feeding Programme.

In terms of disparity in attendance for the beneficiary schools, the parity index was 0.69 thus disparity in favour of the boy child as compared with the parity index for non-beneficiary schools was 0.67. In both cases attendance of girls lagged behind that of boys in 2010/2011 academic year. The School Feeding Programme was not being assessed well. The District Directors were in charge but not a single assessment report was found either in the District Office or in the schools.

8.5 Institutional Collaboration

The Ghana Education Service collaborated with NGOs in the area of research in girls' school enrolment and school attendance. It was found that outside the operational records of the NGOs, documentation on girl's education in the region, especially at the District Education Office has not been effectively done. Attendance and the enrolment figures recorded during the collaboration have never been sustained. The figures according to the NGOs keep on dwindling. This was as a result of ineffective

collaboration which really affected their attempt to find a lasting solution to the disparity gap in the basic schools in the region.

Advocacy was another issue which constituted a strong area of activity in the collaboration. It brought an attitudinal change on the part of both teachers and the pupils especially, on perception regarding the girl child in terms of school enrolment, school attendance and performance. Collaboration in this area was meant to eliminate the effects of the socio- cultural and economic factors that negatively affect gender disparity in enrolment and school attendance in basic schools in the region. The NGOs provided various scholarships scheme at various levels in the region just to motivate parents to enrol their girls and allow them to attend school regularly as well as perform well in class. These scholarships had a positive effect on school enrolment and school attendance of girls. In spite of these, disparity still persisted though in favor of the boy child.

The Campaign for Female Education Department (CAMFED) and Action Aid were both found to be involved in the collaboration. They provided bicycles, food grain, and foot wear and in some cases money to girls in the districts where they operated and the intentions were to address the disparity gap in girls' enrolment and attendance as well as performance. In the area of capacity building, the NGOs in collaboration with the girls units within the Ghana Education Service, trained teachers and Ghana Education Service Officials on how to manage data on girls' education, especially figures concerning enrolment and attendance. They organized best teachers' awards annually to motivate the teachers to put up their best in handling the girl child. The head teachers explained that

though many girls now attend school disparity is still in favour of the boy child and this could be attributed to lack of cooperation by parents and the headteachers on one hand and the Ghana Education Service and the NGOs on the other.

The formation of girls' clubs by NGOs in various schools in the districts positively affected gender disparity in schools and this made the girls to now compete favourably with the boys. The activities of the clubs have inspired many of them to attend school regularly. There were a number of challenges in the course of the collaboration as the study unfolded. On the part of the NGOs, non-availability of data at the District Education Offices in the region was a major problem they face, as it made it very difficult to compare facts and figures relevant to enrolment and attendance in school with the Ghana Education Service.

Also, the achievements of girls in education at the district offices were not also documented and inconsistency of research data made the NGOs collaboration ineffective, especially, in evaluating their programmes with the Girls Education Units in the region. Another challenge of the NGOs was the lack of cooperation on the part of the girls units within the Ghana Education Service and this made them not to trust officials at the District Education Offices. Also most of the schools created disparity in enrolment right from the start of the school cycle thus they either enrolled boys more than girls or girls more than boys at kindergaten and this is a challenge in addressing the problem of disparity in enrolment in the region.

On the part of Ghana Education Service, lack of communication was a major challenge they face in the collaboration bid, especially when, how and where the NGOs programmes were to be implemented. Also, the NGOs do not trust the GES. Not all the district had data at the District Education Offices and they attributed this to lack of logistics like computers, printers and technical know-how. Apart from NGOs not trusting them, they lack funds to support the NGOs to carry out their programmes on girls' education and these adversely affected their collaboration with the NGOs in the area of research in girls' participation in basic education in the region.

8.6 Conclusion

Achieving parity in enrolment and school attendance in the Northern Region is an important step towards equal opportunity for men and women in social, political and economic wellbeing of men and women in the society. Therefore, access to Basic Education by boys and girls in the Northern Region is a right that is guaranteed by the government of Ghana. This must be visualized as a milestone for the development of both men and women and not restricted to the development of women only.

In the absence of a constructive, objective and progressive legislative reform, laying emphasis on gender which is mutually not articulated and consistent, all the targets of Millennium Development Goals to meet parity at basic schools would remain an illusion and a mirage.

The sustainability of parity in the region will not be achieved until all stakeholders in basic education including teachers, pupils and parents are all involved in discussion issues relevant to disparity in the region as emphasized by the theory of Capability Approach and Social Justice. Even the developing countries like Nigeria, Mali, and Ivory Coast which achieved disparity in favour of girls in the 20th century are all now reviewing their policies focusing on how boys and girls can equally have access to basic education by involving all the stakeholders in policy formulation.

Many governments, including the government of Ghana, are now aware of the benefits of basic education to girls but over sensitization of these benefits have changed the trend completely in the Northern Region of Ghana. More girls are now being enrolled as compared to boys, therefore, if care is not taken the whole country will soon embark on a crusade in the Northern Region that parents should send their boy child to school.

Theories that seek to explain social justice and non-discrimination in basic schools should be included in policy at the basic education level. The Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education Theories by Sen, fits into the sociological analysis of this study, especially in the provision of equal opportunities and resources for both boys and girls at the basic level and within the school environment in the region.

The theory is therefore too focused on what happen within the school environment and the government domain down playing what happens within the households. It should therefore include equality, justice and availability of resources in the households since the

decision to enrol both the girl child and the boy child and allow them to attend school still remains with the household heads.

Weighing the significance of all the factors examined, the socio-economic factors are more important than the socio-cultural factors. In many instances, these factors contributed more to gender disparity in enrolment and attendance as compared to the socio-cultural factors. The current study calls for more research on the relationship between female teachers as role models and girls participation in basic education. Further research can also be done on how the activities of the PTAs and SMCs affect enrolment and school attendance of pupils in basic schools in the Northern Region.

8.7 Recommendation and Policy Implication of the Study

- a.** Socio-economic and some cultural factors among others negatively affect gender disparity in school enrolment and attendance. Low income and high cost of educating the girl child are crucial in determining girls' enrolment and attendance in the region. Measures to improve parental incomes by government, and the NGOs, include assisting with soft loans to start small scale businesses will empower parents financially to be able to enrol their girls and allow the girls to stay in school. The government should absorb all forms of levies charged by basic school authorities. This will go a long way to relieve parents so that they can enroll both their girls and boys and allow them to stay in school.
- b.** Embarking on a vigorous campaign to sensitize parents and their daughters (not much realized in the region) on the negative effects of some of these cultural

- practices like fostering, child betrothal, early marriages, unofficial holidays on the days of celebration of festival and funeral days by the Gender Unit within Ghana Education Service will inform parents and the pupils about the need to send both the girl child and the boy child to school and the need to attend school during these instances.
- c.** The NGOs, with the support of the GES, should initiate quarterly programme whereby sensitization on the negative effects is done by educated men and women who hail from the various communities or who are natives of the communities. (Yet to see this in the region). When this is done successfully parents and the girls will see their own brothers and sisters encouraging them to enrol the girls and allow them to attend school.
 - d.** A community awareness campaign should be intensified on the values and benefits of educating the girl child and the boy child because not much has been realized in this regard. The campaign needs a collective effort by the parents, the chiefs, teachers and the NGOs. More often than not the task is left to the Ghana Education Service and the NGOs as in the case of the Northern Region.
 - e.** An improved school environment by government is crucial for addressing the disparity in enrolment and attendance in basic schools in the region as well as quality delivering characterized by learning outcomes by girls. These interventions by government should include an increase in funding, especially the Capitation Grant and the provision of more school facilities like classrooms, furniture so that pupils in each class will not exceed 45 as the case of the urban areas. This will motivate the parents to enrol their girls and allow them to attend.

- f.** The supervision and monitoring of teachers in the region should be community-based. The community will be fast in reporting teachers who constantly absent themselves from school and who will sexually harass their females to the District Directors of Education for appropriate sanctions. This approach will be more effective as compared to the occasional rounds by the Circuit Supervisors. Teachers will find it difficult to absent themselves from school if they know that the communities are monitoring their attendance and behaviour. This approach should be backed by a policy (Yet to see in the region).
- g.** As a matter of policy, the Capitation Grant and the School Feeding Programme should be reviewed. Both the School Feeding Programme and the Capitation Grant had positive effects on school enrolment and attendance in the case of the School Feeding Programme, especially girls' enrolment. The Capitation Grant should be increased and all forms of deductions should be stopped at the regional and the district education offices in the region. The School Feeding Programme should be extended to all basic schools in the region. The review policy should be focused on gender, that is, be more gender sensitive so that more girls and boys can be enrolled and attend school. Since disparity in enrolment in most of the schools now favour the girls, such a review policy will encourage parents to give attention to both boys and girls.
- h.** A regional plan providing a framework for a comprehensive programme on basic education should be developed by government. This framework should make room for the involvement of the NGOs working in collaboration towards eliminating disparity in enrolment and attendance in the region. As part of the

framework, an annual workshop of the NGOs and the Girl Child Education Unit should be encouraged for harmonization of figures relevant to enrolment and attendance of the girl child, the challenges as well as recommendations on the way forward.

- i.** Government should initiate a move to incorporate all the stakeholders in drawing up policies on girls' education, especially in addressing the disparity gap in enrolment and attendance in the region. More often than not the stake-holders like parents and the pupils are not involved in policy formulation. It is therefore important for the government, the NGOs and the teachers to work hand in hand with the parents and the pupils for the elimination of the disparity gap in enrolment and attendance in the Northern Region of Ghana.

REFERENCES

- Abdulai, A. (2007). Putting Smiles on Pupil's Faces? An Assessment of the Food-For-Education Programme in West Mamprusi District Northern Ghana, *Legon Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 3 No. 2. P.24-44.
- Action Aid Ghana (2002). *Ghana Pilot Education Survey: Draft Report*. Accra, Ghana.
- Action Aid, (2004). *The Pastoralist Communities and Free Primary Education in Kenya: A preliminary survey Report*. Nairobi, Kenya.
- Aggarwal, J. C. (2005). *Teacher and Education in a Development Society*. Accra, Ghana: Vikas Publishing House LMT.
- Aggarwal, J. C. (2006). *Theory and Principles of Education*. Accra, Ghana: Vikas publishing house LMT.
- Ahmed, A.U. & Billah, K. (1994). *Food for Education Programme in Bangladesh: An Early Assessment*. Bangladesh: International Food Policy Research Institute.
- Ahmed, P. et al. (2000). *Women and Education in Ethiopia*, Dhaka: Bangladesh Press.
- Akande, B. E. (1999). *Rural-Urban Comparison of Female Educational Aspiration in South-western Nigeria Comparative Education*. Nigeria: Nigeria press.
- Alhassan, E. (2010). Socio Economic and Cultural Determinants of Girl Child Education in Gushegu/Karaga District of the Northern Region. *Ghana Journal for Development Studies*. Vol. 7 No.1 p. 50-72
- Amalu, C. (2003). *The Problem of Girls Education*, Accra, Ghana: United Nation Children Fund.
- Anderson, B. (2002). *Girls Access to Primary Education in Pakistan, Palestine*: Palestine Press.

- Arnove, F. & Alberto, C. (2003). *Compleitive Education: The dialectic of Global and Local*. Second Edition, Washington, USA: Rowman and Little Field Publishers Inc.
- Assie, N. (2000). *Educational Selection and Social Inequality in Africa*. PhD. Thesis, Chicago: Published by University of Chicago Press.
- Awedoba, A. K. (2006). *The people of the Northern Ghana*. www.ghanaculture.gov.gh. Accessed on the 16th March 2013.
- Babbie, E. (2006) *The Basics of Social Research*. CA. Canada: Canada Wodsworth Press.
- Behrman, et al. (2004). Women Schooling, Home Teaching and Economic Growth. *Journal of Political Economy*, Vol. 4 No.5 p.107-109.
- Bening, R. (1990). *History of Education in Northern Region between 1909- 1976* Accra, Ghana: Ghana Universities Press.
- Boit, M. K. (2004). The Relationship of Teacher Behavior to Student Achievement in High and Low Schools in Nairobi. Kenya: A PhD Thesis. University of Oregon Eugene. Unpublished.
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2000). *Education, Culture and Deployment in Northern Ghana* United Kingdom: A Dphil Thesis University of Sussex. Unpublished.
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2002). *The Social Impact of Poverty on Educational Attainment: Lessons from the North*: A paper Presented at the Fifth International Conference on Children and Poverty in Canada. 23-25 May, 2002.
- Chernichovsky, D. (2002). *Socio-Economic and Demographic Aspects of School Enrolment and Attendance in Rural Botswana* Chicaga, USA: University of Chicago press. .

- Colclough, C., Rose, P. & Tembon, L. (2000). Gender Equalities in Primary Schooling: The Role Poverty and Adverse Cultural Practice. *International Journal of Education and Development*. Vol. 20. No. 7 p. 5-27.
- Csapo, M. (199). Religious, Social and Economic factors hindering the education of the girl child in Northern Nigeria, Nigeria: Abuja Press.
- Darkwah, A. (2010). Education: Pathway to Empowerment for Ghanaian Women. *Institute of Development Studies*, Vol. 41 No.2 p. 28-35
- Denser, L. (2002). *Colonial Education for Women in Nigeria*. Paper Delivered at the Women and Education in African Symposium” University Of Wisconsin. Maidison. May 20th- 23rd.2002.
- Dolphyne, A. F. (1991) *The Emancipation of Women: An African Perspective*, Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- El-Sanabary, N. (2001). *A Comparative Study of the Disparities of Educational Opportunities for Girls in Arab Countries*. PhD. Dis. University of California Berkeley: (Published,) University of California Press.
- Eshiwani, G. S. (2000). *A Study of Women’s Access to Higher Education with a Special Reference to Science and Mathematics Education*. Working Paper 5003 Nairobi, Kenya.
- FAWE (2001). *Girls and African Education*, Kenya: Kenyan Press.
- Fayorsey, C. (2010). *Research Methods*: Accra Ghana: Centre for Distance Education, University of Ghana.
- GES (2010). *The Challenges of Gender and Education in Northern Ghana*. Accra. Ghana: Ministry of Education.

- GES (2011). *Publication on Girls' Education: Girls' Education Unit of GES*. Vol. 4. Accra, Ghana: Ministry of Education.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2012). *Ghana Population Census* Accra. Ghana: Ghana Statistical Service.
- Glewwe, P. & Hanan, J. (1994). *An Economic Analysis of Delayed Primary School Enrollment and Childhood Nutrition in Ghana*. World Bank Working Paper 98. Washington D.C.
- Goldstein, H. (2004). Education for All: The Globalization of Learning Targets. Comparative Learning Targets and Comparative Education. *Journal of Comparative Studies*. Vol. 40: p.7-14.
- Government of Ghana (1992). *The Constitution of Ghana*, wikipedia.org. Accessed on the 21st November 2011.
- Government of Ghana (2010). *Ghana Millennium Development Goals Report*, Accra Ghana: Ministry of Education.
- Hyde, K. (2002). *Expanding Education Opportunities at Primary Levels*. Paper Presented at Oxford International Conference on Education and Development on September 9-13 1999 Accra, Ghana.
- Kabeer, N. (2005). *Social Relations Perspective in Macdonald*, United Kingdom: Gender Planning in Development Agencies Press.
- Kakuru, D. (2003). *Gender Sensitive Educational Policy and Practice*. Uganda: International Bureau of Education.
- Kasente, D. (2003). *Gender and Education in Uganda. A Case Study of Monitoring Report* Uganda: Makerere University Press.

- Kelly, G. (2004). *Perspective on Women and Education in the Third World*. A Paper presented at the Women and Education in African Symposium. University of Winsconsin, USA.
- Khalid, S. (1996). *Female Teachers and Girls Access to Primary School in Rural areas of Pakistan*. University of London Institute of Education. Londo: Department of Education and International Development.
- Kuyini, A. B. (2009). *Celebrating 100 years of Western Education in Northern Ghana*. Accessed on the 8th November, 2012 at [www. ghana web.com](http://www.ghana web.com)
- Kwesiga, C. (2002). *Women Access to Higher Education in Africa*. Kampala, Uganda: Fountain Publishers.
- Leach, F. (2003). *Practicing Gender Analysis in Education*. United Kingdom 274 Banbury Road, Oxford OX 27DZ: Oxfam GB Publishers,
- Magwe, J. H. (2006). *Universalizing Basic Education in Kenya: Challenges of Gender Equitable Primary Education*. Netherlands: The Hague Press.
- Mathew, J. (2000). *Girls' education and empowerment in India*, India: New Delhi Press.
- Meyers, A.F & Sampsom, A.E (1989) *School Breakfast Program and School Performance*. *American Journal of Disabled Children*. Vol. 143. P. 1234-1239
- Ministry of Education (2005). *Internal Budget Book of Education*. Accra, Ghana: Ghana Education Service.
- MOE (2010). *Education Sector Review (ESR)* Accra, Ghana: Ministry of Education.

- Moock, P. R. & Joanne, L. (1986). Children Malnutrition and Schooling in the Terai Region of Nepal. *Journal of Development Economics*. Vol. 20. p.33-52
- Moore, E. C. (1994). *Evaluation of the Burkina Faso School Feeding Programme*. Catholic Relief Service Consultant Report. (Unpublished).
- Mugenda, M. & Mugenda, G. (1999). *Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Nairobi, Kenya: Center for Technology Studies.
- Murshid, T. M. (1996). *The Sacred and the Secular (1871-1977)*. Dhaka: Dhaka University Press.
- Nabisere, M. (1999). *The Gender Gap in Education*, Uganda Nation News Paper, Sunday 2nd June, Nairobi Kenya.
- Nyamzi, L. (2002). *Gendering Education Policy. Women as Role Models: A Paper Presented at Washington D.C Conference on Education*, May 2002. Washington D.C. USA.
- Odaga, A. & Henevard, W. (1995). *Girls and Schools in Sub Sahara Africa: From Analysis to Action*. World Technical paper No. 29 African Technical Department Series, World Bank Washington D.C.
- Okojie, E. (2001). *Gender population and development in Africa: Persisting inequality in education*. Available at www.africa.edu.com/persisting/inequality/education. Accessed on 13th November 2012
- Okwany, A. (2004). *Entering the Quagmire; Examining the State-NGO Interaction in the Provision of Education for Street Girl with Kenya press*. Civil Society or Shadow State? Kenya: Kenyan Press.

- Oxfam, G. B. (2005). *Beyond the Mainstream: Education for Nomadic and Pastoralist Girl and Boys Oxfam House*, Available at <http://www.oxfam.org.uk/> accessed on the 10th September. 2011.
- Pant, S. K. (2002). *Gender Bias in Girl-Child Education*. New York News Letter 2003. New York. USA.
- Pollitt, E. & Cueto, S. (1997). *Benefit of a School Breakfast Program among Andean Children in Peru*. Peru: Peru Press.
- Robertson, C. & Berger I. (2004). *Women and Class in Africa*. New York: New York Africana Publishing Company.
- Roger, G. (1975). *Education in Northern Ghana from 1906-1940. A Study in Colonial Paradox*. *International Journal of African Studies* Vol. 3 No. 3 p.427-467
- Samuel, Z. (2000). *Ghana Report on Girl Child*. Tamale: Tamale Archdiocesan Development.
- Schaeffer, S. (2000). *Assessing Learning Achievement: A global analysis of achievement in developing nations*. A paper presented at a world education forum in New York from April 26th to 28th 2000.
- Sen, A. (2007). *Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education*. New York USA: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Subrahmanian, R. (2002). *Gender and Education: A Review of Issues for Social Policy*. UNRISD, Switzerland: Geneva Press.
- Sutherland-Addy, E. (2002). *Impact Assessment Study of Girls' Education Programme in Ghana*, Ghana: UNICEF.

- Tembo, L. P. (2000). *Men and Women School: A National Survey of Sex Bias in Zambia Textbooks in Primary and Junior Secondary School and Their Implications For Education In Zambia*. Zambia: UNESCO.
- Teresa, H. & Heneveld, W. (1993). *Measuring the Gap: Female Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington D.C. USA: Africa Technical Department.
- Tonah, S. (2011). The State of NGOs and Local Communities in the Provision of Basic Education. *Legon Journal of Sociology*. Vol. 4 No.2 p. 147-175.
- Twumasi, P. A. (2001). *Social Research in Rural Communities* Accra: Ghana Universities Press.
- UNDP (2012). *Report on Girl Child* Accra, Ghana: UN Department of Information.
- UNESCO (2011). *Development of Education in Africa: A Statistical Review, Seventh Conference of Ministers of Education of African Member States between 20-24th April 1998*. Durban, South Africa.
- UNICEF (2012). *the state of education of Children from Ghana's Rural and urban areas in Ghana*. Accra, Ghana: UNICEF.
- UNO (2002). *Early Marriage in human right context*. Accra, Ghana: United Nation Special Session on Children.
- UNO (2011). *Ghana Education Report: Working paper 2010*. Accra, Ghana: UNICEF
- Wazir, R. (2000). *NGOs as a Change in the Gap in Basic Education*. London: Bonhill Street.Saga Publishing Ltd.
- Weis, L. (2002). Schools and Patterns of Access in Ghana. *Canadian Journal of African Studies*. Vol.10. P. 211-223

- World Bank Report (2004). *Education in Sub Saharan Africa, Policies for Adjustment and Privatisation*. WB. Vol.45.p. 223
- World Food Program (1995). *Thematic Evaluation of Long –Term School Canteen Project in West Africa*. Pakistan: World Food Program Office of Evaluation.
- Action Aid (2004). *Shepherd School Update Report*. Accra, Ghana
- Ahmed, S. (1996). *Muslim Community in Bengal 1884-1912*. Dhaka: Dhaka University Press.
- Aikman, S. et al (2005). *Beyond Access: Transforming Policy and Practice for Gender Equity in Education*. Available at www.oxfam.org.uk sourced on the 14th October 2011
- Boserup, E.(1970). “ *Women Role in Economic Development*. London: London University Press.
- CARE (2005). *Basic Education and Civil Society: (BECS) Project report on youth development initiative*. Accra, Ghana: CARE International.
- Gathanya, W. (2004). *Breaking Boundaries to Achieve Education for all: National Strategies for Mainstreaming Non-Formal education in Kenya*. A paper presented during the ICSEI conference in Barcelona, Spain from 2nd-5th January 2004.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2008). *Ghana Living Standard Survey Round Five*. Accra: Ghana Statistical Service.
- Haddad, L. (2005). *Intra Household Resource Allocation in Developing Countries, Models, Methods, and Policy: A Paper Presented at The Women And Education In African Symposium at the University Of Wisconsin*.USA: John Hopkins University Press. .

- Josli, S. (2004). *Female Household Headship in Rural Bangladesh: Incidents, Determinants Impact on Children Schooling*. Bangladesh: Yale University Press.
- Plan International (2000). *Education for All: Rhetoric and Reality-an Independent analysis by Plan International*. UK: Plan International Headquarters.
- School for Life (2008). Report from Educational Forum of School for Life Held on the 19th April 2001 at GNAT Hall, Tamale, Ghana.
- Theis, J. (2004). *Promoting Rights and Based Approaches: Experience and Ideas from Asia and the Pacific Save the Children*. Sweden: Stockholm Press.
- UNESCO (1998-2000). *The Bias Behind Nomadic Education*. Available at www.unesco.org accessed on the 10th September 2011.
- UNESCO (2004). *The Bias behind Nomadic Education*, Available at www.unesco.org accessed 10 September, 2011.
- UNICEF (2001). *The State of World Children* New York, USA: UNICEF.
- UNO (2006-2010). *The Pilght of the Girl Child in Africa*. Accra, Ghana: Ministry of Education.
- USAID (2006). *Situational Analysis of Children and Women in Ghana*. Accra: Accra Press.
- Wood, M. & Swam, M. (2001). *Supply and Demand Factors Influencing the Educational Drop-Out Rate in Africa and Asia*. Uganda: International Education Press.
- World Bank (2004). *A Chance to Learn: Knowledge and Finance of Education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Prepared for Distribution at a Conference for Education in 2000 April 26th -28th Daker, Senegal.

A. SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. Sex: M [1] F [2]
2. Headship: [1] Yes [2] No [3] Proxy Head
3. Explain your answer
.....
4. Age:
5. Religion

Catholic	[1]
Protestant	[2]
Muslim	[3]
Traditionalist	[4]
Other specify	[98]
6. How does your religion influence your girls' education?
.....
.....
7. If you belong to any of the religions above how many of your girls will you sent to school?
.....
8. Marital Status

Single	[1]	Divorced	[4]
Married	[2]	Widowed	[5]
Separated	[3]	Living together	[6]
Others specify [98].....			
9. If you are married how many girls will you send to school?
.....

SOCIO- ECONOMIC FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY

10. What is your current occupation? [1] Farmer [2] teacher [3] trader [4] other specify

11. Do you engage in any other income generating activity apart from your current occupation?

Yes [1] No [2]

12. If yes, state which.....

13. If no, why?.....

14. How does your current occupation influence your girls' education?

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

15. Can you estimate your yearly income?

.....
.....

16. Which Source do you get your income?

.....

17. If your income is low how many girls will be sent to school?

.....

18. What about if your income is high how many girls will be sent to school?

19. Can you estimate how much you spend on your girl child education monthly?

.....

20. Can you estimate how much you spend on your boy child?

.....

21. How often do you buy books for your girl child in school?

{1} Weekly {2} Monthly {3} termly {4} yearly

22. How often do buy books for your boy child?

{1} Weekly {2} Monthly {3} termly {4} yearly

23. How often do you buy school uniform for your girls in school?

{1} Weekly {2} Monthly {3} yearly {4} termly

24. How often do you buy school uniform for your boys in school?

{1} Weekly {2} Monthly {3} yearly {4} termly

25. How often do you give your girl child chop money for school?

{1} everyday {2} every two days {3} every three days {4} monthly

26. How often do you give your girl child chop money for school?

{1} everyday {2} every two days {3} every three days {4} monthly

27. Is the school far from your home?

[1] Yes {2} No.

28. If Yes, Do you give your girl child transport money for school?

[1] Yes {1} No

29. What about your boy child?

[1] Yes {1} No

30. Can you explain how the distance affects your girls' attendance to school?

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

31. How will you describe the cost of educating your girl child?

{1} high {2} low {3} moderate.

32. How will you describe the cost of educating your girl child?

{1} high {2} low {3} moderate.

33. Do you normally meet the cost of educating your girl child?

{1} Yes {2} No

34. Can you explain your answer?

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

35. Do you normally meet the cost of educating your girl child?

{1} Yes {2} No

36. Explain your answer

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

37. Do you normally engage your girl child at home?

{1} Yes {2} No

38. What kind of activity or work do you engage her in?

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

39. What kind of activity do you engage your boy child?

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

40. Do you engage your children in household chores during week ends?

{1} Yes {2} No

41. Do you think that the activity you engage your girls in affect them in school?

{1} Yes {2} No

42. What do you think are some of the negative effects of household chores on your girls' education?

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

SOCIO- CULTURAL AND CONTEXTUAL FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY

43. Level of education.

- | | | | |
|---------|-------|--------------------------|-------|
| None | [1] | SSS/ Commercial/Tech/Voc | [5] |
| Primary | [2] | Teachers' Training/Poly | [6] |
| JSS | [3] | Tertiary | [7] |
| Middle | [4] | | |

44. Do your level of education negatively affect their girls education?

{1} Yes {2} No

45 .If yes, Explain how it affect your girls education

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

46. Do you experience a conflict between the school calendar and the work your girls do at home? {1} Yes {2} No

47. Can you explain the sort of conflict you normally experience?

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

48. If no, how do your girls cope with the learning hours and the work they do at home?

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

49. In the situation where your resources are limited, which child will you send to school?

{1} the boy child {2} the girl child {3} None

50. Explain your choice in question

.....
.....

51. Will you give out your girl child for marriage at early age?

[1] Yes {2} No

52. if yes explain

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

53. if no explain

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

54. If yes, do you practice it in this community? {1} Yes [2] No

55. In your opinion, how will this practice affect girls' education?

.....
.....

56. Do parents normally give out their girls to other relatives to take care of(Fostering)?

[1] Yes [2] No

57. Do you also practice it? {1} Yes {2} No

58. Explain how this practice can negatively affect girls' education in your community

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

59. Do you celebrate festivals in this community?

{1} Yes {2} No

60. Do you allow your girls to attend school during festivities {1} Yes {2} No

61. Explain your answer

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

62. If yes explain how this belief affects girls' education in your community

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

63. If no explain why?

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

64. Do you think that girls' office is the kitchen?

{1} Yes { 2} No

65. If yes explain

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

66. If no explain?

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

67. Have you ever discuss menstruation with your girl child?

[1] Yes {2} No

68. Do you know of any cultural perception about menstruation?

{1} Yes {2} No

67. If Yes explain

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

69. Do you think that a girl who is menstruation should not be allowed to attend school?

{1} Yes {2} No

70. If yes explain?

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

71. If no explain

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

72. Which other cultural practise do you think affect your girls education which you think parents need education on it?

.....
.....

73. Which cultural practice do you think should be encouraged?

.....
.....

74. What do you think can be done to encourage girls to attend and remain in school in your community?

.....
.....

SCHOOL BASE FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY

75. Has the school ever invited you for a programme on girls education?

{1} Yes {2} No

76. Explain your answer

.....
.....

77. Are you aware of any government policy affecting girls' education in the school?

{1} Yes {2} No

78. Explain

.....
.....

79. Have you ever been invited to discuss your girls' education in the school?

{1} Yes {2} No

80. If yes explain what you ever discussed with the school authority

.....
.....

81. Do you attend PTA meeting {1} Yes {2} No

82. Explain your answer

.....
.....

83. Has your girl child ever complained to you about the teachers' absenteeism in the school?

{1} Yes {2} No

84. Explain

.....
.....

85 . Has your girl child ever complained to you about sexual harassment by teachers?

{1} Yes {2} No

86 . If yes explain the measures you took

.....
.....

Strategy and Programmes in the School

87. Do you know about the capitation grant?

{1} Yes {2} No

88. If yes, does it encourage you to send your children to school, explain?

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

89. Do have any information about the School Feeding Program in the school?

[1] Yes {2} No

90. If yes what role do you play in this program?

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

91. Does the school feeding program relief you from financial burden?

{1} Yes {2} No

92. If yes explain how it assists you in educating your girl child

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

93. Do you think the School Feeding Programme can ensure parity in attendance of pupils in the school? {1} Yes {2} No

94. Explain your answer

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

95. What do you think should be done to improve the school feeding programme in the school?

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

Collaboration between NGOs and Gender GES.

96. Have you ever seen NGOS and GES in a meeting at the school ?

{1} Yes {2} No

97. If yes have they ever discussed their meeting with you?

{1} Yes {2} No

98. Has somebody from Ghana Education Service ever come to your house or gather the parents at the school to educate you on girls' education?

[1] Yes {2} No

99. If yes has that NGO ever discuss with you about your girl child education at school or at home?

{1} Yes {2} No

100. Have you ever attended a meeting where the NGOs and the GES both present at the school? {1} Yes {2} No

101. If yes what did they discuss in common with the parents?

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

102. What do you think can done so that the two partners in education can cooperate with each that to ensure quality education in the school?

.....
.....

SCHOOL BASE FACTORS AFFECTING GENDER DISPARITY

SECTION; B QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEAD TEACHERS IN THE DISTRICTS

1. Name of the School:.....

2. District:

3. Community:

4. Respondent Position:.....

5. Do you have any mechanism in the school which exists to ensure gender parity?

[1] Yes [2] No

6. If yes describe the mechanism

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

7. If No explain why

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

8. Is there any government policy on education apart from the capitation and the SFP which positively affect your school?

9. If yes explain the policy

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

10. Is the policy effective? {1} Yes {2} No

11. If yes how effective is the policy

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

12. Is the policy gender sensitive? {2} Yes {2} No

13. If yes, describe how the policy promotes gender parity in your school?

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

14. Is there any school made policy which addresses gender disparity in the school?

{1} Yes {2} No

15. Is the policy effective? {1} Yes {2} No

16. If yes explain how effective the policy is.?

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

17. Do your teachers attend school regularly? {1} Yes {2} No

18. Can you tell the percentage of absenteeism by your teachers?

.....

19. Do your teachers relate well with the female pupils {1} Yes {2} No

20. Have you ever recorded sexual harassment of your female pupils by your male teachers?

{1} Yes {2} No

21. If yes what measures did you take?

.....
.....

22. If no what measures do you put in place to deter male teachers from harassing their female pupils?

.....
.....

23. How do teachers absenteeism negatively affect the girls' performance in the school?

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

24. How will you describe girls' attendance to school in terms of percentages?

.....

25. How will you describe boys' attendance in terms of percentages?

.....

26. What do you think are the reasons for pupils' absenteeism?

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

27. Which category of pupils more likely to dropout from school?

{1} the boy child {2} the girl child

28. Can you explain the circumstance that lead girls to drop out from school?

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

29. What measures do you take to ensure that girls stay in school?

.....
.....

30. Do you ever experience gender parity in the school? {1} Yes {2} No

31. If yes at which level

{1} lower primary {2} upper primary

32. Do you have a school curriculum {1} Yes {2} No

33. Do your girls participate in all the activities in the school curriculum?

{1} Yes {2} No

34. How does your school positively affect the girls' attendance?

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

35. How many pupils are in each class?.....

36. Do you consider the number normal/ GES rules {1} Yes {2} No

37. Do you receive assistance from any NGO in the school {1} Yes {2} No

38. If yes how will you describe the relationship between your school and the NGOs assisting girls in basic schools?

.....
.....

39. Is your school used by any organisation or government for a programme that assist girls' ieducation? {1} Yes {2} No

40. If yes how does it change girls attendance in the school?

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

41. How effective is the programme?.

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

42. In your own opinion what do you think can be done to ensure gender parity in your school?

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

43. Is capitation grant gender sensitive {1} Yes {2} No

44. Explain your answer

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

45. How does the capitation grants promote enrollment

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

46. How does it promote attendance?

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

47. Does capitation grant serve as a relief to the parents {1} Yes {2} No

48. Explain your answer.

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

48. How is the strategy assessed

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

50. Who does the assessment?

.....
.....

51. What are some of the challenges of the capitation grant?

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

52. What can be done to improve the capitation grants so as to ensure quality basic education in the school?

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

53. How will you describe the following in terms of the effects of the SFP?

Enrollment

.....
.....

Attendance

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

54. Is the SFP gender sensitive? {1} Yes {2} No

54. Explain your answer

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

56. How is the programme being assessed?

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

57. Who does the assessment?

.....
.....

58. What are some of the challenges of the programme?

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

59. What can be done to improve the programme?

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

SECTION: C INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR DISTRICT DIRECTORS OF EDUCATION
IN THE SELECTED DISTRICTS

1. Name of the district.....
2. What are the educational policies put in place in the Northern Region to ensure quality education?
3. Is there any policy which makes emphasis on gender?
4. To what extent are the stated policies effective in addressing gender disparity in the basic schools in your district?
5. What problems do you face in enforcing the stated policies?
6. What are the priority areas of the stated policies in your district?
7. Which other organizations do you partner to ensure that girls are enrolled and remain in school?
8. What is the relationship between your girl child education units and the organizations that assist in girls' education?
9. How do you monitor to ensure that policies are properly implemented
10. What can be done to ensure that girls have equal access to basic education as compared to their girls' counterparts in your district?

SECTION: D INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR NGOS ASSISTING IN GIRLS EDUCATION
IN NORTHERN REGION

1. Name of the NGO.....
2. Location.....
3. What are gender related programmes do you have in your organization?
4. How effective are these programmes?
5. How are these programmes being implemented?
6. What kind of relationship do you have with the Ghana Education Service?
7. What kind of relationship do you have with the girl child education units within Ghana education service?
8. Could you outline the mechanisms that are used to eliminate gender disparity in the basic schools in the district?
9. What are some of the problems you face with the Ghana Education Service in the district?
10. How do you resolve the stated problems?
11. What do you think can be done to eliminate gender disparity is in the basic schools in the Northern Region?

SECTION E: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SCHOOL PUPIL'S ON GENDER
DISPARITY AND PROMOTION OF PARITY IN BASIC SCHOOLS IN
NORTHERN REGION OF GHANA

1. District.....
 2. Name of the school.....
 3. Sex; [1] Male [2] female
 3. Age :
 4. Do you have any brother (s) or sister (s) in your family [1] Yes [2] No
 5. How many are boys.....
 6. How many are girls.....
 7. Among the girls, how many attend school [1] one [2] two [3] three [4] other
specify.....
- Parental Education**
8. Is your father educated [1] Yes [2] No
 9. Is your mother educated [1] Yes [2] No
 10. Do your parents encourage you to go to school [1] Yes [2] No
 11. If yes what do they do to encourage you to attend school
.....
.....
 12. Do you think because of their level of education that is why you are in school?
[1] Yes [2] No

Parental Attitudes

13. Do your parents give you money to go to school [1] Yes [2] No
14. Do your parents buy books for you.? [1] Yes [2] No
15. Do your parents come to the school often? [1] Yes [2] No
16. Do your parents attend PTA meetings? [1] Yes [2] No
17. Do your parents involve themselves ion the school management? [1] Yes [2] No
18. Do they like the boys more than you? {1} Yes {2}No

Household Chores

19. Do you do any work at home [1] Yes [2] No
20. If yes what type of work do you do?
.....
.....
.....
21. How does the work you do at home affect you in school?
.....
.....
.....
22. Who normally give you the work [1] father [2] mother
23. Does the work you do at home affect your school attendance? [1] Yes [2] No
24. Does the work also affect your performance in class? [1] Yes [2] No

The School Environment

25. Do you like the school you attend [1] Yes [2] No

26. Can you describe your relationship with your boys counterparts?

.....
.....

27. Can you describe your relationship with your male teachers?

.....
.....

28. Have you ever experienced sexual harassment by your teachers {1} Yes {2} No

29. What about your male counterparts {1} Yes {2} No

30. Can you explain how sexual harassment can affect your learning in the school?

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

31. Have you ever menstruated in the school? {1} Yes {2} No

32. Do you think a girl who is menstruating should not attend school? {1} Yes {2} No

33. Do your female teachers discuss menstruation with you? [1] Yes [2] No

34. Can you describe the reaction of your male counterparts during menstruation?

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

35. How many times do you attend school as the following?

Polygyny: [1] twice a week {2} thrice a week {3} four times a week {4} every day

36. Child Betrothal: [1] twice a week {2} thrice a week {3} four times a week {4} every day

37. Fostering: [1] twice a week {2} thrice a week {3} four times a week {4} every day

38. Menstruation: [1] twice a week {2} thrice a week {3} four times a week {4} every day

39. Have you ever heard about HIV AIDs ? {1} Yes [2] No

40. If yes do you know of somebody who has been infected? [1] Yes [2] No

41. Do they cook for you in the school/ [1] Yes [2] No

42. Sif yes does the food encourage you to attend school regularly? [1] Yes [2]

43. Explain how the food encourage you to attend school

.....
.....

44. Do you know about capitation grant? {1} Yes {2} No

45. If yes how does it encourage you to attend school?

.....
.....

46. What do you think can be done to encourage girls to attend school?

Appendix: B**Tables and Calculations in the Text****Table: 1** Sources of Income of Household Heads

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Farming	104	68.2
Petty Trading	21	13.8
Teaching	3	2.3
Trading	24	15.7
Total	152	100

Source: Field survey (2012)**Table: 2** Child Preferences by Household Heads

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Boy Child	112	74
Girl Child	32	21
None	8	5
Total	152	100

Source: Field survey (2012)**Table: 3** Whether Household Heads Buy Books and Uniform a Term

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	147	97
No	4	3
Total	152	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 4 Mean Termly Expenditure on Girls and Boys

GHc	Girls				Boys			
	F	Cumulative Frequency	Mid-point (X)	(FX)	F	CF	MID POINT (X)	FX
Less than 35 cedis	105	105	17.5	1837.5	123	123	17.5	2152..5
Between 36-54 cedis	38	143	45	1710	24	147	45	1080
Between 55-64 cedis	5	148	59.5	297.5	3	150	59.5	178.5
Between 65-70 cedis	4	152	67.5	270	2	152	67.5	135
	152	Mean= 27.1		∑FX= 4115		Mean= 23.3		∑FX= 3546

Table: 5 Number of Days Household Heads Give Girls Chop Money for School

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Everyday	141	93
Two Days	5	3.3
Three Days	5	3.3
Do not give at all	1	0.4
Total	152	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 6 Percentage of Girls who receive Chop Money for School

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	92	96
No	4	4
Total	96	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 7 Why Household Heads Cannot Meet the Cost of Educating Their Girls

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Poverty	100	66
Low Income	43	28.2
Unemployment	6	3.9
Many Children	3	1.9
Total	152	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 8 Pupils responses by Gender on Household Chores

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Males	25	26.1
Females	71	73.9
Total	96	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 9 Pupils who do not have brothers and Sisters who assist you in the Household Chores?

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Do not attend School	7	6.8
Do not attend School	89	93.2
Total	96	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 10 Attendances to School during Market Days

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Do not Attend	90	97.3
Attend	6	2.7
Total	96	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 11 Do you Practice Fostering?

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	138	91
No	14	9
Total	152	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table 12 Days Girls absent themselves from School during Funeral rites

Responses	Frequency	Percent
1 st Day	10	10
1 st day and 3 rd day	20	21
1 st day and 3 rd day & 7 th day	37	39
1 st day, 3 rd day, 7 th day & 40 th day	10	10
All the days	19	20
Total	96	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 13 Amount Pay by Households as School Fees

Responses/ GHc	Frequency	Percent
5-10	8	5.4
11-15	46	30.1
16-20	95	62.3
21-25	3	2.2
Total	152	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table 14 Increase in Enrolment as a result of Capitation Grant by Head teachers

Responses by Head teachers	Frequency	Percent
No	26	86
Yes	4	14
100	30	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 15 Increases in Enrolment as a result of the Capitation Grant

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Not as the result of Capitation Grant	24	80
As a result of the Capitation Grant	6	20
Total	30	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table:16 Enrolment Figure of 8 Schools in Saboba/Chereponi, Gushegu/ Karaga,Savelugu/Nanton and Bole District in the Northern Region.

Schools	Enrolment 2006		Enrolment 2012	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Tamalgu Primary School	56	47	110	148
Gbemja Primary School	57	46	91	143
Tampion Primary School	61	55	97	160
Savelugu Primary School	56	47	94	149
Tinga Primary School	60	48	102	165
Tuna Primary School	61	54	98	147
Kpalba Primary School	58	53	87	135
Kpatiga Primary School	58	50	86	133
Total	467	400	765	1180
Grant Total	876		1,945	

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 17 Effect of Capitation Grant on Enrollment (Household Heads)

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	140	92
No	12	8
Total	152	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 18 Effects of Capitation Grant on Attendance (Headteachers)

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	4	14.7
No	26	85.3
Total	30	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 19 Girls response to whether Capitation Grant has Effect on their School Attendance.

Responses	Frequency	Percent
Yes	28	29
No	68	71
Total	96	100

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 20 Absolute Enrolments for P1. of the Beneficiary Schools before the Introduction of the School Feeding Programme.

Category	2000/2001	2001/2002	2002/2003	2003/2004	Total
Girls	296	304	320	344	1264
Boys	280	328	384	424	1416
Total	576	632	704	768	2680

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table: 21 Enrolment of Kindergarten One (1) 1 of the Beneficiary School of the 2011/2012 Academic Year

Schools	Enrolment-2011/2012		Total
	Boys	Girls	
Koblimahu Primary School	28	41	69
Wunjuga L/A Primary	26	38	64
Zabzugu L/A Primary	27	35	62
Zori Yipala Primary	29	37	66
Gimsi Primary	19	38	57
Nyolgu Primary	25	40	65
Sanyo Primary	25	40	65
Saint Anthony Primary	23	40	63
Total	202	301	503

Source: Field survey (2012)

Table 20: Enrolment of Kindergarten One (1) of the Non Beneficiary Schools of the 2011/2012 Academic Year

Primary Schools	Enrolment 2011/2012		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Duu Primary School	45	46	86
Kanvili Primary School	38	40	78
Kpalibe Primary School	37	38	59
Waribogu Primary School	39	36	66
Kasulyili Primary School	35	37	63
Dalun Primary School	38	34	57
Nakpanduri Primary School	35	38	60
Nyankpala Primary School	39	35	59
Tamalgu Primary School	38	39	75
Gbemja Primary School	41	41	82
Kpalba Primary School	37	37	51
Wundua Primary School	40	40	80
Zabzugu Primary School	37	36	58
Tinga Primary School	39	40	62
Tuna Primary School	41	44	66
Salga Primary School	40	42	64
Tampion Primary School	39	39	62
Savelugu Primary School	42	41	83
Total	700	703	1,403

Source: Field survey (2012)

Calculations of Parity Indices of School Enrolment and Attendances

Total number of girls enrolled = 301

Total number of boys enrolled = 202

Number of Selected Schools = 8

$$\text{Average for girls} = \frac{301}{8}$$

$$= 37.6$$

≈ 38 girls in each school

$$\text{Average for boys} = \frac{202}{8}$$

= 25 boys in each school

$$\text{Percentage of Girls enrolled} = \frac{301}{503} \times 100$$

$$= 59.8\%$$

$$\text{Percentage of Boys enrolled} = \frac{202}{503} \times 100$$

$$= 40.2\%$$

$$\text{Parity index} = \frac{\text{Girls primary Percentage enrolled}}{\text{Boys Primary Percentage enrolled}}$$

$$\text{Gender Parity Index} =$$

$$\frac{59.8}{40.2}$$

GPI = 1.487 for selected Schools.

Gender Parity Index for Schools that do not benefit from the Feeding Programme

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Percentage of Girls enrolled} &= \frac{703}{1403} \times 100 \\ &= 50.1\% \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Percentage of boys enroled} &= \frac{700}{1403} \times 100 \\ &= 49.9\% \end{aligned}$$

The gender Parity Index for non-beneficiary school stands at = $\frac{50.1}{49.9} = 1.004$
 GPI= 1.004

Gender Parity Index for School Attendance

Total Attendance = 1,472

Attendance for girls = 601

Attendance for boys = 871

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Percentage of girls attendance} &= \frac{601}{1472} \times 100 \\ &= 40.8\% \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Percentage of boys attendance} &= \frac{871}{1472} \times 100 \\ &= 59.2 \end{aligned}$$

The gender parity index for school attendance will be:

$$\frac{\text{Girls Primary School Attendance}}{\text{Male Primary School Attendance}}$$

$$\text{GPI} = \frac{40.8}{50.2}$$

$$= 0.689$$

Approximately 0.69

For the 22 non-beneficiary schools in the region:

Total Attendance = 4048

Total Attendance for girls = 1,923

Total attendance for girls = 2,125

$$\text{Percentage of girls attendance} = \frac{1623}{4048} \times 100$$

$$= 40.1\%$$

$$\text{Percentage of boys attendance} = \frac{2425}{4048} \times 100$$

$$= 59.9\%$$

The gender parity index for 22 schools attendance =

$$\frac{\text{Girls Primary School Attendance}}{\text{Male Primary School Attendance}}$$

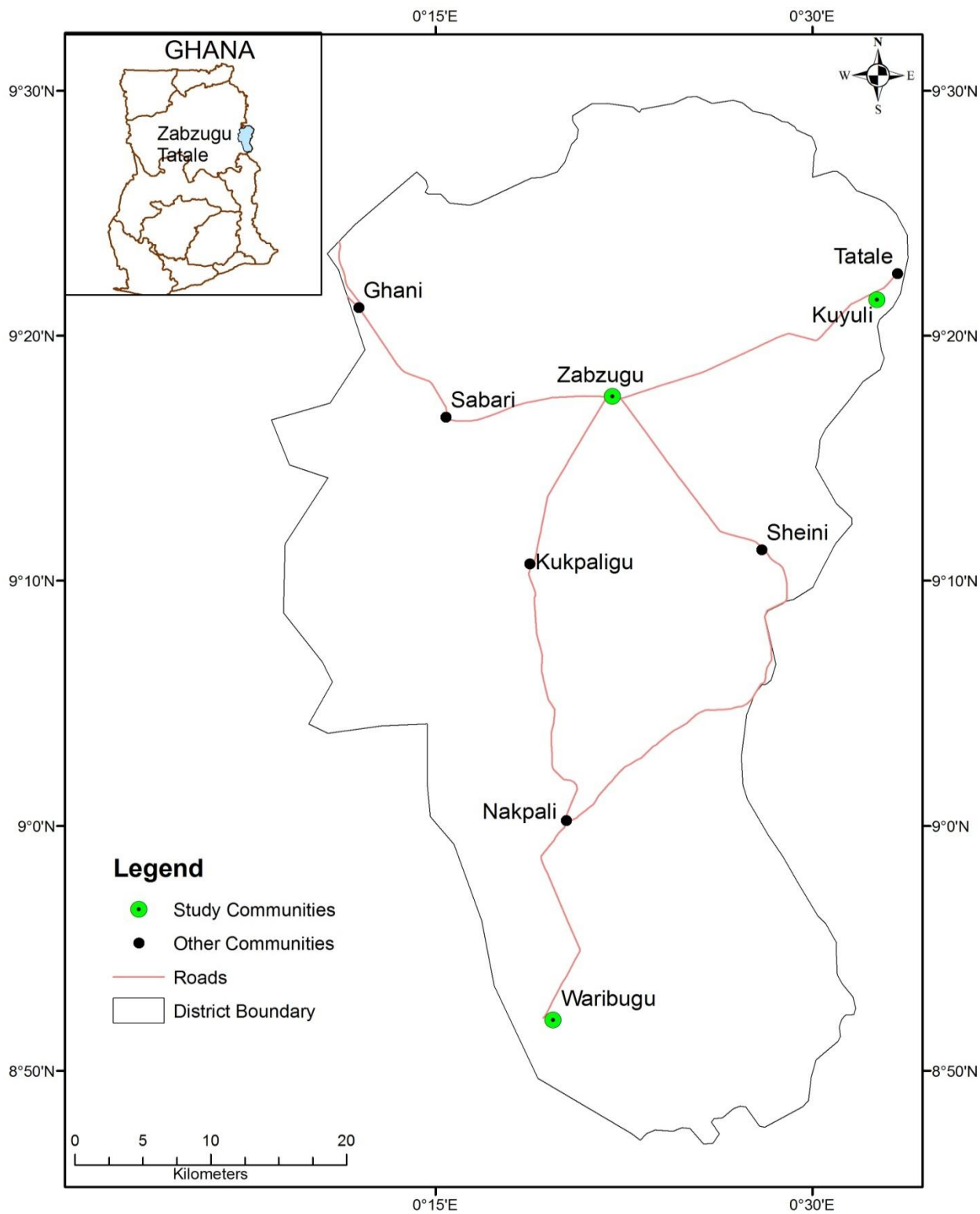
$$\text{GPI} = \frac{40.1}{59.9}$$

$$\text{GPI} = 0.669$$

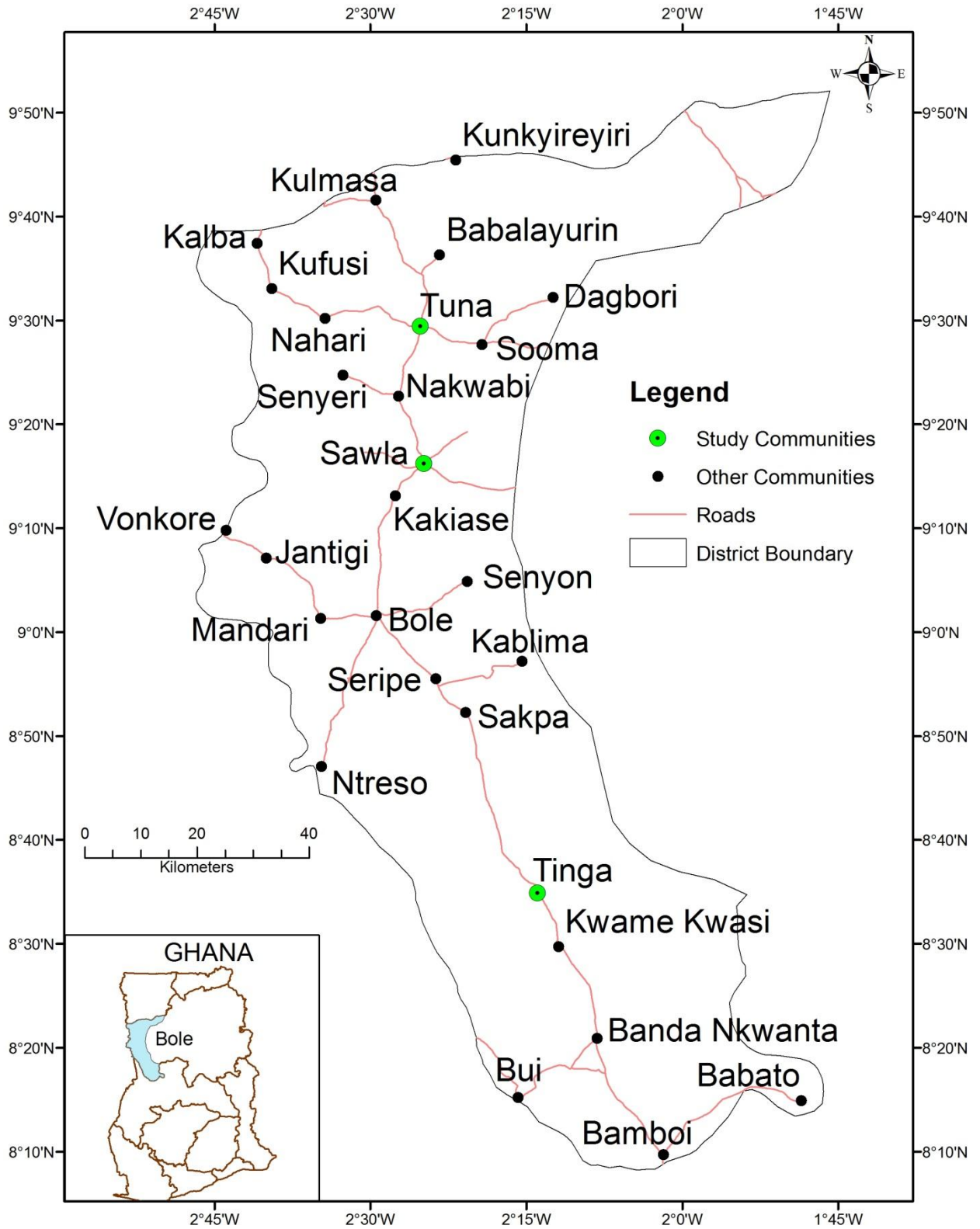
$$= 0.67$$

Appendix C: Maps of Selected Districts

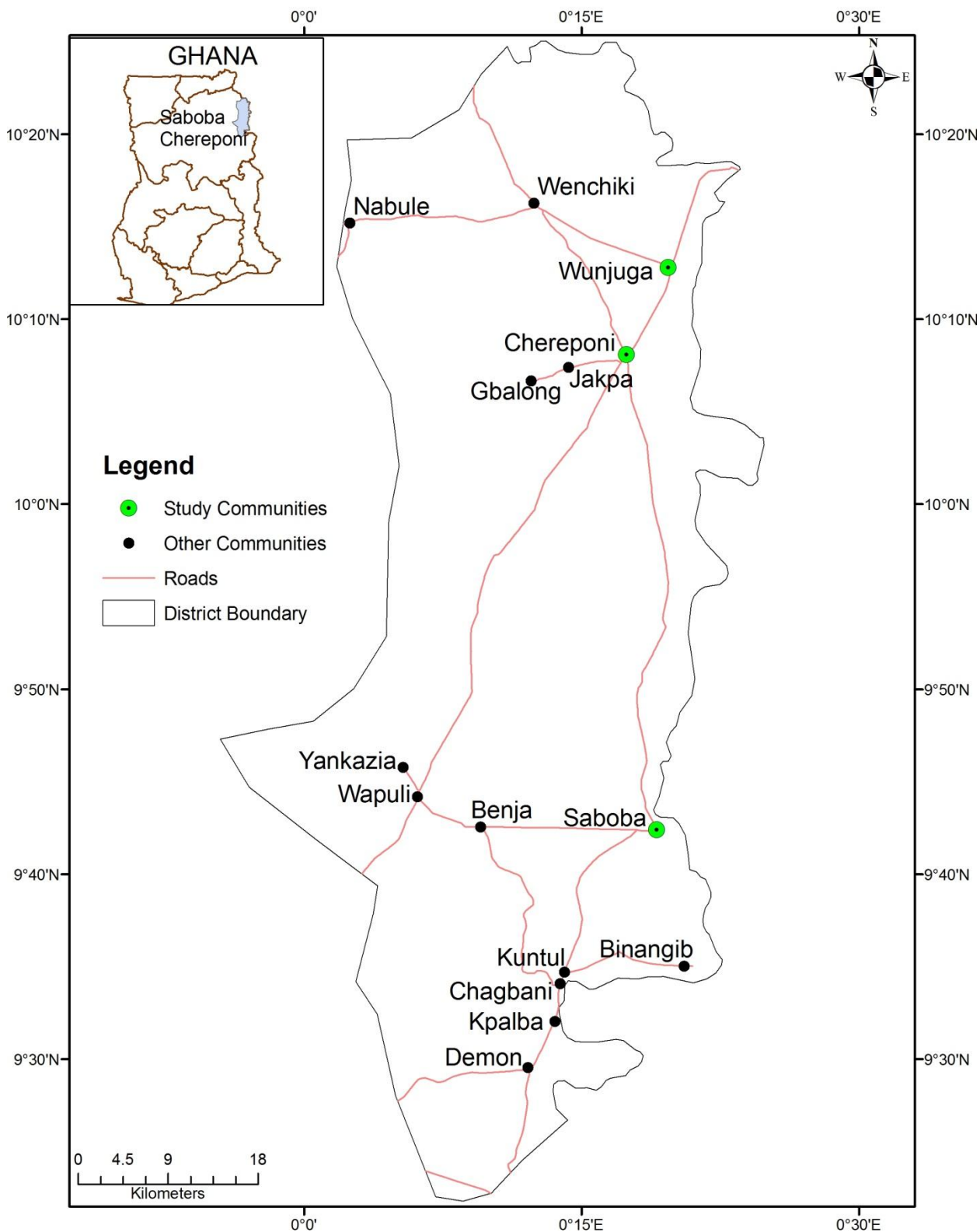
Map of Zabzugu Tatale District



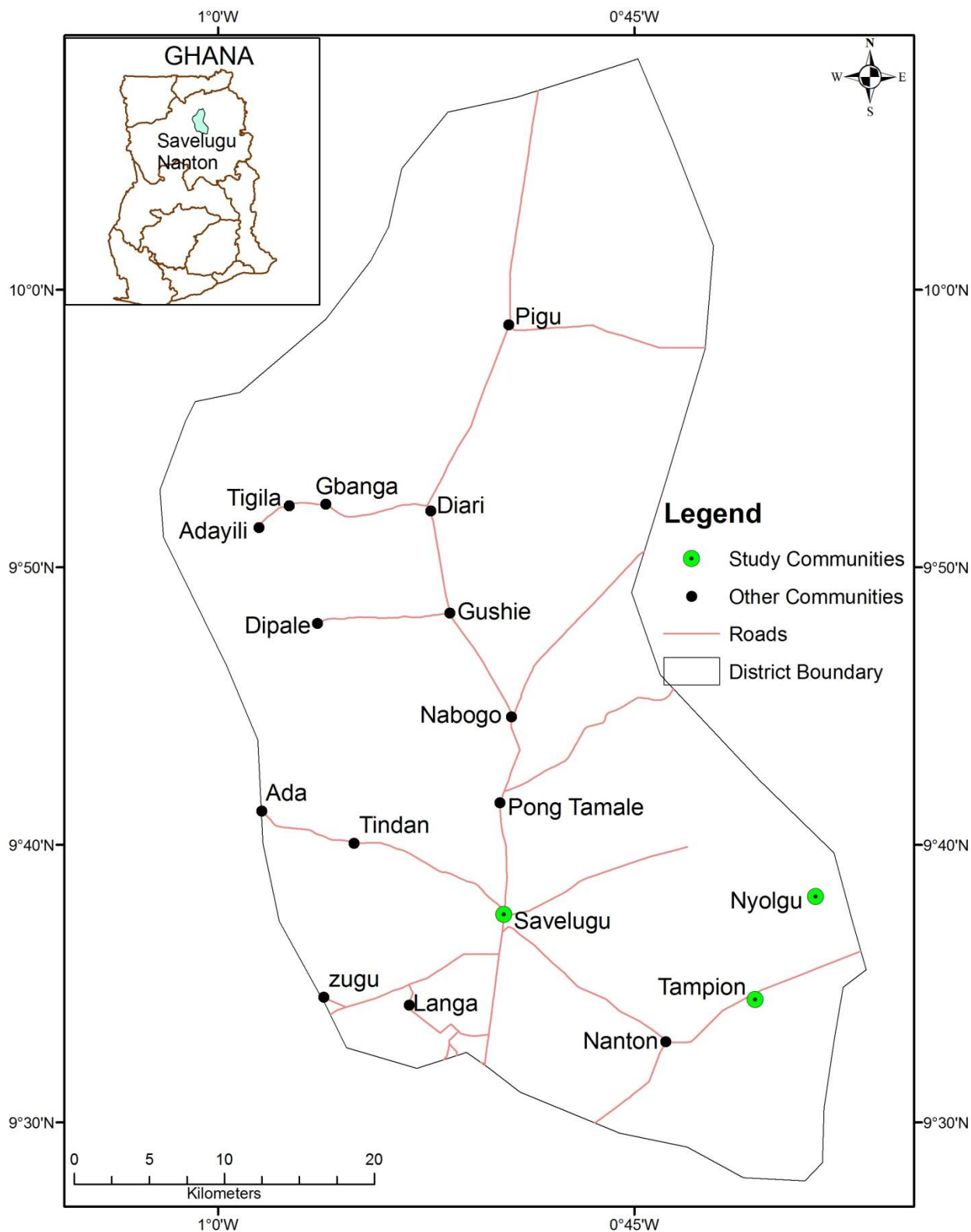
Map of Bole District



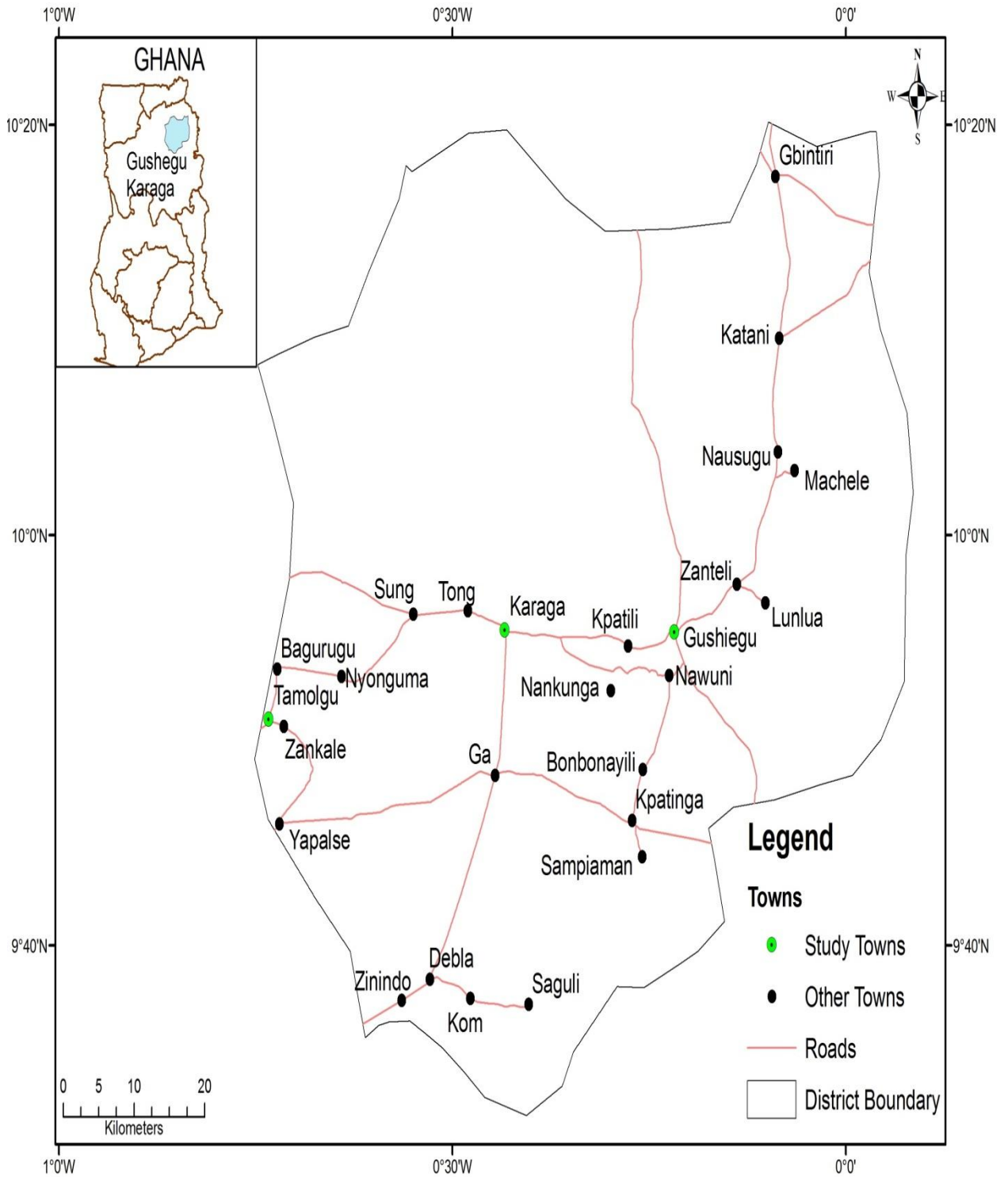
Map of Saboba Chereponi District



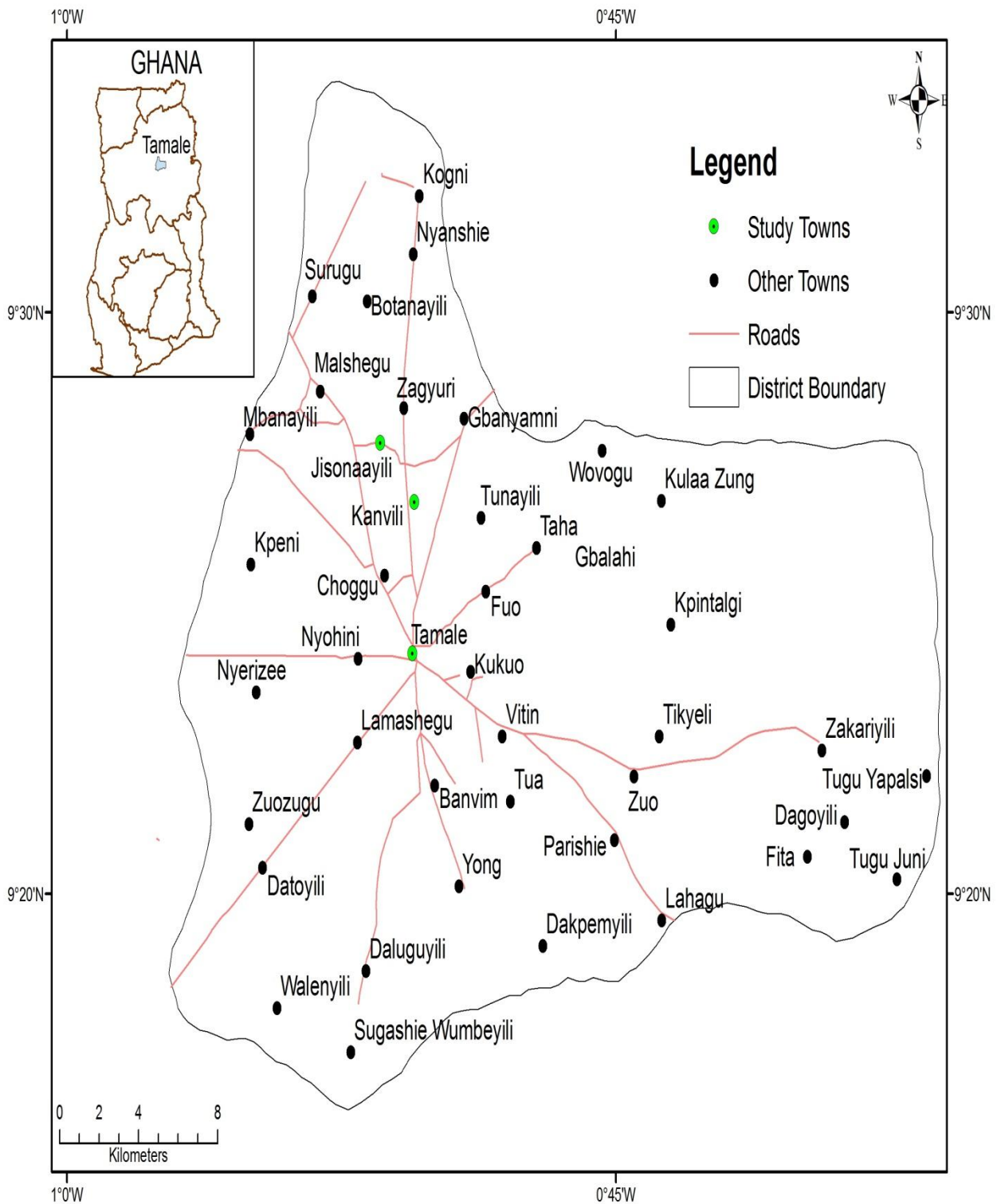
Map of Savelugu/Nanton District



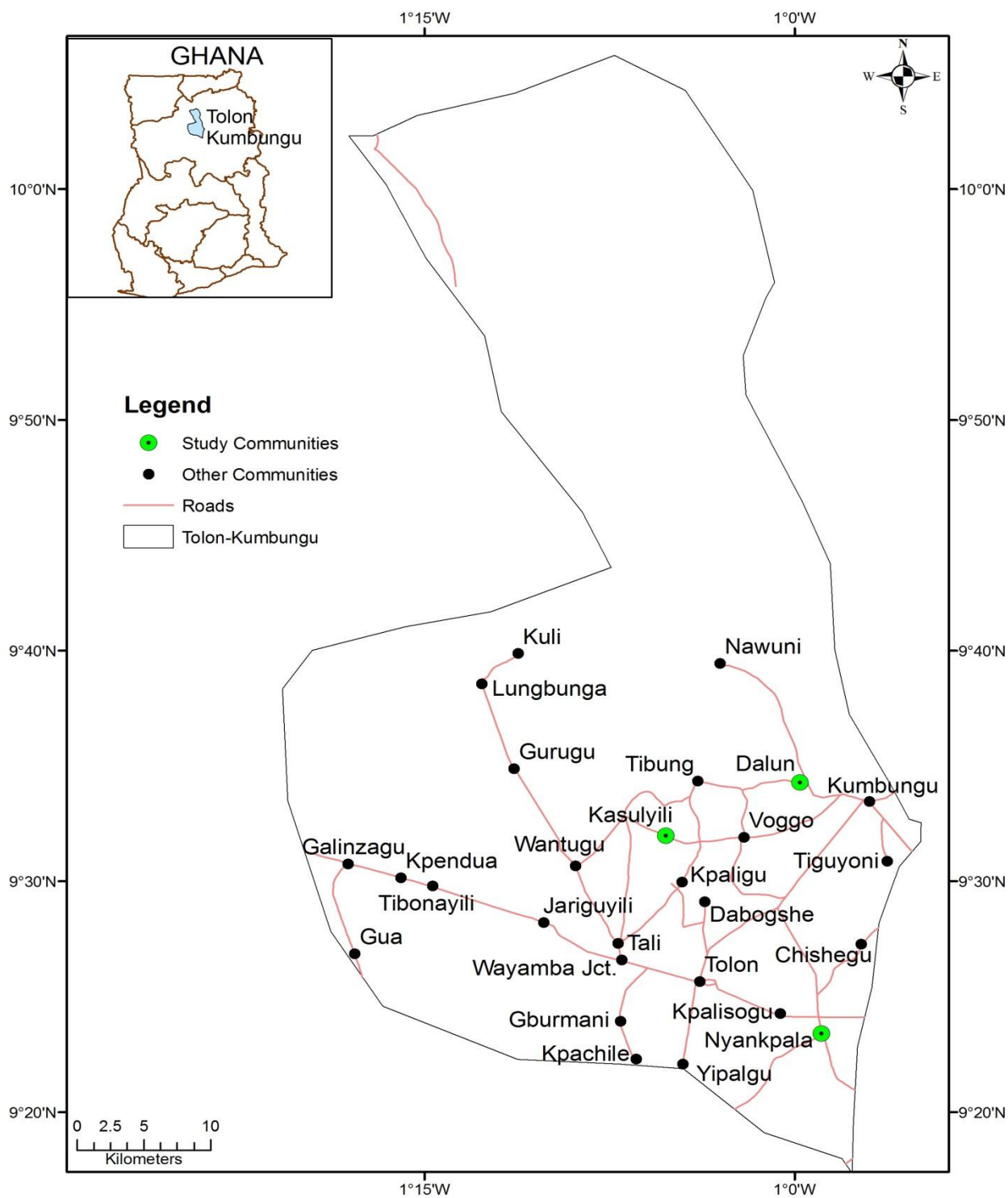
Map of Gushegu/Karaga District



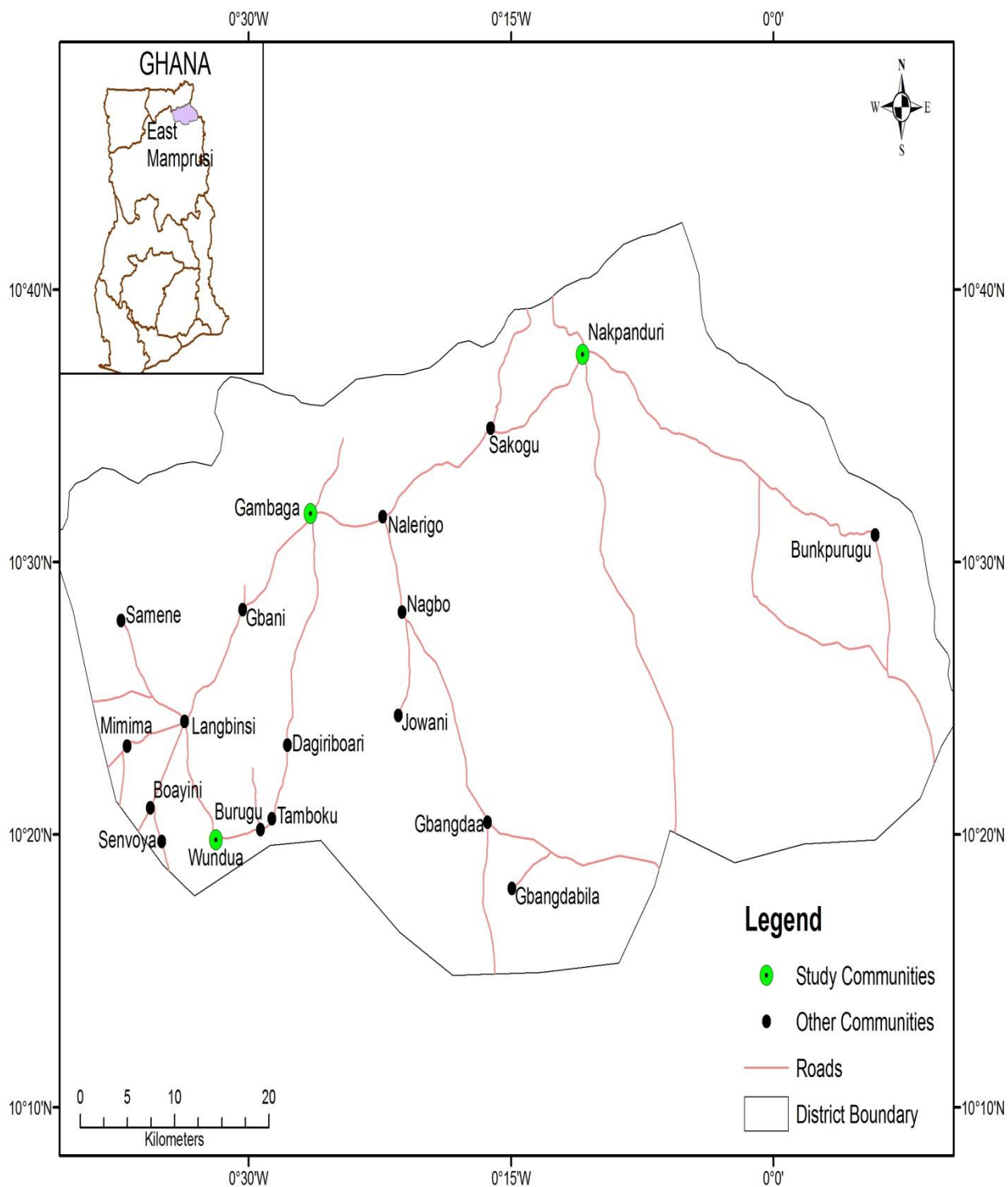
Map of Tamale Metropolis



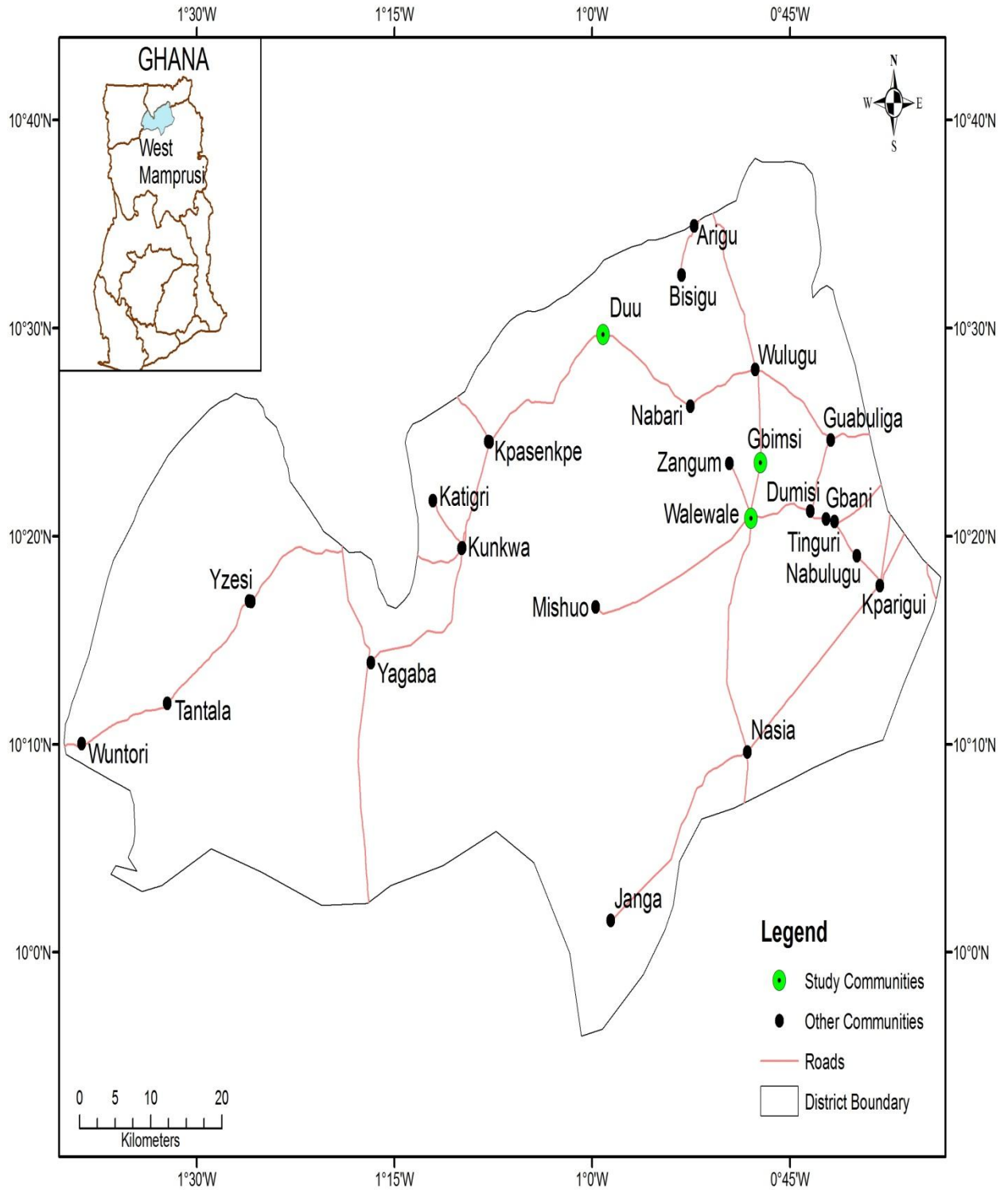
Map of Tolon/Kumbungu District



Map of East Mamprusi District



Map of West Mamprusi District



Map of East Gonja District

