


UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

A STUDY OF THE ROLE OF FEMALE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN THE
PROMOTION OF GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION IN THE BUILSA SOUTH DISTRICT

JOANA AWENCHAK AFELIK

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award of the Masters of Arts (Educational Leadership) degree**

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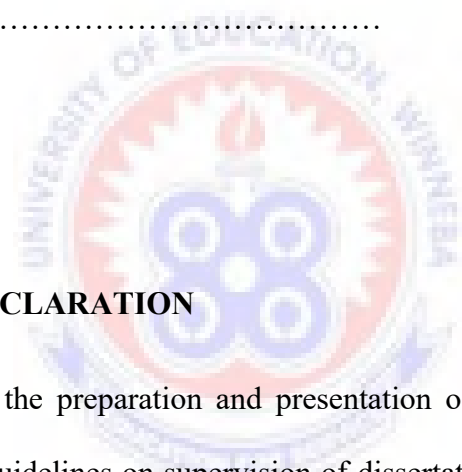
DECLARATION

STUDENT'S DECLARATION

I, JOANA AWENCHAK AFELIK, hereby declare that this dissertation, with exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have been duly identified and acknowledged, is entirely my own original work and it has not been submitted, either in part or whole for another degree elsewhere.

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SUPERVISOR'S DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of this work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the school of Graduate studies, University of Education, Winneba.

NAME OF SUPERVISOR: REV. FR. DR. FRANCIS K. SAM

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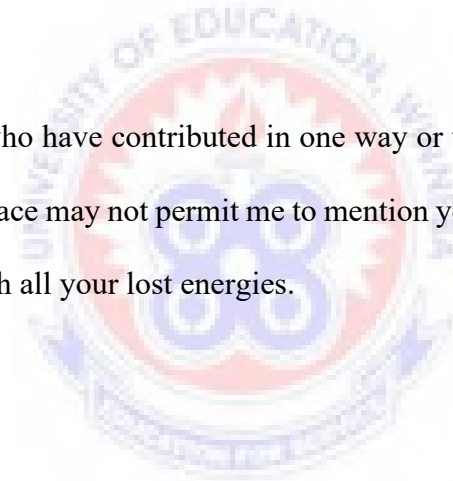
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For all those who have contributed in one way or the other towards the success of this work for which space may not permit me to mention your names, I say may God richly bless you and replenish all your lost energies.



DEDICATION

To the inspiring memory of my Dad, late Atoalinsa Afelik, my Mum, Akanvarimi Apiung and my sister, late Madam Judith Atuu Afelik.



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ABSTRACT

This research was envisioned to study the role of female educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa South District. The objectives of the study were to find out factors that affect girl's education in Builsa South District, determine the nature of girl's education in Builsa South District and to establish roles female educational leaders play to promote girl's education in the study area. The study used questionnaire and an interview guide to collect data. The population of the study comprised female educational leaders in the Builsa South District. Purposive sampling technique was used to sample 30 respondents for the study. It emerged from the study that socio-economic factors such as parental income, parental occupation, level of parents' education and child labour were factors affecting girl-child education. Further, the study revealed that socio-cultural factors such as early marriage, parental attitudes towards girl-child education, and teenage pregnancy affect girl-child education. Again cost of schooling, irrelevant curricula, and teacher pupil interaction were school-related factors affecting girl-child education. Also the nature of girl-child education was that more boys are in school than girl-child. The roles female education leaders must play to promote girl-child education were the provision of the needed support, psychological support, and moral and spiritual support. Based on the findings it is recommended that Parents and guardian should be educated and be reminded of their primary responsibility in caring for and ensuring that their children especially the girl-child obtain minimum formal education.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

In the world and developing countries in particular access to, retention in and completion of school has been a major challenge for children especially the girl-child. Statistics have shown that about 105,035 million children of primary school-going age were out of school in 1999 but this figure had declined to 71,791 million by 2007 (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Global Monitoring Report (2010). Aside from this decline, the number of primary school-going age children who are out of school in the world remains considerably high, given that education is the basic right of every child and hence the need for all children to be enrolled and complete at least primary school. Out of the total number of children who were out of school in both 1999 and 2007 as revealed by the UNESCO Global Monitoring Report, Sub-Saharan Africa had the highest of 45,012 million in 1999 and 32,226 million in 2007.

Current studies still show that even though there has been some improvement, there is still a greater number of children who are denied access to school. As of 2012, 30 million primary school-age children in Africa, which is one in every four, were out of school along with 20 million adolescents (UNESCO Institute of Statistics, 2012).

In the face of the over-all gap that exists with regards to children's access to education, the case of girls becomes double as a result of some likely biases towards girl-child education. For instance, the number of primary-school-age girls out of school in the world in 1999 and 2007 were 58% and 54% respectively but that of Sub-Saharan Africa had remained stable at 54% over the two years ending UNESCO Global Monitoring Report

(2010). This means that generally, Sub-Saharan African countries including Ghana may not have benefited much from the impact of the interventions embarked on by national governments and the global community to improve access of especially girls to school; however, there may be country variations with improvements in a few.

In Ghana, education for children is low as the statistics are no better than the above, even though the country needs to be credited for some improvements over the years. The national average of net enrolment ratio for children in a primary school in Ghana in the 2006/07 academic year was 83.7% National Development Planning Commission [NDPC] & United Nations Development Programme [UNDP] (2010). Though at the primary school level, the net enrolment ratio looks a little higher, the same could not be said of their counterparts in the Junior High School level in the same year as this was as low as 53.4% (NDPC & UNDP, 2010). This further decreased in deprived districts in Ghana as their net enrolment ratio stood at 43.8% (NDPC, UNDP, 2010).

There has always been a gender gap between girls and boys in the various levels of education in Ghana as well. At the primary and junior high school levels, the gender parity index in terms of education was in-balanced, unfavorable to girls as their ratio to boys was lower than expected. For instance, the ratio when balanced stands at 1 but in 2006/07 academic year the gender parity index (GPI) was 0.96 and remained the same for the 2007/08 academic year whilst at the junior high school level the gender parity index retrogressed from 0.93 in the 2005/06 academic year to 0.92 in 2007/2008 academic year NDPC & UNDP (2010). This is very unfortunate because it is expected that the gender parity index should have been narrowed. Despite these national gender parity indices, there

are regional differences with northern region obtaining the least index of 0.81 which fell below the national average of 0.94 in the 2008 academic year (Action Aid Ghana , 2011).

The above situation raises concern for the education of the girl-child if not should things continue this way, Ghana will not be able to harness the full potential of its citizenry.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

To Ballara (2002) the importance of educating the girl-child cannot be overemphasized in any society since the girl-child constitute more than half of the population of any society; their education is crucial to sustainable development. With the acquisition of skills, the girl-child in adulthood can contribute a lot to development. According to Ottaway (2000) the education of the girl-child has a bearing on the economic well-being of a country. With education, in adulthood, the girl-child could easily gain employment in the formal sector and therefore contribute not only to their families but to gross national product (GNP). Girls' education enables them to provide financial support to their families.

Moreover, the sustainable development goals (SDGs), set in 2015 by the United Nations General Assembly and intended to be achieved by the year 2030 to attain “a better and more sustainable future for all”, re-emphasized the need for education of the girl-child. Education of the girl-child has a central place in SDG 4: Ensure inclusive and equitable quality education and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all, underpinned by target 1: to ensure that all girls complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education leading to relevant and effective learning outcomes. Therefore, a study in this area is indeed in the right direction to add to knowledge and inform policy.

Despite the advantages that accrue from the education of the girl-child and the various conventions and declarations that have been instituted to address low enrollment of girls in school. The promotion of education of the girl-child has been neglected and discriminated against in almost every community in Ghana with the case of rural communities being worse. In the words of Moletsane and Manul (1999) one of such discriminations is the lack of interest attitude of parents towards educating the girl-child.

The situation of promoting girl-child education in Builsa south district is of major concern. Few girls enroll in school and the majority of the enrolled eventually drop out. This is evident in the fact that only a handful of girls so far has sailed through the odds in the community and completed Senior High School as of 2012 (Information from the preliminary visit, living and working in the study area).

Though many studies have been conducted on girl-child education, most of them often focus on the factors affecting the child-girl, gender gap between girls and boys at the educational level without effort to promote girl's education. For instance, a study by Madefam (2013) in his 'our sisters too matter' found out that poverty, large family sizes and distance to school among other factors posed challenges to girl-child in Bolni. Also, Pitah (2015) found out that female genital mutilation harms the girl-child. These studies and many others fail to pay attention to the role of educational leaders in promoting girl's education.

It is against this backdrop that this present study seeks to investigate the nature of girl-child education, the factors that affect girl-child education and examine the role of educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa South District.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the nature of girl-child education, the factors that affect girl-child education and examine the role of educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa South District.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1. To determine the nature of girl's education in Builsa South District.
2. To find out factors that affect girl's education in Builsa South District.
3. To establish roles female educational leaders play to promote girl's education in the study area.

1.5 Research Questions

1. What are the factors that affect girl's education in Builsa South District?
2. What is the nature of girl's education in Builsa South District?
3. What role does female educational leaders play to promote girl's education in the study area?

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of this research can provide information that will inform policymakers and advocacy groups to be sensitive to and conscious of the role of female educational leaders in promoting girl-child education in rural communities when designing policies. This study may serve the basis for service practitioners such as female educationists to sensitize rural communities on the need to enroll and retain their girl-child in school and the benefits they stand to reap from such a venture. Furthermore, this study adds to existing

knowledge on girl-child education, and hopefully generates interest in further studies in this area.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The study sought to make the research manageable by limiting the area of the study to Builsa south district. The study is confined to female educational leaders to large extent. It also dwelled on the education of the girl-child. Finally, there are many factors that affects the education of the girl-child, but this study only focused on the role of female educational leaders in promoting girl-child education in the Builsa south district.

1.8 Limitations of the Study

A study of this nature is without limitations. Ideally, it would have been necessary for a study of this sort to cover a wide range of area. Also, the use of multiple research instrument for data collection would have provided enriched information than relying solely on the use of interviews. Moreover, it is not possible to cover the opinions of all parents and other stakeholders in the selected areas because it required considerable time, resources and other logistics which are beyond the researcher. Therefore, this may affect the general picture of the study.

1.9 Definition of Terms

Education: the process of providing information to an inexperienced person to help him/her develop physically, mentally, socially, emotionally, spiritually, politically and economically.

Girl-child: refers to a biological female offspring from birth to (18) years of age.

Leader: refers to a person who guides others into achieving a common goal.

Female educational leader: refers to any female who has risen through the ranks of education to high management positions; that is any lady or women who had gone through education starting from the district through to basic employment and to high management position and therefore, can serve as a role model for the girl-child.

1.10 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five main chapters. Each chapter of the study addressing a specific theme. Chapter One: dealt with background of the study, the problem statement, purpose of the study, research questions, significance of the study, and delimitation of the study, limitation of the study, definition of terms and organization of the study.

Chapter Two provided the literature review of the study. Chapter Three provided information on the profile of the study area and research methodology. Chapter Four: discussed the major findings of the study and the role of female educational leaders in promoting girl-child education. Chapter Five dealt with the summary, recommendations for promoting girl-child education and the final conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter brings together relevant literature on the concept of girl-child education and the role of educational leaders in promoting girl-child education in the world with special reference to Ghana. In this chapter, relevant literature is reviewed in consonance with the objectives of the study.

2.1 The Concept of Education

According to the World Bank (1999) ‘Education is the key to creating, adapting and spreading knowledge. But the gains in access to education have been unevenly distributed, with the poor seldom getting their fair share’.

Atama (2012) holds the view that education is the process of providing information to an inexperienced person to help him/her develop physically, mentally, socially, emotionally, spiritually, politically and economically. That is why at graduation ceremonies one hears the Vice-Chancellors pronounce these words while awarding degrees to their institutions’ graduates, “you have been found worthy in character and learning” In education parlance, it means that the individual has acquired adequate and appropriate knowledge, skills and attitude and values, known as cognitive, psychomotor and affective behaviours to be able to function optimally as a citizen.

Education is also a process through which the young acquires knowledge and realizes their potentialities and uses them for self-actualization, to be useful to themselves and others. It is a means of preserving, transmitting and improving the culture of the society. In every society, education connotes acquisition of something good, something worthwhile. An investment in economic future is never far from the surface. Concept of education as the process by which an individual develops his or her mind through learning at a school, college or university, and in the process of doing so he or she gains knowledge and skills from what is being taught.

For purposes of this study, the working definition of the concept of formal education adopted is the one that perceives the concept as the process of enrolling a child in an institution with demarcated physical structures provided with teaching-learning

materials, equipment, and trained pedagogical professionals who impart knowledge and skills to people within specific time frame with the intent of making the child a useful individual or person and one who contributes to the realization of the development potentials of his or her community or nation (Abosi & Brookman-Amissah, 1992).

2.2 Forms of Education

Education has been categorized into three domains by research: these are formal, informal and non-formal education. Formal education is learning about things taught in school and school-related experiences like sports and drama in a specially designed environment. Non-Formal Education constitutes educational activities like adult literacy courses and agricultural extension services like evening classes organized outside of the school setting. Informal education is a non-organized learning experience related to on the job training, culture and norms of a group or society which one can acquire depending on how fast one acquires the skills imparted to learners.

For the purpose of this study, the researcher is interested in formal education. Formal education may be assigned diverse social and cultural characteristics at different times and places, but severing the linkage between schools and socioeconomic achievement is never a viable option (Abosi & Brookman-Amissah, 1992). Hence, formal education is the path to socioeconomic success, and schooling as an investment in economic future is never far from reach. He also sees education as an investment because according to him, the economic value of education as stated in an American society report entitled; *Educating America: An Investment for Our Future*, is nearly classic in its depiction of the proper role of formal education in modern society. The report builds a powerful case, defining not only the contribution of education to individuals' social

mobility, but to the economic growth of nations as well. These sorts of sentiments are not of course, peculiar to America society alone, but other societies as well.

2.3 Educational Reform in Ghana

Education in Ghana has gone through a lot of amendments since independence. According to Agyenim-Boateng (2011), almost immediately as Ghana gained independence, the Education Act of 1961 came into being and the Dzobo Report also gave birth to the Junior Secondary School (JSS) Concept in 1973. In 1974, the New Structure and Content of Education designed by the Dzobo Committee were implemented. There was also an Education Commission Report on Basic and Secondary Education which also brought about the 1987/ 88 Education Reform Programme.

The Free Compulsory Universal Basic Programme which was treasured in the 1992 Constitution was introduced in 1996 and the Ghana Education Trust Fund set up by the GET Fund Act 581 was implemented in 2000 to make sure that every child gets access to basic education in Ghana. The Jophus Anamuah-Mensah's Committee which was set up by the former president of Ghana, H. E John Agyekum Kuffour in 2001 also reviewed the education system and proposed a new structure to resolve the short falls identified by the Committee. The 29 member Anamuah-Mensah Committee report brought about the 2007 Educational Reform which is still in use but with a slight change to that of Senior High School (Ghana Government Official Portal website, 2010).

The new Education Reform had the following elements: two years of Kindergarten, six years of Primary School and three years of Junior High School and four years of Senior High School education. This makes up a total of eleven years Universal Basic Education. From the JHS, students who pass the Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) are

expected to enter the SHS for four years. The immediate past (NDC) government has reverted this from four to three years. At the SHS, students are expected to offer any course of their choice for a period of four years (now three years).

The Anamuah-Mensah Committee also placed emphasis on Literacy, Numeracy, Creative Arts, ICT and Problem Solving Skills at the Basic level. Apart from the Kindergarten and Lower Primary where the Ghanaian Language of the school's location is used alongside English at all other levels, the medium of instruction is English.

The New Education Reform also introduced Creative Arts to the Primary school curriculum and Basic Design and Technology to the Junior High School (JHS) curriculum. Both constitute the nine-year Basic Education system in Ghana. These subjects were introduced in the basic school curriculum to enable both primary and JHS students to exhibit their inherent skills so that these skills could be used to solve problems in the society in which they live. The reform designed the JHS curriculum to consist of nine subjects which are English Language, Mathematics, Integrated Science, Social Studies, Ghanaian Language, Information Communication Technology, Religious and Moral Education, French and Basic Design and Technology. The Basic Design and Technology comprise Pre-Technical Skills, Home Economics and Visual Arts and students can choose to study one of these areas. The general aim of the JHS courses is to equip students with basic life skills which can help them to solve some problems in life.

2.4 Prominence of education to National Development

Education is intrinsic to development. Education is a key to a nation's development. Education enables individuals to acquire knowledge and skills which constitute the most

important key to development and poverty reduction in the current international dispensation where knowledge is the leading generator of wealth UNESCO (2002). The presence of human and natural resources in a nation is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for development. Education provides the medium through which quality human resource is produced to exploit the natural resource endowment for economic growth and development in a nation.

Taken into consideration the vital role of education in training human capital for national development, Addai-Mensah (2006) states that “A nation’s most treasured and dynamic assets are its human resources. A country’s growth and sustenance of development depends on the development of its human population through the provision of quality education. Putting adequate resources into and paying attention to the provision of quality education normally results in considerable strides in economic development and social transformation, and raises the quality of life of peoples”.

2.5 Importance of Girl-child Education to National Development

Education is fundamental to development. Education is a key to a nation’s development. Education enables individuals to acquire knowledge and skills which constitute the most important key to development and poverty reduction in the current international dispensation where knowledge is the leading generator of wealth (UNESCO, 2002). The presence of human and natural resources in a nation is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for development. Education provides the medium through which quality human resource is produced to exploit the natural resource endowment for economic growth and development in a nation.

Referring to the invaluable role of education in training human capital for national development, Addai-Mensah (2006) states that “A nation’s most treasured and dynamic assets are its human resources. A country’s growth and sustenance of development depends on the development of its human population through the provision of quality education. Putting adequate resources into and paying attention to the provision of quality education normally results in considerable progresses in economic development and social transformation, and raises the quality of life of peoples”.

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

Education is the prime mover in the lives of individuals and in a nation’s development. Education also provides the key to economic asset for individuals and nations. According to Psacharapoulous and Patrinos (2002) every year of schooling lost represents a 10 to 20 per cent reduction in girls’ future incomes. They argued that countries could raise per capita economic growth by about 0.3 per cent points per year or 3 per cent points in the next decade if they attained gender parity in enrolment (Psacharapoulous & Patrinos, 2002).

Girls’ education is important for a nation’s development. The significance of female education to Ghana’s national development process has long been recognized by

scholars in the past. Dr. J. E. Kwegyir Aggrey once stated that when a man is educated it is an individual who has been educated but if a woman is educated it is a nation that has been educated (Christensen, 2007).

2.6 Prospects of Girl-Child Education

Data from World Bank (2000) show that educating the girl-child is very important because it forms inter-linkages between gender inequalities, economic growth and poverty eradication. The paybacks for girls' education go beyond higher productivity for about 60% because evidence across countries suggests that countries with bigger gender equality are more likely to have higher economic growth. In the words of Kofi Annan (2002, p. 15), the former General Secretary of the United Nations.

“No strategy is better than one that involves women as central players. It has immediate benefits for nutrition, health and savings and reinvestments at family, community and ultimately, country level. Educating the girl-child is a social development policy that works and a long term investment that yields an exceptionally high return”.

Thus, the progress of the family and for that matter, the country depends largely on the role the mother plays since she is in the centre of affairs. There is therefore, the need for her to be adequately knowledgeable through education to play these roles.

Girl-child education will also equip tomorrow's woman with the needed skills in her role in political, cultural and social endeavours to enhance development. In the view of Ellen Muthopeny (1981, p. 11) a woman should decide. This is what she says, “my emphasis is about women in these instances. Women are, and must also be the subject and object of any development in the sense that they themselves must participate and determine

what should be done to achieve development. Women are the object of this progress in that they are its beneficiaries”. On development, she says “its aim is to liberate an individual in the content or the exercise of political and civil right in the society, and as a person to whom the doors of enforcement and learning have been opened. It also provides one with tools that would enable oneself to intervene in society in the field of ideas and in the decision making process”. Educated women contribute more directly to a nation’s economic productivity as they are more likely to enter the formal labour market, earn higher wages (UNESCO, 2000).

According to UNICEF Ghana (2011) educated young women have smaller families and healthier children. They are less likely to marry young or die in childbirth, more likely to send their children to school, and better able to protect themselves and their children from malnutrition, HIV/AIDS, trafficking, and sexual exploitation.

When girls are allowed to go to school, they have a significant impact on their family and community. According to CAMFED, (1996) when you educate a girl she will earn up to 30 % more and reinvest 90 per cent of her income in her family. This reinvestment in her family means her children will be more likely to go to school and be immunized, leading to healthier, more productive individuals and communities. The spreading of prosperity and influence is called the ripple effect. A girl’s education is about more than just the individual; it is about the future of her family and her community.

Available evidence, again shows that women's education plays an important role in child care, especially in relation to infant mortality levels. School participation improves health and lowers fertility mainly through strengthening the effects of other factors associated with schooling. High rates of school participation and relatively high levels of

educational attainment (full primary and lower secondary schooling) area associated with reductions in fertility and infant mortality and with increases in life expectancy (Comparative Education Review, 2012, p. 63-64).

Also, according to a 1994 World Bank publication titled "Better Health in Africa", household surveys in Ghana, Nigeria and Sudan show that the single most important influence on child survival is the level of a mother's education. Again, it reports that data for thirteen African countries between 1975 and 1985 show that a 10% increase in female literacy rates reduced child mortality by 10%, whereas changes in male literacy had little influence on child mortality. The effect of a mother having attained secondary-level education may contribute to lowering the infant mortality in a given family by as much as 50%.

Women with more education marry and start having children later, make better use of information that will improve personal hygiene and the health of their children. Women's literacy enables a better use of family planning and results in a fall in birth rates. The Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) conducted in 2014 by the Ghana Statistical Service with support from the UN System, found that child marriage decreased sharply with education. For example, Ghanaian women with little or no education are more likely (42%) to get married before age 18 compared to those with secondary or higher education (5%).

According to Ballara (1992), in a study conducted by the Demographic Health Survey (DHS) in 1990 in twenty-eight countries in Africa, Latin America and the Caribbean, Asia and the Arab States, the tendency for smaller families increased with the educational level of women. Thus, education helps slow down population growth as

reported in the Education for All, 2000, UNESCO. According to this publication, education, especially if it is accompanied by other measures to reduce poverty, is the most powerful single factor in moderating population growth. Educated women tend to have fewer (and healthier) babies. A 2000 research in Brazil found that literate women had an average of 2.5 children while illiterate women had an average of six children, according to UNESCO.

The report further stressed that basic education especially for women, tends to raise the age of marriage and thereby postpone child bearing, decreases the desired family size and boost family planning efforts. The State of the World Population (1990) confirmed that the results of studies carried out in forty-six countries indicated that a 1% increase in women's literacy rate is three times more effective in reducing infant mortality than a 1% increase in the number of doctors.

Ballara (1992) postulates that a study carried out in 1990 in eight developing countries indicated that an increase of 70% in girls' enrolment in primary schools, together with comparable growth in secondary education, would after twenty years result in a decrease in the infant mortality rate of 40 per 1,000 live births. Primary and Secondary education for women would contribute to a continuation of this decrease, over and above other relevant development inputs such as increased per capita income, level of urbanisation, medical facilities and male enrolment. Also, as women's level of education rises, the number of malnourished children declines. The 1990 Demographic Health Survey of Guatemala, where only 65% of the women have some level of education, found that the percentage of stunted infants aged three to thirty-five months is relatively more than that of Tobago, where women have higher level of education.

An educated girl has better opportunities (UNICEF 2013). She is more likely to get a job and earn a higher wage, and her nation's economy is likely to benefit as a result. An extra year of primary school boosts girls' eventual wages by 10 to 20 per cent and an extra year of secondary school by 15 to 25 per cent. One percentage point increase in female education raises the average level of GDP by 0.3 percentage points.

2.7 Gender as Concept

According to Fant (2008), gender is being male or female. Evans-Solomon (2004) explains gender as the perception of maleness or femaleness related to our membership in a given society. Fant (2008) is of the view that the society assigns roles based on a person's sex. He adds that some of the roles are assigned while some are shaped by ideology, culture, religion and economic development. Gender roles, according to Fant, (2008) are learned behaviours in a given society or community or other social groups through activities, tasks and responsibilities that are perceived as fit for males and females.

2.7.1 Gender Equity

According to Osita-Oleribe (2007), gender equity is whereby both males and females are given equal opportunity either in school, work place and the society in which they live. Ngounoue (2010) also adds that gender equity is a fair and reasonable way of behaving towards males and females so that both are treated equally without any discrimination.

2.8 Girl-Child Education

According to Evans-Solomon (2004), girl-child education is any formal education that the girl-child receives to enable her acquire knowledge, skills, good habit, values and attitudes. The values that the girls acquire through education can help them to exhibit their talents. Offorma (2009) explains girl-child education as education girls receive through learning and it can be formal or informal. She adds that it is very important that girls are given equal opportunities as boys to enable them use what they have learnt to solve problems in their society. Girl-child education has since been given a boost in some parts of Ghana (Evans-Solomon, 2004).

2.9 Girl-Child Education in International Context

Since time immemorial, education has been recognized as one single significant contributory factor to economic development World Bank (1999). The recognition of education as key to sustainable development, peace building and effective participation in the democratization process or governance system of a nation has informed several international gatherings. The 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights highlights the importance of education in this light (Wronka, 1998).

In the Article 26 of the Declaration, education was considered first and foremost as a fundamental human right of everyone. The Declaration recognized that “elementary” education would be free and compulsory, and that higher levels of education would be equally available on merit for the realization of the benefits of education. The World Conference on Education held in Jomtein, Thailand in 1990, introduced an expanded vision of “Education for All” with its six main goals which anchored education into a local,

national and global context. Building upon the Jomtein Conference, after the World Education Forum in Dakar in April 2000 most governments in the world committed themselves to ensure that by 2015 all children would complete a full course of good quality primary education, significantly expand learning opportunities for youth and adults, halve illiteracy levels and eliminate gender disparities at all levels of education by 2015.

The overriding importance of achieving universal primary education by 2015 and eliminating gender disparity in primary and secondary education and at all levels of education by 2015 are a part of the Millennium Development Goals adopted by the UN General Assembly in 2000. The eight goals that the 189 countries signed included commitments to education, health and environmental sustainability (UNCT, 2003).

2.10 The Ghanaian Context

Since 1925 female education has received official recognition and backing in the educational policy of this country. The Guggisberg's Sixteen Principles helped to put female education in the national context. Two of the sixteen principles (4 and 2) advocated equal opportunities for both boys and girls in basic education and the provision of secondary education with an educational standard that will help young men and women to enter a university (McWilliam & Kwamena-Poh, 1975).

The education reform programme of 1987 provided a great boost for the important role of female education in the development process of this nation. The legal framework for the reform which was set under the constitutional arrangement of the 1992 Constitution enjoined the government to put in place a system of education that will allow all children of school-going age to access a free compulsory universal basic education within five years

of the assumption of office by the year 2005. In the same vein, the 1992 Constitution also required the government to intensify efforts to achieve functional literacy and stressed the need for the provision of secondary and higher education.

Additionally, the government was required to create equal access to technical and vocational education on the basis of capacity by every appropriate means with progressive introduction of free education (Graham & Hormeku, 1996). Gender equality has received attention in all spheres of the Ghanaian national life. The Ghana Government has promulgated many Acts on gender issues and also ratified some existing conventions with the ultimate aim of evoking contributions from all and sundry in the national development process. For instance, in 1986, the government ratified the convention on the “Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women and Children (CEDAW) (Awumbila, 2001).

2.11 Factors affecting Girl-child education

A synthesis of studies conducted in Ghana, Africa and the world at large has identified a cascade of factors that affect girl-child education. These factors are multi-faceted and interrelated. They are synthesized into socio-economic-cultural practices and conditions.

2.11.1 Socio-Cultural Practices

In many societies and communities, home-environment practices have been identified as significant influences which affect the education of children. Fraser, (1959) postulated that cultural values, norms and practices, and attitudes significantly influence the enrolment and participation of children. He observed that these things contribute to gender disparities in education of a given society (Fraser, 1959). Home-environment

factors have a direct relationship with a child's education. Poor parental perceptions about the benefits of education and negative attitudes towards children's education contribute to low family investment in children's education in developing countries.

Parental attitudes exercise greater influence than intelligence in a child's education (Fraser, 1959). According to Clerk, studies by a group of ethnographers into the forces behind the success of children in the midst of poverty in Africa indicated that poor children of all family types succeed in their education because their parents inculcate discipline and good study habits into them (Clerk, 1983 cited in Astone and McInaham, 1991). Burns observed that in Buganda parents viewed western formal education with disbelief because educated girls became discontented, immoral and felt reluctant to undertake heavy field labour (that is farming).

Despite this, parents invested in their children's education because it offered opportunities for the expression of one's higher social status in the community and helped their sons to obtain lucrative jobs and daughters a higher bride-wealth in marriage (Burns, 1964). Khan found similar practices in Nepal. He found that economic conditions have influenced cultural practices in a way that families actively promoted the education of their daughters to increase their chances of marrying a "white collar" husband and poor families concentrated their resources to educate one son through secondary education to obtain a lucrative job (Khan, 1993). Cultural sanctions on women have also been identified as a major factor which restricts girls' participation in education in societies and communities of Indian, African and Pacific cultures (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1988).

Psacharopoulos (1985) indicated that in the Middle East and North Africa, religious and socio-cultural traditions such as early marriage, child bearing and an unwillingness to

allow girls to travel long distances have contributed to low participation of women in education in those regions. This pattern of educational provision and attendance is echoed in other regions of the developing world.

The long traditional and conservative belief that a woman's role lies in the kitchen or home has tipped the balance in favour of male children in education in many countries. Lichter's study into high school drop-outs in some developing countries indicated that while 47 percent of boys indicated that their fathers earnestly desired college education for them only 17 percent of girls reported same. Similarly, 40 percent of boys and 32.5 percent of girls respectively indicated that their mothers wanted college education for them Lichter (1962). Progress has somehow been made into improving educational equality for males and females: the ratio of girls to boys is about 86 and 75 percent for primary and secondary schools respectively (World Bank, 2001; Lewis and Lockheed, 2006). The ratios above show that irrespective of the improvement through global campaign, girls are not yet still near boys and therefore have higher school dropout rates.

2.11.2 Socio-Economic Conditions and Practices

Certain socio-economic conditions and practices have been implicated for causing the early termination of children's education in some societies in the developing countries. Socio-economic status of families is the foremost factor. This relates to a family's level of educational attainment, occupation and income. Tadoro in his studies on school performance of children in some developing countries identified four determinants of a child's capacity to learn which eventually determine the child's participation in education. These are family environment (including income and educational level), peer group

interaction and the type of children whom an individual associates with, the child's interest, intelligence and ability, and early nutrition and health. He argued that these factors affect the performance of both sexes (Tadoro 1985 cited in Zewide, 1994).

Some studies have indicated that there is a positive relationship between a family's socio-economic status and the education of children. A child's educational attainment would be high if the child's family socio-economic status is high and vice versa "ceterus paribus". According to Kelly there is a strong correlation between parental income and social status and school enrolment of girls than for boys. As the Robbins' Report (1963) observed despite the astounding academic abilities of children of manual working class and those of the upper middle-class, only 11 percent of children of lower manual working-class compared to 44 percent of upper middle class children went to grammar school.

Bishop (1989). study into factors which influence educational attainment of children in Cape Coast found that about 94 percent of the subjects with lower than secondary school educational attainment had mothers whose educational attainment was lower than secondary education. Bishop indicated similar patterns of discrimination in education provision among university students in Pakistan. He indicated that the degree of literacy within a home and the attitude of parents towards education constituted the most significant influences for admissions of students into the university for literate or illiterate parents in Pakistan. He found that at the University of Karachi, children of parents with university education were in greater percentage of about twenty times more compared to children of illiterate parents (Bishop, 1989).

Economic considerations have motivated familial preference for investing in male education rather than female education over the years (Khan, 1993). The act of families

placing high premium on the economic contributions of girls has been identified as a factor which restricts girls' participation in education. Handa (1996) found that for the academically elite high school, income was the single most influential characteristic affecting enrolment. Poverty has been implicated as a major underlying factor in the decisions of parents and families to invest less in female education. In many families in poor societies and communities, girls are tasked to make contributions in the form of child care, home production, agriculture and trade which are essential for the survival of family members and the education of siblings.

Girls' contributions to their families begin at an early age and this underpins low priority given to female education in those communities. Investment in the education of boys in many poor families is seen, however, as a security for old age Psacharopoulos (1985). Again, Psacharopoulos argued that the phenomenon of low female participation in education goes beyond the issue of poverty. He observed that other factors such as parents' unwillingness to bear the educational cost of books, uniforms and other expenses contribute to low female participation in education.

2.11.3 School-Environment or School-Related Conditions

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

issue of female academic performance. Some of them argue that the assertion is real and attribute its causes to the socio-economic environment. Other researchers argue that the assertion is a perceived relationship in developing countries. Duncan's (1989) review of a study in Africa by Kann (1981) indicated that there was a weak relationship between the socio-economic background of parents and the academic achievement of students in Ugandan and Botswana's schools. Simmon and Alexander (1980) concluded differently. They postulated that home background has important influences on the achievement of pupils and students in primary schools and lower secondary schools in those countries.

The role played by girls at home has been implicated as contributing to poor female performance at school. Most girls were tasked to provide domestic services in the form of cooking, care of siblings as training for their future roles as wives and mothers. This tended to affect their attendance and performance at school. A study which analyzed 'O' level (Grades 11 - 12) examination results in Botswana, Zambia and Kenya showed that girls performed poorer than boys in almost all subjects especially in the Physical Sciences, Biology and Mathematics.

The analysis, however, showed that girls did better in English Literature in all the three countries (Duncan, 1989 cited in Zewide, 1994). In Zambia, similar analysis, however, indicated lower girls' examination scores in English, Social Science, Mathematics and Physical Science. Poor female academic performance in Zambia was attributed to parental discouragement of girls to attend school, domestic responsibilities, early pregnancies and a school curriculum geared more towards boys than girls. Chinapahs (1983), however, found no significant gender differences in achievement levels in the national examination results conducted at the end of primary level in Botswana. In

Mauritius girls' performance was found to be better than boys. A similar pattern of female performance was found in the UK. Girls attained higher performance than boys in reading, mathematics, verbal and non-verbal reasoning in school examinations. Some of the reasons adduced as explanations for boys' poor performance included a tendency for boys' disregard for academic work, indulgence in "laddish behaviour and bravado acts and male peer-group pressure. Girls, however, emphasized collaboration and sharing (Arnot & Phipps, 2003).

In Chile, in university selection tests girls performed less well than boys as in the US National Assessment of Education Progress testing (UNESCO, 2003a). Female self-imposed low self-esteem has been identified as a factor which affects female participation in education and especially in science and technology studies in many countries. As a result of girls' poor perception of their academic prowess they tend to shy away from offering subjects such as mathematics and the physical sciences. This has affected female participation in scientific and technical education in most developing countries.

2.11.4 Governmental and Institutional Policy Practices

Governmental and institutional policy practices of governments constitute significant factors that affect female participation in education in the developing world. The pervasiveness of the perception that girls are academically inferior to boys provides significant influences in decisions to sideline girls in education, employment and power sharing or governance systems. Women have become subjects of various forms of discrimination which impinge on their steady progression in the society. In some instances,

women are subjected to discriminatory and segregative practices on the labour market and performance of schedules.

Raj (1982) argues that often a woman's long years of education and training do not constitute significant factors in female employment. According to him, most women suffer discriminatory acts such as lower grade placement, underpayment for equal work and shorter hiring/employment periods despite possessing equal or better qualifications than their male counterparts. The absence of adequate female role models and employment avenues for women underpins the under representation or marginalization of women in labour issues in developing countries.

Nevertheless, it is clear that in most African countries, few are appointed as principals. According to a 1993 UNDP Human Development Report in industrialized countries discrimination against women largely abounds in employment and wages with women getting less than two-thirds of the employment opportunities and about half the earnings of men.

Hussain, Sanyal, Abbassi and Shahrukh (1987) however, argues that discrimination against women labour market issues is not a phenomenon which affects every kind of job. In professions such as the medical and scientific spheres of human endeavour women were not discriminated against men. Rather, they were favoured and paid more highly than men. According to UNESCO data on labour issues in Pakistan, in the fields of engineering and technology, and teaching women were however paid significantly less. In Ghana, the provisions of Article 35 of the 1992 Constitution guarantee all persons equal opportunity to participate in all spheres of national life. Additionally, the government has ratified a

convention which calls for an end to all forms of discrimination against women and children (Awumbila, 2001, p.56).

2.12 Approaches to Improve Girl-Child Education

Mumba (2002) explains education as a tool which helps human beings to develop very well. Education for girls in Zambia was not encouraging so the Programme for Advance Girls Education (PAGE) was instituted in 1994 to focus on capacity building, gender sensitization, and quality education for all children especially girls. This was done to empower girls and women to fully participate in economic and social development of the nation. Pigozzi (1999) thinks an important aspect of the measures that can be taken to mediate girl child education is to check the mental and physical health of the girl, her economic needs and educational needs. The author insists that life skills such as safety and sanitation are very important to the girl-child so she must be taught this. To Pigozzi, attention must be paid to skills training to increase the livelihood of girls and women.

To increase the participation of girls in secondary school in Malawi, the government of Malawi in 1993 adopted a policy which allowed girls who had become pregnant to return to school one year later (Mazloun, 2000). This was because 585 girls were dismissed from school due to pregnancy from 1997 to 2000 while 541 were readmitted within that same period as a result of the policy. Bernard (2000) is of the view that making education free and compulsory is the keystone of any national plan to eliminate gender disparity in education and achieve universal education. Bernard emphasizes the need to make the classroom more child-centred and gender sensitive so that there will be high enrolment rate for girls. Bernard adds that both male and female teachers must receive

training in gender awareness in the classroom and be given regular salaries so that they can help implement the policies that will be introduced.

Furthermore, the author adds that allowing young mothers to return to school and providing alternative education for girls also increase girls' participation in education. Bernard (2002) cites an example that in 2000, Chile allowed girls who had dropped out of school due to pregnancy to continue and complete their education after they have given birth while in Turkey, learning centres were opened in five provinces to enable girls who did not get formal education acquire alternative education.

Another strategy that Bernard (2002) talks about is to recruit more female teachers who can serve as role models and make the girls feel more comfortable in school. Besides, girls must be given the opportunity to participate in sports because female athletes gain recognition and they become mentors to others.

According to Vescio (2005), sports play a major role in girl-child education. That is when girls are involved in sporting activities it helps them to stay in school and the sports also broaden their minds. He suggests that girls should be forced to engage in sports so that it can be used as a strategy to boost girl-child education. Similarly, Bernard (2002) says sports can contribute to achieving gender parity in education because as girls participate in sports, they acquire new interpersonal skills. And through additional social networks, the girls gain access to different opportunities which allow them to become more engaged in school and community life. The author cites an example that in Romania, sports has increased school participation among girls and their academic performance as well. Lincove (2006) agrees with Bruce (1997) that educating girls produces considerable social and welfare benefits, such as lower infant mortality and fertility rates.

In Bruce's (1997) view, girls' education in Ghana has some strategies which are quantitative (targeting access to and participation in education), and qualitative (focusing on transforming the learning environment and increasing achievement). They also include improving management efficiency, which could increase retention and completion. Other strategies that can help increase access to education of girls are:

- ❖ Use of role models.
- ❖ Mobilising parents, communities and the private sector in support of girls' education.
- ❖ Supporting guardians or parents to cater for their children or wards schooling.
- ❖ Addressing local problems.

The qualitative strategies in girls' education are:

- ❖ Making education relevant to the lives of girls.
- ❖ Providing incentives to female teachers to teach in remote areas.
- ❖ Providing teachers with sensitisation and training.
- ❖ Increasing the supply of school infrastructure or teaching and learning materials.

In a speech on the strategies to increase girls' education, Kofi Annan, former UN Secretary General mentioned at the World Education Forum in 2000 that; "No development strategy is better than one that involves women as central players. It has immediate benefits for nutrition, health, savings and reinvestment at the family, community, and ultimately country level". In other words, educating girls is a social development policy that works. It is a long term investment that yields an exceptional high return. We need those with power to change things to come together in an alliance for girls' education: governments, voluntary progressive groups and above all, local communities,

schools and families. (p.11) Tomasevski (2005) and DeJaeghere (2004) are of the view that there must be a strategy which will ensure that all girls start and finish primary school. Their reason is that education is a lever to provide girls with choices in life. Because primary education may not be enough, the authors add the need to apply human rights law to mould girls' education. This suggests that girls should have an equal right in education and their equal rights should be promoted through education. Tomasevski (2005) and DeJaeghere (2004) further stress that integrating girls into mainstream schools without altering curricula and textbooks perpetuates the stereotypes that impede gender equality. They indicate that some textbooks tend to portray women as staying at home while men are making history. An example is where textbooks in Peru, women are mentioned ten times less than men while in Croatia, the study of secondary school textbook showed that sons are the subject of 42% of the material on family life, and daughters only 17%.

The Government of Ghana introduced an Education Strategic Plan from 2003 to 2015 which indicated that there should be increase in access to and participation in education and training (Ameyaw Akumfi, 2003). Thus, girls and other disadvantaged groups, must be encouraged to enroll in school. Besides, the Education Strategic Plan stipulates that there must be improvement in the quality of teaching and learning for enhanced girls' achievement in school. Vocational/Technical education must be improved and extended to all schools so that girls will be motivated to go to school.

Randell and Gergel (2009) outline some strategies that can improve girl-child education and these strategies are as follows. The first strategy is making the classroom more child-centred and gender sensitive. To the authors teachers should involve students in their lessons so that the girls will be able to participate actively in class. The authors cite an

example in Guatemala, where teachers used participatory teaching and learning methods to encourage girls to express themselves freely in class. In addition, teachers make full use of the local language in teaching for students to understand whatever is being taught and this has improved the enrolment rate of girls in schools.

Randell and Gergel mention that in Zambia, the Ministry of Education has recruited and trained teachers to become sensitive to gender and child rights issues in the country. They recommend that both female and male teachers should receive training in gender issues so that they can cope with every student in the classroom. Without this, some teachers may value and encourage boys' participation in class more than they value girls' and may allocate school tasks along strict gender lines, leaving girls to sweep the floors and the toilets.

Another strategy that Bernard (2002) mentions is eliminating gender bias from textbooks and learning materials. He outlines that in Vietnam, the government has developed a new gender-sensitive teacher-training module which ensures that textbooks are gender neutral and has increased girls' enrolment in school to 28 percent. More so, Bernard (2002) is of the view that supplying safe water and latrines encourage girls to go to school. The reason is that some girls drop out of school at the onset of menstruation partly because there are no separate toilet facilities for both boys and girls. This shows that a wide variety of strategies could be implemented to promote girls' education across the world.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This study is conducted to examine the role of female educational leaders in promoting girl-child education in the Builsa south district of the Upper East Region. This chapter, thus reviews the profile of the study area and the procedure used in carrying out the research, highlighting the research design, the population, sample and sampling techniques, the instrument used for data collection, validity and reliability of the instrument, data collection procedure, data analysis plan and ethical considerations.

3.1 Description of Study Area

The Builsa South District was created on 7th June, 2012. It was carved out of the then Builsa District. The district is one of the four that were created in the region in 2012 that brought the total number of districts in the region to thirteen. Fumbisi is the administrative capital. The Legislative Instrument that mandated its establishment is the Local Government Act, 1993 (Act 462) of 2012 is (LI 2104). The district shares boundaries with the Builsa North district to the north, Mamprugu Moagduri District in the Northern Region to the South, West Mamprusi District to the west, and the Sisala East District in the Upper West Region to the east. The district lies between longitudes 10 05' West and 10 35' West and latitudes 10 20' North and 10 50' North of the equator (GSS, 2014).

The District has mean monthly temperatures ranging between 21.90 C and 34.10 C. The highest temperatures are recorded in March and this can rise to 45 C, whereas the lowest temperatures are recorded in January. The dry season is characterized by dry

harmattan winds and wide diurnal temperature ranges .There is only one rainy season, which builds up gradually from little rains in April to a maximum in August-September, and then declines sharply to a complete halt in mid-October when the dry season sets in. the Rainfalls are very torrential and range between 85 mm and 1150mm p.a. with irregular dry spells occurring in June or July (GSS, 2014).

The vegetation of the district is characterized by savannah woodland and consists mostly of deciduous, widely spaced fire and drought resistant, trees of varying sizes and density with dispersed perennial grasses and associated herbs. Through the activities of man, the woodland savannah has been reduced to open parkland where only trees of economic value like baobab, acacia, sheanut and the dawadawa have been retained with time. These trees satisfy domestic requirements for fuel wood and timber for local housing construction, cattle kraals, vegetable garden fences and materials for handicraft (GSS, 2014).

Agriculture is the predominant economic activity in the Builsa south district employing about 96.0 percent of the population.it being noted as the food basket of the region cultivating major crops such as millet, sorghum, maize, rice, bean, groundnuts and soya beans. The vast arable land and the valleys made it suitable for the production of large varieties of crops in commercial quantities (GSS, 2014)

The population of Builsa South District, according to the 2010 Population and Housing Census, is 36,514 representing 3.5 percent of the region's total population. Males constitute 49.6 percent and females represent 50.4 percent. 100 percent of the population lives in rural localities. The district has a sex ratio of 98.3. The population of the district is youthful (under 15 years) (40.7%) depicting a broad base population pyramid which tapers

off with a small number of elderly persons 60 years and above (9.0%). The total age dependency ratio for the District is 88.6

The major religious denominations are Christians, Muslims, and Traditionalist. The largest mode of worship is the Traditional African Religion, which makes up 56.4 percent of the population followed by the Christian Religion, 36.8 percent and Moslems constitute 5.1 percent. The dominant ethnic group in the district is the Builsa who speak Buli language. However, there are other minority ethnic groups such as Kantonsi, Fulanis, Dagombas, Mossi, Sisalas and Mamprusi among others. All the various ethnic groups coexist peacefully in the district from time immemorial (GSS, 2014).

3.2 Research Design

The descriptive survey design was adopted for the study. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) explained that the descriptive survey research tries to identify variables that exist in a given situation and tries to describe the relationship among the variables, as well as identify the factors that exist among them. Descriptive survey design was used because it is comparatively quick and cheap to conduct and administer (Patton, 2007). It was adopted because the researcher was geared towards finding the role of female educational leaders in promoting girl-child education.

With regard to the research approach, the study adopted the mixed method triangulation research design. Creswell (2013) defined mixed method design as a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as quantitative and qualitative methods. According to Creswell, this design allows the researcher to collect and analyze data or information using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in order to produce a better

and in-depth understanding of the research questions. In a triangulation (concurrent) design, both the quantitative and qualitative designs play equal roles (Creswell, 2013). The design focused on the collection and analyses of data by combining both qualitative and quantitative data. The usage of this method is considered the most appropriate design that could lead to drawing meaningful and useful conclusion from the study. This consequently will assist in reducing the biases and limitations inherent in both methods and complement their strengths (Bryman, 2012).

The two methods were used because the problem under investigation was the role of female educational leaders in promoting girl-child education in Builsa South District which needed in-depth analysis. Thus, there was the need for a larger coverage (i.e. quantitative) in order to get diverse views on such practice as well as in-depth information (i.e. qualitative) through interviews with key informants. Creswell (2013) justifies the usage of the mix method because it enables the usage of multiple methods of data collection and analysis especially on phenomena that are complex such as “culture” to which a single method is not sufficient to bring out a comprehensive understanding.

3.3 Population of the Study

According to Creswell (2013), population refers to the complete set of individuals (subjects) or objects having common observable characteristics in which the researcher is interested. The target population consisted of all educational leaders in the Builsa South District. The accessible population consisted of 30 female educational leaders in the Builsa South District.

3.4 Sample and Sampling Technique

According to Creswell (2013) a sample is the selection of a portion of the study population for inclusion in a study. A sample size is therefore the total number of people who are selected from a given population to participate in a study. Purposive sampling was used to select all the 30 female educational leaders in the Builsa South District for the study. In purposive sampling, researchers intentionally select individuals and sites to learn or understand the central phenomenon (Creswell, 2007). Ten of the respondents were also selected for the interview section of the study.

3.5 Sources of Data

The sources of data for a research undoubtedly have implications on the trustworthiness, validity of findings and conclusion. This study used both primary and secondary sources of data.

3.5.1 Primary Data

Primary data are the kind of data collected directly from the field under the control and supervision of the researcher (Panneerselvam, 2004). Panneerselvam adds that primary data are fresh and collected from the field for the first time. The researcher collected qualitative data through in-depth interviews and the administration of questionnaire. Bryman (2012) describes primary data as data that the researcher is responsible for collecting and analysis. Although primary data sources are often time-consuming, they provide a rich source of data for understanding and constructing the present circumstance of the role of female educational leaders in promoting the education of the girl-child in the study area.

3.5.2 Secondary Data

In terms of the secondary data, pertinent literature relating to the study area was extensively used. These included books, journals articles, book articles, and unpublished works relevant to the study. The internet was the main source of the electronic or online literature and other secondary data. These secondary data sources give a solid contextual geographical, historical and socio-economic material for a compelling analysis (Flowerdew & Martin, 2005). The secondary data was integrated and discussed alongside primary data.

3.6 Data Collection Instrument

Questionnaires and interview guide were the research instruments used for the study.

3.6.1. Questionnaire

Questionnaire is a predetermined standardized set of questions meant to collect numerical data that can be subjected to statistical analysis, which requires self-reporting from the participants (Leedy & Omrod, 2005). The questionnaire was designed from the literature and personally administered to the respondents. The structured questionnaire consisted of four sections. Section A demanded responses on background information of respondents, section B dealt with factors that affect girl's education, section C sought respondent's views on the nature of girl's education while section D covered role does female educational leaders play to promote girl's education.

3.6.2. Semi-structured interview

The researcher used an interview guide to collect qualitative data from 10 of the respondents. The semi-structured interviews allowed for a face-to-face interaction and focus group discussion between the researcher and participants (Creswell, 2013). Their advantage was that, while they were reasonably objective, they also permitted a more thorough understanding of the respondents' opinions and reasons behind them than would be possible using the mailed questionnaire. The semi-structured interviews combined objectivity and depth, and generated valuable data that could not be successfully obtained using any other approach. This enabled the researcher to elicit meaningful data through a comprehensive strategy in the form of open-ended questions (Creswell, 2013).

The researcher ensured that she did not control the content so rigidly that the interviewee could not tell their story personally in their own words. The semi-structured interviews offered the interviewer considerable room to pursue a range of topics and offered the interviewee the opportunity to shape the content of the interview.

3.7. Trustworthiness

To ensure trustworthiness and increase the degree to which the results of the study could hold true as well as inform other studies, the researcher undertook the following measures: First, a detailed description of the research setting such as participants' demographics was provided. Similarly, an attempt was made to describe the findings of this study exhaustively. The intention was to provide information, which could inform other audiences and help in determining whether the study results are applicable to their situations. By describing a phenomenon in sufficient detail, one can begin to evaluate

the extent to which the conclusions drawn are transferable to other times, settings, situations, and people (Creswell, 2013). Secondly the researcher discussed the emerging data and its interpretation with a well-informed critical friend who consistently commented on the study since its formulation. The friend's feedback was valuable in shaping my field activities as well as data interpretation. Further, the researcher recorded as much data and as accurately as possible as well undertook member checks with participants to ascertain that data recorded reasonably represents their accounts. Again, the researcher then transcribed the recorded data and quoted verbatim in the analysis.

3.8 Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

3.8.1 Validity

Validity is the degree to which a test measure what is purposes to be measuring. Face and content validity of the questionnaire were tested by the researcher. To achieve faced validity, the questionnaire was given to the supervisor to find out whether the items measure the intended purpose. Content validity is an important research methodology term that refers to how well a test measures the behaviour which is intended. The supervisor founds out whether the items measure specific construct. The validity test enables the researcher to reshape and delete those items which were found to be unclear and misleading. Items that were ambiguous were modified while inappropriate items were deleted.

3.8.2 Reliability

Reliability is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results. Reliability is the extent to which the measuring instrument produces consistent scores when the same groups of individuals are repeatedly measured under the same condition (Creswell, 2008). The questionnaire was administered to the same 30 female educational leaders selected from Builsa North District twice during the pilot testing with a two week interval between the first and the second test and the results correlated. The reliability test yielded Cronbach Alpha of 0.82 which showed that the instrument was highly reliable.

3.9 Data Collection Procedure

The researcher submitted an introductory letter from the educational leadership department to seek authorisation from the Builsa South District Director of Education which was granted. The researcher thereafter visited the schools to brief the respondents about the purpose of the study and also established rapport with the respondents to make them to feel at home in giving responses to the questionnaires. The questionnaire was thereafter administered to all the respondents. The researcher collected the filled questionnaires after a grace period of two weeks.

With regards to the interview, the researcher and the respondents settled on an agreed date, time and venue for the focus group and face to face interview. The researcher sought the interviewees' consent to tape record and took brief notes in the event of tape recorder malfunctions. This was useful for gathering in-depth information on the subject under investigation.

3.10 Data Analysis Plan

The data collected were analyzed using the quantitative and qualitative methods of data analysis. Quantitatively statistical methods used include tables, percentages and frequencies. Analyzed data was presented in tables. This was aggregated qualitatively by explaining why some of the information derived from respondents was so.

The returned questionnaire were scored and coded for analysis. After sorting out the questionnaires, the data were computed and analyzed descriptively using the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20.0.

In qualitative research, data analysis is a rigorous process involving working with the data, organizing data into manageable units, categorizing, comparing, synthesizing data, searching for patterns, discovering what is important and what is to be learned (Creswell, 2013). The researcher recorded as much data and as accurately as possible as well undertook member checks with participants to ascertain that data recorded reasonably represents their accounts. The researcher then transcribed, read through (iterate) the recorded data and quoted verbatim in the analysis.

The final procedure was the triangulation of both qualitative and quantitative data. This took the form of relationship data supported by interview data to arrive at a reasonable conclusion.

3.11 Ethical Consideration

Every research that involves people as participants demands that the researcher be ethically conscious and be responsible to them as a result of the implications which might emanate from the direct actions and inactions of the study. As a result, the researcher

conducted this study in consonance with ethical standards that guide social science research. The researcher sought the informed consent of the research participants. The researcher also ensured that the identities of the research participants was not exposed or traced by any third party. This enabled the research participants to give information without fear. This was done by ensuring confidentiality, privacy and anonymity of research participants by use of pseudo-names and organizing the interviews and discussions with participants at their preferred places where people did not interrupt. The researcher also avoided any descriptive information that could lead to the identification of participants. In order to avoid any form of plagiarism, all sources of information were duly acknowledged both in text citation and in reference.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presented and analyzed data gathered for the study from the interview guide and questionnaire which sought to investigate the role of female educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa South District based on the research questions.

4.1 Socio-demographic characteristics of participants

This section presents the background features of the participants including data on participant's age, gender, marital status, educational qualification and religious affiliation. A total of 10 female educational leaders were interviewed and the responses received were valid for analysis. Summary of the analysis of respondents demographic background are presented in table 1.

In terms of age, table 1 shows the ages of respondents. On religious affiliation, most of the participants were Christians representing 83%, 10% were Muslims and 7% consisting Traditionalists.

Also, the study explored the educational qualification of respondents. Results of the analysis as shown in table 1 revealed that 50% were Bachelor's Degree holders, 33% were Diploma holders and 17% Master's Degree holders. On the basis of their teaching experience, the study revealed that 10% of them have taught within the period of 1-5 years, 20% taught within the period of 6-10 years, 30% of them have taught within the period of 11-15 years whilst 40% has taught for a period of 16 years and above.

The study further examined the marital status of respondents. The results of the analysis as shown in table 1 indicated that majority of 60% of the respondents were married, 17% were single, this followed by 13% of respondent who were separated. In addition, 10% of respondents were widowed.

Table 1: Demographic characteristics of participants

| Variable | Category | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------|--------------------|-----------|------------|
| Age | 30-Below | 5 | 17 |
| | 31-35 | 6 | 20 |
| | 36-40 | 8 | 27 |
| | 41-45 | 7 | 23 |
| | 46-Above | 4 | 13 |
| Gender | Female | 30 | 100 |
| | Diploma | 10 | 33 |
| Educational Qualification | Bachelor's Degree | 15 | 50 |
| | Master's Degree | 5 | 17 |
| Teaching Experience | 1-5 years | 3 | 10 |
| | 6-10 years | 6 | 20 |
| | 11-15 years | 9 | 30 |
| | 16 years and above | 12 | 40 |
| Religious Affiliation | Christianity | 25 | 83 |
| | Islam | 3 | 10 |
| | Traditional | 2 | 7 |
| Marital Status | Married | 18 | 60 |
| | Single | 5 | 17 |
| | Widowed | 3 | 10 |
| | Separated | 4 | 13 |
| | Total | 30 | 100 |

Source: Field data, 2020

4.2 Research Question 1: What are the Factors affecting girl’s education in Builsa South District?

Participants were interviewed to determine the factors affecting girl-child education in the Builsa South district using Likert scale. Their responses are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Girl Child Education in the Builsa South District.

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|-----------------------------|----------------|--------|----------|-------------------|
| Parental income | 15(50) | 13(43) | 2(7) | 0(00) |
| Parental level of education | 20(67) | 10(33) | 0(0) | 0(00) |
| Parental occupation | 18(60) | 11(37) | 1(3) | 0(00) |
| Child labour | 23(77) | 7(23) | 0(00) | 0(00) |

Source: Field data, 2020

Results from table 2 indicates that that 50% of the participants strongly agreed that income of parents affect girl child education whereas 43% agreed. Thus, cumulatively 93% of the participants are in agreement that indeed parental income is a factor that affects girl child education in the Builsa South District. However, only 7% disagreed to this fact that parental income affects girl child education. This results implies that parental income has an influence on girl child education in the Builsa South District. This finding is in agreement with the point emphasized by Khan (1993). According to him high parental

income enables parents to meet the basic needs, regularly buy school uniforms, food, learning materials and sanitary towels for their daughters. However, in a society where the education of boys is seen as more important than that of girls, the needs of the girls may not be considered by their parents hence make them to miss or completely drop out of school. Houston's (2003) also maintained that financial strain on parents particularly parents in the rural areas who are unable to provide some basic needs of their girl-child is an obstacle for their girl-child to further their education.

Again, results on the association between parental occupation and girls' education clearly shows that 60% and 37% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that parental level of occupation affects girls' participation in education. Only 3% of the respondents disagreed with this view. The findings is in consonance with that of Meena (2001). She attributed that parents with higher occupation have their income enhanced which lead to acquisition of better resources, self-esteem and more importantly increase girls' motivation to pursue education.

Further, on Parental education, the results revealed that 67% and 33% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that parental level of education affects girls' participation in education. Therefore, on the overall, majority (100%) of the participants agreed that parental level of education has militated against girls' participation in education. This findings implies that the level of parental education affects the girl child education. This results confirm the assertion made by Houphouet-Boigny, D. (2000). According to them there is a close coherence between the meaning of education to parents and their children's participation in education that is if education is regarded as a value in the family, there are

high chances that children will participate in education. Consequently, parents and other family members are role models for their children or siblings in education matters.

More so, the study revealed that 77% and 23% strongly agreed and agreed that child labour was one of the factors affecting girl child education. This results implies that child labour was a major factor affecting girl child education in the Builsa south District. Finally, it can therefore be concluded that parental income, education and occupation as indicators of socio-economic status greatly affect girls' participation in education. However, out of these three factors, parental income and education are the leading factors.

The female education leaders selected as participants of the study and interviewed on their view on the influence of socio-economic factors on girl-child education in Builsa North District. Based on the responses a number of socio-economic factors emerged from the respondents. Specifically,

A female educational was of the view:

'Builsa South District being agrarian in their socio-economic engagements, make parents prone to pulling their children from school during peak seasons such as planting, weeding and harvesting. The children are also used in child labour as they are often sent to the markets to trade of the farm products'.

Another also responded in a similar way:

Hmmm, in this community things most of the school girls are normally engaged in home chores such as cultivating in the crop fields, selling of farm produce in the markets, and assisting their parents in the farm, some of these things goes a long

way to affect the students especially the girls attendance to school which does not help. Impediments to girls attending school.

A female teacher also said that:

‘Most of the parents in this community are not educated they don’t see the essence of education so sometimes their children will be in class and they will even come and call them, either to send them on errands or take them home to look after their young siblings, sometime these Children when they go like that will never return back to school’.

Table 3: Socio-cultural factors affecting Girl Child Education in the Builsa South District

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|--|----------------|--------|----------|-------------------|
| Early marriage | 26(87) | 4(13) | 0(00) | 0(00) |
| Teenage pregnancy | 17(56) | 13(44) | 0(00) | 0(00) |
| Parental attitude towards girl child education | 27(90) | 3(10) | 0(00) | 0(00) |
| Religious Beliefs | 15(50) | 10(33) | 4(13) | 1(4) |

Source: Field data, 2020

Results from table 3 indicated that the socio-cultural factors that affects girl child education were early marriage, parental attitudes towards the girl-child education, teenage pregnancy and religion beliefs. The respondents were required to respond to each item by indicating strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree. The results indicates that

87% and 13% strongly agreed and disagreed respectfully that early marriage is a socio-cultural factor that affects girl child participation in education in Builsa South District. This results confirmed the findings of a study conducted in Kenya by Oketch and Rolleston (2007) on the effects of socio-cultural practice on girl child participation in primary education. The study revealed that early marriage denies a girl-child the opportunity to attend school, they continued that in some rural Arid and Semi-arid areas of Kenya, parents arrange some marriages for their children, and when this is done, it is usual for the girl-child as young as 12 years to quit school and go into the marriage for procreation.

Further, 90% and 10% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed that negative parental attitude towards girl child education was a factor contributing to girl child education. This findings therefore implies that parental attitudes towards girl child education was a socio-cultural factor affecting girl child in the Builsa South District. This finding is in consonance with a study conducted by Arai and Tabata, (2006) in Pakistan. Their findings revealed that negative attitude of parents on girl child education influence their girl child performance in school. They continued that such attitude causes their children to lose interest in schooling which consequently leads school dropout. Greater effect is observed in parental attitude towards girls where 98% of the girls positively agreed that it is critical factor. In a study carried out in Pakistan, gender disparity in education is attributed to a large extent to the parent's attitude against girls.

Moreover, on the teenage pregnancy, 56% and 44% of the respondents strongly agreed and agreed that teenage pregnancy is a factor militating against their education. This finding confirm the assertion made by Sutherland (2002) that girls who become pregnant usually face a lot of ridicule from their fellow pupils to the extent that it would be difficult

for them to return to school after giving birth. Though the government and Non-Governmental organizations have been very supportive to such girls and even give them a leeway to join schools of their choice to recover from the pregnancy stigma, this has born little fruit, an indication that it is a serious stigma that require psychological interventions.

Finally, 50% and 33% strongly agreed and agreed that some religious factors affect girl child education. However, 13% and 1% disagree and strongly disagreed that religious factors affects girl- child education. The results means that religious factors contribute to girl child education in the Builsa South District. This finding confirm that of Lifanda (2005) when he mentioned that one ethnic group in Mali prevents girls from attending school because their religious beliefs and attitudes remain very strong and for that matter women are not allowed to participate in literacy classes.

Another female educational leader who was interviewed on the socio cultural practice on girl child education also retorted that:

'To me I see marriage to be matter of choice. Yet many girls are forced into marriages at a tender age to the detriment of their education. These girls are not always given the chance to exercise their right to choose as a human being. Young girls within the ages of 12 to 17 years are often exchanged for marriages without their consent. Once they are given out in marriage you see them getting pregnant as soon as possible and then affecting their education'.

Another also lamented that:

'This practice of the dowry system has led to some parents withdrawing female children from school for marriage in order to get dowry and other items from their

in-laws and I can attest to the fact that the dowry system has immensely affected female education in the Community’.

Table 4: School related factors affecting Girl Child Education in the Builsa South District

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|--------|----------|-------------------|
| Long distance to school | 25(83) | 5(17) | 0(00) | 0(00) |
| Cost of schooling | 18(60) | 12(40) | 0(0) | 0(00) |
| Irrelevant curricular | 8(27) | 12(40) | 7(23) | 3(10) |
| Teacher pupil interaction | 20(67) | 10(33) | 0(00) | 0(00) |
| Inadequate school TLMs/ Furniture | 25(83) | 5(17) | 0(00) | 0(00) |

Source: Field data, 2020

It is evident from the results in Table 4 that cumulatively, 100% of the respondents positively agreed that cost of schooling is a school- related factor that affects girl child education. This results implies that cost of schooling is a factor that affects girl-child education in Builsa South District. This results confirmed the assertion made by Ongwae, (2009) that financial constraints is one of the contributing factor that affects girl child education. He continued that most developing countries face financial challenges making it difficult to meet their daily needs which indirectly affect their children performance in school.

Again, 27% and 40% strongly agreed and agreed that irrelevant curricular is also a factor that affects girl child education. Only 23% and 10% disagreed and strongly disagreed on this factor. This results implies that irrelevant curricular is a factor that can affects girl child education in the Builsa South District. This results confirmed that of Grace, (2010) that most of the things and materials thought in schools are theological which make it difficult for graduate emerging form such schools difficult in seeking employment after school. She continued that there is a mismatch between what students are taught in school and the realities in the society, as most employers are not ready to recruit such people.

Further, 83% and 17% strongly agreed and agreed respectively that distance to school was a school related factor that affects girl child education. This findings means that long distance to school was a school related factor that affect girl child education in the Builsa South District.

Again, on teacher-pupil interaction, it was observed that majority of the respondents 100% identified this as a factor that affects their education. This results means that teacher-pupil interaction is a school factor that affects girl child education in the Builsa South District. This findings therefore is in line with Tjombonde, (2002). He asserted that when the school environment is structured in such a way that each individual teacher creates a learning climate either through formal or informal interactions with pupils it helps to increase pupils' performance. To him pupils are human first and learners second. Thus, the school is not only an educational institution for teachers to enhance pupils' learning but also an interactive community of human beings.

Finally, the inadequate Teaching and learning materials as well as sitting furniture was explored, the results indicate that 83% and 17% of the respondents both strongly

agreed and agreed respectfully that this was a school -related factor that contributor to their participation in education. This finding corroborates that of Oketch and Rolleston (2007). They emphasized that in rural parts of Kenya, particularly in Arid and Semi-arid areas, school infrastructures are not good including pupil seats. Many pupils, both boys and girls share a seat/bench and some, particularly girls may be uncomfortable squeezing on one seat. In effect, some especially the mature ones may opt out of school. The study result clearly shows that availability of resources enhances or promotes girls' participation in education, while inadequacy of these resources adversely affects their participation.

All the respondents were in agreements that school related factors affects girl child education. Two of the participants had this to say:



The income level of most parents in this community are very low as a results of that they are unable to cater for their children in terms the expenses in school. Sometimes we have to drive students home because of exercise books, this problem causes some of the girls to drop out of school.

The other also responded that:

'It will shock you to see and hear that in this modern times schools don't have good tables to for pupils to sit on so sometimes they put their books on their lap when they are writing because of that they don't like coming to school regularly'.

4.3 Research Question 2: What is the nature of girl's education in Builsa South District?

Education of the girl-child is an important indicator of social and economic development in a country. From the findings gathered from the interviews conducted, it is observable that in terms of the nature of girls' education in the Builsa South district, more boys than girls have in the past attended school and even now more boys than girls are attending school. The chance of the girl-child having access to education is threatened by many factors, parental level of education and income being the most observed ricks factors. Educating the girl-child is of strategic development priority. This is particularly so given the overwhelming responsibility of women social roles which affects the growth and survival of future generations. This study considered the role of female educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa South District. Some of the roles of female educational leaders in this context include: provision of needed support, serving as role models, psychological support and physical support.

Among possible measures to improve the condition of girl-child education in the district, that is the study revealed the need for government at all levels to enact laws, bye laws and agreements and enforce strict measures that will protect the interest of the girl-child at all times. There is also a need for renewed effort to reach the new literacy targets of the Sustainable Development Goals by 2030.

4.4 Research Question 3: What Role does Female Educational Leaders play to promote girl's education in Builsa South District?

Participants thus female educational leaders were interviewed on the roles of female educational leaders play to promote girls education in the Builsa South District.

Table 5: Role female educational leaders play to promote girl’s education in Builsa South District

| Role of Female Educational Leaders | Frequency | Percentage |
|------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Provide the needed support | 14 | 45 |
| Psychological support | 5 | 15 |
| Spiritual and mental support | 3 | 10 |
| Serve as role models/ Mentors | 9 | 30 |
| Total | 30 | 100 |

Source: Field data, 2020

These were what respondents said about what female educational leaders must do as ways of improving girl-child education in the Builsa South District. Majority 45% of the participants said female educational leaders must do well to provide the girl-child with needed support. Also, 30% of the participants said female educational leaders must support the girl-child spiritually and morally, 15% said female educational leaders must support the girl-child psychologically and must see female education and the girl child education for that matter as investments or assets rather than liabilities. 10% responded that female educational leaders must see their female wards succeed by serving as role models and mentors. The result is that the contribution of female educational leaders can influence girl child education positively. Especially in the Builsa South District.



CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

This chapter gave a summary of the study, draws conclusion and make recommendations and suggestions for further research.

5.1 Summary of the Study

The study investigated the role of female educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa South District. The study had three specific objectives. It first examined the factors that affect girl-child education in the Builsa South District. The second research objective sought to find out the nature of girl's education in Builsa South District whilst the third objective investigated the role female educational leaders play to promote girl's education in Builsa South District. Descriptive research design was adopted for the study. Purposive sampling technique was used to select all the 30 female educational leaders. Interview protocol and questionnaire were the instruments used in collecting data for the study.

5.2 Summary of Key Findings

The study revealed that socio-economic factors such as parental income, parental occupation, level of parents' education and child labour were factors affecting girl child education in Builsa South District. Further, the study revealed that socio-cultural factors such as early marriage, parental attitudes towards girl child education, and teenage pregnancy affect girl child education in Builsa South District. Moreover, the study revealed that cost of schooling, irrelevant curricula, and teacher pupil interaction and inadequate TLMs as well as furniture were school-related factors affecting girl child education in Builsa South District.

This study also examined the nature of girl-child education in the Builsa South District. Further, the study revealed the roles female education leaders must play to promote girl child education. Provision of the needed support, psychological support,

moral and spiritual support and serving as role models and mentors were revealed as the roles female education leaders must play to promote girl-child education in the Builsa South District.

5.3 Conclusions

The study concluded based on the findings that socio-economic factors such as parental income, parental occupation, level of parents' education, child labour, early marriage, parental attitudes towards girl child education, and teenage pregnancy affected girl child education which should be addressed.

It is also concluded that, there are some roles female education leaders must play to promote girl child education. Notable among them were provision of the needed support, psychological support, and moral and spiritual support.

5.4 Recommendations

In the light of the major findings of the research, the following are recommended for the improvement and sustainability of female education in the district and the nation as a whole.

The district Assembly in conjunction with traditional authorities should enact by-laws to sanction parents who deny school going age females the opportunity to enroll or further their education

Existing by-laws should be strengthened to sanction culprits.

The ministry of Gender, Children and Social Protection in collaboration with the Municipal Assembly and the GES should do mobilization/sensitization on the importance of female Education.

Cultural practices and entrenched beliefs that continue to be barriers to education should be addressed through sensitization programmes, education and community involvement in larger scale to address the situation

Government through the ministry of education, Information, civil society organizations, NGOs, the media and community leaders must collectively initiate outreach and orientation activities to highlight the importance of female education and subsequently dispel the myth some people have about female education.

The ministry of Gender, Children and social protection should liaise with government and other agencies to empower parents (women group) economically through the LEAP programme and other credit facilities to help alleviate their poverty situation.

Parents and guidance should be encourage to form smaller groups in order to have easy access to credit facilities to enable them provide for their wards needs especially the female child.

Parents and guardian should be educated and be reminded of their primary responsibility in caring for and ensuring that their children especially the girl-child obtain minimum formal education.

More female teachers should be posted to the SHS by the GES to serve as role models to young females in the communities.

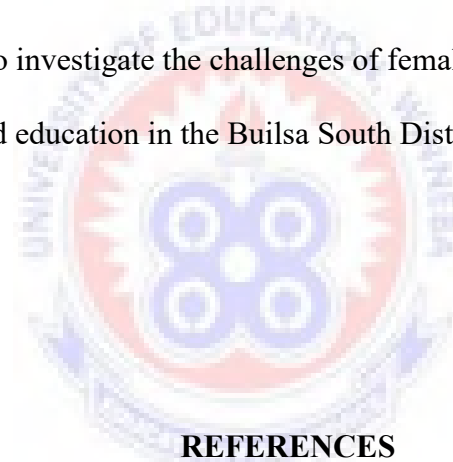
Government in conjunction with Civil Society organization and NGOs must institute scholarship, awards or motivational packages for females and if already in place

consolidated to attract more females especially the brilliant but needy ones. The so called perceived difficult courses like science must be associated with alluring packages to attract female students.

The impact of interventions programmes by GES, Afrikids and the District Assembly is positive but should be on a larger scale to address the situation.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Study

The study was conducted to investigate the role of female educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa South District, therefore further study should be conducted to investigate the challenges of female educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa South District.



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Dear Respondents;

I am a graduate student of the University of Education, Winneba-Kumasi Campus conducting a study to the Role of Female Educational Leaders in the Promotion of Girl-Child Education in the Builsa South District. The questionnaire is intended for the collection data from you on the Role of Female Educational Leaders in the Promotion of Girl-Child Education in the Builsa South District. The study is purely for academic purposes and the information therefrom, would give would be treated with confidentiality that it deserves.

I count of your usual co-operation.

Yours faithfully

JOANA AWENCHAK AFELIK

(GRADUATE STUDENT)



QUESTIONNAIRE FOR RESPONDENTS

INSTRUCTION: Please (✓) tick the most appropriate response.

SECTION A DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

1. What is your age?

26-30 []

31-35 []

36-40 []

41-45 []

46-Above []

2. What is your gender?

Male []

Female []

3. What is your highest educational qualification?

Diploma []

Bachelor's Degree []

Master's Degree []

4. For how many years have you been teaching?

1-5 years []

6-10 years []

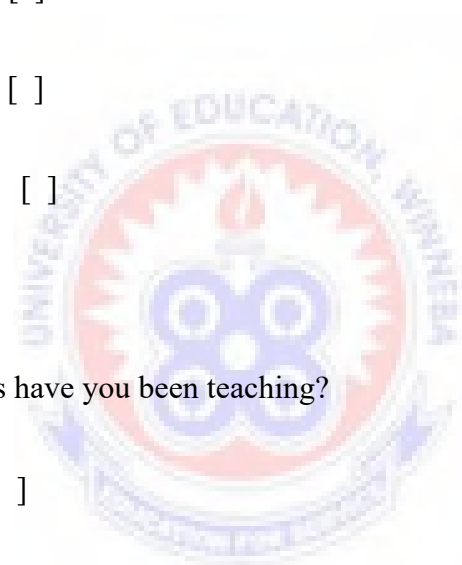
11-15 years []

16 years and above []

5. What is your Religious Affiliation?

Christianity []

Islam []



Traditional []

6. Marital Status

Married []

Single []

Widowed []

Separated []

SECTION B: Factors that affect girl’s education.

This part of the questionnaire contains items that seek to find out factors that affect girl’s education in Builsa South District. On a 4 point-scale: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D), Strongly Disagree (SD), indicate your choice.

Socio-Economic Factors Affecting Girl Child Education in the Builsa South District.

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|-----------------------------|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| Parental income | | | | |
| Parental level of education | | | | |
| Parental occupation | | | | |
| Child labour | | | | |

Socio-cultural factors affecting Girl Child Education in the Builsa South District

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|--|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| Early marriage | | | | |
| Teenage pregnancy | | | | |
| Parental attitude towards girl child education | | | | |
| Religious Beliefs | | | | |



School related factors affecting Girl Child Education in the Builsa South District

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|--------------------------------------|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| Long distance to school | | | | |
| Cost of schooling | | | | |
| Irrelevant curricular | | | | |
| Teacher pupil interaction | | | | |
| Inadequate school TLMS/ Furniture | | | | |

SECTION C: Role played by female educational leaders to promote girl's education

This part of the questionnaire seek to find out role played by female educational leaders to promote girl's education in Builsa South District. Please indicate your choice.

Role female educational leaders play to promote girl's education in Builsa South District

| Statement | Strongly Agree | Agree | Disagree | Strongly Disagree |
|-------------------------------|----------------|-------|----------|-------------------|
| Provide the needed support | | | | |
| Psychological support | | | | |
| Spiritual and mental support | | | | |
| Serve as role models/ Mentors | | | | |

Thank you

APENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE

FOR FEMALE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

TOPIC: A STUDY OF THE ROLE OF FEMALE EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN THE PROMOTION OF GIRL-CHILD EDUCATION IN THE BUILSA SOUTH DISTRICT.

KEY QUESTIONS

- 1) In your opinion, who is a child-child?

- 2) What is education of the girl-child?
- 3) What is the nature of girl child education in the Builsa south district?
- 4) In your opinion what are some of the key clear importance of educating the girl child?
- 5) What factors affects the education of the girl child in the Builsa south district?
- 6) In your own words, who is a female educational leader?
- 7) What are some of the roles of female educational leaders in the promotion of girl-child education in the Builsa south district?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME

