

ALL CHILDREN IN SCHOOL BY 2015

Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children



Government of Ghana



GHANA COUNTRY STUDY

April 2012



Cover image: ©UNICEF/Ghana/2009/Asseli



Contents

Acknowledgements	6
Preface	7
List of Tables	8
List of Figures	9
Acronyms	10
Executive Summary	12
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	18
1.1. Purpose of the Study	18
1.2. Country Context	18
1.3. Overview of Education Sector	19
1.4. Introduction of 5 Dimensions of Exclusion.....	21
1.5. Methodology.....	22
CHAPTER 2: PROFILES OF EXCLUDED CHILDREN	23
2.1. Overview and Analysis of Data Sources	23
2.1.1. Data Sources	23
2.1.2. Overview of Attendance.....	23
2.1.3. Enrolment Rate Comparisons: GDHS and EMIS	25
2.2. Dimension 1: Profiles of Pre-primary Age (5 years) Children Out of School	27
2.3. Dimensions 2 and 3: Profiles of Primary-age and Junior Secondary-age Children Out of School	28
2.4. Dimensions 4 and 5: Profiles of Children at Risk of Exclusion	37
2.4.1. Lack of School Readiness	37
2.4.2. Late Entry	38
2.4.3. Repeaters	39
2.4.5. School Dropout	42
2.5. Disparity Analysis	44
2.5.1. Gender	44
2.5.2. Parental Education	46
2.5.3. Ethnicity	48
2.5.4. Household Living Arrangements	50
2.5.5. Wealth Level.....	52
2.5.6. Child Labor Status	55
2.5.7. Multiple Deprivation	57
2.6. Multivariate Analysis	57
2.7. Analytical Summary.....	60

CHAPTER 3: BARRIERS AND BOTTLENECKS.....	62
3.1. Introduction	62
3.2. Sociocultural Demand Side Barriers and Bottlenecks.....	63
3.2.1. Lack of Child's Interest in Schooling.....	64
3.2.2. Lack of Parental Awareness and Other Parental Factors	64
3.2.3. Negative Beliefs and Values towards Girls' Education.....	65
3.2.4. Fosterage.....	66
3.2.5. Early Marriage	66
3.2.6. Teenage Pregnancy	66
3.2.7. Negative Attitudes towards Children with Disabilities.....	67
3.2.8. Verbal, Physical and Sexual Abuse of Children at School and in the Community.....	67
3.3. Economic Demand Side Barriers	68
3.3.1. Poverty Profile in Ghana.....	69
3.3.2. Family Size and Affordability of Schooling	70
3.3.3. Direct Costs of Schooling	70
3.3.4. Opportunity Costs of Schooling for the Family	71
3.3.5. Child Labor	72
3.3.6. Household Migration and Other Economic /Agricultural Factors.....	73
3.3.7. Child Hunger in the Classroom and Lack of Attention in Class.....	73
3.3.8. Loss of Economic Earning of a Parent	74
3.4. Supply Side Barriers and Bottlenecks.....	74
3.4.1. Distance to School.....	75
3.4.2. Inadequate School Infrastructure	76
3.4.3. Seating and Writing Places in Schools.....	76
3.4.4. Lack of Basic Water and Sanitation Facilities.....	77
3.4.5. Inadequate Teaching and Learning Materials	78
3.4.6. Inefficient Teacher Supply, Allocation and Deployment	78
3.4.7. Child-friendly Instructional Practice and Classroom Management.....	80
3.4.8. Language of Instruction	80
3.5. Political Governance, Capacity and Financing Bottlenecks	81
3.5.1. Inadequate Decision Making and Slow Pace of Policy Implementation.....	82
3.5.2. Inadequate Partnerships with CSOs to Address OOSC Challenges	82
3.5.3. Lack of Voice of Marginalised Groups.....	82
3.5.4. Educational Policy Tensions between Expansion and Quality Improvements.....	83
3.5.5. Weak Monitoring and Evaluation Capacity.....	83
3.5.6. Weak District and Regional Oversight to OOSC	84
3.5.7. Weak School Management Committees	84
3.5.8. Inadequate Sector-wide Coordination and Collaboration.....	85
3.5.9. Financial Bottlenecks Overview.....	85
3.5.10. Inequitable Resource Distribution.....	86
3.5.11. Inefficient Resource Allocation	87
3.5.12. Inadequate, Untimely and Inequitable Allocation of Capitation Grants	87
3.6. Analytical Summary.....	88
CHAPTER 4: POLICIES AND STRATEGIES FOR SUPPORTING OUT-OF-SCHOOL CHILDREN. 90	
4.1. Introduction	90
4.1.1. International Standards on Addressing the 5DEs	90
4.1.2. Ghana's Inclusive Education Policies.....	90
4.2. Sociocultural Demand-side Policies and Strategies	91
4.2.1. Girls' Education Strategies	92
4.2.2. Empowerment of Parents, Particularly Mothers	94

4.2.3. Enforcement of Child Rights and Protection Policies in Schools and in Communities	94
4.2.4. Inclusive Education and Special Education Strategies	94
4.3 Economic Demand-side Policies and Strategies.....	95
4.3.1. Economic Incentive Strategies Addressing Direct Costs of Education	97
4.3.2. Strategies Addressing the Indirect and Opportunity Costs of Schooling.....	99
4.3.3. Social Protection Programmes	101
4.4. Supply-side Policies and Strategies	103
4.4.1. Infrastructure improvement.....	104
4.4.2. Teacher Supply and Deployment	106
4.4.3. Improving Classroom Teaching and Learning.....	107
4.5. Management, Governance and Financial Policies and Strategies	108
4.5.1. Capacity Development of Key MOE/GES Divisions/Units.....	108
4.5.2. Strengthening Accountability Structures at District, School, Community Levels.....	110
4.5.3. Enhancing Civil Society Engagement in the Education Sector	111
4.5.4. Harmonisation of DP Programming to Address the Needs of Excluded Children.....	112
4.5.5. Effective Scale up/Mainstreaming of Pilot Initiative	112
4.5.6. Improving Financial Equity, Efficiency and Effectiveness	113
4.6. Analytical Summary.....	115
CHAPTER 5: RECOMMENDATIONS AND WAY FORWARD.....	117
5.1. Recommendations for National Policy Makers.....	117
5.2. Recommendations for Regional/District/Community Level Stakeholders	118
5.3. Recommendations for Development Partners.....	118
5.4. Recommendations for Civil Society.....	119
References	120
Appendix	128

Acknowledgements

This study report was prepared for UNICEF Ghana by the following authors: Hiroyuki Hattori (Chapter 1); Jeffery H. Marshall and Hiroyuki Hattori (Chapter 2); Leslie Casely-Hayford (Chapters 3 and 4); and Leslie Casely-Hayford and Hiroyuki Hattori (Chapter 5). Hiroyuki Hattori (UNICEF Ghana) provided overall technical direction and guidance. Agnes Arthur, Iwanna Swart (UNICEF Ghana), Rolland Akabzaa, Rukiya Adams and Thomas Quansah (Associates for Change) provided research assistance. Brendan James Rigby (UNICEF Ghana) provided proofreading and editing support. Statistical and conceptual support and review was provided by Friedrich Huebler, Sheena Bell and Olivier Labe (UNESCO Institute for Statistics - UIS), Lorenzo Guarcello (Understanding Children's Work - UCW) and Dina Craissati (UNICEF Headquarters). Funding was provided by UNICEF. The cooperation of the Government of Ghana, through the Ministry of Education and the Ghana Statistical Service, particularly Charles Aheto-Tsegah (Deputy Director General, GES) and Herbert Gorman (EMIS Specialist, MOE), is gratefully acknowledged.

Preface

Education is not only a human right in itself but it is also an essential means of realizing other human rights. Education is one of the most powerful instruments for reducing childhood poverty. This importance of education, particularly primary education, in advancing economic and social development and in reducing poverty is well documented. It is also well reflected in Ghana's 1992 Constitution which provides for education to be "free, compulsory, and available to all."

Ghana has made commendable progress towards the achievement of the Education for All goals. Access to and participation in education in Ghanaian society is still inequitable, however. A considerable number of Ghanaian children remain out of school due to economic, social, cultural, political and other constraints. While the gaps have been narrowing, regional, socio-economic and gender disparities continue to exist. In 2008 an estimated 850,000 Ghanaian children aged 6-11 years were not attending primary school and for the age group of 6-14, the number of out-of-school children increases up to one million.

Universal primary education coverage is necessary for Ghana to meet the Millennium Development Goal (MDG 2) deadline by 2015 – ensuring that all children complete primary education. In order to formulate effective and innovative strategies to remove barriers and bottlenecks to education, within and outside the education system, it is essential to identify more precisely who and where these out-of-school children are and why they are excluded. In policy and programming, equity-based approaches to education require a nuanced analytical foundation, based on robust data and evidence, that takes account of the multiple and interconnected factors that contribute to disparities in access and learning.

This country study provides a comprehensive, analytical overview of the issues of out-of-school children in Ghana as part of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children. It presents detailed profiles of the most marginalized children in Ghana who are denied their right to education. It will serve as an excellent resource for policy reforms and designing of targeted interventions to tackle different barriers and circumstances that hinder children from enjoying basic education. In order to reach the last segment of children who are out of school, one-size-fits-all approaches would not work. Rather, more diversified and tailored strategies are required to attend to the specific needs of disadvantaged children, families and communities. Based on existing evidence and good practices, the study provides a number of innovative and practical ideas and recommendations that the Government and other stakeholder could draw on. We strongly hope that the results of this study will serve as the catalyst of policy debate and programme innovation at all levels.

Benedicta Naana Biney
Director General of Education
Ghana Education Service

Iyabode Olusanmi
Representative
UNICEF Ghana

List of Tables

Table 2.1.	Enrolment/Attendance Rate Comparisons, GDHS and EMIS.....	25
Table 2.2.	Percentage of children of pre-primary age (age 5) in pre-primary or primary education, by sex and other characteristics, 2008.....	27
Table 2.3a.	Net attendance rate (NAR), by sex and level of education, with GPI, 2008.....	29
Table 2.3b.	Net attendance rate (NAR), by sex and level of education, with GPI, 2003.....	29
Table 2.4.	Percent and Number of children out of school, by age group and sex, 2008.....	30
Table 2.5.	Percentage of out-of-school children by school exposure, by age group and sex 2003-2008,.....	30
Table 2.6.	Adjusted primary school net attendance rate (ANAR), by age, sex and other characteristics, 2008.....	32
Table 2.7.	Adjusted lower secondary school net attendance rate (ANAR), by age, sex and other characteristics, 2008.....	33
Table 2.8.	Percentage of primary school age children out of school, by age, sex and other characteristics, 2008 only.....	34
Table 2.9.	Percentage of primary school age children out of school with and without preschool, 2008.....	35
Table 2.10.	Percentage of lower secondary school age children out of school, by age, sex and other characteristics, 2008 only.....	36
Table 2.11.	Percentage of new entrants to primary education with no Early Childhood Care&Education (ECCE) experience, 2008.....	38
Table 2.12.	Primary School Enrolment Age 2003-2008.....	39
Table 2.13.	Repetition rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level of education, by sex and other characteristics, 2008.....	40
Table 2.14.	Dropout rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level of education, by sex and other characteristics, 2008.....	42
Table 2.15.	Survival rate to the last grade of primary education (Grade 6) and to the last grade of lower secondary education (Grade 9), 2008 only.....	43
Table 2.16.	Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education, 2008 only.....	43
Table 2.17.	Logistic regression estimates of covariates of current attendance (2008), various age groups.....	58
Table 3.1.	Sociocultural barriers to schooling.....	63
Table 3.2.	Economic demand side barriers to schooling.....	69
Table 3.3.	Supply side barriers to schooling.....	75
Table 3.4.	Key Physical Resources at Regional Level in Public Schools 2009/10.....	77
Table 3.5.	Political, financial and governance barriers to schooling.....	81
Table 3.6.	Government spending on education and primary education 2006-2008.....	86
Table 4.1.	Key policies that address out-of-school challenges.....	90
Table 4.2.	Policies and strategies to address sociocultural barriers.....	92
Table 4.3.	Policies and strategies to address economic barriers.....	96
Table 4.4.	Targeting effectiveness of social protection programmes.....	102
Table 4.5.	Policies and strategies to address supply-side barriers.....	103
Table 4.6.	Policies and strategies to address political, financial and governance barriers.....	108
Table 4.7.	Responsibilities of GES divisions and units in relation to OOSC.....	109

List of Figures

Figure 1.1.	Overview of Education Service Coverage, National, 2008-09.....	20
Figure 1.2.	Comparison of System Coverage, National, Upper West Region, and Wa East District, 2008-09.....	20
Figure 2.1a.	School Participation by Age and Education Level, 2008.....	24
Figure 2.1b.	School Participation by Age and Education Level, 2003.....	24
Figure 2.2.	Primary Enrollment Raw Total, 2000-2008.....	26
Figure 2.3.	Primary School Attendance Rate for 5 Year Olds, by Region 2003-2008.....	28
Figure 2.4.	Typology of Out-of-School Children (2008), by Age.....	31
Figure 2.5.	Primary ANAR All Children Ages 6-11 by Region, 2003 and 2008.....	33
Figure 2.6.	Percentage of primary school age children in and out of school by sex and residence, 2008.....	35
Figure 2.7.	Percentage of secondary school age children in and out of school by sex and residence, 2008.....	36
Figure 2.8.	Percentage of secondary age children in and out of primary-secondary school by sex and residence, 2008.....	37
Figure 2.9.	Grade Attainment by Age Compared with Expected Level, 2003-2008.....	41
Figure 2.10.	Dropout and Repetition Rates Primary Grades 1-6, 2003-2008.....	43
Figure 2.11.	Current Attendance (2008) by Region and Gender, 5 Year Olds.....	44
Figure 2.12.	Current Attendance (2008) by Gender and Region, 6-11 Year Olds.....	45
Figure 2.13.	Current Attendance (2008) by Region and Gender, 12-14 Year Olds.....	45
Figure 2.14.	Primary Attendance Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 5 Year Olds.....	46
Figure 2.15.	Primary and Pre-Primary Attendance Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 5 Year Olds.....	47
Figure 2.16.	Primary Attendance Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 6-11 Year Olds.....	47
Figure 2.17.	Primary-Secondary Attendance Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 12-14 Year Olds.....	47
Figure 2.18.	Primary Dropout Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 6-14 Year Olds.....	48
Figure 2.19.	Attendance Rates Ages 4-14 2003-2008, by Ethnicity.....	49
Figure 2.20.	Primary Dropout Rate 2003-2008, by Ethnicity.....	49
Figure 2.21.	Lower Secondary Dropout Rate 2003-2008, by Ethnicity.....	50
Figure 2.22.	Living Arrangement Children 5-14, 2008.....	51
Figure 2.23.	School Attendance Rate (2003-2008) by Household Living Arrangement, 5-14 Year Olds	51
Figure 2.24.	Primary-Secondary Dropout Rate (2003-2008) by Living Arrangement, 6-14 Year Olds.....	52
Figure 2.25.	School Attendance Status (2008) by SES Quintile, 5 Year Olds.....	53
Figure 2.26.	Primary School Attendance Rate (2003-2008) by SES Quintile, 6-11 Year Olds.....	53
Figure 2.27.	School Attendance Status (2008) by SES Quintile, 6-11 Year Olds.....	53
Figure 2.28.	Primary- Junior Secondary Attendance Rate (2003-2008) by SES Quintile, 12-14 Year Olds.....	54
Figure 2.29.	School Attendance Status (2008) by SES Quintile, 12-14 Year Olds.....	54
Figure 2.30.	Primary Dropout (2003-2008) by SES Quintile.....	55
Figure 2.31.	Lower Secondary Dropout (2003-2008) by SES Quintile.....	55
Figure 2.32.	School Attendance Rate (2006) by Child Labor Status, by Region, 5-14 Year Olds.....	56
Figure 2.33.	Attendance Rates Ages 6-14 by Poverty, Gender and Region, 2003-2008.....	57

Acronyms

ACE	Alliance for Change in Education
AfC	Associates for Change
ADEOP	Annual District Education Operational Plan
ANAR	Adjusted Net Attendance Rate
BECE	Basic Education Certificate Examination
CBE	Complementary Basic Education
CMF	Conceptual and Methodological Framework
CSO	Community Service Organization
CWIQ	Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire
CREATE	Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DE	Dimension of Exclusion
DEO	District Education Office
DEOC	District Education Oversight Committees
DFID	Department for International Development
DP	Development Partner
ECCE	Early Childhood Care & Education
ECD	Early Childhood Development
EMIS	Education Management Information System
ESP	Education Strategic Plan
ESPR	Education Sector Performance Report
FAWE	Forum for African Women Educationalists
FCUBE	Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education
GAR	Gross Attendance Ratio
GBV	Gender Based Violence
GDHS	Ghana Demographic and Health Survey
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GES	Ghana Education Service
GMR	Global Monitoring Report
GNECC	Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition
GoG	Government of Ghana
GSFP	Ghana School Feeding Programme
GSGDA	Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda
GPI	Gender Parity Index
JHS	Junior High School
KG	Kindergarten
LCD	Link Community Development
LEAP	Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty
MDG	Millennium Development Goal
MICS	Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey
MOE	Ministry of Education
NALAP	National Accelerated Literacy Programme
NAR	Net Attendance Ratio
NEA	National Education Assessment
NHIS	National Health Insurance Scheme
NYEP	National Youth Employment Personnel
OOSC	Out-of-school Children
PBB	Programme-based Budgeting
PETS	Public Expenditure Tracking Survey
PPVA	Participatory Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
RECOUP	Research Consortium on Outcomes to Education and Poverty
SES	Socio Economic Status
SfL	School for Life

SGBV	Sexual and Gender Based Violence
SHEP	School Health Education Programme
SHS	Senior High School
SMC	School Management Committee
SPAM	School Performance Appraisal Meeting
SpEd	Inclusive Education and Special Education Needs Division
SPIP	School Performance Improvement Plan
SWAP	Sector Wide Approach
TENI	Tackling Education Needs Inclusively programme
TLM	Teaching and Learning Materials
UIS	UNESCO Institute for Statistics
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNPD	United Nations Population Division
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WFP	World Food Programme

Executive Summary

Today, more than 80% of Ghana's children are enrolled and staying in primary school, a rate far ahead of most other countries in sub-Saharan Africa. However, according to the Ghana Demographic and Health Survey, an estimated 850,000 Ghanaian children aged 6-11 years were not attending primary school in 2008. For the age group of 6-14, the number of out-of-school children (OOSC) increases up to one million. In order to formulate effective and innovative strategies for the most disadvantaged and marginalised groups, it is essential to identify more precisely who and where these out-of-school children are and why they are excluded. In 2010, UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) launched a Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children and Ghana was selected as one of the 25 case study countries.

Study Overview

The purpose of this study is to examine the detailed profiles of out-of-school children in Ghana, to scrutinise major barriers to school participation, and to analyse existing policies and strategies to tackle key bottlenecks. The goal is to introduce a more systematic approach to address the problem of out-of-school children and guide concrete education sector reforms towards more equitable coverage of basic education in Ghana. The analysis is based on the Five Dimensions of Exclusion model introduced in the Conceptual and Methodological Framework of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). The model presents five target groups of children for the data and policy analysis that span three levels of education: pre-primary, primary and lower secondary; and two different population groups: children who are out of school, and those who are in school but at risk of dropping out. Both quantitative and qualitative research methods are employed to conduct in-depth analyses of the OOSC problem in Ghana.

Profiles of Out-of-School Children

The main result of the statistical analyses is that school participation has increased substantially between 2003 and 2008, and as a result, significantly fewer children aged 5-14 remain outside of the system. Roughly 70% of children aged 5-6 are attending either preschool or primary school in 2008, which appears to be a substantial change from 2003. These increases in participation for the youngest children are beginning to show up in higher grades completed, meaning that more children are starting school on time and as a result they are getting farther by the time they are 10-14 years old. Over 85% of children aged 10-14 are in school in 2008.

Despite these gains, a significant number of children aged 5-14 are still not participating in basic education in Ghana. The results of this study also show significant increases in dropout rates at both primary and lower secondary levels between 2003 and 2008. Roughly 4% of children were dropouts in 2008 after having been enrolled in Primary 1-6 the year before while less than one percent of children were dropouts in 2003.

Reaching these children remains a critical goal for Ghanaian education. The analysis of their detailed profile helps understand the characteristics of the most marginalized children. The results are generally consistent with the "poverty explanation." Children who are not in school are more likely to come from the lowest poverty quintiles, and have parents who never attended school. While the gap in school attendance rate between rich and poor is decreasing, children from the poorest households are still three times more likely to be out of school than wealthy children. There also exist significant regional disparities. Again while the gap is diminishing, children in Northern Region are four times more likely to be out of school than those in Ashanti Region. Gender parity has been achieved at the national aggregate level. However, there still exist significant gender gaps in some regions, particularly in Northern Region. Ethnic disparity persists as well. For instance, children from the Gruma group are 2.5 times more likely to be out of school than those from the majority ethnic group, Akan.

Children are also at risk in certain living arrangements. Not surprisingly, orphans and children in households where the mother is deceased are at risk for non-attendance. The number of children in the home is another risk factor. This is especially true for the youngest children (less than 5 years old). One possibility is that older siblings are needed to stay at home to help care for these younger

siblings. There are also some tradeoffs between children in the household who are of school age; meaning that participation is less likely when there are more children aged 6-14. This is likely related to resources and the household's ability to send multiple children to school at the same time. Yet another risk factor is child labor. The results of this study indicate that children in child labor are more likely to be out of school compared to those not working. This is particularly the case among the 12-14 year age group: the attendance rate of child laborers is 14 percentage point lower than that of non-laborers.

These detailed profiles of out-of-school children help inform policymakers about the kinds of challenges they likely face as they continue the push to reach universal attendance. It could also provide useful metrics for designing targeted interventions to address the challenges directly or monitor the progress of certain groups of children over time.

Barriers and Bottlenecks

The study looks into the causes of exclusion that are linked to different profiles of out-of-school children. The analysis aims at identifying major barriers and bottlenecks that prevent children from attending and completing basic education in Ghana from socio cultural, economic, educational, political and institutional perspectives.

Ghana's sociocultural barriers to educational participation cuts across all five dimensions of exclusion but have particular importance to girls in the second to fifth exclusion zones. Early marriage and child fosterage are still significant sociocultural barriers to girls' education. Low levels of parental literacy and lack of awareness of the potential benefits of education prevent some parents from sending their children to schools. There is also a negative perception of children with special education needs in Ghana, with high levels of stigmatization associated with disability and a low value placed on their capacity and potential. Parents of children with special needs often do not send their children to school, and those who are in school may not receive the necessary support and attention from teachers. School facilities may not be disability friendly and the negative attitude of society may result in their drop out from school. Domestic and school violence, including sexual and gender-based violence, constitutes a significant bottleneck in the proper nurturing and development of children within the school context. Children who participate in schools where abusive practices are present are often absent, leading to low academic achievement which in turn may result in their premature exit from the school system.

The direct costs of education, including the payment of school fees, was the most common reason cited for non-enrolment and non-attendance in Ghanaian primary schools in the 1990s. The introduction of the capitation grant has reduced the parental burden of paying school fees, although there are weaknesses such as irregular disbursement and grant inadequacy. There are also other direct and indirect costs incurred by parents such as: transportation, exercise books/pencils, food, and sanitary materials for girls. These costs increase as children progress to higher levels of education.

The opportunity costs of schooling also have a greater effect on children. Child activities and labor to support the household has an immediate and visible financial outcome for the family, especially when children perform agriculture, domestic and market tasks. Hunger in the classroom can also greatly affect children's participation and retention particularly at primary level. Changes in household living arrangements, especially related to the death of a parent, can force children to drop out of school in order to earn an income for themselves and other family members. Migration can also contribute to long absence from school, low academic performance and eventual drop out. Parents who migrate in search of livelihood activities outside their original settlement face a greater risk that their children will not stay in school.

Poor quality education is a great collective barrier which is reinforced by inefficient educational resource allocation across the most deprived regions, and results in exclusion across all five dimensions of exclusion. Poor quality learning coupled with poor life skills outcomes are beginning to deter Ghana's poor from enrolling their children in school and/or keeping them there. Limited teacher time on task and high rates of teacher absenteeism is one of the main reasons for falling quality standards in Ghanaian schools, particularly in deprived rural communities. Lack of teacher accountability for quality learning is a major barrier to achieving universal access and retention in basic education.

Slow pace of policy implementation and weak institutional capacities, particularly at decentralized levels pose another challenge to the inclusion of disadvantaged children into basic education. Key policies and programmes which have been identified to target out-of-school children have neither been fully implemented nor costed in order to ensure their execution. These include the complementary basic education policy, the early childhood development policy; the girls' education programme; and the special needs education programme. Each of these spheres of operation has a direct impact on addressing the out of school challenge in Ghana and assisting those at risk of exclusion.

The main bottleneck in educational financing related to the out of school phenomena are the vast inequities in financial distribution of education resources at the regional and district levels as well as among rural and urban areas. Because educational expenditure is mainly consumed by personnel emoluments of teachers, the rural deprived areas of the country, including the three northern regions, consequently receive the lowest proportion of financial expenditure as fewer trained teachers are posted there. The needs of disadvantaged groups including people with disabilities, girls and extremely poor children, are often not adequately addressed by education sector financing. For instance, the special education division is allocated less than 1% of total education budget, but rarely receives even this. The girls' education unit and early childhood units also receive very little financing, often resulting in the failure to properly implement their programmes. Furthermore, the enrolment-based allocation formula of the capitation grant discriminates against the small, rural and less endowed schools which often require more quality education improvements. All these pose a major challenge for schools in deprived areas to attract and retain students in school.

Policies and Strategies

The policies and strategies, which address the challenges facing out-of-school children in Ghana, range from national level structural and legislative shifts to more grass root level interventions focused on the attitudinal and value shifts needed within the family and community.

The strategies which appear most effective in addressing the sociocultural demand side bottlenecks and barriers are educational innovations often led by non-state actors in the most deprived areas of the country. Girls' education strategies are particularly important for reducing intergenerational education poverty and family size, and delaying first births (especially among teenagers). The key girls' education strategies identified in this study include: gender responsive teacher training; community sensitization and mobilization; incentive packages (e.g. take home ration programme); girls camps/vacation clubs; and the enforcement of child rights, protection laws and protocols. Addressing the sociocultural barriers through strategies which are carefully targeted to populations, who remain out of reach from the public school system, requires that demand and supply-side strategies are addressed in tandem. For instance, in order to increase the participation of children with disabilities in schooling, it is essential to expand special education and inclusive education programmes while raising community awareness concerning the rights of children with special needs to access the formal school system.

The economic demand side policies and strategies address both the direct and indirect costs of schooling, along with the child labor, household migration and parental loss of earnings. The most immediate and long term strategy for Ghana involves the enforcement and monitoring of the abolition of school fees and the implementation of the capitation grant, which has already had a tremendous impact on school attendance in Ghana. Other strategies include the implementation of scholarship schemes, although most of these schemes remain very small in scale and can result in family dependency if the schemes are not well designed and properly targeted. Strategies for addressing the indirect costs of schooling include school feeding programmes and other social protection interventions. Better targeted social protection programming will help to address some of the shorter term needs of families when sending their children to school, but empowerment approaches which help lift parents out of the poverty trap should be explored in the coming years. Ghana has positive experience with microcredit schemes for mothers and complementary education programming, which address the deep structural inequality barriers for children out of school due to poverty and high opportunity costs of sending children to school.

The most overarching supply side strategy in addressing out-of-school children is the need to improve the quality of education in order to ensure that children who enrol in school are motivated to stay in school and not drop out. Key strategies for quality enhancement include the equitable provision of school infrastructure, water and sanitation facilities, teaching and learning materials, qualified teachers, child friendly teaching methods and languages of instruction. Critical to the improvement of quality is the need to sustain and ensure the investment of existing well designed pedagogic and child friendly programmes. The National Accelerated Literacy Programme (NALAP) is one of Ghana's most relevant literacy programmes addressing several challenges at the lower primary level, including the language of instruction and the need for accelerated phonic based literacy approaches. In order to ensure the effectiveness and sustainability of such a programme, a sector-wide programming among DPs and MOE is indispensable. Other interventions to reduce the supply side barriers include the complementary education programmes such as the School for Life and wing school models, which address the specific needs of school dropouts, working children and those living in very remote communities.

Finally, management, governance and financial strategies include the collection of more credible data in relation to tracking the out of school child population and the regular implementation of school mapping, particularly in the most deprived districts across the country. There is also the need for more effective partnerships between state and non-state actors, including the support for the implementation of complementary education. Systematic institutional development and capacity building remains essential, particularly among strategic divisions within the Ghana Education Service (e.g. girls' education, special needs and early childhood) and decentralized level education oversight bodies to ensure barriers for school participation are properly addressed. Strengthened accountability structures at the district and community levels along with civil society agencies will also improve the tracking and monitoring of out-of-school children. Further work is needed to ensure better targeting and more efficient use of resources through the review and revision of the selection criteria for the deprived districts and school feeding programme, and the introduction of an equity-focused budget allocation formula for the capitation grant scheme.

Recommendations

As Ghana transitions to a middle income country, it will be essential for all stakeholders in the education sector to help capacitate the population in addressing the out of school challenge. Policies and strategies for supporting out-of-school children in Ghana, and closing the remaining enrolment gaps, will require hard decisions by Ghana's policy makers, efficient implementation by decentralized level stakeholders, strategic leveraging by development partners, and effective collaboration with civil society organizations, particularly given the current context of financial inequity and inefficiency in Ghana. This report concludes with key recommendations for stakeholders at different levels.

Recommendations for National Policy Makers

Reassess targeting and deprived district criteria - The Ministry of Education has developed a criterion for identifying the "most deprived districts" in the country. The selection of the deprived districts was made almost 10 years ago based on selected educational indicators available from the Education Management Information System and no review of the districts has been done since then. There should be a periodical review of the "deprived district" listing to assess the impacts of targeted programmes on the reduction of disparities among districts. Targeting criteria for establishing the most "deprived districts" will need to include a broader range of variables, not only supply driven but demand side variables, in order to enable more efficient allocation of resources to the neediest areas and populations.

Strengthen collaborative relationships between key ministries and agencies to track out-of-school children- Tracking the dimensions of exclusion will also require new systems of capturing out-of-school children, along with better tracking systems of those who are likely to drop out. These new approaches will require stronger relationships between the Ministry of Education, the Ghana Statistical Service and the Ministry of Health. These relationships should strengthen and ensure that vital data on the profile of out-of-school children is collected and analysed through the census and regular household surveys. This collaboration will help to identify underserved areas and groups more precisely and better expose the characteristics of out-of-school children.

Increase funding to address the gender gap in education. More challenging are the strategies needed by the Ministry of Education to address the negative sociocultural practices, which particularly affect Ghana's northern regions, and ensure that girls in particular are able to access education at the upper primary and junior high school levels. This will require more political will to finance the gender gap in education through larger scale implementation of girls' education strategies within the sector (e.g. take home ration, scholarships, gender training for teachers etc.). The Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs on-going monitoring and technical support to gender responsive budgeting in the education sector will be critical.

Translate the Complementary Basic Education Policy into concrete actions – The Ministry of Education drafted the Complementary Basic Education Policy in 2008 based on positive evaluation results of the flexible school models, which targeted at out-of-school children aged 8-14. However, the policy has not been fully operationalized and the implementation of complementary education programmes remains small scale; almost exclusively limited to the three northern regions. In order to integrate the most marginalized populations, including children living in remote rural areas, school dropouts, and working children into the education system, the expansion of complementary basic education programmes is indispensable. The Ghana Education Service needs to urgently translate the policy into concrete actions in partnership with non-governmental and civil society organizations who are already working in this area.

Implement the Child-Friendly School Standards - There is also a significant need to ensure that the basic standards of Child-Friendly Schools provide the framework for addressing child rights and abuses at the school levels (e.g. verbal, physical and sexual abuse of children across the basic education sector). These standards should become part of the Colleges of Education curricula over the coming years in order to be integrated into pre-service training of teachers.

Recommendations for Regional/District/Community Level Stakeholders

Strengthen school governance and accountability - The decentralization policy of Ghana has not adequately arrived at the devolution stage. Capacity issues have limited policy implementation. School governance has not been as efficient as expected as a result of inadequate capacity. Most of the school management committees (SMCs) and District Education Oversight Committees (DEOCs) are dysfunctional. The Education Sector Performance Reports for the last three years recommend continuous sensitization and training in management skills for DEOC and SMC members. Community governance processes at the grassroots need to be strengthened by consolidating school performance appraisal processes with existing SMCs in order to hold teachers accountable for higher quality service delivery. Monitoring teacher time on task and learning outcomes among the children in order to strengthen accountability systems from the bottom up and the district education office down will need expansion.

Improve district planning measures to address the out-of school challenge - District Assemblies and District Education Offices should strengthen the capacity of planning officers and allocate resources to ensure that the problems of out of school population are thoroughly analyzed and strategies are put in place at their own localities. Some of these strategies should include: school mapping to identify needy areas, infrastructure targeting, the establishment and support for complementary education in collaboration with non-state actors, the equitable deployment of qualified teachers, and the strengthening of SMCs to ensure efficient educational delivery.

Recommendations for Development Partners

Develop a coherent programme framework for out-of-school children based on a sector wide approach - In order to address the out-of-school children problems holistically, well-coordinated development partner (DP) support based on the Government's long-term strategic plan is essential. In the education sector, there is an urgent need for DPs and the Ministry of Education to develop a stronger sector wide approach. The DPs involved in the sector should follow their health counterparts by ensuring that the principles and processes of alignment and harmonization are put in place. Deepening the commitment and engagement in a sector wide approach would require collective and transparent funding frameworks and procedures which enhance and build capacity of the MOE's systems and not stretch their implementation capacity based on DP priorities. The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) programme preparation process currently underway will provide a golden

opportunity to develop a coherent programme and funding framework under which all major DPs will jointly support the government's priority strategies to achieve equitable access to basic education. Facilitate DP leveraging to ensure effectiveness of social protection programming - DPs should also place more emphasis on assisting the Government of Ghana evaluate the effectiveness of the designs of some of Ghana's current social protection strategies which have direct and indirect effects on the schooling of marginalized children. The scaling up of more transformational social protection policies synergized with education targeting efforts could lead to large scale impact for out-of-school children. The school feeding programme for instance, should be restructured after the current evaluation is completed to ensure that 100% of children in deprived schools are targeted, compared to its current 50%. DPs should also provide coherent support to social protection strategies in order to maximize synergies between education specific interventions (e.g. school feeding, free school uniforms, etc.) and more generic social protection programmes (e.g. cash transfer).

Recommendations for Civil Society

Support effective civil society monitoring of the Government resource allocations within the education sector - One of the key recommendations from this analysis is the need for civil society to become more engaged in the monitoring of the Government policies concerning the allocation and implementation of financial resources to the sector. Most of the government's pro-poor policies have helped to increase the enrolment in basic schools over the past years. Yet, there continue to be challenges in relation to the implementation, targeting and financing of key government programmes, which could effectively reduce inequality in educational outcomes, reduce the out-of-school phenomena and address the supply issues across the country (e.g. equitable financial expenditures and teacher deployment). State and non-state partnerships are needed in Ghana to both better monitor and deliver services to the poor and ensure that equitable resourcing is allocated by the state.

Implement nationwide advocacy campaigns by civil society - Until and unless educational deprivation declines for the large majority of children, advocacy on child rights, the practice of negative sociocultural practices and the responsibilities of parents will be necessary among the communities and traditional leadership in Ghana. Civil society organizations are expected to lead advocacy campaigns to raise awareness among parents and communities on the importance of education, particularly concerning right-age school enrolment, girls' education and the completion of basic education. Civil society should also play advocacy roles in instituting legal frameworks and policies to hold teachers and community members accountable for offences committed against children who are denied education (e.g. child labour, early marriage, school based violence and child betrothal practices). Civil society roles are critical in empowering children, youths and parents so that they become able to confidently claim their rights to quality education through existing mechanisms such as SMC, and DEOCs.

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1. Purpose of the Study

Ghana deserves praise for many of its achievements in education. Since 2005, the abolition of school fees and the provision of assistance to schools through the “capitation grant” have had a great impact on boosting school enrolment and narrowing the gender gap between girls and boys in schools. More recently, Ghana has also expanded its formal education system to include early childhood education for children aged 4-5 years. Today, more than 80% of Ghana’s children are enrolled and staying in primary school, a rate far ahead of most other countries in sub-Saharan Africa. As is discussed in Chapter 2 of this study, however, an estimated 850,000 Ghanaian children aged 6-11 years (official primary school age) were not attending primary school in 2008¹. For the age group of 6-14 (official primary and lower secondary school age), the number of out-of-school children (OOSC) increases up to one million. While the gaps have been narrowing, regional, socioeconomic and gender disparities continue to exist. Global evidence and experiences show that the last 10-20% of the population is always hardest to reach. In order to formulate effective and innovative strategies for the most disadvantaged and marginalised groups, it is essential to identify more precisely who and where these out-of-school children are and why they are excluded. In 2010, UNICEF and the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) launched a Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children and Ghana was selected as one of the 25 case study countries. The purpose of this study is to examine the detailed profiles of out-of-school children in Ghana (Chapter 2), to scrutinise major barriers to school participation (Chapter 3), and to analyse existing policies and strategies to tackle key bottlenecks (Chapter 4). The goal is to introduce a more systematic approach to address the problem of out-of-school children and guide concrete education sector reforms towards more equitable coverage of basic education in Ghana.

1.2. Country Context

Ghana has justifiably earned international credit as a model of political stability, good governance and democratic openness. Ghanaians in general enjoy political rights, civil liberties, a free press and access to a justice system. The Ghanaian economy continues to expand by around 6% per year. The re-basing of the GDP to a 2006 base-year increased Ghana’s GDP per capita to over US\$1,000 in 2010, propelling Ghana into the ranks of middle-income countries. Ghana has achieved the MDG 1 target by reducing the proportion of population living below the poverty line from 51.7% in 1991/92 to 28.5% in 2005/06, while the population living in extreme poverty decreased by half, from 36.5% in 1991/92 to about 18% in 2005/06. The start of oil production is projected to generate new budget resources of up to 7% of GDP annually.

Despite the overall reduction in poverty, Ghana has not distributed the benefits of economic growth equitably. While the northern regions contributed around 30% of the country’s poor in 1998, by 2006, over half the poor people in Ghana lived in the north. Poverty is worst in the three northern regions, with the poverty rate reaching 50% in districts of the Upper West Region. In addition, the poverty rate increased in Accra between 1998 and 2006.

According to the provisional results of the 2010 Population and Housing Census, Ghana’s population is estimated at 24.4 million. The average annual population growth rate is about 2.2 percent. The fertility rate was estimated to have dropped from 6.4 in 1998 to 4.0 in 2008, one of the lowest rates in sub-Saharan Africa, although the rate among rural women in Ghana was estimated at 4.9, compared with 3.1 in urban areas. Children under the age of 15 make up 42% of Ghana’s population, and 22% are in the 10-19 age group. Urban population growth and rural-urban migration have led to the emergence of fast-growing and under-serviced slum areas. This urbanization trend is likely to continue, putting further pressure on urban services for children.

Ghana is about to embark on implementation of its third poverty reduction strategy titled the Ghana Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA) covering the period 2010-2013. The GSGDA

¹ According to the UIS March 2012 database the estimated number of out-of-school children in Ghana is approximately 750,000.

encompasses the following seven thematic areas: 1) Ensure and Sustain Macroeconomic Stability; 2) Enhance Competitiveness of Private Sector; 3) Accelerate Agricultural Modernization and Sustainable Natural Resource Management; 4) Oil and Gas Development; 5) Infrastructure, Energy and Human Settlements; 6) Human Development, Productivity and Employment; and 7) Transparent and Accountable Governance.

The Government of Ghana has developed a policy of decentralization to ensure a more equitable distribution of resources and to enhance the delivery of services at local level. The new decentralization policy approved in 2010 established a “fiscal framework” to determine the needs of the District Assemblies. The fiscal decentralisation is expected to provide the country with a critical opportunity to give Districts the power to allocate resources to the neediest sectors, areas and people.

Ghana has made substantial investment in social sectors such as education, health and social protection. According to the UIS data an estimated 24.4% of the total government expenditure is spent on education in 2010. Furthermore, major social protection programs such as a cash transfer program called the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) and the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS) have been self-funded by the government, as opposed to other countries where such programs have been donor-driven. In the 2011 budget, significant efforts were made to protect social programs by diverting 30% of statutory funds to newly-designated “Social Improvement Programmed” such as LEAP, scholarships, and school feeding. However, personnel emoluments continue to constitute the bulk (between 80 and 90%) of the expenditure in education, health and other social sectors, leaving few funds to operate other critical components of these services.

The Government’s planned introduction of Programme-based Budgeting (PBB) is an important step toward being able to allocate resources more equitably and efficiently. With this approach, allocation of funds to departments and ministries is based on an analysis of the extent to which such allocations contribute to the reduction in disparities and the achievement of planned results. Such analysis, and subsequent budget allocations, will assist the Government in monitoring the extent to which the stated intention to prioritize equitable development is being achieved.

1.3. Overview of Education Sector

Ghana’s 1992 Constitution provides for education to be “free, compulsory and available to all”, and the 1996 reform measures known as “FCUBE” (Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education) were meant to advance that goal, increasing, in two phases, mandatory education from 6 to 9 years (through junior high school level) and then in 2002 to 11 years, with the addition of two years of pre-primary schooling. In 2005, school fees were abolished at basic education levels and the provision of capitation grants started to support schools’ operational costs. Furthermore, in the 2007/08 school year the implementation of free, compulsory kindergarten education for children aged 4-5 years started. All of these have had a lasting effect on increasing children’s school participation as is discussed in detail in this report.

With these successes have come new challenges that will need to be addressed as Ghana continues to improve and strengthen its education system. The biggest challenges are improving and sustaining the quality of education and addressing persistent disparities in the provision of and access to basic education. Figure 1.1² below presents an overall picture of the education system capacity and performance at the primary level. It reveals that the education system faces significant bottlenecks particularly in terms of the availability of textbooks and teachers³ and students’ learning outcomes. These quality challenges affect children’s participation and retention in school, which are the main

²This chart is developed using a modified version of the health service coverage assessment tool introduced in Tanahashi (1978). The indicators used for the six “determinants” are: 1) number of core textbooks - % against the national standard of 1:3 (availability of commodities); 2) number of trained teacher - % against the national standard of 1: 35 (availability of human resources); 3) % of communities having primary school within 2km distance (accessibility); 4) primary net enrollment rate - NER (utilization); 5) primary completion rate x NER (continuity); and 6) % of G6 students attaining proficiency in Math x Primary Completion Rate x NER (effective coverage). Data sources are the Education Management Information System (EMIS) 2008/09, the National Education Assessment (NEA) 2009, and the Ghana Living Standard Survey (GLSS) 2006.

³ The chart shows that there exist more teachers than actual needs in Ghana (over 100% on Human Resources) if untrained teachers are also counted.

focus of this report. The interaction between the quality of education and school participation is discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

Figure 1.1. Overview of Education Service Coverage, National, 2008-09

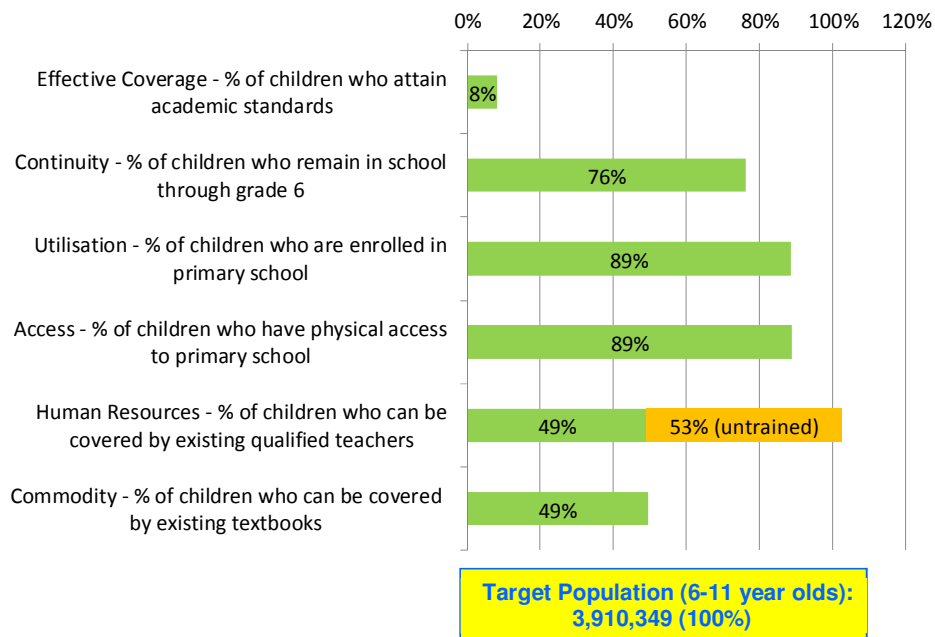
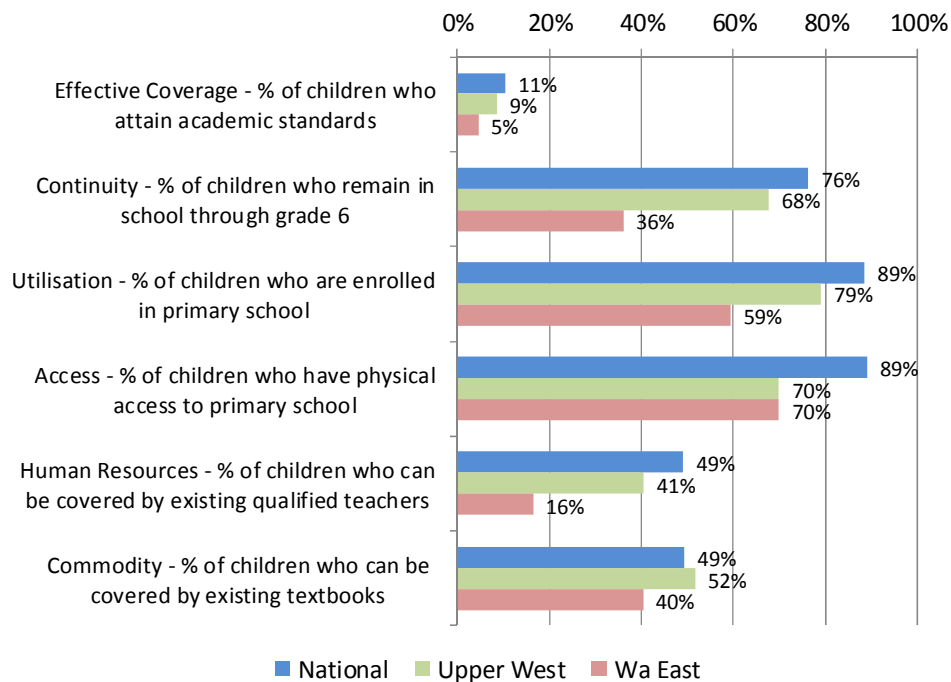


Figure 1.2. Comparison of Service Coverage, National, Upper West Region, and Wa East District, 2008-09



Source: EMIS 2008/09, NEA 2009, and GLSS 2006

National-level aggregate data often mask stark disparities that exist among regions and socioeconomic groups. Figure 1.2 shows a comparison of the system capacity among the national total, Upper West Region, and Wa East District in Upper West Region. It confirms that some regions and districts are greatly disadvantaged and lagging behind in terms of both access to and quality of education. Chapter 2 of this report thoroughly looks into these disparity issues.

In order to address these persistent challenges the Ministry of Education of the Government of Ghana developed the new Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2010-2020 that underlines, among other things, the following policy objectives: 1) to eliminate gender and other disparities that arise from exclusion and poverty; 2) to improve the quality of learning and teaching; and 3) to strengthen monitoring and accountability in the education sector. The ESP includes provisions for making schools more inclusive, for improving the learning environment and level of pedagogy in the classroom, for making schools healthier, safer and more protective for children, for enhancing gender equality and for engaging communities more in the education of their children. This holistic intervention is seen as the most effective way of making schools more “child-friendly.” The Ghana Education Service drafted the National Child-friendly School Standards to translate this plan into concrete actions. Development partners have provided harmonised support to these government strategies to improve access, efficiency and quality of basic education through a sector-wide approach. The Government’s key policies and strategies are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

1.4. Introduction of 5 Dimensions of Exclusion

The analysis of this study is based on the Five Dimensions of Exclusion model introduced in the Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF) of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). The model presents five target groups of children for the data and policy analysis that span three levels of education: pre-primary, primary and lower secondary; and two different population groups: children who are out of school, and those who are in school but at risk of dropping out. The definition of each of the five dimensions is presented in the box below⁴.

The Five Dimensions of Exclusion

Dimension 1: Children of pre-primary school age (5 years) who are not in pre-primary or primary school (1DE)

Dimension 2: Children of primary school age (6-11 years) who are not in primary or secondary school (2DE)

Dimension 3: Children of lower secondary school age (12-14 years) who are not in primary or secondary school (3DE)

Dimension 4: Children who are in primary school but at risk of dropping out (4DE)

Dimension 5: Children who are in lower secondary school but at risk of dropping out (5DE)

Children of primary or lower secondary school age are considered as being “in school” if they participate in primary or lower secondary school. However, children of primary school age or older who are in pre-primary education are considered out of school according to the CMF standard definition. This study looks at the school attendance status of primary school age children by both including and excluding pre-primary education (see Chapter 2).

4DE and 5DE concern children who are at risk of dropping out. They are grouped by the level of education they attend, regardless of their age: i.e., primary (4DE) or lower secondary (5DE). There are many potential indicators for being at risk. This study looks into the following factors and indicators to understand the profiles of children who have already dropped out or are considered to have greater chances of dropping out: lack of school readiness; late entry; grade for age; grade repetition; and school dropout.

⁴Although in Ghana kindergarten education is free and compulsory for children aged 4-5 years, this study focuses on 5 year-olds only following the standard approach proposed in the CMF.

1.5. Methodology

This study is composed of the following three main components:

- 1) **Profiles** of excluded children capturing the complexity of the problem of OOSC in terms of magnitude, inequalities and multiple disparities around the Five Dimensions of Exclusion (Chapter 2).
- 2) **Barriers and bottlenecks** to clarify the dynamic and causal processes related to the Five Dimensions of Exclusion (Chapter 3).
- 3) **Policies and strategies** to address the barriers and bottlenecks related to the Five Dimensions of Exclusion within education and beyond (Chapter 4).

The examination of the profiles of out-of-school children is mainly done through quantitative analyses of statistical data. Concrete statistical analyses used include: descriptive summaries of school attendance status based on the 5 Dimensions of Exclusion; disparity analyses by regions, sex, and other socioeconomic groupings; and multivariate analyses that examine relationship between school attendance and various child and household background variables. The main data source used in Chapter 2 is the Ghana Demographic and Health Surveys (GDHS) of 2003 and 2008, augmented with additional information from Education Management Information System (EMIS) of the Ministry of Education and the Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) by UNICEF (2006).

The analyses of barriers and bottlenecks (Chapter 3) and policies and strategies (Chapter 4) largely rely on qualitative research methods which entail comprehensive and systematic review of existing literature and evidence in Ghana and elsewhere. Chapter 3 gathers evidence on major barriers and factors that prevent children from participating in school from economic, sociocultural, educational (supply-side), political and financial perspectives. Based on this analysis Chapter 4 reviews existing policies and strategies to tackle major barriers and bottlenecks related to out-of-school children. Concrete recommendations are drawn from all three sets of analyses to inform the Government's reforms and policies aimed at the realization of universal basic education in Ghana.

Chapter 2: Profiles of Excluded Children

2.1. Overview and Analysis of Data Sources

2.1.1. Data Sources

The data for this chapter come mainly from the Ghana Demographic and Health Surveys (GDHS) of 2003- 2008, augmented with additional information by EMIS of the Ministry of Education and the MICS of 2006 by UNICEF (see Appendix). The GDHS are discussed in more detail elsewhere (Ghana Statistical Service and ORC Macro, 2003 and 2008). The samples are designed to be nationally representative, as well as representative by place of residence (urban and rural) and across sampling regions (10 in all). This is very useful for the present study since one of our tasks is to provide descriptive summaries of schooling outcomes on a region-by-region basis.

The samples are made up of 6,500 and 12,000 households for 2003 and 2008, respectively. Both surveys are based on 400 sampling clusters by year. Clusters were created from villages or neighborhoods. Sampling weights are used to correct for non-proportional sampling strategies and non-response. These weights are discussed in more detail in the GDHS technical documents (Ghana Statistical Service and ORC Macro, 2003 and 2008).

There are two complications with the GDHS data for analysis of education outcomes. First, the field work was conducted in slightly different periods in 2003 and 2008, which potentially complicates the comparisons between these years. This issue is addressed in a separate document (see UNICEF, 2010, Appendix), although based on this more detailed analysis it does not appear that the differences in data collection periods are affecting the results.

Second, the two survey years (2003 and 2008) treat preschool attendance very differently. In 2003, there are no children in Ghana that are reported to be attending preschool. This is not correct (see EMIS data), and reflects the fact that school attendance in 2003 is coded as 'Yes' only for the levels of primary and beyond. However, in 2008 there is a category that appears to identify children who are in preschool. The focus in this report is on 2008, so this issue of comparability with 2003 is not serious. Nevertheless, it is a small problem that affects several components of the analysis.

There are also two notable data exclusions in the GDHS. First, there is no question in the GDHS (in either year) that asks at what age the child initially enrolled in school. Repetition rates are generally low in Ghana according to the GDHS data⁵, so it is possible to construct this variable based on the child's age and the number of years they completed. However, as is discussed below, this does create some uncertainty in the measurement of this important variable.

Also, there is no information on individual child disabilities or child labor activities. The GDHS emphasis on mothers, and young children under five, means that we do not know about health problems for school aged-children. As the review by Akyeampong, et al. (2007) demonstrates, these kinds of child-specific characteristics can have a substantial impact on participation in school. In this study, the 2006 MICS data are used to analyze child labor issues in relation to school attendance.

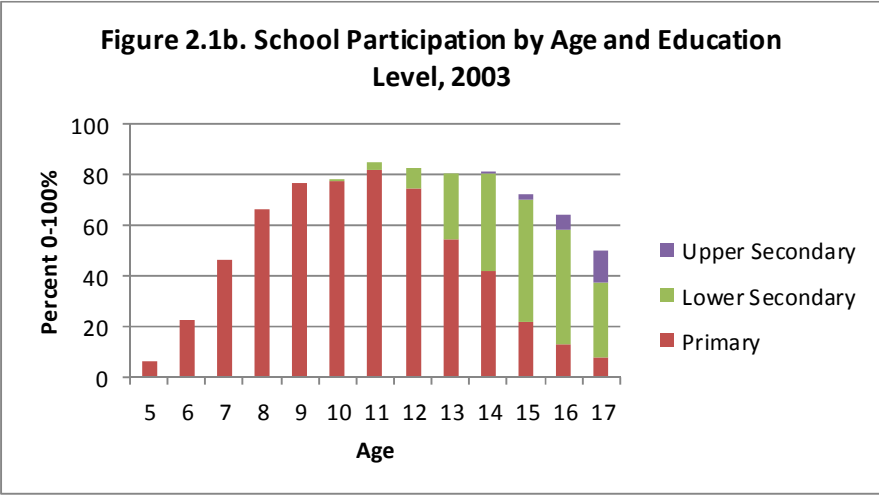
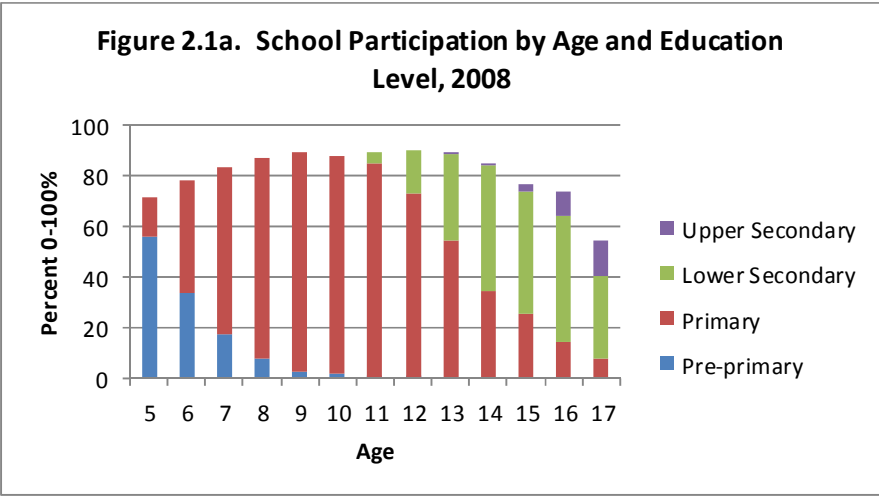
2.1.2. Overview of Attendance

In the following sections, school attendance—and non-attendance—are detailed using the five dimensions that were introduced in the CMF of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). This section provides a basic overall take on school attendance in Ghana, with some comparisons by data source and year (2003 and 2008).

Figures 2.1a and 2.1b provide a breakdown of school participation by age and education level across 2003 and 2008; the full data counterparts to these figures are provided in Tables A1.1a and A1.1b in Appendix. As noted above, these comparisons suffer from a lack of information on preschool (or pre-

⁵ The UIS database reports high repetition rates particularly among 1st graders (9% in 2003 and 8% in 2008). Detailed investigation is required on the cause of such data variability among data sources.

primary) schooling in the 2003 survey. Based on EMIS figures there has been substantial growth in kindergarten attendance for 4-5 year olds during this period (see EMIS reports, various years). Nevertheless, Figure 2.1b is misleading since it shows very little school participation for the youngest children.



Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008

Four results stand out in Figures 2.1a and 2.1b. The first is the most problematic to interpret because of the lack of information from 2003 on pre-primary. This is the relatively equal rates of school participation across all ages in 2008, compared with the sharply upward sloping trend in 2003. When accounting for pre-primary enrolment in 2008, the difference between the lowest and highest enrolment averages (5 year olds versus 12 year olds) is less than 20%. The data are incomplete in 2003, but it seems likely that even with pre-primary data Figure 2.1b would not be as flat across age groups.

The second main finding in the two figures relates to primary school participation among the youngest children. As documented in detail in UNICEF (2010), between 2003 and 2008 Ghana experienced a significant improvement in primary school participation among the youngest cohorts. The result is that the overall primary profile looks better in 2008, as evidenced by the relatively similar primary participation rates between the ages of 7 and 12.

However, the improvements in primary participation have not been equally matched in the higher education levels. There is still a positive trend in participation, but the improvements during 2003-2008 were heavily concentrated among young people (see UNICEF, 2010). This means that the

future participation rates in post-primary education should improve compared with 2008, but this will have to be tested in the next round of data collection.

Finally, the last result that stands out in Figures 2.1a and 2.1b is that including out-of-school children remains a significant challenge in Ghana. In 2003, only a couple of age groups experienced participation rates at (or above) 80%. By 2008, this had improved significantly. But, there are still a substantial number of children who are outside of the system; the different dimensions of this problem are returned to in more detail below (also see UNICEF, 2010). Understanding who these children are is critical to devising policies to help guarantee universal participation for young people in Ghana. The recent improvements between 2003 and 2008 certainly bode well for the future. Nevertheless, this remaining group of out-of-school children is likely to include some of the poorest families and most isolated regions in the country.

2.1.3. Enrolment Rate Comparisons: GDHS and EMIS

Table 2.1 presents a summary of gross and net attendance/enrolment ratios for preschool (“kindergarten”), primary and junior secondary levels by GDHS sample and EMIS school population data sources. The GDHS asks families about their children’s attendance during the current school year, while EMIS data sources generated by the Ministry of Education are based on initial enrolment at the beginning of the school year. These two sources of information are not inconsistent, but it is important to note that they are not necessarily measuring the same thing. These comparisons are also complicated somewhat by the use of sampling weights in the GDHS data.

Gross enrolment/attendance rates are defined as the number of children—regardless of age—who are enrolled (or attending) in a given level divided by the number of children in the population who are the official age for that level of schooling (i.e. 6-11 for primary school). Net enrolment/attendance rates use the same denominator but count only official age enrolled or attending students.

Table 2.1 begins with preschool participation, which is only available in the 2008 GDHS. According to EMIS in 2003-04 the gross enrolment ratio (GER) in this level for 4-5 year olds (corresponding to “kindergarten”) was 50.6%. For 2008, the preschool enrolment rates (according to EMIS) are higher than the attendance rates reported in GDHS: GER in EMIS is 92.9%, while the Gross Attendance Ratio (GAR) in GDHS is 69.0%, with a Net Attendance Ratio (NAR) of 42.2%. These differences may be related to qualitative differences in definition of preschool (e.g., crèche, nursery school and kindergarten), although there are other possibilities (returned to below). Nevertheless, the results in Table 2.1 do suggest substantial increases in preschool participation between 2003-04 and 2008-09, which does correspond with an expansion of this program and its inclusion as part of compulsory basic education attendance.

Table 2.1. Enrolment/Attendance Rate Comparisons, GDHS and EMIS

	PRE-PRIMARY (4-5 YEAR OLDS):		PRIMARY (6-11 YEAR OLDS):		JUNIOR SECONDARY (12-14 YEAR OLDS):	
	GDHS	EMIS	GDHS	EMIS	GDHS	EMIS
2003-04 School Year						
Gross Enrolment/ Attendance	----	50.6	96.5	78.4	77.7	65.6
Net Enrolment/ Attendance	----	34.4	60.5	55.6	24.1	29.5
2008-09 School Year						
Gross Enrolment/ Attendance	69.0	92.9	110.9	94.9	102.3	80.6
Net Enrolment/ Attendance	42.2	63.6	73.8	88.5	33.0	47.8

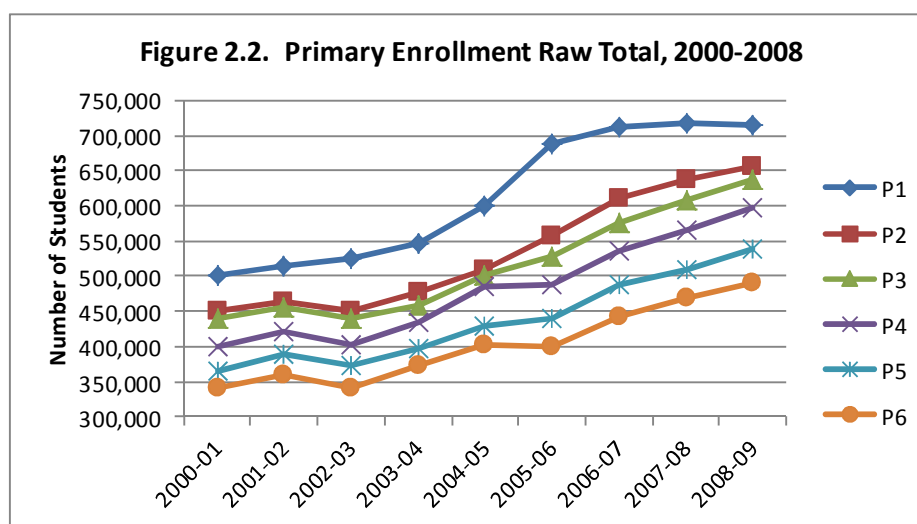
Source: GDHS 2003, 2008; EMIS 2003-2004 and 2008-2009 Report on Basic Statistics, Volume 1.

For the primary level, the differences between GDHS and EMIS numbers—while still significant—are not quite as dramatic⁶. EMIS data tend to show lower (relative to GDHS data) gross enrolment ratios, while for 2008-09, the EMIS figure for net enrolment is considerably higher than the GDHS estimate for net attendance. Though it depends on the definition and characteristics of data collected, in general, household survey data sources are considered to be more accurate, even with the limitation that they are based on a sample rather than the population. Nevertheless, by analyzing trends according to both data sources it is possible to get some useful insight into sector performance.

Focusing on the GDHS numbers, the primary attendance rates have gone up significantly between 2003 and 2008. The high GERs (in both years) are a function of overage children being in primary grades, which in Ghana is largely a product of late entry rather than repetition⁷. For net attendance, which is the best measure of overall system efficiency, the gain of nearly 15 percentage points in primary school in a five year period is impressive (60.5 to 73.8%). Furthermore, the rate of improvement among the youngest children has been even more rapid; for 6-8 year olds the NAR has gone from 44.4 to 63.9% during this period (not presented). This in turn bodes well for the future since more children are entering school at the appropriate age.

For junior secondary the same patterns are apparent. The EMIS data appear to have higher GER but lower NER compared with the attendance rates measured by GDHS. There is also some notable improvement in the GER and GAR between 2003 and 2008. Although, based on GDHS there is less improvement for the NAR. The bump up in the GAR is due to large numbers of overage children entering the system, while the fairly modest increase in the NAR (in GDHS) reflects the fact that the recent changes in the system (mainly the abolition of fees) have not been in place long enough to dramatically affect the intake into this level. That should change in the future as a result of the improvements that are taking place for the youngest Ghanaian children.

Figure 2.2 summarizes the raw total of primary students in the EMIS data files based on initial enrolment summaries provided by schools. Several results stand out. First, the biggest jump in the graph is for Primary 1 (P1) enrolment in 2005-06, which corresponds to the expansion of the capitation grants program and the abolition of school fees nationwide. This is consistent with families responding to the new policy primarily by enrolling their youngest children in school.



Source: EMIS Data Summaries, various years

⁶ The GDHS and EMIS data are also different from UIS database. While in general the UIS data are closer to the EMIS data, for some indicators they are more consistent with the GDHS data (e.g., pre-primary GER). Further investigation is required on the causes of these variabilities among data sources.

⁷ The proportion of over-aged at primary entrance can be estimated by the difference between gross intake ratio (GIR) and net intake ratio (NIR) to primary school, which is very high in Ghana. According to the 2008-09 EMIS, the primary GIR is 103% and NIR is 72%.

However, enrolment growth is not specific to the capitation grant period. In fact, for all of the grades there is a clear growth trend during the entire 2002-2008 period. This trend is not perfectly linear, as evidenced by the slight interruption in 2005-06 in grades four, five and six. But the overall trend from the 2002 low point is unmistakably positive.

Finally, for Primary 1, the enrolment growth is slowing down, and may have reached an inflection point in 2008-09 where total enrolment actually began to decline. This is a potentially important finding; although this really has to be considered over a longer period and weighed together with changes in the overall population. The slowing of growth in Primary 1 could reflect the challenges of reaching the remaining sector of the Ghanaian population that are still outside of the system.

2.2. Dimension 1: Profiles of Pre-primary Age (5 years) Children Out of School

This section begins the work of summarizing participation along the five dimensions defined by the UNICEF/UIS CMF (see section 2.1). Table 2.2 begins with five year olds (see Appendix Table A1.1c for a slightly different version of this table with overall averages). Once again the limitations in the 2003 GDHS for pre-primary attendance make it impossible to consider trends; as a result Table 2.2 only includes 2008 data.

Table 2.2: Percentage of children of pre-primary age (age 5) in pre-primary or primary education, by sex and other characteristics, 2008

	Not attending school		Attending pre-primary school		Attending primary school		Attending either pre-primary or primary	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Residence								
Urban	17.3	18.9	67.2	68.6	15.5	12.8	82.7	81.4
Rural	32.8	35.9	48.7	49.2	18.6	15	67.3	64.2
Wealth index quintiles								
Poorest	55	51	26.2	32.4	18.9	16.6	45.1	49
Second	30.6	31.1	55.7	54.8	13.7	14.1	69.4	68.9
Middle	15.1	28.3	67.8	63.6	17.1	8.1	84.9	71.7
Fourth	16.3	15.5	69.4	66.3	14.4	18.2	83.8	84.5
Richest	4.9	7.4	70.1	76.5	25	16	95.1	92.5
Region								
Western	29.8	43.2	53.3	44.1	16.9	12.7	70.2	56.8
Central	29.1	34.8	50.1	56.2	20.8	9	70.9	65.2
Greater Accra	12.7	20.2	72.5	71.1	14.8	8.8	87.3	79.9
Volta	28.6	40.8	47.9	47.8	23.6	11.4	71.5	59.2
Eastern	12.2	20.8	70.9	69.7	17	9.5	87.9	79.2
Ashanti	11.2	8.5	72.8	72	16	19.5	88.8	91.5
Brong Ahafo	33.7	27.4	53.8	71.1	12.4	1.5	66.2	72.6
Northern	57	49.8	26.5	26.2	16.5	24	43	50.2
Upper West	23.8	37.8	53.3	37.3	22.9	25	76.2	62.3
Upper East	42	48	40.3	36.7	17.8	15.3	58.1	52
Total	26.5	30.1	56.1	55.7	17.3	14.2	73.4	69.9

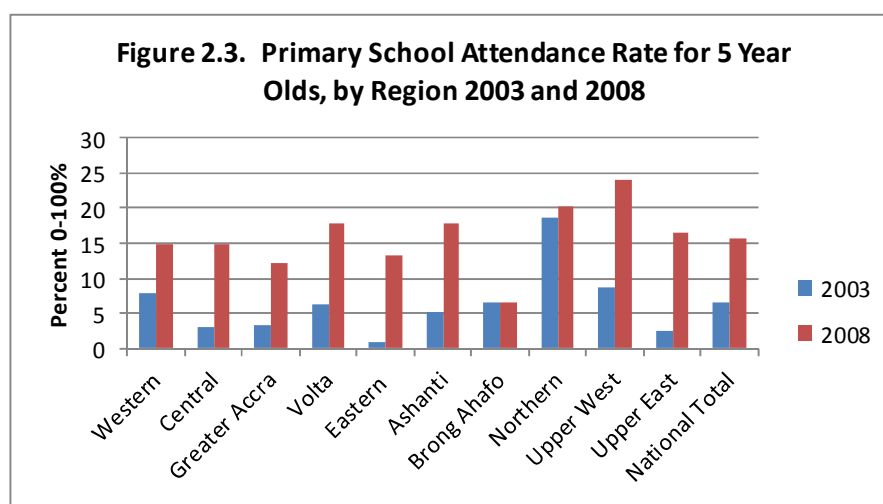
Source: GHDS, 2008

The results in Table 2.2 provide a detailed overview (in 2008) of participation among five year olds. A significant number (about 28%) are outside of the education system (first two columns). The majority—corresponding to roughly 56%—report attending pre-primary (or kindergarten). A relatively small percentage (about 15%) is in primary school. This last category for primary enrolment should probably be treated with some care since it is possible that there are coding errors in the data collection. If these coding errors are incorrectly marking the first year of the primary level instead of the first year of the *pre*-primary level then the last columns measuring the overall total attendance

rates for five year olds (about 70%) are unaffected. It is also possible that these five year olds are early entrants into primary.

Turning to the comparisons, the results are generally consistent with expected inequalities in Ghana. There is a sizable (and statistically significant) gap in participation rates between urban and rural families; the difference in the total enrolment rate (pre-primary and primary) is about 15 percentage points. Not surprisingly, the wealthiest quintile has total attendance rates that are roughly twice those for the poorest quintile (roughly 93 versus 47%).

The data in Table 2.2 are complemented by Figure 2.3, which summarizes primary school attendance among five year olds in 2003 and 2008 by region. The results in Figure 2.3 show considerable growth in primary enrolment for five year olds in 2008 compared with 2003. If these data are accurate then they certainly suggest that more families are sending children to primary school earlier. Whether or not this is due to a lack of preschool facilities, or an interest in getting a head start on their educational careers, is not known from the data.



Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008

Table 2.2 and Figure 2.3 also show considerable regional variation (also see UNICEF, 2010). Interestingly, the regions with the highest rates of preschool enrolment for five year olds (Greater Accra, Eastern and Ashanti) have some of the lowest rates of primary school enrolment within this same cohort. This again suggests that parents may be enrolling five year olds in schools as a substitute for pre-primary schooling that is unavailable. Primary school enrolment for five year olds is most prevalent in poor regions like Northern and Upper West.

Figure A1.1 in Appendix shows the regional variation in total enrolment rates (primary and pre-primary) for five year olds in 2003 and 2008. However, given the data limitations in 2003 this comparison is problematic, so the results are not detailed here.

2.3. Dimensions 2 and 3: Profiles of Primary-age and Junior Secondary-age Children Out of School

This section continues with the summary of participation/non-participation for primary- and junior secondary-age children. Some important trends have already been established in previous sections. Most importantly, more and more young people in Ghana are participating in school. This is (apparently) true at the pre-primary level, and certainly is the case in primary school. These improvements have been concentrated, however, in the youngest groups of children, and as a result the rate of improvement in recent years in post-primary is not as impressive. Finally, despite these improvements, there is still a sizeable group of out-of-school children in these age ranges. This section focuses on this group in some more detail.

Tables 2.3a and 2.3b provide a quick review of the NAR in 2008 and 2003. The results are presented by level of education and gender. For children of primary school age (6-11), the NAR increased from 60.6 to 73.8%. The corresponding change for children of lower secondary age (12-14) is from 23.7 to 32.2%. For children of primary school age, the Gender Parity Index (GPI) has improved marginally between 2003 and 2008, although in both years the NARs are very similar by gender. For children of lower secondary age, however, boys have been catching up to girls in terms of the NAR.

Table 2.3a: Net attendance rate (NAR), by sex and level of education, with GPI, 2008

	Net attendance rate (NAR)			Gender Parity Index
	Male	Female	Total	
Level of education				
Primary	73.4	74.1	73.8	1.01
Junior Secondary	31.6	32.8	33.0	1.04
Total	59.9	60.3	60.1	1.01

Table 2.3b: Net attendance rate (NAR), by sex and level of education, with GPI, 2003

	Net attendance rate (NAR)			Gender Parity Index
	Male	Female	Total	
Level of education				
Primary	61.0	59.8	60.6	0.98
Junior Secondary	21.9	25.7	23.7	1.17
Total	47.8	48.2	48.0	1.01

Source: GDHS, 2008, 2003

Tables A1.2 through A1.4 in Appendix provide some additional summaries of participation rates in Ghana based on an adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR) method. The results are not detailed here because the differences are marginal compared with the traditional calculation method (the ANAR counts enrolment in *higher* levels together with the correct level for the age groups).

Table 2.4 continues with the actual numbers of out-of-school children. These calculations are based on the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) methodology (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). They show that about 1 million primary school aged children were not in school in 2008. When accounting for pre-primary enrolment ("Primary school age adjusted") the figure is lowered by about one half. Each of the absolute number totals for primary schooling serves a purpose. The non-adjusted measure is accurate in that it highlights the work that remains in getting all children of primary school age *enrolled in primary school*. However, the reduction that results from accounting for pre-primary enrolment is substantial, and reinforces the positive changes that are taking place in participation among young children in Ghana.

Only about 12% of lower secondary school age children are not in school in 2008. This figure should *not* be confused with the net attendance rate at lower secondary level (see Figure 2.1a and Table 2.3a above). Of these children who are in school roughly 65% are attending primary school, which is a reminder of the issue of overage enrolment and inefficiencies in the system.

Table 2.5 continues with the profiling of out-of-school children by past and expected school exposure using the UIS's typology calculation spreadsheet integrated with DHS data sources. For each of the dimensions (primary and lower secondary) the out-of-school children are divided into three categories: dropped out of school; expected to enter (primary or junior secondary school) in the future; and expected never to enter primary or junior secondary school. Details of the calculation strategy are available from UIS (UNICEF and UIS, 2011). There is some amount of estimation in Table 2.5, but overall the data provide a useful summary of non-participation.

Table 2.4: Percent and Number of children out of school, by age group and sex, 2008

	Out-of-School children		
	Male	Female	Total
Dimension 2			
Primary school age	444,057 (25.1%)	408,257 (23.9%)	852,314 (24.5%)
Primary school age adjusted*	247,544 (14.0%)	229,469 (13.4%)	477,013 (13.7%)
Dimension 3			
Lower secondary school age	94,792 (11.7%)	104,845 (12.8%)	199,650 (12.3%)
Total	538,849 (20.9%)	513,102 (20.3%)	1,051,951 (20.6%)

Source: GDHS, 2008

Table 2.5. Percentage of out-of-school children by school exposure, by age group and sex, 2003 and 2008

	Dimension 2 (Primary age)			Dimension 3 (Junior secondary age)		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
School exposure 2008						
Dropped out	12.1	12.0	12.0	54.5	53.7	54.1
Expected to enter in future	79.0	70.5	75.6	7.3	3.3	5.3
Expected never to enter	9.0	17.5	12.3	38.1	43.0	40.6
School exposure 2003						
Dropped out	2.9	2.2	2.7	28.9	23.2	27.8
Expected to enter in future	63.1	63.4	63.4	5.6	9.7	7.4
Expected never to enter	34.0	34.3	34.1	65.5	67.1	65.8

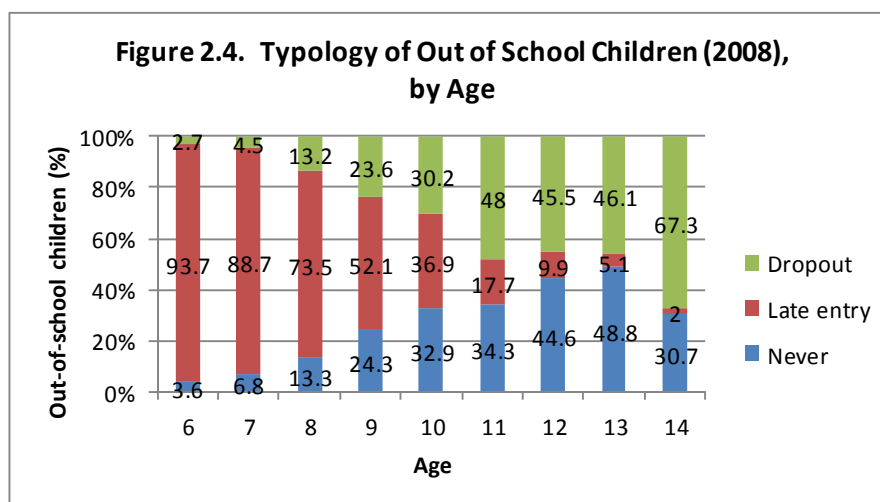
Source: GDHS, 2003; UIS typology calculation spreadsheet, 2008

Several results stand out in Table 2.5. First, the percentage of school aged children in both dimensions that are not expected to ever enter primary school has declined considerably between 2003 and 2008. In 2003, about one third of primary aged children who were not in school were expected to never enter; by 2008 this has declined to 12.3%. It is important to remember that these percentages mask one important difference between 2003 and 2008: significantly fewer children are out-of-school in 2008. So not only are the percentages more favourable in 2008 in terms of entering school, but the overall numbers of out-of-school children are lower as well.

One caveat to this discussion concerns dropout. With the increase in participation, which is another way of saying the increase in initial enrolment in primary school, the dropout rate has increased in Ghana. This is returned to below (also see UNICEF, 2010). This is evidenced in Table 2.5 by the substantially larger dropout rate among Dimension 2 and 3 children. In other words, with more initial participation there are more at-risk children in the system, many of whom will eventually drop out. This is one tradeoff with expanding participation.

Finally, the numbers in Table 2.5 suggest relative gender parity in terms of the distribution of different categories of out-of-school children. More females are enrolled in primary school, and they are less likely to drop out once enrolled. But for those who are still outside of the system the chances of ever entering are lower than those of boys. The same is true, to a lesser degree, among children aged 12-14 (3DE).

Figure 2.4 provides some more detail on the categories of out-of-school children for Dimensions 2 and 3 in 2008. The 2003 summary is included in the Appendix (Figure A1.2). The trends in Figure 2.4 are consistent with those in Table 2.5. Older out-of-school children are most likely to have entered the system and then dropped out. The younger ones are very likely to enter. The most problematic group includes older children who are never likely to enter. The challenge moving forward is to continue out-of-school children to reduce the numbers of these children while also improving the schooling experiences of those that do enter the system.



Source: GDHS, 2008

Table 2.6 introduces the Adjusted Net Attendance Rate (ANAR). This calculation varies slightly from the traditional NAR, and allows for children who have advanced to higher levels of education (relative to their age). In countries like Ghana, the ANAR is likely to vary little compared with the NAR because there are relatively few children who are underage in lower secondary schooling. The Total primary enrolment rate of 74.8% in Table 2.6 is only one percentage point higher than the NAR in 2008 (Table 2.3a).

Table 2.6 includes some useful comparisons, and also provides raw numbers of student totals that provide a sense of the size of the system. The first trend that is noticeable is that the ANAR steadily rises by age, from 45.8% for six year olds to 89.1% for 11 year olds. In terms of gender equity, the enrolment rates are virtually identical across this age range. Female rates are marginally higher among the youngest children, although older boys do catch up at ages 10-11.

The real gaps are by residence and socioeconomic status. Urban children on average are about 11 percentage points more likely to be enrolled in primary school than their rural counterparts. The gap is actually slightly larger among boys, which is a somewhat surprising result (although again the gender differences are not very large). For wealth quintiles, the gaps are larger. The poorest children have only a 60% probability of being enrolled in primary school, versus nearly 90% for the wealthiest.

Table A1.4 in the Appendix provides the summary of primary ANAR for 2003. As expected, the comparison between 2003 and 2008 shows considerable improvement during this five year period. But, this improvement has been concentrated among certain kinds of children. The first group includes the youngest Ghanaians. For example, the ANAR for six year olds in 2003 was 22.4%, but by 2008 this has more than doubled to 45.8%. This means that Ghanaian families are enrolling their children in primary school at an earlier age.

There is also a large difference among the poorest families in Ghana. In 2003, the primary ANAR for the poorest wealth quintile was 43.2%. By 2008, this has climbed to 60%. This is another big change that bodes well for the future. However, it is important to note that among older children the improvement between 2003 and 2008 has been marginal. Furthermore, even among the wealthiest 20% of families in Ghana, about 12% of children are not enrolled in primary school. This result highlights the remaining challenges in insuring learning opportunities for all children.

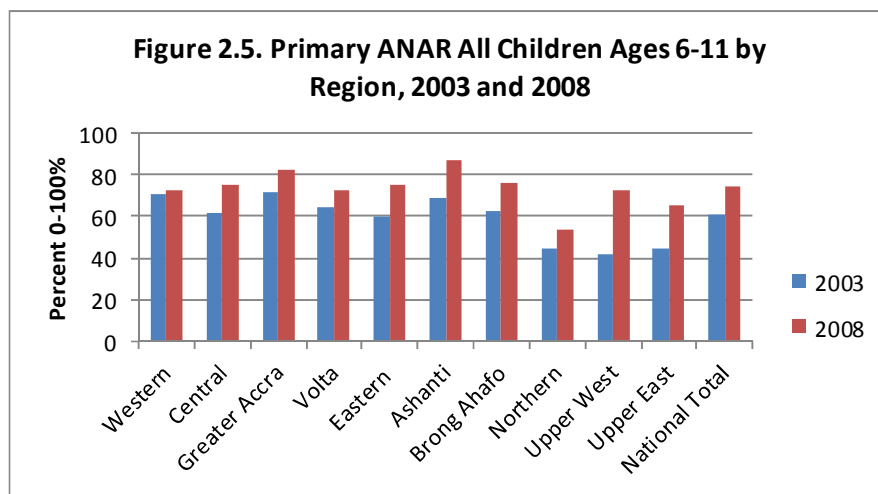
Table 2.6: Adjusted primary school net attendance rate (ANAR), by age, sex and other characteristics, 2008

	Male		Female		Total	
	Adjusted Net attendance rate	Number of children	Adjusted Net attendance rate	Number of children	Adjusted Net attendance rate	Number of children
Age						
6	44.6	139,196	47.1	137,496	45.8	276,692
7	66.4	203,867	66.8	191,148	66.6	395,015
8	78.6	221,553	81.8	246,607	80.3	468,160
9	86.3	251,986	86.7	244,788	86.5	496,774
10	87.1	253,848	86.2	236,685	86.6	490,532
11	89.4	256,118	88.8	241,408	89.1	497,526
Residence						
Urban	81.7	563,806	81.4	533,244	81.6	1,097,050
Rural	69.6	777,089	71.4	727,955	70.5	1,505,044
Wealth Index Quintiles:						
Poorest	59.2	253,929	60.8	230,012	60.0	483,941
Richest	88.5	235,292	87.4	246,358	87.9	481,650
Region						
Western	72.4	132,779	72.7	144,190	72.6	276,969
Central	75.0	152,158	76.6	155,348	75.8	307,526
Greater Accra	84.4	186,176	81.1	177,392	82.8	363,568
Volta	69.0	120,842	76.3	134,285	72.6	255,127
Eastern	75.8	148,263	75.8	161,529	75.8	309,792
Ashanti	87.5	288,747	86.5	303,633	87.0	592,380
Brong Ahafo	74.9	147,534	78.5	142,426	76.6	289,960
Northern	56.6	149,133	50.6	111,957	53.9	261,090
Upper West	68.6	96,383	76.6	93,893	72.3	190,276
Upper East	62.8	37,073	68.1	39,157	65.4	76,230
Total	74.2	1,326,567	75.4	1,298,131	74.8	2,624,698

Source: GDHS, 2008; UIS typology calculation spreadsheet based on GDHS, 2008 and UNPD Population Database, 2008

Notes: Number of children totals vary somewhat across categories (age groups, residence, etc.) due to rounding and a lack of specific population data by Region.

Figure 2.5 continues the comparisons between 2003 and 2008 by region. The overall trend is similar to the discussion above. On average all of the regions have improved. But there is somewhat a concentration of improvement in the poorest regions, especially Upper West and Upper East. Interestingly, Ashanti experienced significant improvement during this period as well, and has overtaken Greater Accra and the Western regions in terms of primary ANAR. Figures A1.3a and A1.3b in Appendix include the regional comparisons for boys and girls separately. The gender-specific results are, overall, very similar to those in Figure 2.5.



Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008

Table 2.7 continues with the ANAR for lower secondary school. In terms of the comparison with the standard NAR, gender parity and enrolment trends by age the results for lower secondary are similar to those for primary. The gaps by residence and wealth quintiles are substantially larger, however, which demonstrates the amount of work remaining to get the most disadvantaged children into post-primary schooling.

Table A1.5 in Appendix presents the ANAR for lower secondary in 2003. There has been clear improvement during this five year period, as overall attendance increased from 23.9 to 32.7%. But it is important to restate that the trend of improvement in Ghana in recent years has favoured the youngest children. The changes in lower secondary, while notable, are not as pronounced as those occurring at the primary level. However, it does seem reasonable to expect a "lagged effect" in lower secondary as the improvements in primary participation generate more primary graduates and more demand for post-primary education in coming years.

Table 2.7. Adjusted lower secondary school net attendance rate (ANAR), by age, sex and other characteristics, 2008

	Male		Female		Total	
	Adjusted Net attendance rate	Number of children	Adjusted Net attendance rate	Number of children	Adjusted Net attendance rate	Number of children
Age						
12	15.6	43,082	16.7	45,808	16.1	88,890
13	32.3	87,469	34.7	94,081	33.5	181,550
14	50.9	132,422	49.8	135,823	50.4	268,245
Residence						
Urban	45.8	147,986	45.2	171,616	45.5	319,602
Rural	22.9	110,868	23.1	101,392	23.0	212,260
Wealth Index Quintiles:						
Poorest	16.4	30,714	10.4	15,029	13.8	45,743
Richest	61.9	90,290	56.3	93,601	58.9	183,891
Region						
Western	41.8	35,502	37.2	29,672	39.6	65,174
Central	28.4	23,195	27.6	25,416	28.0	48,611
Greater Accra	47.5	44,176	47.3	52,387	47.4	96,563

Volta	23.7	16,961	27.8	17,459	25.8	34,420
Eastern	26.9	23,351	33.0	227,477	29.8	250,829
Ashanti	45.1	65,691	44.9	64,556	45.0	130,248
Brong Ahafo	27.7	23,639	25.6	20,089	26.7	43,729
Northern	18.8	16,227	18.9	14,397	18.9	30,625
Upper West	15.1	8,135	21.2	8,289	18.0	16,424
Upper East	17.6	4,604	16.1	3,297	16.9	7,902
Total	32.0	262,973	33.3	275,712	32.7	538,685

Source: GDHS, 2008; UIS typology calculation spreadsheet based on GDHS, 2008 and UNPD Population Database, 2008
Notes: Number of children totals vary somewhat across categories (age groups, residence, etc.) due to rounding and a lack of specific population data by Region.

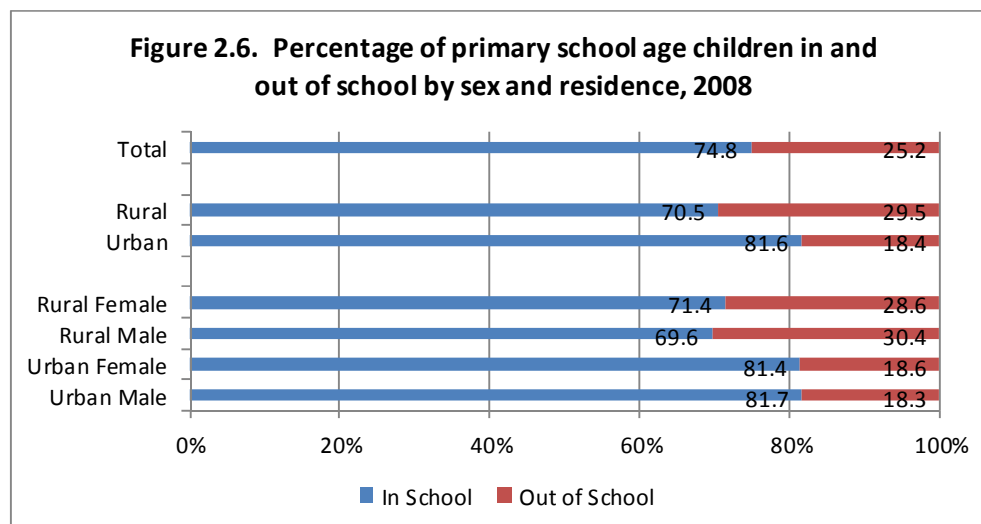
Table 2.8. Percentage of primary school age children out of school, by age, sex and other characteristics, 2008 only

	Male		Female		Total	
	Percent (%)	Number of children	Percent (%)	Number of children	Percent (%)	Number of children
Age						
6	55.4	172,903	52.9	154,428	54.2	327,380
7	33.6	103,162	33.2	95,002	33.4	198,121
8	21.4	60,321	18.2	54,869	19.7	114,920
9	13.7	40,002	13.3	37,551	13.5	77,534
10	12.9	37,596	13.8	37,892	13.4	75,847
11	10.6	30,367	11.2	30,448	10.9	60,859
Residence						
Urban	18.3	123,041	18.6	124,333	18.4	247,374
Rural	30.4	324,492	28.6	305,278	29.5	629,770
Wealth Index Quintiles:						
Poorest	40.8	164,540	39.2	158,087	40.0	322,627
Richest	11.5	31,507	12.6	34,795	12.1	66,302
Total	25.8	444,352	24.6	410,188	25.2	854,662

Source: GDHS, 2008; UIS typology calculation spreadsheet based on GDHS, 2008 and UNPD Population Database, 2008
Notes: Number of children totals vary somewhat between categories (age groups, residence, etc.) due to rounding.

Table 2.8 presents the percentages and raw numbers of primary school age children who are not in school (in 2008). The emphasis on this report is on percentages, mainly for attendance (as in NAR, ANAR, etc.). However, given the focus on out-of-school children, Table 2.8 does provide some useful additional detail. The percentages of out-of-school children are simply the inverse of enrolment rates presented above. The absolute numbers of out-of-school children add some context, and a sense of size, to the analysis. For example, almost one million young Ghanaian children, who should be, are not in primary school, at least based on the official entrance age.

Figure 2.6 provides a condensed summary of the percentage of children out of school. The bottom half includes categories that combine gender with residence. The results show that the most disadvantaged group is Rural Males, although the differences by gender are not pronounced.



Source: GDHS, 2008

One of the challenges in evaluating out-of-school children, at least among the youngest cohorts, is the influence of pre-primary schooling. In official terms, a six year old girl who is not in primary school is considered out of school, mainly because of the official entrance age in Ghana. However, if that girl is enrolled in pre-primary school then she is not part of the truly excluded. Table 2.9 helps make this point by presenting the percentages of out-of-school children (by age) with and without pre-primary enrolment. As expected, when taking into account pre-primary enrolment, the percentages of out-of-school children decline significantly. Furthermore, this impact is concentrated in the youngest cohorts.

Table 2.9. Percentage of primary school age children out of school with and without preschool, 2008

CATEGORY:	INCLUDING PRESCHOOL?	
	YES	NO
Total	13.4	25.2
Female	13.3	24.6
Male	13.4	25.8
By Age:		
Age 6	20.2	54.2
Age 7	15.5	33.4
Age 8	12.3	19.7
Age 9	11.2	13.5
Age 10	11.8	13.4
Age 11	10.5	10.9

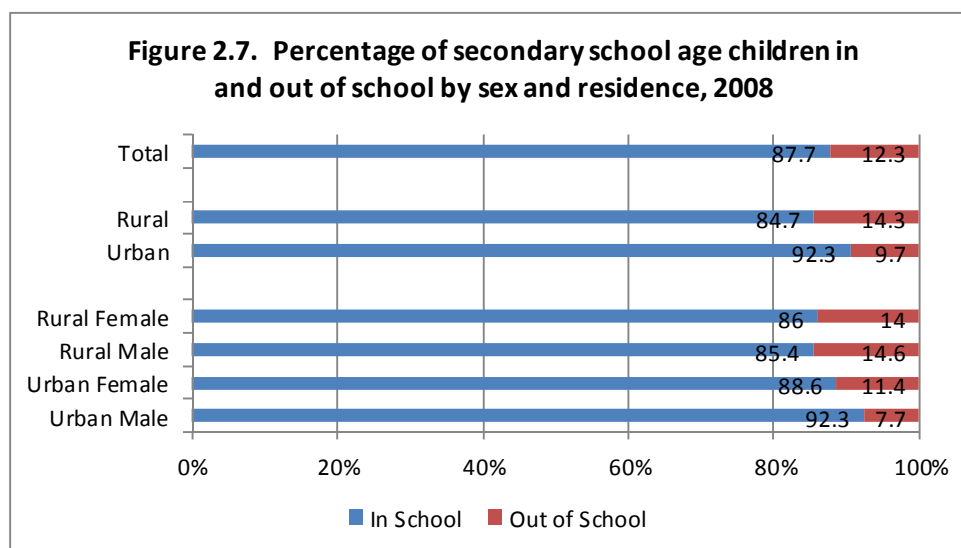
Source: GDHS, 2008

Table 2.10 and Figure 2.7 continue with lower secondary summaries of out-of-school children in percentages and total numbers. In each case, primary school attendance is counted as being in school, which results in relatively few (about 12% overall) out-of-school children in this age group. There are still noticeable gaps, however, between urban and rural and (especially) the poorest and richest quintiles. Older girls are marginally more likely to be out of school at this age than boys.

Table 2.10. Percentage of lower secondary school age children out of school, by age, sex and other characteristics, 2008 only

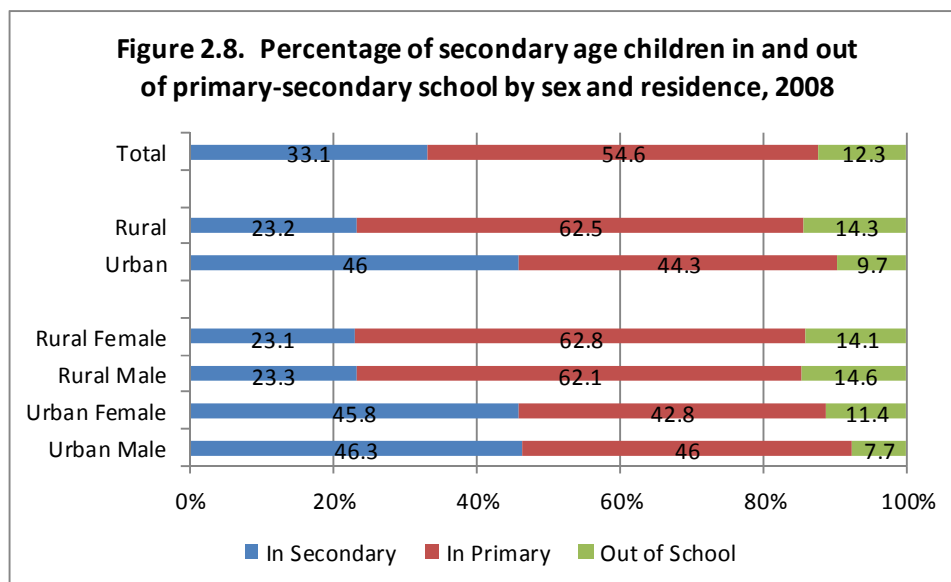
	Male		Female		Total	
	Percent (%)	Number of children	Percent (%)	Number of children	Percent (%)	Number of children
Age						
12	10.4	28,721	11.0	30,179	10.7	58,900
13	12.0	32,496	11.8	31,994	11.9	64,490
14	13.2	34,341	15.9	43,462	14.6	77,803
Residence						
Urban	7.7	27,043	11.4	41,092	9.7	68,135
Rural	14.5	66,908	14.1	65,062	14.3	131,970
Wealth Index Quintiles:						
Poorest	23.4	38,782	28.0	45,412	25.4	84,194
Richest	5.3	8,274	9.7	15,766	7.7	24,040
Total	11.8	95,558	12.8	105,635	12.3	201,193

Source: GDHS, 2008; UIS typology calculation spreadsheet based on GDHS, 2008 and UNPD Population Database, 2008
 Notes: Number of children totals vary somewhat between categories (age groups, residence, etc.) due to rounding.



Source: GDHS, 2008

Figure 2.8 provides a more complete overview of school attendance for secondary-school age children in Ghana. For each group three categories are used, instead of two: out of school; enrolled in primary; and enrolled in secondary. This is similar to accounting for pre-primary enrolment above in the summary of primary schooling (Table 2.9). The results, not surprisingly, show that many of these children are enrolled in primary school. They are still enrolled in school, which is important, but the results once again highlight problems with efficiency.



Source: GDHS, 2008

2.4. Dimensions 4 and 5: Profiles of Children at Risk of Exclusion

In this section, the discussion turns to children who are at risk of exclusion, which corresponds to Dimensions 4 (children in primary school) and 5 (children in lower secondary school). There are many potential indicators for being at risk. In the following pages the emphasis is on several areas, including: lack of school readiness, late entry, grade for age, repetition, and dropout.

2.4.1. Lack of School Readiness

Table 2.11 summarizes the percentages of new entrants to primary education (Primary 1) who have not attended pre-primary schooling. The data are only presented for 2008 because of a lack of information on pre-school access in the 2003 GDHS Survey. For 2008, the numbers provide an idea of readiness in Ghana. Overall, only about 6% of the new entrants in primary school in 2008 did *not* attend some form of pre-primary education programs. This is a positive result that hopefully bodes well for future grade completion and attainment.

Nevertheless, the overall average for pre-primary access for new entrants does mask some important variation by category. For instance, 9% of new entrants in rural Ghana had no ECCE access, compared with only 2% of urban children. For socio-economic status (SES) the gap is even larger: 17% of the poorest entrants did not attend pre-primary, versus less than 4% of the wealthiest quintile. And, as expected, there is considerable regional variation. However, as noted before in this report, the small sample sizes for some categories of outcomes (like preschool access for new entrants) require some caution in interpreting the results.

Table 2.11: Percentage of new entrants to primary education with no Early Childhood Care & Education (ECCE) experience, 2008

Category:	Male	Female	Total
Residence			
Urban	2.0	2.0	2.0
Rural	10.4	7.5	9.0
Wealth Index Quintiles:			
Poorest	19.3	14.9	17.1
Second	4.9	5.4	5.1
Middle	4.7	1.1	3.0
Fourth	2.7	1.9	2.4
Richest	4.6	2.5	3.6
Region			
Western	3.7	1.7	2.7
Central	1.2	0.0	0.6
Greater Accra	4.7	2.9	3.8
Volta	3.8	1.2	2.3
Eastern	2.5	2.8	2.6
Ashanti	3.6	2.0	2.9
Brong Ahafo	0.0	1.6	0.8
Northern	38.6	44.8	40.9
Upper West	10.8	5.9	8.4
Upper East	20.7	26.9	23.5
Total	7.4	5.4	6.4

Source: GDHS, 2008

2.4.2. Late Entry

School attendance in many countries can be a “race against time.” This means that as children get older their time becomes more valuable, either as labor for their families or as spouses (including mothers). One way to increase the amount of time available for study is to insure that all children enroll at the correct age. Late entry may provide some initial benefits in terms of children being more mature and developed, but there is the potential for negative consequences later on.

Table 2.12 provides various summaries of attendance age. This variable does not have an exact question in the GDHS files. Since grade repetition is fairly rare according to the GDHS data⁸, the age of initial school attendance can be estimated by subtracting grades completed from current age. There is likely to be some measurement error for dropouts and older children. This is similar to the strategy employed by Glewwe and Jacoby (1995).

The results in Table 2.12 confirm that children are entering school at an earlier age (also see Figure A1.5 in Appendix). The top half of the table summarizes the (estimated) age when the child entered school; this is restricted only to children who report ever having attended primary school. As expected, the average entry age in 2008 is significantly lower (denoted by boldface) in 2008 compared with 2003 for children aged 7, 10 and 14. For seven year olds, the difference is about one

⁸ As noted above other data sources (e.g., UIS database) report high repetition rates (8-9%) particularly among 1st graders.

half (0.50) year, which is a substantial improvement at this age. However, the improvements in entry age between 2003 and 2008 get smaller as children get older. For example, for 14 year olds the difference is less than 0.30 years.

Table 2.12. Primary School Attendance by Age, 2003 and 2008

CATEGORY:	AGE 7:		AGE 10:		AGE 14:	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
Percent Ever Attended	46.9	68.2	79.5	90.6	89.4	95.3
Average Entry Age	6.32	5.88	7.71	7.36	8.49	8.22
Female	6.26	5.89	7.76	7.29	8.29	8.21
Male	6.38	5.88	7.68	7.44	8.65	8.23
Rural Area	6.42	5.94	7.91	7.60	8.93	8.63
Urban Area	6.19	5.82	7.38	6.98	7.98	7.80
Entry Age Frequencies Whole Sample:						
At Age 5	12.2	21.1	3.7	5.7	2.1	2.3
At Age 6	44.0	69.4	12.6	19.9	13.2	14.3
At Age 7	43.8	9.5	26.1	27.7	17.9	22.2
At Age 8	----	----	31.0	26.7	17.8	20.9
At Age 9	----	----	20.2	19.5	19.4	17.1
At Age 10	----	----	6.5	0.6	15.3	12.3
At Age 11	----	----	----	----	9.5	6.6
At Age 12	----	----	----	----	3.0	3.0
At Age 13	----	----	----	----	1.8	1.3
	=100.0	=100.0	=100.0	=100.0	=100.0	=100.0

Source: GDHS 2003, 2008

Notes: For **Percent Ever Attended** and **Entry Age Frequencies** all averages represent percentages (0-100) based on weighted data summaries. Attendance is only for primary school; preschool is excluded. Significant differences between entry ages in 2003 and 2008 are denoted by **boldface** (significant at $p \leq 0.05$ level).

The sub-category comparisons for estimated entry age provide some additional results by gender and location. In general the entry age pattern is similar between boys and girls, although among 14 year old girls there is no significant difference in entry age between 2003 and 2008. The same is true for 14 year olds in urban areas who have much lower entry ages, but no significant improvement between 2003 and 2008.

The bottom half of Table 2.12 provides frequencies for the breakdown by entry age for each age group (for the overall sample). In 2008, not only were more seven year olds in school compared with 2003, but the proportion that had entered primary school at age five or six was almost twice as high (roughly 90% in 2008 versus 56% in 2003). Once again, the improvement in these entry age profiles declines with older cohorts.

The results for entry age show some notable improvements in efficiency between 2003 and 2008. If the system continues to consolidate these gains – meaning more and more families enroll their children in primary school at age 5 or 6 – then not only will non-attendance rates continue to fall, but there should also be corresponding improvements in outcomes like grade attainment.

2.4.3. Repeaters

When children repeat grades they not only lose valuable time in school, but they may also become frustrated with the schooling experience and as a result are more likely to drop out. Table 2.13 summarizes repetition in Ghana by school level for 2008. Overall, grade repetition is not a serious problem in Ghana. Students enrolled in the initial grades of each level (grades one and seven) are substantially more likely to be repeating than in other grades. This suggests some problems with

school readiness (see 2.5.1 also), which in P1, means being prepared for schooling in general while in Lower Secondary 1 (Grade 7) is more specific to being ready for lower secondary schooling. Not surprisingly, with each successful completion (within schooling levels) these students are less likely to fail the grade and subsequently have to repeat it.

Table 2.13. Repetition rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level of education, by sex and other characteristics, 2008

	Primary Education						Lower Secondary Education		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Gender									
Male	5.1	2.2	1.3	1.2	1.7	0.6	6.4	1.0	3.2
Female	3.3	1.7	1.5	1.5	1.7	1.3	4.8	0.5	3.5
Residence									
Urban	1.7	2.5	1.0	0.8	2.5	0.8	5.6	1.4	4.1
Rural	5.6	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.2	1.1	5.6	0.2	2.6
Income Quintiles:									
Poorest	10.8	1.8	1.5	1.3	0.9	0.8	5.4	1.1	4.5
Second	2.8	2.4	2.0	1.2	2.3	0.9	3.8	0.1	2.6
Middle	2.3	2.4	0.5	2.2	2.6	1.5	5.5	0.0	4.1
Fourth	1.9	2.0	1.5	0.7	1.1	0.0	8.4	1.4	2.0
Richest	2.3	0.9	1.5	1.0	1.5	1.7	4.2	1.3	4.0
Region									
Western	3.5	2.3	2.0	4.6	3.9	0.7	3.1	0.0	2.3
Central	1.2	5.3	4.5	0.9	3.0	2.0	3.4	0.0	3.9
Greater Accra	2.2	2.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.5	4.7
Volta	3.2	0.0	0.3	1.3	1.3	2.7	1.6	0.0	5.1
Eastern	0.8	1.4	0.9	2.2	1.4	0.0	1.0	0.0	3.7
Ashanti	2.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.3	0.9	18.4	1.7	1.8
Brong Ahafo	1.8	0.9	0.0	0.0	1.0	1.4	0.0	0.0	1.8
Northern	19.8	3.8	1.0	1.1	3.9	0.0	8.0	1.9	3.6
Upper West	1.9	1.4	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.0	2.4	0.0	3.4
Upper East	15.4	2.6	2.7	0.5	1.9	2.4	15.1	3.5	3.2
Total	4.3	2.0	1.4	1.3	1.7	1.0	5.6	0.8	3.3

Source: GDHS, 2008

Compared with other outcomes analyzed in this review, there is not much variation in repetition rates across student categories (urban-rural, SES, etc.). However, repetition rates have been increasing in Ghana (for comparison with 2003 see Table A.1.6 in Appendix)⁹. This is most likely a result of more children entering the system. The largest increase between 2003 and 2008 is found in grade 7: from 1.0% in 2003 to 5.6% in 2008. This again raises issues about readiness, but overall this trend is a natural side effect of increasing levels of participation.

⁹ UIS data also show a general increasing trend in repetition rates between 1999 and 2008.

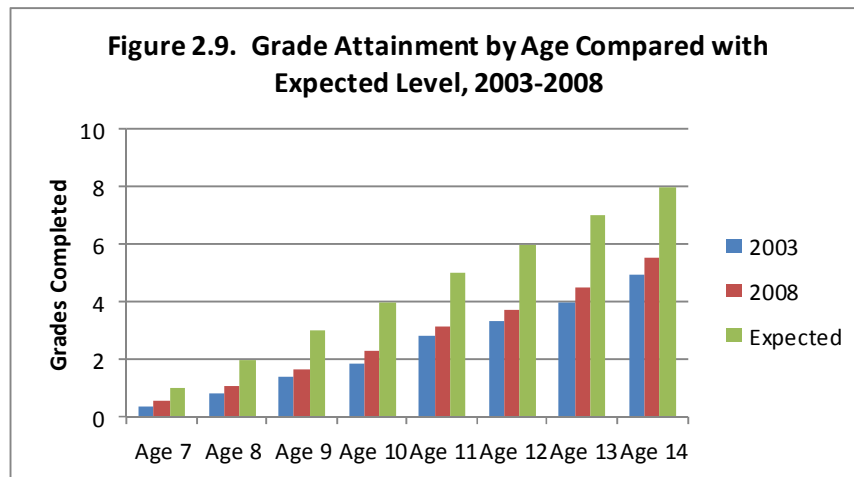
2.4.4. Grade for Age

Grade for age is calculated by dividing the number of grades completed (or highest grade reached) by the difference between the child's current age and 6 (official age of entry for primary education)¹⁰. Ratios close to 1.00 mean that the child has been completing one year of education per year since the age of 6, which is the most efficient possibility. Children who have not completed any education have values of zero.

The results are presented in Table A1.7 in Appendix. Efficiency has certainly increased in the Ghanaian system, and this trend seems likely to increase as more and more children get access to preschool and then enroll in primary school at the correct age (i.e. 6). However, improvement is required to get anywhere near the optimal efficiency rate of one year of education for each year after age six. The current (2008) ratio of 0.52 years of education for each year older than age 6 (up from 0.44 in 2003) confirms that most children are significantly behind.

Figure 2.9 provides a more focused summary of grade attainment by age. For each age category (from 7 to 14) the number of grades completed in 2003 and 2008 is compared against the expected level. This last number is set at one year of education for 7 year olds, two years for 8 year olds, etc. This may be a conservative number given official entrance ages in Ghana, but the timing of the GDHS data collections complicates this comparison.

There are two results that stand out in Figure 2.9. The first confirms the grade for age data discussed above, and simply shows that Ghanaian attainment levels are significantly below the expected (or desired) levels by age. This gap would be even larger if a stricter expected grade completed level were used (i.e. three grades for eight year olds).



Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008

The second result from Figure 2.9 is that the gap is increasing over time, but the rate of change is not dramatic. In fact, it is interesting to note that the size of the gap between the actual attainment level (in 2008) and the expected level is not dramatically larger for 14 year olds (2.5 years) compared with 10 year olds (1.7 years). What this means is that the bulk of the gap between actual and expected attainment occurs in the earliest years. Most children aged 6-14 in Ghana eventually enter school, and once they do repetition and dropout rates are fairly low. However, when entering at an advanced age they immediately start out with a large gap, at least as defined in Figure 2.9.

¹⁰ This is calculated for all children regardless of current or past school attendance.

2.4.5. School Dropout

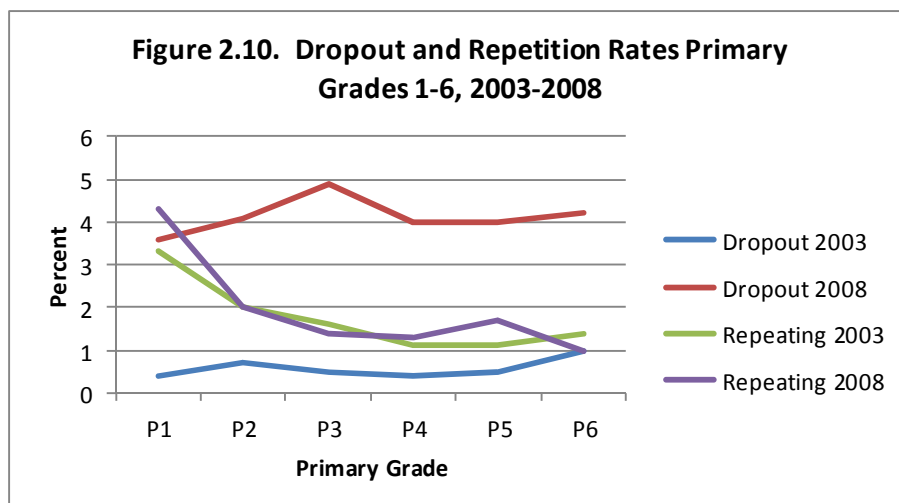
Dropping out of school is an obviously powerful risk factor for exclusion, especially since most children that drop out do not return. Table 2.14 summarizes school dropout in Ghana in 2008 (Table A1.8 in Appendix summaries 2003). These are grade-by-grade rates that simply take the percentage of children who are not enrolled in 2008 after being enrolled in P1 through Lower Secondary 3 (Grade 9) in 2007. Not surprisingly, the largest percentages are generally at the end of the primary cycle (P6) and especially Lower Secondary (Grade 9). This indicates still only a small proportion of students proceed to senior high schools in Ghana. The averages near 4-5% do raise some concerns. There is also some substantial regional variation, although as was the case with repetition the variation by residence and SES quintile is not very large.

Table 2.14. Dropout rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level of education, by sex and other characteristics, 2008

	Primary Education						Lower Secondary Education		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Gender									
Male	4.2	4.3	4.2	4.3	3.9	5.1	2.9	7.3	57.8
Female	3.2	3.9	5.8	3.6	4.1	3.5	4.2	4.8	64.7
Residence									
Urban	3.5	4.0	5.6	4.7	4.1	4.5	4.0	6.1	57.7
Rural	3.9	4.1	4.5	3.4	3.8	4.1	3.1	6.1	65.3
Income Quintiles:									
Poorest	4.0	5.1	3.0	2.2	4.5	3.7	1.9	3.4	59.1
Second	3.9	4.3	4.5	4.9	5.4	4.9	3.7	10.7	73.0
Middle	2.2	3.0	6.4	1.9	3.2	3.3	4.6	5.9	65.0
Fourth	3.9	4.3	4.3	5.3	5.5	2.8	1.9	7.1	57.7
Richest	4.7	3.5	6.9	5.4	0.9	6.7	4.7	3.1	55.5
Region									
Western	5.2	4.9	5.7	5.7	3.5	3.6	2.2	13.3	75.6
Central	6.5	7.9	10.5	8.2	8.2	5.9	11.6	8.5	62.9
Greater Accra	4.3	4.3	5.5	5.4	4.9	5.8	4.0	4.4	54.2
Volta	0.0	0.0	1.4	1.0	3.1	1.5	0.6	3.6	70.3
Eastern	5.5	1.8	5.1	6.6	3.7	2.9	3.2	8.2	49.0
Ashanti	0.0	2.4	2.7	0.6	0.7	0.9	1.1	3.2	66.8
Brong Ahafo	0.8	1.9	2.0	0.7	1.5	5.3	5.0	3.8	47.5
Northern	9.1	9.8	8.6	7.7	9.9	9.9	5.5	8.1	58.6
Upper West	1.6	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	17.1	0.0	0.0	42.1
Upper East	11.2	13.4	12.7	9.4	8.8	4.3	2.5	9.2	74.8
Total	3.7	4.1	4.9	4.0	4.0	4.3	3.5	6.1	61.1

Source: GDHS, 2008

Figure 2.10 summarizes dropout and repetition rates by (primary) grade based on GDHS. For dropout rates the results confirm the increase in this outcome. Roughly 4% of children were dropouts in 2008 after having been enrolled in Primary 1-6 the year before while less than one percent of children were dropouts in 2003. The dropout rates are fairly steady by grade both in 2003 and 2008.



Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008

Tables 2.15 and 2.16 continue with survival rates for primary and lower secondary students, as well as transition rates between these two levels. Survival rates are calculated only for children who have entered each level. For P6 the survival rate is roughly 80%. For Lower Secondary 3 (Grade 9) it is over 90%, although this is somewhat misleading since (compared with primary schooling) relatively few children enter this level of schooling. Ghana also has a very high transition rate between P6 (end of primary) and Grade 7 (beginning of lower secondary). Roughly 95% of P6 students continue on to Grade 7, which is another reminder of the importance of getting children into school, and once enrolled insuring they make it to P6.

Table 2.15. Survival rate to the last grade of primary education (Grade 6) and to the last grade of lower secondary education (Grade 9), 2008 only

	Survival Rate:			
	Male	Female	Total	Gender Parity Index
Survival rate to Grade 6	80.4	80.8	80.7	1.01
Survival rate to Grade 9	89.8	91.0	90.4	1.01

Source: GDHS, 2008

Table 2.16. Transition rate from primary to lower secondary education, 2008 only

	Transition Rate:			
	Male	Female	Total	Gender Parity Index
Transition rate to lower secondary	92.6	94.8	94.2	1.02

Source: GDHS, 2008

Additional summaries for dropout are provided in the Appendix for the cumulative dropout rate in primary (Table A1.9 and Figure A1.6) and junior secondary (Tables A1.10 and A1.10a and Figure A1.7). These figures are somewhat different than those presented above for grade-by-grade dropout (Table 2.14 and Figure 2.10). Cumulative dropout rates are calculated by level (i.e. primary, lower secondary, etc.). They are substantially lower than grade-by-grade rates because they are based on the percentage of a given age group who is no longer enrolled after having initially enrolled in that level. In other words, the denominator includes all children who entered the level, as opposed to the

grade-by-grade rates which are reduced only to those children who made it to that grade. That is why Grade 9 dropout is so high (60% in Table 2.14) when the cumulative lower secondary dropout rate for 14 year olds is below 11% (Table A1.10 in the Appendix).

Despite the differences by calculation method, for repetition and dropout there is a consistent theme based on the 2003-2008 data. In both cases (especially dropout) the trends are negative. Furthermore, in coming years there is likely to be still more pressure on the system as more formerly excluded children enter primary school and more primary school graduates enter lower secondary. One way to potentially cushion the negative effects of more children entering school is through expanding preschool access. Quality preschool opportunities, which can be hard to guarantee, help prepare young children for formal schooling, and as a result, reduce the dropout and repetition that occurs in part due to adjustment challenges. The same reasoning is true with regard to primary school quality; with better primary school preparation the average graduate will be more likely to both enter lower secondary school, and remain enrolled.

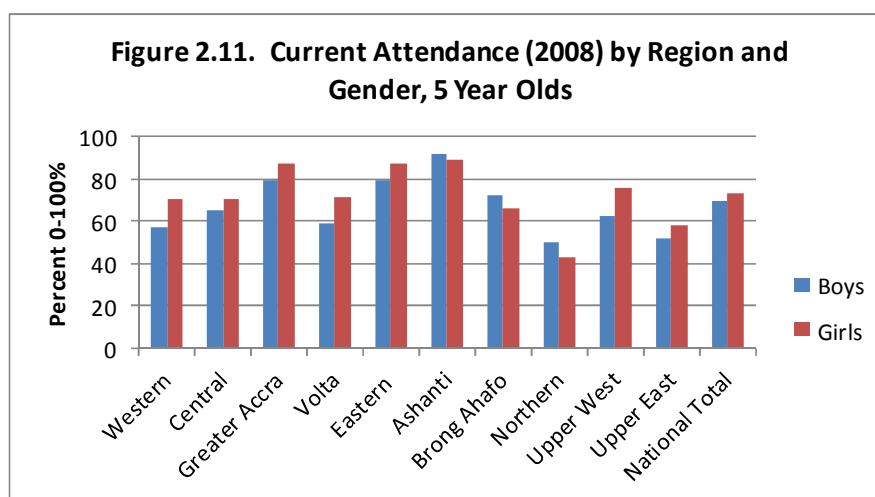
2.5. Disparity Analysis

The previous section covered global summaries of school attendance in Ghana, with some initial comparisons by age, location and region. This section continues the analysis with more focused comparisons among different socioeconomic groups to understand major disparities in school attendance and to identify key factors that are linked to child's non-participation in school. The largely descriptive overview is also complemented by multivariate analysis, summarized in section 2.7.

2.5.1. Gender

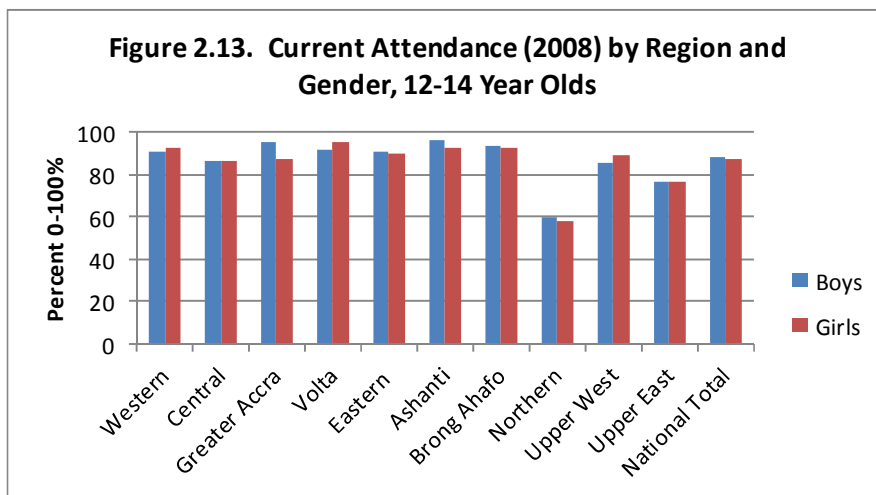
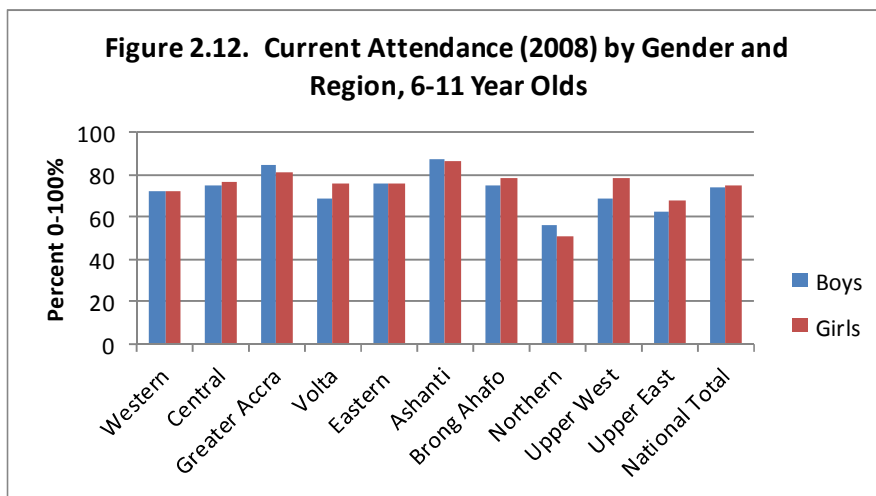
Detailed comparisons of school attendance outcomes by gender generally reveal few substantial differences in Ghana at the national aggregate level (see UNICEF, 2010). This is consistent with the global comparisons by gender summarized in the previous section. Nevertheless, with some more detailed comparisons it is possible to test this further.

Figure 2.11 summarizes attendance for 5 year olds (1DE), by region and gender. Overall, girls are slightly more likely than boys to be enrolled at this age. However, this difference is only a few percentage points. The region-specific averages reveal some significant differences. Girls are favored in the Western, Volta and Upper West regions by about 10 percentage points. But in the Brong Ahafo and Northern regions boys are about five percent more likely to be in school at this age than girls.



Source: GDHS, 2008

Figure 2.12 continues with primary-aged (6-11) children¹¹. The pattern is nearly identical, although the gaps are generally smaller overall and within regions between boys and girls. There are still some notable differences, namely in Volta and Upper West (favouring girls) and in the Northern region (favouring boys). However, with Figure 2.13 (below) the pattern significantly, if not substantially, changes. For children aged 12-14 the overall attendance rate is slightly higher for boys with minor regional variations. This sequence from ages 5 to 14 is revealing, although it must be restated that the differences are not so large. Girls generally do better than boys (in terms of enrolment and progression) through primary school, but as they get older investments in the girl's schooling begins to taper off slightly (on a relative basis).



Source: GDHS, 2008

Figures A1.8 and A1.9 in the Appendix summarize dropout rates from primary and junior secondary school (regardless of age), by gender and region. All dropout rates in this section are calculated on an aggregated grade-by-grade basis. This means that they represent the percentage of children in a given school level (primary or lower secondary) who were enrolled last year but are not enrolled this year. The age ranges are restricted to 6-14 for primary (to account for overage enrollment in primary), and 12-14 for lower secondary. However, in the appendix additional tables are included for children aged 12-18 for lower secondary to account for overage enrollment at this level.

At the primary level, the averages vary little by gender, although there is some significant variation by region that needs to be interpreted cautiously given small sample sizes. As noted in the previous

¹¹ This does not include attendance in pre-primary.

section, dropout rates are clearly increasing in Ghana as a result of more and more children entering the system.

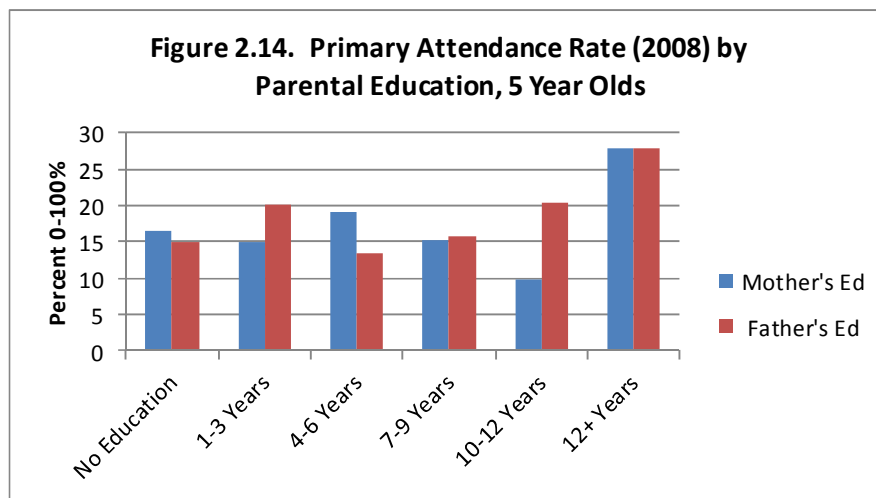
At the junior secondary level, the averages are again similar by gender. Calculations of the dropout rate at the lower secondary level are complicated somewhat by the relatively small number of entrants, especially when making comparisons by gender within regions. Overall, the dropout rate is higher for girls among lower secondary students, which is consistent with the attendance rate patterns summarized earlier.

The results from these additional comparisons suggest that, for the basic decision of sending children to school, it matters little if the child is a boy or a girl, especially for younger children (i.e., pre-primary and primary age groups). This latter qualification is an important one. In a separate analysis (not presented) attendance rates were compared for young people aged 15-22. The results show that female attendance rates are nearly 15 percentage points *lower* than males. In other words, gender equality in participation is a reality only for the youngest children (see UNICEF, 2010).

2.5.2. Parental Education

Parental education is one of the most frequently analysed demand-side indicators of school attendance. Better educated parents are not only more likely to have more resources to send their children to school, but independent of wealth (or resources), these parents are likely to be more interested in their children's education. As a result it is not uncommon to find that one of the strongest predictors of how far children advance in school is one or both parent's level of education.

Figures 2.14 and 2.15 summarize enrolment rates for 5 year olds by the mother and father's education levels (in 2008 only). Figure 2.14 is for primary enrolment only, and it shows a somewhat irregular pattern. Children from households where the mother or father has 12 or more years of education are substantially more likely to be early enrollees in primary school. This kind of "head start" on schooling, presumably after attending pre-school, is not unusual among the most educated families. However, for the other levels of education, there is no clear pattern between enrolling five year olds in primary and parental education levels.



Source: GDHS, 2008

When taking into account pre-school enrolment the pattern is much more clearly defined (Figure 2.15). Here the rates climb in a fairly linear pattern from lower to higher levels of parental education. This is more consistent with the expected positive relationship between the child's and parents' education levels.

Figure 2.15. Primary and Pre-Primary Attendance Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 5 Year Olds

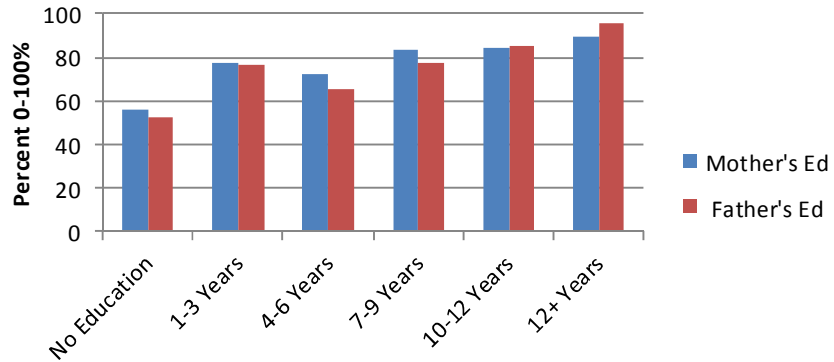


Figure 2.16. Primary Attendance Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 6-11 Year Olds

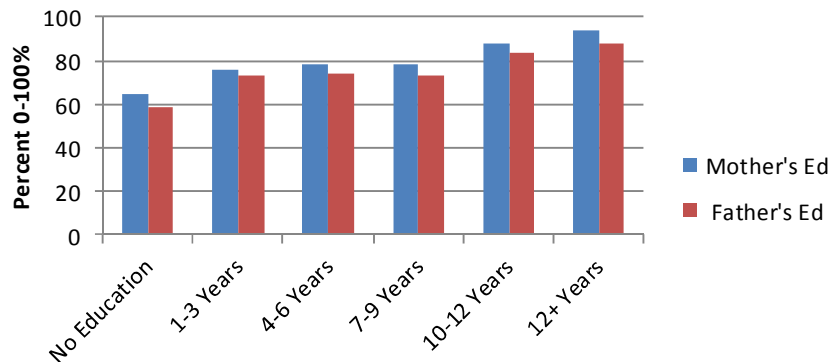
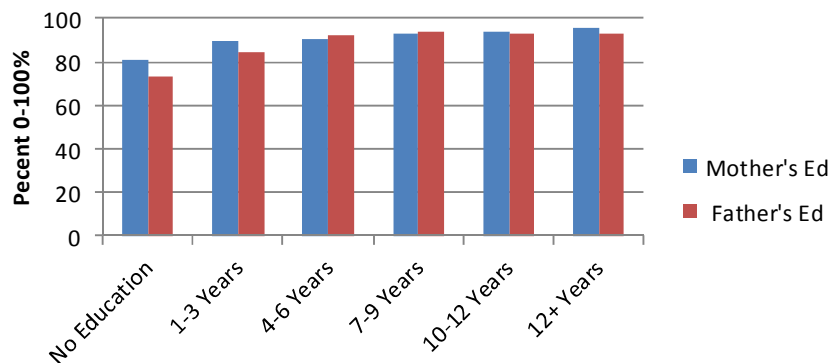


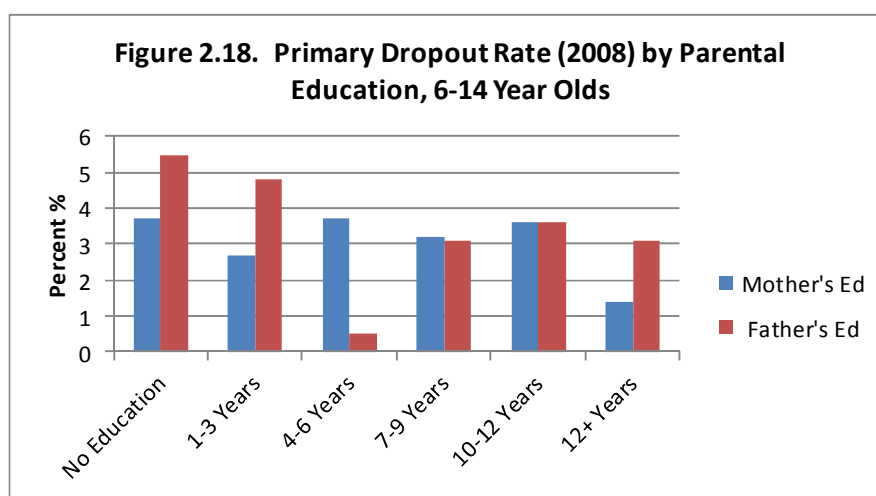
Figure 2.17. Primary-Secondary Attendance Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 12-14 Year Olds



Source: GDHS, 2008

Figures 2.16 and 2.17 continue with children aged 6-11 and 12-14, respectively. These patterns are generally as expected. In primary, there is a noticeable upward trend linking parental education levels with school attendance. However, it is interesting to note that for children of primary school age there is the first indication that the mother's education is more important, or at least more strongly related, for determining the child's school attendance. For children aged 12-14 the pattern is once again positive, although the overall averages are much higher for these children leading to less variation attributable to parental education. Furthermore, among older children there is less of a perceptible difference between the mother's and father's education levels vis-à-vis the child's.

The dropout rate is the next indicator linked with parental education. Figure 2.18 is for primary school in 2008, and corresponds to the percentage of children aged 6-14 who were not enrolled in primary school in 2008 after being enrolled in 2007. As noted in previous sections of this report, the dropout rates are generally low, which can complicate the search for patterns as sample sizes become small when the data are disaggregated by different categories (e.g. parental education). This is true in Figure 2.18 to some degree. For example, children with fathers with no education, or only 1-3 years, have the highest dropout rates. And children with highly educated mothers (12+ years) have the lowest dropout rates. But, for the mother's education in particular, there is not a well-defined trend in Figure 2.18¹². Figures A1.10 (for 12-14 year olds) and A1.11 (for 12-18 year olds) in the Appendix summarize dropout for lower secondary students, and show no clear pattern.



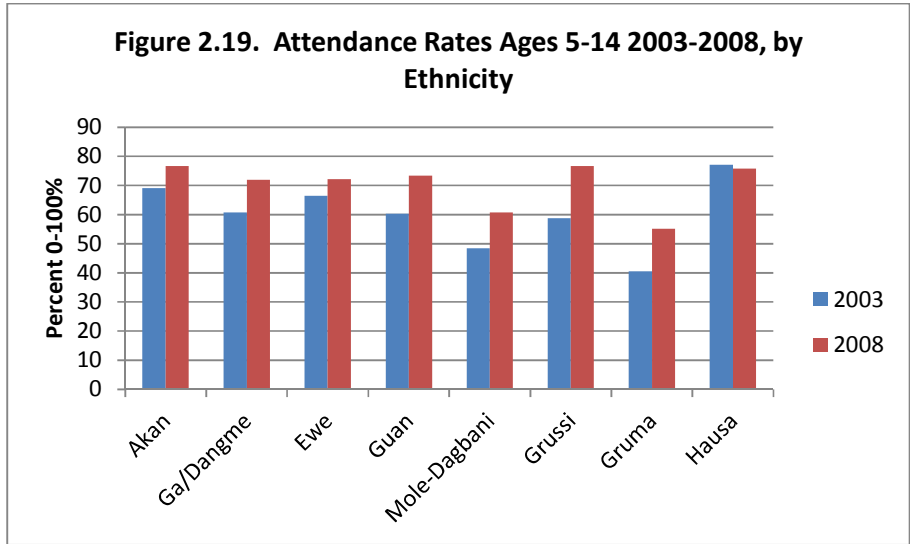
Source: GDHS, 2008

2.5.3. Ethnicity

Ghana is an ethnically diverse country with different languages and ethnic groups. According to the 2008 GDHS, the majority come from the Akan group, followed by Mole-Dagbani (see UNICEF, 2010). A total of eight groups were identified.

Figure 2.19 provides an overview of attendance rates for all children aged 5-14 between 2003 and 2008, by ethnic group. As sample sizes are too small for some ethnic groups, the data are collapsed by age to provide more certain comparisons (i.e. Dimensions 1-3 combined). As expected, there is generally significant improvement in enrolment rates between 2003 and 2008 for all groups. However, the largest increases are primarily found for those groups that were most excluded in 2003. This includes the Guan, Mole-Dagbani and Gruma. Other groups – especially the Hausa and Ewe – started out at higher rates but made very little progress overall between 2003 and 2008.

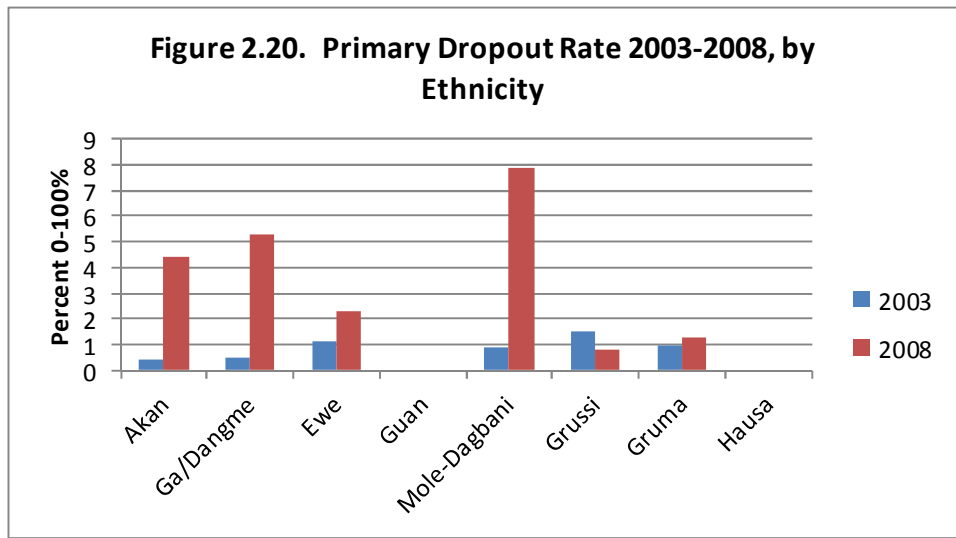
¹² For the father's education as well, a random trend is observed. For instance, the data shows the lowest dropout rates for children of fathers with 4-6 years of education.



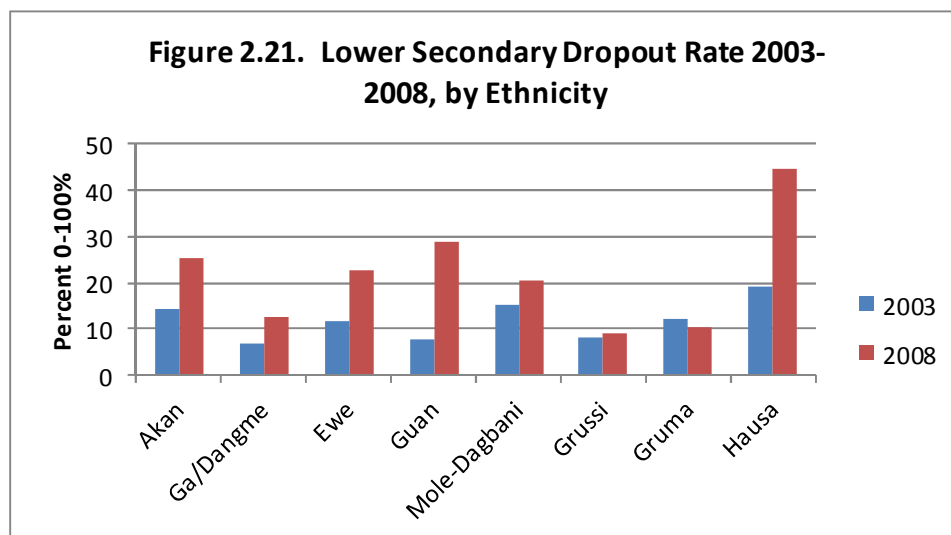
Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008

Figures 2.20 and 2.21 also illustrate dropout rates of each ethnic group (4DE and 5DE) for primary and lower secondary schooling. For primary in five of the seven groups the dropout rate has increased between 2003 and 2008 and in several cases by a significant amount. The (relatively) high rate of dropout among the Mole-Dagbani is the most troubling result in Figure 2.20, especially given the size of this ethnic group in the country (UNICEF, 2010) and low rates of attendance (Figure 2.20). Two of the groups (Guan and Hausa) have too few cases to consider.

For lower secondary (Figure 2.21) there is also evidence of increasing rates of dropout. However, these numbers are based on very small sample sizes, so specific comparisons between individual groups are somewhat problematic.



Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008



Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008

2.5.4. Household Living Arrangements

The household living arrangement is a potentially important influence on school attendance. When children are living with only one parent or with a relative who is a guardian, or are orphaned due to the death of parents, then school attendance may be affected. The underlying explanation for why attendance varies by these factors is likely to be a result of a combination of factors. For example, when the mother is deceased, children (especially girls) may be needed to take on household duties. There are also socio-cultural factors that influence how children are treated depending on the structure of the home.

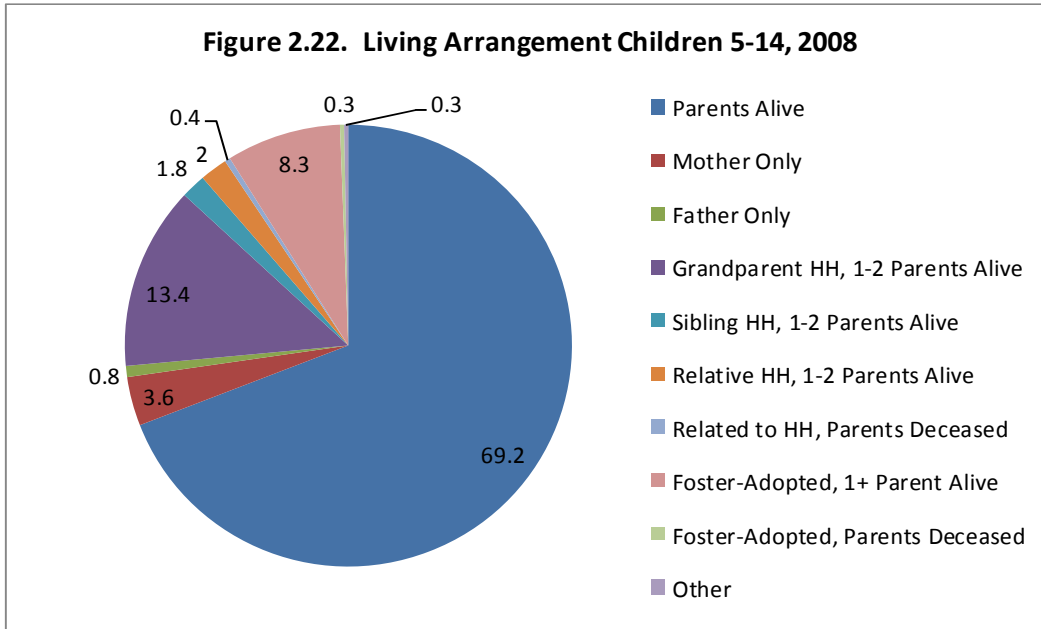
Figure 2.22 summarizes the living arrangements for children aged 5-14 in the GDHS 2008. Again as sample sizes are small for some categories, the data are collapsed by age. The categories combine household headship with family makeup. In about 69% of the cases, the child is living in a household headed by a parent and both parents are alive and live in the same household. In other households, the mother is alive but not the father, and vice versa (which is less likely). Other children live in households where the head is a grandparent, sibling or other relative, and one or both parents are alive. In about four percent of the cases both parents are deceased and the child lives with a relative. Another nine percent of children report living in a foster or adoption situation, despite reporting that one or two parents are alive. Finally, a small group of children are living in foster homes or adopted, and both parents are deceased.

The categories in Figure 2.22 cover some important features of the family structure and living arrangements, although they could be organized differently. There are clearly some non-conventional living arrangements in Ghana, which reflects the reality of a developing country situation where mortality rates are higher and families may send children to stay with relatives. In the African context the issue of HIV and AIDS mortality has generated a lot of research interest. In Ghana, this problem is not as serious as in some of the other sub-Saharan countries, so no distinction is made in Figure 2.22 to account for causes of death.

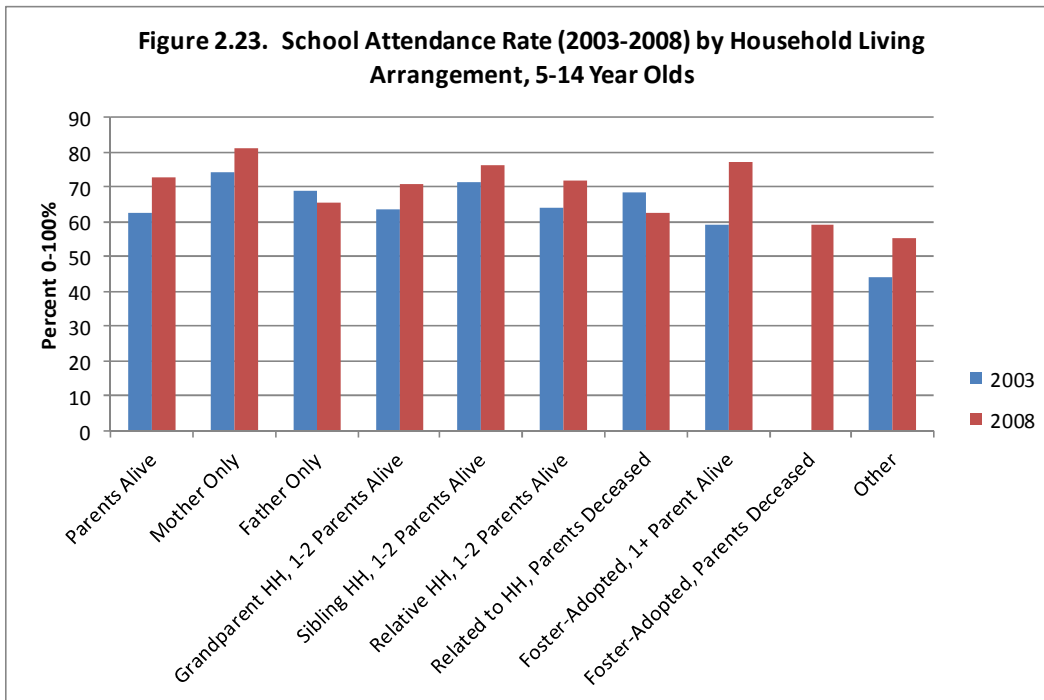
Figure 2.23 summarizes school attendance rates for children aged 5-14 by living arrangement. Several results stand out. First, children residing in households where the father is deceased and the mother is the household head actually have *higher* rates of school participation (compared with the sample average). This is a somewhat surprising finding since it seems likely that the loss of the father would affect household income and work patterns, and perhaps require one or more of the children to find work to help support the family. However, this does appear to be the case when the mother is deceased. This variation by household headship is interesting, and does point to different values vis-à-vis education by gender of the household head. However, in the case of deceased mothers there are relatively few cases to consider in the sample.

School attendance is marginally higher in households headed by a grandparent where one or both of the parents are still alive. For households headed by a sibling or a relative where one or both parents are alive the results are less consistent (also fewer cases).

As expected, when both parents are deceased the child is less likely to attend school. This is true for most ages in the two arrangement categories that include deceased parents: parents deceased and child is living with a relative; and parents deceased and child is living with a foster or adopted family.



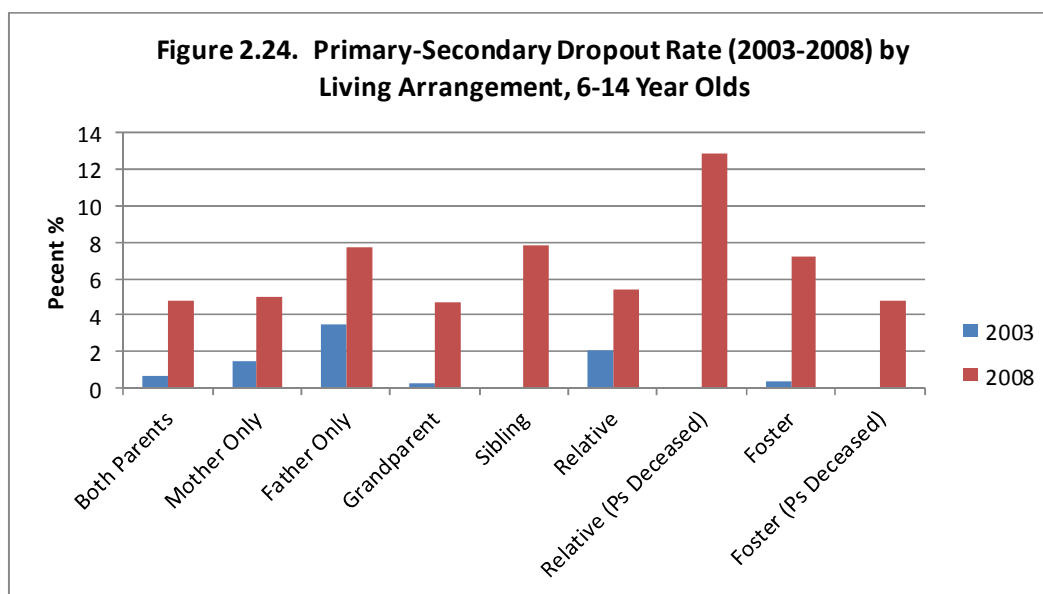
Source: GDHS 2008



Source: GDHS 2008

Finally, there are no significant differences in attendance rates for children who are residing with a foster or adopted family and have one or both parents still alive. This is a fairly large category (see Figure 2.22). In some cases these children are being sent away to take advantage of better schooling opportunities, which would predict higher attendance rates. However, in other cases, they are being sent away for reasons related to work or other factors, which in turn would probably predict lower rates of schooling. These two trends may be working against each other, and as a result the overall average for this category is not significantly different from the sample average.

Figure 2.24 continues with dropout rates for primary and lower secondary education by living arrangement in 2003 and 2008. Even with collapsed data there are some categories with small numbers of cases (e.g., Relative (Ps Deceased) and Foster (Ps Deceased)), so these data should be treated with some care. For example, there is not a clear trend between 2003 and 2008 by category. In all of the cases the dropout rate has increased.

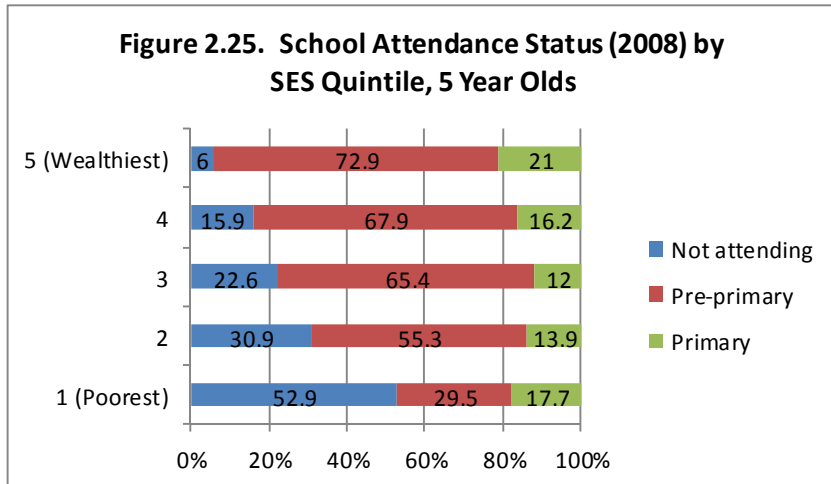


Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008

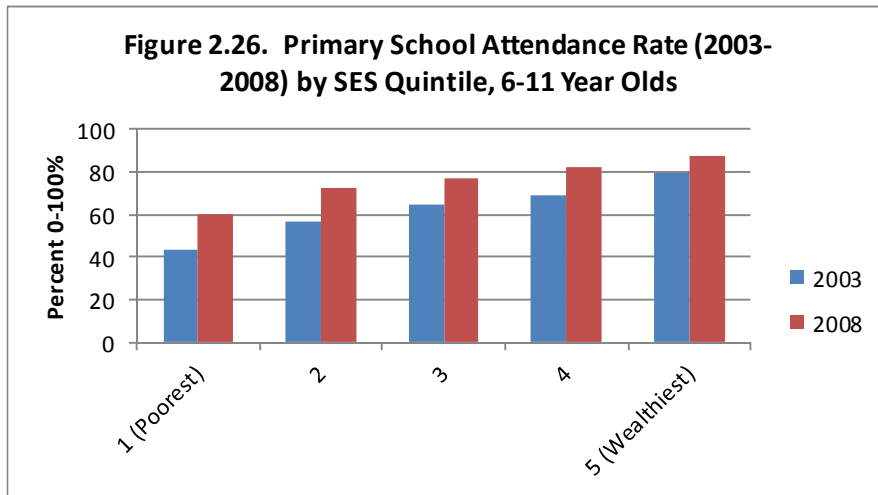
2.5.5. Wealth Level

Socioeconomic Status (SES) quintiles are used to classify families by poverty based on a range of household possessions and services. Within each year all families are divided into five equal groups known as quintiles. These are ordered from Quintile 1 (the poorest) to Quintile 5 (the wealthiest). Figure 2.25 provides a summary of 5 year old attendance status, by wealth quintile. Children from the wealthiest families are more likely to participate in primary school (presumably P1) and pre-primary. However, for the poorest families there is a slightly higher rate of primary attendance, and a substantially lower rate of pre-primary attendance. The former suggests that the poorest families may be using primary schools as a form of day-care or pre-school for young children when pre-schools are not available locally. The lower availability of pre-schools for poorest households could also be influenced by the fact that poor people are more likely to live in rural areas.

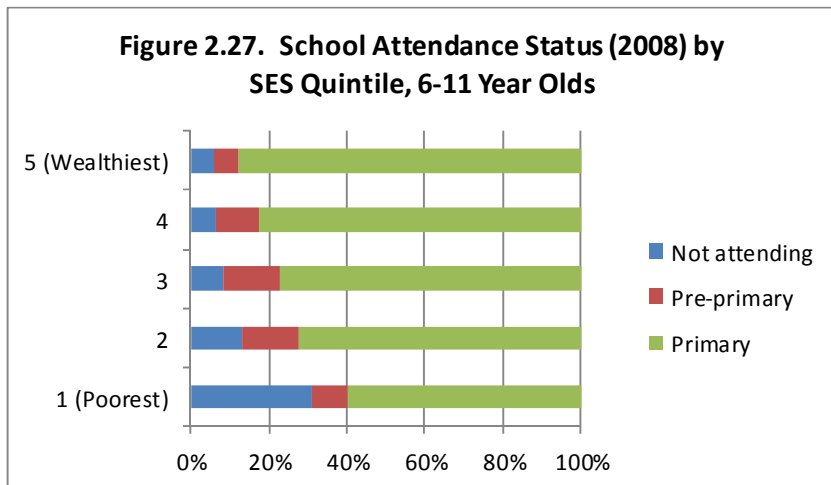
Figure 2.26 continues with primary attendance rates for children aged 6-11 (2DE), by quintile and year. The results confirm that inequalities in basic education participation are gradually decreasing in Ghana, as evidenced by the higher rates of growth in the lower quintiles between 2003 and 2008 (also see UNICEF, 2010). Nevertheless, a substantial portion of the children from Quintile 1 remain outside of the formal school system. In 2008, roughly 40% of these children were not in primary school. This is clearly the target group for reaching universal primary education. Unfortunately, since these children come from the poorest households and communities this final push to universal participation brings its own set of complications.



Source: GDHS, 2008



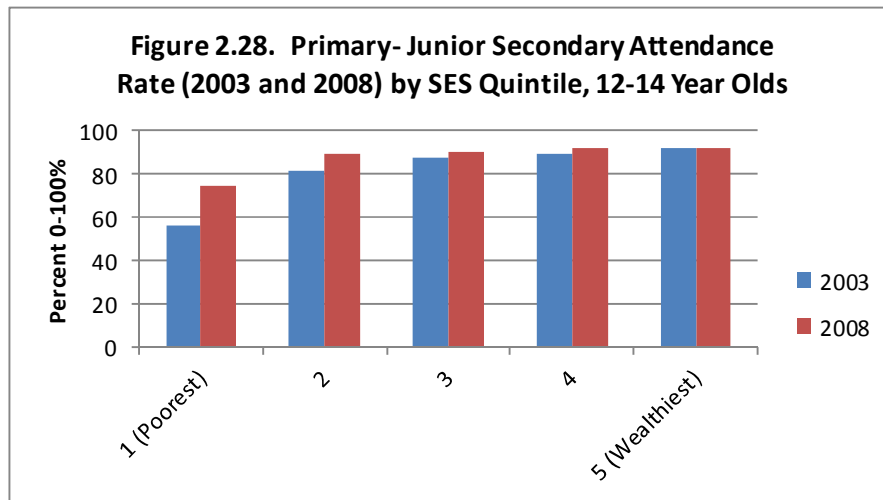
Source: GDHS, 2003, 2008



Source: GDHS, 2008

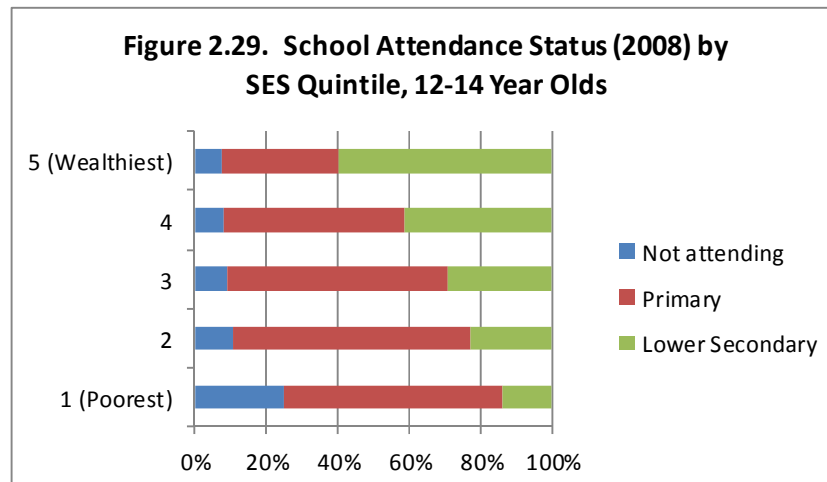
Figure 2.27 provides a slightly more detailed look at attendance for 6-11 year olds, and includes pre-primary schooling as a category. The results are generally consistent with those from Figure 2.26.

Figure 2.28 continues with attendance rates for older children. The results once again confirm larger rates of improvement for the poorest children. In fact, the percentage improvement for Quintile 1 between 2003 and 2008 (about 18 percentage points) is more than that experienced by all of the other quintiles combined. However, it is important to note that even among the wealthiest families (Quintile 5) attendance rates are encountering a ceiling at about 90%. This reinforces the remaining challenges in achieving universal participation in Ghana.



Source: GDHS, 2008, 2003

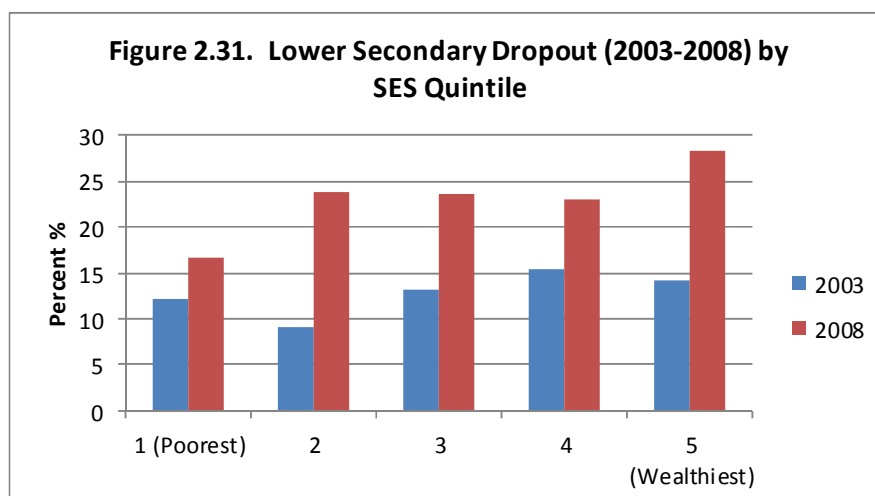
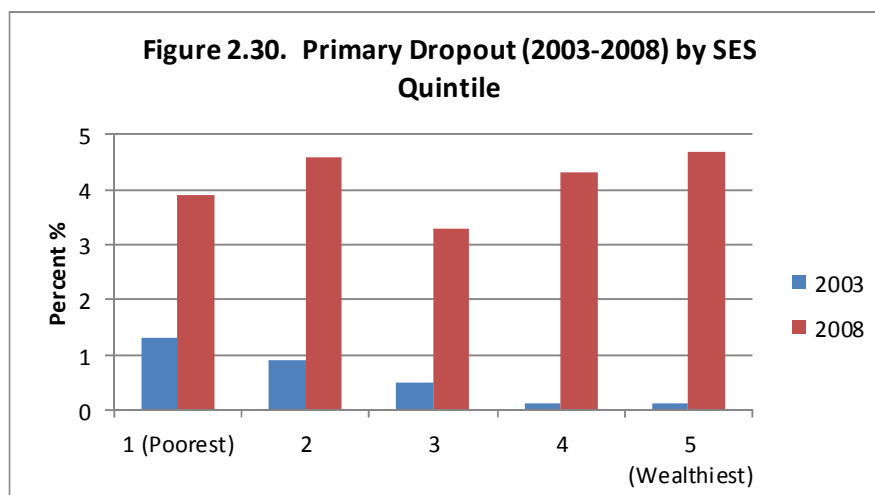
Figure 2.29 provides another summary of attendance status for children who are of lower secondary age. The results show that the poorest children are more likely to be out of school, but also substantially more likely to be still enrolled in primary school. By contrast, the wealthiest children have very low non-enrollment rates (about 8%), and 60% of these children are in lower secondary schooling.



Source: GDHS, 2008

Figures 2.30 and 2.31 summarize dropout rates from primary and lower secondary in Ghana, by quintile and year. These rates represent percentages of children who were enrolled in 2007 who are no longer enrolled in 2008. Overall, the patterns are similar to those established previously. Dropout is increasing in Ghana as more and more children enter the system. It is marginally more likely among

the wealthiest children, especially in lower secondary. Again due to small sample sizes, the results need to be interpreted with some care. This underscores the difficulty in using dropout rates for monitoring purposes.



Source: GDHS 2003, 2008

2.5.6. Child Labor Status

Existing evidence in Ghana suggests that child work is a major barrier for school attendance (Ghana Statistical Service, 2003; Government of Ghana et. al., 2011). However, the GDHS does not collect data on child labour. This section looks into the relationship between child labor and school participation using MICS 2006 data. In this study the following three groups of children are considered as child laborers (Understanding Children’s Work, 2011)¹³:

- 1) Children 5–11 years old who, during the week preceding the survey, did at least one hour of economic activity;
- 2) Children 12–14 years old who, during the week preceding the survey, did at least 14 hours of economic activity; and
- 3) Children aged 5-14 years who, during the week preceding the survey, performed at least 28 hours of household chores.

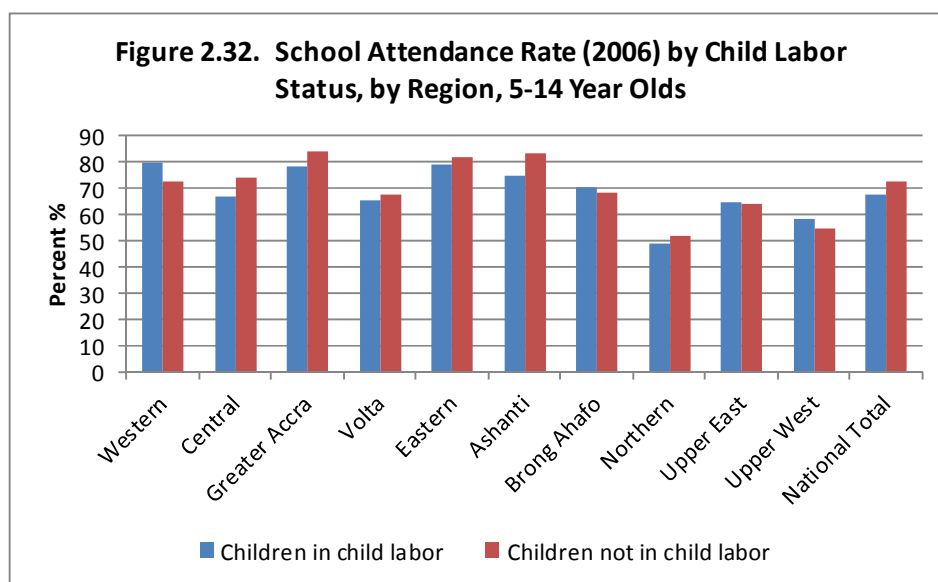
¹³ A more detailed explanation of the definition of child labor is available in Appendix.

Table A.1.11 in Appendix indicates that as high as 34% of children aged 5-14 are involved in child labor. The incidence of child labor is particularly high in the three northern regions, in rural areas, among the poorest households and among Gruma and Mole Dagbani ethnic groups. The table also shows that in general as the level of mothers' education increases, children's involvement in child labor decreases. This highlights the importance of education in reducing child labor. Educated children of today will be the educated parents of tomorrow, making less likely that their children will work.

Table A.1.12 shows the percentage of child laborers who are out of school. Overall, 32% of child laborers are not attending school. While there is little difference between boys and girls, significant disparities are observed among regions, socioeconomic groups and ethnic groups. Again, the most disadvantaged groups in terms of school attendance are working children in the three northern regions, in rural areas, from the poorest households and from Gruma and Mole Dagbani ethnic groups. This implies that while the majority of working children are somehow coping with both work and school, those in deprived areas or from disadvantaged backgrounds face greater challenges in attending school while working.

Table A.1.13 addresses the reverse question of what proportion of out-of-school children is in child labour. The findings are very similar, showing the same groups as the most disadvantaged. Overall, 43 % of out of school children are involved in economic activities (employment) and the majority of them work for the own family (66%) usually as unpaid worker.

Figure 2.32 below and Table A.1.14 in Appendix show a comparison of the school attendance rate between child laborers and those not in child labour among the 5-14 age group (1DE, 2DE and 3DE).



Source: MICS, 2006

The figure indicates that children in child labor are more likely to be out of school compared to those not in child labor. At the national level, the attendance rates among child laborers are lower than non-laborers by 5 percentage points. A closer look at regional data reveals, however, this trend is not always the case for all regions. For instance, the school attendance rate is significantly higher (7 percentage points) among child laborers in Western Region. One possible reason for this seemingly counterintuitive trend is that many child laborers in Western Region, particularly those working in cocoa farms, have benefited from the Ghana Cocoa Board Scholarship Scheme. Around 7,500 children receive this scholarship annually to attend junior high schools (Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment, 2008).

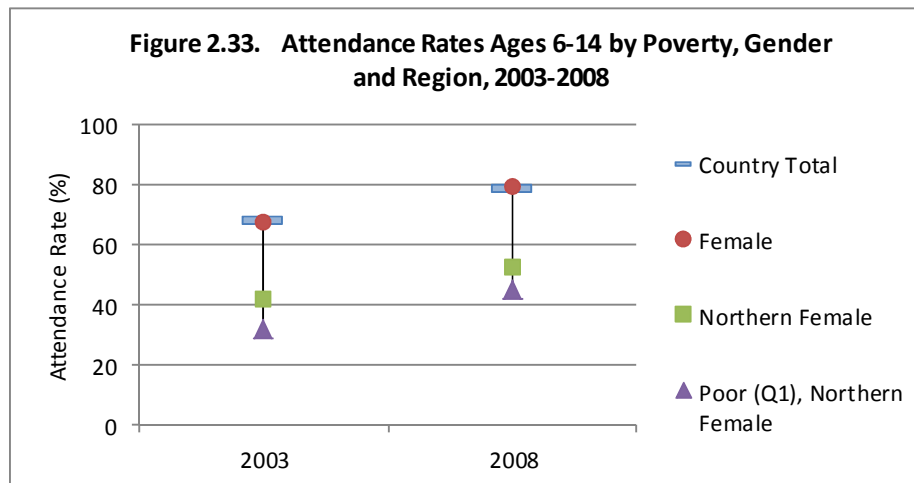
On the other hand, child laborers are significantly more disadvantaged in terms of school attendance in regions that encompass large metropolitan areas such as Greater Accra, Ashanti and Central

Regions. This might imply that in these major cities it is more difficult for school-aged children to cope with both school and work. In fact, Table A.1.15 in Appendix shows that greater proportions of child laborers in these regions are working for non-household members, which implies it is more difficult for them to manage time on their own. Table A.1.15 also highlights also that the percentage of children working for the family is higher in rural areas, underscoring the role played by the agricultural sector in absorbing workforce. On the other hand, the percentage of children working for a wage, either for non-household members or household members, is higher in urban areas, underscoring the prevalence of the manufacturing and services sectors in absorbing workforce in urban areas.

The disaggregated data by key socioeconomic characteristics such as household wealth quintile and mother’s education level do not show systematic and/or significant differences in school attendance between child laborers and non-laborers. Among some ethnic groups (e.g., Gruma and Guan), working children are much less likely to be attending school than those not working. The interpretation requires some caution, however, due to small sample sizes. It appears that child labor is more strongly associated with child’s schooling status among 12-14 year olds than 5-11 year olds. Among the 12-14 year age group, the attendance rate of child laborers is 14 percentage point lower than that of non-laborers whereas the rate is almost same between the two categories among the 5-11 age group. This makes sense as child-laborers aged 12-14 tend to work longer hours than those in the lower age group and thus have less time and chance for attending school.

2.5.7. Multiple Deprivation

Different factors interact to create magnifying layers of disadvantage that restrict opportunities in education (UNESCO, 2010). Figure 2.33 presents the combined effects of poverty, gender and geography on children’s school attendance in Ghana. The figure indicates that girls from the poorest households in Northern Region are almost twice as likely to be out of school compared with the sample average in 2008.



Source: GDHS 2003, 2008

2.6. Multivariate Analysis

This section brings in statistical modeling to further deepen the analysis of schooling outcomes. Table A1.16 in the Appendix summarizes the variables in the model. The focus is on family background influences on school attendance and dropout for different age groups. For a more complete review of potential predictors of schooling outcomes, see UNICEF (2010).

Table 2.17 summarizes the results for the multivariate models that predict current school attendance for three groups of children. For five-year-olds the dependent variable is school attendance in 2008 in either pre-primary (about 55%) or primary school (about 15%). For 6- to 11-year-olds current attendance is for primary (or lower secondary, where there are very few). Finally for 12- to 14-year-

olds, the schooling outcome is for either primary or lower secondary. Additional models with more specific levels of attendance were also estimated (such as lower secondary attendance for 12- to 14-year-olds), but the overall flavor of the results did not change much. The data are weighted and each model also includes a series of controls for the region of residence ("region fixed effects"). Due to the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable, a logistic model is used. For ease of interpretation we use coefficients that represent the unstandardized effect of a one-unit change in the independent variable on the odds-ratio of a child being currently attending school. A coefficient greater than one indicates that increasing the independent variable results in an increase in the odds of attendance, all else being equal. A coefficient smaller than one indicates a negative relationship between the independent variable and the odds of attendance.

The results in Table 2.17 generally confirm the importance of child and family background characteristics. However, the advantage with the statistical modeling approach is that the impacts of these variables are considered simultaneously. This makes it possible to consider the most important predictors by comparing both the size and significance of effects.

Table 2.17 begins with the child's age. For the model only with five year olds there is no age variable to consider. For the second model (children aged 6-11) each coefficient is interpreted in relation to children aged six. The results show that the odds of attending school increase steadily by age. However, for older children the same is not true (third model), as 14 year old children are significantly less likely to be attending compared with 12 year olds.

Table 2.17. Logistic Regression Estimates of Covariates of Current Attendance (2008), Various Age Groups

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES:	CURRENT ATTENDANCE:		
	5 YEAR OLDS	6-11 YEAR OLDS	12-14 YEAR OLDS
Age of Child:			
Age 7	----	2.81***	----
Age 8	----	6.17***	----
Age 9	----	10.12***	----
Age 10	----	10.65***	----
Age 11	----	12.27***	----
Age 12	----	----	----
Age 13	----	----	0.84
Age 14	----	----	0.63**
Female Child	1.28	1.05	0.82*
Mother's Education:			
1-3 years	1.76	1.39**	0.84
4-6 years	1.07	1.30**	0.91
7-9 years	1.44	1.20	1.21
10-12 years	1.16	1.54***	0.98
12+ years	0.94	3.27***	1.56
Father's Education:			
1-3 years	2.47**	1.60**	1.16
4-6 years	1.40	1.75***	2.30**
7-9 years	1.59	1.42**	3.32***
10-12 years	2.21**	2.31***	2.00***
12+ years	5.85***	2.35***	1.65
Wealth Quintile	1.63***	1.25***	1.34***
Living Arrangement			
Female HH, Male Deceased	0.66	1.10	0.59
Male HH, Female Deceased	2.05	0.62	0.42*
Grandparent HH	1.04	0.91	0.68
Sibling HH	0.74	0.44***	0.54*
Other Relative HH	1.12	0.53**	0.64
Other Relative HH (No Parents)	----	0.31**	0.38*

Unrelated HH, Parents Alive	0.94	0.77	0.46***
Unrelated HH, Parents Deceased	----	0.09***	0.40
Household Size:			
Children 4 and under	1.01	0.92**	0.85**
Children 5-9	1.03	0.96	0.94
Children 10-14	1.08	0.91**	0.86**
Children 15-19	1.08	1.08*	1.06
Adults 20-60	0.89	0.90***	1.02
Adults 60 and over	0.74*	0.86**	0.93
Average Wealth Quintile in Cluster ¹⁴	1.32	1.12	1.01
Rural	1.61	1.15	1.31
Region Controls?			
Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
N	1,185	7,837	3,754

***p<.01 **p<.05 *p<0.10

Source: GDHS, 2008

Notes: All coefficients represent unstandardized effect of one unit change in independent variable on odds-ratio of current school attendance. Significance is based on robust standard errors adjusted for clustering at the sample cluster level, and all models incorporate sampling weights to account for complex sample design in GDHS. Individual region controls are included in the model but not reported here; additional results for ethnicity are also not reported due to generally insignificant coefficients. See Table A.1.16 in the Appendix for the reference category of each variable.

The differences by age are to be expected, especially as Ghanaian families continue to catch up in terms of enrolling children in school at the correct age. The goal moving forward is universal participation where there is no significant difference in attendance probabilities between age groups because every child is in school.

The statistical analysis also confirms the shifting effects of gender by age. For children aged 5 and 6-11 there is no significant difference in school attendance between boys and girls. But girls aged 12-14 are less likely to be attending school compared with their male counterparts, although the coefficient is only significant at the 0.10 level. This form of interaction between age and gender is important, and it will be necessary in coming years to re-test these ideas to see if the girl's schooling continues to be more vulnerable with age.

For parental education the results are somewhat different from what was shown using descriptive comparisons in earlier sections. In the statistical modeling, the father's education is generally a more significant predictor of the child's schooling outcome than the mother's. In other words, in Ghana, paternal education is the more important background indicator.

As expected, children from higher SES Quintiles are more likely to be in school. With each increase by quintile children are between 1.25 and 1.65 times more likely to be attending school. This means that even when controlling parental education, age, etc. a Quintile 5 child is about 5-6 times as likely to be attending school compared with a Quintile 1 child.

The next group of variables in Table 2.17 covers living arrangements. For five year olds there is no significant relationship between living arrangement and attendance. However, for children aged 6-11 and 12-14 this form of background variable is a more significant predictor. As expected, school attendance suffers when children live in households where parents are not around (or are deceased). These kinds of results do shed some light on the issue of orphans, although it should be restated that compared with some other African countries this problem is not quite as severe in Ghana.

There is some evidence that the number of children in the household affects school participation. The strongest impact is found for children aged 0-4. The average child aged 6-14 who lives in a home with one child aged 0-4 is about 90 percent as likely to be in school as a child from a household with zero children of this age. The number of children aged 10-14 in the household is also negatively

¹⁴ The GDHS sample framework incorporated clusters of households, so this is simply the average wealth quintile for all sampled households in the cluster.

associated with attendance, which suggests another form of tradeoff between the number of children and school attendance (also referred to as a “quality versus quantity” tradeoff).

Finally, there is some significant residual regional variation in these outcomes. To save space these results are not presented in Table 2.17. In general, in comparison with the excluded region (Ashanti), the remaining provinces have lower rates of attendance. The fact that these significant differences persist even when controlling extensively for family background does highlight the potential for unmeasured factors related to school quality (returned to below). It could also reflect patterns of migration and the provision of other social services.

The models that are summarized in Table 2.17 are replicated for school dropout; those results are presented in Table A.1.17 in the Appendix. Since the results for dropout are very similar to those for attendance they are not discussed in detail here. Overall, the results from the statistical analysis confirm the importance of family background in explaining why some children attend school, and others do not. The multivariate modeling makes it possible to comment on the most important predictors, although in general the results in Table 2.17 are consistent with the more descriptive comparisons from earlier sections (also see UNICEF, 2010), and show that *a range of household factors* are associated with school attendance and exclusion. In other words, vulnerability does not come from a single feature of the household.

Who are the most vulnerable children? Based on the multivariate analysis the main factors associated with not being in school include:

- having one or more parents who never attended school
- living in a household from the lowest SES quintiles
- living in a household with a non-traditional arrangement (i.e. not two parents), especially when both parents are deceased
- living in a household with many other children, especially those aged 0-4 and 10-14

This is not an unusual group of significant variables. Furthermore, from a policy perspective the utility of these findings is somewhat limited. They basically serve as a reminder of the importance of poverty, with some clues about the kinds of children that are most vulnerable. Targeted assistance to poor families (or children) that meet these criteria would certainly help further reduce the school attendance gap between rich and poor in Ghana. However, policies of this kind need to be weighed carefully against other policy options, including those that improve schools and make the schooling experience more relevant for poor people.¹⁵ Chapter 4 reviews and discusses a range of policy options to address the problem of out-of-school children.

2.7. Analytical Summary

The purpose of this chapter is to clarify the profile of out-of-school children in Ghana. The main result is that school participation has increased substantially between 2003 and 2008, and as a result, significantly fewer children aged 5-14 remain outside of the system.

Roughly 70% of children aged 5-6 are attending either preschool or primary school in 2008, which appears to be a substantial change from 2003. Furthermore, these increases in participation for the youngest children are beginning to show up in higher grades completed, meaning that more children are starting school on time and as a result (in 2008) they are getting farther by the time they are 10-14 years old.

The growth in participation of the youngest children is a potential harbinger of substantial improvement in the future. As of 2008, the improvements in the system (compared with 2003) are not

¹⁵The insignificant predictors of school attendance and dropout also deserve some mention (see UNICEF, 2010). In preliminary stages of the statistical modeling a larger group of variables was included. Some of these were dropped from the final estimations because they were largely insignificant, or highly correlated with other predictors like SES Quintile. Also, the inclusion of regional fixed effects washes out the effects of household characteristics that are associated with region. These excluded variables include family religion; health status of younger children in the household; availability/use of bed nets and other factors related to health awareness of family; and work occupation categories of mother and father.

that apparent for children aged 12-14 in outcomes such as attainment. But, if these comparisons are repeated with 2003 after another five year period (i.e. in 2013) it is likely that a much higher percentage of older children will have completed primary school and moved on to lower secondary.

The only caveat to this discussion is the need to be aware of the built-in pressures that come with expansion of this nature. The recent growth in participation puts additional pressure on the system in several ways. First is the quantitative expansion in the form of more teachers, classrooms, materials, etc., which is clearly a concern in a country that has experienced sustained teacher shortages (Akyeampong et al., 2007). Second is the related challenge of maintaining teacher quality levels while adding more teachers. In fact, the pressures on teachers (and schools) to deliver quality services will likely increase as a result of more disadvantaged children entering school for the first time. These children, and their families, may have less patience with the school given the fact that school attendance comes with a higher relative cost than for other families. Last, the poorest children are likely to be concentrated in schools with the fewest resources.

How the system addresses these challenges in the coming years will affect the pace of improvement in participation and the degree to which these promising recent trends are sustained. Ghana's history shows periods of expansion in which quality, in effect, did not keep up with supply, and the result was a softening of demand over time as concerns about the system's scale-up capacity increased (Akyeampong et al., 2007).

Despite the gains, a significant number of children aged 5-14 are still not participating in basic education. Reaching these children remains a critical goal for Ghanaian education. Their detailed profile is analyzed in this chapter to help understand the kinds of factors that determine whether or not children are in school. This information will, at a minimum, help inform policymakers about the kinds of challenges they likely face as they continue the push to reach universal attendance. It could also provide useful metrics for designing targeted interventions to address the challenges directly or monitor the progress of certain groups of children over time.

The results are generally consistent with the "poverty explanation" commonly attributed to why some children are not in school. Children who are not in school are more likely to come from the lowest poverty quintiles, and have parents who never attended school. However, for parental education, it is not the case that each successive year of education predicts higher school attendance probabilities. The results were consistent in showing that attendance is fairly constant for parental education levels between one and nine years. This highlights the obvious importance of insuring that all children at least enroll in school, but also makes it clear that basic education alone may not have a substantial impact on the child's educational development.

Children are also at risk in certain living arrangements. Not surprisingly, orphans and children in households where the mother is deceased are at risk for non-attendance. However, these are not very large categories. The results of the statistical analysis above does not show the practice of sending children to live with other families as a risk factor, at least in 2008. But, the GDHS data make it hard to pinpoint exact instances of this practice, so it is hard to assess the overall impact. This issue is discussed in more details in the following Chapter.

The number of children in the home is another risk factor. This is especially true for the youngest children (less than 5 years old). One possibility is that older siblings are needed to stay at home to help care for these younger siblings. There are also some tradeoffs between children in the household who are of primary or lower secondary school age; meaning that participation is less likely when there are more children aged 6-14. This is likely related to resources and the household's ability to send multiple children to school at the same time. With the abolition of school fees these pressures may be in decline, but children from large households face a number of potential constraints on their schooling. This includes the likelihood that their parents have less education, and/or have little time to help them with their schoolwork.

In sum, there are a number of factors that are correlated with school attendance. These results do not make for clear policy prescriptions; given the likelihood that many of these risk factors are correlated with each other (e.g. poorly educated parents have many children, etc.). In the following Chapter, underlying causes and major bottlenecks of a child's non-participation in school are examined, based on the profiles of the out-of-school children analyzed in this Chapter.

Chapter 3: Barriers and Bottlenecks

3.1. Introduction

The main focus of this Chapter is to identify the causes of exclusion that are linked to different profiles of out-of-school children (OOSC) using the 5 dimensions of exclusion (DE) as a broad structure and guide. The analysis aims at identifying differences between causes and barriers related to children out of school and children likely to drop out from pre-primary (KG) to lower secondary (JHS). Although this chapter is divided into economic, socio cultural, and governance barriers and bottlenecks, the division is somewhat artificial as socio cultural and economic barriers are often so closely interlinked that together they create the OOSC profile. Recent research on access to education in Ghana indicates that:

“...there are a range of interlocking supply and demand factors which influence access to schooling in Ghana. These work in context specific ways, interacting with each other and external influences to ensure that each access situation in Ghana is distinctive. However it is possible to make some general observations about educational access.”
(Akyeampong et al., 2007, p. xix).

This chapter draws on the last 20 years of research in Ghana in relation to out-of-school children, drop out and exclusion. The study began with a large scale mapping exercise of all available literature before developing a system of weighting the most relevant and recent work for analysis. The OOSC “Conceptual and Methodological Framework” helped guide the analysis process along key thematic areas related to the key barriers and bottlenecks across the five dimensions of exclusion. The literature review was drafted and a weighting system for identifying the key barriers in each of the thematic areas was used to help focus the work. Studies which were recent in nature including large scale government led survey work along with more qualitative research provided a deeper understanding of the barriers from a historic and sociological perspective. Both academic peer reviewed material and more “grey” development practitioner/civil society generated literature was used in this analysis.

The profiles of OOSC in Chapter 2 reveal that the significant predictor of exclusion from education of Ghana’s preschool age (1DE), primary age (2DE) and lower secondary age (3DE) children includes: parental education level, family socioeconomic status, living arrangements and sibling size. The main factors which inhibit full participation and completion once children enter school and are at risk of dropping out at primary (4DE) and lower secondary (5DE) relate to: school readiness, late entry, socioeconomic status and some negative socio cultural practices. Chapter 2 finds that Ghana’s excluded children who are out of school are mainly living in rural areas, from the poorest families (37.8%: quintile 5), mainly girls in the majority of regions at the upper primary and lower secondary level, coming from large families with more than 3 children and having at least one child 0-4 years of age. The children who are excluded from Ghana’s basic education system are also living within particular household arrangements such as: fostered to a close relation, lost a parent/mother, living with grandparents etc. The parents or caregivers who are responsible for these children often have less than 4 years of education and are considered to be in the “educational poverty zone” and/or may only have up to lower secondary level.

A growing body of evidence suggests that there is a very strong regional poverty dimension to exclusion once we “look below the surface” at the district levels (Hartwell et al. 2006). Poverty research in Ghana continues to clearly identify the regional areas and rural poverty pockets where OOSC are mainly found (Korboe et al., 2011). Chapter 2 indicates that over 330,000 OOSC children are found in the three northern regions. The Western region (104,763), Central (98,176) and Volta (96,002) regions also have the highest poverty rates throughout the country (GLSS5, 2008). For instance, girls of primary school age in northern Ghana are three times more likely to be out of school than their southern counterparts.

Chapter 2’s statistical analysis confirms many of the conclusions reached during the last 20 years of research and helps to weight the barriers which are discussed in this Chapter with two exceptions. The findings from the qualitative analysis suggest that the school and learning conditions of the poor,

although under researched, have implications on children's access and participation at school. Poor school quality, particularly the absenteeism rates of teachers, and the poor learning outcomes, influences parental decisions regarding sending and keeping children in school (Seidu, 2010; Akyeampong, 2007; Hunt, 2007). Although statistical analysis related to the gender profiles of primary aged children who are out of school does not suggest tremendous differences at the national aggregate level, qualitative research does suggest that gender makes a tremendous difference as to whether a child will enter or stay in school in some regions of the country (Upper West, Upper East, Northern and Volta) (FAWE, 2011; Associates for Change, 2011; WFP, 2010a).

The aim of this Chapter is to identify key barriers which restrict children from accessing and participating in schooling across Ghana. The Chapter is organized using the key barriers identified in the literature and presented in the methodological framework. Studies undertaken in Ghana and other parts of Africa suggest that the main reasons for children being out of school at primary and lower secondary levels can be categorized into four main areas: sociocultural, poverty/economic, school supply side and governance-related barriers. National survey work in Ghana suggests that the main reasons for non-attendance of children is the interrelationship between direct and indirect costs of school participation, lack of parental awareness of the need for education and the poor quality of schooling (Ghana Statistical Service 2006). The following Chapter explores these factors in greater detail while attempting to tie them to OOSC profiles across the 5 dimensions of exclusion presented in Chapter 2.

3.2. Sociocultural Demand Side Barriers and Bottlenecks

A large body of literature in Ghana demonstrates how sociocultural values acts as a major barrier to school enrolment, retention and completion, in particular, for girls, children with disabilities, orphans and other vulnerable children (Associates for Change, 2011; UNESCO, 2010; Kane, 2004). This section explores how sociocultural factors directly and/or indirectly affect children out of school and children at risk of dropping out. Existing literature in Ghana reveals that negative perceptions, cultural patterns and practices at household and community level continue to prevent children from participating in school (Korboe et al., 2011; Odonkor, 2007; Casely-Hayford, 2005). Table 3.1 below summarizes key sociocultural barriers to schooling.

Table 3.1. Sociocultural barriers to schooling

BARRIER TYPE	FACTORS	DIMENSIONS OF EXCLUSION (DE)				
		1DE	2DE	3DE	4DE	5DE
Sociocultural barriers	1. Lack of child's interest in schooling		√		√	√
	2. Lack of parental awareness concerning the value of schooling; parental illiteracy		√		√	√
	3. Negative beliefs/values towards girls' education		√	√	√	√
	4. Fosterage		√	√	√	√
	5. Early Marriage			√	√	√
	6. Teenage pregnancy			√	√	√
	7. Negative attitude towards the disabled and low value placed on their schooling	√	√	√	√	
	8. Verbal, physical and sexual abuse of children in the home and in the community.		√	√	√	√

Table 3.1 above shows that once a child enters and continues to complete primary schooling, the factors which prevent them from transitioning to lower secondary become more economic in nature and are influenced less by sociocultural factors (except for some girls in some ethnic groups). Children at early childhood age are mainly affected by the belief that they should remain with their mothers or another relative until they can walk the distance to school and take care of themselves

(1DE). The analysis above also suggests that children in the 2DE and 4DE zones (particularly girls) are most affected since almost all the socio cultural factors impede on their access and retention at school.

3.2.1. Lack of Child's Interest in Schooling

Recent Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (CWIQ) data confirms that one of the main reasons children report not attending school is their lack of “interest” in schooling since they found schooling “useless” (GSS, 2006). This was confirmed in more recent studies by Alhassan (2010) as part of the Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE) work in Ghana which suggests that low teacher qualifications, limited classroom preparation and poor teacher performance in relation to classroom instructional practice results in the poor quality of education delivery. This has a direct effect on student interest, attendance and retention in Ghana (4DE and 5DE).

The language of instruction is also a key barrier to child participation and a source of exclusion at the primary level. When children fail to become proficient in the basics of literacy in the language of instruction, they become frustrated and lose their interest in learning. Abadzi's (2006) research on Africa best documents the importance of mother tongue literacy among early primary grade learners and has had significant impact on the design of programming in Ghana (e.g. National Accelerated Literacy Programme NALAP). Evaluation work across Ghana suggests that the lack of awareness among teachers, and failure to implement language policies, continue to restrict child participation and retention particularly at upper primary levels (Hartwell et al., 2010). Individual motivational factors and lack of interest in schooling are closely related to the quality of education provided in schools, which are discussed in details under supply-side barriers and bottlenecks.

3.2.2. Lack of Parental Awareness and Other Parental Factors

Lack of parental awareness of the importance of schooling continues to remain one of the greatest barriers to children's non-enrolment in Ghana, coupled with sociocultural norms which often undervalue girls and children with disabilities' ability to participate and achieve in school (Iddrisu et al., 2010). Non-enrolment of girls and children with disabilities remains a significant value based/attitudinal barrier preventing many parents from fully accepting that their children can benefit from integration into the formal school system and/or that the child can enrol in complementary or special needs education centres (Iddrisu et al 2010; Casely-Hayford, 2000; Avotri et al., 1999).

Low rates of educational attainment and literacy achievement among parents of OOSC, particularly mothers with children in the DE1 to DE 3 zones in Ghana's endemic poverty pockets, continue to play a major role in children's enrolment. The findings from Chapter 2 suggest that Ghanaian parents must attain levels at least commensurate to senior high school (SHS), beyond 9 years, in order to make a substantive difference to their children's enrolment and participation in basic schools. Reddy and Sinha (2010) argue that children's participation in school depends to a large extent on the parental decision making, which is the most influential factor in sustaining school participation at upper primary (4DE) and lower secondary school (5DE).¹⁶ They argue that if parents are educated and they recognize the quality and potential educational outcomes of schooling, they are more likely to assist children to enter and stay in school.

Another issue related to the high risk of children dropping out of school (4DE and 5DE) is the lack of parental support among children in endemic poverty zones (RECOUP¹⁷, 2010). Parents from poverty endemic areas, both rural and urban, often lack the ability to provide the emotional, social and economic support for their children to enrol and stay in school. Parental support for schooling is a widespread factor in ensuring that the necessary environment for school participation is sustained. A growing body of literature in Ghana points to the inter-relationship between the lack of parental support and the tendency among children to drop out particularly in endemic poverty areas (Korboe et al., 2011; GNECC, 2009; Casely-Hayford and Ghartey, 2007).

¹⁶This is based mainly on the India context.

¹⁷RECOUP: The Research Consortium on Outcomes to Education and Poverty, A DFID Funded Research project involving several partners including the University of Cambridge, University of Oxford and Edinburgh across four countries including Ghana; Research in Ghana was led by Associates for Change (AfC), Ghana.

A key enabling factor to school participation is the link between parental perceptions of the benefits and outcomes of schooling/child's cognitive achievement and their desire to keep children in school (Reddy and Sinha, 2010). Parents who do not see the immediate and long term benefits of sending their children to school due to their experience of poor quality education and/or where their children do not meet the social and economic success markers in the community, are unlikely to continue to invest (Casely-Hayford et al., 2009; Reddy and Sinha, 2010). An expanding array of qualitative literature points to the fact that poor quality schooling is fuelling an exit in the system, particularly among parents who have experienced more than one cohort of children leaving school unable to find jobs, and unable to attain the educational learning success and other key benchmarks in the family/community. When coupled with the need for farm labour, parents are unlikely to see the immediate and long term benefits of sending their children to school (Casely-Hayford et al., 2009; Lloyd, 1994; Stephens, 1998; Wolf, 1997).¹⁸ The education quality factor is further discussed in the section on supply side factors.

3.2.3. Negative Beliefs and Values towards Girls' Education

"Women's traditional roles immensely influence parental attitudes towards girls' education, culminating in the invariable discrimination against the girl child in Ghana. Women are traditionally perceived as nurturing beings who do not need any skills or knowledge from education to perform their gender roles, hence the negative attitude. Usually girls are sent into petty trading and other ventures to help raise funds for the education of the boys." (Avotri et al, 1997 p.38).

There are several key negative sociocultural beliefs and values which continue to restrict children's entrance and retention at primary school in Ghana. These beliefs stem from the family's sociocultural context, the lines of authority, inheritance patterns¹⁹ and the role of children in the parent's old age (Casely-Hayford, 2005; Casely-Hayford, 2000).

The global literature on access to education suggests that the main deterrent on female access and retention in education is the fundamental cultural bias in favour of male education. The widespread pattern of patriarchal systems of social organization, customary early marriage and the incidence of early pregnancy (in or out of marriage), and a general low regard for the value of female education, combine to adversely affect the participation of girls and women in formal education (Casely-Hayford, 2007; Kane, 2004; Casely-Hayford, 2002; Brock and Cammish, 1997). The patrilineal systems of inheritance practiced in many parts of Ghana²⁰ hinders girls' access to education and remains a key barrier to children's schooling (Rolleston, 2010; Avotri et al., 1999).

In patriarchal and patrilineal communities, such as those found in the northern regions of Ghana where education of boys is preferred to that of girls, the incidence of school exclusion and drop out is found mainly among girls. Boys are expected to inherit from their fathers and therefore, their education is of higher value for investment. Boys are expected to become an asset to the family, while educating girls is not seen as a strategic investment since they will eventually be given out in marriage and no longer "belong to the family but to her husband." The investment and funds parents spend on a girl's education therefore, will not directly benefit the parents and is often seen as a loss to the family (GNECC, 2008; GNECC 2009).

Parental perceptions and attitudes towards education, as influenced by the sociocultural systems of inheritance, customary marriage and property ownership, place Ghanaian women and girls at a significant disadvantage in relation to family educational investment (Casely-Hayford, 2005; Avotri 1999). The negative sociocultural beliefs and values in relation to female education have a significant impact on intergenerational mechanisms towards educating the next generation of children. Consequently, factors which are barriers to girls at the 2DE and 3DE stages require exceptional support and transformational change among parents to move away from the traditional norms proscribed by their culture and community.

¹⁸These findings conform to research by Reddy and Sinha (2010) based on the Indian context.

¹⁹ Patrilineal or matrilineal

²⁰ Particularly the Northern Region and parts of the Volta Region

3.2.4. Fosterage

Rolleston's (2009:38) study on fosterage in Ghana found that fostered children are 7% less likely to enter or attend basic school in Ghana compared to the household head's biological children. When examining the progress of fostered children, taking into account background indicators and contextual factors, the relative likelihood of fostered children completing primary school was only 28%, and a 19% likelihood of completing secondary school. Rolleston's study suggests that a child's living arrangement (particularly fosterage) was directly related to lower levels of access and that fosterage in northern Ghana was directly associated with barriers at the 1DE and 2DE and 3DE (Rolleston, 2010). Once a fostered child is in lower secondary, they are more likely to continue to senior high school (SHS) than when a child had not even been enrolled. Studies on School for Life (SfL), an organization that delivers complementary forms of education to OOSC, reveals that the integration of fostered girls in basic education in the north has resulted in high levels of SHS attainment among this group due to their determination once given that "second chance" (Casely-Hayford and Ghartey, 2007).

3.2.5. Early Marriage

The practice of early marriage, which often leads to early aged pregnancy, remains another significant barrier for girls within the 3DE, 4DE and 5DE who are out of school or at risk of dropping out. This is particularly the case for children from Ghana's Northern and Western Regions at upper primary and lower secondary (Rolleston, 2010; Odonkor, 2007; Acheampong, 2007; Avotri et al, 1999). Early marriage can be a result of parental cultural norms, social pressure within the community, and the inability of parents to take care of the girl's basic needs. Studies in Ghana reveal that out-of-schoolgirls between 12-15 years of age and those at lower secondary level (JHS) are at risk of dropping out and remain a key target for early marriage and pregnancy. The requirement of a girl to conform to her parents' wishes even though it may have a detrimental impact on her education is still practiced in many parts of Ghana. Certain ethnic groups in northern Ghana pressure girls to adhere to communal expectations that have a significant influence on their social status as women within the society.²¹

Another dimension of the causes of early marriage and pregnancy is the "sugar daddy" phenomenon which often occurs in regions where there is resource extraction and other viable income generating activities within the population. Parental inability to cater for basic school needs (particularly at JHS) has often led to girls turning to outsiders for assistance to provide clothing, food and school fees across both rural and urban settings (FAWE, 2011; Casely-Hayford and Wilson, 2001). Another related sociocultural practice in the Upper East is child betrothal, in which female children are promised at a young age for marriage. This practice often interrupts a girl's upper primary or JHS education causing her to drop out. These practices continue despite Ghana's Child Rights Act, which has not been fully implemented in several parts of the country (Casely-Hayford, 2004).²²

3.2.6. Teenage Pregnancy

One of the key causes of dropout, particularly in rural areas of Ghana, is teenage pregnancy, which mostly affects girls at the JHS (5DE). Girls are often subjected to peer-pressure to experiment in early sexual activity and/or become pregnant due to the transactional sex with a boy or man who is providing financial support (Casely-Hayford, et al. 2001). Teenage pregnancy among girls at the basic education level in Ghana is well documented and continues to remain high according to the recent Demographic Health Survey (RECQUP, 2010; FAWE, 2011; FAWE, 1999) and constitutes one of the key exclusion factors for schooling.²³ GDHS data suggest that the age of first sexual encounter

²¹ This is reinforced by the "kayayoo" trend to acquire basic capital for marriage and the migration of young girls (12-15 years) to urban centres in Ghana in search of menial work. Kayayoo" is a term used in Ghana which refers to the group of young girls often between 12 to 15 year of age who migrate from northern Ghana in search of work in the large cities of Kumasi and Accra. Often they end up working as head porters in the urban markets and then return to the north on a seasonal basis.

²² The Ghana Child Rights Act places the legal age of marriage at 18 for girls and 21 for boys.

²³ A recent FAWE (2011) study finds that over 45% of JHS girls in one district in the Eastern Region are actively engaged in sexual activity (age between 13-14). The study also finds that they are more sexually active than their SHS counterparts. This study also suggests that there is a high degree of rape and there is an awareness of the risks involved when being sent on "errands".

in Ghana is between 11-13 years of age. It also suggests that 23.4% of girls with no education between 15 and 19 years of age have had a live birth; 18.8% of girls with primary schooling have had a live birth and only 7% with JHS and 1.3% with SHS attainment have had a live birth. These results suggest that the problem starts at the upper primary level of education and that as girls' transition through higher levels of education, they put off their sexual activity partly as a result of increased ambition and self-awareness of their capacities to succeed.

The FAWE research studies spawned debate on re-entry policies for pregnant girls in Ghana, but it is not clear to what extent this is being practiced at the primary level and JHS level of education. A forthcoming study by FAWE on adolescent sexual reproductive health and rights among Ghanaian children will further shed light on this issue. Programs which are designed to assist young girls prevent or put off their first sexual encounter and/or pregnancy should be of the highest priority for the MOE, Ministry of Health (MOH) and GoG. There are certain structural barriers and stigmatization of pregnant teenage girls as most schools refuse to allow them to continue. However, many young girls opt not to continue in school, although more recent studies by FAWE suggest this might be changing (FAWE, 2011; Dunne, 2005).

3.2.7. Negative Attitudes towards Children with Disabilities

The current social and communal attitudes towards impairment and disability suggest that there is a significant barrier to access for children with disabilities, particularly in high poverty contexts of Africa (Croft, 2010). Societies' negative attitude towards educating children with disabilities and their inability to see the value of education for a child with disabilities was investigated as part of the RECOUP research project in Ghana. It was found that a high degree of stigmatization continues to be associated with disability in Ghanaian communities, often resulting in children being hidden in the home or prevented from attending school (Idrissu et al., 2010). UNICEF/MICS (2006) results found that 16% of Ghanaian children between the ages of 2-9 years of age had at least one form of disability. Recent studies in Ghana suggest that children with disabilities in northern rural Ghana are viewed by parents as not having any or a very limited capacity to attend school (Idrissu et al., 2010). These perceptions often limit the number of children with disabilities attending school and act as a barrier in schools where teachers and head teachers do not promote inclusive education (AfC, 2010). This barrier usually affects children within all five DE's, but particularly in entry to pre-primary and primary education. However, access to education for children with disabilities in Ghana is gradually changing, with more awareness and the opening up of inclusive education strategies.

3.2.8. Verbal, Physical and Sexual Abuse of Children at School and in the Community

Another factor that leads children to drop out at the primary (4DE) and JHS (5DE) levels is the negative experience of schooling among Ghanaian children due to abuse in the classroom and at home. Abuse in school can often lead to children, particularly girls, feeling marginalized and excluded in the classroom and eventual drop out (Leach and Mitchell, 2006; Boakye et al., 1999). Studies on children's perceptions of the schooling experience across four sites in northern and southern Ghana from 2005 to 2010 suggest that one of the main memories youth have of their experience of schooling, and the reasons for their eventual drop out from upper primary, was their treatment in school along with their lack of parental care and household poverty (RECOUP, 2010). The research by RECOUP in southern Ghana suggests a complex relationship of non-attendance and exclusion based on the child's lack of parental care demonstrated by hunger in the classroom, lack of school uniforms, and negative experiences at school (verbal abuse and chastisement for coming late on a regular basis). Much less evidence is available on the impact of child-related abuse at the home and community levels.

Recent findings suggest that sexual exploitation and abuse issues within schools are widespread, but often unrecognized problems in countries like Ghana (Leach and Mitchell, 2006). Gender-based violence (GBV) in schools across Africa and Ghana is well documented as a factor having a negative impact on the retention of children, particularly girls in school (Leach and Mitchell, 2006). Acts of gender violence often go unreported and unpunished in African schools. Students and parents often do not report incidents of gender-based violence and abuse due to fear of victimization, punishment, stigmatization and ridicule, since violence is often "seen as an acceptable and inevitable part of school life". By tolerating and ignoring such acts, school authorities are implicitly sanctioning and helping to perpetuate this practice (Leach and Mitchell, 2006).

Recent studies on child sexual abuse in schools suggest that approximately 14% of school children between 14-15 years of age (5DE) have been sexually abused in Ghana (CRECCENT, 2009). The study found that the main perpetrators of child sexual abuse include: classmates (89%), teachers (21%) and relatives (13%). Only 30% of victims told someone that the abuse was negatively affecting the children's participation in school learning activities and most children reported that they were unable to concentrate in class. Studies in Ghana suggest that there is very limited parental and community support for children who are abused at school level; to the extent that some household attempt to protect the perpetrator instead of their own child (Dunne, 2005).

Studies by Leach and Fiscian et al., (2003) also suggest that since the school environment is often seen by parents as safe and protective, it can also be a place where sexual abuse problems continue to be overlooked.²⁴ Many studies on sexual abuse in Ghanaian schools revealed that school-based sexual abuse is widespread, especially at lower secondary school and upper secondary school (Agbenyega, 2006 and CRECCENT, 2009). Agbenyega (2006) reveals that girls are more vulnerable than boys to sexual abuses in school (girls to boy prevalence ratio is 11:9) and children within the ages of 14-16 years were most at risk. When sexually abused children were asked how they felt about school after being abused, girls said: they did not enjoy school any more (100%); were afraid of the perpetrator (73%); and were unable to concentrate in class (58%). Boys stated that they were afraid of impregnating the perpetrator (60%) and felt uncomfortable any time they saw the perpetrator (57%) (Agbenyega, 2006). Studies in the early part of 2000 suggest that senior educational authorities at regional and district levels continued to deny and mask the problems of sexual abuse in Ghanaian schools, despite evidence of its prolonged and abusive pattern among some head teachers across most regions of the country (Fiscian et al, 2003). These abusive environments can dissuade both parents and children from enrolling and attending primary and JHS.

3.3. Economic Demand Side Barriers

The main economic demand side barriers related to children out of school (all DEs) addressed in this section are: child and household poverty; the direct costs of education including school fees and other basic needs; indirect costs and opportunity costs of schooling such as the need for labour in the household and issues concerning child labour; family livelihood and pressure on resources; and peculiar or seasonal factors such as death of a person, disasters, migration, etc. Although the depth and significance of these economic barriers varies by gender, region and household wealth profile, some general trends can be found which persist across Ghanaian communities and relate specifically to the OOSC profiles described in Chapter 2. Table 3.2 below illustrates how children across all the exclusion zones are affected by household poverty, the direct and indirect costs of schooling along with other economic factors including household and child labour activities.

The economic factors often work together, bringing about high rates of household vulnerability, which can be effected with the slightest economic shock causing drop out and/or preventing other children from enrolling. Parents in endemic poverty situations have to make strategic and hard decisions, which bring about the least risk when deciding on which children can go to school. More flexible educational arrangements which adjust to the needs, limitations and timing of these household are likely to be the most effective.

Key barriers discussed in this section relate to all five DE's and include: family size and affordability of schooling; the direct and indirect costs of schooling; persistent child labour activities; household migration patterns; hunger in the classroom; and loss of economic earning by parent.

²⁴There is growing evidence in Ghana that the problems of verbal, physical and sexual abuse in schools is widespread and affects a large proportion of children in school (CRESCENT/Sabaa, 2009; Leach et al., 2003). The issues of sexual abuse of female pupils by both male teachers and male pupils; sexual abuse of male pupils by female teachers and female pupils resulting in pregnancy, absenteeism or drop out is well documented (Hunt 2008).

Table 3.2. Economic demand side barriers to schooling

BARRIER TYPE	FACTORS	DIMENSIONS OF EXCLUSION (DE)				
		1DE	2DE	3DE	4DE	5DE
Economic Demand Side Barriers	1. Family size and affordability of schooling	√	√	√		
	2. Direct costs to schooling		√	√	√	√
	3. Indirect and opportunity cost of schooling				√	√
	4. Child labor				√	√
	5. Household Migration and other economic /agricultural factors		√	√	√	√
	6. Child hunger in classroom	√	√			
	7. Loss of parental economic earnings (death, divorce/separation)	√	√	√	√	√

3.3.1. Poverty Profile in Ghana

Household poverty in general, and its implications at the child and family levels, is probably the largest documented barrier which restricts Ghanaian children’s participation in schooling across all the five dimensions of exclusion.²⁵ Before embarking on this section, a contextual analysis outlining the key differences in Ghana’s socioeconomic/poverty profile from a regional perspective is necessary. Ghana’s poverty profile reveals that at least 45% of the country’s population is below the poverty line²⁶ with the vast majority of the poor living in the three northern regions. Poverty levels in the Upper West are as high as 81%, 73% in the Upper East and 56% in the Northern Region (UNDP, 2010; World Bank, 2011a; Ghana Statistical Service 2008). Regional inequality remains significant with an average per capita income in the Northern Region 2-4 times lower than elsewhere in Ghana, while inter-regional income inequality has continued to account for about one fifth of total inequality in Ghana (DFID, 2009). The enrolment and retention data presented in Chapter 2 suggests that the highest proportions of out-of-school children are also found across the three northern, Volta and Central regions.²⁷ These are also the same regions where poverty and food insecurity is high, and rural livelihoods are vulnerable due to subsistence farming activity.

Poverty in Ghana remains predominantly a rural phenomenon as 86% of the population living below the poverty line are in rural areas (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008). Poverty is also characterised by regional, gender and livelihoods differences with a higher proportion of women living under the poverty line and structural inequalities such as access to land, property and family assets negatively affecting the household poverty profile (WFP, 2010a; Korboe et al, 2011; Ghana Statistical Service 2008). Studies in Ghana suggest that populations experience poverty in different ways due to spatial, gender and social class inequalities²⁸.

Chapter 2 concludes that children from the poorest wealth quintile are less likely to access school or remain in school until the end of primary education. The World Bank’s (2010) assessment of Ghana’s education system indicates that the most deprived districts also contain the highest proportions of children out of school, with lower NER compared to more endowed districts (World Bank, 2011a). Existing evidence suggests that children in areas with higher socioeconomic status at the district and locality have better learning outcomes and achievement rates based on NEA results compared to

²⁵ Poverty has always been a significant reason cited for non-attendance in schooling according to the latest GLSS and CWIQ reports (GSS, 2008; GSS, 2005).

²⁶ 53.6% of Ghanaians live on less than \$ 2 per day and 30% living on \$ 1.25 per day (UNDP, Human Development report on Ghana, 2009).

²⁷ Ranging between 46% to 27% of OOSC.

²⁸ The 2010 Participatory Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment (PPVA) suggests households experience poverty in different ways; some households are threatened with starvation on a daily basis, others are “wading in and out of poverty” but unable to build up significant asset holdings. The study suggests that child poverty manifests itself through: child hunger, child neglect, irregular and non-attendance of children at school and child labour in the form of children acting as maid servants and farm workers for survival.

those in deprived districts (World Bank, 2011a; Etse, 2008). The final conclusions of the CREATE studies suggest that locality (regionality, rural) along with context, were major factors influencing whether children could access primary schooling and remain in school and complete the full primary and JHS education (Este, 2008; Akyeampong, 2007).

3.3.2. Family Size and Affordability of Schooling

Ghana is recognized as having one of the highest fertility rates in sub Saharan Africa (at 3.68%²⁹) and has had limited success in restricting family size through awareness campaigns and family planning programmes for parents. Large family size is one of the key barriers for out-of-school children due to its effect on a family's economic capacity and their ability to support "all children" in school. Large family size requires that parents engage in child selection as to who goes to school (Rolleston, 2009). Ghanaian households within the poverty quintiles are usually characterized by large family sizes. As Chapter 2 indicates, the ability of children to stay in school is challenged when children are from families with more than 3 children and where one/two children are between 0-4 years of age. Some children have to drop out to help care for and feed those who remain in school. Older siblings in these situations often stay out of school in order to work and support the upkeep of their younger siblings as well as the entire family. In most cases, girls have to stay at home to help cater to younger children since girls' education is generally undervalued as discussed earlier.

Studies by Lloyd (1994) and Casely-Hayford (2000) suggest that children are strategically selected based on the household labour needs and capabilities of the child to contribute economically to family income. In some sociocultural contexts, age and child placement in the family has a significant bearing on who will attend and stay in school and who will likely have to stop schooling over time. These studies suggest that parents strategically select the children who appear less capable on the farm to attend school, particularly in the northern region where farm activities are vital to family survival (Casely-Hayford, 2000).

3.3.3. Direct Costs of Schooling

The inability of households to pay school fees is a very common reason for non-attendance and non-enrolment in primary education.³⁰ Studies in the 1990's on school enrolment and attendance in Ghana suggest that the main reason for non-attendance in Ghanaian schools was school fees (see Boakye, et al. 1997; Avotri et al., 1999). Fees represent a significant proportion of household spending, although this proportion varies depending on the wealth quintile (WB, 2010). The proportion of school fees as a component of household income is highest among the poorest households (GLSS 5; World Bank 2004). Recent government policies, the abolition of school fees for the first 11 years of schooling and the introduction of capitation grant, have made a tremendous impact on reducing and even eliminating the direct cost of schooling for Ghanaian parents (SEND, 2008; MOE/ESPR 2010). Despite the government's efforts to reduce direct costs of schooling there are still other direct costs which constrain enrolment and keep children out of school. The costs of basic school requirements such as school uniforms and exercise books are still high for poor households to provide, and often deter parents from sending children to school (GNECC, 2008; CREATE 2007; Avotri et al. 1999; Boakye et al. 1997).

Although the introduction of the capitation grant has increased the participation of children and reduced the direct costs of education, it is inadequate and often irregularly sent to schools (CDD, 2010; World Bank, 2007; SEND, 2008). Head teachers often resort to other means of raising funds to finance essential school activities such as the printing of test papers and maintenance requirements (Korboe et al., 2011; CDD, 2010). School fees are particularly a barrier for parents and children at the JHS level of education, as parents withdraw their children from school or prevent them from transitioning to JHS since they are unable to pay the direct costs of schooling. Parental inability to pay schooling costs increases child vulnerability to exclusion and drop out, particularly at the JHS level of education where some direct school fees are still paid (5DE) (Casely-Hayford et al., 2009).³¹ The relatively high costs involved at the secondary school education level are also a major deterrent to

²⁹ Based on World Bank Country Indicators, 2008.

³⁰ Before the elimination of school fees, the inability to pay school fees was the most common reason for non-enrolment and dropout in Ghana (GSS, 2006; Boakye, 1997).

³¹ Examination fees at the JHS levels are still being paid.

sending children from poor households to SHS (WFP, 2010b). Sutherland-Addy's (2004) research suggests that girls have a higher cost of education than boys. This is partially attributed to the high cost of girls' school uniform, appropriate underwear and sanitary protection during menstruation.³² The lack of financial support for girls to purchase their "basic needs" often has a negative impact on girls' confidence to attend school, particularly at puberty (Sutherland-Addy, 2004; FAWE, 2001; Avotri et al. 1999). Recent evaluation work on the Take Home Ration Programme in Ghana suggests that programmes which lower the direct and indirect costs to parents can make a significant impact on ensuring child attendance and retention at JHS and upper primary level³³.

3.3.4. Opportunity Costs of Schooling for the Family

Not only does keeping children in school mean foregoing their labour and the opportunity to address the households' immediate needs, more effectively, it also means having to sink scarce finances into a venture which at best yields uncertain prospects. Also, children in school are more likely to miss out on the opportunity to acquire traditional skills in farming, shea butter production and other cottage industries." (Korboe et al., 2011, p.62)

Opportunity costs for the family is probably the greatest factor in deciding whether a child will attend school or not in Ghana. The indirect costs of sending children to school include feeding, transport and the forfeited income and employment prospects for a family. Poor households in Ghana often incur indirect economic costs by sending their children to school, who would otherwise work on the family farm or perform essential household tasks such as collecting water/firewood or looking after younger children. Global literature suggest that the indirect costs are often more critical to poor households than direct fees charged (World Bank, 2009; World Bank, 2004).

Household assets and consumption levels are found to be closely associated with children's participation in schooling and clearly affect the affordability of education. These effects rise with the level of education, given that direct and opportunity costs are much greater at the lower secondary level than at the primary level (Rolleston, 2009). Parents may initially enrol children at pre-primary level as a form of day care to enable them to have enough time to work. However, as children progress through schooling, the family upkeep is contested with education costs due to high poverty levels and low incomes (Korboe et al., 2011; WFP, 2010b).

Studies in Ghana also suggest that when children experience poor quality education, which prevents them from meeting the social and communal markers of success in attaining basic literacy and a decent paying "job", this impacts on a family's interest in sending other children to school (Casely-Hayford et al., 2009). Studies on child poverty reveal that it is a tremendous sacrifice for parents from poor households to support children in public education; particularly if the outcomes are limited literacy and numeracy attainment, and the inability to work in traditional farming activities within the family (GNECC, 2008; Korboe et al., 2011). This lack of integration within the family is the most significant outcome of schooling and potential risk factor for families investing in education, and often acts as a deterrent in communities with a history of poor learning outcomes among their youth (Casely-Hayford and Ghartey, 2007).

Rolleston (2009), Avotri et al (1999) and Hunt (2008) all find that the opportunity cost of schooling rises with age in Ghana. As children get older, the opportunity cost of school participation increases as the family forgoes the child's ability to contribute more towards the family survival through their labour activities on the farm, within the household and by engaging in income generating activities. The GDHS data analysed in Chapter 2 confirms that the school attendance rate declines drastically after age 15, especially among girls. This has implications on the age at which children are enrolled in school and can result in late entry and/or early drop out (Rolleston, 2009; Hunt, 2008). Rolleston, (2009), Hunt (2008) and Dachi et al. (2003) all argue that in most societies, child labour is indispensable to the survival of poor households, and that schooling represents a high opportunity

³² FAWE studies in the late 1990's suggest that the high cost of menstrual sanitary pads was deterring girls from regular participation at school and causes eventual drop out at the higher primary and JHS levels across Ghana. The study also sparked a concern and need for gender friendly toilets at the schools.

³³ At least 40,000 girls in the last 10 years have been able to access JHS education through the support of the WFP take home ration programme (WFP, 2010).

cost to those families sending children to school.³⁴ Studies suggest that the opportunity costs of girls' education are higher given the prevailing sexual division of labour that assigns women reproductive and domestic tasks along with economic responsibilities (Rolleston, 2009).

3.3.5. Child Labor

Child labour activities and its effect on the time and living arrangements of children are an important barrier for children out of school in Ghana (1DE to 3DE) and children at risk of dropping out of school (4DE and 5DE). Many Ghanaian children never join school or are at risk of dropping out because they are from contexts of extreme poverty where the survival of their family depends on the children's contribution to family livelihood and earnings.³⁵ Tasks that support the survival of the households are performed at the expense of children's participation in education and are a considerable barrier to children's schooling.

As presented in Chapter 2, UNICEF/MICS (2006) results found that 34% of Ghanaian children aged 5-14 were engaged in child labor activities. Children between the ages of 5-11 (39%) were more engaged in child labor activities compared to children between the ages of 12 to 14 (22%). Out of the 83% of children between 5-14 years of age attending basic schools in Ghana, 32% were also involved in child labor activities. Ghana has one of the highest rates of child labor in the developing world (UNICEF, 2010). The issue of child labor is more pronounced in rural areas and particularly among girls. Children in rural areas of Ghana are often withdrawn from school temporarily during the rainy season and allowed to return to school after the period. However, some children are permanently withdrawn to help support the family with their labor, particularly if a farming parent is ill (Korboe et al., 2011; Odonkor, 2007; Casely-Hayford, 2004).

Studies on child domestic work and fosterage by Apt et al. (2005) suggest that "parental poverty" resulting in the inability to pay school fees, support skills training, and provide food, shelter, clothing and other basic needs was the single most important factor pushing children into domestic work. The Domestic Work and Child Labour study (Apt et al., 2005) found that family poverty, large family size and the need for a family member to assist in the household were the main reasons for parents sending their children to another relation as domestic help. Most parents send children to another household in the hope that the child will be able to acquire their education and better feeding. However the study found that the children they send are often deprived of the opportunity for education, since they engage in work for long hours and have no time for formal schooling.

Children become increasingly vulnerable to child labor activities when they physically mature and can engage in hard labor. As a result, many poor school children end up on farms, carrying water/fetching firewood, cocoa and/or engaged in other marketing activities to help raise funds for sustaining the household at the neglect of education. This acts as a major barrier to retention in school (Korboe et al., 2011). Recent poverty studies in Ghana suggest that there is greater pressure on girls' labor at home with older girls from the poorest households often having to sacrifice school time to help with household chores (Korboe et al., 2011).³⁶ The cumulative effect of household chores on girls over time is their inability to concentrate in school and/or complete homework resulting in underachievement and eventual drop out (Korboe et al., 2011; NEA results, 2008, Avotri et al., 1999). Boys' work activities mainly entail herding and farm tasks. In northern Ghana, for instance, where there is only one farming season, children work on the farm in the early morning and after school, giving them little or no time for home work. This often results in tiredness during class lessons, affecting their performance in school. This was an important determinant as to whether they continued or dropped out of school (Korboe et al., 2011). The school proximity also affects children's work and schooling. Vuri (2007) finds in his analysis of the Ghana Living Standard Survey 1998-99 that the longer the travel time to school the more difficult is for children to reconcile work and school attendance. It indicates that the increased and eased access to school would have a significant impact on children's time use.

³⁴ Child labor has immediate and visible financial rewards especially in the unskilled informal sectors such as agriculture, domestic or market tasks. Rolleston (2009) finds that boys in the Northern Region (and the Upper East) become cow and goat herders in rural areas, while girls spend their time engaged in domestic tasks and caring for younger siblings.

³⁵ Most poor families rely on every family member to contribute to the family's survival particularly during times of harvest, planting seasons and other peak agricultural seasons (Odonkor, 2007; Casely-Hayford, 2004a).

³⁶ There are several proscribed roles in the Ghanaian rural household which are strictly female such as fetching water, cooking, and taking care of younger siblings.

There is also evidence that children engage in labor activities at the school level and are often asked by teachers to attend to their farms and carry water to the school (Casely-Hayford, 2004). Research by Odonkor (2007) indicates that limited time on task and the misuse of school learning time by teachers is a major barrier to child retention in the Western Region's rural cocoa growing areas. Teachers were found using children's labor during class time for: farming; carrying farm produce home; weeding around the teachers' houses; fetching water and firewood; carrying building materials like stones and pebbles; sand and bamboo poles; cracking palm kernels; going to buy food; and cooking/ washing dishes for teachers in their homes both during and after school hours (Odonkor, 2007). As a result, some parents prefer to utilize their own children's labor on their farms rather than allow them to go to school and "waste time" on the teachers' farm (Odonkor, 2007). Odonkor's (2007) work in the Western Region of Ghana also indicates that the demand for labor is greater when subsistence and commercial farming activities are combined, as is the case in the cocoa growing areas.³⁷ Apart from children being used as laborers by parents and teachers, there is also a practice of 'hiring' out child labor in return for cash. Children at the upper primary and JHS levels also hire their own labor out in order to pay for direct/indirect costs of schooling which can lead to truancy and drop out (Odonkor, 2007; Casely-Hayford, 2004).

3.3.6. Household Migration and Other Economic /Agricultural Factors

Another key determinant of child participation and retention in school is the seasonal migration patterns of parents and guardians, which can contribute to irregular attendance, low academic performance and eventual drop out of children from school (4DE and 5DE). Parents/guardians who move out of their places of origin to settle in non-residential communities for the purpose of farming, fishing, and other economic activities put their children at risk of dropping out of school. Periods in which they migrate often do not coincide with school holidays causing children to miss classes, making it difficult for them to cope with academic instruction (Korboe et al., 2011; Boakye et al., 1997).

When parents migrate with their children in search of work, children's schooling is the most affected component of household life. Children of short term adult migrants who travel with their parents frequently do not attend school for the months when they are away from home. Often older girls take care of their younger siblings and are at greater risk of dropping out. Family head migration without the children can also impact on children's education (WFP, 2010b). When parents are far apart for long periods, children can be severely affected emotionally due to the lack of remittances, which can create family stress in relation to children's education. Not having a parent around to monitor the child's progress can adversely affect their chances of succeeding in school. Children can decide on their own volition whether to attend school or not (Korboe et al., 2011). Studies indicate that in the Ashanti and Western Regions of Ghana, migration of children, especially from rural to urban areas, can increase their chances of better quality education (Odonkor, 2007). However, children almost always migrate to gain paid employment, which limits their educational chances of re-entry. Parents in most cases cannot afford to educate their children in urban areas since it is more expensive than in rural areas.

3.3.7. Child Hunger in the Classroom and Lack of Attention in Class

Another barrier to children at risk of drop out (4DE) is hunger experienced in the classroom or the parents' inability to ensure that the child is adequately fed before going to school (1DE and 2DE). International research suggests that malnutrition among young children of poor families may not just lower school attendance, but also impair long term cognitive development, learning capabilities and their eventual earning potential (Global Monitoring Report, 2010). When children are born into poor households where their basic needs such as food cannot be provided, they stand a greater chance of not being enrolled in school. If they are enrolled, children from poor households often have to battle with the issue of hunger coupled with a lack of attention in the classroom, which can eventually cause drop out from school (UNESCO, 2010). Studies by WFP in Ghana suggest that food insecurity and household poverty manifested in child hunger has a direct impact on school enrolment, child attendance and participation (WFP, 2004; WFP, 2010b). Both the RECOUP and CREATE projects in Ghana found that children who remain undernourished while attending school, often do not receive

³⁷ Western Region has one of the highest rates of OOSC next to the North and contains over 100,000 out-of-school children.

adequate nutrition at the home and are not able to succeed in school (Bundy et al., 2001). Although hunger in the classroom is not a well-researched factor in Ghana, it continues to be identified as a reason for non-attendance, lateness and poor participation among children in endemic poverty zones in the country (Korboe et al., 2011; WFP, 2010b).

The current global economic downturn, along with rising food and fuel prices, has increased the vulnerabilities that result from household poverty in Ghana (Global Monitoring Report, 2010, WFP 2010a). The Participatory Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment (Korboe et al, 2010) study revealed that poverty has left many children in northern Ghana hungry and too weak to even walk to school (Korboe et al., 2011). Children from poor households who cannot afford to provide food often go to school hungry in the morning or leave school early (at break) in search of food. Children in such situations have a low level of concentration on class lessons and often drop out in order to help out the family to feed themselves (Korboe, et al., 2011; UNESCO, 2010).

WFP's country programme evaluation, as well as studies on the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP), suggests that school feeding is one of the most effective ways to increase enrolment in schools across the three northern regions and in areas of endemic food insecurity (WFP, 2010a; SNV, 2009; SEND, 2008). Parents are often reliant on school feeding programmes to supplement their own food provisions. When programmes are not implemented efficiently at the school level due to pipeline supply breakages or mismanagement, children become vulnerable and may resort to labor activities rather than going to school (AfC, 2011; Korboe et al., 2011; WFP, 2010b). This issue is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

3.3.8. Loss of Economic Earning of a Parent

Chapter 2 suggests that the effect of the loss of a parent on the family livelihood can have a devastating effect on child access and participation in school. Loss of a mother has a significant effect on children's retention in primary and JHS levels of education (4DE and 5DE). Evidence from around Africa suggests that women in poor socioeconomic quintiles are responsible for the economic survival of the family. Hunt (2008) indicates that there are often gender dimensions to vulnerability/exclusion in schooling after parental bereavement. Girls often drop out of school to become caregivers to siblings. Orphaned³⁸ girls are often steered towards early marriage by their caregivers, which can lead to drop out. Sometimes children dealing with bereavement have to move into foster care, to new households and new schools. This disrupts schooling patterns and can be linked to periods of absenteeism, which can eventually lead to drop out (Hunt, 2008).

Studies in Ghana on out-of-school children also consistently point to the loss of either parent or the loss of economic earning of a parent as meaning the child drops out or results in non-enrolment (Korboe et al, 2010, World Bank 2010; UNICEF, 2010)³⁹. For instance, the PPVA study (Korboe et al, 2010) in Ghana clearly suggests that the death of a parent is a key barrier for retaining a child in school and the loss of a father can be a major cause of drop out for children in northern Ghana. In most cases, older children have to drop out of school to find an alternative means to cater for themselves and their younger siblings upon the death of their parents (Korboe et al., 2011). MOE's current policy recognizes that there are some very "needy children" in Ghana. The GoG provides a very small amount of funding to address these needs through the "needy children's" scholarship scheme, which gives some support to disadvantaged groups. However, it is a very small scale programme.

3.4. Supply Side Barriers and Bottlenecks

This section explores the key education supply indicators in Ghana related to the 5DE framework. The supply side factors that lead to children enrolling, staying in school and attending on a regular basis are complex and interwoven. Non or irregular enrolment and eventual drop out from school are caused by

³⁸Orphans within the Ghanaian context can often mean that the mother is not alive or both parents have passed away.

³⁹ Studies by Hunt (2008) also revealed that maternal orphans and foster children were more involved in economic activities and more likely to drop out of school than non-orphans. Orphans living without one of their surviving parent are more involved in work activities and less likely to stay in school compared to orphans who are not separated from their surviving parent.

a multiplicity of supply side factors which can be grouped into three main areas: the absence of school infrastructure and/or the long distance to school; the unavailability of child friendly resources including, sanitation facilities, textbooks and water; human factors such as the proportion of trained teachers, instructional time on task; and the teaching and learning processes involving the type of classroom methodology and language of instruction. These school and classroom conditions often lead to poor performance in school, loss of motivation for learning and eventual drop out, particularly in under resourced schools found in deprived rural areas of Ghana. For those yet to enter into school, these conditions can influence parents' decisions in sending children to school (Alhassan, 2010; Hunt 2008). The table below outlines the main supply barriers discussed in this section. The supply side barriers affecting the 1DE and 2DE as indicated in Table 3.3 are mainly related to distance to school and lack of school infrastructure along with the presence of a teacher. The supply side barriers that mainly affect children in the 4DE and 5DE zone include: the lack of infrastructural human and classroom methodology based barriers.

Table 3.3. Supply side barriers to schooling

BARRIER TYPE	FACTORS	DIMENSIONS OF EXCLUSION (DE)				
		1DE	2DE	3DE	4DE	5DE
Supply Side Barriers	1. Long distance to school	√	√		√	√
	2. Inadequate school infrastructure - Seating and writing Places in schools -Lack of basic water and sanitation facilities		√		√	√
	3. Non-availability of school toilets and water			√	√	√
	4. Inadequate/lack of teaching and learning materials			√	√	√
	6. Ineffective teacher supply, allocation and deployment			√	√	√
	7. Child friendly instructional practice and classroom management				√	√
	8. Language of instruction				√	√

3.4.1. Distance to School

When schools are far from a child's home it does not only affect their initial access to school, but creates a barrier to their retention, completion and transition to higher levels of schooling (lower secondary) (Hunt, 2008). The ability of young children to access pre-primary(KG) and primary education at the age appropriate level relates mainly to the lack of schools in rural deprived areas and the long distance to schools (beyond 1 or 2 kilometers). The limited access to pre-primary classrooms and a tendency of parents to send children to school at a late age (7 or 8 years of age) often relates to the distance which children will travel and their inability to travel long distances.⁴⁰ Distance to school can influence parental perception of safety particularly when there is no older sibling attending the same school. Enrolment of overaged children who have to wait until they are "mature enough to walk the distance" is often a consequence. Research shows that overaged children, 7-9 years of age, are more prone to drop out at the later stages of schooling (4DE and 5DE) (CREATE, 2007). Late age enrolment has also become a major barrier to age appropriate targets being met particularly at the primary level of education (2DE).

KG availability in Ghana is a major factor in non-enrolment of children at the pre-primary level (1DE). Recent studies suggest that the gap between KG availability and primary school availability is 12

⁴⁰ Long distances to school lead to delays in enrolment and non-enrolment of children within the 4-7 year age group. Long distances to school can contribute significantly to dropping out of school (Hunt 2008).

percentage points. The large increase in the number of KGs since 2006/07 has helped to narrow the supply gap due to policy reform in early childhood development (ECD) and the increase of private schools. However, qualitative data still suggests that there is a lack of access to KG schooling, particularly in rural areas where children walk long-distances to attend and parents are reluctant to send young children (Burwick et al., 2010).

International and national based studies reveal that inadequate school infrastructure restricts access to education and negatively impacts on child retention, particularly among the most deprived regions and districts of the country (Casely-Hayford, 2011; IBIS, 2010; Hunt, 2008, World Bank, 2004). According to the GLSS 5% of communities in Ghana are without primary schools within a 2km radius of the community and over 30% of communities do not have a school within their own community (Ghana Statistical Service, 2008). Many children have to walk long distances to school, which affects their punctuality, attendance and the quality of learning, particularly in rural and northern Ghana. Studies have also found that children will absent themselves from school if they know they will be severely punished if they are late (Associates for Change, 2011; GNECC, 2009).

Girls' enrolment in school is also negatively affected by school distance due to parents/guardians fear of sexual harassment, especially as they grow older (FAWE, 2011; Hunt, 2008). A study on the impact of providing bicycles for girls commuting long distances to school revealed that there was a 600% increase in girls' enrolment in some northern communities at upper primary and JHS (Boakye and Osei, 2004). The study also found that there is a positive correlation between distance and improvement in girls' enrolment and achievement rates; improvement in enrolment was highest amongst schools that were more than 5km from the community (Boakye and Osei, 2004). This will be discussed in more detail in the next Chapter on policies and strategies.

3.4.2. Inadequate School Infrastructure

Inadequate and poor school infrastructure and limited classroom space affect access to schooling particularly for Ghana's poorest children by deterring parents sending their children to school (UNICEF, 2010; Azeem, 2008). It can also have a negative effect on retention, particularly if the infrastructure is damaged over the course of the child's education (4DE and 5DE). Leaking roofs and structures that are unsafe in adverse weather can cause irregular school participation and attendance, as well as forced closure of schools during the rainy season. Parents, teachers and community members judge the quality of educational delivery by the presence of a well-constructed school and trained teachers (Lange, 2007). Studies on rural educational provision suggest that there are over 3,000 schools operating under trees in Ghana (GNECC, 2008). Inadequate provision of school infrastructure can also lead to classroom overcrowding, particularly where government social protection programming such as school feeding is targeted to deprived communities. This is likely to affect the achievement levels of pupils and could affect the interest of pupils in schooling (4DE and 5DE). There is also evidence that the school infrastructure is not well targeted to the poorest areas (World Bank, 2011a).

3.4.3. Seating and Writing Places in Schools

Deprived rural areas also face challenges in teaching and learning processes due to inadequate seating and writing places, which can lead to poor performance among children, loss of interest in schooling and eventual drop out (4DE and 5DE) (Associates for Change, 2011; GNECC, 2008a). Inadequate infrastructure in urban and rural schools often results in high levels of congestion in classrooms. In rural areas, the consequence is that different classes/grades are placed together in the same classroom. Due to the teachers' lack of multi-grade teaching exposure and orientation, the effectiveness of teaching and learning in these environments is greatly undermined. Table 3.3 below highlights, among other issues, the inadequacy of seating places per student in Ghana's public schools. Overcrowded classrooms also restrict the level of participatory teaching and learning which can take place, often preventing teachers from being able to engage children in small groups and restricting methods used to address children with learning difficulties (SEND, 2008; Korboe et al., 2011; AfC, 2011; Hartwell et al., 2010).

Table 3.4. Key Physical Resources at Regional Level in Public Schools 2009/10*

<i>Regions</i>	Schools with drinking water (%)	Schools with toilets (%)	Classrooms needing major repair (%)	Seating places per pupil (national norm: 1)	Writing places per pupil (national norm: 1)	Core textbooks per pupil (national norm: 3)
Ashanti	66	51	35	0.7	0.7	1.2
Brong Ahafo	54	45	42	0.6	0.6	1.2
Central	61	65	35	0.8	0.7	1.2
Eastern	59	52	40	0.8	0.7	1.2
Greater Accra	71	73	28	0.8	0.9	1.5
Northern	52	46	37	0.6	0.6	1.1
Upper East	62	56	30	0.5	0.5	1.3
Upper West	42	55	30	0.6	0.7	1.3
Volta	56	63	44	0.7	0.6	1.3
Western	65	40	40	0.7	0.6	1.2
National	59	53	37	0.7	0.7	1.2

Source: MOE EMIS 2009/10

*Note: Total for preschool, primary and lower secondary

According to the MOE annual sector performance reports, the provision of writing places has not improved in the last four years with inequitable resource distribution exacerbating the situation. There are large regional variations with the three northern, Brong Ahafo, Volta and Western regions experiencing the lowest number of places for both writing and seating arrangements (MOE, 2009; MOE, 2008a). The increased enrolment rates of 17% over the last five years is mainly due to the introduction of fee free basic education along with other social protection programmes including the Ghana School Feeding Programme and the capitation grant (World Bank, 2011a). Studies suggest that the large scale expansion of enrolment in Ghanaian schools has not been met with a planned increase in educational supply (Akyeampong, 2010).

3.4.4. Lack of Basic Water and Sanitation Facilities

The lack of toilet and potable water at school level is another main barrier to retention at the primary and JHS levels of education (4DE and 5 DE). In rural areas, learning time is often lost when pupils, especially girls, have to travel long distances to fetch water during school hours (GNECC, 2008; GNECC, 2009; Casely-Hayford, 2002). Lack of potable water has a greater effect on young children due to their reduced ability to withstand thirst.⁴¹ According to the 2009/10 MOE EMIS, potable water is accessible to 66.5% of Ghanaian primary schools and 67% of lower secondary schools. There are significant regional and geographical disparities in access to potable water in Ghanaian schools (see table 2.3 above). The three northern regions and the Volta Region have the lowest proportion of schools with access to potable water. In the Upper West Region, for instance, only 42% of schools have access to water compared with 74% in Greater Accra and 73% in the Ashanti Region. Fifty-nine percent of schools in deprived districts have access to potable water compared to 64% of schools in non-deprived districts (MOE 2009a).⁴² The poorly targeted areas are also those likely to have children, particularly girls, walking the longest distances for water during school hours (Casely-Hayford, 2002).

Lack of separate toilet facilities for girls is one of the main causes of absenteeism and school dropout among girls at upper primary and JHS in Ghana (FAWE, 2011; Pridmore 2007, GNECC 2009, Hunt 2008, Alhassan et al 2010). This is due to the special needs of preteen/teenage girls for a private,

⁴¹Children of preschool and lower primary age (1DE and 2 DE) tend to be more affected by the lack of availability of potable water although this can also affect girls due to their traditional role in collecting water. On average, access to potable water across the three levels of schooling increased by 17% between 2003 and 2007 but this started falling from 2008 (MOE, 2009b & 2008b).

⁴² GES policy demands that there is potable water within a 500 m of the school in order to ensure quality education.

safe environment, particularly during their menstrual cycle. Although access to toilets and potable water has improved since 2001/02 across all the three levels of schools, progress has been slow, particularly with regard to access to toilets (MOE 2008b). During the 2009/10 academic year, approximately 60% of pre-primary schools, 61% of primary schools and 62% of lower secondary schools in Ghana had toilets according to the EMIS data. There are gender differences in access to toilet facilities in Ghana, with boys having more access to toilet facilities than girls. In 2008/09, 67% of boys at primary level had access compared to 63% of girls. In addition, Ghana's deprived districts had less access to toilet facilities (MOE, 2008b).

Between 2005/06 to 2008/09, there was less than a 10% improvement in access to toilet facilities at basic school level in Ghana. Increases in toilet facilities were most pronounced at the lower secondary school level (JHS), with an increase of 9.3% recorded over a four year period compared with a 2.9% increase at primary level. This is likely to have impacted positively on girl's retention, thereby reducing the risk factors affecting 5DE. More notable improvements were observed with respect to access to potable water during this period. However, the level of access still remains highly inadequate.

3.4.5. Inadequate Teaching and Learning Materials

An adequate supply of textbooks and other teaching and learning materials (TLMs) is a prerequisite to effective teaching and learning. However, children at primary and JHS rarely have the full complement of core textbooks (MOE, 2010; WB, 2011). Most Ghanaian children at primary level have access to only one of the three core textbooks and at most two of the three textbooks at the JHS level (see Table 2.3). The disparities in text books follow the usual poverty and education deprivation profile, with under resourced classrooms mainly across the rural northern regions of the country.⁴³ The longitudinal data available indicates no improvement in the provision of textbooks to pupils within the past several years. In fact, it shows an actual fall in the pupil textbook ratio due to the rapid expansion of student enrolment. The financial analysis also suggests that there has been little funding available by the GoG for financing non salary components of the education budget due to the "crowding" out by personnel emoluments (Ghana Local Education Donor Group, 2011).

The presence of TLMs can enhance parental judgement of school quality, stimulating more interest in sending a child to school particularly at the KG and primary levels. Most importantly, the presence of TLMs can enhance instructional practice and learning outcomes particularly in under resourced environments where trained teachers are not available. As the demand for quality education is not matched by appropriate teaching and learning materials children are prone to dropping out of school (4DE and 5DE). Recent studies by USAID related to the implementation of the NALAP programme in Ghana also suggest that the poor management and usage of textbooks in Ghanaian classrooms is a significant challenge even in areas where textbooks and other TLMs are made available (Hartwell et al., 2010). For example, studies often reveal that head teachers do not release textbooks to pupils because they want to keep them clean or they are stored in locations outside the school premises that are not easily accessible (Hartwell et al 2010; USAID, 2004).

3.4.6. Inefficient Teacher Supply, Allocation and Deployment

Studies in Ghana have found that teacher factors often play a major role in children's entry and retention in school both directly and indirectly (USAID, 2004⁴⁴). The teachers' presence in the school as well as attitudes and behaviour (towards both the children and the community) are found to contribute to children's entry and retention at school (Associates for Change, 2011). Absenteeism, irregular attendance, lateness and indiscriminate use of corporal punishment by teachers are the main causes of irregular attendance and drop out among pupils according to a recent CREATE study (Alhassan et al 2010). Studies by Associates for Change on inclusive education in Ghana also suggest

⁴³ There are also significant disparities between rural, deprived areas of the three northern regions and the other areas of the country when it comes to the allocation of textbooks. These disadvantage zones have fewer books per children than the rest of the country (GNECC 2009; GNECC 2008; MOE 2008a). The latest World Bank (2011a) study in Ghana suggests the pupil-text book ratios are much worse in the north (3:1) as compared to the south (1:1).

⁴⁴ Quality Improvement in Primary Schools (QUIPS), 2005 Impact Assessment found that quality was one of the key issues when assessing overall student achievement and retention in schools across Ghana. The study also found that despite significant infrastructure and material resources placed in the schools, learning outcomes among children in deprived rural areas were difficult to sustain and identify after the project had ended.

that the presence of a trained and/or non-trained teacher, who is regular in attendance, is a key to parental commitment and interest in sending a child to school. Teacher absenteeism can have a major impact on risk factors for non-enrolment (1DE and 2DE) and dropping out at primary levels of schooling (4DE), particularly among pre-primary and primary school age children.

Quality education is critical for attracting and retaining pupils in schools. It is also imperative in meeting the expectation and aspirations of pupils, parents and the nation (Hunt, 2008, Casely-Hayford, 2010).⁴⁵ Quality is manifested in child performance and achievement levels, which in Ghana have been very low.⁴⁶ The teacher is an intrinsic part of education quality, and low achievement rates in the education system has been largely blamed on teacher availability and performance. Teacher deployment and performance has a strong bearing on all the dimensions of exclusion in the 5DE model. The most recent World Bank (2011a) analysis directly links the teacher's training status to children's enrolment and retention levels. When "poor" children experience poor quality education with poor learning outcomes, it negatively affects their own and possibly their younger siblings' entry and retention in school (Casely-Hayford, 2005; World Bank, 2011a).

Probably the most difficult challenge for communities with high proportions of OOSC are the consistent decrease in trained teachers deployed to the most deprived regions of the country (Otoo, 2011; World Bank, 2011a; Casely-Hayford, 2011). According to Lange (2007), parents (and children) mainly look at the number of teachers and their presence to determine if a child "would learn anything in school". The PPVA study (Korboe et al, 2010) also found that the availability of qualified trained teachers give parents confidence in the school and encourage them to continue investing in their child's education. The presence of a teacher also has an effect on girls' enrolment and retention, particularly when female teachers are present in rural areas (Casely-Hayford, 2007). Lange acknowledged that Ghanaian parents' perception of quality of education influences their decision whether to take children to school or not (Lange, 2007). The parents' desire for their children to transition to higher levels of education may also depend on the teacher's presence in the classroom and the interest that they show (Lange 2007).

Unfortunately, poor pupil teacher ratios particularly in relation to the numbers of trained teachers available across the most deprived districts of Ghana indicate that children who are already out of school and those at the highest risk of drop out are less likely to have access to trained teachers.⁴⁷ Less than 40% of the available trained teaching force is deployed across the three northern regions of Ghana. The World Bank (2011a) study found that Greater Accra, Ashanti, and Eastern Regions have teacher excesses while the three northern region and the Western Regions have severe deficits in teacher supply, especially trained teachers (World Bank, 2011a).⁴⁸ District Education Offices in the regions with significant trained teacher shortages fill the vacancies with untrained "pupil teachers" and National Youth Employment Personnel (NYEP). More recently, NGOs are supporting communities to hire their own community volunteer teachers and provide training through the government's "sandwich" or distance education programmes. Figure 3.1 above shows the proportion of trained teachers available in Ghana over the last 10 years.

Furthermore, contact hours or "teacher time on task" is unacceptably low in Ghana, with only 76.3 days of an official 197 days devoted to learning tasks which equates to 38.7% of the official teaching time used for learning (Abadzi, 2007). Teacher absenteeism remains a key challenge to ensuring quality education and retention among children at risk of dropping out. Teacher absenteeism rates are as high as 20% and teacher lateness at 29%. This is seriously affecting teacher performance and learning outcomes across Ghana (Abadzi 2007, CREATE 2008, and Alhassan et al 2010). As teacher absenteeism grows due to poor supervision and lack of disciplinary action to manage the

⁴⁵ The AfC study suggests that poor quality schooling particularly at the lower primary levels which results in children being unable to read and write at upper primary level was one of the main reasons for drop out or no- attendance in highly marginalised and in some highly under resourced schools (AfC, 2011).

⁴⁶ Only 20% of pupils reach proficiency in Primary 3 English (MOE 2009b).

⁴⁷ Consequently, there are also a large number of pupils to one trained teacher (PTTR) and this is worse at preschool level where the pupil to trained teacher ratio is more than 130:1. Again there are large inequities between rural and urban areas, between the northern and southern sectors of the country and between the deprived non deprived districts. The proportion of untrained teacher is very high due to the fact that most trained teachers refuse posting to these areas.

⁴⁸ The WB study (2011) also found that inequitable financing in education has created a negative discrimination practice in rural and deprived regions of the country due to the poor deployment of trained teachers and the unequal distribution of Ghana's educational resources.

teaching force, the challenge of ensuring more children access and remain in the system becomes even more daunting (Associates for Change, 2011)⁴⁹.

3.4.7. Child-friendly Instructional Practice and Classroom Management

Other education quality related barriers to child retention and completion at primary school level in Ghana (especially for 4DE) are the lack of child-centered participatory methodology and the limited usage of mother tongue as a medium for instruction at the lower primary level. Several studies have revealed that poor classroom pedagogic processes in terms of teacher pupil interaction and interaction among learners themselves are widely found in Ghanaian schools. Teaching methods and literacy strategies used in primary school classrooms, particularly at the lower primary level, do not address the varied learning approaches, challenges, capabilities, and the language needs of children from deprived areas of the country (Associates for Change, 2010). More efficient and accelerated literacy methods which can assist children “break through to literacy and numeracy” are needed to improve instructional practice in under resourced Ghanaian classrooms given the late age of learner entry into the school system (USAID, 2010; Casely-Hayford and Ghartey, 2007). There is very limited evidence that participatory methods are actively being used in Ghanaian primary school classrooms partly as a result of the teacher-centered pedagogy at the Colleges of Education and their inability to model child friendly methods in the training.

Many teachers serving in deprived areas do not use child-centered methods to ensure classroom instruction actively engage learners (Associates for Change, 2011). Alhassan et al (2001) observed that over-aged pupils are found to be passive during lesson delivery, leading to social isolation and exclusion which often results in pupil dropout. The situation is compounded where children with special needs are integrated in the class. Teachers do not have the equipment and necessary skills to effectively instruct pupils with moderate disabilities (Associates for Change, 2011). CREATE (2007; 2010) found that many pupils found the classroom “uninteresting” because lesson delivery was not actively engaging learners. The study revealed that teachers in Ghana rarely use child-centered teaching techniques such as class discussions, group work, brainstorming or experimentation. Pupils interviewed pointed out that the lack of classroom participation contributed greatly to children staying out and dropping out of school (Alhassan et al 2010). Similar studies suggest that there are very few basic schools across Ghana which adopt and sustain child-centered teaching approaches. Those that are operational require intense and sustained supervision and are often operated by non-state actors (e.g. School for Life and ACE). These programmes have trained large numbers of community service volunteer teachers in the methodologies and are operated in remote areas of northern Ghana (Associates for Change, 2011).⁵⁰

3.4.8. Language of Instruction

One of the main barriers identified in the study related to OOSC and children at risk of dropping out was that the language of instruction was not conducive to learning, particularly within the 4DE zone (Associates for Change, 2011).⁵¹ The use of mother tongue as the medium of instruction positively affects pupil attendance, identity/self-image, and retention in school (Abadzi, 2007). Non context based curriculum and language often alienates the child’s learning experience in the classroom from their community (UNESCO, 2010). The language of instruction can promote community school interaction and facilitate more participation of parents in the learning process of children (Casely-Hayford and Ghartey, 2007). Studies across Africa show that children learn more effectively when their “mother tongue” (L1) language is used in teaching instruction (Abadzi, 2007).

Studies on the usage of mother tongue at the lower primary level in Ghana suggest that less than 40% of schools are fully operating the National Accelerated Literacy Programme (NALAP), which requires a bilingual approach to literacy attainment from KG to P3. The programme has been

⁴⁹ Research in Ghana is directly linking the absenteeism of teachers to the growing exclusion of children in some primary and JHS schools where poor quality is already exacerbated by the lack of trained teachers and inequitable distribution of GoG resources.

⁵⁰ In-service training of teachers on issues of gender sensitive, child centred child friendly classrooms is being promoted through GES, and several non-state actors (UNICEF, IBIS, Action Aid etc.).

⁵¹ The GES uses only 13 out of over 70 potential languages to produce its curriculum and books; several minority languages are not officially used by GES due to their small population scale and inefficiency for book production. Not all languages are covered by the NALAP programme.

effective in transforming the approach and behaviour of teachers in the classroom, but findings suggest that much more teacher training and supervision by districts is needed to ensure its full implementation (Hartwell, 2010). The NALAP is also proving effective in creating a more animated classroom and helping sustain pupil interest in schooling (Hartwell, 2010; Associates for Change, 2011). The School for Life and ACE programmes are also achieving results in assisting excluded children between 8-15 years of age (2DE and 3DE) attain functional literacy and life skills and then transition to upper primary levels of education based on mother tongue based instruction (Associates for Change, 2011; Casely-Hayford and Ghartey, 2007).

3.5. Political Governance, Capacity and Financing Bottlenecks

This section presents evidence related to the political, financial and governance bottlenecks in Ghana again using the 5DE conceptual framework. The political governance bottlenecks discussed below include: the lack of equitable educational financing across deprived regions and among the marginalised groups; lack of external monitoring and evaluation of sector performance in relation to OOSC; limited decision making on key quality issues including teacher deployment, performance, and accountability; and the lack of equitable targeting of social programming necessary to improve conditions for OOSC. The institutional capacity issues also addressed in this section include: the slow implementation of policies; limited partnership arrangements between MOE and CSOs in the delivery of relevant programming; and the limited voice of parents and children on rights to basic education. Capacity building bottlenecks discussed in the section relate to the weaknesses of school management committees (SMCs) and district level structures in relation to the oversight and monitoring of the inclusive education issues. Table 3.4 below presents the main barriers to OOSC across the 5 DE's discussed in this section.

Table 3.5. Political, financial and governance barriers to schooling

BARRIER TYPE	FACTORS	DIMENSIONS OF EXCLUSION (DE)				
		1DE	2DE	3DE	4DE	5DE
Political Governance	1. Inadequate decision making and slow pace/lack of policy implementation	√	√	√	√	√
	2. Inadequate partnerships with CSOs to address OOSC		√	√		
	3. Lack of voice of the marginalized and disadvantaged groups (parents and children)		√	√	√	√
	4. Education policy tensions between expansion and quality improvements		√	√	√	√
Institutional Capacity and Effectiveness	5. Weak district and regional oversight to address OOSC and other educational issues	√	√	√	√	√
	6. Weak monitoring and evaluation/Lack of information or data on profile of OOSC		√	√		
	7. Weak School Management Committees (SMC's)	√	√	√	√	√
Financing	8. Inequitable resource allocation	√	√	√	√	√
	9. Inefficient resource allocation	√	√	√	√	√
	10. Inadequate, untimely and inequitable allocation of Capitation Grants				√	√
	11. Limited targeting of safety net programmes.		√	√	√	√

3.5.1. Inadequate Decision Making and Slow Pace of Policy Implementation

Recent research in Ghana suggests that politically difficult decisions such as teacher deployment, equitable financing of education, transparency in school infrastructure outlays and ensuring policies to enforce teacher time on task are difficult to make in the current political context within Ghana. The recent Ghana political economic analysis of education found that avoidance of politically tough decisions in the education sector has resulted in key decisions remaining unchecked, a growing unaccountable teaching force, and difficulty in holding educational managers and district education directors accountable for performance (Casely-Hayford, 2011). Issues such as the large cost of teacher study leave, student allowances at training college and the inability to deploy teachers to rural deprived areas continues to characterize Ghana's education system. The draft ESP appraisal report prepared by the local education development partner (Ghana Local Education Donor Group, 2011) suggests the need to make hard decisions on strategies to improve educational efficiency and reduce wastage, ensure the better targeting of resources and cost cutting measures to ensure equity across the county (e.g. teacher study leave with salary).

The ESP appraisal report also points out that key policy processes which have been identified to target out-of-school children have neither been fully implemented nor costed in order to ensure their execution. For instance, the Complementary Basic Education (CBE) Policy, which was formulated in 2007, was not fully costed into the new Education Strategic Plan (2010-2020).⁵² Other policy programmes that have not been fully costed in the latest ESP (2010-2020) to ensure their full implementation include: the early childhood development programme; the girls' education programme; and special needs education programme. Each of these spheres of operation within the MOE and GES has a direct impact on addressing the out of school challenge in Ghana and assisting those at risk of exclusion.

3.5.2. Inadequate Partnerships with CSOs to Address OOSC Challenges

Another key governance barrier is the inadequate recognition by GES and MOE that there are different actors that can assist in the effective implementation of education programming in the sector. Growing evidence in Africa suggests that CSOs are in a more strategic position to deliver education services to remote, poor and excluded children in Ghana (particularly in the 1DE and 2DE categories) (Associates for Change, 2011; UNESCO, 2010; Ibis, 2009).

Currently, the MOE and GES do not have any clear methods of engaging CSO's in their programmes, with development partners continuing to directly supporting CSO's which creates a level of fragmentation in the sector (USAID, 2010). The lack of CSO-Government engagement has limited the options available to Government for closing the out of school gap across the country with flexible, well tested models and more innovative approaches to service delivery (Casely-Hayford and Hartwell, 2010). For instance, the lack of funding for complementary education programmes by GoG has continued to put deprived areas at a structural disadvantage, since MOE has not deployed enough "trained teachers" to these areas and schools remain comparably under resourced. CSOs are building awareness of the population's right to education through the provision of more flexible, child friendly learning environments, which use the local language for instruction and accelerate learning to meet the needs of over age learners. These systems are proving to be more cost effective and efficient in the delivery of basic education to Ghana's rural poor (2DE and 3DE) (GNECC 2008).

3.5.3. Lack of Voice of Marginalised Groups

There is growing evidence that out-of-school children, and those who are at serious risk of being excluded, remain marginalized due to their location and lack of voice to challenge the state and other duty bearers on inequity and inequality issues. Non state actors including NGOs continue to develop programming to address the large pockets of marginalized communities due to ethnicity, language or location which restricts them from access to public education resources (GNECC, 2008; GNECC 2009). The lack of parental and civil society representation at the district and regional levels continues to restrict their access to public resources, particularly resources which would ensure that schools are constructed and teachers are allocated equitably to these areas (Associates for Change, 2011). Studies on educational accountability suggest that there is a need for more representative

⁵²The basic education system has strong upstream planning methods/instruments but poor downstream delivery.

bodies to emerge which enable school management committees (SMCs) on a district and regional level to represent parental, child and youth voices in order to strengthen systems of accountability towards education delivery by the teaching force (Associates for Change, 2009). Currently, there are no nationwide movements to institutionalize such bodies, leaving decision making on issues of district education resourcing to the District Assembly or district subcommittee on social services.

The lack of voice is also evident among children and youth who are experiencing injustice in relation to their lack of access to quality basic education. Very few youth associations or NGOs are available to work with groups which represent marginalized children, such as girls who have engaged in the “Kayayoo” phenomena, children who have experienced school related gender violence or girls who have been forced into early marriage. There are very few NGOs representing the voices of marginalized children and as a result, the media and parliamentarians are not well informed of their challenges.

3.5.4. Educational Policy Tensions between Expansion and Quality Improvements

Another key bottleneck is the tension within the MOE’s own educational strategic plans in terms of access initiatives (e.g. capitation grant, school feeding, free school uniforms, etc.) and the growing need to ensure that quality educational delivery reaches Ghana’s poor. Addressing Ghana’s last 10-20% of OOSC, and ensuring that those who are at the greatest risk of dropping out are not marginalized, requires two main policy thrusts. First, improving the quality of education for those who are currently in school particularly those at the lower primary level in order to ensure that they acquire basic literacy skills and do not drop out. Second, the need to find cost effective approaches to ensuring that complementary education systems reach children who are out of school and those who live more than 5km from a primary school. Better school mapping and planning procedures to capture the location and depth of the OOSC phenomena on a regional and district basis is also required.

The introduction of social protection policies such as the capitation grant and school feeding may have a positive impact on enrolment, but has also shown evidence of mismanagement and poor targeting and planning, particularly in relation to maintaining school quality. The main challenges experienced by the GoG in the implementation of social protection and social safety net programming has been the limited collaboration in planning and implementing programmes which demand inter-sectoral collaboration with MOE. This has resulted in unplanned school expansion but with limited shifts in the planning for more trained teachers and expanded infrastructure. For instance, evaluation reports of the GSFP implementation highlight challenges in deprived regions of the country where lack of school infrastructure has led to unmanageable levels of overcrowding in classrooms (WFP, 2010b). There is also a problem with some neighbouring schools which do not receive the GSFP grants, losing children to schools where GSFP is operational. The GSFP and MOE are challenged to ensure that the provision of physical school infrastructure and human resources (trained teachers) expand in line with enrolment growth, particularly in areas where there are large populations of OOSC (e.g. Upper East Region).

3.5.5. Weak Monitoring and Evaluation Capacity

Various capacity development efforts have been made to enhance planning capacity of officers, but many districts are grappling with the problem of data collection, analysis and the timely release of results (Ghana Local Education Donor Group, 2011). The timely release of funds has also constrained the regular implementation of the school census, data analysis and release of reports resulting in poor planning (MOE, 2008a). The Education Sector Performance Reports (ESPR) for 2007 and 2008 suggest that planning officers do not always have up-to-date and accurate data on key education indicators. There is also weak governance in terms of proper and effective tracking of the numbers of out-of-school children and those who have dropped out on a district and regional basis. There is the urgent need for higher quality training and capacity building to enable districts to embark on data collection, analysis, preparation and implementation of district plans in line with decentralization and accountability outcomes.

One of the clearest examples of where technical and managerial capacities are inadequate in addressing the OOSC phenomena and exclusion issues is the inability of government to implement regular school mapping exercises, which inform planning at the district, regional and national levels.

Several ESPRs strongly recommend that school mapping exercises should be periodically done to identify educational needs and issues for effective planning. As a result of poor data collection, there is limited knowledge and data on children with special needs as well as the number of out-of-school children. Limited information constrains proper planning for out-of-school children and under-served communities. The lack of systematic and regular school mapping exercises, along with their utilization, results in very poor planning and identification/targeting of infrastructure across the country and within the districts. Ibis' evaluation of two of the most remote and deprived districts in the country demonstrate that despite heavy investment in school infrastructure across the country, basic schooling is still out of reach to large pockets of communities in the Gusheigu and Karaga Districts in the Northern Region (Ibis, 2009).

3.5.6. Weak District and Regional Oversight to OOSC

The out of school phenomena in Ghana and the issues raised in this review reveal the need for both regional and district bodies to increase their monitoring efforts and steer programming in an attempt to address the OOSC challenge. The District Education Oversight Committee (DEOC) is mandated by Government to oversee all educational issues, including OOSC and factors which influence exclusion and educational deprivation within the district. The DEOC is to be convened and chaired by the District Chief Executive (DCE) on a regular basis bringing together key educational stakeholders in the district. Unfortunately, baseline studies by USAID (2010) and more recent work by non-state actors (through STAR Ghana) suggest that the DEOC in most cases are non-functional or non-existent. Studies suggest that the DCE has difficulty convening these meetings due to larger responsibilities in the district, creating a governance gap at the district level (Associates for Change, 2009). Another related challenge is the need for stronger management capacity and leadership at the district education level to ensure equitable school quality is achieved through deployment, teacher accountability and performance (e.g. lowering absenteeism rates and increasing teacher time on task). Weak governance and oversight by state and non-state actors will continue to limit the outcomes of programming interventions such as the capitation grant and school feeding across the country.

3.5.7. Weak School Management Committees

Effective school improvement and ensuring all children go to school often comes about when there is a strong relationship between parents and school management (Associates for Change, 2009; QUIPS/TMG, 2005). Several studies in Ghana suggest that improved education quality is transformed when SMCs are functional and actively engaged in school oversight (QUIPS/TMG, 2005). According to the PETS study (CDD, 2010), SMCs are still not adequately engaged in school oversight and improvement efforts in Ghanaian Schools.⁵³ The study also suggests that SMCs are not well informed on financial allocations to school level, or on child achievement rates in the school, and have limited information on school improvement efforts (CDD, 2010)⁵⁴.

The *Africa Education Watch: Ghana Report* conducted by the Ghana Integrity Initiative in 2008 also suggests that most SMCs are not equipped to oversee and manage schools (GII, 2008). Many SMC members lack knowledge of their roles and responsibilities. They are also not adequately equipped to handle planning and financial issues related to school management. Many communities do not have access to objective people who can support financial and educational planning in their communities. The Ghana Integrity Initiative (GII) survey (2008) suggests that many head teachers and members of SMCs have had training in planning and financial issues, but high rates of teacher attrition impact negatively on the outcomes of training programmes.

⁵³All schools in Ghana are expected to have SMCs and PTAs to guarantee community participation in school management and ownership. Their role is to plan efficiently and effectively to utilize available school resources including capitation grants for the benefit of all school age children in the community. While monitoring quality educational delivery, the SMCs are to encourage the enrolment of all children in the community schools. (GII, 2008). The voices of educational stakeholders are organised through the SMCs, PTAs and SPAMS processes in the community.

⁵⁴School indiscipline, pupil/teacher absenteeism, poor teacher time on task, pupil truancy and child labour can be effectively addressed by the SMCs and PTAs members when they are well informed of low pupil achievement levels and school drop-out. Similarly, voices of children with special education needs are often not heard and their concerns are not addressed if SMCs are not in place or functional.

The Brookings Institute study (2007)⁵⁵ indicates that SMCs are usually not involved in the preparation of the School Performance Implementation Plan (SPIP) nor are they part of the decision making process as to how the capitation grant should be used. Other evaluation reports from NGOs, who have built SMC capacity using a process called the school performance reporting systems, suggests that when SMCs and communities are given vital information on the learning outcomes of their children and teacher performance, they are able to hold their teachers accountable (Associates for Change, 2009).

The ESPR (2010) was validated in recent work by CARE Ghana which confirmed the fact that many schools do not have SMCs and where they do exist, the SMCs are not aware of their roles and responsibilities. The ESPR (MOE, 2010) also revealed that SMCs across the country do not meet regularly and are unable to effect significant change in the schools. Reports indicate that SMCs are dysfunctional and do not receive systematic training, information on child educational performance, or onsite support from circuit supervisors to ensure they perform their roles and responsibilities (GII, 2008; CDD, 2010).

3.5.8. Inadequate Sector-wide Coordination and Collaboration

There is no doubt among education development practitioners in Ghana that Ghana's most urgent challenge remains the need to ensure intra-sectoral coordination and collaboration among development partners (DPs) through the strengthening of a sector wide approach in education. Fragmentation and lack of transparency within the sector continues to characterize donor relations and limit the effectiveness of programming (USAID, 2010). Studies on aid effectiveness in the education sector suggest that too many uncoordinated donor interventions are limiting outcomes due to pressure and ineffectiveness in programming particularly at the district levels (SNV, 2009). The studies suggest development partners in Ghana need to work within the Government's latest aid policy framework and ensure more harmonisation and cohesion of programme delivery (USAID, 2010). Although there is some evidence that DPs are reaching a level of "on plan" and "on budget" alignment in relation to the MOE's strategic plan, there is very limited evidence that this is done in a collective, transparent and open manner with other DPs therefore limiting sector wide programme impact. Some donors are also using more "country systems" to implement programming, but these programmes remain outside a sector wide approach for full effectiveness. A more open and consultative approach is urgently needed to harmonise DP plans on an annual basis in order to coordinate funding, effectively use country systems and ensure budget coordination similar to Ghana's health sector.

Currently, there are very limited sector-wide programming mechanisms to address the needs of excluded children with a common goal and policy towards addressing the challenges facing OOSC. Given the scale and projected need for increasing the level of social investment and social protection programmes, there is evidence to suggest that the MOE should be better positioned to ensure that these programmes tie in directly to targeted OOSC needs. Ghana's school feeding programme is a good example where large scale consultative processes across the ministries could have assisted with the design in identification of locations where the programme was most needed; very few consultative mechanism were developed and little coordination manifested on the ground (SEND, 2008; WFP 2010b).

3.5.9. Financial Bottlenecks Overview

One of the greatest challenges in achieving equitable access for Ghana's OOSC and others at risk of exclusion is the colossal underfunding of Ghana's deprived regions. Recent World Bank analysis suggests that prolonged inequities in financial resourcing has created a context of "negative discrimination" which further marginalizes the poor from receiving their rightful share of Ghana's public education expenditure (World Bank, 2011a; Casely-Hayford, 2011).

The GoG maintains high levels of investment in education. The education sector's share of GDP is around 5.5% between 2008 and 2010. Ghana's spending on education as a percentage of GDP is among the highest in Sub Saharan Africa (Thompson et al., 2008 and World Bank, 2011a). In 2009 over 90% of public education expenditure was from internal domestic sources, with only 6.5% from

⁵⁵ The Brookings Institute study (2007) is cited in the CDD study (2010).

external sources (Ghana Local Education Donor Group, 2011). The high levels of spending on education, especially at basic level, reflect the importance of education on the Ghanaian government's development agenda. The education sector expenditure accounts for 24% of the total GoG expenditure in 2010. A large proportion of the education budget is spent on basic education, particularly on primary education provision (31% in 2010).

Table 3.6. Government spending on education and primary education 2008-2010

Indicators	2008	2009	2010
Total education expenditure as a percentage of GDP	5.7	5.3	5.5
Total education expenditure as percentage of Government expenditure	22.4	24.0	24.4
Primary education expenditure as a percentage of total education expenditure	34.4	32.7	30.9

Source: UIS database

Despite the substantial spending on education, it is worth noting that a significant proportion of education expenditure goes into personnel emoluments (95%), leaving little for investment in the education sector itself. In 2008, only 0.1% of the education expenditure went into investment in infrastructure (World Bank, 2011a).

3.5.10. Inequitable Resource Distribution

A World Bank study (2011) suggests that education financing is not equitable in its distribution. This has a particularly damaging effect on Ghana's poorest children. Negative discrimination in public resources is forcing private and non-state actors to pay for access to education for the rural poor, with the most visible example of this in the growing number of "community volunteer teachers" who are supported by CSOs to fill the vacancy gaps at the basic school level. This is contrasted with some schools (mainly in southern Ghana), which have an excess of trained teachers.

The main bottleneck in educational financing related to the out of school phenomena are the vast inequities in financial distribution of education resources at the regional and district levels as well as among rural and urban areas. Because educational expenditure is mainly consumed by personnel emoluments of teachers, the rural deprived areas of the country, including the three northern regions, consequently receive the lowest proportion of financial expenditure as fewer trained teachers are posted there.⁵⁶ Using annual per unit expenditure at US\$18 per child, the deprived areas of Ghana receive less than 11% of per unit expenditure. This can be compared to the non-deprived areas which receive 5% more than the national average. The three northern, Western and Brong Ahafo Regions receive less than the national average in terms of per unit expenditure (World Bank, 2011a).

The inequitable distribution of educational resources affects all the dimensions of exclusion and out-of-school children. Due to the poor targeting of limited resources, infrastructure and other related investments are inadequate in deprived areas. The results are children walking long distances to school, the inadequate supply of drinking water, and lack of toilet facilities.

The needs of disadvantaged groups including people with disabilities, girls and extremely poor children, are often not adequately addressed by education sector financing. For instance, the special education division is allocated less than 1% of total education budget, but rarely receives even this amount (MOE, 2008). The girls' education unit and early childhood units receive very little financing from MOE, often resulting in the failure to properly implement their programmes. As acknowledged by a World Bank report, the current structure of education financing makes resource allocation to disadvantage areas and groups difficult if not impossible (World Bank, 2011a).

⁵⁶ Approximately 68% of the teaching force is "trained" professional teachers who refuse postings to rural and deprived areas.

3.5.11. Inefficient Resource Allocation

Because over 90% of the education budget goes to the salary component of the education budget, less than 10% is available for essential programmes and investments (MOE budget estimates 2010). Consequently, a number of projects designed to improve the quality of education have been either “crowded out”, underfunded or rescheduled. The Ghana Integrity initiative survey report (GII, 2008) indicates the lack of funding results in the inadequate supply of essential teaching and learning materials, along with underfunding for repairs of school infrastructure resulting in school quality decline, parental perception of poor quality and child drop out.

There are significant inefficiencies in resource allocation and utilization in the educational sector, negatively affecting the availability of resources for infrastructure and ensuring quality inputs to address the OOSC challenge. The most visible inefficiencies relate to the over expenditure on non-teaching staff which are between 45 to 35% at regional and district offices respectively (MoE, 2009). The next most colossal wastage is in relation to “teacher study leave with pay.” There are 12,650 Ghanaian teachers on leave each year with pay amounting to GH¢53,576,000 (approx. US\$34,790,000) per annum, and 22,689 teacher trainees in Colleges of Education with an annual wage bill of GH¢24,492,000 (approx. US\$15,904,000) (MoE, 2009).

3.5.12. Inadequate, Untimely and Inequitable Allocation of Capitation Grants

The capitation grant is a system designed to ensure greater access and quality of education is maintained at school level, and to release parents of their direct financial responsibility to support the school. The capitation grant directly effects the OOSC profile in two ways. First, it can improve access by attracting children who have not enrolled in school through decreasing direct costs to parents if properly applied. Second, the grant can be effective in helping retain children (4DE and 5DE) if it is used to improve the quality of education (e.g. school repairs, small school infrastructure/toilets and TLMs).

Existing evidence in Ghana suggests that there are significant leakages in public education expenditure and resourcing due to the misapplication and misappropriation of capitation grants (CDD, 2010; CDD, 2006).⁵⁷ The leakage in expenditure means that less funding is available for essential school inputs such as the minor school repairs, gender friendly toilets and the essential teaching and learning materials needed for the schools. For instance, the recent PETS (CDD, 2010) report suggests that instead of using the capitation grant for quality school improvements, head teachers often use the capitation funds as loans for their teachers, transport allowances for teachers “performing duties for the school” and to service SMC/PTA meetings (CDD, 2010 and MOE, 2008).

The capitation grant is a major source of direct primary school funding with its allocation being based on a school’s population. This allocation formula discriminates against the small, rural and less endowed schools which often require more quality education improvements. The capitation grant formula tends to favour well-endowed, larger schools which have the capacity to enrol more pupils (CDD, 2010). This also accounts for the widening resource gaps between rural and urban schools. The well-endowed schools have the capacity to mobilize financial capital to improve quality, while the less endowed schools remain under-funded (CREATE 2007; Dunne et al., 2005).

The capitation grants are often not released to the schools in a timely manner. A recent report (CDD, 2010) attributes funding delays to various capacity related factors such as the inadequate capacity of District Education Offices (DEO) to account for the use of funds in a timely manner. The study also reveals that there are very limited records at the DEOs related to the release of capitation grants. On average, 30% of the grant is allocated to reimburse the DEO for expenditure on sports and cultural activities and most of the schools do not receive the full grant allocation based on their enrolment (CDD, 2010). The PETS study indicates that at least 60% of schools surveyed experienced shortages averaging about GH¢600 (GH¢390) per term. As a result of late and irregular releases to schools and DEOs, head teachers have developed apathy to the preparation of SPIP. Some head

⁵⁷SMC members have limited knowledge of plans and finances of the school which inhibits their ability to enrich decision making processes. The GII survey report (2008) and PETS report (2010) reveal school record keeping as very poor among SMCs. This reduces access to financial information which is likely to lead to financial abuse (CDD, 2010). Consequently the implementation of the capitation grant scheme to enhance access and quality of educational delivery is challenged.

teachers receive the grants before they prepare the SPIP (GII, 2008). It is also reported that schools without a SPIP receive their appropriate grants contrary to laid down procedures (GII, 2008, CDD, 2010).

3.6. Analytical Summary

The findings from this study suggest that the barriers and bottlenecks for OOSC are influenced by location, poverty levels, poor quality of education and negative sociocultural practices. For instance, in the Northern Region, sociocultural factors, poverty dynamics, coping strategies and low levels of parental education exclude children from accessing the formal education system. In the Western Region, there is a different dynamic, where key factors such as child labor, lack of parental support and family breakdown, negatively affect children's ability to stay in school. These varied regional and sociocultural dynamics relate to the 5DE zones and require different strategies. Chapter 4 will take into consideration the diverse regional and sociocultural contexts underlying the OOSC profiles in order to provide some guidelines for the MOE and GoG to address barriers faced by OOSC.

Ghana's sociocultural barriers to educational participation cuts across all five dimensions of exclusion but have particular importance to girls in the second to fifth exclusion zones (2DE, 3DE, 4DE and 5DE). Early marriage and child fosterage are still significant sociocultural barriers to girls' education. Low levels of parental literacy and lack of awareness of the potential benefits of education prevent some parents from sending their children to schools. More recent analysis suggests that parents are well aware of the potential outcomes, but do not experience concrete learning outcomes (for those who attend) which meet the social and economic markers of success in the community. Children unable to access primary school often lack parental support in both fulfilling their physical needs (food, clothing and some basic school supplies) as well as the emotional support needed to complete the full cycle of education.

In general, there is a negative perception of children with special education needs in Ghana, with high levels of stigmatization associated with disability and a low value placed on their capacity and potential. Parents of children with special needs often do not send their children to school (1DE, 2DE and 3DE), and those who are in school may not receive the necessary support and attention from teachers (4DE and 5DE). School facilities may not be disability friendly and the negative attitude of society may result in their drop out from school.

Domestic and school violence, including sexual and gender-based violence, constitutes a significant bottleneck in the proper nurturing and development of children within the school context. Children who participate in schools where abusive practices are present are often absent, leading to low academic achievement which in turn may result in their premature exit from the school system (4DE and 5DE).

Poverty levels are one of the key determinants as to whether children are enrolled and retained in school (Chapter 2). Children from the poorest wealth quintile are six times more likely to never attend school as compared to children from the wealthiest quintile (UNICEF, 2010). Poverty coping mechanisms often involve children in activities which can sustain the economic welfare of the family. Consequently, the most deprived districts have a higher proportion of children out of school with low attendance rates in comparison to well-endowed districts.

The direct costs of education, including the payment of school fees, was the most common reason cited for non-enrolment and non-attendance in Ghanaian primary schools in the 1990s. The introduction of the capitation grant has reduced the parental burden of paying school fees, although there are weaknesses such as irregular disbursement and grant inadequacy (GII, 2008; CDD, 2010). There are also other direct and indirect costs incurred by parents such as: transportation, exercise books/pencils, food, and sanitary materials for girls. These costs increase as children progress to higher levels of education (4DE and 5DE).

The opportunity costs of schooling also have a greater effect on children across all the zones of exclusion (apart from 1DE), as parents in extreme poverty rely heavily on their children to support the family. For instance, child activities and labor to support the household has an immediate and visible financial outcome for the family; especially when children perform agriculture, domestic and market

tasks. The high opportunity cost of schooling rises with age. This has implications on the age at which children are enrolled in primary school, often resulting in late entry and early drop out (2DE and 3DE, 4DE). Hunger in the classroom can greatly affect children's participation and retention particularly at primary level (4DE). Changes in household living arrangements, especially related to the death of a parent, can force children to drop out of school in order to earn an income for themselves and other family members. Migration can also contribute to long absence from school, low academic performance and eventual drop out. Parents who migrate in search of livelihood activities outside their original settlement face a greater risk that their children will not stay in school (4DE).

Intergenerational poverty, educational poverty and the social dynamics of structural inequality, characterize Ghana's development bottlenecks. These bottlenecks are also a major challenge to educational inclusion due to poor quality of education and inequitable human resource distribution in the sector. Poor quality education is probably the greatest collective barrier which is reinforced by inefficient educational resource allocation across the most deprived regions, and results in exclusion across all five dimensions of exclusion. Poor quality learning coupled with poor life skills outcomes are beginning to deter Ghana's poor from enrolling their children in school and/or keeping them there. Poor quality education and intergenerational poverty suggests that the largest numbers of excluded children who fail to complete primary education fall back into endemic poverty and are at risk of reproducing these outcomes for their own children.

Another major barrier for OOSC and the risks involved to other excluded groups is the inequity and poor allocation of educational financial resources, which deprives many communities of key educational resources including trained teachers. The poor deployment of teachers is well documented. The studies in Ghana identify limited teacher time on task and high rates of teacher absenteeism as the main reason for falling quality standards in Ghanaian schools, particularly in deprived rural communities. As mentioned in other sections of this study, teacher accountability for quality learning and adequate time on task are the greatest barriers to achieving universal access and retention across the 5DE model. The next Chapter will highlight the key strategies related to each barrier.

Chapter 4: Policies and Strategies for Supporting Out-of-School Children

4.1. Introduction

The barriers and bottlenecks which have emerged from Chapter 3 require policy strategies which government, development partners and civil society can jointly act on to achieve Millennium Development Goals (MDG) 2 and 3. This chapter highlights relevant national and international literature describing the most effective strategies for addressing these barriers and bottlenecks for OOSC. The sections also outline the key strategies which the Ministry of Education (MOE) and Ghana Education Service (GES) currently implement, their effectiveness and the implementation gaps which need addressing for each key barrier described in Chapter 3.

4.1.1. International Standards on Addressing the 5DEs

“There is no single formula for overcoming marginalisation in education. Policies need to address underlying causes, such as social discrimination and stigmatization, as well as challenges specific to particular marginalised groups. The inequalities that the marginalised face are persistent and resistant to change, yet progress is possible with sustained political commitment to social justice, equal opportunity and basic rights. (EFA Global Monitoring Report, 2010)”

The 2010 EFA Global Monitoring Report (GMR) identified three broad sets of policies which can make a tremendous difference to any country attempting to address inclusion and completion challenges in basic education. These include policies which promote access and affordability, policies which improve the learning environment, and policies which ensure basic entitlements and opportunities for the poor and marginalised.

Table 4.1. Key policies that address out-of-school challenges

Policies to improve accessibility and affordability	Policies which improve the learning environment	Policies which ensure entitlements and opportunities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cutting direct and indirect costs • Providing targeted financial incentives • Investing in school infrastructure • Bringing classrooms close to children • Supporting flexible provision • Coordinating and monitoring non state provision 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allocating teachers equitably • Recruiting and training teachers from marginalised groups • Providing additional support to disadvantaged schools • Developing a relevant curriculum • Facilitating intercultural and bilingual education 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Developing poverty reduction strategies • Tackling early childhood deprivation • Enforcing anti discriminatory legislation • Providing social protection • Allocating public spending more equitably

Source: GMR 2010

4.1.2. Ghana’s Inclusive Education Policies

Ghana has pursued various policies to ensure universal basic education since independence notably the Accelerated Education Development Plan of 1951 and the Education Act of 1961 (Act 87), which made basic education free and compulsory (Akyeampong, 2010). The Constitution of Ghana mandates that there is Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) and that higher education should be progressively made free and accessible to all Ghanaians (Republic of Ghana, 1992). The notion of universal access is also embedded in Ghana’s Shared Growth and Development Agenda (GSGDA) 2010-2013 which recognizes basic education as a major building block for national development and accelerated growth (GoG, 2010).

Ghana has often been the first to ratify international conventions on rights to education, including the UN Declaration of Human Rights, the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, Education for All, and the UNESCO statement on principles and practices of Special Needs Education.⁵⁸ The Child Rights Act (500) of 1998 also promotes the physical, mental and social well-being of every child. The Disability Act (715) (2006) provides for the establishment of Special Education Schools for children with special needs. The laws of Ghana enjoin all parents and guardians to enrol their children in schools without any barrier to admission. The recent Education Act (2007) also ensures the provision of Inclusive Education (IE) in all districts and places pre-primary education as a key component of the basic education system. These international conventions, national legal frameworks and government commitments have served as policy drivers to ensure universal access to quality education and opportunities to enable them to participate meaningfully in socio-economic development of their communities (ESP 2010–2020). These commitments and legal frameworks also ensure that the GoG provides a primary and lower secondary school within a five kilometer radius of the community in order to ensure accessibility to all children between 4-15 years of age.

The Education Strategic Plan (ESP 2010-2020) reflects the government's policy commitment towards Universal Basic Education, making it imperative for MOE to address the educational needs of the marginalized and disadvantaged children. Inclusive Education and Special Education Needs programming through its specialised division (SpEd) became an urgent national policy priority. The Special Education Policy was informed by the principles of child rights (ESP 2010–2020). Strategies to ensure effective implementation included: the provision of special schools for children with severe disabilities; integration of all children with non-severe physical and mental disabilities in mainstream schools; sensitization programmes on disability issues and special education needs; assessment of disability and the prevalence rate of children with special needs; and strengthening and improving SpEd training, planning and management (ESP 2010-2020).

Other policy initiatives to address the out-of-school phenomena included the development, adoption and implementation of the Complementary Basic Education Policy from 2006 to date. This policy intervention opens up complementary education opportunities to all OOSC by supporting education programmes for children between the ages of 8-15, which are more flexible and relevant to the poor. Strategies put in place include the use of flexible school hours and more relevant school-based curricula reflecting the local environment, local language as the medium of instruction, child-centered participatory teaching and learning strategies as well as phonic/syllabic methods for early literacy and numeracy acquisition. The complementary education strategies also ensure increased community involvement in school management and often the selection of teachers/facilitators from the community (MOE/GES, 2006).

The GoG in 2004 approved a National Early Childhood Development (ECD) Policy and in 2007 incorporated the two-year pre-primary education into the FCUBE policy, thus extending basic education to 11 years (GoG 2004 & GoG 2007). This policy resulted in a remarkable improvement in access to pre-primary education by reducing the barriers to children between 4-6 years of age. A review of the key policy documentation in relation to out-of-school children, girls' education, special education and social equity suggests that several MOE policies have been formulated to address key barriers affecting the OOSC population, but these policies are not adequately nor fully costed within education plans. The ESP appraisal report (2011) suggests that key educational policies which could have had a major impact on ensuring OOSC enrol and remain in school are not well planned nor costed, and therefore, lack financing and programme commitment (e.g. complementary education, girls education and special needs education).

4.2. Sociocultural Demand-side Policies and Strategies

The previous chapter suggested that the main barriers to children out of school particularly at the primary and lower secondary level were negative cultural beliefs concerning educational investment among girls, and poverty factors which often restrict some children in the family from accessing educational provision. The following table summarises the key bottlenecks which currently exist and

⁵⁸ The Salamanca Declaration.

complementary strategies which should be developed to address the sociocultural barriers to OOSC in Ghana.

Table 4.2. Policies and strategies to address sociocultural barriers

Sociocultural bottlenecks and barriers	Strategies to address the barriers and bottlenecks
Lack of child's interest in schooling	Girls' clubs and vacation camps; improving the quality of education including classroom teaching and learning practice and environments (to be discussed under supply-side strategies)
Lack of parental awareness concerning the value of schooling and parental illiteracy	Community sensitization on the value of formal education using traditional and modern media; promotion of adult education/non formal education particularly for young mothers and women
Nontraditional household arrangements (family size)	Provision of social protection and family planning measures to vulnerable families; empowerment of parents, particularly mothers
Negative beliefs towards girls education	Girls Education best practice strategies scaled up and financed/supported (e.g. take-home rations; community sensitization; gender responsive training of teachers etc.)
Fosterage	Sensitization of traditional and opinion leaders on negative effects of fosterage and awareness of Child Rights Act
Early marriage	Enforcement of child rights laws in Ghana
Pre-teen or teenage pregnancy	Strengthening reproductive health education in schools particularly through the SHEP, peer counseling and the CSO's involvement
	Advocacy on national law enforcement on child protection, rights of children; ensure that boys and men who commit offenses against girls (rape, sexual abuse) are brought to court
Negative attitude towards the disabled and low value placed on their education	Expansion of Ghana's inclusive education program by SpED in order to integrate children with disability into the mainstream public school system
Verbal, physical and sexual abuse of children both in school and the community	Enforcement of child rights and protection policies in schools and in communities (e.g. teacher code of conduct, child rights act etc.); formulate a school-based gender responsive policy for Ghana

There are four main strategies which should be better supported by the GoG and development partners over the long term to address sociocultural barriers. These include: large scale community sensitization campaigns, including the involvement of traditional leaders and youth groups; much stronger support and scaling up of girls' education best practices; the implementation and synergizing of transformational social protection policies which will support education targeted strategies across the country; and strengthening and ensuring the full implementation of child rights and protection policies. This would also involve ensuring that they have the full legal instrumentation and training of social workers in order to ensure full implementation. This is particularly crucial for addressing sociocultural barriers such as early/forced marriage, reintegration of JHS girls during and after pregnancy and school-based sexual and gender-based violence (SGBV).

4.2.1. Girls' Education Strategies

Since the largest proportion of OOSC are girls in the deprived rural regions of the country, political commitment and programme implementation towards girls' education will be pivotal to reducing the intergenerational education poverty trends across Ghana. Key strategies to address sociocultural barriers for girls' education can be applied to ensuring proper financing and policy support for the implementation of the MOE's own girls' education programming. Along with CSO evidence based strategies, these strategies will continue to be one of the most important investments for GoG and its DPs. Political, financial and parliamentary commitments are needed to reduce the number of OOSC and also ensure that the next generation of women attain higher levels of education, reduce their family size, and improve their quality of life while their children's education to highest levels. Despite

the rhetoric for support to girls' education in Ghana over the last 15 years, very limited financial and political support has been provided to the sub sector (Casely-Hayford, 2011; Associates for Change, 2011; SNV, 2009).

The main strategies for ensuring that girls, particularly those in the rural deprived areas, enrol and remain in school are outlined in several MOE documents on girls' education in Ghana. Over the last ten years the Girls Education Unit of GES has developed strategies which have proven effective in addressing access and retention rates. The most effective approaches to date based on documented evidence include:

- Take home ration programme for girls who achieve over 85% attendance in a school term at the upper primary and JHS levels of education. An external evaluation of the GES/WFP programme in the 2010 revealed that the programme made tremendous impact on improving girls' enrolment, attendance and completion at the primary and JHS levels (WFP, 2010b).
- Community sensitization, mobilisation and awareness creation efforts through the collaboration between UNICEF and CSOs working in girls' education has also proven effective. Community sensitization approaches include community radio programming and community based monitoring systems which build capacity of local people to monitor girls' education in their communities. The FAWE girls' radio advocacy programme has focussed on supporting 16 districts with the worst Gender Parity Index (GPI) and builds district level monitoring systems to ensure that all girls are able to access and stay in school (MOE, 2008; SNV 2009). The 16 lowest GPI districts have all experienced increases in girls' enrolment and retention due to the community based monitoring system with some districts no longer in need of support.
- Gender responsive training of teachers: studies by VSO under the Tackling Education Needs Inclusively (TENI) programme suggest that gender training for teachers is one of the most effective strategies for ensuring children stay in school. Baseline studies across three TENI districts, where the project is operational, suggest that in-service training for teachers in gender and child friendly teaching approaches has improved enrolment and retention in schools in the most deprived areas. This was also validated through education evaluation work by other NGOs working with teacher training colleges on child friendly approaches in northern Ghana in 2009.

Studies in Ghana continue to point to the need for a more holistic and coordinated approach to girls' education in order to achieve long term impact and results. A study on the impact of girls' education by SNV, UNICEF and Ibis found that lack of coordination between state and non-state actors in the education sector continues to limit the outcomes of girls' education programming, resulting in duplication and inefficiency (SNV, 2009). Sutherland-Addy's (2001) work on the impact of girls' education in Ghana suggests that most non-state actors have been involved in the following girls' education activities in Ghana:

- Research, advocacy and community sensitization activities
- Scholarship schemes
- Formation of girls clubs
- Microcredit schemes for parents
- Community mobilization and monitoring using participatory learning appraisal techniques

The study found that these interventions have improved girls' enrolment, retention and achievements in areas they are being practiced, and also suggests that research, advocacy and community sensitization have the greatest effect on increasing girls' enrolment and retention. Strategies such as scholarships and microcredit schemes for mothers have been directly linked to girls' retention in school, and the formation of girls clubs and vacation camps have taught girls to be more assertive which has increased their achievement rates in school.

Unfortunately, very few of the girls' education strategies mentioned above have been sustained and scaled up by MOE and Girls' Education Unit over the years despite the evidence that they are effective in promoting access and retention (SNV, 2009). Some girls' education strategies have been sustained due to donor and non-state actor support within the sub sector; this has been pivotal to their

emergence and longevity. The MOE's Girls' Education Unit is in the process of formulating a new strategic plan and assessing "what works" in the sector in order to address the gender gap, which still remains particularly wide at the JHS and SHS levels (4DE and 5DE) in Ghana. The strategic plan is likely to form the basis for future investments for girls' education.

4.2.2. Empowerment of Parents, Particularly Mothers

Most of the evaluative studies in Ghana suggest that there is a need to link women's empowerment and economic support with girls' education. Key to deepening the impact of girls' education is the need for greater emphasis on economic empowerment of parents, particularly mothers, in order that they become independent of sponsorship, social safety nets and food incentive programmes in the long term (WUSC, 2002). Very few projects, apart from the WUSC Girls' Education Program (GEP) supported by CIDA in the late 1990's, have successfully integrated microfinance for mothers groups with girls' completion and transition outcomes at JHS levels (three northern regions). Many of the women's groups, which were supported by WUSC to assist their girl child transition to and complete JHS level, are still functioning.

4.2.3. Enforcement of Child Rights and Protection Policies in Schools and in Communities

Research has shown that corporal punishment, child abuse, sexual harassment and gender-based violence is wide spread in many Ghanaian schools. The Ghana Education Services guidelines for disciplining pupils restrict the use of the corporal punishment. The guidelines give the sole prerogative to head teachers to use of the cane as needed, but under limited circumstances. However, studies have found that this rule is not adhered to in most Ghanaian public schools, with many teachers using the cane indiscriminately as a normal disciplinary practice. Fiscian's (2003) study on abuse in Ghanaian schools suggests the need for GES to take a closer look at its child protection policies and teacher code of conduct in relation to verbal and physical abuse in schools. To date, the teacher code of conduct has still not been widely distributed nor used to ensure standards of conduct among the teaching force in Ghanaian schools (Action Aid, 2010)⁵⁹.

There are also a growing number of NGOs taking up the issues of school-based SGBV, which include community sensitization efforts and curriculum development to integrate gender related issues in the curriculum. For instance, Action Aid's "Safe Schools Programme" involves providing mechanisms for protection of girls at school level against school-based SGBV and addresses some gaps in awareness on the teachers' code of conduct. The Girls' Education Unit (GEU) officers in the district education directorates are mandated to educate girls about sexual harassment and abuse in school, as well as encourage girls to report teachers who commit sexual harassment and abuse. But the GEU is under-resourced and due to cultural norms, power relations and other factors, victims are often reluctant to report cases of SGBV (UNICEF 2009; WUSC, 2002). Apart from the impact of sexual abuse, including reproductive health problems and child and teenage pregnancy, there are several other effects on OOSC including: anxiety; substance abuse; non-concentration in class; fear of exposure; and eventual drop out (4DE and 5DE). There are very few programme strategies identified, which address the growing rate of teenage pregnancy in Ghana. Only a few small NGO initiatives attempt to advocate for a wider understanding of the rights of girls to readmission into school, even when they are pregnant (e.g. FAWE).

4.2.4. Inclusive Education and Special Education Strategies

Two other policy frameworks have been developed, but are yet to achieve full visibility, political commitment and financing to effectively address sociocultural and economic barriers across the 5DEs. The GoG has developed a complementary and special needs education policy to ensure that children from marginalized areas are provided with complementary and inclusive approaches to mainstream education. Special needs education policies outline the need for all schools to give access to the physically disabled, and facilitate the integration of children with low to medium disability. The most visible implementation of these policies is the Special Needs Education Division's (SpEd) National Integration Pilot Programme operating across 30 districts. The programme focus is on integration of special needs children, which gives priority at the basic and senior high school

⁵⁹ The GES code of conduct for teachers outlines the manner in which teachers should conduct themselves towards pupils and recommends punishment for teachers who harass or abuse pupils either physical or sexually.

levels. Under the pilot initiative, both human and some financial resources are placed at the disposal of District Education Offices (DEOs) in order to integrate children with low vision impairment and those with mild to moderate disabilities into the mainstream system. In addition, SpEd has instituted physical screening of all children for early detection of disability for appropriate placement in the school system.

DEOs are attempting to support the implementation of the MOE/GESs' inclusive education policy, and are aware of the interest of many agencies to ensuring "inclusivity." However, they lack the necessary resources and clear programme design for implementation.⁶⁰ DEOs are engaged in public awareness campaigns to encourage people to send children to school, regardless of disability, gender or special education needs (Associates for Change, 2011). These initiatives, although promising, depend on donor support for sustainability at the district levels due to late financial releases.

The special needs policy, and its pilot on integrating special needs children, is beginning to show results (Associates for Change, 2011). The MOE has trained over 70 special needs trainers at the district level to assess and place children with low to moderate disabilities within the basic education schools in the pilot districts. The SpEd integration programme is beginning to "take off" with very limited resourcing from the MOE and no major donor support to date. Given the significant stigmatization of Ghanaian children with disabilities, and approximately 16% of children within the 2-9 year age group reported to have at least one disability (UNICEF, 2006), a much greater commitment is needed by MOE to ensure the sub sector is financed and programmes are implemented (Iddrissu et al., 2010). Studies under the TENI project (Associates for Change, 2011) suggest that there is still a tremendous need for:

- Community sensitization on the potential for children with disabilities to access school;
- More teachers to receive basic training on the identification of disabilities; and
- More schools and districts to receive support to implement integrative policies for special needs children with mild to moderate disabilities and who remain out of school (Inclusive Education study by Associates for Change, 2011).

The SpEd of the GES will require much more financial support, to ensure that the current pilot initiative to integrate children is well monitored, supported and assessed to build the case for country-wide roll out in the coming five years (Associates for Change, 2011).

4.3 Economic Demand-side Policies and Strategies

Chapter 3 outlined several economic demand side barriers and bottlenecks facing out-of-school children in Ghana including: direct/indirect costs of schooling; pressure for children's labor; and migration. Existing studies have identified a number of policies that have proven effective in solving out of school problems in Africa and in Ghana (World Bank, 2009; Kane, 2010). Some of the policies identified to address the economic barriers at the household level include: free education; comprehensive social protection policies/schemes; promotion of family planning; flexible school timing; complementary basic education; and micro-enterprise programmes, particularly for mothers.

The EFA Global Monitoring Report (2010) suggests that the priority for improving access and affordability of education among the poor depends on a country's ability to cut direct and indirect costs, provide targeted financial incentives, investment in school infrastructure, bring classrooms closer to children, support flexible provision, and coordinate and monitor non-state provision. The below table outlines the key bottlenecks and potential strategies based on research and consultations with the MOE and civil society agencies in Ghana.⁶¹ This section reviews the following strategies to tackle economic barriers and bottlenecks: 1) economic incentive strategies; 2) strategies addressing indirect/opportunity costs of schooling; and 3) social protection programmes.

⁶⁰ Most of the programmes are not GES programmes but DP programmes on girls education, special needs or ECD which lack GES leadership to ensure their sustainability in the long run.

⁶¹The strategies for addressing these bottlenecks and barriers were discussed at a recent Annual Education Sector Review by the MOE in Ghana in May, 2011. Consultations included representatives from the MOE and key development partners and agencies involved in access and participation programming in Ghana.

Table 4.3. Policies and strategies to address economic barriers

Economic Barriers and Bottlenecks	Strategies to address the barriers and bottlenecks
Direct costs of schooling (Basic Level)	Free education for girls at JHS level in Ghana's most deprived districts (no cost for examinations). Targeting strategies using the capitation grant to help abolish school fees particularly in deprived areas.
	Increase scholarship and provision of bicycles for needy children particularly girls at JHS and SHS levels.
Indirect / opportunity costs of schooling	Scale up national microcredit schemes for mothers tied to girls and other OOSC's education completion and transition to JHS.
	Scale up school feeding and take home ration for girls in 67 most deprived districts in the country and tie to common targeting mechanism.
Child labour	Encourage community sensitization on child rights and protection laws particularly for SMCs and PTAs.
	Support and encourage development of District by-laws and enforcement of child protection and child rights (e.g. early marriage, sexual harassment and school based gender violence).
Household migration and agricultural factors	Government support to CSOs to implement complementary education/flexible school systems.
Loss of parental economic earning capacity	Scale up agriculture and small scale income generating programmes particularly for women in rural areas (e.g. micro finance/credit); Better target social protection programming such as school feeding and LEAP: and ensure their effectiveness/efficiency at the community levels.

The policies and strategies identified in this section which address the economic barriers and bottlenecks for OOSC and children at risk of dropping out can be divided into two main categories: the first being strategies which address the direct costs of schooling, such as the capitation grant, scholarships and structural improvement such as waiving the parental contribution of Basic Education Certificate Examination (BECE) fees in deprived districts; and second, strategies and programmes to address the more indirect costs of schooling, such as the food incentive programmes/take home rations for girls, innovative school transport programmes, school feeding and microfinance for mothers.

Poverty and the opportunity costs of schooling affect all the five Des, but they have a significant impact on retraining children at the 4DE and 5DE levels. The indirect and direct costs of schooling have also been found to directly impact on girls, particularly at the transition to JHS, where their parents are expected to pay for transport, food, books and examination fees. The rising indirect costs of tuition and school fees at JHS level often deter parents from sending their children. The GoG has put in place several direct cost policies to ensure universal access through the abolition of school fees, provision of capitation grants to primary schools, free school uniforms, and exercise books. Since 2010, there has also been growing Government interest in addressing the direct and indirect costs of schooling through social protection interventions. For instance, in the 2010 budget, the GoG allocated free exercise books for children in deprived rural areas,⁶² science resource centres, school feeding programmes and capitation grants, BECE subsidies and SHS subsidies (GoG, 2010a). The 2010 budget also provided scholarships to students from deprived regions of the country at approximately GH¢21 million (approx. US\$13.6 million).

⁶²Free school uniforms: the GoG estimated an amount of GH¢15 million for the manufacturing and distribution of 1.6 million school uniforms free to basic school pupils from the 67 deprived districts around the country. It expected that this intervention would increase the enrolment rate especially in the high poverty pockets of the country. The programme was commenced in 2010 and its effectiveness has yet to be evaluated. (*Speech by Ghana's first lady at launch of Free School Uniform project; MOE, 2010*).

4.3.1. Economic Incentive Strategies Addressing Direct Costs of Education

Abolition of school fees

Growing evidence from within West Africa and Ghana suggests that school fee abolishment has made a tremendous impact on ensuring poor, excluded and vulnerable children (from rural populations, girls, child laborers, children affected by HIV/AIDS, and those with special needs) have access to primary education. Data on basic school enrolment of different poverty quintiles suggest that children from poor families are extremely sensitive to fees, even when these are very small (World Bank, 2011 a). In fact, school fee abolition is perhaps the single most important poverty reduction strategy which governments can implement. It draws attention to the economic burden to the household and opens strategies which directly reach out and target the poor, like school feeding, microfinance/livelihood programs and attempts to replace opportunity costs (World Bank and UNICEF, 2009). Ghana's own experience suggests that school fee abolishment has created a surge in enrolment over the last 5 years, increasing the total primary enrolment by 15% and net enrolment rates by 25 percentage points as is documented in Chapter 2.

The direct and indirect costs of education are especially challenging in countries where poverty imposes tough choices on families and households, including how many and which children to send to school, and for how long (Lloyd, 2009). Countries like Ghana have to take bold steps to eliminate all school fees (including examination fees), and at the same time empower the population with well tested income generation and transformational approaches in order to reduce all other indirect costs of schooling. The GoG should also take careful and well-grounded steps to assess, and possibly limit, welfare-oriented social protection models which create dependency. Social protection interventions which are transformative and empowering should be the focus for the Government's programming in the coming five to ten years (Devereux and Sabates-Wheeler, 2004). These transformative models include microfinance, agricultural support for vulnerable and high productivity groupings (e.g. women) and youth employment programs, which are discussed later in this section.

Capitation Grant

The GoG introduced the capitation grant scheme in 2005 to ensure that MDG commitments were attained, along with its constitutional mandate for free education. The capitation grant began by providing GH¢3 per enrolled child to cover primary school operating costs in order to abolish fees at the basic level (CREATE, 2007). This was increased in 2010 to GH¢4.5 under the 2010 GoG budget. Evidence revealed that one of the main reasons children did not attend school was because their parents could not afford to pay the school levies charged by the SMC/PTA or schools directly. Even though tuition was free at basic level, schools charged levies such as sports and cultural fees, PTA dues, infrastructure development levies, and examination fees, which deterred many families, particularly the poor, from sending their children, especially girls, to school (Korboe et al., 2010; Casely-Hayford, 2005). The introduction of the capitation grant scheme abolished all levies charged by primary schools by providing schools with a small grant for each pupil enrolled. Primary schools are expected to develop a School Improvement Plan (SPIP) in consultation with their SMC, in order to obtain the capitation grant.

The introduction of the capitation grant in conjunction with the abolition of school fees led to a significant improvement in enrolment across the country. Every region in the country experienced a rise in enrolment but regions with the lowest enrolment trends witnessed the highest increases in enrolment. For instance, the Northern Region, where rates were lowest, experienced the largest increases due to the introduction of the capitation grant. Enrolment of girls (18.1%) at primary level increased slightly more than boys (15.3%) (ISSER, 2008). Many children did not only return to school but also remained in school.

Although the capitation grant did not specifically target the lingering inequalities in access caused by spatial, regional, gender, income or educational deprivation inequalities, it helped in closing access inequalities to some extent.⁶³ For instance, the grant was not targeted to the poorest poverty quintiles within the population, who were most marginalised due to structural inequalities, nor did it have

⁶³Initially the government was thinking of targeting the grant so that girls would benefit slightly more than boys but this did not receive approval.

specific regional or gender targets. The capitation grant, which uses a single allocation formula, does not make special provisions for districts with endemic poverty, educational poverty and entrenched sociocultural barriers or districts with low girls enrolment and retention. Initially, the GoG was considering a more targeted approach, which involved a higher capitation grant for girls than boys, in order to close the gender inequality gap, but this was dropped. The 2011 National Education Sector Annual Review recommended a revision of the capitation grant allocation formula, including the introduction of a base grant, in order to improve structural discrimination against small rural schools. Reclassification of “deprived districts” is also currently under discussion in order to improve need-based targeting of resources.

Recent analysis by the MOE suggests the need for a more targeted and equitable approach to capitation grant allocation given the disadvantage experienced by small schools: schools with small student populations are often located in deprived rural areas and receive small amounts in capitation. The World Bank (2010) analysis reveals significant inefficiencies and inequalities in resource allocation in the Ghanaian education system. Studies also suggest that education quality was compromised, in which the capitation grant stimulated large enrolment increases leading to large class sizes and overcrowding of classrooms. This was particularly the case in rural, northern and other disadvantage schools, and where other measures to ensure school expansion were not put in place (CREATE, 2010a).

Scholarship Schemes

Another key strategy to address the direct and indirect costs of schooling is the scholarship schemes implemented by the MOE, donors and several non-state actors. Over the last 10 years, there have been several scholarship schemes in Ghana for disadvantaged children, especially targeted at girls in basic schools, in order to improve their enrolment, completion and achievement rates. The Government and several DPs, including USAID, have been providing scholarships to disadvantaged children often implemented through CSOs or NGOs. Currently, there are several girls’ scholarship programmes running across the country including:

- Ambassadorial Girls Scholarship Scheme implemented through School for Life (SfL), ARC and World Education and supported by USAID;
- Basic Education Scholarship Scheme implemented through the GES/GEU;
- CAMFED Girls Education Scholarship scheme; and
- ISODEC Girls Scholarship scheme.

Most of these schemes provide children with basic uniforms/shoes, note books, teaching learning materials and other school items needed to perform in school. The Ministry of Education also runs a “needy child scholarship scheme” which provides about 50-100 children per district in selected districts with scholarships administered through the Girls’ Education Directorate under the DEO. Funds for disadvantaged children are disbursed through the “service” component of the budget and are often at the discretion of the DEO. The “needy children scholarship scheme” is therefore, not a well-known or publicized opportunity for the poorest children in the deprived areas. Research also suggests that better selection criteria is needed to ensure that the targeting of scholarships is implemented in a more transparent and effective manner (SNV, 2009).

Evaluations of these programmes suggest that scholarship programming has led to increased enrolment in the various intervention areas. Recent studies by RAINS/CAMFED (Odonkor et al., 2006) in northern Ghana indicate that girls’ scholarships have had a positive impact on enrolment, retention and performance of girls in basic schools. The CAMFED evaluation (Ammassari, 2006) also suggests that scholarship programming has had some impact on negative attitudes towards girls’ education. Although there has not been any comprehensive quantitative data analysis of the impact of girls’ scholarships across Ghana, the analysis of thirty sampled schools in the north indicates an improvement in enrolment and retention for both primary and JHS compared to non-beneficiary schools (Ammassari, 2006.). There is limited evidence on the efficacy of scholarship programmes, and much more evaluation work is needed to assess the overall impact of scholarship schemes in Ghana. The studies suggest that scholarship programmes have to be complemented with microcredit schemes, anti-child labor education/guidance and counselling in order to retain and transition children, especially girls in school (SNV, 2009).

4.3.2. Strategies Addressing the Indirect and Opportunity Costs of Schooling

The next set of OOSC interventions and strategies to address the indirect costs of schooling include: school feeding; transport to school; take-home rations for girls; and microfinance programmes for mothers linked to girls' schooling transition and support. Most of these strategies address the economic demand side bottlenecks for parents, and act as incentives for families to enrol children, sustain, and ensure attendance. The intervention strategies also help support children making the transition from primary to JHS. The main strategies, which are now reaching scale, include the school feeding programme and take home ration programme for girls being, which is implemented through GoG and WFP funding. The opportunity costs of families losing child labor on their farms and in the markets have not been fully addressed. Although some of child labor programmes are attempting to release children from harmful child labor practices (e.g. ICI and ILO work in the Western and Ashanti Regions).

School Feeding Programmes

Although the GoG has reduced the indirect costs of basic education on the poor through the capitation grant and other programmes, there are still many indirect costs to the poor of sending their children to school. These costs include opportunity costs to parents in terms of labor and support on the farm, which is often needed in the subsistence farming context where there is a high dependency ratio. Studies by WFP (2010a) suggest that rising food costs in Ghana make these indirect costs even more challenging within the poorest poverty quintiles. The indirect costs of schooling among Ghana's poor have increased to unacceptable levels, as poor children do not receive quality education in under-performing schools. The children from deprived rural areas often have to re-sit exams and are held back from transition at urban based lower secondary schools due to poor quality education delivery at primary levels (Korboe et al., 2011; Casely-Hayford and Gharthey, 2007).

The Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP) which attempts to address issues of school enrolment and retention, particularly related to 1DE and 2DE, is a key government strategy to address the indirect cost barriers to parents. The programme commenced under the Ministry of Local Government in collaboration with the MOE and Ministry of Economic and Social Welfare in 2005 with the objective of increased enrolment, attendance and retention. One hot meal per day is provided to pupils at selected primary schools in each district and is expected to extend to all public schools nationwide. Currently the programme covers over one million children across over 1,000 primary schools throughout the country.

Recent studies in Ghana suggest that school meals are without doubt the most preferred social intervention by the Ghanaian population in relation to increasing enrolment, ensuring all children attend school and reducing poverty (Korboe et al., 2011; WFP, 2010b). Research indicates that in communities which have had some experience of nutrition interventions, members are resolute about the school feeding programme's role in keeping their children in school. The WFP country evaluation reveals that, where possible, parents often transfer children from one school (with no school feeding) to re-register children in other nearby schools where the GSFP or WFP's school feeding programme is operational (Korboe et al., 2011; WFP, 2010b).⁶⁴ Parents with no previous experience of a feeding programme are also passionate about sustaining the programme due to demands that often compel children to perform labor activities, transactional sex/prostitution and other abusive practices to stay in school (Korboe et al., 2011; Iddrisu et al., 2010).

School feeding has also contributed to enrolment growth, particularly at the primary level. A study conducted by PBME/MOE (cited in ESPR 2008) indicates that enrolment at feeding schools increased by 16% compared to schools with no school feeding programme. A study by SEND Foundation (2008) in 36 districts in seven regions over the last three years confirms that GoG/Development Partner school feeding programmes increased enrolment (WFP, 2010b; SEND, 2008). Another study carried out by the Integrated Social Development Centre (ISODEC, 2007) on the first implementation phases of the Ghana School Feeding Programme also concludes that, in spite of the challenges of the food supply, the Ghana School Feeding Programme contributed greatly to increasing enrolment and retention in the schools (WFP, 2010b; ISODEC, 2007).

⁶⁴ WFP Country Evaluation Study covered both the GSFP and WFP School feeding programmes.

Despite the achievements of school feeding programmes, unlike the capitation grant, it does not cover all schools across the country, with less than 5% of Ghanaian primary schools currently involved in the programme.⁶⁵ Even though the programme was first piloted in the three northern regions, known for their high poverty incidence and low educational attainment (and wide gender access gaps), school selection is not purely based on poverty or gender disparities. Other challenges surrounding the school feeding programme include concerns of school supervision and quality control related to poor food hygiene, and the negative impact on teacher time on task due to the length of time serving the meals and lack of adequate utensils (WFP, 2010b). Although the programme has met with significant criticisms over the years due to its poor targeting, key DPs have advocated for increased transparency, accountability and structural change to ensure better targeting.⁶⁶

Take Home Rations for Girls

Take home rations, provided mainly through the WFP and GoG, have been in place for the last 10 years in Ghana and serves as an incentive for parents to send and keep girls in school. The WFP take home ration programme operates through the MOE/GES and gives priority to schools in deprived districts, food-insecure areas, and communities with low literacy, enrolment, attendance and high drop-out rates. In order to qualify for take home rations, girls have to attend school for a minimum of 80% of the month.⁶⁷ This has led to two interesting developments. First, parents allow their daughters to attend school more willingly and regularly, because the take home rations are considered as compensation for the loss of the economic activity which their daughters would have provided if they had remained at home. Second, regular school attendance has resulted in better academic performance, enabling more girls to transition into JHS and SHS. Not surprisingly, several educational assessments have confirmed that food assistance programmes were instrumental in propelling the attainment of gender parity in primary education in the Upper East and Upper West Regions (WFP, 2010b).

The GoG/WFP's girls take home ration programme has been effectively targeted across the three northern regions of the country. The programme site selection was based on food security and deprivation criteria, along with taking into account areas where the gender dimensions of exclusion were considered high, based on relative GPI results. The programme has proven to have a life cycle impact on girls who were able to complete the full JHS programme of education (WFP, 2010b). A recent country evaluation suggests that the programme encouraged parents to sustain their support to girls who experience significant economic and sociocultural barriers to education (WFP, 2010b). Girls' enrolment across the three northern regions in assisted schools grew from 9,000 to 42,000 at the peak of the programme, whilst retention rates doubled to 99% during the 2006/2007 academic year (WFP, 2010b).

The bottleneck in this programme was that several of the girls who were able to move into SHS were unable to find financial support for their education, therefore limiting the programme impact on poverty reduction. The lack of transition to higher levels also has a devastating impact on girls' expectations and vision of their future (WFP, 2010b).

Microcredit Schemes for Mothers and Guardians

One of the most effective girls' education programmes that Ghana has witnessed is one supported by WUSC, which had a large microcredit component aimed at supporting mothers groups across the three northern regions of Ghana. The programme tied the mothers' access to microcredit loans with ensuring girls completion at JHS levels and transition from upper primary to JHS. An impact study on girls' education (SNV, 2009) suggests that this strategy resulted in sustainable and long term impacts for girls by empowering women to support their daughter's transition from upper primary to JHS. The programme took place in the Northern, Upper East and Upper West Regions and helped improve enrolment, transition and completion rates of girls, particularly at the JHS level in northern Ghana.

⁶⁵ Currently the GSFP covered approx. 1,100 schools across Ghana (WFP, 2010b).

⁶⁶ The WFP Country Programme Evaluation (2010) found that there was a low presence of GSFP schools in the three northern regions while there was an extremely high concentration in school feeding programmes in the well-endowed regions of Ashanti and Greater Accra. The study concluded that there was poor targeting in relation to the need for school feeding and its presence (WFP, 2010b).

⁶⁷ The Take home ration for girls consists of 1 liter of oil, 5 kilograms of rice and one cup of salt given to girls on a termly basis when they achieve over 80% attendance at the JHS and upper primary levels.

Empowering women to generate income from their shea butter, agricultural seeds/growing vegetables and other micro-income generating activities using a rotational peer credit approach proved to be an effective means to sustaining girls' education. Mothers collectively learned the importance of sending their daughters to higher levels of education). Most of the girls sponsored by their mothers were the first in the district and communities to attain a JHS level of education (Casely-Hayford, 2002; WUSC, 2002).

Other programmes which help to empower parents and address the opportunity costs of children affected by child labor activities have been focussed on providing supplementary income to families willing to remove children from abusive child labor practices. For instance, the ILO has been providing financial incentive packages to parents in the coastal regions to bring their children home by removing them from abusive child labor areas into which they had been trafficked (e.g. assisting fishermen on the Volta River). There is also evidence from International Cocoa Initiative (ICI) studies on child labor that suggest complementary strategies for addressing economic barriers with social protection programming and quality education inputs are improving access and quality of the children's education in cocoa growing areas (Odonkor, 2007).

Complementary Education

Complementary basic education is also an important strategy which addresses child labor issues and children who have dropped out of school. Ghana has successfully piloted and scaled one of Africa's most successful complementary education programmes, which supports out-of-school children transition to mainstream education. The School for Life (SfL) programme uses a flexible school model with basic education classes for children in the afternoons. The programme provides classes for OOSC between the ages of 8-15 in mother tongue language, which aim to achieve basic literacy within a nine month period. The programme has helped over 120,000 children in northern Ghana from the most disadvantaged districts and communities obtain basic education (equivalent to lower primary P1-P3 levels). The School for Life model selects communities who have over 100 OOSC within this age range and provides functional literacy classes, of 25 children (50% girls) per class, in the afternoon which are facilitated by a local community volunteers.

The programme was evaluated externally and demonstrated impressive results in ensuring children transition to formal education (82%), complete their primary education and transition to JHS levels of education (Casely-Hayford, et al., 2007).⁶⁸ The SfL model has had a significant impact on NER in the districts and regions of operation, increasing regional enrolment rates by almost 3%. The programme has also had positive effects on children's self-identity, building confidence and resilience among the learners, particularly girls, to prepare them for formal education. These children are usually engaged in household activities to support family and farming activities. The government has recognised the need for more flexible schooling approaches in poverty endemic areas and has planned to scale up the model in a systematic manner under the complementary education policy in selected districts across the country (MOE, 2006a).

4.3.3. Social Protection Programmes

A growing body of evidence indicates that some forms of social protection approaches can also have a significant impact on reducing child and household poverty, leading to a reduction in the number of out-of-school children. Recent studies have revealed that vulnerable children can benefit from cash transfers even though they might not be the direct target (Korboe, 2010). Cash transfers to households are mostly used for purchasing food and clothes, and obtaining education and health services. Evidence from the Child Grant Program in South Africa revealed that cash transfers, in addition to investments in basic public service provision, was an effective strategy for reducing child poverty and vulnerability, as well as improving health and education enrolments of children in school (UNICEF, 2009b).

Social protection policies, such as cash transfers and food subsidies, can also build the resilience of poor and vulnerable households by enabling them to better manage risk and disaster without giving

⁶⁸ Over 65-70% have been mainstreamed into the upper primary levels of the Ghana education system (Casely-Hayford and Ghartey, 2007). The MOE study also suggests that the integration of SfL students into the formal system increased the GER by 2-3% in the Northern Region during 1995-2005 (MOE, 2006a).

up their children's education (UNICEF, 2009; EFA/GMR 2010). The GoG has designed and implemented a growing number of social protection programmes across the country including the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP), the capitation grant scheme, the Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty (LEAP) programme, and the National Health Insurance Scheme (NHIS). Social welfare services in Ghana have also scaled up strategies to respond to child protection issues such as child labour, child trafficking and sexual exploitation.

Ghana has designed social protection programmes which attempt to complement education sector strategies to assist the poor to address economic constraints and to protect themselves from economic shocks. The latest analysis by WFP (2010b), on the impact of the global economic crisis and the response by the GoG, suggests that the safety net programmes such as GSFP, school uniform programmes and scholarships have made a difference to access and participation rates across Ghana's education sector. A recent World Bank study (2011b) provides an overview of Ghana's current and planned social protection policies which address the economic barriers of the poor and their ranking in terms of effectiveness in targeting/benefiting the poor as shown in the table below.

Table 4.4. Targeting effectiveness of social protection programmes

	Share of outlays benefiting the poor	Simulated vs. actual
Well or potentially well targeted programs		
LEAP (Livelihood Empowerment Against Poverty)	57.5	Actual (good data)
NHIS indigent exemption	>50.0	Actual (partial data)
Free school uniforms for primary schools in poor areas	49.9	Simulated
Labor intensive public works in poor areas	>43.2	Simulated
Proxy means-tested conditional cash transfer for JHS	42.2	Simulated
Programs/subsidies benefitting the population fairly evenly		
General funding for primary education	32.2	Actual (good data)
General funding for health service delivery by CHAG	30.8	Actual (good data)
Potential connections subsidies for electricity	29.4	Simulated
Free maternal (ante- and post-natal) child care	29.1	Actual (good data)
General funding for kindergarten education	27.2	Actual (good data)
General funding for JHS education	24.0	Actual (good data)
General funding for health care	22.4	Actual (good data)
Ghana School Feeding Program	<21.3	Actual (partial data)
Kerosene subsidies	20.7	Actual (good data)
Programs and subsidies with limited benefits for the poor		
General funding for vocational (TVET) education	19.0	Actual (good data)
Fertilizer subsidy scheme	15.8	Actual (partial data)
General funding for SHS education	15.1	Actual (good data)
PURC pilot access to safe water through tankers in cities	13.1	Simulated
National Youth Employment Program (NYEP)	12.7	Simulated
NHIS general subsidies	12.4	Actual (partial data)
Poorly targeted programs and subsidies		
Tax cut on imported rice during food price crisis	8.3	Actual (good data)
Electricity subsidies embedded in tariff structure (in 2005/06)	8.0	Actual (good data)
General funding for tertiary education	6.9	Actual (good data)
Subsidies for petrol and diesel products (except kerosene)	>2.3	Actual (good data)

Source: World Bank (2011b)

The World Bank study highlights weaknesses in relation to social protection programmes, which could have a tremendous impact on the poor and their ability to send their children to school. Ghana's social protection programmes, which were considered most effective in targeting the poor, included LEAP, the free school uniform programme for primary schools in poor areas and the conditional cash transfers for JHS (which is not yet in place in Ghana). The social programmes which were found to be less effectively targeted, but could have more impact on the poor if more transparent and better

targeted, included GSFP. The study did not include the GoG's "needy children's scholarship scheme" or the take home ration scheme.

Since 2009, there have been significant increases in the financial and budgetary commitment by the GoG towards existing social protection programmes (particularly towards LEAP, school feeding programme, and school uniforms), which has resulted in a growing number of beneficiaries. The GoG has increased its allocations for LEAP from GH¢2.2 million in 2007 to GH¢12 million in 2010. It also increased its expenditures to the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP) from GH¢10 million to GH¢15 million, and school feeding from GH¢17 million to GH¢50 million between 2009 and 2010. Capitation grants and BECE examination subsidies increased from GH¢28 million to GH¢35.5 million in 2010, and the free uniforms programme was allotted GH¢12.1 million in 2010. These programmes were all supported through debt relief funds (HIPC and MDRI) (WFP, 2010b).

4.4. Supply-side Policies and Strategies

The greatest challenge to addressing OOSC, particularly those at risk of dropout, requires a stronger policy framework for improving the learning environment of children in remote rural schools, which tend not to attract trained teachers and promote child friendly teaching practices. As indicated in the previous Chapter, the supply side factors that lead to marginalization and exclusion of children from basic education include: lack of infrastructure including classrooms, potable water and gender friendly toilet facilities; teacher availability, quality, and child centered methods (including gender sensitivity); classroom management involving the interaction between teachers and pupils; and safe school environments from all forms of abuse including verbal, physical and sexual abuse. The following table outlines some of the main strategies related to each of the key barriers and bottlenecks identified in Chapter 3.

Table 4.5. Policies and strategies to address supply-side barriers

Supply side barriers and bottlenecks	Strategies to address the barriers and bottlenecks
Long distance to school	School mapping and targeting of locations where school infrastructure has still not been provided (11% of communities)
	Scale up the effective complementary education programming such as the "wing school" concept in targeted districts
	Provide girls with bicycles to access JHS in the most deprived districts in the country
Inadequate school infrastructure	School mapping and increased provision of school infrastructure including water and sanitation facilities.
Non-availability of School Toilets and Water	Provision of water and gender friendly sanitation facilities
Lack of TLMs	Adequate supply of TLM s and storage facilities to ensure a one to one textbook pupil ratio
Inefficient teacher supply, and deployment	Rationalization of teacher supply and deployment in schools and offices
	Increase the numbers of community service teachers particularly females throughout the country and support access courses to Colleges of Education
Child unfriendly learning methods limited.	Promotion of child centered, participatory teaching and learning methods in schools through in-service and pre service training and curriculum development
Language of instruction	Promotion and renewal of NALAP training for teachers and monitoring of the NALAP program
	Provision of TLM's at Primary and JHS levels in mother tongue and English

The key strategies identified in the latest Education Strategic Plan (ESP) 2010-2020 to address the supply side barriers include:

- Provision of child and disability –friendly infrastructure facilities;
- Expansion and improvement of health, sanitation and safety;
- Rationalisation of teacher deployment at basic education level;
- Provision of potable water within 250 meters of basic education schools;
- Provision of transport for KG and lower primary school pupils living 3 km away from school; and
- Adequate supply of teaching and learning materials, and textbooks to all basic education schools

This section reviews the following major supply-side policies and strategies: 1) infrastructure improvement; 2) teacher supply and deployment; and 3) child-friendly teaching and learning practice.

4.4.1. Infrastructure improvement

School Construction

Adequate infrastructure is critical to attracting and keeping children in school as demonstrated in the section on supply side barriers and bottlenecks. A Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition (GNECC) study in Ghana (2009) suggests that the majority of rural children who walk long distances to school record the highest rates of absenteeism. The study also suggests that there are over 2,500 primary schools under trees in Ghana which makes learning impossible during the rainy season. Approximately 28% of classrooms in Ghana are in need of renovation, rehabilitation and repair (GNECC, 2009; ESPR 2008). The GNECC study also found that rural schools were receiving sub-standard school infrastructure compared to their “urban counterparts” who had larger school classroom blocks and better roofing materials. The government made a pronouncement in the national budget of 2010 to eliminate all schools under trees.⁶⁹ This is expected to improve the school infrastructure in mostly deprived and rural areas but will require intensive non state monitoring and supervision in order to achieve the goal.

The MOE’s latest Education Strategic Plan (2010-2020) re-introduced a policy that children should not walk more than five kilometres to primary and lower secondary schools, and three kilometres for preschool. The policy is meant to make schools accessible to children in and around their communities and to reduce the impact of non-enrolment, late enrolment and poor school attendance leading to drop out. The Annual Education Sector Operational Plan (AESOP) 2011-2013 includes the construction of 20,000 classrooms and the rehabilitation of another 20,000 classrooms. However, the Government has not been able to systematically design a programme which maps out the neediest communities who do not have schools within the 5 km radius and ensure infrastructure is provided on a national and district level (MOE, 2008).

Equally important is the policy of attaching two KG classrooms to each primary school after the GoG’s policy pronouncements in 2007 which included KG education at the basic education level. This led to the conversion of crèches and nurseries operated by GES to convert to kindergartens. The KG policy was designed to make preschool education more accessible, improve retention and increase enrolment thereby reducing exclusion in 1DE and 2DE. According to the 2009/10 EMIS data, over 10% of public primary schools still do not have KG classes. Currently a comprehensive mapping and costing exercise is underway to support DP and GoG investment in Early Childhood Development (ECD).

Water and Sanitation Provision

The health status of children ensures regular school attendance, active participation in classroom activities and retention (GNECC, 2009). The MOE’s own studies suggest that the provision of water can enhance achievement levels particularly among girls (MOE, 2008). There are several strategies

⁶⁹ There was a commitment by the GET Fund to eliminate all schools under trees but in 2009 only 150 out of the 600 schools earmarked for construction were completed. At this rate, GNECC predicts it will take over 10 years for the government to achieve this goal of eliminating schools under trees.

outlined in the Education Strategic Plan (2010-2010) to address the water and sanitation at basic school level. These include:

- Provision of potable water within 250 meters of school sites;
- Provision of adequate sanitation facilities on school sites (especially for girls, female teachers and SMCs);
- Establishment of Integrated School Health Programmes;
- Appointment of school health officers for each basic school;
- Incorporation of basic training in primary health care in pre service courses for teachers to heighten their awareness of health issues.

There are very few DPs investing in school health at basic education level in Ghana. A few DPs and NGOs are operating small scale programmes focussed on reducing poor health and hygiene practices at school levels, but much more support is needed particularly in order to ensure all schools have access to latrines and water. This will have an immediate and long term impact on ensuring girls' enrolment and retention in basic schools. Currently, the UNICEF-supported school water, sanitation and hygiene (WASH) programme is operational across selected districts in the country. The WASH Programme addresses guinea worm prevention and some of the local water and sanitation needs of communities. The UNICEF-supported Child-Friendly School approach is also being promoted in 30 districts, which, among other things, addresses the health and sanitation awareness of teachers and children. A few CSOs in Ghana are also promoting the child-friendly school approach such as the Afram Plains Development Organisation (APDO) which operates in the Eastern Region. The latest AESOP suggests that GoG/MOE provide potable water and sanitation facilities to 4,600 schools over next three years (i.e. 1,500 per year). The challenge remains that quality assurance is needed to ensure child-friendly approaches to infrastructure expansion are implemented as part of on-going MOE's plans for ensuring access and retention.

Wing School Programme

Another key strategy, which is proving effective in helping ensure school aged children have access to lower primary schools within their localities at the age appropriate level, is the "wing school" programme supported by Ibis. The Alliance for Change in Education (ACE) programme introduced the concept of the "wing" schools in 2008 in deprived communities (in Gusheigu and Karaga Districts in the Northern Region) where children have to walk over 5 km to the nearest primary school. The ACE schools begin by offering P1 to P3 class levels starting from P1 and then adding a class each year with one community volunteer teacher per class. The GES District Education Offices assisted ACE by ensuring that the wing schools were affiliated to nearby public schools for oversight, supervision and integration purposes. After completion of the three year "wing school" programme, pupils are expected to transition to the P4 level in the nearby public schools to continue their education.

In 2009/10 the ACE wing schools began to be absorbed into the public education system, which meant that their teachers would be paid and the schools would also receive books from the GES. Gusheigu and Karaga districts have a total of 56 wing schools: 39 are well developed and absorbed in the public education system and 17 are still in the developmental stage, which means they may not have a population large enough to ensure that a school can be sustained over time.

To help solve the problem of insufficient numbers of trained teachers in deprived and hard to reach areas, ACE employed young SHS graduates from the communities with at least a pass in three subject areas including English and Mathematics. They are given intensive in-service training and are sponsored to enrol in the Untrained Teachers Diploma in Basic Education (UTDBE) programme. Currently, there are 200 wing school teachers working in 56 wing schools in Gusheigu and Karaga. The wing school teachers are provided with a modest allowance and support towards their tuition fees for the UTDBE programme, which supports their professional development. At the end of the UTDBE course, the young wing school teachers are bonded by the District Assembly to continue to serve in the communities where they were teaching in. This ensures a steady supply of trained teachers to these communities in order to enhance the delivery of quality education.

In all ACE schools, teachers are expected to be resident or natives from the communities where the wing schools are located. This is to facilitate community school ownership, teacher identification with

the children and ensure teacher attendance and punctuality. The community always plays a key role in the recruitment and selection of community teachers. As a result, there is little teacher attrition and absenteeism, a common problem for communities with non-resident teachers. The ACE approach has led to an improvement in school infrastructure, teacher supply and enrolment (Associates for Change, 2011).

4.4.2. Teacher Supply and Deployment

The trained teacher supply in Ghana is gradually reducing, and large vacancies are being reported, particularly in rural and hard to reach areas of the country. The main contention with respect to teachers is related to time on task, high rates of absenteeism and very poor teacher deployment. The MOE has always held the view that there are enough teachers in the education system, but the challenge remains in the need for more equitable and supervised deployment. Studies indicate that there are large surpluses of teachers in some regional capitals including Greater Accra and Ashanti Regions, along with teacher surpluses at the JHS level (World Bank, 2011a). It is estimated that there are about 3,779 surplus trained teachers at the lower secondary level, who could be redeployed to the primary level.

The 2007 education reform paved the way for the establishment of distance education programmes for teachers who wanted to acquire further education. Each year, over 6,000 teachers leave the classroom to pursue further studies, mostly on paid leave. After completion, many do not return to the classroom. In 2008, 12,650 teachers were on study leave with pay, costing the government over GH¢52,376,000 (approx. US\$34,000,000) annually, which also created teacher shortages in the education system (World Bank, 2011a). The ESP appraisal report (2011) points out that the number of teachers who left on study leave was almost equivalent to the number of teachers completing teacher training college each year. The distance education programmes designed by the key educational universities (Winneba and Cape Coast) help to support MOE policy to reduce the number of teachers on paid study leave and ensure that more teachers were in the classrooms while they pursue higher education. However, the plan by MOE to review the study leave policy should be regular, in order to ensure adequate numbers of (trained and untrained) remain in classroom and distance education programmes are maximised (MOE, 2009).

Over the last ten years, Ghana has experienced a surge in the number of untrained or community volunteer teachers, due to trained teacher vacancies particularly in the northern regions. Civil society partners have stepped into both recruiting and training community based teachers in collaboration with communities. Several of these programmes have proven effective in enhancing quality and ensuring higher degrees of teacher time on task due to the proximity of the teachers to the schools (Associates for Change, 2011). Some District Assemblies have also supported the recruitment and payment of these community based teachers in order to ensure that a minimum of teachers are present in particularly remote rural schools. The largest volunteer teacher scheme is operated in collaboration with the National Youth Employment Programme (NYEP), which deployed over 11,000 volunteers to teach in community schools across the country. VSO is also involved in large scale programmes to train these volunteer teachers through enriched in-service and pre-service training programmes.

Untrained Teachers Diploma in Basic Education (UTDBE) Programme

Another significant policy strategy to address the number of vacancies particularly in the rural deprived areas includes the need to recruit untrained teachers from the communities themselves and ensure their training. The Untrained Teachers Diploma in Basic Education (UTDBE) programme was introduced in 2004 in order to increase the number of trained teacher supplied to rural and deprived areas of the country. The Ghana Education Services (GES), through the Teacher Education Division, was mandated to enrol all untrained teachers into a 4-year school-based in-service programme leading to the award of a Diploma in Basic Education. This approach has accelerated the training of a better qualified teaching force to serve in rural and hard-to-reach areas and meet the goals of Education for All. The programme, which was first piloted in northern Ghana, was scaled up to cover the whole country using a 4-phased approach. To date, over 24,000 untrained teachers have been enrolled in the programme (MOE 2009).

The National Vision for Girls' Education is another programme which aims to increase the deployment of trained female teachers to serve as role models (GEU, 2001). The GoG has set the target of a 40% female teacher intake at the Colleges of Education (CoE). However, given the low educational attainment of females at the SHS level, it is difficult to meet this target. A strategy was adopted to provide access courses annually to female SHS graduates to enable the MOE and CoE to attain the 40% quota. The access course programme was to ensure that there were enough female teachers serving as role models in rural deprived areas of the country (Baiden-Amisah, 2006). The issue of encouraging a greater female intake at the CoE is challenged with the fact that female teachers are also reluctant to accept posting to rural schools and rarely deployed by their district directors (CREATE, 2008). A more effective approach appears to be to recruit females through the NYEP programme or other CSO operated community volunteer teaching schemes.

4.4.3. Improving Classroom Teaching and Learning

Child-centered Pedagogy

Child-centered classroom management and pedagogy is critical to increasing enrolment and ensuring retention of children in school. Several CREATE studies have revealed that the nature of poor classroom teaching and learning practice in Ghanaian schools, and its effect on learning outcomes, has a direct impact on child retention and enrollment in school (Alhassan et al., 2010). Alhassan et al. (2010) found that many pupils think their classes are uninteresting because lesson delivery was unprepared and boring. The study reveals that teachers rarely use child-centered teaching techniques; they do not use class discussions, group work, brainstorming or experimentation. Pupils interviewed in the study point out that this contributes greatly to children dropping out of school. Teachers are not able to handle disadvantage groups of children, including children with disabilities, over-aged children and children from very poor households (Alhassan et al., 2010). The study found that the teaching methods used did not address the differentiated learning needs of the pupils (Associates for Change, 2011).

Internationally recommended strategies for dealing with classroom management issues in Ghana include the use of child-centered approaches to teaching and learning in the classroom. These approaches have been integrated in several DP and CSO supported programmes across the country including the School for Life teacher training, UNICEF-supported Child Friendly School model and the Government's own training related to integration of children with special needs in mainstream schools. Several teacher training programmes have also been designed to address and improve the quality of child-centered pedagogy at the school level, including the Ibis-supported Education for Empowerment Programme in three teacher training colleges, and the WUSC-supported programme for Girl Child Education (Associates for Change, 2011).

These programmes have been designed to ensure that teachers are equipped with teaching strategies which are interactive, participatory, thought provoking, and attempt to eliminate abusive, authoritative and intimidation approaches within the classroom. The MOE is currently finalising national Child-Friendly School Standards, which place a great emphasis on the practice of rights-based, child-centered, teaching and learning in all Ghanaian basic schools.

Bilingual/Mother Tongue Literacy Programming

The use of a favorable medium of instruction also positively affects pupil attendance and retention in school (Abadzi, 2008). Another key inclusive education strategy, which the GoG has adopted, is the bilingual education programme being implemented through the GES over the last two years. The National Accelerated Literacy Programme (NALAP) uses 13 approved local languages in teaching and learning in the lower primary levels. The programme also deploys more child-centered approaches, moving away from teacher centred approach and making learning active and dynamic. This approach facilitates active participation of pupils in the learning and teaching process and curricula reflects the local environment, which children can easily identify with. However, the implementation of the programme is challenged by high attrition rates of teachers, especially in deprived rural areas (Associates for Change, 2010). NALAP enables pupils to easily transfer their literacy skills in their mother tongue to the reading of English, and has the potential to impact positively on retention, particularly at the upper primary level (Hartwell and Casely-Hayford, 2010). All teachers across the districts have received training in the NALAP approach and language experience

methods. The new education reform (2007) ensures that all primary school teachers are using “activity based learning” approaches in their classrooms.

4.5. Management, Governance and Financial Policies and Strategies

This section focuses on the key strategies which are currently in place or envisioned to ensure better management, governance and financial efficiency in relation to improving the context of the OOSC. The key political, governance and management barriers and bottlenecks addressed in the previous Chapter are discussed in relation to some of the following strategies (see Table 4.5 below).

Table 4.6. Policies and strategies to address political, financial and governance barriers

Political, financial and governance barriers and bottlenecks	Strategies to address the barriers and bottlenecks
Inadequate decision making	Provision of credible data on OOSC and tracking of teacher deployment bottlenecks (inclusion in the census, or CWIQ/DHS etc.)
Slow pace and lack of policy programming and implementation	Promotion of effective partnership between government and CSO's in programming particularly in areas of complementary education implementation and community service teaching.
Lack of voice of the marginalized and the disadvantaged groups	Effective advocacy by CSOs and other educational stakeholders on educational issues affecting the marginalized and disadvantaged groups
	Strengthening the governance at community level (e.g. SMC/PTA) umbrella groupings at the district and regional levels to represent parents across the country.
Education policy tensions between expansion and quality improvement	Systematic plans for school expansion in the areas which do not have schools using the school mapping in 76 districts across the country. Closer harmonization between the education development plans and social protection programming
Weak district and regional oversight to address the OOSC and other educational issues	Strengthen the institutional development and capacity building of district and school level institutions (e.g. DEOC's and SMCs)
Weak school management committees	Strengthen the capacity through regular training of SMCs and PTAs
Inequitable resource allocation	Revise the budget allocation formula to reflect needs of schools in deprived districts
Inefficient resource allocation	Effective targeting of educational resources to most deprived areas of the country particularly in relation to trained teachers or the provision of community based teachers
	Strengthen inter sectoral and intra-sectoral coordination
	Effective targeting of social protection programs particularly the Ghana school feeding program, the needy children's scholarship program, and the school uniform program.
Inadequate, inequitable allocation and untimely release of capitation grant	Revision of the capitation grant formula to reflect needs of schools rather than levels of enrolment
	Prompt release of capitation grant to schools

The major strategies reviewed in this section include: 1) capacity development of key MOE/GES divisions; 2) strengthening accountability structures at district/school/community levels; 3) enhancing civil society engagement; 4) harmonization of DP programming; 5) effective scale up/mainstreaming of pilot initiatives; and 6) improving financial equity, efficiency and effectiveness.

4.5.1. Capacity Development of Key MOE/GES Divisions/Units

Ghana has put in place an institutional framework to address the challenge of out-of-school children and those at risk of dropping out of school. The institutional framework includes the establishment of

the Girls' Education Unit, Early Childhood Development Unit, Special Education Division and School Health Education Programme Unit (MOE, 2007). The table below summarises their responsibilities in relation to OOSC.

Table 4.7. Responsibilities of GES divisions and units in relation to OOSC

Girls' Education Unit (GEU)	The <u>Girls' Education Unit</u> is aimed at specifically addressing gender disparities in education by designing and implementing programmes to attract and retain girls in school. The Unit is found in all the Districts and Regional Education offices (ESPs 2003 – 2020, ESPRs). Officers focus on sensitization and advocacy programmes. The Girls' Education officers visit communities and families where participation rates among girls are low (study on Girl Child Education, Ibis, UNICEF, SNV, WFP, 2009). A study on girls' education reveals that training has been organized to enhance competence of GEU officers, and Development Partners work closely with the Unit to provide technical, logistical, and capacity building support. As revealed by the study, engagement of only one officer at district level office is hampering the efficient operation and effectiveness in supervision and monitoring of activities. A more cross cutting approach to ensuring all circuit supervisors become gender sensitive in their work may be more effective.
Early Childhood Development Unit	<u>Early Childhood Development Unit</u> also caters for issues pertaining to access to formal education, since kindergarten is part of the basic education (ESPs 2003 – 2020). Research findings from CREATE (cited in ESPR, 2008) suggest that early introduction of children to schools at appropriate age promotes retention and reduces risk of dropping out. The Units are established in all District Education Offices. The role of the Unit is to identify and resolve all issues on kindergarten education. Annual reports of the Unit reveal that lack of training to enhance capacity of officers has been a bottleneck to its operations along with lack of adequate funding. Activities are supported by UNICEF, which provides some technical and financial support.
Special Needs Education Division (SpEd)	The establishment of <u>Special Education Division</u> is to ensure access to education for all children with various types of disabilities and special education needs. The Inclusive Education policy envisages an inclusive education system, where the disadvantaged and the marginalized will benefit from quality education. (ESP 2010–2020). The Division has SpEd officers in almost all the District Education Offices to handle special education issues. The Division has a problem of understaffing, but a considerable number of officers have been trained. (AfC, 2011). Reports by Special Education Division of GES (cited in ESPR, 2008) reveal that 2,557 regular teachers in five districts in 76 mainstream schools have been trained to manage children with special needs. In addition, District Special Education Officers, Inclusive Education Resource teachers, Staff of Ghana Health Services and teachers have been trained in screening techniques. This is to promote establishment of Screening Teams to champion screening activities in selected districts. 14,596 pupils in 26 schools have so far been screened for disabilities (MOE, 2008).
School Health Education Programme (SHEP)	Establishment of <u>School Health Programme (SHEP) Unit</u> is to address health issues of children in school. The officers of the Unit are to ensure healthy and safe school environment and promote the good health status of pupils. The Unit, in collaboration with the Ghana Health Service, implements activities such as the regular de-worming of school children (ESPR, 2008). Under SHEP, the sector has focussed on HIV/AIDS, which is estimated to affect 8% of children under 15 years of age in Ghana, who will become orphans by 2010 (Beunet et al., cited in ESPR, 2008). This has led to the establishment of HIV/AIDS Secretariat to coordinate HIV/AIDS activities in the sector.

The problems confronting the Divisions/Units charged with the responsibility of addressing equity and OOSC issues in education include: understaffing; lack of sustainable training programmes; and provision of inadequate budget to support planned programmes. These Divisions and Units, therefore, tend to rely on external donor support for their programming, which limits their efficiency and effectiveness. For instance, the Girls' Education Unit, Early Childhood Development Unit and SHEP have all been considerably underfunded over the last ten years (Associates for Change, 2011; Associates for Change, 2009; ESPR, 2008). The Units have benefited from external technical assistance and support from major DPs, such as DFID, UNICEF, and USAID for capacity building and project implementation. Lack of funds also limited their ability to sustain training, sensitization and advocacy programmes as well as provide equipment and infrastructure for their programmes (Associates for Change 2011; MOE, 2008; Associates for Change, 2009).

The Special Education Division is not well equipped, underfunded and does not technically support all districts in the country (ESPR, 2008). The ESPR for 2008 and 2009 indicate that between 0.45% and 1% of the sector's budgetary expenditure is allocated to the Special Education Division. Studies on children with special needs in Ghana suggest that a large proportion of out-of-school children falls into this category (CREATE, 2010a; Thurman, 2003; Annor, 2002 cited in MOE, 2008). It is necessary for these children to be assessed in order to know their disability status to determine the appropriate school placement and referral.⁷⁰ To facilitate skills transfer, screening teams comprising District Special Education Officer, Inclusive Education Resource Teachers, classroom teachers and Ghana Health Services (GHS) staff have been formed and trained for screening children with special needs across selected districts. However, currently there are only 30 out of 170 districts in the country which have inclusive education /integration processes. Although teachers are provided with some basic training in special needs education, studies in Ghana suggest that they are not adequately prepared to assess and refer children at the school level (Associates for Change, 2011). District officers also lack the basic skills in these technical areas.

There is a much stronger network and institutional experience of GES and MOE in addressing girls' education challenges in Ghana, but the Girls' Education Unit also remains highly underfunded (SNV, 2009). There is poor coordination among actors working on girls' education issues across Ghana, which is restricting the potential outcomes in this subsector (SNV, 2009). A current mapping exercise on girls' education in Ghana may address some of these challenges. According to the preliminary findings of this mapping exercise, there are over 35 girls' education strategies which have been tested and are funded through DPs. Many of these strategies have started, but have not been sustained despite the evidence that they are bringing about change (Camfed and Associates for Change, forthcoming). A more collective, harmonized approach is needed to ensure scaling up of strategies and their sustainability within the ESP framework. This will require stronger MOE leadership in coordinating DP interventions over the coming years (USAID, 2010).

4.5.2. Strengthening Accountability Structures at District, School, Community Levels

In support of the Government's decentralization policy, the MOE has put in place several accountability structures at the district and community levels to ensure proper oversight of educational needs and programmes, including the gradual development of the District Education Oversight Committees (DEOC) and SMCs. The DEOCs are mandated to ensure quality delivery of education and educational allocation and efficient and effective use of budgetary resources from the District Assembly Common Fund for delivery of education in the districts. The SMCs are to engage communities in meaningful consultation with school authorities, share educational concerns such as issues of out-of-school children, high teacher/pupil absenteeism, drop-outs, indiscipline, poor school infrastructure, and child abuse (Akyeampong et al., 2007).⁷¹ However, a recent report from the CARE/PAGE project (2011) suggests that very few DEOCs are currently operational, and that very few members of SMCs know their roles and responsibilities, particularly in relation to ensuring school quality and teacher accountability. GII reports (2008) also indicate that SMCs are not equipped for their tasks and many lack basic knowledge of their roles and responsibilities. The report also suggests that SMCs are not adequately equipped to manage financial and planning issues. Many of them are therefore not involved in the preparation and implementation of the School Performance Improvement Plan (SPIP).

Other strategies to ensure effective decentralization processes include decentralized planning, data collection and analysis. Districts are expected to conduct their own school mapping and data collection exercises on a regular basis. Identifying various educational issues and challenges, the districts are responsible for the preparation of the Annual District Education Operational Plans (ADEOPs) as well as budgets based on prepared plans on a regular basis. At the school level is the preparation of the SPIP, which is funded through the capitation grants. However, it is not clear to

⁷⁰Currently, District Education Offices do not have the technical expertise to assess the status of children in or out of school. The GES has only one assessment centre in Accra to cater for all children in the country. It is not well equipped and its assessment tools need upgrading. Ghana Health Service personnel are often used for physical screening programmes in the schools.

⁷¹Members of SMCs are expected to: undertake minor repairs, provide potable water to the school, supervising school finances, organizing fundraising programmes, ensuring school discipline, controlling of quality teaching and pupil enrolment mobilization, preparation and supervision of school Performance Implementation Plans (GII, 2006).

what degree these plans integrate the issues of OOSC. Further capacity development efforts are needed to ensure that District Education Office and District Assembly planners take into consideration strategies which are best suited to capture the numbers of OOSC on a district level, their location and strategies to address these challenges.⁷²

Ghana's evidence on the poor quality of education (Etse et al. 2010), along with other evaluative studies in the Northern Region, suggest the need for communities to effectively monitor and hold their teachers accountable in relation to learning outcomes in the classroom. Given the evidence of poor teacher attendance and time on task, policies and strategies which strengthen community involvement in teacher and school accountability are needed to ensure quality and ensure retention (4DE and 5DE). Evidence from the Upper East Region suggests that where parents and communities are involved in monitoring the learning outcomes of their children, through simple district wide testing and participatory performance monitoring and consultation over the results, teachers begin to improve on the attendance rates and performance in the schools (Associates for Change, 2009).

There are new approaches emerging to strengthen district and school-based governance and community management practices, which can also create an environment to address the OOSC needs. The Link Community Development (LCD) is one of the best models of how district community accountability mechanism can bring about higher levels of quality education within the basic education setting. The LCD program is aimed at strengthening the school accountability system using a school performance review system and encourages school performance appraisal meeting (SPAMs) and strengthens the governance capacities of school management committees. The SPAM process is held at the school level on a termly basis and parents and SMC, PTA and community members are able to consult with the school management, including head teachers, teachers and circuit supervisors on the results of simple literacy and numeracy testing conducted in the school.

Issues affecting the school often arise related to children's literacy performance testing (e.g. absenteeism, lateness, lack of teaching resources, water, etc.). The communities use these SPAMs as a basis to generate their SPIPs, which are supported with the capitation grant. An external assessment of the Link Community Development (Associates for Change, 2009) School Performance Appraisal (SPR) Approach conducted in two of its three target districts in the Upper East found that the approach has improved the dynamics between teachers and students resulting in stronger school and district based accountability systems and improved district educational responses to issues arising from school performance. This approach is being scaled up through the VSO/TENI program and to some degree through the usage of the MOE's new school report card system which was piloted through the Grants and Reporting Accountability Improve Literacy (GRAIL) project supported by USAID (MOE, 2010).

4.5.3. Enhancing Civil Society Engagement in the Education Sector

The current areas of CSO engagement with government on issues which effect out-of-school children and children at risk of exclusion include:

- Lobbying government on issues of out-of-school children and ensuring that the policy framework for complementary education is finalized and costed.
- Lobbying government on issues of girl child education, out-of-school children, school infrastructure for communities with "schools under trees", teacher absenteeism.
- Tracking school investments being made including the need for more TLMs and teacher deployment issues at the school level.
- Often CSO's attempt to create awareness of the rights of children to basic education, but lack the skills to mobilize community based organisation to present the collective voice of children and parents who are excluded (Ibis, 2009).

Some CSOs and think tanks are able to gain entry into the cycle through their social network, donor leveraging and recognition as value added contributors. Several CSOs and think tanks are also engaged in resource and expenditure tracking at district, regional and national levels in areas such as teacher deployment, teacher absenteeism, capitation grant, GSFP and textbooks. If given resources, these same CSOs could also track the numbers of out-of-school children in the same communities

⁷²School mapping exercises in the districts may have to take into consideration this data requirement.

which they visit for other expenditure tracking exercises using participation, learning and action (PLA) techniques.

The civil society sector is seen to lack core funding and remains a weak force in terms of coalition and membership building, and has limited staff to push forward the OOSC agenda. With only one national representative coalition body, 15-20 large scale international/national NGOs and approximately 400-500 local NGO/CBOs involved in the education sector, the CSO sector needs greater harmonization, consolidation, common vision and capacity building. The recent political economic analysis suggests that more constituency grassroots voices, with direct vested interest to bring about long term change, are needed (Casely-Hayford, 2011). These constituencies and communities lack voice and channels to engage their grievances. This includes PTA/SMC regional and district bodies along with media and parliamentary linkages. The media have also limited experience in dealing with complex, structural barriers to educational improvement, with limited and sometimes unethical reporting on key education issues (e.g. sexual abuse of girls in schools, etc.). Much more work is needed to build capacities among socially responsive media agencies, who are interested in bringing about change and looking at the social responsibility they have towards the public.

4.5.4. Harmonisation of DP Programming to Address the Needs of Excluded Children

The MOE is in the process of developing costed operational plans for relevant policy areas including: complementary education; school health; special education; girls' education; and early childhood development. These policy programmes have been planned within the ESP (2010-2020), but their financial proposals are not fully funded due to limited overall funding of the ESP and GoG budget in relation to education.⁷³ In order to efficiently and effectively operationalize the priority programmes, DPs and GoG across the social sectors should consider a more collective approach to reach the remaining out-of-school children, which better harmonizes programmes for OOSC. For instance, pooled funding for scaling up well tested strategies for reaching out-of-school children should be considered. Several programmes in the country are demonstrating impact on enrolling and retaining OOSC, but are not well coordinated or maximise each other's outcomes. For instance, coordination of scholarship programmes for JHS and SHS students from the most deprived families should build on existing access and retention programming for girls and boys at primary levels (e.g. take home rations for girls). Microcredit programmes for parents/mothers organized into groups could also be linked to educational incentive programming which ensures sustainable support for children at the upper primary and JHS levels.

In order to translate government policies and plans into concrete actions at grass root levels, active involvement and partnerships with CSOs is also essential. There is the need to increase transparency systems and open up space in the budget and planning processes for CSOs to become more aware of education allocations at national and district levels. Much more work is needed to ensure CSO engagement at the action planning and budgeting stages to ensure execution of key OOSC strategy plans such as: girls' education, special education and early childhood education policies (Casely-Hayford, 2011). DP leveraging and a sector wide approach which engages all stakeholders, including CSOs, is needed in order for the education sector to fully embrace both the service delivery constraints and demand-side bottlenecks on OOSC.

4.5.5. Effective Scale up/Mainstreaming of Pilot Initiative

Qualitative studies on out of school populations in the Northern Region undertaken by CSOs and donors⁷⁴ have identified best practices which could support the scaling up of existing out of school programmes in Ghana (AfC, 2011; CARE, 2005). Some of these programmes have also been scaled up by donor agencies in order to replicate their models on a larger scale (e.g. the EQUALL/USAID with Sfl model).⁷⁵

⁷³ Most of the Ministry of Education Budget is crowded out by over expenditure on salaries which limits the funding available for other activities such as girls education, special needs education etc.

⁷⁴ UNICEF, USAID, DFID, VSO, DANIDA and IBIS have all studied the School for Life model in northern Ghana.

⁷⁵ The EQUALL programme was a USAID 5 year education programme to support the expansion of complementary education programming in addressing the out of school populations across the three northern regions of the country based on the School for Life methodology.

The GoG, and its development partners, began to show greater interest in complementary models in mid-2000, when they recognized that MDG 2 would require an alternative delivery system to ensure universal primary education was achieved (Casely-Hayford and Hartwell, 2010). In 2006/07, the Ghana Education Service embarked on a study to investigate the effectiveness of complementary education systems in Ghana, particularly focussed on assisting OOSC in the northern regions of the country. Donors have demonstrated interest in supporting the scaled up innovations in out of school programming, such as the EQUALL project and Action Aid Shepherd School Programme. In 2005, USAID allocated significant financing to scale up the School for Life (SfL) complementary education model across the three northern regions, with an additional 40,000 children being targeted for support. Included in the EQUALL programme approach was the support to community service volunteer teachers (CSTs), which is another model for ensuring primary school teachers are available in the most deprived areas of the three northern regions where other trained teachers are not accepting postings (Associates for Change, 2011). In 2008, Ibis Ghana began piloting the “wing school” concept in communities which have never had access to education.

The Government’s intention to address the out of school phenomenon was demonstrated in the 2003-2010 Education Strategic Plan with the beginning of the GES Complementary Basic Education Policy Document. The commitment towards addressing the out of school phenomena was also articulated in the two previous Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategies, which revealed that over 500,000 children remained out of school. The effect of civil society lobbying, and the follow up research by MOE on complementary education, highlights the need for an alternative route to basic education for Ghana’s excluded and was identified in the 2007/08 Education Sector Performance Review. The complementary basic education policy document was finalized in 2009 after significant input and monitoring by CSOs across the country. In 2010, consultations were held with civil society across the country and a finalization of the annual action plan and programme costing is underway. It has been reviewed by all stakeholders and the complementary education policy document is in the final stage of adoption (MOE, 2010). Different donors (e.g. DFID and UNICEF) are currently planning to jointly support the expansion of the complementary basic education programme nationwide.

4.5.6. Improving Financial Equity, Efficiency and Effectiveness

Promote Efficiency and Effectiveness

Currently, the ESP (2010-2020) has a considerable funding gap to meet its strategic EFA plans and programming strategies by 2015. There is urgent need for GoG and the MOE to embark on efficiency and cost saving initiatives that ensure resources are available to strategic sub-sectors, such as girls’ education, school infrastructure in the 11% of communities needing a primary school, teaching and learning materials and other complementary education support initiatives. Efficiency measures should not be applied in such a way as to compromise quality education particularly at the basic level. The MOE’s own study (2008) identified BECE subsidies for JHS pupils, subsidies for teachers on study leave, teacher trainers and SHS students as essential cost saving measures if better targeted. The saving measures were estimated to be GH¢217million, which could be used to furnish 13,000 classrooms (MOE, 2008).

Research findings by the MOE/GES also point to the urgent need to ensure a process of teacher rationalization, aimed at improving deployment, is carried out in order to reduce the salary component of the education budget which accounts for over 90% of the sector’s resources. The ESP (2010-2020) calls for an urgent review of study leave policy to reduce the financial burden on the state in paying for teachers’ salaries while they are on study leave for two to three years.

A World Bank report (2011) estimates that less than 50% of trained teacher are posted to deprived districts, especially in the northern regions of the country. The GoG and MOE have often planned to provide incentive packages which could be made available to trained teachers who accept postings to very remote areas. The ESP (2010-2020) suggests an extra 20% increase of a teacher’s basic salary as an incentive. The enforcement of trained teacher deployment should be a vital component of this approach to ensure that excess teachers are posted to the most deprived areas.

Revision of Resource Allocation Formula and Capitation Grant Formula

The management and implementation of the capitation grant needs to be more transparent and equitable in its practice (Report of Commonwealth Education Fund: Ghana Report cited in PETS, 2010). Better planning at the district level is needed to address the major challenges in reaching out-of-school children. Uncoordinated planning and lack of adequate budgetary provision have restricted basic education infrastructure allocation to deprived and hard-to-reach areas. A World Bank report (2011) reveals that the current structure of education financing is skewed towards schools in well-endowed areas. The formula for the capitation grant disbursement, for instance, is based on enrolment. Studies by the Brookings Institute and World Bank (2004) suggest that the formula favors the well-endowed, larger schools in the urban centers more than the less endowed and lower populated schools found in deprived rural communities. It is suggested that the characteristics of deprivation in the school community in the Ghanaian context need to be better factored into the capitation grant formula and weighting the level of deprivation should be introduced into the allocations (CREATE, 2010a; DUNNE et al., 2005).

MOE is currently reviewing the capitation grant formula, which will take into account the need for providing some incentive for deprived districts to gradually transition to non-deprived status. The resource allocation formula for ascertaining a deprived area status should be reviewed on a regular basis and in consultation with the Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare in order to harmonize and build on some of their own targeting measures, indicators and approaches such as the LEAP targeting mechanism.

Better Targeting for Disadvantaged Children

Another key area for ensuring financial efficiency and effectiveness is to reduce the wastage and inefficiencies within the current large scale government programming and ensure more effective targeting. There is urgent need within the education sector, to carry out stringent prioritization measures to take into consideration cost effectiveness and evidence based assessments of strategies which work in addressing barriers for OOSC. A World Bank Report (2011) on the sector's performance in relation to efficiency recommends that Government of Ghana needs to better target the limited resources to ensure that the neediest poverty groups and geographic areas of the country are the focus for public education service delivery. Opportunities for equalization in education delivery should be of highest priority in order to ensure that the disadvantaged and marginalized are captured in the school system. This will require more effective and transparent school mapping exercises to ensure that basic school provision is targeted to the most deprived areas for all GoG funding, including the GET Fund. It will also require the scaling up of programmes such as complementary flexible school systems to provide an alternative in communities which do not have a public primary school within a 5 km radius.⁷⁶

The education system does not have up-to-date data on the profiles of OOSC and neither has it been consistent in organizing school mapping to identify educational issues, including characterization and location of OOSC. In the absence of credible data, there has been an inconsistent approach to school selection in the targeting of resources, particularly in relation to social protection programs (e.g. school feeding, free school uniform, etc.). More effective targeting of GoG incentive packages and social protection programming at the primary and JHS levels of education will be essential to ensuring more efficient and equitable resource allocation in the education sector. This will also demand more regular school mapping exercises to inform policy planner where targeting efforts should be maximized.

Community Participation and Accountability

The application of the principle of 'value for money' should be used in policy planning and implementation through prioritization and quick impact assessment. This implies strengthening accountability and monitoring systems within the education sector at all levels of service delivery from school, district to regional and national levels. The government policy of community participation in education service delivery has given communities opportunities for ownership over their schools and to oversee their efficient operation and performance. SMCs are expected to plan efficiently through the school improvement planning process in order to utilize available school resources, including the

⁷⁶ The Ibis Alliance for Education (ACE) model should also be evaluated to see its impact at the national level as an alternative to P1 and P3 classes being developed in rural remote areas (AfC, 2011).

capitation grant for the benefit of their community and school children. Community ownership of schools implies mutual accountability of performance of both the internal and external stakeholders. Voices of stakeholders can be heard when forums such as the School Performance Appraisal Meetings (SPAM) are regularly held on a public level and expose the status of children's achievement levels. Consequently, opportunities have to be created to strengthen the voice and arenas for consultation with teachers and students at the grassroots level in order to bring about change. Several well tested models of community accountability are being scaled up through the VSO/TENI project including the Link Community Development School Performance Appraisal process, which uses performance testing of children to bring about improvement change and accountability strengthening at district and community levels as discussed earlier. These strategies should be assessed by MOE and scaled up in areas where there are high rates of poor school performance, and where teacher accountability has become a problem. SMCs and PTAs will also require training in financial management skills for them to ensure that SPIPs and capitation grants are carefully utilized based on value for money principles (MOE, 2007).

4.6. Analytical Summary

The policies and strategies, which address the challenges facing out-of-school children in Ghana, range from national level structural and legislative shifts to more grass root level interventions focused on the attitudinal and value shifts needed within the family and community. Ghana has put in place several education policies to address issues of inclusion, gender equity and marginalization within the education sector. Yet, the legislative instruments and the financing of programme implementation have been limited. The Education Strategic Plan (2010-2020) attempts to put into practice some of the main policies to ensure their systematic implementation. However, there continues to be severe resource constraints due partially to the crowding out of the budgetary resources for personnel emoluments.

The strategies which appear most effective in addressing the sociocultural demand side bottlenecks and barriers are educational innovations often led by non-state actors in the most deprived areas of the country. Girls' education strategies are particularly important for reducing intergenerational education poverty and family size, and delaying first births (especially among teenagers). The key girls' education strategies identified in this study include: gender responsive teacher training to improve the achievement and participation of girls in school; community sensitization and mobilization; and incentive packages, such as the take home ration programme which addresses the opportunity cost of labor loss in the household. Other strategies include: girls camps/vacation clubs; social protection instruments; reproductive health education; and the enforcement of child rights, protection laws and protocols. Addressing the sociocultural barriers through strategies which are carefully targeted to populations, who remain out of reach from the public school system, requires that demand and supply-side strategies are addressed in tandem. For instance, in order to increase the participation of children with disabilities in schooling, it is essential to expand special education and inclusive education programmes while raising community awareness concerning the rights of children with special needs to access the formal school system.

The economic demand side policies and strategies address both the direct and indirect costs of schooling, along with the child labor, household migration and parental loss of earnings. The most immediate and long term strategy for Ghana involves the enforcement and monitoring of the abolition of school fees and the implementation of the capitation grant, which has already had a tremendous impact on school attendance over the last five years in Ghana. Other strategies include the implementation of scholarship schemes, although most of these schemes remain very small in scale and can result in family dependency if the schemes are not well designed and properly targeted. Strategies for addressing the indirect costs of schooling include school feeding programmes, which remain largely untargeted. Much more monitoring and evaluation work of GSFP is needed to ensure that the access gains of the programme do not negatively impact on school quality improvements as a result of increased enrolment. Better targeted social protection programming will also help to address some of the shorter term needs of families when sending their children to school, but empowerment approaches which help lift parents out of the poverty trap should be explored in the coming years. Ghana also has positive experience with microcredit schemes for mothers and complementary

education programming, which address the deep structural inequality barriers for children out of school due to poverty and high opportunity costs of sending children to school.

The most overarching supply side strategy in addressing OOSC is the need to improve the quality of education in order to ensure that children who enrol in school are motivated to stay in school and not drop out. The supply side strategies needed to address the needs of Ghana's marginalized children, particularly in the northern regions, are the equitable provision of school infrastructure, water and sanitation facilities, teaching and learning materials, qualified teachers, child friendly teaching methods and languages of instruction. Critical to the improvement of quality is the need to sustain and ensure the investment of existing well designed pedagogic and child friendly programmes. The National Accelerated Literacy Programme (NALAP) is one of Ghana's most relevant literacy programmes addressing several challenges at the lower primary level, including the language of instruction and the need for accelerated phonic based literacy approaches. In order to ensure the effectiveness and sustainability of such a programme, a sector-wide programming among DPs and MOE is indispensable. Other interventions to reduce the supply side barriers for OOSC include the complementary education programmes such as the School for Life and wing school models, which address the specific needs of school dropouts, working children and those living in very remote communities.

Finally, management, governance and financial strategies include the collection of more credible data in relation to tracking the out of school child population and the regular implementation of school mapping, particularly in the most deprived districts across the country. There is also the need for more effective partnerships between state and non-state actors, including the support for the implementation of complementary education. Systematic institutional development and capacity building remains essential, particularly among strategic divisions within GES (including girls' education, special needs and early childhood) and decentralized level education oversight bodies to ensure OOSC barriers are properly addressed and school quality is improved. Strengthened accountability structures at the district and community levels along with civil society agencies will improve the tracking and monitoring of OOSC. This Chapter also suggests the need to strengthen aid coordination in the sector for stronger inter-sectoral and intra-sectoral collaboration through a more formalized SWAP mechanism. Broad policy objectives, which attempt to apply holistic, and far reaching, approaches may not be the most cost effective way of addressing issues which are specific to some regions and populations. Further work is needed to ensure better targeting and more efficient use of resources to implement country-wide initiatives through the review and revision of the selection criteria for the deprived districts and school feeding programme, and the introduction of an equity-focused budget allocation formula for the capitation grant scheme.

Chapter 5: Recommendations and Way Forward

As Ghana transitions to a middle income country, it will be essential for all stakeholders in the education sector to help capacitate the population in addressing the out of school challenge. Policies and strategies for supporting out-of-school children in Ghana, and closing the remaining enrolment gaps, will require hard decisions by Ghana's policy makers, efficient implementation by decentralized level stakeholders, strategic leveraging by DPs, and effective collaboration with CSOs, particularly given the current context of financial inequity and inefficiency in Ghana (World Bank, 2011a). Based on the analysis in the preceding Chapters, this report concludes with key recommendations for stakeholders at different levels: 1) national policy makers (MOE, GES, and other MDAs); 2) regional/district/community level stakeholders (regional/district education offices, district assemblies, DEOCs, PTAs, SMCs etc.); 3) development partners; and 4) civil society.

5.1. Recommendations for National Policy Makers

- 1. Reassess targeting and deprived district criteria** - The MOE has developed criteria for identifying the “most deprived districts” in the country. The selection of the deprived districts was made almost 10 years ago based on selected educational indicators available from EMIS and no review of the districts has been done since then. There should be a periodical review of the “deprived district” listing to assess the impacts of targeted programmes on the reduction of disparities among districts. Targeting criteria for establishing the most “deprived districts” will need to include a broader range of variables, not only supply driven but demand side variables, in order to enable more efficient allocation of resources to the neediest areas and populations.
- 2. Strengthen collaborative relationships between key MDAs to track OOSC** - Tracking the dimensions of exclusion will also require new systems of capturing OOSC, along with better tracking systems of those who are likely to drop out. These new approaches to OOSC profile tracking will require stronger relationships between the MOE, the Ghana Statistical Service and the Ministry of Health. These relationships should strengthen and ensure that vital data on the OOSC profile is collected and analysed through the census and regular household surveys such as CWIQ, GLSS, MICS and GDHS. This collaboration will help to identify underserved areas and groups more precisely and better expose the characteristics of out-of-school children.
- 3. Increase funding to address the gender gap in education.** More challenging are the strategies needed by MOE and GES to address the negative sociocultural practices, which particularly affect Ghana's Northern Region, and ensure that girls in particular are able to access education at the upper primary and JHS levels. This will require more political will to finance the gender gap in education through larger scale implementation of girls' education strategies within the sector (e.g. take home ration, scholarships, gender training for teachers etc.). The Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Women and Children's Affairs on-going monitoring and technical support to gender responsive budgeting in the Education sector will be critical.
- 4. Translate the Complementary Basic Education Policy into concrete actions** – The MOE drafted the Complementary Basic Education Policy in 2008 based on positive evaluation results of the flexible school models, which targeted out-of-school children aged 8-14. However, the policy has not been fully operationalized and the implementation of complementary education programmes remains small scale; almost exclusively limited to the three northern regions. In order to integrate the most marginalized populations, including children living in remote rural areas, school dropouts, and working children into the education system, the expansion of complementary basic education programmes is indispensable. The MOE/GES needs to urgently translate the policy into concrete actions in partnership with NGOs and CSOs who are already working in this area.

5. **Implement the Child-Friendly School Standards** - There is also a significant need to ensure that the basic standards of Child-Friendly Schools provide the framework for addressing child rights and abuses at the school levels (e.g. verbal, physical and sexual abuse of children across the basic education sector). These standards should become part of the Colleges of Education curricula over the coming years in order to be integrated into pre-service training of teachers.

5.2. Recommendations for Regional/District/Community Level Stakeholders

1. **Strengthen school governance and accountability** - The decentralization policy of Ghana has not adequately arrived at the devolution stage. Capacity issues have limited policy implementation. School governance has not been as efficient as expected as a result of inadequate capacity. Most of the SMCs and DEOCs are dysfunctional. The Education Sector Performance Reports for the last three years recommend continuous sensitization and training in management skills for DEOCs and SMC members. Community governance processes at the grassroots need to be strengthened by consolidating school performance appraisal processes with existing SMCs in order to hold teachers accountable for higher quality service delivery. Monitoring teacher time on task and learning outcomes among the children in order to strengthen accountability systems from the bottom up and the district education office down will need expansion. Non-state actors should be mobilized to provide, in collaboration with GES, training for SMCs in each district in the country each year. There should be a network of core trainers (including members of the CSO community) at district level to ensure high quality training for the SMCs.
2. **Improve district planning measures to address the OOSC challenge** - District Assemblies and District Education Offices should strengthen the capacity of planning officers and allocate resources to ensure that the problems of the out-of-school population are thoroughly analyzed and strategies are put in place at their own localities. Some of these strategies should include: school mapping to identify needy areas, infrastructure targeting, the establishment and support for complementary education in collaboration with non-state actors, the equitable deployment of qualified teachers, and the strengthening of SMCs and PTAs to ensure efficient educational delivery.

5.3. Recommendations for Development Partners

1. **Develop a coherent programme framework for OOSC based on a sector wide approach (SWAP)** - In order to address the OOSC problems holistically, well-coordinated DP support based on the Government's long-term strategic plan is essential. In the education sector, there is an urgent need for DPs and the MOE to develop a stronger sector wide approach. The DPs involved in the sector should follow their health counterparts by ensuring that the principles and processes of alignment and harmonization are put in place. Deepening the commitment and engagement in a sector wide approach would require collective and transparent funding frameworks and procedures which enhance and build capacity of the MOE's systems and not stretch their implementation capacity based on DP priorities. The Global Partnership for Education (GPE) programme preparation process currently underway will provide a golden opportunity to develop a coherent programme and funding framework under which all major DPs will jointly support the government's priority strategies to achieve equitable access to basic education.
2. **Facilitate DP leveraging to ensure effectiveness of social protection programming** - DPs should also place more emphasis on assisting GoG/MOE evaluate the effectiveness of the designs of some of Ghana's current social protection strategies which have direct and indirect effects on OOSC's schooling. The scaling up of more transformational social protection policies synergised with education targeting efforts could lead to large scale impact for OOSC. The school feeding programme for instance, should be restructured after the current evaluation is completed to ensure that 100% of children in deprived schools are targeted, compared to its current 50%. DPs should also provide coherent support to social

protection strategies in order to maximize synergies between education specific interventions (e.g. school feeding, free school uniforms, etc.) and more generic social protection programmes (e.g. cash transfer).

5.4. Recommendations for Civil Society

- 1. Support effective civil society monitoring of GoG resource allocations within the education sector** - One of the key recommendations from this analysis is the need for civil society to become more engaged in the monitoring of GoG policies concerning the allocation and implementation of financial resources to the sector. As this report highlights, most of the government's pro-poor policies have helped to increase the enrolment in basic schools over the past years. Yet, there continue to be challenges in relation to the implementation, targeting and financing of key government programmes, which could effectively reduce inequality in educational outcomes, reduce the OOSC phenomena and address the supply issues across the country (e.g. equitable financial expenditures and teacher deployment). State and non-state partnerships are needed in Ghana to both better monitor and deliver services to the poor and ensure that equitable resourcing is allocated by the state.
- 2. Implement nationwide advocacy campaigns by civil society** - Until and unless educational deprivation declines for the large majority of children, advocacy on child rights, the practice of negative sociocultural practices and the responsibilities of parents will be necessary among the communities and traditional leadership in Ghana. CSOs are expected to lead advocacy campaigns to raise awareness among parents and communities on the importance of education, particularly concerning right-age school enrolment, girls' education and the completion of basic education. CSOs should also play advocacy roles in instituting legal frameworks and policies to hold teachers and community members accountable for offences committed against children who are denied education (e.g. child labour, early marriage, school based violence and child betrothal practices). CSOs' roles are critical in empowering children, youths and parents so that they become able to confidently claim their rights to quality education through existing mechanisms such as PTAs, SMC, and DEOCs.

References

- Abadzi, H. (2006). *Efficient Learning for the Poor: Insights from the Frontier of Cognitive Neuroscience*. World Bank Report.
- Abadzi, H. (2007). *Absenteeism and Beyond: Instructional Time Loss and Consequences*. Policy Research Working Paper 4376. World Bank
- Agbenyega, J. S. (2006). *Corporal Punishment in the Schools of Ghana: Does Inclusive Education Suffer?* *The Australian Educational Researcher*, Volume 33, Number 3.
- Akyeampong, K., J. Djangmah, A. Oduro, A. Seidu, and F. Hunt (2007). *Access to Basic Education in Ghana: The Evidence and the Issues*. Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity (CREATE)
- Alhassan S. and Adzahlie-Mensah, V. (2010). *Teachers and Access to Schooling in Ghana*. CREATE Pathways to Access. Research Monograph No 43. CREATE.
- Allsop, T., Attah R., Cammack, T., and Eric, W. (2009). *Mid-Term Evaluation of the EFA Fast Track Initiative*. Country Case Study: Ghana. Cambridge Education.
- Ammassari, S., (2006). *Evaluation of CAMFED's Work in Ghana, Zambia and Zimbabwe*. Synthesis Report.
- Apt, N.A. and Grieco, M. (1997). *Listening To Girls On The Street - Tell Their Own Story: What Will Help Them Most? A Study Commissioned by RESPONSE*. Centre for Social Policy Studies (CSPS): University Of Ghana, Legon, Accra, Ghana.
- Associates for Change (2002). *A Situational Analysis of Child Rights and Protection Instruments for the Ministry of Education*. Accra, Ghana.
- Associates for Change (2009). *Strengthening the Chain of Accountability across Ghana's Basic Education Sector: An evaluation of the Link Community Development Programme (LCD)*. Commissioned by the Voluntary Service Organization (VSO): Ghana.
- Associates for Change (2010). *Preliminary Assessment Results of the Implementation of the National Accelerated Literacy Programme (NALAP)*. Commissioned by EQUALL/USAID.
- Associates for Change (2011). *Inclusive Education in Ghana: A Look at Policy, and Practice in Northern Ghana*. Study report commissioned by the Voluntary Service Organization (VSO). www.associatesforchange.org
- Avotri, R., Owusu-Darko, L., Eghan, H., and Oceansey S. (1999). *Gender and Primary Schooling in Ghana*. Institute of Development Studies: Sussex.
- Azeem, V. A. and Sam, G. (2008). *Africa Education Watch Project, Ghana Report*. Ghana Integrity Initiative (GII): Accra.
- Boakye, J. K.A., Agyemang-Duah, S., Osei, J., and Brew-Ward, M. (1997). *Causes of Dropout from Basic Education in Ghana*. Ministry of Education, Girls Education Unit, Ghana.
- Boakye, J. K. A., and Osei, J., (2004). *Impact of Bicycles on Girls Education in UNICEF Ghana Focus Districts*. UNICEF: Ghana.
- Bock, C., and Cammish N.K., (1997). *Factors Affecting Female Participation in Education in Seven Developing Countries, (Second Edition)*. Commissioned for DFID. Universities of Oxford and Hull.

- Brookings Institution. (2007). Review of Trends in Public Spending for Education and Health in Ghana (2002-2006). Transparency and Accountability Project.
- Burwick, A., Paulsell, D., Boller K., and Susan. S, (2010). Evaluation of UNICEF ECD Programme with Focus on Government of Netherlands Funding (2008-2010). Ghana Country Case Study Report. Mathematica Policy Research Inc.
- Camfed and Associates for Change (Forthcoming). What Works in Girls Education: A Critical Review of the Ghanaian and International Literature. Prepared by Camfed for the Girls Education Unit of the Ministry of Education. Accra, Ghana.
- CARE Ghana (2011). Baseline on SMCs/ Communities. Partnership for Accountable Governance (PAGE): Accra.
- Case, A. and Deaton, A. (1999). School inputs and educational outcomes in South Africa. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 114, 1047-1084.
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2000). Education, Culture and Development in Northern Ghana: Micro Realities and Macro Context: Implications for Policy and Practice. University of Sussex: Unpublished PhD thesis.
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2002). Situational Analysis of Gender Issues in Education: from Literate Girls to Educated Women. Prepared for the MOE as part of the Education Sector Review (ESR).
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2003). Reaching the Underserved Population with Basic Education in Deprived Areas of Ghana: Emerging Good Practices (Vol. 1 and Vol. 2). Report commissioned by CARE Ghana. www.associatesforchange.org
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2004). Situational Analysis of Child Labour in the Cocoa Sector of Ghana. Submitted to the International Cocoa Initiative. Accra, Ghana
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2005). The Quality Dilemma: An Ethnographic Study of Rural Education in Northern Ghana. *Forefronts in Research* by Cynthia Szymanski Sunal and Kagenda Mutua (eds). Connecticut: Information Age Publishing Inc.
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2007). Gendered Experiences of Teaching in Poor Rural Areas of Ghana. RECOUP working Paper 8. Research Consortium on Educational Outcomes and Poverty (RECOUP).
- Casely-Hayford, L. (2011). The Political Economy Analysis of Ghana's Education Sector: The Implications for STAR – Ghana, STAR Commissioned report.
- Casely-Hayford, L. and Hartwell, A. (2010). Reaching the Underserved with Complementary Education: Lessons from Ghana's State and Non State Sectors, *Journal for Development in Practice*. Special Issue Vol. 20, Issue 4/5, June 2010.
- Casely-Hayford, L. and Ghartey A. (2007) The Leap to Literacy and Life Change in Northern Ghana: An impact assessment of School for Life (SFL). Final report, Accra: UNICEF.
- Casely-Hayford, L., and Wilson, S. (2001). How the Poor Get Poorer - An exploration into the Participation, Quality and Needs of Female Teachers in Deprived Rural Areas of Ghana. World Bank: Accra, Ghana.
- Casely-Hayford, L., Bisgaard, M. and D. Korboe (2010). Education for Empowerment (EfE) Final Evaluation. IBIS Ghana: Accra.
- Casely-Hayford, L., Salifu E. M., and Arnot M., (2009). Becoming A Somebody in Northern Ghana: Young People's Unfulfilled Expectations from Formal Schooling and the Impact on Social Transformation. Oxford Conference Paper and Presentation: September 2009; Oxford University, UK.

- CDD (2010) Public Expenditure Tracking Survey (PETS): Tracking Capitation Grant in Primary Schools in Ghana. Ampratwum et al. Commissioned By the Centre for Democratic Governance (CDD) Ghana.
- CREATE (2007). Access to Basic Education in Ghana: The Evidence and the Issues. University of Sussex: CREATE project.
- CREATE (2008). Educational Access in Ghana: Country Policy Brief. University of Sussex: CREATE project.
- CREATE (2010a). Complementary Education and Access to Primary Schooling in Northern Ghana. University of Sussex: CREATE project.
- CREATE (2010b). Typologies of Drop Out in Southern Ghana: Create Ghana Policy Brief. University of Sussex: CREATE project.
- Croft, A., (2010). Including Disabled Children in Learning: Challenges in Developing Countries. University of Sussex, Education and Social Work.
- CRRECENT (2009). Report on the Study of Child Sexual Abuse in Schools. Commissioned study by Plan Ghana, Accra.
- DCCYB (2008). The use of corporal punishment in Ghana: the Voices of Ghanaian children. Department of Children and Children and Youth in Broadcasting (DCCYB).
- Dachi, H.A., and Garrett R. M., (2003). Child Labour and Its Impact Children's Access to and Participation in Primary: A Case Study from Tanzania.
- Baiden - Amissah, A. (2006). Improving the Educational Sector in Ghana's Development Agenda. A paper presented by the Hon. Deputy Minister of Education, Science and Sport (Hon. Angela Baiden-Amisshah) at the study tour of Asia by African Ministers of Education.
- Devereux, S., and Sabates-Wheeler, Rachel (2004) Transformative Social Protection. Institute of Development Studies. Brighton, Sussex, England.
- DFID (2009) The Challenges of Universal Primary Education: Strategies For Achieving International Development Targets. Department for International Development (DFID).
- Dunne, M., and F., Leach. (2005). Gendered School Experiences: The Impact on Retention and Achievement in Botswana and Ghana.
- Este, K. (2008). Academic Performance within the Cycle of Deprivation in Ghana. Meta Analysis Paper 4. Associates for Change.
- Etse, K., Smith, M. T., Gyamera, E., Koka, J., Boar de, J., Havi, E., and Heyneman, P.S., (2009). Basic Education Quality in Ghana: Progress and Problems. USAID Final Report. Washington DC: USAID.
- Fast Track Initiative. (2009). Reaching Out to Out-of-School Children: Putting Inclusive Education on the Fast Track. Washington DC: FTI Secretariat.
- Ghana Local Education Donor Group (2011). Appraisal of the Government of Ghana Education Sector Plan 2010 – 2020 Final Draft. Education for All - Fast Track Initiative. Ghana Local Education Donor Group.
- FAWE (1999). Teenage Pregnancy Among Girls At The Basic Education Level In Ghana. Report prepared for FAWE Ghana.
- FAWE (2001). Sexual Maturation and Menstrual Hygiene Practices Associated With School

Girls in Ghana. Report prepared for FAWE Ghana.

- FAWE (2011). Baseline Study on Adolescent Sexual Reproductive Health and Rights (ASRHR) in Five schools and Five communities in Akwapim South Municipality in Ghana. FAWE Ghana Chapter, Accra.
- Filmer, D. and N. Schady (2006). Getting Girls into School: Evidence From a Scholarship Program in Cambodia. World Bank Policy Research Paper 3910.
- Gadagbui, G. Y. (2010). Inclusive Education in Ghana: Practices, Challenges and the Future Implications for All Stakeholders. Ghana National Commission for UNESCO.
- Ghana Integrity Initiative (GII) (2008). Africa Education Watch (AEW) Project, Ghana Report.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2003). Ghana Child Labour Survey. Accra, Ghana.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2005). Core Welfare Indicators Questionnaire (CWIQ) Household Survey. Accra, Ghana.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2006). Ghana Living Standards Survey Round Four (GLSS 4) Report. Accra, Ghana.
- Ghana Statistical Service (2008). Ghana Living Standards Survey Round Five (GLSS 5) Report. Accra, Ghana.
- Ghana Statistical Service and ORC Macro (2003). Ghana Demographic and Health Survey 2003. Accra, Ghana and Calverton, Maryland, USA.
- Ghana Statistical Service and ORC Macro (2008). Ghana Demographic and Health Survey 2008. Accra, Ghana and Calverton, Maryland, USA.
- Glewwe, P. (2002). Schools and skills in developing countries: Education policies and socioeconomic outcomes. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 90, 436-482.
- GNECC (2008a). The Impact of Rural Urban Divide On Quality Basic Education In Ghana. Research Commissioned By the Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition (GNECC).
- GNECC (2008b). Out of School Conditions: An Assessment of 8 Districts in Ghana. Research Commissioned by the Ghana National Education Campaign Coalition (GNECC) and Conducted by Gideon S. Hosu-Porbley.
- GNECC (2009). Making Schools safer for girls: the impact of school infrastructure on Girls access to quality basic education in Ghana. Education Watch Policy Brief.
- Fentiman, A., Hall, A., and Bundy, D., (2001). Health and Cultural Factors Associated with Enrolment in Basic Education: A Study in Rural Ghana. Oxford UK.
- Hartwell, A. and Casely-Hayford, L. (2010). National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) Implementation Study. USAID, Ghana.
- Hartwell, A., Wills, A., Y., Zhao (2006). Looking Below the Surface: Reaching the Out-of-School Children. EQUIP 2.
- Hunt, F. (2008). Dropping Out from School: A Cross Country Review of Literature. CREATE Pathways to Access. Research Monograph No 16. CREATE.
- IBIS (2009). Education for Empowerment (EfE) Programme: Thematic Programme Evaluation. Final Report for Ghana.

- Iddrisu, K., Salifu, E.M., Casely-Hayford, L., and Signal, N. (2010). Disability, Poverty and Education: Voices of Youth in Northern Ghana. RECOUP Project.
- ISODEC (2005). The Journey towards Making Public Systems Responsive: Evaluation Report of Girl Child Education Project (GCEP). Accra, Ghana: ISODEC/NOMB.
- ISSER (2008). The State of the Ghanaian Economy in 2007. Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research, Accra.
- Kane E. (2004). Girls Education in Africa: What Do We Know About Strategies that Work? Africa Region Human Development Working Series. World Bank Africa Region, Washington DC.
- Korboe, D., Dogbe, T., and Marshall, C. (2011). Participatory Poverty and Vulnerability Assessment (PPVA): Understanding the Regional Dynamics of Poverty with Particular Focus on Northern Ghana. GOG/DFID/UNICEF/World Bank: Accra, Ghana.
- Kuyini, Ahmed B., and Fati K. Mahama (2009). Implementing Child Rights and Protection Law in Ghana: Case Study Report. Crescent Educational & Volunteer Service, Ghana. <<http://www.cevsghana.org/publications>>.
- Lange, de. D. (2007). Deprived children and Education in Ghana. International Research on Working Children.
- Leach, F., and C. Mitchell (2006). Combating Gender Violence in and around Schools: Gender Violence in Schools in Developing World. Published by Trentham Books, Stoke on Trent, UK and Sterling, USA.
- Leach, F., Kadzamira, E., Lemani, E., and Pamela, M. (2003). An Investigative Study of the Abuse of Girls in African Schools. Commissioned by the Department for International Development (DFID).
- Little, W. A. (2010). Access to Basic Education in Ghana: Politics, Policies and Progress. Create Pathways to Access Research Monograph No. 42. Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity. University of London, Institute of Education.
- Lloyd C. B. (1994). Does Sibsize Matter? The Implication of Family Size on Children's Education in Ghana. Accra, Ghana.
- Lloyd, C. B. (2009). New Lessons: The Power of Educating Adolescent Girls: A Girls Count Report on Adolescent Girls. Population Council.
- Lloyd, C.B., S. el Tawila, W.H. Clark, and B. S. Mensch (2003). The Impact of Educational Quality on School Exit in Egypt. Comparative Education Review 47:444-467.
- Marshall, J.H. (2010). School Quality Signals and School Attendance in Rural Guatemala. www.sapere.org.
- Ministry of Education. (2002). Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana 2002/2003. Accra: SRIMPR Division, MOE, Ghana.
- Ministry of Education. (2003). Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana 2002/2003. Accra: SRIMPR Division, MOE, Ghana.
- Ministry of Education. (2004). Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana 2002/2003. Accra: SRIMPR Division, MOE, Ghana.
- Ministry of Education. (2005). Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana 2002/2003. Accra: SRIMPR Division, MOE, Ghana.

- Ministry of Education. (2006a). Annual Education Sector Performance Report. Accra, Ghana: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2006b). Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana 2002/2003. Accra: SRIMPR Division, MOE, Ghana.
- Ministry of Education. (2007a). Annual Education Sector Performance Report. Accra, Ghana: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2007b). Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana 2002/2003. Accra: SRIMPR Division, MOE, Ghana.
- Ministry of Education. (2008a). Annual Education Sector Performance Report. Accra, Ghana: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2008b). Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana 2002/2003. Accra: SRIMPR Division, MOE, Ghana.
- Ministry of Education. (2009a). Annual Education Sector Performance Report. Accra, Ghana: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Education. (2009b). Report on Basic Statistics and Planning Parameters for Basic Education in Ghana 2002/2003. Accra: SRIMPR Division, MOE, Ghana.
- Ministry of Education (2010). Education Strategic Plan (ESP 2010-2020). Accra, Ghana: Ministry of Education.
- Ministry of Manpower, Youth and Employment (2008). Cocoa Labour Survey in Ghana 2007/08. Accra, Ghana.
- Odonkor M. (2007). Addressing Child Labour through Education: A Study of Alternative/Complementary Initiatives in Quality Education Delivery and Their Sustainability for Cocoa – Farming Communities.
- Odonkor, M., and Ammassari, S. (2006). Evaluation of the RAINS/CAMFED Programme Ghana.
- Osher, D., D. L. Kelly, N. Tolani-Brown, L. Shors, and C. Chen (2005). UNICEF Child Friendly Schools Programming; Global Evaluation Final Report. Washington, DC: American Institutes for Research, 2005.
- Pridmore, P. (2007). Impact of Health on Education Access and Achievement: A Cross-National Review of the Research Evidence. CREATE Pathways to Access. Research Monograph No 2. CREATE.
- Pryor, J. and J. G. Ampiah (2003). Understandings of Education in an African Village: The Impact of Information and Communications Technologies. London: DFID.
- Peters, J. S. (2004). Inclusive Education: An Education for All Strategy for All Children. Michigan, USA.
- QUIPS/TMG (2005). A look at Learning in Ghana: QUIPS Program Final Evaluation. Washington/Accra: The Mitchell Group/Education Assessment and Research Centre.
- RECOUP (2010). Disability, Poverty and Education: Voices of Youth in Northern Ghana.
- Reddy, A. N. and Sinha, S. School (2010). Dropouts or Pushouts? Overcoming Barriers for the Right to Education. CREATE Pathways to Access Research Monograph No 40. CREATE.

- Rolleston, C. (2009). Human Capital, Poverty, Educational Access and Exclusion: The Case of Ghana, 1991-2006. University of London, Institute of Education.
- Rolleston, C. (2010). Fosterage and Access to Schooling in Savelugu-Nanton, Ghana
CREATE Research Monograph.
- Rugh, A. (2000). Starting Now: Strategies for Helping Girls Complete Primary. Washington DC.
- SEND (2008). Whose Decision Counts? A monitoring Report on the Ghana School Feeding Programme (GSFP). Accra: SEND Foundation.
- Sackey, M. (2008). Legal, Institutional and Policy Frameworks of Child Labour.
University of Ghana, Legon.
- Stephens, D. (1998). Girls and Basic Education: A Cultural Enquiry. University of Sussex.
- Sutherland-Addy, E. (2002). Impact Assessment Study of Girls' Education Programme in Ghana. Accra, Ghana.
- Sutherland-Addy, E. (2004). Access and Trends in Financial/Budgetary Allocations to Girls' Education in Ghana. Accra, Ghana: UNICEF.
- SNV (2009). Strategies to Promote Girls Education in Ghana: A Look at their Impact and Effectiveness. A Joint Study by SNV, Ibis, UNICEF and WFP. Accra, Ghana.
- Tanahashi, T. (1978). Health service coverage and its evaluation. Geneva: WHO.
- Thompson, N. M. and Casely-Hayford, L. (2008). Financing and Outcomes to Education in Ghana. RECOUP Working Paper 16. Research Consortium on Educational Outcomes and Poverty (RECOUP).
- Understanding Children's Work (UCW) (2011). Child Labour and Out-of-School Children: a Statistical Profile. Rome: UCW.
- UNDP (2010). Millennium Development Goal Progress Report for Ghana. Accra: UNDP.
- UNICEF (2005). A Study of Child Domestic Work and Fosterage: In Northern and Upper East Region of Ghana. Accra, Ghana.
- UNICEF. (2006). Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS). Monitoring the Situation of Children, Women, and Men. Commissioned by USAID, UNICEF, Ghana Statistical Service and Ministry of Health. Accra, Ghana.
- UNICEF (2009a). State of World Children: Special Edition. www.unicef.org
- UNICEF (2009b). Social Protection in Ghana: Opportunities and Challenges in Ghana. Published by UNICEF and Overseas Development Initiative (ODI). For the Ministry of Employment and Social Welfare, Accra Ghana.
- UNICEF (2010). An Analysis of Out of School Children in Ghana: Ghana Demographic and Health Surveys (GDHS) 2003 – 2008. Accra: UNICEF.
- UNICEF and UIS (2005). Children Out of School: Measuring Exclusion from Primary Education. Montreal: UNESCO Institute for Statistics.
- UNICEF and UIS (2011). Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children: Conceptual and Methodological Framework (CMF). New York.
- UNESCO (2007). Global Education Digest 2007, Montreal Canada: UIS.

- UNESCO (2008). Global Education Digest 2008, Montreal Canada: UIS.
- UNESCO (2009). Global Education Digest 2009, Montreal Canada: UIS.
- UNESCO (2010). Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2010. www.unesco.org
- USAID (2009). Basic Education Quality in Ghana: Progress and Problems. Final report. Accra: USAID.
- USAID (2010). Towards a Ghana Education Coordination Strategy: the Education Sector Coordination Strategy Retreat; April 6-7, 2010, Akosombo, Report by Associates for Change for the Ministry of Education and USAID.
- VSO (2011). Preliminary Results on Tackling Education Needs Inclusively Baseline Report. University of London/VSO Ghana.
- Vuri, D. (2007). The Effect of Availability and Distance from School on Children's Time Allocation in Ghana and Guatemala. Understanding Children's Work (UCW) Working Paper.
- WFP (2010a). Assessing the Impacts of the Global Economic and Financial Crisis on Vulnerable Households in Ghana. Accra, Ghana: WFP.
- WFP (2010b). Evaluation of WFP Country Programme 10418.0 Ghana (2006-2010): Final Evaluation Report. Accra, Ghana: WFP.
- Wolf, J., and Martina, O. (1997). How Educating a Girl Child Changes the Woman She Becomes: An Intergenerational Study in Northern Ghana.
- World Bank (2004). Books, Buildings, and Learning Outcomes: An Impact Evaluation of World Bank Support to Basic Education in Ghana. Operations Evaluation Department. Report No. 28779.
- World Bank and UNICEF. (2009). Abolishing School Fees in Africa: Lessons from Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Malawi, and Mozambique. Washington DC: World Bank.
- World Bank. (2011a). Education in Ghana: Improving Equity, Efficiency and Accountability of Education Service Delivery. Washington DC: World Bank.
- World Bank (2011b). Improving the Targeting of Social Programs. Washington DC: World Bank.
- WUSC (2002). Girl-Child Education Project (GCEP) Evaluation Report of the Girls Education Unit Component. Prepared by Rosemary O'Shaughnessy. Accra, Ghana.

Appendix

Sources of data on out-of-school children: Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (GDHS) 2008

Data source

Ghana Demographic and Health Survey (GDHS) 2008

Agencies responsible for collection and dissemination of data

Ghana Statistical Service

Data collection date (not publication date)

September - November 2008

Frequency of data collection (for example, annual, every two years)

Every five years since 1988

Definition of an out-of-school child (for example, is not enrolled, did not attend in the last three months)

The child did not attend school during the current school year (2008-09)

Definitions of other education terms

School entrance age	Not used in the data collection
Enrolment	Not applicable
Attendance	A child who attended school at any time during the current school year (2008-09)
Drop-out	A child who attended school during the previous school year but did not attend during the current school year
Educational attainment	The highest educational level attended by a person (primary, secondary, tertiary)
Other relevant terms	

Sample design and coverage of data collection (for example, national, specific geographic region, specific sub-population group)

Nationally representative survey. Sampling was done in such a manner as to allow for separate estimates of key indicators for each of the 10 regions in Ghana, as well as for urban and rural areas separately.

Smallest administrative area for which statistics on the out-of-school population are statistically accurate

Regional level

Types of disaggregation possible with data (for example, by age, sex, area, wealth quintile, socio-economic group, ethnicity, religion, type of school)

Age group, sex, wealth quintile, urban/rural, ethnicity, region, education level

Data availability and access (include information on type of data available and procedure to acquire the data)

The full data set is available from Ghana Statistical Service upon request.
Data available in SPSS, SAS and Stata format.
Survey report available at
http://www.measuredhs.com/countries/country_main.cfm?ctry_id=14&c=Ghana

Data limitations (coverage, accuracy)

Indicators are not statistically valid at district levels.

Other information

Further details on the survey are available at
http://www.measuredhs.com/countries/country_main.cfm?ctry_id=14&c=Ghana

Sources of data on out-of-school children: Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2006

Data source

Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey (MICS) 2006

Agencies responsible for collection and dissemination of data

Ghana Statistical Service

Data collection date (not publication date)

August - October, 2006

Frequency of data collection (for example, annual, every two years)

Conducted in 1995 and 2006; to be conducted in 2011

Definition of an out-of-school child (for example, is not enrolled, did not attend in the last three months)

The child did not attend school during the current school year (2005-06)

Definitions of other education terms

School entrance age	6 years old
Enrolment	Not applicable
Attendance	A child who attended school at any time during the current school year (2005-06)
Drop-out	A child who attended school during the previous school year but did not attend during the current school year
Educational attainment	The highest educational level attended by a person (primary, secondary, tertiary)
Other relevant terms	

Sample design and coverage of data collection (for example, national, specific geographic region, specific sub-population group)

Nationally representative survey. Sampling was done in such a manner as to allow for separate estimates of key indicators for each of the 10 regions in Ghana, as well as for urban and rural areas separately.

Smallest administrative area for which statistics on the out-of-school population are statistically accurate

Regional level

Types of disaggregation possible with data (for example, by age, sex, area, wealth quintile, socio-economic group, ethnicity, religion, type of school)

Age group, sex, wealth quintile, urban/rural, ethnicity, region, education level, child labor status

Data availability and access (include information on type of data available and procedure to acquire the data)

The full data set is available from Ghana Statistical Service upon request.
Data available in SPSS, SAS and Stata format.
Survey report available at
http://www.childinfo.org/files/MICS3_Ghana_FinalReport_2006_Eng.pdf

Data limitations (coverage, accuracy)

The MICS fieldwork was conducted from August to October, thus covering part of the annual school break, and, more importantly, the beginning of a new school-year. The data processing team adjusted the enrolment figures to accommodate this and other issues.

Other information

Further details on the survey are available at http://www.childinfo.org/mics3_surveys.html

Sources of data on out-of-school children: Education Management Information System

Data source

Education Management Information System

Agencies responsible for collection and dissemination of data

Statistics, Research, Information Management, and Public Relation Division, Ministry of Education

Data collection date (not publication date)

November – January every year

Frequency of data collection (for example, annual, every two years)

Annual

Definition of an out-of-school child (for example, is not enrolled, did not attend in the last three months)

A child who is not registered in school

Definitions of other education terms

School entrance age	A child who reached the age of 6 before 1 September.
Enrolment	All children registered in school (available from the school census)
Attendance	All children attending school (available from the school attendance sheet)
Drop-out	A child who stopped attending school during the school year
Educational attainment	The highest grade a person completed
Other relevant terms	Repeater: A student who enrolled in the same grade in the previous and current school year.

Sample design and coverage of data collection (for example, national, specific geographic region, specific sub-population group)

National

Smallest administrative area for which statistics on the out-of-school population are statistically accurate

District

Types of disaggregation possible with data (for example, by age, sex, area, wealth quintile, socio-economic group, ethnicity, religion, type of school)

Age, sex, region, district, type of school (public, private), grade, education level

Data availability and access (include information on type of data available and procedure to acquire the data)

The Statistic Unit maintains the database since 2001. Annual statistical reports are available from the Statistics Unit.

Data limitations (coverage, accuracy)

Data on age-specific enrolment should be interpreted with caution.
Some districts show NER higher than 100%.

Other information

Definition of Child Labor

Child labor is a legal rather than statistical concept, and the international legal standards that define it are therefore the necessary frame of reference for child labor statistics. Three principal international conventions on child labor, set the legal boundaries for child labor, and provide the legal basis for national and international actions against it:

- ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) (C138)
- United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC); and
- ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) (C182)

But the translation of these broad legal norms into statistical terms for measurement purposes is by no means straightforward. The international legal standards contain a number of flexibility clauses left to the discretion of the competent national authority in consultation (where relevant) with worker and employer organizations (e.g., minimum ages, scope of application). This means that there is no single legal definition of child labor across countries, and concomitantly, no single standard statistical measure of child labor consistent with national legislation across countries.

The resolution on child labor statistics adopted at the 18th International Conference of Labor Statisticians (ICLS) in 2008 provides a first-ever set of global standards for translating the international legal standards on child labor into statistical terms. See: <http://www.ilo.org/ipec/ChildlabourstatisticsSIMPOC/ICLSandchildlabour/lang--en/index.htm>.

The ICLS resolution states that child labor may be measured in terms of the engagement of children in productive activities on the basis of the general production boundary. The general production boundary is a broad concept encompassing all activities whose performance can be delegated to another person with the same desired results. This includes unpaid household services (household chores) that are outside the more narrow System of National Accounts (SNA) production boundary.

Even though largely based on the measurement guidelines contained in the 18th ICLS resolution, the scope of this study is restricted to children up to and including 14 years of age (the most common upper age limited for basic schooling. The child labor measure used in this report comprises three groups of children:

- 5-11 year olds in economic activity (i.e. those engaged in any activity falling within the SNA production boundary for at least one hour during the reference week). Economic activity covers children in all market production and in certain types of non-market production, including production of goods for own use. It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal sectors, as well as forms of work both inside and outside family settings);
- 12-14 year-olds in non-light (or “regular”) economic activity (i.e. those engaged in any activity falling within the SNA production boundary for 14 or more hours during the reference week); and
- 5-14 year-olds in hazardous unpaid household services (i.e. defined for the scope of this report as those engaged in the production of domestic and personal services for consumption within their own household, commonly called “household chores”, for at least 28 hours during the reference week).

The first two groups relate to ILO Convention 138, which stipulates a minimum age of generally 15 years (possibly 14 years as an exception in less developed countries) for admission to employment or work (art. 2), but states that national laws may permit the work of persons from age 13 (or even 12 years) in light work (art. 7). In determining the hour’s threshold for permissible light work, which is not defined explicitly in C138, the ICLS resolution recommends a cut-off point of 14 hours during the reference week, below which non-hazardous work can be considered permissible light work. It should be noted that, in this study, the second group of child laborers does not include those children working for less than 14 hours per week in hazardous work.

The inclusion of the third group marks recognition of the fact that the international legal standards do not rule out a priori children’s production outside the system of national accounts production boundary from consideration in child labor measurement. The ICLS resolution, building on this recognition,

opened the way for classifying those performing hazardous unpaid household services – where the general production boundary is taken as the measurement framework for measuring child labor - as part of the group of child laborers for measurement purposes.

The ICLS resolution does not recommend a specific hours threshold for classifying household chores as hazardous (and therefore as child labor), and cites establishing hazardousness criteria as an area requiring further conceptual and methodological development. In the absence of detailed statistical criteria for hazardousness, an hour's threshold of 28 weekly working hours is used in this report, above which performance of household chores is classified as child labor. It should be kept in mind, however, that this threshold is based only on preliminary evidence of the interaction between household chores and school attendance, and does not constitute an agreed measurement standard.

The child labor indicator utilized in this study, therefore, represents a benchmark for international comparative purposes, but, is not necessarily consistent with (estimates based on) national child labor legislation owing to the flexibility clauses contained in the international legal standards.

Table A1.1a. Percentage of children attending school, by age and level of education, 2008

	Pre-Primary	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Total
Female					
5	56.1	17.4	0	0	73.5
6	33.1	47.1	0	0	80.2
7	17.3	66.8	0	0	84.1
8	6.6	81.4	0.4	0	88.4
9	2.1	86.2	0.6	0	88.9
10	2	85.2	0.7	0	87.9
11	0.6	82	6.7	0	89.3
12	0.4	72.3	16.7	0	89.4
13	0	53.5	34.5	0.2	88.2
14	0	34	49	0.8	83.8
15	0	21.2	52.5	2.3	76
16	0	13.2	52.3	7.9	73.4
17	0	6.1	28.3	15.3	49.7
Male					
5	55.7	14.2	0	0	69.9
6	34	44.6	0	0	78.6
7	18.5	66.2	0	0	84.7
8	8.3	78.4	0	0	86.7
9	2.5	86.3	0	0	88.8
10	1.1	85.8	1.3	0	88.2
11	0.2	87	2.3	0	89.5
12	0.1	74	15.3	0	89.4
13	0	55.7	32.2	0	87.9
14	0	35.6	50.5	0.4	86.5
15	0	30.9	44.2	3.6	78.7
16	0	14.9	48	10.9	73.8
17	0	9.2	37.1	13.9	60.2
Total					
5	55.9	15.8	0	0	71.7
6	33.5	44.8	0	0	78.3
7	17	66.5	0	0	83.5
8	7.4	80	0	0	87.4
9	2.3	86.9	0	0	89.2
10	1.5	86.5	0	0	88
11	0.4	84.6	4.4	0	89.4
12	0.2	73.2	17.1	0	90.5
13	0	54.6	34.4	0.1	89.1
14	0	34.8	49.7	0.6	85.1
15	0	25.8	48.4	3	77.2
16	0	14.1	50.1	9.5	73.7
17	0	7.6	32.6	14.6	54.8

Table A1.1b. Percentage of children attending school, by age and level of education, 2003

	Primary	Lower Secondary	Upper Secondary	Total
Female				
5	7.7	0	0	7.7
6	22.7	0	0	22.7
7	46.9	0	0	46.9
8	65.3	0	0	65.3
9	76.1	0	0	76.1
10	79.9	0	0	79.9
11	79.8	3.7	0	83.5
12	72	9.4	0	81.4
13	53	28.5	0	81.5
14	37.2	41.8	0.3	79.3
15	18.4	49.6	2.4	70.4
16	11.1	40.1	5.7	56.9
17	3.5	27.9	13.2	44.6
Male				
5	5.2	0	0	5.2
6	22	0	0	22
7	45.5	0	0	45.5
8	67.8	0	0	67.8
9	78.2	0	0	78.2
10	75.2	0.5	0	75.7
11	83.7	2.9	0	86.6
12	76.5	7.4	0	83.9
13	56	23.6	0	79.6
14	45.9	36.6	0	82.5
15	24.9	48.4	1.8	75.1
16	15.2	50.5	4.9	70.6
17	12.3	31.8	11.7	55.8
Total				
5	6.4	0	0	6.4
6	22.4	0	0	22.4
7	46.1	0	0	46.1
8	66.6	0	0	66.6
9	77.2	0	0	77.2
10	77.4	0.3	0	77.7
11	81.9	3.3	0	85.2
12	74.3	8.4	0	82.7
13	54.6	25.9	0	80.5
14	41.7	39.1	0.2	81
15	21.5	49	2.1	72.6
16	13.2	45.4	5.3	63.9
17	7.8	29.8	12.8	50.4

Table A1.1c. Alternative Version of Table 2.2 using provided template

	Not attending school	Attending pre-primary school	Attending primary school	Attending either pre-primary or primary
Male				
Residence				
Urban	18.9	68.6	12.8	81.4
Rural	35.9	49.2	15	64.2
Wealth index quintiles				
Poorest	51	32.4	16.6	49
Second	31.1	54.8	14.1	68.9
Middle	28.3	63.6	8.1	71.7
Fourth	15.5	66.3	18.2	84.5
Richest	7.4	76.5	16	92.5
Region				
Western	43.2	44.1	12.7	56.8
Central	34.8	56.2	9	65.2
Greater Accra	20.2	71.1	8.8	79.9
Volta	40.8	47.8	11.4	59.2
Eastern	20.8	69.7	9.5	79.2
Ashanti	8.5	72	19.5	91.5
Brong Ahafo	27.4	71.1	1.5	72.6
Northern	49.8	26.2	24	50.2
Upper West	37.8	37.3	25	62.3
Upper East	48	36.7	15.3	52
Total	30.1	55.7	14.2	69.9
Female				
Residence				
Urban	17.3	67.2	15.5	82.7
Rural	32.8	48.7	18.6	67.3
Wealth index quintiles				
Poorest	55	26.2	18.9	45.1
Second	30.6	55.7	13.7	69.4
Middle	15.1	67.8	17.1	84.9
Fourth	16.3	69.4	14.4	83.8
Richest	4.9	70.1	25	95.1
Region				
Western	29.8	53.3	16.9	70.2
Central	29.1	50.1	20.8	70.9
Greater Accra	12.7	72.5	14.8	87.3

Volta	28.6	47.9	23.6	71.5
Eastern	12.2	70.9	17	87.9
Ashanti	11.2	72.8	16	88.8
Brong Ahafo	33.7	53.8	12.4	66.2
Northern	57	26.5	16.5	43
Upper West	23.8	53.3	22.9	76.2
Upper East	42	40.3	17.8	58.1
Total	26.5	56.1	17.3	73.4

Total

Residence

Urban	17.9	67.8	14.3	82.1
Rural	34.4	48.9	16.7	65.6

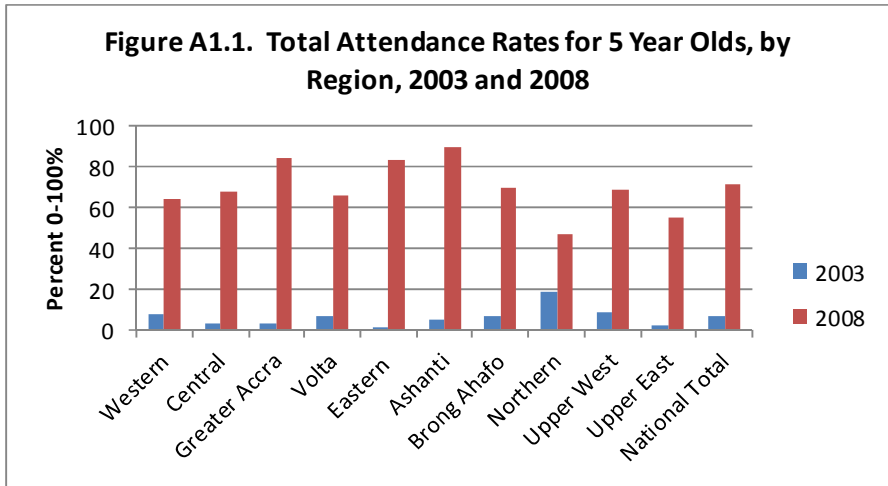
Wealth index quintiles

Poorest	52.9	29.5	17.7	47.2
Second	30.9	55.3	13.9	69.2
Middle	22.6	65.4	12	77.4
Fourth	15.9	67.9	16.2	84.1
Richest	6	72.9	21.1	94

Region

Western	36.2	48.9	14.9	63.8
Central	32	53.2	14.8	68
Greater Accra	16	71.9	12.1	84
Volta	34.3	47.8	17.9	65.7
Eastern	16.5	70.3	13.2	83.5
Ashanti	9.8	72.4	17.8	90.2
Brong Ahafo	30.3	63.1	6.6	69.7
Northern	53.5	26.3	20.2	46.5
Upper West	31.5	44.4	24.1	68.5
Upper East	45	38.5	16.5	55

Total	28.3	55.9	15.8	71.7
--------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-------------



Source: GDHS 2003, 2008

Notes: The 2003 and 2008 data do not include the same levels of education.

Table A1.2: Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR), by sex and level of education, with GPI, 2008

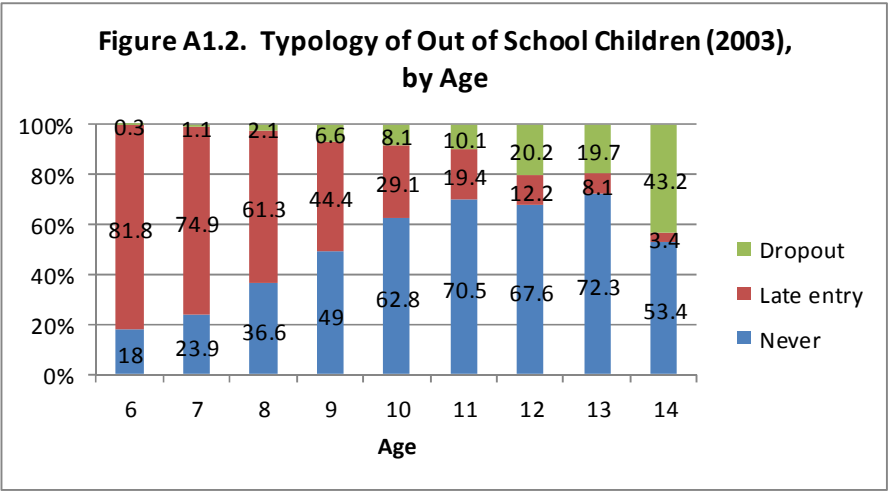
	Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR)			Gender Parity Index
	Male	Female	Total	
Level of education				
Primary	74.2	75.4	74.8	1.02
Lower Secondary	32.5	33.6	33.0	1.03
Total	60.6	61.4	61.0	1.01

Source: GDHS 2008

Table A1.3: Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR), by sex and level of education, with GPI, 2003

	Adjusted net attendance rate (ANAR)			Gender Parity Index
	Male	Female	Total	
Level of education				
Primary	61.8	60.4	61.1	0.98
Lower Secondary	22.3	26.2	24.2	1.17
Total	48.4	48.7	48.5	1.01

Source: GDHS 2003

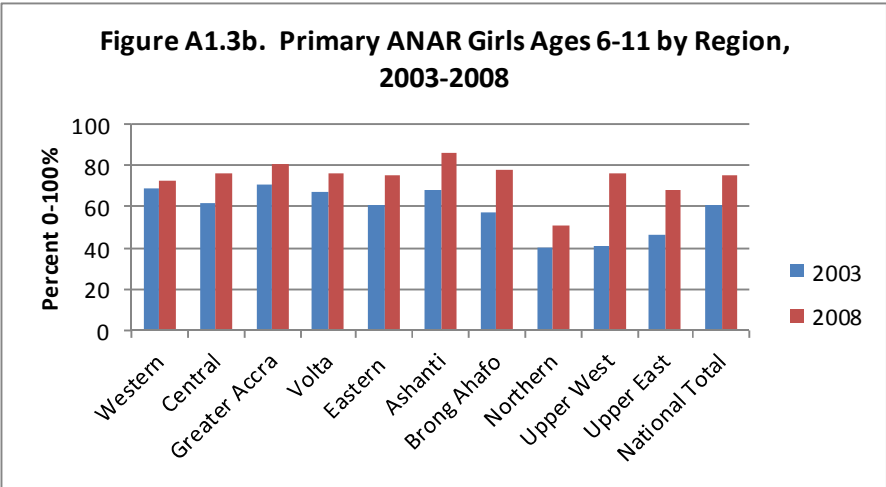
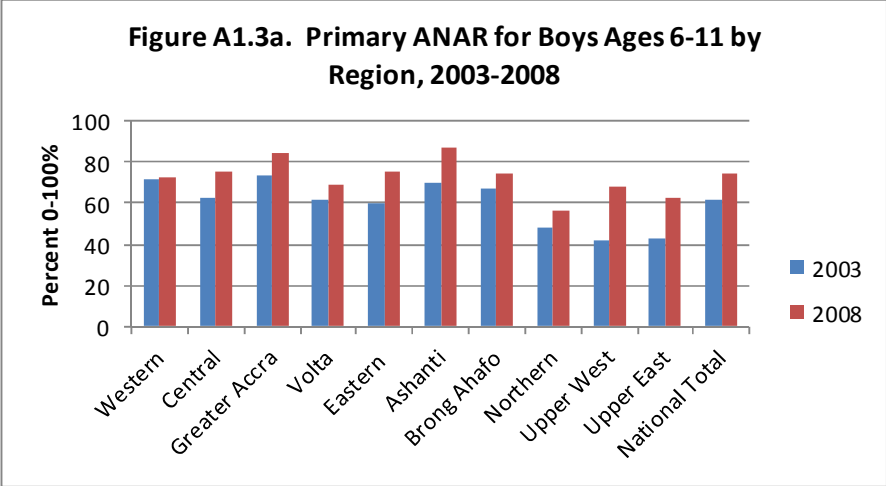


Source: GDHS 2003

Table A1.4. Adjusted primary school net attendance rate (ANAR), by age, sex and other characteristics, 2003

	Male		Female		Total	
	Net attendance rate	Number of children	Net attendance rate	Number of children	Net attendance rate	Number of children
Age						
6	22.0	64,596	22.9	75,207	22.4	139,803
7	45.5	137,379	46.9	138,742	46.1	276,122
8	67.8	192,795	65.3	199,393	66.6	392,189
9	78.2	221,781	76.1	196,973	77.2	418,755
10	75.8	229,358	80.0	217,307	77.7	446,666
11	86.6	222,693	83.5	201,400	85.2	424,093
Residence						
Urban	71.1	435,549	67.9	444,839	69.5	880,388
Rural	57.0	633,051	55.9	584,598	56.4	1,217,649
Wealth Index Quintiles:						
Poorest	43.9	151,358	42.2	143,646	43.2	295,004
Second	59.1	203,764	53.9	183,472	56.7	387,237
Middle	66.5	229,278	63.4	215,809	65.0	445,088
Fourth	69.4	239,276	68.9	234,531	69.1	473,808
Richest	80.4	277,202	78.9	268,570	79.6	545,773
Region						
Western	71.9	107,587	69.3	108,392	70.6	215,979
Central	62.7	95,442	61.6	86,703	62.2	182,145
Greater Accra	73.6	125,483	70.6	132,175	72.1	257,658
Volta	61.9	91,236	67.1	120,597	64.6	211,833
Eastern	59.6	109,217	61.1	103,678	60.3	212,895
Ashanti	70.1	228,276	67.9	231,820	69.0	460,097
Brong Ahafo	66.9	127,207	56.9	88,997	62.6	216,205
Northern	48.1	106,136	40.3	77,986	44.6	184,123
Upper West	42.2	22,479	41.3	23,547	41.8	46,026
Upper East	42.5	55,681	46.7	55,955	44.4	111,637
Total	62.0	4,306,834	60.5	4,134,349	61.3	8,441,183

Source: GDHS 2003



Source: GDHS 2003, 2008

Table A1.5. Adjusted lower secondary school net attendance rate (ANAR), by age, sex and other characteristics, 2003

	Male		Female		Total	
	Net attendance rate	Number of children	Net attendance rate	Number of children	Net attendance rate	Number of children
Age						
12	7.4	17,305	9.4	22,081	8.4	39,386
13	23.8	66,391	28.5	71,953	26.0	138,345
14	36.6	74,300	42.2	83,815	39.3	158,115
Residence						
Urban	33.0	95,716	36.9	110,376	35.0	206,092
Rural	14.7	62,588	17.3	66,940	15.9	129,528
Wealth Index Quintiles:						
Poorest	6.5	9,305	7.9	10,839	7.1	20,145
Second	14.2	20,329	13.4	18,386	13.9	38,715
Middle	20.3	29,062	24.1	33,068	22.2	62,130
Fourth	25.6	36,650	33.8	46,377	29.5	83,027
Richest	50.5	72,297	47.9	65,724	49.1	138,022
Region						
Western	23.8	14,600	25.2	13,156	24.4	27,757
Central	16.5	8,126	26.3	15,354	21.8	23,480
Greater Accra	35.6	29,535	43.2	39,566	39.5	69,101
Volta	18.0	11,428	24.2	17,200	21.2	28,629
Eastern	24.2	19,765	32.0	24,237	27.9	44,002
Ashanti	35.6	50,329	31.7	46,780	33.7	97,109
Brong Ahafo	14.4	12,699	15.1	11,322	14.7	24,022
Northern	8.8	6,752	8.8	5,186	8.8	11,938
Upper West	11.0	2,921	10.4	2,204	10.8	5,125
Upper East	4.3	1,899	8.1	2,784	5.9	4,683
Total	22.1	642,005	25.9	707,356	23.9	1,349,362

Source: GDHS 2003

Figure A1.4a. Lower Secondary ANAR All Children Ages 12-14 by Region, 2003-2008

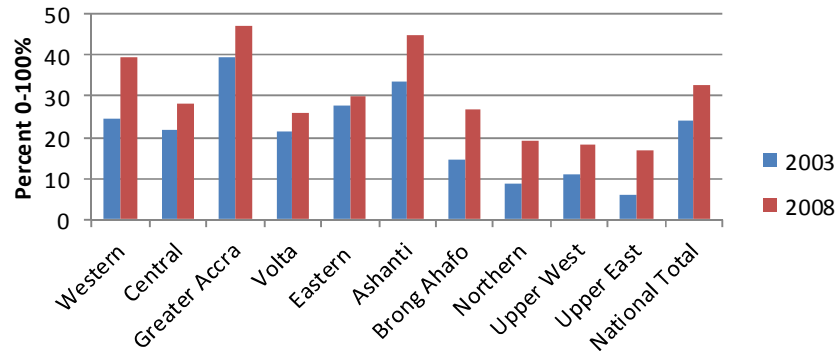


Figure A1.4b. Lower Secondary ANAR Boys 12-14 by Region, 2003-2008

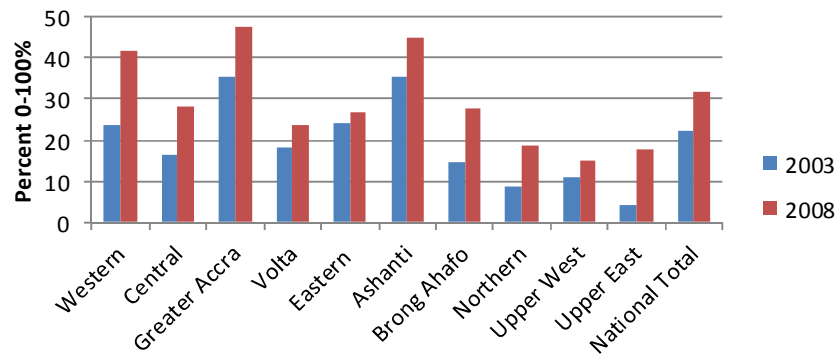
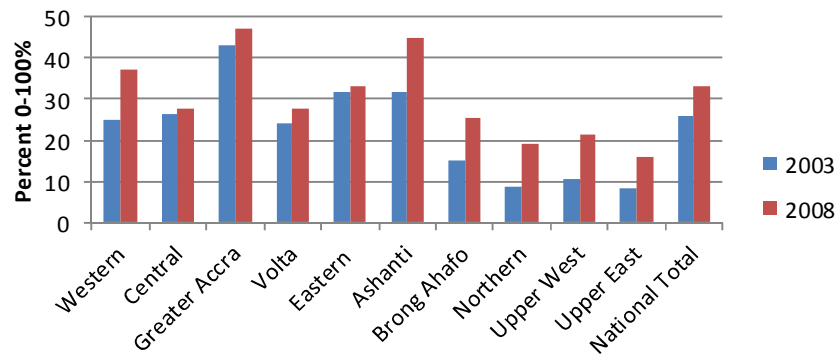
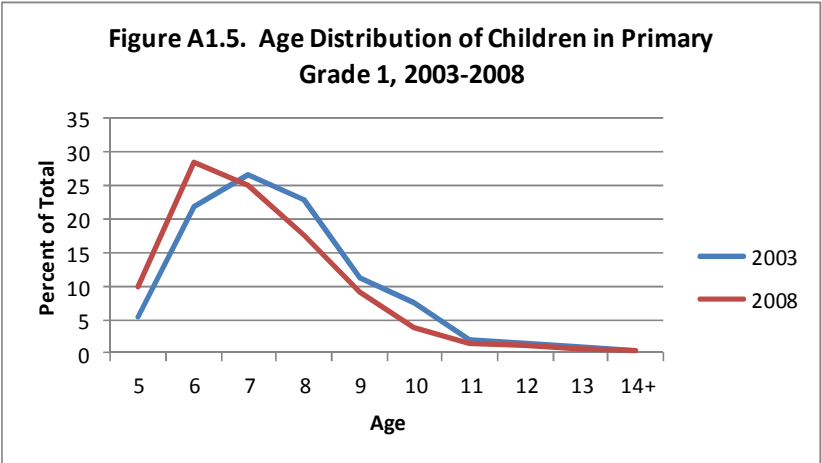


Figure A1.4c. Lower Secondary ANAR Girls Ages 12-14 by Region, 2003-2008





Source: GDHS 2003, 2008



Table A1.6. Repetition rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level of education, by sex and other characteristics, 2003

	Primary Education						Lower Secondary Education		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Gender									
Male	3.9	2.3	2.3	1.0	1.4	1.0	2.0	0.4	5.1
Female	2.5	1.7	0.7	1.1	0.7	1.9	0.0	0.7	4.7
Residence									
Urban	2.5	1.4	0.9	0.0	0.7	1.1	0.9	0.0	5.4
Rural	3.6	2.4	2.0	1.8	1.4	1.8	1.2	1.1	4.0
Income Quintiles:									
Poorest	5.9	1.1	4.2	0.9	4.1	1.0	5.4	5.7	7.3
Second	1.7	1.1	2.3	1.4	0.2	4.0	0.0	0.0	2.0
Middle	1.4	2.8	0.0	1.8	1.1	1.1	1.2	0.0	1.4
Fourth	4.0	3.2	1.3	0.0	0.6	0.0	1.0	0.0	7.0
Richest	2.6	1.6	0.8	0.8	0.0	1.2	0.0	0.0	5.9
Region									
Western	1.9	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.2	1.9
Central	3.7	2.1	0.0	7.9	0.0	2.2	3.0	0.0	0.0
Greater Accra	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.9
Volta	0.0	1.1	0.0	0.0	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	6.2
Eastern	3.2	8.4	3.7	1.3	0.0	5.3	2.1	0.0	3.5
Ashanti	6.0	1.1	1.5	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.9	0.0	8.2
Brong Ahafo	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.2	1.3	0.0	0.0	1.9
Northern	1.9	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Upper West	13.7	2.3	10.7	1.9	4.4	12.0	0.0	0.0	15.5
Upper East	12.2	6.7	9.2	8.7	12.9	6.2	11.9	9.9	8.6
Total	3.3	2.0	1.6	1.1	1.1	1.4	1.0	0.6	4.9

Source: GDHS, 2003

Table A1.7. Grade for Age by Gender, SES Quintile and Location 2003-2008, Ages 6-14

CATEGORY:	YEAR:		DIFFERENCE:	
	2003	2008	RAW	ADJUST
Total	0.43	0.52	+0.09	+0.10
Female	0.44	0.53	+0.09	+0.10
Male	0.43	0.50	+0.07	+0.10
By SES Quintile:				
Quintile 1 (Poorest)	0.23	0.35	+0.12	+0.13
Quintile 2	0.37	0.45	+0.08	+0.10
Quintile 3	0.45	0.50	+0.05	+0.03
Quintile 4	0.52	0.60	+0.08	+0.09
Quintile 5 (Wealthiest)	0.67	0.75	+0.08	+0.09
By Location:				
Rural	0.36	0.44	+0.08	+0.11
Urban	0.56	0.63	+0.07	+0.06

Source: GDHS 2003, 2008

Notes: All averages represent percentages (0-100) based on weighted data summaries. **Differences** refer to comparisons between 2003 and 2008, and are calculated for the weighted data using the regression method. **Adjusted Difference** corrects for differences in month of interview. +Refers to an increase between 2003 and 2008 in the sample average. Differences highlighted in **boldface** are significantly different ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table A1.8. Dropout rate by grade at the primary and lower secondary level of education, by sex and other characteristics, 2003

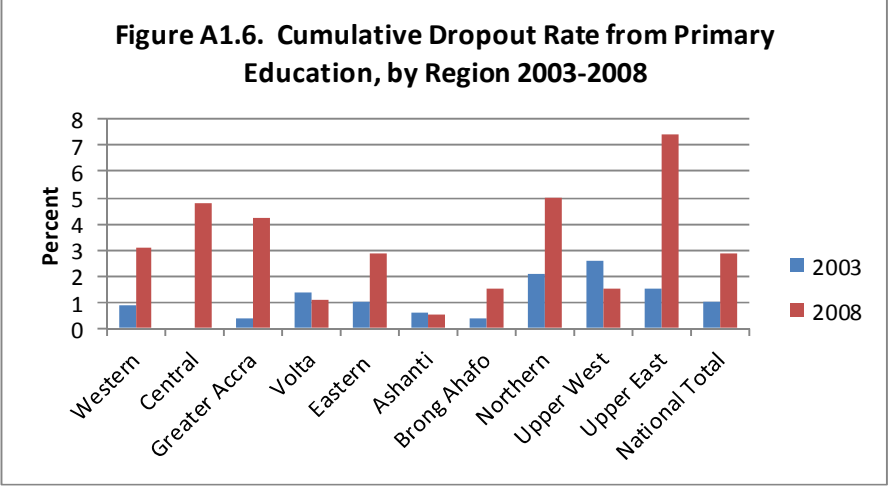
	Primary Education						Lower Secondary Education		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Gender									
Male	0.5	1.3	0.6	0.6	0.4	0.9	0.0	2.9	47.4
Female	0.2	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.6	1.0	1.7	1.8	52.8
Residence									
Urban	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	0.5	1.3	46.3
Rural	0.6	1.1	0.8	0.7	0.9	1.5	1.2	4.0	55.1
Income Quintiles:									
Poorest	0.3	2.3	0.6	1.2	1.1	4.8	0.6	0.0	53.6
Second	0.2	0.0	1.3	0.8	1.8	1.1	2.8	6.8	44.1
Middle	0.7	1.5	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	3.6	64.9
Fourth	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.5	56.4
Richest	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.8	0.0	0.7	37.4
Region									
Western	0.5	0.0	1.7	0.0	1.6	0.0	0.0	8.9	67.4
Central	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	58.6
Greater Accra	1.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	37.3
Volta	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	33.7
Eastern	0.0	0.0	0.6	1.7	0.0	0.0	4.2	0.0	43.1
Ashanti	0.7	1.6	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.1	1.0	3.4	54.6
Brong Ahafo	0.0	0.4	1.5	0.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	4.3	56.4
Northern	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	2.3	5.1	0.0	6.9	59.3
Upper West	0.0	0.0	1.5	0.0	0.0	2.4	3.4	0.0	68.4
Upper East	0.7	2.4	0.0	3.7	0.0	6.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Total	0.4	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.5	1.0	0.8	2.4	49.8

Source: GDHS 2003

Table A1.9. Dropout rate from primary education, by age, sex and other characteristics, 2003 and 2008

	Cumulative dropout rate from primary school:					
	Male		Female		Total	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
Age:						
6	0.3	1.4	0.1	1.5	0.2	1.4
7	1.2	1.7	0.0	1.3	0.6	1.5
8	0.4	2.5	1.0	2.7	0.7	2.6
9	1.7	3.8	1.2	2.4	1.5	3.1
10	2.1	3.9	1.4	4.2	1.8	4.0
11	1.0	5.0	1.4	5.5	1.2	5.2
Residence:						
Urban	0.7	2.9	0.6	3.7	0.7	3.3
Rural	1.3	2.9	0.9	2.2	1.1	2.6
Wealth index quintiles:						
Poorest	2.4	3.5	1.5	2.1	2.0	2.9
Second	0.8	2.9	0.5	2.6	0.7	2.7
Middle	1.2	2.3	0.4	1.6	0.8	1.9
Fourth	0.7	3.4	0.3	2.2	0.5	2.8
Richest	0.0	2.3	1.3	6.2	0.7	4.3
Total	1.1	2.9	0.8	2.8	1.0	2.9

Source: GDHS, 2008, 2003



Source: GDHS, 2008, 2003

Table A1.10. Dropout rate from primary/lower secondary education, by age, sex and other characteristics, 12-14 Year Olds 2003 and 2008

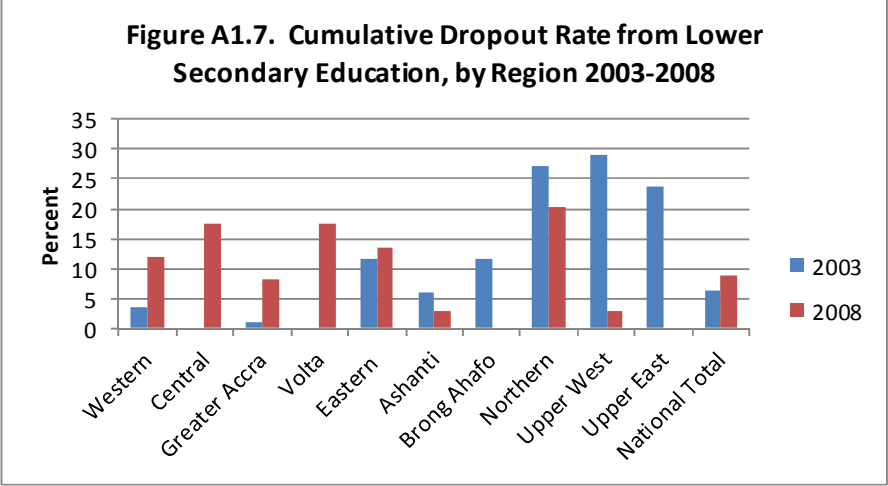
	Cumulative dropout rate from primary/lower secondary school:					
	Male		Female		Total	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
Age:						
12	4.2	5.3	2.7	4.9	3.5	5.1
13	3.7	5.3	3.9	5.7	3.8	5.5
14	7.6	9.0	8.9	10.4	8.2	9.7
Residence:						
Urban	4.2	6.1	4.4	8.1	4.3	7.2
Rural	5.5	6.6	5.3	5.9	5.4	6.3
Wealth index quintiles:						
Poorest	6.0	6.5	4.8	7.6	5.5	7.0
Second	6.6	8.0	5.7	4.8	6.2	6.5
Middle	5.3	6.3	3.7	7.5	4.5	6.9
Fourth	3.6	5.6	5.2	7.4	4.3	6.6
Richest	2.8	5.3	5.4	7.1	4.2	6.3
Total	5.0	6.4	4.9	6.9	5.5	7.0

Source: GDHS, 2008, 2003

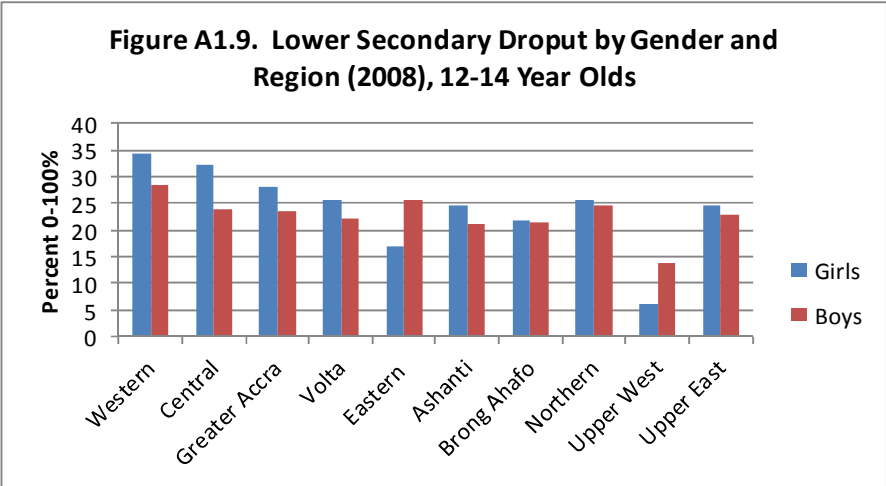
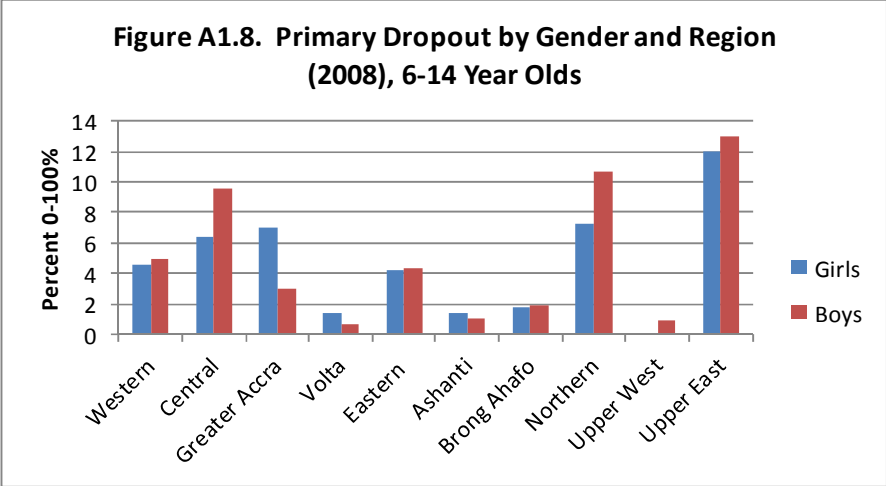
Table A1.10a. Dropout rate from lower secondary education, by age, sex and other characteristics, 12-14 Year Olds 2003 and 2008

	Cumulative dropout rate from lower secondary school:					
	Male		Female		Total	
	2003	2008	2003	2008	2003	2008
Age:						
12	11.7	2.4	2.1	11.2	6.3	7.1
13	3.4	6.9	2.3	5.1	2.9	6.0
14	8.4	8.9	9.3	12.8	8.9	10.8
Residence:						
Urban	9.4	7.9	4.4	10.7	6.8	9.4
Rural	1.8	7.2	8.8	8.7	5.6	7.9
Wealth index quintiles:						
Poorest	21.3	9.6	27.1	5.5	24.4	8.5
Second	2.4	7.9	7.1	10.1	4.7	9.1
Middle	0.0	6.5	5.5	16.2	3.0	10.3
Fourth	10.7	7.4	4.5	9.1	7.7	8.4
Richest	6.7	7.6	4.1	9.5	5.3	8.6
Total	6.7	7.6	6.0	10.1	6.4	8.9

Source: GDHS, 2008, 2003



Source: GDHS, 2008, 2003



Source: GDHS, 2008

Table A1.10. Lower Secondary Dropout Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 12-14 Year Olds

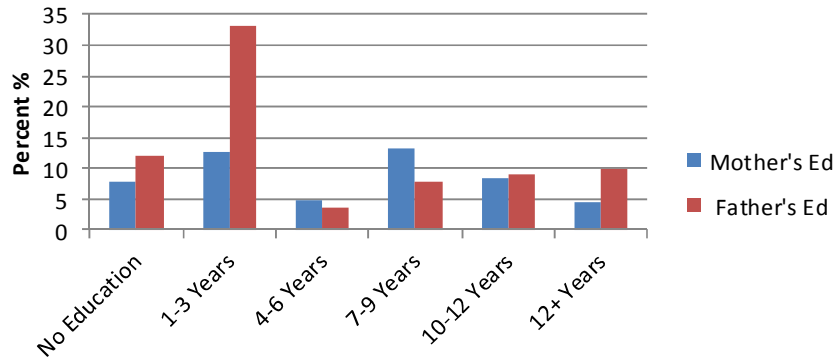
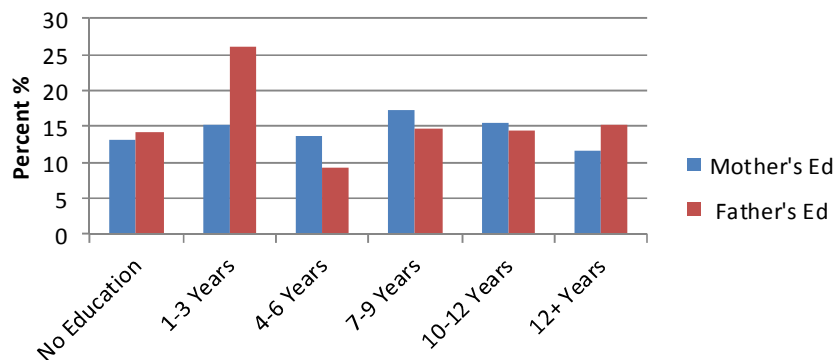
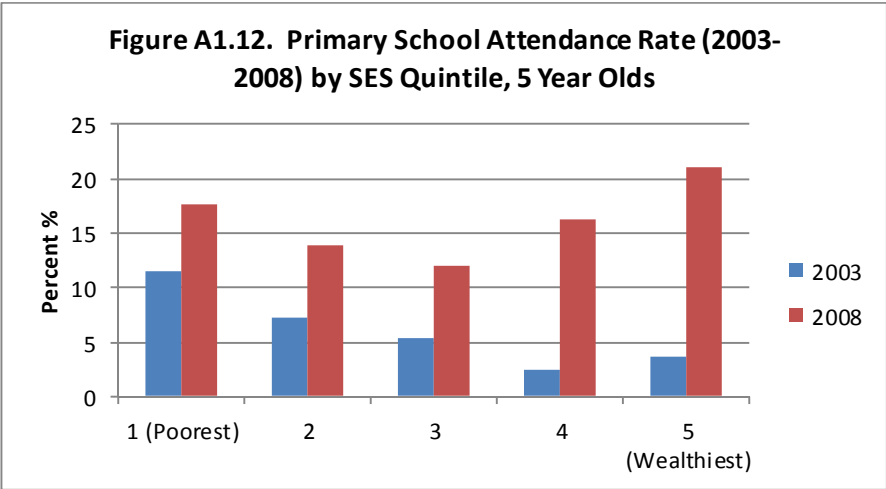


Table A1.11. Lower Secondary Dropout Rate (2008) by Parental Education, 12-18 Year Olds



Source: GDHS, 2008



Source: GDHS, 2008

Table A.1.11. Child labor status, MICS 2006

Percentage of children by involvement in economic activity and household chores during the past week, according to age groups, and percentage of children age 5-14 involved in child labour

	Percentage of children age 5-11 involved in					Sample size children age 5-11 in economic activity (n) ²	Percentage of children age 12-14 involved in					Sample size children age 12-14 in economic activity (n)	Percentage of children ages 5-14 involved in			Sample size children aged 5-14 in child labor ²
	Economic activity				Economic activity for at least one hour		Economic activity for 14 hours or more				Economic activity for 14 hours or more		Economic activity for at least 1 hour	Household chores for 28 hrs or more	Child labour ¹	
	Paid only for non-household member	Unpaid only for non-household member	Family	More than one of the categories			Paid only for non-household member	Unpaid only for non-household member	Family	More than one of the categories						
Total	2.3	5.2	25.9	5.4	38.8	2,205	0.5	0.2	15.1	5.6	21.5	577	43.7	1.9	34.5	2,854
Sex																
Male	2.1	4.3	26.9	5.6	38.8	1,149	0.7	0.1	14.4	6.9	22.2	314	44.2	1.5	34.5	1,485
Female	2.5	6.1	24.9	5.3	38.8	1,056	0.3	0.4	15.8	4.3	20.8	263	43.1	2.3	34.4	1,369
Region																
Western	6.4	1.2	20.2	7.1	34.8	155	0.0	0.0	16.8	0.0	16.8	31	38.9	1.5	30.5	192
Central	6.0	0.0	18.6	2.8	27.4	107	1.1	0.0	10.6	0.7	12.3	16	32.1	1.1	24.1	128
Greater Accra	4.7	15.3	3.9	3.1	27.0	113	0.5	0.1	3.7	3.1	7.4	16	30.2	1.7	21.7	138
Volta	2.1	4.2	16.4	2.9	25.6	106	0.3	0.0	16.2	3.9	20.4	32	29.7	4.6	26.0	150
Eastern	0.5	4.8	30.5	6.0	41.9	173	2.4	0.4	13.1	9.5	25.4	48	47.2	1.7	37.2	226
Ashanti	1.3	6.7	26.1	4.4	38.4	261	0.0	0.4	10.8	3.0	14.2	43	41.0	0.8	31.9	308
Brong Ahafo	0.3	1.2	44.5	1.4	47.5	184	0.0	0.0	23.7	2.1	25.8	47	52.8	0.8	40.5	231
Northern	0.5	5.0	32.7	8.8	47.1	405	0.3	0.0	20.0	12.9	33.2	111	55.4	1.0	43.7	521
Upper East	0.6	5.8	40.5	12.5	59.4	419	0.3	1.4	23.9	14.2	39.8	129	66.8	5.1	53.8	552
Upper West	0.8	2.1	35.8	7.6	46.3	282	0.0	1.2	36.8	11.5	49.5	104	52.7	8.6	50.2	408
Area																
Urban	2.7	7.2	11.2	2.3	23.4	367	0.6	0.4	7.6	1.8	10.4	81	28.6	1.4	19.9	473
Rural	2.1	4.1	34.1	7.2	47.4	1,838	0.5	0.1	20.6	8.4	29.6	496	52.8	2.2	43.3	2,381
School attendance																
No	2.1	4.2	26.0	5.4	37.7	814	0.5	0.2	25.8	11.6	38.2	178	43.4	1.7	38.5	1,012
Yes	2.4	5.7	25.9	5.4	39.4	1,390	0.5	0.2	13.3	4.6	18.6	399	43.8	2.0	32.8	1,841
Mother's education																
None	1.4	4.2	31.9	7.3	44.8	1,404	0.2	0.2	20.1	9.1	29.6	421	50.8	2.6	41.3	1,874
Primary	3.6	4.4	27.3	3.4	38.7	348	2.1	0.4	13.1	4.4	19.9	68	43.2	1.9	34.8	427
Middle/JSS	2.8	7.8	19.5	4.9	35.1	404	0.2	0.3	12.7	2.5	15.7	84	39.4	1.1	29.3	495
Secondary and higher	2.6	3.5	7.5	0.5	14.2	49	0.9	0.0	0.8	0.3	2.0	4	16.9	0.6	10.6	58

Household wealth quintile																
1- Lowest	0.6	3.6	38.0	8.9	51.0	895	0.0	0.0	21.4	14.5	35.9	249	57.8	2.7	48.1	1,170
2	1.5	4.2	37.1	8.1	50.9	658	0.2	0.2	27.1	6.7	34.2	187	56.9	2.6	47.2	865
3	3.7	3.6	24.1	3.7	35.0	324	2.1	0.0	16.6	3.1	21.8	86	42.3	1.6	31.3	415
4	4.2	6.0	15.9	3.0	29.1	226	0.2	1.0	7.7	2.6	11.5	41	33.9	1.3	24.6	277
5- Highest	2.3	10.3	4.1	1.2	17.8	102	0.0	0.1	3.1	1.2	4.4	14	19.8	1.1	14.0	127
Ethnic group of household head																
Akan	3.3	4.9	25.1	4.4	37.7	647	0.9	0.2	13.9	2.7	17.6	135	42.2	1.2	32.0	795
Ga/Dangme	3.1	10.1	15.7	2.9	31.9	85	0.0	0.0	11.3	3.9	15.2	17	35.7	1.7	28.3	107
Ewe	2.3	5.4	17.1	4.1	28.9	180	0.5	0.3	9.9	4.2	15.0	43	32.9	1.7	25.4	233
Guan	0.7	2.7	26.7	3.1	33.2	78	0.0	0.0	11.9	4.3	16.2	16	35.0	2.4	29.0	97
Gruma	0.0	3.8	55.4	4.4	63.6	97	0.0	0.0	20.0	8.8	28.8	18	65.4	2.8	56.6	119
Mole Dagbani	0.7	5.3	32.7	8.9	47.6	772	0.5	0.6	26.2	13.2	40.4	258	55.5	4.9	47.0	1,060
Grusi	7.9	4.0	29.4	5.0	46.2	64	0.0	0.0	18.2	2.7	20.9	14	48.8	1.9	38.8	79
Mande	0.0	0.0	12.2	0.0	12.2	3	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0	21.4	0.0	7.3	3
Other	1.0	4.6	28.4	8.4	42.4	274	0.2	0.2	16.7	10.2	27.4	73	49.7	0.9	39.0	353

Source: MICS, 2006

Table A.1.12. Child labor and out-of-school children, MICS 2006

Percentage of children aged 5-14 years involved in child labour who are out of school				
	Child Labour		Child labourers who are out of school	
	Percentage	Sample size (n)	Percentage	Sample size (n)
Total	34.5	2,854	32.4	1,012
Sex				
Male	34.5	1,485	32.1	537
Female	34.4	1,369	32.8	475
Region				
Western	30.5	192	20.2	41
Central	24.1	128	32.9	42
Greater Accra	21.7	138	21.6	30
Volta	26.0	150	34.7	58
Eastern	37.2	226	21.2	49
Ashanti	31.9	308	25.2	80
Brong Ahafo	40.5	231	29.5	70
Northern	43.7	521	51.1	258
Upper East	53.8	552	35.1	208
Upper West	50.2	408	41.7	176
Area				
Urban	19.9	473	19.3	91
Rural	43.3	2,381	36.1	921
Age				
5-11	39.4	2,238	34.2	827
12-14	23.0	616	25.6	185
Mother's education				
None	41.3	1,874	41.2	790
Primary	34.8	427	29.5	133
Middle/JSS	29.3	495	16.5	83
Secondary and higher	10.6	58	11.0	6
Household wealth quintile				
1- Low est	48.1	1,170	50.4	567
2	47.2	865	31.8	296
3	31.3	415	19.0	83
4	24.6	277	21.3	54
5- Highest	14.0	127	8.9	12
Ethnic group of household head				
Akan	32.0	795	22.1	180
Ga/Dangme	28.3	107	24.3	31
Ewe	25.4	233	29.5	69
Guan	29.0	97	39.5	40
Gruma	56.6	119	48.8	58
Mole Dagbani	47.0	1,060	40.3	422
Grusi	38.8	79	23.1	23
Mande	7.3	3	66.7	2
Other	39.0	353	48.8	184

Source: MICS, 2006

Table A.1.13. Out-of-school children and child labor, MICS 2006

Percentage of out of school children aged 5-14 years involved in Child Labour				
	Out of school children		Children out of school who are in child labour	
	Percentage	Sample size (n)	Percentage	Sample size (n)
Total	28.8	2,403	38.5	1,012
Sex				
Male	29.1	1,263	37.9	537
Female	28.6	1,140	39.1	475
Region				
Western	24.0	155	24.7	41
Central	26.9	141	28.7	42
Greater Accra	17.0	118	27.4	30
Volta	32.6	193	27.5	58
Eastern	19.1	123	40.9	49
Ashanti	19.5	188	41.2	80
Brong Ahafo	30.7	173	38.9	70
Northern	49.7	568	45.1	258
Upper East	35.5	396	53.4	208
Upper West	43.5	348	48.2	176
Area				
Urban	19.6	463	19.4	91
Rural	34.4	1,940	45.1	921
Age				
5-11	35.2	2,014	38.2	827
12-14	14.4	389	39.9	185
Mother's education				
None	39.0	1,705	43.5	790
Primary	27.9	342	36.7	133
Middle/JSS	17.1	296	27.9	83
Secondary and high	13.2	60	8.7	6
Household wealth quintile				
1- Low est	51.6	1,152	46.9	567
2	32.1	631	46.5	296
3	23.7	313	24.8	83
4	19.1	201	27.2	54
5- Highest	10.5	106	11.7	12
Ethnic group of household head				
Akan	20.1	510	34.5	180
Ga/Dangme	21.1	91	32.5	31
Ewe	26.8	250	27.7	69
Guan	33.4	107	34.2	40
Gruma	35.4	86	77.5	58
Mole Dagbani	40.5	861	47.0	422
Grusi	25.8	47	34.7	23
Mande	12.8	4	37.7	2
Other	47.9	438	39.7	184

Source: MICS, 2006

Table A.1.14. School attendance and child labor, MICS 2006

Percentage of children aged 5-14 years attending school who are involved in child labour						
	Children attending school (total)		Children in child labour who are attending school		Children not in child labour who are attending school	
	Percentage	Sample size (n) ^{1,2}	Percentage	Sample size (n) ¹	Percentage	Sample size (n) ²
Total	71.2	5,043	67.6	1,841	72.7	3,118
Sex						
Male	70.9	2,565	67.9	948	72.2	1,572
Female	71.4	2,478	67.2	893	73.2	1,546
Region						
Western	76.0	475	79.8	151	72.9	297
Central	73.1	376	67.1	86	74.0	274
Greater Accra	83.0	568	78.4	108	84.2	457
Volta	67.4	349	65.3	91	68.0	248
Eastern	80.9	488	78.8	177	81.8	307
Ashanti	80.5	766	74.8	228	83.1	520
Brong Ahafo	69.3	366	70.5	161	68.5	204
Northern	50.3	603	48.9	263	51.6	338
Upper East	64.5	624	64.9	344	64.2	278
Upper West	56.5	428	58.3	232	54.8	195
Area						
Urban	80.4	1,836	80.7	382	80.1	1,425
Rural	65.6	3,207	63.9	1,459	66.5	1,693
Age						
5-11	64.8	3,229	65.8	1,410	64.2	1,803
12-14	85.6	1,814	74.4	431	88.5	1,315
Mother's education						
None	61.0	2,430	58.8	1,084	62.3	1,319
Primary	72.1	840	70.5	294	72.8	532
Middle/JSS	82.9	1,368	83.5	411	82.4	922
Secondary and high	86.8	405	89.0	52	86.3	345
Household wealth quintile						
1- Low est	48.4	1,157	49.6	603	47.2	549
2	67.9	1,175	68.2	569	67.2	581
3	76.3	968	81.0	331	73.8	621
4	80.9	876	78.7	223	81.5	631
5- Highest	89.5	867	91.1	115	89.1	736
Ethnic group of household head						
Akan	79.9	1,988	77.9	615	80.3	1,313
Ga/Dangme	78.9	294	75.7	76	80.1	216
Ewe	73.2	617	70.5	164	73.8	441
Guan	66.6	203	60.5	56	69.0	147
Gruma	64.6	119	51.2	61	81.5	57
Mole Dagbani	59.5	1,234	59.7	638	59.6	593
Grusi	74.2	129	76.9	56	72.4	72
Mande	87.2	15	33.3	1	91.4	14
Other	52.1	435	51.2	169	52.7	261

Source: MICS, 2006

Notes:

1. The total of children in this column, may not be equal to the sum of children broken down by individual or household characteristics, because of missing values in the individual or household characteristics.
2. The sum of "children in child labor who are attending school" and "children not in child labor who are attending school" is not necessarily equal to "children attending school (total)" as some children attending school are missing on child labor.

Table A.1.15. Out-of school-children: involvement in economic activity and household chores, Ghana, MICS 2006

Percentage of out-of-school children aged 5-14 at work in economic activity and household chores by type of work and average hours													
	Economic Activity										Household chores		Sample size out-of-school children involved in economic activity for at least 1 hour ²
	Paid only for non-household member		Unpaid only for non-household member		Family		More than one of the categories		Economic Activity ¹		Percentage	Average Hours	
	Percentage	Average hours	Percentage	Average hours	Percentage	Average hours	Percentage	Average hours	Percentage	Average hours			
Total	5.3	13.6	9.2	5.6	66.2	18.2	19.4	21.3	43.4	17.8	62.9	7.8	1,116
Sex													
Male	5.2	14.6	8.0	5.1	67.4	18.7	19.4	23.2	42.3	18.7	56.3	7.4	590
Female	5.3	12.7	10.3	5.9	65.0	17.7	19.4	19.5	44.5	16.9	69.8	8.1	526
Region													
Western	17.2	4.0	4.2	-	48.2	21.5	30.4	9.8	26.9	17.3	57.2	6.2	46
Central	22.2	23.6	0.0	0.0	61.4	11.0	16.4	30.0	31.3	13.5	66.8	6.7	46
Greater Accra	20.2	4.2	52.6	5.1	6.7	7.2	20.6	16.6	31.9	7.6	52.5	6.1	35
Volta	11.3	13.4	17.0	-	56.8	17.7	15.0	79.4	28.3	30.0	69.7	7.4	57
Eastern	2.8	20.0	9.0	2.3	76.7	11.9	11.5	10.5	40.9	11.1	66.5	6.6	49
Ashanti	4.0	11.2	13.6	1.8	71.3	12.8	11.1	18.6	41.5	12.8	65.7	7.8	82
Brong Ahafo	1.5	9.0	1.7	2.0	94.1	17.8	2.7	22.5	46.3	17.5	59.5	7.9	83
Northern	0.8	37.8	6.3	5.8	65.9	19.8	27.1	16.2	54.8	18.2	64.4	7.6	302
Upper East	2.0	11.1	5.4	9.4	66.3	21.3	26.3	23.8	61.9	21.2	67.2	10.7	238
Upper West	2.2	29.1	3.6	28.0	81.5	28.1	12.7	50.5	49.1	30.9	50.9	14.3	178
Area													
Urban	16.7	14.6	26.0	4.8	45.5	15.3	11.8	17.2	23.9	12.8	54.3	6.6	114
Rural	3.4	12.6	6.4	6.3	69.6	18.5	20.7	21.7	50.1	18.5	65.9	8.1	1,002
Age													
5-11	5.7	16.2	11.0	4.8	68.9	17.1	14.4	23.1	37.7	16.9	58.0	7.2	814
12-14	4.1	7.9	4.1	10.2	58.6	21.9	33.2	19.3	74.3	20.1	89.9	9.8	302

Mother's education													
None	2.7	15.6	7.2	7.4	67.0	19.9	23.1	21.9	49.8	19.6	66.2	8.2	875
Primary	13.3	11.1	7.5	4.3	67.3	13.9	11.9	25.1	39.2	13.9	60.7	7.3	141
Middle/JSS	9.2	12.9	23.3	2.7	59.8	14.4	7.7	4.4	30.5	11.5	57.5	6.6	92
Secondary and higher	18.8	-	15.1	-	60.1	5.1	6.0	5.0	11.1	5.1	41.1	6.5	8
Household wealth quintile													
1- Lowest	1.5	13.5	5.3	5.5	68.5	18.5	24.8	19.3	54.9	18.1	68.3	8.0	641
2	4.3	12.0	7.9	10.0	71.8	20.1	16.0	28.2	48.4	20.8	65.1	8.6	304
3	12.8	18.1	13.1	5.1	64.2	11.9	9.9	22.2	29.5	12.5	57.1	6.4	99
4	18.5	6.1	20.2	4.6	47.0	19.1	14.2	19.1	30.2	15.1	58.6	7.3	60
5- Highest	17.5	-	68.2	3.5	14.4	1.5	0.0	0.0	11.8	3.3	43.6	6.4	12
Ethnic group of household head													
Akan	11.4	11.1	8.3	2.1	66.7	15.7	13.6	18.7	37.2	14.9	61.8	7.2	194
Ga/Dangme	14.1	5.9	39.1	6.3	37.4	9.1	9.5	14.8	34.7	8.2	60.0	7.0	34
Ewe	8.5	4.3	21.8	4.0	54.3	12.6	15.5	11.2	30.6	10.8	68.4	5.1	76
Guan	2.1	21.0	4.8	-	84.7	18.5	8.4	10.8	36.1	17.8	57.9	7.0	42
Gruma	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	94.0	10.7	6.0	45.6	77.7	12.8	80.2	8.6	61
Mole Dagbani	1.8	31.4	6.7	9.5	66.2	25.8	25.3	20.5	53.0	23.8	60.8	10.5	466
Grusi	0.0	0.0	1.6	-	79.1	13.9	19.3	26.3	39.1	16.3	54.0	9.1	25
Mande	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	100.0	1.5	0.0	-	37.7	1.5	81.1	4.4	2
Other	2.0	19.2	6.4	6.4	65.2	17.9	26.4	24.4	50.2	19.0	64.0	7.5	213

Source: MICS, 2006

Notes:

1. The numerator to estimate the percentage and average hours of Economic Activity for out-of-school children age 5-14 includes: out-of-school children 5-14 who, during the week preceding the survey did at least one hour of economic activity in paid work for non-household member, unpaid work for non-household member and/or family work. Average hours refer to average weekly working hours

2. The total of children in this column, may not be equal to the sum of children broken down by individual or household characteristics, because of missing values in the individual or household characteristics.

Table A.1.16. Means and Standard Deviations of Variables Used in Multivariate Analyses (2008 GDHS)

Variable	Description	Mean	SD
<i>Dependent Variables</i>			
Attending Pre-Primary/Primary (5 Year olds)	1= 5 Year old Child is currently attending pre-primary or primary school, 0=Not attending school	0.72	----
Attending Primary (6-11)	1= 6-11 Year old Child is currently attending primary school, 0=Not attending school	0.75	----
Attending Primary-LS (12-14)	1= 12-14 Year old Child is currently attending primary or lower secondary school, 0=Not attending school	0.88	----
Primary Dropout (6-14)	1=6-14 Year old Child has dropped out of primary school; 0=Still attending	0.05	----
Lower Secondary Dropout (12-14)	1=12-14 Year old Child has dropped out of lower secondary; 0=Still attending	0.10	----
Lower Secondary Dropout (12-18)	1=12-18 Year old Child has dropped out of lower secondary; 0=Still attending	0.27	----
<i>Child Characteristics</i>			
Age of Child	Age of child in years	9.83	2.60
Female Child	Child is female.	0.49	----
<i>Parental Education and Resources:</i>			
Father's Education:	Child's father has completed the following level of education:		
Missing		0.40	----
None*		0.26	----
Incomplete primary		0.03	----
Complete primary		0.05	----
Incomplete LSS		0.06	----
Complete LSS		0.17	----
Above complete LSS		0.06	----
Mother's Education:	Child's mother has completed the following level of education:		
Missing		0.27	----
None*		0.35	----
Incomplete primary		0.05	----
Complete primary		0.09	----
Incomplete LSS		0.11	----
Complete LSS		0.11	----
Above complete LSS		0.02	----
Wealth Quintiles	Household wealth quintiles generated by analysis using dwelling and household characteristics, consumer goods, and assets, divided into quintiles (1=lowest,	2.64	1.42

5=highest)

<i>Household Living Arrangement:</i>	Percentage of children in each situation:		
Child lives with both parents*		0.69	----
Child lives with mother		0.03	----
Child lives with father		0.01	----
Child lives with grandparent HH		0.12	----
Child lives with sibling HH		0.02	----
Child lives with other relative HH		0.02	----
Child lives with other relative HH, parents deceased		0.004	----
Child lives with foster/adopted home, parents alive		0.09	----
Child lives with foster/adopted home, parents deceased		0.004	----
Other Living arrangement		0.003	----
<i>Household Size and Ethnicity:</i>			
Household Size:	Number of people in the household of the following age:		
Children 4 and under		0.79	0.94
Children 5-9		0.90	1.00
Children 10-14		0.83	0.97
Children 15-19		0.65	0.87
Ethnic Group:	Percent in each category:		
Akan*		0.14	----
Ga-Dangme		0.02	----
Ewe		0.04	----
Guan		0.01	----
Mole-Dagbani		0.10	----
Grussi		0.02	----
Gruma		0.02	----
Hausa		0.01	----
Other/Missing		0.63	----
<i>Community</i>			
Average SES Quintile in Cluster	Cluster-level average of wealth quintile.	2.65	1.24
Rural	Child lives in a rural community.	0.65	----

Source: GDHS 2008. * Reference category.

**Table A.1.17. Logistic Regression Estimates of Covariates of School Dropout (2008),
by School Level**

INDEPENDENT VARIABLES:	DROPOUT OF SCHOOL:		
	PRIMARY (6-14)	LOWER SECONDARY (12-14)	LOWER SECONDARY (12-18)
Age of Child			
Age 7	1.08	---	---
Age 8	1.16	---	---
Age 9	1.10	---	---
Age 10	1.53**	---	---
Age 11	1.83***	---	---
Age 12	1.89***	---	---
Age 13	2.01***	1.03	0.89
Age 14	3.60***	2.25**	1.74
Age 15	---	---	2.73**
Age 16	---	---	3.77***
Age 17	---	---	6.15***
Age 18	---	---	6.82***
Female Child	1.06	1.56	1.22**
Mother's Education:			
1-3 years	1.23	1.01	0.95
4-6 years	1.46	0.36	0.81
7-9 years	1.01	1.21	1.08
10-12 years	1.16	0.65	0.85
12+ years	0.50	0.39	0.50*
Father's Education:			
1-3 years	1.17	3.11	1.76
4-6 years	0.47**	0.25	0.53
7-9 years	0.63	0.43	1.07
10-12 years	0.64*	0.71	0.98
12+ years	0.77	0.88	1.03
Wealth Quintile	0.92	0.38	0.92
Living Arrangement:			
Female HH, Male Deceased	1.07	3.89*	2.11**
Male HH, Female Deceased	0.98	---	1.29
Grandparent HH	1.18	0.93	0.82
Sibling HH	1.16	---	0.89
Other Relative HH	0.49	0.89	1.31
Other Relative HH (No Parents)	0.82	---	2.11
Unrelated HH, Parents Alive	1.45	2.21	1.69*
Unrelated HH, Parents Deceased	0.77	9.41**	0.43
Household Size:			
Children 4 and under	1.19***	1.16	1.06
Children 5-9	0.93	0.94	0.93
Children 10-14	1.10	1.04	1.01
Children 15-19	0.85**	0.79	0.93
Adults 20-60	1.10	1.14	0.97
Adults 60 and over	1.25**	1.21	1.13
Average SES Quintile in Cluster	1.32**	1.26	1.14
Rural	1.15	0.52	0.86

Region Controls?	Yes	Yes	Yes
N	11,587	736	3,227

***p<.01 **p<.05 *p<0.10

Source: GDHS 2008

Notes: All coefficients represent unstandardized effect of one unit change in independent variable on odds-ratio of dropping out of school. Significance is based on robust standard errors adjusted for clustering at the sample cluster level, and all models incorporate sampling weights to account for complex sample design in GDHS. Individual region controls are included in the model but not reported here; additional results for ethnicity are also not reported due to generally insignificant coefficients. See text for more details.

Map

MAP OF GHANA



For more information:

Visit our Websites: www.unicef.org or
www.facebook.com/UNICEFGhana

Or contact:

Hiroyuki Hattori
Chief, Education
P.O. Box AN 5051, Accra, Ghana
Tel: +233 30 2 772524
E-mail: hhattori@unicef.org

