THE EFFECTS OF FORMAL EDUCATION ON THE TRADITIONAL EDUCATION OF THE GIRL CHILD AMONG THE MENDES OF PUJEHUN DISTRICT

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THE EFFECTS OF FORMAL EDUCATION ON THE TRADITIONAL EDUCATION OF THE GIRL CHILD AMONG THE MENDES OF PUJEHUN DISTRICT

ABSTRACT

This study was designed to investigation the effects of formal education on the traditional education of the girl child among the Mendes in the Pujehun District of Sierra Leone.

A special focus is given to the value of the Mendes culture viz a vis the socio-economic and political values that permeate the education of the girl child.

The background information to this study, the statement of the problem, the research questions, and the significance of the study, the limitations and delimitations of the study will be highly in chapter 1.

The Review of related literature will be treated in chapter 2. The methodology of the study which will be treated in chapter 3 includes the research design; the sources of data. The collection of data will be through the administration of structured questionnaires to respondent in randomly selected communities in the study area. The questionnaire will be divided into different section to suit the objective of the study.

The research population will comprise of 300 people, ie 150 males and 150 females. The questionnaire will be administered to literate respondents while interviews based on the questionnaire will be conducted for the illiterate respondents.

Both qualitative and quantitative analysis will be used through tables and charts in chapter 4.

In chapter 5, the findings of the study will be summarized; the conclusions and recommendations to government will be highlighted.

This study will have significance to the educational authorities in helping them understand the level of impact the formal education has made on the traditional education for girl child education in the study area.

It will also help the girl child by providing her with an understanding of the world of works and essential human needs, and familiarizing individuals with such terms ‘the dignity of labour’ and ‘work value’ and to also help individuals to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter it and develop it for life.
The ministry of culture will be appreciative of this piece of work. It will enable them to incorporate all the good values inherent in traditional education into the curriculum of the formal education.

Future researchers will find this work of great value when probing into the impact of education programme and policies on girl child education in Sierra Leone. It is hoped that this study will open the way to effective and efficient collaboration between traditional elders, traditional initiators and the ministry of education, so that, all the good human values enveloped in the traditional education be included in the formal school curriculum thereby making it meaningful to the ever growing and changing communities.

The Mendes people arrived in Sierra Leone in 16th century as result of manes invasion championed by Queen Macrarico from Mali. Today the Mendes people from predominant tribe occupying mostly the southern and eastern provinces of Sierra Leone.

Traditional education of the girl child served the purpose of preparing the girl to take her place as a woman in the community. During this period of initiation girls underwent specific instructions and directions in home management, marriage laws, respect for elders and ancestral spirits, dress code, the art of fishing, agriculture, music and song, discipline, child bearing and rearing thereby promoting the socio-economic development of the Mendes communities.

This traditional education was a continuous process, the high point of which was the incorporation into bondo society. This process took place as the girls reached puberty and was considered an immediate preparation for marriage. In this context girl child education in formal school among the Mende people was initially meaningless.

Today the situation is much more complex. There is the desire on the part of the girls to be part of their communities and possess the knowledge that is part of the bondo experience, at the same time they are exposed to increasing criticism of bondo practices and restrictions.

At the times of its introduction, formal education sought to over-ride what was seen as the ‘primitive’ nature of traditional beliefs. Some important values inherent in the traditional education were neglected.

Today our women are advocating for gender equality in the social, political, economic and educational arena. Women are now paramount chiefs. Lawyers, police, painters, lecturers, principals, to mention but a few.
These phenomena have created curiosity in the researcher to undertake this study that seeks to look at how those good values in the traditional education may be reclaimed and incorporated into formal structures.
CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

On the 10th day of December, 1984, many nations of the world agreed on the “Universal Declaration of Human Rights”, all accepted that “everyone has the right to education”. So far, governments the world over have applied efforts to achieve this right for all citizens irrespective of social, economic and or political affiliation. Notwithstanding the multiplicity of International Conferences which have been held to facilitate this goal, the facts remain that more than one hundred and ten million children do not have access to primary education.

Of the more than nine hundred and sixty four million adults, two thirds of them women are illiterate and pose the problem of functional illiteracy. The extent of this problem applies not only to developing countries but also to the advance world. Moreover, only one third (1/3) of the world’s adult can boast of access to printed knowledge and new skills and technologies that could lead to remarkable improvements in their lives and help them shape and adapt to the globally growing socio-cultural changes.

In addition, over one hundred million children and an uncountable number of adults are unable to complete basic education (UNICEF, 2003). Even though it had been the consensus of all communities of the world that basic education should be provided to all children, youths and adults.

In particular, strong emphasis needs to be placed here on children of both sexes and all categories being exposed to equal opportunities of access and retention within the education system. However, the most urgent priority is to ensure access as well as improve the quality of education for girls and women and to dismantle all obstacles that inhibit and discourage their active participation. Gender stereotyping in education need to be quickly eliminated (UNESCO, 2002).

A major education draw back is a system of education inherited by most African Governments would not satisfy the needs of their countries. The alarmingly high degree of poverty is signalled by huge foreign debt and 75% of the country in economic stagnation.
Trade decline worsened by the decade long period of political and economic interregnum contributed to undermining the advancement of a valuable educational system, not only in Sierra Leone, but also in diverse well as intend resources was disproportionately borne by the women, the girl child and children.

In Africa, it is common practice to prefer the boy child when it comes to taking a decision as to who should be sent to school. Quite unfortunately the girl child was always regarded as secondary. This cultural behaviour of African societies has affected the conscience of policy makers who are making out with strong policy statements that favour the idea of promoting basic education for the girl child. Lacking such a right to education, women were regularly deprived of their rightful places in the building up of the nation (Fabulous, 2002).

In order to salvage this situation, the United Nation’s International activities fund (UNICEF) has initiated a series of programme to ensure that basic education for girls is achieved. Twenty-five countries, including some Africa countries were included in the initial experimentation. Amongst the selected countries were Burkina Faso, Central Africa Republic, Chad, Democratic Republic of Congo, French Guinea, Mali and Federal Republic of Nigerian.

At UNICEF’s sub regional launching in Ouagadougou, Burkina Faso on 24th June, 2003, by the Burkinabe President, Blaise Campore and UNICEF’s Executive Director, Carol Bellamy, the latter spelled out the criteria for the twenty-five countries.

- Countries having the net enrolment of girls in school below 70 percent.
- Countries with 10 percent enrolment gap levels or more.
- Countries on the World Bank Fast Track list.
- Countries with high level risks where enrolment and gender parity were under threat by HIV/AIDS, civil war, national disasters and emergency (UNICEF 2003).

Following the attainment of Independence in 1961, Sierra Leone has embarked on efforts to develop a unified system of education that would be socially, culturally and economically relevant to the girl child. The 2004 UNESCO conference of Africa ministers of education held in Egypt, was attended by the Sierra Leonean minister. This served as a motivator to the
government. It inspired the government to lay more premiums on the development of education for girls.

The following outlined recommendations were advances:

(i). That the African state should initiate a study of education and economic development in each country.

(ii). That universal primary education should be achieved by the end of 2010.

(iii). That about 30 percent of all primary school leavers should enroll at secondary level (UNESCO, 1999).

As commitment to the realization of the above declarations, Sierra Leone decided to start with expanding and developing the primary education sector. In 1973 professionals at the university of Sierra Leone, in collaboration with the government and including a wide range of international opinion initiated one of the most beneficial projects, “the Sierra Leone Education Review”. Among its terms of references was to “inquire into the pattern of learning needs-informal, non-formal and formal-likely to be its demographic situation; social and political organization and its projected background” (Porter, 1976). Moreover, another document entitled “Presentation of the status of education in Sierra Leone, a school survey report was published in February 2002. This report highlighted several parameters of the education situation during the civil war.

The formulation of the idea of basic education emanated from this view. This was technically coined “the education base”. Thus the establishment of the proposed comprehensive education base was only an initial step towards equal chances for all sections of the national community. The eventual aim was to introduce compulsory, free education for all children up to 15 years irrespective of sex (Porter, 1976). Among the aims of the 1974/75-1978/79 National Development Plan were:

- The acceleration of primary education and related teacher education.
- The reorientation of the content of education to raise its socio-cultural relevance to meet the needs of the country.
- The improvement of the level of literacy through primary and out of school education.
The 1979 educational sector review also made recommendations for a nation wide primary school construction programme and to raise the efficiency of the line delivery systems in education. The third Sierra Leone IDA on the expansion and improvement of education for both children and adults in rural Sierra Leone. As a Consequence, there emerged three types of officially recognized types of primary schools. These were government assisted, Independent schools in the Kindergarten category attached to other schools developed alongside government recognized school (Ministry of Education, Science and technology, 1991).

Owing to this development, by 1989/90 schools session, there were four hundred and one (401) regular primary school in the North, two hundred and eighty three (283) in the East and one hundred and sixty nine (169) regular primary schools, and tow hundred and one (201) feeder schools in the Western area.

Notwithstanding, there was still an alarming disparity between the enrolment of boys and girls. During that period, gross enrolment ratio stood at 65% for boys as against 45% for girls (MEST, 1992). This above statistics made it implicitly clear that it was necessary to raise the participation of girls in education starting with the primary sector. A number of Non-governmental Organizations (NGO’s) such as the Sierra Leone Adult Education Association (SLADEA), Peoples Education Association (PEA) and several other agencies have been engaged on the development of out-of-school education programmes for the young and old. The young women Christian Association (YWCA) was occupied with organizing classes for female early school leavers. Despite these, the true impact created on the out-of –school educational programmes of the girl child has been negligible as more of the male youth actively participated in the programmes than girls. This was evident at the Overseas Investment Co-operation (OIC) in Bo and Freetown. The rate of female retention in these non-formal institutions was extremely low.

According to the new educational policy, it has been stated that at the end of the six years of primary education, a child would attempt the National Primary School Examination (NPSE) to enable him/her to enter the Junior Secondary School (JSS) place. No pupil would be designate as having failed the NPSE and thus being unworthy of a JSS place. The system was introduced to ensure that all pupils enjoy the opportunity of receiving nine (six plus three) years of basic education. (MEST, 1984). Despite all these beautiful policy arrangements, girls in many
instances found it difficult to enroll in the Junior Secondary School of their own choice although they received the required passing mark.

In most of Urban Sierra Leone, most of the well-established or first class schools, often adopt very discriminating and highly selective modalities that inhibit the admission of low mark scoring girls into their school. By so doing, liberally-minded principals are at times forced to enroll more pupils per class by far above the pupil teacher ration 40:1. Consequently class rooms become congested and constantly stuffy and hot. This militates against conducive teaching and learning atmosphere. Though this problem befalls all pupils, the impact weights greatly on the girl child, who by nature needs a girl-friendly environment to facilitate learning, and contributes to poor retention rates of the girl child in school. In this way, gender disparity widens in the education system. The necessity for all stakeholders in the private as well as the public sectors, to explore ways of engaging in concerted actions that would raise the participation and retention of all school going female youths in school-going age in 1995, 66% were not in school. Of these children 65% were girls (MEST, 1995).

In the bid to gradually increase the number of girls graduating from the educational system and to establish educational equity, it should be the clear responsibility of all governments, individuals and organizations to work together if women are to serve the nation at higher levels. This venture then would be a move in the right direction towards achieving what government has decided to:

a. Increasing the participation and achievement of females in mathematics, science, technical and vocation subjects in formal and non-formal education.

b. Embark upon positive action to enable girls and women to enter new fields of occupation in Science and technology, including those not traditionally considered as appropriate for women.

c. Take action to promote cultural, social and attitudinal change in favour of female advancement through education (New education Policy, 1995).

This intention of government subsequently was to embark on the expansion of the Junior Secondary School System and to encourage other stakeholders (missions) to establish new schools. Thus, the drive to absorb in the Junior Secondary School the growing school going age population took momentum.
The curriculum was restructured to embrace the national languages. The reason behind this adoption was the remarkably high rate of illiteracy which was a continuous set back to national development through out the country. In order to considerably lower illiteracy, strategies must be designed for this battle by the Department of Education (MEST, 1995).

The planning division of the Ministry of Education was then vested with responsibility of preparing a school map to strategize new schools to match the national education action plan requirements. By 1984, there were thirty-six (36) Junior Secondary Schools in the Western Area, Sixty (60) in the Northern Province, fifty-three (53) in the Eastern Provinces and fifty (50) in the Southern Province, making a total of one hundred and ninety-nine (199) through out Sierra Leone. The number of Junior Secondary School has increased, with new ones being opened an approved by government. In his address at the conference of principals of secondary School in 2004, the Hon. Minister of Education, Science and Technology, Dr. Alpha Wurie, revealed that there were a total of two hundred and forty-six secondary schools in Sierra Leone.

Through the SABABU project, the ministry of Education, Science and Technology has nearly completed the opening of a Junior Secondary School in every chiefdom across Sierra Leone based on these improvements, it may be expected that enrolment and retention of girl child in the basic educational programme at both primary and secondary schools would shoot upwards.

Unfortunately, this persistent disparity in accessibility to educational opportunities between boys and girls had its roots in the culture and history of society. In the traditional African setting, people place less premium on the education of the girl child, who even now is more often than not considered as a wife-in-the-making and a prospective mother of many children. Infact in certain culture, girls and women are regarded as family assets and therefore should be at home under the mastership of men. Our colonial master also observed this concept about girls (Britain). There was competition between men and women for employment during the period of the industrial revolution. Men imposed work restrictions and low status on women. Women were forced to stay at home and care for the children (1996). Secondly, the decline in women status was due to the excess of women over men, which was caused by war and emigration.
In the 19th century, there was the constant problem of excess of women over men, which was common to Africa countries that had experienced wars. During wars, more men and boys are killed, leaving behind women and girls without partners or relations to care for them. Such women were regarded as burdens, especially if they had many children. According to Hughes et. al, (1997), difference in educational accessibility and status were not accidental because everything had always been manufactured, stage-managed and interpreted by men. (Hughes Sangs).

**Cultural History**

Throughout the world, human activities are prioritized, and institution structures are organized with respect to the social interaction between men and women. For the most part, the state, the law, policies, religion, higher education and the economy are institutions that have been historically developed by men, are currently interpreted from the stand point of men. This feeling of superiority by men, and consequently inferiority of women, led to the development of sexism, which endorsed the relationship of dominance between men and women. Bernard Jessie observed that “sexism, the unconscious, taken for granted, assumed unquestioned, unexamined, unchallenged acceptance of the belief that the world as it looks to men is the only world, that the way of dealing with it which men have created is the only way that the values to every one that what men think about what women are like is the only way to think about what women are like” (Bernard, 2002).

Thus, as men were the decision makers that determine the standard of women’s life by national design, the boy child was always prepared for a role of dominance over the girl child. Scholars have made many suggestions to achieve equality in accessibility to educational opportunities. This was however yet to be realized. The boy child who was considered the standard bearer of the family had all the opportunities to go to school and primary attention was given to his education. One might be tempted to think that it was because women were taken as an asset of men that they were not given equal chances or opportunities of access to education which would consequently enable them to take part as equal partners in national development.

A freeborn female legal practitioner stated that: “One of the greatest obstacles to the development of a country was the negligible recognition that was accorded to the role and
worth of women in communities, be local or international, women traditional role is seen to be inferior to men and they are type cast as mothers and house dressers” (Nicol, 2002).

Most parents send their daughters into early marriage as a source of income and relief. In such families, girls were either not sent to school at all, or those who had enrolled were withdrawn at the early stage of puberty and forced into early marriages. A large proportion of these families did this because of ignorance, others out of sheer poverty. As a means of overcoming these problems, society must be ready to embark on granting the girl child her social rights. Until girls receive at least basic education, there will be no significant sustainable transformation in society and no drastic reduction in poverty (UNICEF, 2003).

It has now become evident that the proliferation of drugs and drug addiction centres poses serious threat to the decent development of the youth population, especially in the urban centres of Sierra Leone.

In the pre-war era, the urban addicts were almost entirely adult men and male youth. But after the civil war, the number of girls taking hard drugs has increased rapidly. Certainly some of these youth girls were introduced to drugs during the period of our political and social interregnum 1991-2000. Nevertheless, a sizeable number of those youths (females) were initiated into the drug using habit following the achievement of peace in an effort to forget the maltreatment and frustration they experienced during the war. Recent findings have demonstrated that the influence of drugs and the lack of reliable means of acquiring daily livelihood also led these female youths into prostitution.

Despite the fact that NGO’s as well as Sierra Leoneans applied immense efforts to place these youths in educational institutions, most of these schools lacked the appropriate functioning guidance and counseling specialists who would have helped these girls. Thus, the deficiency of these facilities, especially at the early stage of puberty when awareness for social recognition in society was rapidly developing within her, worsened the situation. The imposition of elaborate post war school charges and expensive school materials constituted another major impediment to the education of the girl child. Many schools had unnecessarily high and prohibitive school charges, which made the children abandon schools and engage in other activities that took them totally out of the school system. These youngsters were led
into the dangerous and unsympathetic world of exploitative male adults. All of these unlawful activities still go unchecked.

With all these problems confronting children, one could ask what is the national government doing as a means to redressing the plight of these children? Prior to 1995 the national education action plan spelled out the following strategies:

a) The gradual provisions of free and compulsory education for all girls at Basic level as and when the national economy picks up.

b) The promotion of counseling and family life education as a means of avoiding early pregnancy among school girls.

c) Legislation specifying a minimum marriage age for girls (18 years) and penalties for men/boys who impregnate girls prior to becoming 18 years.

d) The re-admission of girl-mothers into school.

e) Allowing unmarried female students to continue their courses when pregnant.

f) Encouraging the increased participation of girls in mathematics, science and technology.

g) Granting formal recognition to non-formal primary education delivery systems for girls and its linkage with the formal system.

h) Assistance in the provision for child care centres facilities near learning centres for women.

i) Allowing unmarried female teachers entitlement to maternity leave (Department of Education, 11995).

In order to transform these strategies into reality intermediate goals and targets were formulated within the general national frame-work to cover the regional disparity in education development. The targets goals spelled out expected attainments and out comes with reference to girls’ enrolment specifications in a district or province within an appropriate time frame. School authorities were expected to be prepared to prioritize, in relation to government policy, the admission of girls into school system. However, it was necessary to put procedures in place to ensure that enrolment and retention of girls in basic education system could be measured on annual basis.

The significance of this lies in the fact that comparisons of statistical reports of one period or region could be drawn. The result of this could be utilized to serve as a platform for renewed
efforts or restructured approach to improving the access and retention of girls in the basic education system.

In every district and the entire province were put on a time-bound target, sense of feeling of urgency would have been injected into the minds of all parties concerned. Then the implementation and accomplishment of the National Education Policy would become the collective responsibility of all.

However, total commitment to a national priority like basic education for all requires a driving force that could be provided by a tangible legal framework designed for the successful implementation of such a programme. In this regard, therefore, every citizen of Sierra Leone shall have the rights to basic education, which shall be compulsory. (Sierra Leone Gazette, Vol. cxxxv No.19. 2004).

But merely making basic education compulsory would not necessarily solve problems of the girl child without government shouldering the financial responsibilities of education of all its citizen to the aforementioned levels. The Act continued to stipulate that basic education shall be to the extent specified by statutory instrument (Educational Act, 2004).

The prevalence of sheer poverty in certain families may lure their daughters into early marriages. Such an attitude can prevent many parents and guardians from sending their children to school. In addition, obstinate and reluctant non-believers of government policy would want to test the efficiency of the prescriptive legal framework that governs these educational programmes. In this respect the Act states that “Any parent, including a guardian who woefully neglects to send his child to school to receive basic education commits an offence and shall be liable to convictions of a fine not exceeding five hundred thousand Leones (500,000) or alternatively to imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year or both (Education Act., 2004).

According to post war analysts, poverty, trauma, drug addiction and a number of other social problems could be attributed to the refusal of children to go to school even when provided with a favourable environment. Reports indicate that even children born in affluent homes refuse to go to school or end up as school drop outs. The Act further clarified that: “A child who persistently fails to undergo basic education shall be treated as if he were juvenile in need of guidance and
counseling care”. (Sierra Leone Gazette. Vol. cxxxv No19, 2004). The local government authorities have been granted a wide range of powers in the materialization of this plan: “A local council now stands as the highest political authority in the locality and now possesses legislative and Executive powers to be exercised in accordance with this Act or with any other enactment, and shall be generally for promoting the development of the locality and the welfare of the people. This would be accomplished using the local resources at its disposal”. (Local Government Act 2004). With the placement of the district education school, it became obvious that all chiefs now have serious shared roles to play (Sierra Leone Gazette 2004). It was evident that all concerned parties, children, parents, guardians, local authorities, law enforcing agency and the central government were now committed to putting hands on deck for the implementation of basic education for all. This in turn would guarantee the maximum enrolment and retention of girls in the school system. One possible objection that may arise, is why should a government prioritize the education of girls? It is generally purported that the education of girls is good for boys, while the reverse does not necessarily hold water. Rime Salleh, Regional director UNICEF (2003) and argued that if women were to participate and compete with men in top-level decision making process in the private and public sectors, then girls and women must be granted the opportunity to access quality basic education. Moreover, governments in third world countries should also provide facilities for higher education and better training for girls and women because the occupants of most of these senior position were men, because the act of male marginalization of females in authority, girls and women were neither given the requisite education nor training that would enable them to hold such position. The mere cost of educating a girl should not in any way whatsoever be regarded as a burden on national resources for the sake of national development because, far from depriving other social sectors, financing girls’ education adds value to their worth. It eases the strain on the health care system of girls by abating the rapidly abounding incident of HIV/AIDS (Movre, 1991). Furthermore, the globally accepted view that women were the first teachers of mankind should not be forgotten. When you educate women, you educate a nation. Women also serve as the best nursery and junior primary school teachers.

During the last national population census, it was revealed that the female population outweighed that of the male. Like many other African countries, if these girls and women are provided with the right education, then the high rate of illiteracy would definitely be reduced. (Statistics Sierra Leone, 2004).
Women and men bear the responsibility for their children’s’ health care. Consequently, if women and girls were given quality basic education needed for better living they would be able to understand basic hygiene, read medical prescriptions and promote basic health care for their family members. Thus, “the acquisition of basic education of women and girl stands out as significant prerequisite to understanding pregnancy related issues and the survival of infants. This knowledge would certainly contribute to the fall in infant and maternal mortality rates, which already stand at alarming level” (Sannoh, 2006).

Furthermore, judging from basic human rights perspective, women are required to be educated. By merely designing and effecting the basic human right policies in the name of providing basic education for women, nearly all maternal and infant deaths could be prevented. Calling on human rights advocates who would denounce the persistently high level of illiteracy amongst women and girls may promote an end to this socially male-machinated injustice. This goal may be achieved through universal access to education.

Some of the most outstanding reasons presented by renowned schools for the necessity of ensuring that women receive education were:

- Promoting gender equality across the globe. Only four countries have so far achieved this-Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Finland.
- Girl child education may be as good as or even better than boy’s education.
- Serve as the highest return investment now in the developing world.
- It provides positive value and skills for personal and national development.
- Empowers women on multiplier effect scale in bring about other necessary changes such as small family welfare (Forum for African Women’s Educationalist FAWE, 2002).

Whatever the ramifications of this phenomenon, every sober minded educationist agree that the education of the girl child be placed central to the realization of all goals looked for in the dispensation of equitable and sustainable development.
1.2 Problem Statement

Across Sierra Leone, especially in the rural areas where people live about ten (10km) away from the nearest socio-economic amenities, easy affordable formal education is fairly lacking. This discussion was meant to examine the image and state of formal education on the traditional education of the girl child. It was intended to explore the social and economic parameters within the Sierra Leone society that produce negative and impeding tenancies on the formal education of the girl child and how far has the traditional education been influenced by the former.

It is already a well established fact that despite the acquisition of basic formal education by some girl children, a very large proportion of these girls do not make maximum use of this education. Notwithstanding the fact that formal education has been undergoing major changes and that the entire citizenry of Sierra Leone get basic formal education, which serves as a pivot for better living, until now magnitude of success over this venture remains extremely low. The long term aim of reducing illiteracy – more so, female illiteracy, has not be achieved. Thus, the disparity between male and female education still shows men in the lead.

Research indicates this during the period 1993 (war time) adult literacy at national level was put at 30 percent, while female literacy was placed at 11 percent. Analysis for that year showed Sierra Leone to have the second lowest of literacy on the black continent. The ambitious plan by the government to achieve 100 percent enrolment and retention of children in school system by the year 200 would certainly be confronted with problems (National Education Master Plan, 2004). In addition, this analysis also attempted to investigate the impact of formal educational opportunities in the advent of the great policy strides toward free and compulsory formal (Education Act, 2004), which would remove the obstacles and problems that has hindered basic formal education of the girl child.

On the basis of the above, it is no exaggeration to that state that this constitutes a pioneering effort to unveil the impact that is created on traditional education as a result of formal educational training.

Despite the colossal attempt that has been mounted throughout the country by the state in favour and support of the achievement of education for all by 2015, very little over-all achievement could be boasted or claimed so far.
The overall subject of this study falls within the framework of the socio-economic independence of the girl child and her contribution to national development.

While the formal education of the girl child in the advanced world has reached its apex, in Sierra Leone it has affected the traditional education of girl child.

What is already known about the education of girl child is that it enables her to enjoy the following opportunities:

- To avoid early marriage that consequently result into child motherhood.
- Reduce school dropout rate among girls.
- Enable them to further their education.
- Render them economically independent.
- Lead to stable marital homes. It could also scale down on unwanted pregnancy because knowledge about family planning for instance would be effectively used.

Moreover, it is significant to note that young girls from poor and illiterate backgrounds, especially those in rural areas, are often lured into early marriage. They thereby become mothers, rather than girls continuing their schooling. It was estimated in 1997 that at least (2) girls out of every household had dropped out from school. Socio-cultural beliefs are the greatest obstacles inhibiting the education of the girl child. The cost of traditional education of the girl child falls far below that of the formal education. Similarly, the duration of formal education is much more prolonged. It should also be observed that the benefits which a girl child receives as a result of formal education outweigh those of traditional education. Observes believe strongly that the more highly educated a girl becomes in the formal sector, the lower her interest in participation in the traditional activities.

When a woman acquires formal education, and controls her income, it is estimated that nearly 75 percent of that money would be spent on the home – on her children, husband and on improving her health status. The gross deficiency of formal education of women thus poses a barrier to improving living standards.
The proportion of the formally educated women in the Western Area exceeds that of the women in the Pujehun District. This is so because the Western Area is characterized by urban features where as the Pujehun District is predominantly rural in character. Moreover, whereas traditional education is a common factor for the rural people formal education is deeply rooted in the Western Area.

The need therefore, is to focus on this district as significant for research purposes. This research may be said to be a pioneering effort to trace and document the long-term effects of formal education on traditional education in Sierra Leone.

1.3 Research Question
In view of the preceding statements, the research questions stated below were adopted to guide the conduct of the survey.

1. What are the socio-cultural practices that inhibit the education of the girl child in the formal and traditional sector?
2. What are the benefits of formal education to the girl child over traditional education?
3. What problems does girl child experience in the formal and tradition sector of education?
4. To what extent has government policy helped to improve the education of the girl child in the traditional sectors?
5. What are responsible suggestions towards the improvement of the formal education for girl child?

1.4 Hypotheses
(1) Formal education better prepare the girl child to become a good citizen, than traditional education.
(2) Traditional education alone is not adequate for the development of the nation.

1.5 Objectives of the Study
This research aims at investigating the effects of formal education on the traditional education of the girl child in Pujehun District of Sierra Leone.

Girl child education in the study area has been a new phenomenon. It was not until 2004 that government made a frantic effort through policy to transform the minds of the people.
Perhaps socio-cultural and Islamic influences were responsible for the poor attendance of the girl child in formal schools. Many parents only train their girl child to serve the traditional homes, husbands and to bear children for the community. Boys were given the opportunity to attend formal school so that they should be empowered to handle the problems of the family.

However, over the years government has changed the mind set of the people for girls who have been educated in the traditional aspect, who are also attending formal schools, thus changing their social interactions, beliefs and economic lives.

The objectives of this study therefore include:

- To identify the socio-cultural practices in the traditional education of the girl child.
- To identify that problems that girl child experiences in formal and traditional sectors of education.
- To examine the benefits to the girl child of formal education over traditional education.
- To identify the extent of government policies to improve girl child education in the study area.
- To examine the views and suggestions of the traditional people, girls and teachers of Pujehun District.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The study of the effects of formal education on the traditional education of the girl child among the mendes of Pujehun District is important for the following reasons:

(a). This study will be of immense value to the educational authorities in helping them to understand the level of impact the formal education has made on the traditional education of girl child in the study area.

(b). It will help the girl child by providing her with an understanding of the world of work and essential human needs, and familiarizing individuals with such terms as “the dignity of labour” and work value and to also help individuals to choose an occupation, prepare for it, enter it and develop it for life.

(c). The ministry of culture will be appreciative of this piece of work. It will incorporate all the good values inherent in traditional education into the curriculum of the formal education.
(d). Future researchers will find this work very useful when probing into the impact of educational programmes and policies on girl education in Sierra Leone.

(e). It is hoped that this study will open the way to effective and efficient collaboration between traditional elders, traditional initiators and the Ministry of Education, so that, all the positive norms and values enveloped in the traditional education can be included in the formal school curriculum, thereby making it meaningful to ever growing and changing communities.

1.7 Limitations of the Study

The mende people predominantly occupied the eastern and southern provinces of Sierra Leone with distinct dialect and groups.

There are four types of mendes in Sierra Leone, they include:

(a). The Kpa mendes of Moyamba District.
(b). The Sèveama mendes of Bo District.
(c). The Wanjama Mendes of Pujehun District and
(d). The kor mendes of Kenema and Kailahun Districts respectively (Alie A.D, 1995)

This research is limited to the Wanjama mendes of Pujehun District. Like the other mendes, the wanjama settled along the Moa and the Sewa rivers. Fishing, diamond mining and subsistence farming are the main economic activities of the people.

Although Christianity and Islamic religions are playing serious roles in the district, yet the Wanjama mendes believe in gods, ancestors and spirit beings. These gods are held in high esteem or venerated to bring prosperity to the land. It is believed that when ancestors are not appeased by their people, great catastrophic events will occur in the community. For this reason special sacrifices and libation in form of wine, palm oil, cola nut, flour and coins are offered to them.

Bye laws, taboos and traditional codes of dressing should not be abused, as heavy fines are levied. Another basic tenet of the Wanjama mendes is the pivotal roles of the secret societies. The poro society for men and the sande/bondo society for women. In these societies, men and women under serious discipline instruction in the norms and values of the society. Graduates, particularly women are required to go into marriage and produce children for the continuity of the family.
CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Global Girl-Child Education

Education is a fundamental human right enshrined in all major United Nations and other international charters, and the need to provide education and eradicate illiteracy among people and provide them with occupation-oriented skills necessary for increased economic productivity has been of great concern worldwide. Other forms of education are therefore necessary for acquisition of skills, especially for those outside the framework of the formal school system. This led to a huge resource commitment to the programme, resulting into very high learner enrolment.

The British Department for International Development publication titled “Statistics on International Development 1998/99-2002/03, reveals that:

- One in five of the world population – two thirds of the women live in abject poverty, that is without adequate food, clean water, sanitation, health care, and education.
- More than 24% of the population of the developing and emerging industrialized nations live on less that US$ 1 a day. In Sub-Saharan African alone, over 46% of the population live on less than US$ 1 a day.
- About 113 million children of primary-School going age have never gone to school and one in four adults in the developing world – that is 870 million people are unable to read or write.

Since formal education is a proven contributory factor in graduating families out of poverty, the challenge to the international community is not only to expand education opportunities to encompass all the coming young generations but also to expand such opportunities to cover these millions of people who have already missed out, through other forms of education, like adult education.

A number of international initiatives and conferences on issues relating to population and development have taken place in the past, culminating the United Nations conference on Financing for Development in 2002 in Monterrey, Mexico.
The conference adopted the monetary consensus, which inter alia, called upon developed countries to recommit themselves to raising ODA (Official Development Assistance) to 0.7% of GNP to support developing countries in their effort to achieve the United Nations Millennium Goals. Whilst all millennium Development Goals are interrelated, the specific target in relation to poverty reduction is to reduce the proportion of people living in extreme poverty in developing countries by at least 50% by 2015.

There is sufficient documented evidence to demonstrate that formal education in general is a major factor in graduating families and individual out of poverty. There can therefore be no doubt that formal education contributes to capacity building through skill development, technology transfer, community leadership development and information dissemination. It is therefore an empowerment process in terms of increasing knowledge of social, political, environmental and economic issues that impact on individual and collective living. It therefore provides human capabilities necessary to enable one to avoid or graduate from poverty, and it needs to be linked to and taken as part of other development processes aimed at enhancing human welfare.

According to a paper titled “Briefing paper for the UN Beijing + 10 Review and Appraisal” the former United Nations Secretary – General Kofi Annan, on March 13, 2005. said “without achieving gender equality for girls in education, the world had no chance of achieving many of the ambitious health, social and development targets it has set for itself”.

He further revealed that education is a critical asset for women and fundamental human right for all. The silent emergency that denied so many children, the majority of them girls, this rights, is a scandal that can be ended by the actions of all of us during 2005. (UNESCO, EFA Global monitoring Report 2003/4p.60).

In the above monitoring report, it is explicitly stated “no country seriously committed to education for all will be allowed to fail for lack or resources”. Fine words but despite the huge wealth amassed in the world since 2000, rich countries have directed very small amount to the hidden emergency of girls out of school. Donor countries give only a fifth of the aid that would be needed to achieve universal primary education by 2015. Total G8 aid to basic education amounts to about half the cost of one stealth bomber.
As the Report of the commission for Africa pointed out, “Africa’s challenges will not be effectively addressed unless the exclusion faced by women is tackled across the board. Women must be included and the full power of their development skills unleashed”.

This is so because, the report argues.

“Women are the backbone of Africa’s rural economy accounting for 70 percent of food production, most of the selling of the family produce and half of the animal husbandry in addition to food preparation, gathering fire wood, fetching water, child care and the care of the sick and elderly.”

Yet, it is widely recognized that women are largely excluded from educational provision in Africa, especially when it comes to adult education.

Findings of recent study commissioned by the African Union collaborate this assertion, as follows: (1) fewer women (than men) are enrolled in literacy classes and a smaller proportion of those enrolled ever achieve function literacy, (ii) a smaller proportion of Africa’s female population (two-thirds of Africa’s illiterate population is made up of women) is literate; and (iii) fewer women are engaged in the acquisition of life-skills among out-of-school youth (commission of the African Union Quality Education for Africa’s sustainable Development, April 2005 pp. 7-8).

Drawing the grave consequences of such a state of affairs, the commission of the African Union in its “strategic frame work for Deadline 2015” states that “Since women and girls have systematically and systemically been denied the opportunity of acquiring knowledge and skills, they are severely under-represented in the commanding height of the social, political and economic life of a large majority of the countries of Africa, as it is well known that enlightened, well informed, educated, skilled and socially/economically/politically empowered women do exert a strong influence on the education and survival of the young”. (Commission of the African Union, April 2005, p. 16)
Abuse of human rights and social injustice leading to the exclusion of important segments of society, have also constituted stumbling block to economic and social progress on the continent and paved the way to violent conflicts.

Given the demographic and socio-economic importance of women in society, substantive democracy cannot be achieved without practicing gender democracy, a cross-cutting issues. The fact, nevertheless, is that the situation of women in Africa has not improved. In some cases, it has even worsened compared to what it used to be a few decades a go. The role of education in development is not limited only to dimension. There is a strong link between learning and democracy. This so because, as acknowledged at the UNESCO Fifth International Conference held in Hamburg in 1997, “substantive democracy and a culture of peace are not given; they need to be constructed” (UNESCO, 1997). For democracy to be achieved, education is needed to educate citizens on their rights and responsibilities as democracy also requires people to actively participate at local, national and global levels. It is today admitted that the lack of recognition of the need to involve civil society, especially grass-root organizations, by giving them a voice in decision-making and the means to participate effectively in society is one of the major causes of development failure in many African countries.

In 2001, the Education for all Fast Track Initiative (FTI) was established with G8 and EU backing to accelerate aid to countries that measure up to tough criteria for good policies on the education goals. It should be the international driving force behind a massive and coordinated expansion of girl’s education throughout the developing world. But the FTI is failing, because the donor community has pledged only paltry sums of money.

According to ILO figures for 2000, it is estimated that over 50 million girls under the age of 15 will labour in the harshest and most hazardous conditions, instead of going to school. And that everyday, over 2700 children under the age of 5 five will die needlessly because their mothers were denied an education earlier in life. Nearly 200 more young people will become infected with HIV/AIDS, who would have stayed safe if they had gotten a primary school education. This day, and everyday that goes by without concerted action to achieve the 2005 and 2015 education, 60 million girls will be denied the chance to open their minds and change their future through learning.
Overwhelmingly, girls are not in school because of poverty. The more expensive education is, the less likely families are to invest in education for girls. Opportunity cost are also a real deterrent for poor household: sending girls to school may mean less food on the table at he end of everyday. (Global campaign for Education Review, March 2005).

As the Millennium Task Force on Gender and Education underscores in its report, while the MDG’s to which world leaders have subscribed focus on primary education, evidence increasingly indicates that sustained progress to ward universal primary education requires actions to improve the status of girls and women.

Mothers matter most; they say, as studies reveal an unmistakable pattern of mothers’ education being a strong determinant of children’s especially daughters’ enrollment and attainment.

The Global campaign for Education (GCE) has challenged rich countries not to wait for 2010 to put more than 100 million out of school children in schools- the majority of whom are girls.

In Bangladesh and Nepal “it is not uncommon for girls to work an average of 10 hours a day,” and in countries hard-hit by HIV/AIDS, girls are shouldering much of the burden of caring for sick and looking after younger children (UNESCO, EFA Global Monitoring Report, P. 127).

This report further stressed and revealed that the prevalence of early marriage and child labour are barriers to girl’s education. But neither poverty nor HIV/AIDS need deny any child her right to education.

Among the pro-girl steps taken by ‘success story’ countries, some of the most effective have been abolishing fees and charges; making primary education compulsory as well as free, prohibiting the worst forms of child work, and providing extra incentives to help compensate poor families for girls’ labour.

After Uganda abolished fees, girl’s enrolment increased by 20 percentage points almost overnight; among the poorest fifth of girls, it went from 46 percent to 82 percent.
When the government of Bangladesh introduced Cash stipends for females peoples, girls’ enrolment in areas covered by stipend programme rose to double the national average. (World Bank, 2001).

In India, girls living in villages where schools offer a free meal are 30% more likely to complete primary education than other girls.

A Few years ago, AIDS was causing a mass exodus from Lesotho’s Schools. But in some schools, free education combined with school feeding is bringing orphans back in droves. (GCE, learning to survive P.16).

Measures to eradicate the educational disadvantage facing poor girls cannot stop at the door of primary school, however.

To learn and acquire real skills, girls need reasonable class sizes, adequate hours of instruction, adequate supplies of learning and teaching materials that are gender-sensitive and probably most important, better trained and supported teachers – including more female teachers. They need to be freed from the threat of sexual harassment and abuse, and from gender-biased assumptions of what and how children should learn. They need equitable opportunities to advance up the educational ladder, to secondary and even tertiary level. Schools need to support girls to acquire knowledge and skills that society generally denies to women: whether this means maths and science or sexual and reproductive health instruction and life skills programmes to build self-confidence and negotiation skills. (UNESCO, EFA Global Monitoring Report 2006. Literacy for Life, Summary, P.31)

Finally, education has become an essential tool, since it has been seen as the foremost agent of empowerment. Pomary (1992:21) say that “no matter ho we run away from it, the foremost agent of empowerment is education; education is the only passport to liberation, to political and financial empowerment. Education contributes to sustainable development. It brings about a positive change in our lifestyle. It has the benefit of increasing earnings, improving health and raising productivity.”
Thus, this makes education crucial in women’s empowerment process (Encarta Reference Library 2005), as to enhance their capabilities to be able to organize themselves, to improve their skills for generating income, to increase their own self-reliance, to assert their independent rights to make decisions or choices and to able to control resources which will assist them in challenging and eliminating their subordination.

(Commission of the African Union, April 2005, p.16)

Abuse of human rights and social injustice leading to the exclusion of important segments of society, have also constituted stumbling blocks to economic and social progress on the continent and paved the way to violent conflicts.

It is clear that for African countries to cope with these new challenges to globalization solidarity, they will need informed and literate populations capable of articulating their views and defending their interests. It is apparent from the foregoing that education is an indispensable vector for social economic and political progress in any society, and in particular in Africa, the least developed part of the world. The developmental potential of education has been well summarized by UNESCO as follows:

“Despite challenges and constraints, basic education empowers individuals because it opens avenues of communication that would otherwise be closed, expand choice and controls over ones environment, and is necessary for the acquisition of many other skills. It gives people access to information through both print and electronic media, equips them to cope better with work and family responsibilities and changes the images they have of themselves. It strengthens their self-confidence to participate in community affairs and influence political issues. Basic education is the key with which individuals can unlock the full range of their talents and realize people the tools they need to move from exclusion to full participation in their society. Education also empowers entire nations because educated citizens and Workers have the skills to make democratic institutions function effectively to meet the demands for a more sophisticated work force for a cleaner environment and to meet their obligations as parents and citizen”.(UNESCO, 1997:17).

When 189 heads of state signed the Millennium Declaration in 2002, they recognized that education girls is a powerful and necessary first step towards ending poverty and achieving
human rights. The continuing denial of education to an estimated 60 million girls is a global emergency, even though the international community is refusing to acknowledge it as such.

The advance world in particular, the USA, Japan or Canada provides internationally sponsored Girl-child education (UNICEF 1990). The full scale implication for these conditions in the world are already documented.

Really, the education initiative of the world- the 2005 goal to ensure that as many girls as boys be in school is a global-concerted effort to maximize the enrolment of girls in more than 50 countries that experience most critical scenario, the government, through the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) had contributed $75 million across the world especially in the developing world, the activities of rich government as well as international, non-government organization (NGO’s) continue to educate children about the benefits of the girl-child education. This government and NGO’s have contributed immensely towards the advancement of girl-child education (Dambo 1985).

These NGO’s focuses strategically on protecting the right of the girl-child to education. This is effected in order to reverse the denied right of the girl-child education crucial to women achievement of higher health, economic and social status, thus opening room for political activities (UNFPA 1997).

At the world declaration education for all in Jontem, Thailand in 1990, it was affirmed that the most urgent priority agreed upon was to ensure access to improve the quality of education for girls and women.

In partnership with (UNICEF 2002), the Canadians International Development Agencies (CIDA) contributes $75 million over the next 5 years to boost girls’ education (UNICEF 2002).

Children, especially girls personify the world’s future ensuring their survival or welfare and we participate in the shaping of human destinng. Family planning of Sierra Leone (PSL 1991).

Despite these contributions, it is recorded that 121 million children, 50% of who are girls across the world want to be educated but lack the means to do so (Dambo 1985). It is estimated that
24% of the world’s girls are currently in school. Each year, non school going girls aged between 15 and 19 years give birth, of which 4 million of them undergo abortion, most of whom are committed by their boy friend (UNICEF 2000).

Nonetheless, despite the global concerted effort pledges at international conference in 1980, the world populations aid development conference in 1999 and most recently at the millennium summit in 2002, not much achievement have been made in girl-child education (Allan Cruthmacher Institute 1999).

2.2 Girl-child Education in the Developing World.

A review of the relevant literature in the girl-child education indicated the benefits of education girl-child are most immediate and long lasting in the developed countries. Investing in the girl’s education yields high returns because it cuts through the vicious circle of the family and it stated that women expend more of their income on children than their husband (Beijing 1995). In 1992, it was estimated that as many as 10 million women worldwide were missing primary education.

In developing countries it is culturally believed that girls normally grow to do little than serve their husbands. This nonetheless, reduces the incentive of parents to invest in their daughters. Similarly, female education has potential to transforming society over time (summer 1992).

The government of Pakistan in an effort to encouraging women education in the rural district established a distance learning programme for certification 10 thousand women teachers and release the age limit for the recruitment of women teachers (Sessay 2002).

In Egypt, where traditional Islamic role and home confinement of girls is prevalent, the government has set up innovative community schools in deprived areas, where 80% of the enrolment are girls. Moreover, in collaboration with UNICEF and NGOs the Egyptian government in 1992 launched several community schools in most of rural Egypt where 500 facilitators worked upon the introduction of new curricula within the first two years of the new millennium. Over 8 thousand children were enrolled in more than 200 schools (UNICEF 2003)

In an attempt to urgently raise girl-child education Malawi, following the Jonten declaration in 1990, the government declared basic education as free “so many more girls enrolled, the system
began bursting at the seams whereby enabling every Malawian girl to be educated”. (Gorden 1995). In Muslim dominated, watered down the prerequisite for admission into teacher training college for women, this step forward in the rightful direction defuses the traditional concept that girls are inferior to boys (Jous Gambian Education Minister 1996).

The lowest primary school education enrolment in 1994 was recorded by French Guinea, which recorded less than 29%. By allowing the participation, the payment of teachers, as well as the mobilization of community resources, the Guinea government succeeded in raising the enrolment of girls in schools from 20% in 1994 to 45% in 1997 (UNICEF 1998).

While parents and girls in the advanced world have already achieved their educational goals i.e. possess the opportunity rights have, unfortunately not being attained. The 121 million children who are currently out of school, more than 50% of these children are girls and 75% of these cases are found in the developing world (UNICEF 2002). The highest scale of these non-school going girls cases occurring in the developing world takes place in the East and West Africa, where hard hearted culture militates against girls. (Africa educational surveys AES 1994).

These figures are reflective and suggestive of the signals of which infer the magnitude of girl child illiteracy. Owing to poverty, many individuals and couples have in the third world generally the choice of girl child education lags far behind than of the boy child (UNICEF 1990).

Most Often, the Greatest share of Girl-Child Educational Programmes are concentrated in the urban rather than in the rural areas, where the significance of education is much more felt. In order to educate girls, some parents give their daughters to relative to raise (AES 1994).

In Africa and Southern Asia where literacy and school enrolment rates are remarkably, low, the returns on education are quite high although the increase schooling of boy and girls are similar in terms of wages impact, education girls is much more effective in generating social benefits.

The low girl-child education on the continent of Asia infers that Africa population would continue to rise probably throughout the first half of the 21st Century. Kenya, which had the highest population growth rate, is reported to have low girl child education (AES 1992).
As large families continue to be the norms in most of Africa and the huge numbers of young girls are about to enter their productive years, the population of the continent is expected to double again from its current 680 by the year 2005. This may be accounted for by the fact of large proportion of these girls are non-school going. Notwithstanding the existence of these looming problems, some local and international government and NGOs could boast of successes in the rising numbers of countries.

It is estimated that in the developing world alone, 82 million girls got married before their 18th birthday, most of these girls married earlier because they are non-school going (UNFPA 2003).

In addition, one in every six girls in the rural areas of the developing world, live about 5km away from nearest educational facility. Moreover, whenever school cost shoot upwards particularly beyond the reach of poor parents, girls are often the first to be decided against attending school. It has been established that the complex level of the African culture, social and economic obstacles create vicious circle of poverty. (UNICEF 1999).

In Sub-Saharan African where the gender gap is quite pronounced, 24, 000,000 girls were reported to be out of school in 2002, whereas in South East Asia alone nearly 25, 000,000 girls are denied schooling. According to the recent UNICEF report, 85% of all girls out of school live in Sub-Saharan Africa, Eastern Asia and the pacific (UNICEF 2004).

2.3 Girl-child Education in Sierra Leone.

Notwithstanding the fact that most government as well as private institutions were wrecked during the ten year period of interregnum and the country is now donor driven, nonetheless, the most outstanding causes of the war as outlined in the meeting in Paris (UNICEF 2002), donors and government are now moving from tradition to sustainable mode of education, especially for women and girls. This represents a critical corner stone to combating poverty and promoting democracy (World Children Report 2002).

Citing the marginalization of the Sierra Leonean youths and robbing women of their rights to basic education as one major cause of the civil war, it has been clearly observed and suggested that sustainable peace could only be achieved through the participation of youths as well as
women in the good governance. This is only possible by an educational provision (state of world’s children 2002).

In most major cities, there are numbers of regional initiatives that are programmed to promote girl-child education. The Forum for Africa Women Educationist (FAWE), which was established in 1993, has constantly dialogued with government on the improvement of women education. This organization underlines the priority it places on strategies that would improve access to quality girl child education (UNICEF 1996).

During the 2nd year of the 21st Century, the government adopted a positive policy, which led to the free primary education across the country. Included in this policy were the provision of teaching and learning materials and the provision of scholarship for girls in Junior Secondary Schools in the north and eastern provinces which registered the low child education rate (Sessay 2002).

In an attempt to educate over aged children in the country, governments collaboration with UNICEF have thrown their financial weights behind these children so that they could be rapidly educated. This compulsory Rapid, Education Programmes (REP) was instituted to educate children who could not attend school because for the chaotic atmosphere through out the 1990s. Throughout Sierra Leone the REP was opened in 84 centres. Similarly, for the education of these children, the Sierra Leone government (SLG) in partnership with UNICEF are operating several hundreds of non-formal primary school (NPSE) in nearly 500 centres. On the other hand, Plan-International along side quality of basic education and psychological assistance in areas that are accessible (USAID 2004).

In addition, the March 29th 2004 educational reform act of Sierra Leone designed 9 systems that would rapidly enhance literacy in Sierra Leone, especially that of girl child. (Sierra Leone Education Act. 2004). Prior to 1980, there was no distinct government policy in favour of girl child education in Sierra Leone but rather, the educational policy advanced priority to girls, hence the low scale of girl child education of the barely 30% literacy rate nationwide, only 3% constitute women (UNDP 2003).
Despite all the efforts applied by these different bodies, yet many problems remain over the education of girls and women in Sierra Leone. A complex web of cultural, social and economic draw back confront the education of girls and women, most of these facts have been documented. It is stated that in the provinces of Sierra Leone, as girls attain the age of puberty, they are initiated into female society called the Bundo or Sande which open up their eyes, thereby losing the aptitude to continue schooling. These girls end up becoming house wives or subsequently join the rank of stray girls (Sherman 1996). According to Pratt (1992) despite the abundance of Christian missions in the southern provinces, education had done little to alter the views of the people about school for girls. In his study of the effects of diamond mining on girl child education (Matturi 1992) documented that, material wealth; money consciousness and prostitution constitute the factors that inhibit girl child religious factor coupled with economic and cultural factors account for the backwardness of the girl-child education (Bangura 1990).

A broad based evaluation survey conducted by the United Nations children fund on the characteristics of non-formal education shows that two girls to one boy admission criteria recommended by the government was not observed. Nonetheless, it is the community opinion that boys be granted priority over girls for the under-mentioned reasons:

- That, girls marry and soon are attached to other family/houses despite the fact that their parents would need their services.
- That boys, rather than girls serve as natural sources of family continuity.
- That it was anti-cultural for girls to challenge boys in terms of exposure and learning. Education a girl was seen as devaluation of tradition.
- That the pregnation of girl at school was merely a family resource wastage affair.
- That educated women hardly succumb to the control of men (UNICEF 1995).

Moreover, in an investigation carried out by the Sierra Leone Association of non-governmental Organization (SLANGO). It was unfolded that less women were engage in decision making than men, which infers that less women qualified to hold positions. All these may be attributed to the socio-cultural norms of the country (Pemagbi et al. 1996). Among a number of families, especially in the rural areas, the encouragement of male visitors to their daughters often resulted into the division of the girls attention from schooling, consequently abandoning school prematurely. These situations arise as a result of poverty, as parents see their daughters as a source economic investment.
The self perception of the girl militates against them. Boys grow to believe that they are superior to girls, while girls themselves imbibe their social role-create the impression they are cared for in the future. Thus male supremacy is acceptable to society because it is deeply entrenched.

In effect, the absence of girl-friendly school structures, pregnancy shame gender intensively in class rooms and other unsuitable environmental condition debar the girl-child education.

2.4 Girl-Child Education and Human Right Approach
By designing and implementing human right policies in the name of the girl child education, the magnitude of the girl child illiteracy could be minimized by 50% particularly as human rights policies affect the entire world. Human rights advocates may be called upon to denounce the continued backwardness of the girl child in education at conference and promote an end to this global injustice. This could be achieved through universal access to education. The application of Human rights principles at management and monitoring levels in socio-economic and cultural sensitive societies may advance not only community perception but also participation and dialogue.

2.5 Girl-Child Education and Maternal Infant Rates and Disability.
It is an obvious fact that maternal as well as infant rates and disabilities could be remarkable lowered with rise in girl-child education. Before the advancement of the industrial Revolution, most Europe and America had low scale of girl child education that could be compared to the developing countries. The provision of easy access to school and availability of free school materials as well as the prescription of punishment for not sending their children to school must have helped to solve the problem. Despite the straight-line impossibility of replicating these successes in exactly the same ways in resources constrained countries.

Maternal, infant mortalities and disabilities could be reduced considerably (UNFPA 2002) if generations of girls has gone to school many years back, millions of infant and maternal deaths would have been averted, just as million of families would have been healthier and happier (UNFPA 2002).
Asia and Africa which register the least girl-child education in the world account for 95% of all maternal deaths in the world (WHO 2003). Similarly, by reducing pregnancies, through family planning, much of these deaths and disabilities would be reduced considerably (World Bank 2002).

2.6 Girl-Child Education and HIV/AIDS

Record shows that a data vacuum exists on the extent of girl child education relation to HIV/AIDS. It is generally acceptable that HIV/AIDS is associated with poor maternal health and this could be indirectly linked to education for women, thereby rendering women vulnerable to a number of infections. An educated girl child would easily read to learn and know about the spread and consequences of HIV infection. HIV risks infections have been connected with the rising risk of spontaneous abortion and post partum hemorrhage, though attributable risks have not yet been discouraged (UNFPA, 2003).

As there is considerable overlap in the education of girl/women and in the use and intervention of preventing HIV, the education of girls and the prevention and treatment of HIV for joint programming may be well suited. Thus sharing materials for the education of the girl-child and HIV and maternal deaths is not illogical (UNDP1996). Therefore, any Programmes that is meant for lowering child mothers (USAID, 2001). By conduction voluntary testing and counseling for HIV, antenatal clinics may offer excellent places for helping educated women who do not have HIV. These women would be informed and made to acquire skill to protect themselves and families from being infected (FAO, 2003.)

This summary has identified and elaborated on six major topics that are to be considered in the study of girl child education in Sierra Leone – the global girl child education, girl-child education in developing world, girl child education in Sierra Leone, girl child education and human rights approach, girl child education and maternal, infant mortality rates and disability, girl-child education HIV/AIDS.

The contribution, views, constrains, or defects of each of the six topics have been critically examined so as to find remedies or solution to their short comings.
In short, these few examples show that education is a prerequisite for development. Where not even basic education can be sufficiently assured, development programs in all sectors quickly came up against their limits. It is important to take into account the fact that non-formal education and adult education are, in many developing countries, often the only chance for the poor education are, in many developing countries, often the only chance for the poor education are, in many developing countries, often the only chance for poor people in particular to access basic education and life long learning opportunities.

All well meaningful African should be aware of the burden of poverty weighing on the Africa continent, and find the way forward. One of the major aims in this context is better education for all irrespective of race, creed or sex.

Education is a key economic asset for individuals and for nations. If every girl and boy received a complete primary education, at least 7 million new cases of HIV could be prevented in a decade.

Finally, women with education are better able to successfully resist debilitating practices such as female genital cutting, early marriage and domestic abuse by male partners (B. Herz and G. Sperling, “What works in girls’ Education” Washington: Council on foreign Relations, 2004).

**2.7 Education and Social Change**

Education is the aggregate of all the means or processes by which human beings develop or acquire the necessary skills, attitudes and values for a happy and useful living. In other words, education involves changes in the knowledge, skills, attitude, interest and values of the people generally.

Therefore, education could be regarded as an important instrument of change. It is the only instrument that can be successfully used to bring about a social change without any violent revolution.

However, for education to be an effective and efficient instrument of change, it must make adjustment to the changing situations and also create a new order for social progress. It must help
in the continuous reconstruction and reorganization of ever-changing experience and need for the society in order to build a happier and better society/world.

Educational institutions must assist in the promotion of social change and not in the transmission of the culture from one generation to another.

Above all, education must be for social mobility, flexibility of thought and action as well as for the production of individuals with a high level of awareness that could make them adaptable to changing condition (Morish 1974:76). By so doing, the fear and rejection of change and inability to adapt to change, all of which, make real social progress difficult if not impossible will be greatly reduced.

Our societies are often divided into layers, strata or classes. The movement of persons from one social position to another is what is known as social mobility.

When some one born into the rural poor family secures a scholarship and becomes after graduation and employment quite wealthy and influential. He or she can no longer be seen as belonging to the rural poor, the person has moved upward in the social strata to become urban professional or urban well-to-do with the accompanying prestige and power. This is amply demonstrated in the emergence of educated elites in Nigerian. Those who, hitherto were slaves or children of slaves but had contact with western education and civilization become after their liberation, the colonial domination of civil services, government and business in the emergent Nigeria to displace the traditional rulers inherited position as rulers of various societies that made independent Nigeria (Ayandele, 1974).

This roles of education in social mobility especially in modern societies have become very significant. It is through formal education that people acquire knowledge skills and competencies and eventually become members of military officers, civil and public servant among others.

The type of profession or occupation affects the level of income and subsequent prestige and influence. The level of education also influences the level of participation in the governance of the society either as political leaders or mere followers as educational qualification are fixed for participation in political contest.
The acceptance of formal education as a means of social mobility especially in developing countries has led to huge investment in education (Coombs, 1968; Illich, 1971).

2.8 Education for eco- and cultural development

Eco-development means development that takes into account environmental protection and enhancement of ecological systems. Environmental destruction threatens the survival of human kind. Communities must respond to this crisis by accepting responsibilities for a programme of action that mobilizes public awareness about the realities of environmental issues and the accelerating depletion of the world’s resources.

The need exists to facilitate the exchange of ideas, approaches and programmes by such means as:

- Collecting and exchanging information on environmental education such as UNESCO/UNEP programmes and Belgrade charter on Environmental Education;
- Assistance to groups or organizations in developing and implementing programmes related to environmental education;
- Ensuring groups participation in international and regional conferences on the environment;
- Instituting a continuing programme of international and regional meetings to mobilize experiences, resources and programmes for eco-development.

The task of education in contributing to endogenous development is to promote, conserve, and use local and indigenous cultures. To revitalize traditional values and system is not a step backward in time but rather to make sure that new development policies are humanely based in rich, authentic, cultural forms.

In promoting knowledge about and appreciation of the history, traditional cultures and artistic values of society, education should also ensure that people are encouraged to express their creative abilities so that a flourishing popular culture exists.
Respect for and understanding of the diversity of customs and cultures and languages within a nations and regions as well as internationally – is essential for cooperation, peace and mutual learning.

Sub-groups within a society should be able to express themselves freely, educate themselves and their children in their native tongues, develop their own cultural forms, and learn language other than their native ones.

Traditional practices and attitude toward women need changing through education directed; in many instances, to men. Since women are the majority of the adult population and constitute the largest percentage of illiterates, it is essential that their consciousness be raised concerning their actual condition and their potentialities for decisive social and economic roles (The National Socio-Economic Survey 2003).

Rural development education should stress to farmers the importance of environmental conservation, such as a land and water and its role in immediate and future.

2.9 The Traditional Education

Every society shows concerns for the welfare of its citizens. This concern is stronger with the children and other young members of the society. As such every society develops its systematic ways of initiating the younger members into the customs, norms and ways of its adult members. This process of civilization is what represent the educational system in the traditional societies. And the system succeeded by being able to meet the needs of such societies. And the system succeeded by being able to meet the needs of such societies. It was also formidable enough to have produced prominent leaders in the spiritual, political and other indigenous professions. Just as Greek traditional education produced such great names as Socrates, indigenous African education also boast of eminent names as education also boost eminent names as Chaka De Zule of Eastern/Southern Africa, Kunrumi of Old Oyo Kingdom, Queen Amina of Zaria, Moremi of Ife-Ife, Oba Overami of Old Benin Kingdom, Kailondon, Ndawa, Bai Bureh, Madam Yoko of Sierra Leone among others.
Those who came to Africa and passed a sweeping judgment on traditional education as primitive and barbaric either did not take enough time to study the strengths and weakness of indigenous African education or they suffered from the affliction of immense racial prejudice.

In Sierra Leone, traditional education of the girl child served purpose of preparing the girl child to take her place as a woman in the community. During the period of initiation girls undergo specific instructions and directions in home management, marriage laws, respect for elders and ancestral spirits, dress code, the art of fishing, agriculture, music and song, discipline, child bearing and rearing thereby promoting the socio-economic development of mende communities.

This traditional education was a continuous process, the high point of which was the incorporation in the women society call “Bond/Sande”. This process took place as the girl reached puberty and was considered an immediate preparation for marriage. In this context, girl child education in formal school among the mende people was initially meaningless.

2.10. Reasons for Traditional African Education
Traditional education focused on the production of the complete man and woman. The Yoruba indigenous education for example had the standard measure in the concept of Omluwabi. This accord to Majsan, (1967)

“Designated those who character was the traditional model for community”.

It was described to entail the pursuit of knowledge and livelihood and “diligence in keeping customs, civility in public and private affairs, versatility of skills and interest, maturity of judgement (Majasan 1967).

On his own Fafunwa (1974) identified seven cardinal goals of the African education as:

1. To developed the child’s talent skills.
2. To develop character.
3. To inculcate respect for elders and those in position of authority.
4. To develop intellectual skills.
5. To acquire specific vocational training and to develop a healthy attitude towards honest labour.
6. To develop a sense of belonging and to participate actively in family and community affairs.

7. To understand, appreciate and promote the cultural heritage of the community at large. (Fafanwa, 1974:20).

The indigenous/traditional education differs from the formal western education in the sense that it is the whole society serves as the teachers, teaching through illustration and example and emphasis is on the family and the extended relatives as the basis of education.

We can identify three major levels of traditional educational to include:

i. Home education where parents, brothers and sisters serve as the teachers.

ii. Neighbourhood education where other members of the neighbourhood participate and help in forming the child morally, physically, intellectually and socially.

iii. Community education involving all members of the community as teachers. The three levels may be described as similar to primary, secondary and higher education of the Western education.

As far as the content of learning experience is involved, the concept of number and numeracy are acquired through situationalized language, history and literature through story telling; while physical education comes through plays and dancing.

The home, village shrine, market place, farm, river, workshop, age, group meeting and interactions, yearly and community festivals are the avenues where traditional education flourishes.

Despite several advantages of the traditional education including relevance, full employment and strong moral development, it has also been criticized.

For example, it is said to be rigid and inflexible, that age alone is taken as criterion for wisdom, that it is timeless and wasteful without known method of assessment, that it is non-literate and non-scientific because assumptions are not proved and that it is segregatory between males and females.
Inspite of the above weaknesses, Africa countries must ensure proper understanding and integration of the relevant aspects of their traditional/indigenous education into the formal Western education in order to save their citizens from continued cultural inferiority and underdevelopment.

2.10.1 The Girl Child
Within the family, age and sex decide clout and both work against the girl child. Consequently, the girl is twice denied because of her age and gender, and she is twice removed from the benefits and entitlements of her childhood as well as her labour (Sohoni 1995, 124).

There is, now, wide spread awareness among development workers and researchers that promoting girls’ health and education is critical to development: it has economic and health benefits for the individual, but also for her family and community. A typical argument runs: ‘If girls are not viewed by families and societies as having critical roles and potential, then they will become mothers with children who are more likely to die in and the cycle will be repeated. An investment in girls should be considered an investment in national development “(Kurz and prather 1995, 5).

Girls are often less healthy than their brothers in poor households, where more resources are allocated to boys. Girls are less likely to be taken to clinics when they are unwell, and less likely to receive a good diet. In extreme situations, where the contribution of girl children is undervalued and their cost to the household seems unbearably high, they may suffer deliberate neglect in childhood, or be killed or allowed to die in infancy (Sohoni 1995).

The phenomena of Son preference and Daughter neglect, combine with the toll that gender base discrimination takes on women throughout their lives, have resulted in100 million ‘missing’ women world-wide (Summers 1994 quoted in Leach 1998, 9).

There are 42 million fewer girls than boys enrolled in primary schools across the world. South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa have the widest gender gaps. In both regions, improvement is coming far too slowly. The proportion of girls in South Asian primary schools increased by only 2 per cent in the first half of the 1990’s. Even when girls are enrolled, they are less likely than boys to complete their schooling.
However, there is relatively little awareness of the complex reason that prevents millions of young girls worldwide from receiving education. It is more than poverty at household level, or even lack of provision, that prevents these girls from being educated. Attention to the ways in which gender and age come together to create disadvantage shows us that barriers to girls education are concerned with the role that young girls are expected to play at present, and in the future.

Within the house, young girls are expected to substitute for their mothers if the latter are unable to perform the household duties that go with being female. This happens either during the day, preventing girls from attending school, or after school hours, preventing them from undertaking private study or making them too exhausted to continue their double role. Feminist critiques of existing development models, which focus on integrating women into production, that only promote women’s production, without challenging the gender division of labour within the home: “if women are encouraged, or obliged by economic crisis, to spend over-increasing hours in production, someone has to be found to compensate for the loss of labour within the home. This has had a serious negative impact on girl children (Sen and Grown 1987, 43).

Currently, there is increasing pressure on children to labour outside the home, as well as inside – and this leads many children to be exploited (Chambers, preface to Johnson et al 1998). Parents need to boost family earnings, and employers know they can depress production costs by employing children and paying them lower wages.

In 1997, UNICEF estimated that there were at least 190 million child income-earners in the world (Johnson et al. 1998, 126). It is widely recognized that poverty means that many children need to work to survive, but coercive and exploitative forms of work—sex work, armed combat or manual labour which stunts children’s growth must be replaced by employment that is non-exploitative, combined with an opportunity for education and training. In the United Nations Convention on the Child 1989, widely ratified by countries across the world, children are declared to have “the right to childhood” – a specific period of the life course where learning, through schooling and play should be uppermost.
There has been much energy expended by Governments and NGO’s throughout the world on curtailing child labour, but it seems clear that for many children and families there is no alternative. Poverty indicators are worsening in many countries in South and North, and many families are coping with the impact of economic crisis on employment and income generation by sending young and middle aged adults to work from impoverished regions. In communities in Africa, Asia and Latin America, parents and bread winners may be absent for another reason: as a result of AIDS. In her article, Judith Appleton discusses coping strategies of households headed by children and grand parents in fishing communities in Tanzania. These children are replacing the productive capacity of their parents by becoming fishers and farmers themselves. The opportunity for education is light years away from these boys and girls.

2.10.2 Adolescent, Sexuality and abuse

The second group of barrier to girls’ education is related to the assumption that their only future role is wives and mothers. If there is a long distance to travel to school, if classes are mixed-sex, if teachers are male, if learning materials challenge gender norms all these things may expose girls to possible sexual activity, abuse and pregnancy. This will devalue them as future brides, and they may face a future of poverty and insecurity as a result. In contexts where employment opportunities are few, it is hard even for loving and responsible parents be able to make her own living through paid work at the end of her education.

In her article “providing sexual education to adolescents in rural Bangladesh” Sabina Fai Rashid of the major Bangladeshi NGO, BRAC, focuses on the Adolescent reproductive Health Education (ARHE) programme, which teaches reproductive health and gender awareness in BRAC’s own schools. These have been set up for adolescents who have not had the opportunity to attend school previously. BRAC seeks to reach girls and boys before they experiment sexually and place themselves at risk of pregnancy and sexually transmitted disease. The ARHE inculcates the idea that there is an alternative to early marriage and child bearing, for both girls and boys. It hopes to promote more equitable relations between the sexes, influencing families and communities.

Adolescent girls are widely stereotyped as potential sexual partners, pure and simple: their capacity to take on many different roles and tasks in society is ignored. As sexual partners, they may be acquired through fair means or foul. Culturally sanctioned forms of violence may be
used against them) including forced or early sexual slavery. In their article, “Girl-trafficking, HIV/AIDS and the position of women in Nepal” Pratima poudel and Jenny Carryer trace the origins of trafficking of girls in Nepal to a history of providing young girls to the monarch. They move on to present a critique of the current response of the Nepalese Government and development funding agencies to the shocking plight of trafficked Nepalese girls after appalling abuse in the brothels of India and other “receiving” countries, increasing numbers of young girls are being returned to Nepal to die of AIDS. Ostracised by their communities in poverty stricken rural areas, many continue selling sex as their sole means of livelihood.

2.10.3 Young women’s experience of employment

If young girls are married in adolescence, they become wives and mothers before they can experience independent adulthood. However, some do manage to break away from gender norms to take up income-generating activities or paid employment.

Rachel Slaters article “Using life histories to explore change: Women’s urban struggle in cape Town, South Africa” is based on research into the life stories of four South African women who migrated to cape town during different eras and with different kinds of family ties and obligations. Two of the women she talked to arrived at a young age and survived on their wits, seeking social and financial independence from their families in the city (Slater, this issue). Rachel Slater points out that young unmarried women with no children are able to adapt to changing economic and social circumstances much better than those who have responsibility for children. As a result, many employers are now recruiting young women to work in factories and offices, in contexts as different as the export industries of Mexico and the telephone call centres of Europe, while much attention has been given to exploitative wages and conditions that this type of employment may involve, in the eyes of the young women workers themselves many jobs are liberating. In her article “Transitions and boundaries: research into the impact of paid work on young women’s lives in Jordan” Mary Kawar of the International Labour Organization (ILO) turns the focus away from what young women can offer the world of work, to what the world of work can offer young women. She analyses the impact of paid work on young women in Amman, Jordan and argues that it can enable them to challenge gender relations (although in a limited way) within their families.
They are living proof that education and employment really can create a new “life-stage” for women.

2.10.4 Early marriage: adolescent girls asserting their rights

One topic in the adolescent reproductive health education (ARHE) curriculum is early marriage in Bangladesh, adolescent marriage is exceptionally common. Parents and in-laws are the main decision-makers regarding young girls’ entry into marriage and child bearing and whether they will complete school (Caldwell and Caldwell 1998, cited in Gage 1998). In Nilphamari district, most girls are married off at 11-13 or even younger. In one of the schools in this district, we found out that out of the 14 girls studying in the ARHE programme, six were already married with two expecting their first children. Despite wide-spread awareness of its detrimental effects on the health of girls and their babies, early marriage is still practiced. According to mothers, the main reason for early marriage was the fear that their daughters would be spoilt, or raped, fall pregnant, or elope with a boy. Parents worry that while their daughters are studying in school they may be more at risk of sexual activity as they have greater mobility and autonomy, and spend extended hours beyond the supervision of their families (Amin et al 998). Adolescent girls tend to have limited mobility, particularly in poorer families, to safeguard their “purity”. If the girl is known to have had pre-marital sex, the social status of the whole family is affected.

Many of the female adolescents who have participated in ARHE expressed reservations about early marriage. For example, during the research are Amin and other find a girl imploring her mother “see-they are BRAC people, and they say early marriage is bad”. Turning to the researchers, she said “Look-why dont you explain to my mother that early marriage is bad for me?”. Later when they were at her sister-in-law’s home, she said to them: “Tell her not to fix an early marriage for me. I should study more at school. Please don’t get me married now.”

The attitude of some parents may be changing as they realize the advantages of more schooling for their daughters, as well as the dangers or early pregnancies. Some of the mothers admitted that they waited little longer before marrying off their daughters but confided that they faced harassment and derogatory comments from some elders in the community.” Your girl has become big now, you should get her married----you are poor what will she do with all this education?”
2.10.5 Regional overview of progress toward EFA since Dakar: Latin America

Regional Education overview before Dakar

For the region of Latin America, the dawn of the new millennium signified continuing social and economic struggles but at the same time, a hope for a more democratic and equitable society. During the decades immediately before the World Declaration on Education for All (1990), most Latin America countries had suffered much from the worst human rights violation records during the civil wars and military dictatorships as well as from the economic stagnation in the 1970s and the “lost decade” of the 1980s. The mounting external debts and subsequent structural adjustment programmes imposed a “disproportionate impact on the countries’ educational expansion achieved in the 1960s and 1970s came to a halt.

The 1990s, however, was characterized by the renewed and significant efforts made by Latin American countries to modernize and improve their education systems through major education reforms. While the education policies before and during the 1980s focused on the expansion of primary or basic education access, attention shifted to the quality of education, linked with development and international competition, and to the equity of education, by ensuring equal opportunities for quality education, hence, giving more educational opportunities to the most vulnerable groups (UNESCO – OREALC, 2001, PP 88-89). Even though the countries linked the education reforms with different policy agendas, such as modernizing the state and the economy (Chile and Costa Rica), putting an end to violent political conflicts (El Salvador and Nicaragua) and improving fiscal redistribution policies (Argentina and Peru), the central theme of these reforms was the reconceptualisation of the role of the Central State in governing, financing, administering and improving education. Aiming at improving the quality, efficiency and equity of education, the education reform policies during the 1990’s introduced structural changes in the management of education systems (decentralization, privatization and school autonomy), curricular reforms and development of learning achievement assessment systems, professional enhancement of teachers. The strikingly similar strategies adopted by the countries for these education reforms on the one hand, the consensus on the regional education agenda adopted at the summit of the Americas (Miami 1994 and Santiago 1998) and the PROMEDLAC IV, V and VI meetings of education ministers (Quito 1991, Santiago 1993 and Kingston 1995, respectively). On the other hand, they also reflected the recommendations made by international agencies, such as the World Bank, ECLAC (United Nations Economic Commission for Latin
America and the Caribbean, CEPAL in Spanish) and UNESCO, as well as the World declaration on education for All, which emphasized the equity and quality of education for social and economic transformation and development.

**2.10.6 Social context of the Region at the time of Dakar**

According to ECLAC data (CEPAL, 2004a, p.7), although the percentage of the population living below poverty line decreased between the times of jomtien (1990) and Dakar (2000) from 48.3% to 42.6% in Latin America, its magnitude in fact increased from 200 million to 207 million due to population growth. Even more worrisome is that both the poverty rate and the population living below poverty line have increased since 2000 as a result of low economic growth, although the increase may have been halted in 2004.

In addition, there is a particular phenomenon in Latin America that the relative economic growth during the 1990’s did not generate the expected employment in the formal sector and the unemployment rate is high for women (1.4 times as high as that for men), young people (twice as high as the total economically active population) and people from the lower and middle income strata (the unemployment rate for the 20% poorest urban population is 6 times as high as that for the 20% richest).

With respect to the distribution of income, Latin America continues to be the World’s most unequal region. ECLAC argues that given the extremely high level of income concentration in the region, its improvement is not only an ethical imperative, but would also directly contribute to economic growth and poverty reduction (CEPAL, 2004a, pp. 11-12). This socio-economic structure has resulted in increased social fragmentation, violence and conflicts and discontent among the less-privileged, which without doubt affect schools and other educational settings (UNESCO-OREALC, 2003, pp.10-11).

Inspite of this distressing social panorama, many Latin America countries witnessed profound changes in the political culture of consensus - building and democratization during the 1990s, mainly thanks the peace agreements and the reinstallation of democratic governments. This political and social environment has also fostered democratic decision-making and social participation in education, both at education system and school levels. Therefore, the new emphasis on social participation and equity in education, as expressed in the education reform
policies of the 90s, coincided with the education for All commitment and marked a great opportunity for Latin America at the time of Dakar.

2.10.7 Countries’ Commitments to EFA

As mentioned, Latin American countries before the World declaration on education for All (Jomtien 1990) focused their education efforts on expanding basic (or primary) education coverage. Particularly after the Jomtien declaration, however, they began to extend compulsory schooling, which currently lasts between 6 and 12 years. In fact, most Latin American countries today use the term “basic education,” instead of “primary education,” to refer to the first level of education considered minimum schooling, consisting of 8 or 9 grades.

As primary and lower secondary education coverage expands, the countries are beginning to pay more attention to extending compulsory schooling to other age groups, namely pre-school and secondary educations. While the legalization on compulsory schooling itself does not guarantee learners’ attendance at school or effective learning, this general trend reflects the EFA declaration which stresses the universal right to satisfy “basic learning needs”. As a result, during the education reforms of the 1990s, many Latin American countries included as part of compulsory "General Basic Education” one or more years of early childhood education and lower secondary education. Among those countries whose legislative modifications could be verified in official documents, seven made the change to extend compulsory schooling during the 1990s.

More recent, post-Dakar legislative changes include the constitutional reform approved in Chile in which compulsory schooling was extended from 8 to 12 years to include upper-secondary school education (May 2003) and Mexico's constitutional modification (November 2002) that established compulsory pre-school education for children between three and five years old, to be implemented progressively by the school year 2007-2008.

More over, recent research findings have also stimulated countries' preoccupation beyond primary schooling. For example, the ECLAC study indicates that a person requires a minimum of secondary completion and 12 years of schooling in order to improve the probability of earning sufficient income to live above the poverty line (CEPAL 1997). The recent research in neuroscience and cognitive psychology, on the other hand, demonstrate the irrefutable benefits of positive stimuli in early childhood for children's physical, psychosocial and cognitive
development as well as their future academic and professional performance. It can also be said that given the current high primary repetition and dropout rates as well as the severe employment prospective, the region is now forced to pay closer attention to early childhood and secondary education.

In terms of countries' post-Dakar political commitment to education for All, they continue to prioritise quality, equity and efficiency of education, addressed in their national education reform policies. In other words, the education reform policies in the 1990s' which have much in common with EFA commitments continue to be in place in the region to date. Another priority often mentioned in education policy discourse, is to foster social participation in education, whose necessity has become evident as the decentralization of education management and school autonomy have been prompted. However although civil society has a long history and accumulated experience of promoting educational and social issues, the regions political history and social participation are characterized by high polarisation and crisis of governability (UNESCO-OREALC (2004a). The education reforms themselves of the 1990s have also met strong criticisms from teachers and their unions, partially due to their insufficient participation in defining the reforms. It was this context in which the Dakar Frame for action was adopted, recommending explicitly that countries develop national EFA plans with “the agreement and participation of civil society in the formulation, implementation, and monitoring of strategies for educational development”.

The regional EFA monitoring report 2003, published by UNESCO-OREALC (2004a) examines the experiences of national EFA plan development among the Latin American countries and evaluates the degree to which the national governments fulfilled their commitment to develop and strengthen national action plans “through a more transparent and democratic process.”

From another perspective, Latin American countries' enhanced commitment to education is demonstrated by their increased public investment in education, expressed as a percentage of GNP at the time of Jomtien (1990) before Dakar (c.1998) and after Dakar (c. 2002). The regional average increased substantially from 2.9% in 1990 to 4.1% in 1998, and then slightly to 4.2% in 2002. Despite the general upward trend of public expenditure in education, the notable down fall in Ecuador in the post Dakar period probably reflects the economic and financial crisis in 1999/2000, when the country decided to dolarise the economy to prevent hyperinflation.
If equity-driven strategies that target the disadvantaged are essential in improving educational equity in the region, improved teaching is indispensable in making large improvements in average student performance when the structural reforms of the education system have not brought expected results in terms of raising students’ learning achievement, public education policies have fixed their attention on teaching performance. Teacher issues, however, have been the most challenging and contentious in the education policy sphere, as they are politically and ideologically charged, their financial implications are huge; and the technical definition has been largely weak. Moreover, teachers and their unions are generally critical of the education reforms introduced, as they feel, on the one hand, that the definition of the reform policies has not taken enough account of their opinions, and on the other that the reforms have been increased their work demands without improving sufficiently their salaries and working conditions. As a result, during the 1990s and to date, almost all countries have experienced frequent and sometimes radical forms of teachers disputes, which have often caused many school days lost for students.

In this overview, the recurring theme is equity of education not only in its access but also in its quality. There is no doubt that Latin American countries have made substantial efforts and investment, and they have achieved significant progress since the time of Jomtien and after Dakar. However, even five years after Dakar, educational equity has not improved sufficiently and schools tend to remain selective and or inequitable. For this reason, countries must take distributive measures for equitable human and social development, by giving resources - including improved learning opportunities to the disadvantaged groups of the population. In order to increase the amount of educational opportunities for these groups, countries need to promote equity driven policies and programmes, aiming at increasing their access to and completion of at least primary and secondary education. This might include such redistributive policies as providing scholarships or vouchers to students from low-income families or charging user fees to those who can afford them and then using those resources to finance educational expansion for those least able to afford them.

Furthermore, in order to break the inter-generational cycle of poverty, in addition to the amount of educational opportunities, the quality of teaching of these disadvantaged groups receive must be substantially improved. They need more and better and not less or worse as they have now-education, so that they can increase the probability of improving their socio economic status and
fostering their personal development through education. For learners from disadvantaged situations, the impact of (even small increments in) good learning experiences at school in much larger than for those from families with a higher socio-cultural and socio-economic background. Such pro-equity measures are much more cost-effective if not only ethical since raising learning outcomes of already high-performing students or the average outcomes of the population is much more difficult and costly.

Therefore, as suggested by Carnoy (pp. 49 and 53), countries should, in addition to general teacher training policies, pursue a strategy to place better teachers in the schools attended by disadvantaged groups, inorder to ensure, at least the equity of quality.

2.10.8 Communication and Information Technology in Literacy and Rural Development

With the advent of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), the world has changed into a "Global village". This technology has also brought about inevitable changes in the field of education. Information Communication Technology involves essentially the storage and communication of information. The greatest potentiality of ICT, thus, is its ability to serve as a tool to circulate information and to induce a quantitative change in the life of a man. In education, information technology (ITC) is significant due to its enormous potential in reducing the percentage of illiteracy, according educational opportunities to the people living in otherwise inaccessible areas, updating existing knowledge and finally enriching knowledgeable minds.

Communication technologies of the recent past include satellite based TV, broad casting long distance telephone, Video cassette recorders and computer based interactive technologies such a electronic mail systems, computer bulletin boards, tele text and video text. These new interactive technologies have both interpersonal and mass communication characteristics.

Interpersonal communication is a face-to-face exchange between two or more individuals. The message flows in this form of communication from one to a few individuals and is relatively high in socio-economic context, and the feedback is immediate and plentiful. Mass media communication includes all those means of transmitting messages such as television, radio and newspapers, which enables a source of one or a few individuals to reach a larger audience. In this form, the feedback is limited and delayed and the messages are relatively low in socio-emotional context.
There are some developmental projects started by the government of Sierra Leone to promote education through information and communication technology. The growth of television in Sierra Leone is an indicator of the government's plan to use the medium for mass education and development. Television carries development messages to villages and interfaces with local development agencies to mobilize people's participation at micro-level. This medium can effectively diffuse the information faster than other channels of communication and hence can be utilized in accelerating development processes.

Video cassette recorders can play a crucial role in education and development of the rural poor. As television sets diffuse information in villages, VCRs/CD players can be utilized to convey education and development oriented messages in agriculture, health, family planning and in literacy campaigns. Similarly, cable networks can also be utilized at the local level for use by the organized at the local level for use by the organized local development workers.

Apart from these, telecommunication and computers also play a vital role in these activities. Information dissipates faster through telecommunication channels and bridges vast distances in a large nation such as Nigeria. Computers provide a means of processing information fast and efficiently.

The computer coupled with other technologies like telecommunication, internet, e-mail etc, creates a virtual classroom for education and development campaigns. The transistor radio and cable network has diffuse more widely in Sierra Leone village than the above gadgets. It possesses the potential to offer programmes to villages, which they can understand easily.

While considering communication systems, one has to remember that we are not dealing with a homogeneous single individual but with the people of diverse languages, cultures and social structures. This fact should be noted before introducing any new communication technology. In Sierra Leone, oral communication or mouth-to-mouth information is an important means of spreading the message. Folk media are very effective in communication particularly dealing with rural masses. While introducing electronic media, the government has to make the policy to synthesize modern technology with folk media without in any way affecting the styles and formats of traditional communication system. The traditional media operate in a feeble form,
mainly in the rural areas.

Before introducing modern communication technology in rural development or formal education or literacy campaigns for the rural areas, programmes should keep in view the socio-economic background, attitudes and knowledge of the rural masses and the planners/officials who are implementing the communication technology.

2.10.9 Characteristics and attitude of the rural masses
- The people from rural areas feel that they are powerless.
- The majority are ignorant on legal and welfare measures provided by the government.
- The rural poor do not have a forum to assist them in security redress of their grievances.
- About 60 percent are illiterates and 63 percent are living below the poverty line.
- Except for a few small and marginal farmers, the village people comprise child labour, agricultural labourer and people with traditional occupations.
- Many rural people have developed a kind of fatalistic attitude. This is because of their series of failures, despite their efforts to better living.
- There are frequently seasonal migration to earn a living.

2.10.10 General tendency of bureaucrats
- The bureaucracy will act as a group and is more conscious of its position and status rather than its duties and functions.
- In many cases, the district administration is four beyond the approach and comprehension of a common man.
- The bureaucratic personality differs in psychological and social make-up from that of the rural person.
- The officials irrespective of their position within the hierarchy act as representatives of the power and prestige of the entire administration structure.
- The education and culture of the officials keep the village folk away from the administrators.
2.10.10.1 Information and communication technology in formal education

The task force of information technology has identified two important mission areas as essential for special action. The first item relates to the intellectual power to develop higher levels of software. Higher level of software provides a challenge to our intellectual capabilities and at the same time, it generates national wealth. If the necessary conditions are provided, this single area can transform our IT, electronics and manufacturing sector into a major economic entity.

Another item relates to actions for the spread of IT applications country wide for purposes ranging from boosting business to imparting knowledge about fundamental rights and responsibilities, imparting skills, providing preventive health care information and for several such items pertaining to acquiring a better standard of living. It forms a very useful tool transmission of education to even the remote parts of the country for eliminating illiteracy. The country’s system of education and skill-generation can be transformed in a decade by deploying IT technologies creatively and purposefully.

The effectiveness of educational radio, educational televisions and educational computers has already been established beyond any doubt. The computer coupled with communication technologies like telecommunication, Internet, email etc., is an educative tool which would:

- Provide individualized instruction with an opportunity for developing basic skills.
- Encourage individual group problem solving by providing peer expertise.
- Provide online academic counseling through lecturers, discussions etc.
- Evaluate and monitor learning progress both internal and external.
- Facilitate interaction with experts and follow students around the world through email or internet chatting.
- Round the clock accessibility to learning material of online or offline teaching through CDs.
- Freedom to learn according to one’s own pace, interest and convenience without any fear and accountability.

Also:

- Web based instruction is coming up very fast and there is a need to integrate this media, adequately in education which has inherent advantages.
- Not withstanding such advantages, it is like asking for the moon to provide this modern information and communication technology for the development and education of the
rural poor. At village education level, IT is significant due to its enormous potential for reducing the percentage of illiteracy, providing educational opportunities to people living in otherwise in accessible areas and imparting skills for acquiring better standard of living. To provide such a facility, it is essential to devise a management plan and sustainability plan that will ensure the successful use of ICT in education at the grass root level.

2.10.10.2 Communication methods utilized in non formal education

Though the government of Sierra Leone introduced an alternative system of education for illiterates, the media were not utilized in social education. Further, the role of information and communication was limited to Farmers Functional Literacy Programme (FFLP) and National Adult Education Programme (NAEP) in literacy. The importance was given to ICT only after the existence of the national literacy mission

Farmers functional literacy programme:
This programme aimed to import literacy and functional skills to farmers and agriculture labour. This was initiated during 1989 jointly by the ministries of agriculture and information and broadcasting. Every day half-an-hour radio converge was given to the latest techniques and farming methods in agriculture. The learners were exposed to the radio coverage in class hours. But in many cases the timings were not convenient to the labourers and agriculturists.

National Adult Education Programme:
The NAEP launched in 1989 aimed at upgrading the functional skills and creating social awareness among the illiterate masses. The government sought the support of he massmedia, especially the Sierra Leone broad casting service (SLBS), and the print media. However, as many participants were daily wage earners, the broad casting time was not suitable for them. The approach was not three pronged:

i. Total literacy campaign Post literacy programmes
ii. Continuing education programmes
iii. High priority was given to environment building to sustain the literacy campaign.

Total literacy campaigns:
The following communication methods as environment building were adopted in mass
campaigns to build awareness among the masses regarding education.

In the initial stage, door-to-door surveys were conducted to identify the illiterates and explain about the value of education. In the second phase, the following communication methods were adopted:

1. Wall-writings
2. Cub-star vans
3. District conventions involving teachers and people’s representatives
4. Pamphlets to appeal to the public
5. Cinema slides
6. Audio cassettes
7. Publicity through cultural groups, performing local arts and puppet shows
8. In the later stage discussion groups about human issues.

2.10.10.3 The drawbacks observed in this system:
- There is no chance for practicing writing skills. Traditional methods have to be followed for developing writing skills among the learners.
- There is little scope for the instructor to pay individual attention.
- If a learner is absent for one or two days, he feels newness.
- This method provides only group benefit and in reading skills only.
- In adult education, the process of teaching through computer is a welcome sign. But keeping in mind the circumstances prevailing at present in rural society, it should be introduced as supplementary to traditional methods.

I wish to end by calling to mind the saying of Mahatma Gandhi that:
“If I learn carpentry from an illiterate carpenter only I know, how to do the work, but if I learn form a literate carpenter, my thoughts will be stimulated”.

This means literacy is a better communication agent. Before introducing information communication technology in rural development and mass campaign programmes, people should be made aware and educated.

It is suggested that the technology used in rural areas, particularly in formed and non-formal educational programmes, be linked with traditional methods, which are already known by the local masses.
2.10.10.4 Women and Power in the Workplace

Hilary M. Lips maintains that women’s personal features and circumstances have been overplayed in explaining the continuation of male dominance in the workplace. The reality is that men use a variety of techniques, including considerable mythology about male and female psychology, to maintain their relative position.

During most of our recent history, the major thrust of women’s struggle for power has been towards increased access to the major institutions in society. The struggle simply not to be excluded – from voting rights, jobs, organizations, full legal status as persons – has taken up much of women’s collective energy for decades.

A strong emphasis in the struggle has been on access to and equality in the world paid employment, for women have intuited rightly that the income, status, knowledge and crucial resources on which power, both individual and collective, can be based.

Power, it should be noted at the outset, is the capacity to have an impact on one’s environment, to be able to make a difference through one’s actions. It is the opposite of helplessness. There is no use in debating whether or not women should really want power, or whether it is appropriately feminist to strive for power. Such debates are based on a long outdated narrow notion of power as a static quality possessed only by tyrants. In talking about women increasing their power, I am referring to an increase in effectiveness of influence, in strength.

More power for women means two things: increasing women’s access to resources and to the positions from which these resources are controlled; and increasing women impact on the formation of policy about how our institutions function. Because women have a long history of exclusion, the initial focus in the struggle to increase women’s power has been to gain access for women to a variety of institutions.

The universities are a good case in point. For years, women were excluded from higher education on the grounds that they were unsuited for it and might even be damaged by it. Some “experts” even went so far as to argue that too much use of a women’s brain would damage her reproductive organs and thus endanger her vital childbearing (shields, 1975).

Universities in many countries accept female student as a matter of course now. However, arguments about damaging the reproductive system are still being used in some quarters to exclude women from various arenas of professional and amateur sports.

The sense of power that comes with women’s perception of an increased range of career choices may be short-lived. Statistics on women’s employment indicate that they may often get in the indoor, but no further.

Female in almost every professional field, for example, are under employed and underpaid relative to their male counterparts (Abella, 1984) and women in trade occupations still have a great deal of difficulty finding employment (Braid, 1982). Moreover, the research bleakly suggests that, as women grow more number in a particular profession or occupation, its status declines (Touhey, 1974).

Thus, although women’s problems with access to the workplace are far from over, these is an increasing recognition that simply being allowed in – to a profession, a business organization, a trade union – is only half the battle.
How can women avoid being marginal members of the work place community - tokens whose presence supposedly illustrates that “women can make it” but who are not at the centre of decision making and who are powerless to rise to the top of, or change the shape of, the institutions in which they work?

Much advice has been aimed at women in an effort to answer this question. Most of it boils down to a prescription that women carefully observe and follow the models provided by successful men. Successful business women profiled in the media are (like their male counterparts) often heard to comment that, in their service of success, they have given up their social life, hobbies and recreation, and find it difficult to make time for family and friendship.

Such an ideal, based on the model of a small number of high achieving, powerful, visible men in high-status jobs, creates discomfort among many women. For some, the discomfort may stem from a fear of being labeled tough, competitive or ambitious - qualities that are in congruent with our cultures definition of femininity. For others, the idea of subordinating all other priorities to one's paid work seems unrealistic and unpleasant.

The male model, presented in such glowing terms, is largely a myth. It is an ideal that is used women should fall in line behind them. While popular writers are exhorting women to map out career strategy years in advance the way men supposedly do, research suggests that, despite the ideal, most men hold the majority of powerful business and professional position, it is assumed that there must be something right leads them into powerful positions - and if could make it to “the top” in large numbers.

Psychologists have been finding for years that people in general like to believe the world is a reasonably fair and just place, that there is an order to things, and people basically get what they deserve (e.g., Lerner, 1974).

As women gain more access to the resources on which power is based, they will find it easier to change the powerless image of femininity. And, concurrently, as the powerless image fades, women will find it easier to be recognized as strong, as competent, as experts.

Thus, in a reversal of a “vicious circle,” the two processes will feed into each other, ultimately making it easier for women to use such resources - as expertise, information, and legitimacy. These resources became springboards for acquiring access to other resources - tangible ones such money and control over decision always played crucial economic making- and for opening the doors of these resources to other women.

Women have always played crucial economic roles both inside and outside the family. The work that women do in the home is absolutely essential to economic life. Because it is unpaid, however, it is invisible and difficult to measure. Women have also been working outside the home for centuries. Female slaves worked the fields, and young female factory workers were the first to employees of the American textile industry. Until the middle of the twentieth century, most white women left their jobs when they married, but African-American women continued to work outside the home while caring for home and children. In the past several decades, women of all racial and ethnic groups have entered the workforce in increasing numbers. In 1989, women constituted 45% of the total work force. Nevertheless, the belief that women’s primary role is in the home continues to shape our workplaces experience.
Restricting opportunities, creating wage inequities and preserving women’s responsibility for child care and house work even while we hold full-time jobs. Although sex discrimination is now against the law, women continue to earn only 65% of what men earn and to encounter sexual harassment. Sexual double standards, and what has been described as the glass ceiling, an invisible barrier of discrimination that has prevented women from advancing beyond a certain level.

Women’s responsibilities for child care remain one of the biggest obstacles to economic equality for women. The United States lags behind other countries in providing child-care facilities, parental leave, and other features that make the workplace compatible with parenting. Without a fundamental restructuring of the workplace to accommodate worker with family responsibilities—both male and female—women will continue to be in a disadvantage care and low pay of most women’s jobs, many single women with children are dependent on welfare and condemned to poverty.

The position of women in the work force is thus inextricably connected with the position of women in the family. As Hisaye Yamamaoto Vividly demonstrates, the division of power and resources in the patriarchal family has often subordinated the need of married women to those of their spouses the sentimental rhetoric that often surrounds the family not only obscures unequal power relations but also conveys the impression that only the patriarchal family is legitimate. Infact, the family, a group of people who are committed to each other and share resources, can take a variety of forms. The African-American Family, often sustained by mothers, aunts, and grandmothers, has proven remarkably durable in the face of almost insurmountable odds.

One of the consequences of women’s subordinate status in the workplace and family is male domination of the health care system. While women are the majority of health care consumers and to do a great deal of the direct service work, most doctors, researchers, and managers of clinics and hospitals are men.

As a result, women health needs have not been adequately addressed. One particularly grievous example of this failure has been the slowness of the medical community to acknowledge the experience of women with AIDS. The women’s health movement has been a vital part of the rebirth of feminism. Through such books as “The new Our Bodies, Ourselves (Simon & Schuster, 1992), organization like the National Black women’s health project, and self help groups, women have reclaimed their bodies, challenged the priorities of the medical establishment and made their experiences and needs visible.

All each other. Women experience in one reinforces their position in another, indicating that change in the position of women in society need take place on many fronts. This shows that within our social institutions, gender, class and race work together to change female experience. While our culture teaches us to believe that hard work and talent will be rewarded, institutions place white men disadvantageous social positions.

Understanding these institutional barriers enables us to see that all people do not have equal opportunity in our society, and that to create it, we must make fundamental change in our social institutions.

Unless we recognize the values enshrined in the human right charter, it is impossible to move towards a more equitable society.
Finally, researchers testify to the durability of patriarchy; while women have made significant advance in the past 30 years, sexism is proving to be a stubborn adversary. As women occupy new territory in our society, new problems e merge or come into view. We are just beginning to understand, for example, the extent to which sexual harassment occupations. When barriers to women equality forms, requiring us to develop new strategies.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the descriptive aspect of the various steps that were adopted in the conduct of this study. It was classified into several subdivisions.

Section one gives an exhaustive account about the study area, while section two advances the rationale behind the selection of the study area.

The third, fourth and fifth subdivisions provide clues about research design, sources of data and study population. The sample size and sampling frame, sampling procedures, research instrument, methods for collecting data and data analysis are forwarded in the sixth, seventh, eighth, ninth and tenth subsections of this chapter.

3.1 Study Area

This aspect of the research introduces Sierra Leone and the study spots where data were collected and subsequently analyzed (figure 1).

The investigations were conducted in Sierra Leone which lies in West Africa. The country lies between latitude 7° north and longitude 15° west. Sierra Leone shares a six hundred and fifty kilometer (650km) boarderline with the republic of Guinea, whereas to the South east, it is shares boarder with West Africa’s oldest republic, of Liberia. Sierra Leone is bounded by the vast Atlantic Ocean in the West and South West.

The Atlantic Ocean provides the largest trade route between West Africa with the rest of the world. (Figure 1).

There are twelve districts in Sierra Leone, and these districts are subdivided into three provinces, the North, the South and the Eastern provinces, and the western area which is the city location. Pujehun is a district of this nation which is predominantly the mendes.

There are Christian and Islamic religious practices alongside traditional norms and beliefs in law, God Almighty, ancestors, communal relationship, sacrifices, libations, witch craft, secret societies, birth ceremonies, marriage and veneration of spirits beings.
The latest national census in 2004 revealed that Sierra Leone could now boast of about five million (5 million) people (statistics Sierra Leone 2004). The total land area of the country is about 28,000 square kilometers.

Throughout the 1990’s Sierra Leone was plagued by a rebel war which was referred to by the international community as diamond war. All diamonds thus mined and traded in were called blood diamonds because they were used to fuel war. During this period the country’s volume of foreign trade collapsed considerably and as of now Sierra Leone is largely donor driven.

Geographically speaking, Sierra Leone is generally low lying country below 300 meters, rising from the mangrove swamps which lie parallel to the Atlantic coast.

Two distinct seasons exist, the dry and the wet seasons, each of which lasts for at about six months.

However, a major climatic drawback occurred during the wet season of 2006.

For the first in forty years, drinking water supply stopped Freetown went for days without safe drinking water. This phenomenon implies that major climate changes could be envisaged.

This scenario might have been precipitated by the massive deforestation of the hills around Freetown for construction purposes.

During the decade of political and economic interregnum, government as well as primate institutions were routinely damaged by the Revolutionary United Front (RUF) forces.

In May 1997, the first democratically elected government since 1999 was dethroned by the combined forces of the Army and Revolutionary United Front forces. In a desperate expression of their gross dissatisfaction for the junta, the people of Sierra Leone refused to work, while teachers and students boycotted schools all over the country.

The West African peace keeping forces (ECOMOG) intervened and in less than nine months the junta was removed by ECOMOG.

In the minds of most Sierra Leoneans, the national dream of attaining food self sufficiency by the end of 2007 was never realized despite the farewell speech of the out going president Alhaji Dr. Ahmed Tejan Kabbah that the Country has already achieved its agricultural goals.
3.2 Study Area Selection

The principal reason behind the selection of the study area may be highlighted as follows:

- To draw socio-cultural distinction in adaptability focus the research area interims of is activity in traditional educational of the girl child noting the impact of formal education.
- The area constitutes different tribes and religions.
- During the decade civil war, a reasonable amount of institutional structures were systematically looted or damaged, thereby rendered learning and training of the girl child difficult. Formal education facilities deteriorated. Similarly, the conscription of school going girls into revolutionary united front (R.U.F.) forces hindered the girl child from attaining primary as well as secondary education.
- The availability colleague teachers who would efficiently effect the questionnaire warranted the choice of the study area.
- Nonetheless, adequate caution was exercised to ensure that the researcher’s familiarity with the area and the respondents did not negate the results of the survey: Electronic media were used during the questionnairing exercises.

3.3 Research Design

This investigation sought to ascertain the effect of formal education on the traditional education of the girl child in Pujehun district of Sierra Leone. It therefore adopted a descriptive and analytical research method.

3.4 Data Sources

The collected data analyzed, emanated from two principal sources

(a) Primary source

(b) Secondary Source

Nonetheless, for the general conduct of this study, the researcher relied heavily on field data. The main sources of these were as follows:
• Interviews with the girl child

• Interviews with the parents and guardians of the girl child in Pujehun district

• Interviews with the traditional institutional heads

• Interviews with formal institutional heads such as civil society leaders

• Interviews with formal educational authorities—Teachers, head teachers, principals.

These interviews constitute the primary sources while the understated aspects formed part of the secondary sources

• Njala University library

• Ministry of Education Youth and Sports

• Statistics Sierra Leone

• UNDP library

• FAO library

• FAWE library, and Internet

3.5 Study Population

According to 2004 census carried out by statistics Sierra Leone, the Pujehun district has fifty thousand people. Out of this total population, the sample population comprising about ten percent was drawn from a new listing of households which were carefully selected.

3.6 Sample size and sampling frame

The disintegration of the sample size and sampling frame were as follows. Out of a total of three hundred and twenty questionnaires that were administered, three hundred questionnaires were filled and returned. Twenty questionnaires were unrecovered, thus leaving a respondent population of three hundred (300), i.e. 150 male respondents and 150 female respondents. This
represents about 95% respondents turn out. The Pujehun district was stratified into ten (10) chiefdoms.

Table 1. Showing % distribution of chiefdoms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Chiefdom</th>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Sowa</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Malen</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Pejeh</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Kpanga Kabonde</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Barri</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Kpanga Krim</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Soro Gbema</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Gallings Perri</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Makpeli</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 kpaka</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.7 Sampling Procedure

Two sampling procedures were adopted for the study.

(a) The probability sampling method

(b) The stratified sampling method

The probability (random) sampling method was in the survey to ensure that adequate room was created for all respondents to be exposed to even chances of being selected for a sample. This was achieved by constructing an adequate sample frame and by so doing bias was excluded. Numbers were assigned to each population of the sampling unit in the sampling frame and random numbers were then utilized to effect the selection.
Similarly, stratified sampling method was applied so as to guarantee that reasonable degrees of representation of all groups/classes were involved in the questionnaire exercises. The population elements (factors) were demarcated into non-overlapping graphs which are called strata (layers) then a single probability sample was selected from within each stratum.

3.8 Data Collection Procedure

Prior to data collecting exercises, the researcher ensured two intimation visits so as to familiarize the would be respondents with the research goals, and to crave their indulgence and cooperation in the field work.

The questionnaires were administered in May, 2008 across the study communities. The measures stated below were effected in order to ensure that the pertinent questions were asked and thus research findings were up graded.

1. Three hour training was carried out for three consecutive days with final year college students who provided helping hands in the execution of the field work.

2. A pretesting of the questionnaire and its modification were conducted to ascertain that only relevant questions were asked.

3. After data entry, a final compute edit was carried out so as to weed out any inconsistencies by referencing the original questionnaires

In order to build more confidence in the respondents, no electronic media was used in the course of interviews.

Religious and ethnic factors were deliberately excluded so that these factors would not produce any sentiment that would interfere with the true conduct of the research so distortions in responses were avoided.

Questionnaires were answered on the spot hence it could be accepted that the research was reliably conducted. Within the period of 90 days the entire exercise was completed.

In most instances, primary data were used, where as for the relevant literature review, secondary data were adopted.
3. 9 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Prior to data analysis all questionnaires were exhaustively field edited thereby providing opportunity for interviewers to carefully rectify mistakes that could otherwise be committed in the responses.

At the end of the data collection, underwent three states of processing. These are:-

(a) Data coding and summary

(b) Statistical presentation and

(c) Data interpretation

3.10 Data coding and summary

The entire data collected were coded and subsequently summarized, using tables and rows and columns. These data were then tallied and further summarized thereby creating a suitable stage for its statistical presentation.

3.11 Statistical Presentation

For statistical purposes, the researcher adopted simple statistical tools such as frequency counts and its proportionality for each equivalent factor. This method was employed in order to ensure the use of standardized analysis. Initially data were tabulated and secondly converted into percentages which emerged from the frequencies. They were finally made ready for discussion.

3.12 Data Interpretation

Following the statistical merging and presentation of the data, it was then interpreted. References were made to the most striking, the least striking and to the middle level of the occurrences. The factors referred to were the objectives that were investigated.

In the course of the investigation, the researcher discussed and defended the choice of each factor that was found out.
4.1 Preview

This study survey was conducted to find out the level of empowerment among the men and women in the 10 selected chiefdoms in the Pujehun District of Southern Province in Sierra Leone.

The objectives of the survey were to assess how the bio-data of the respondents affect their level of empowerment, personal characteristic of respondents, observe the level of empowerment attained by both men and women in education, identify the skills that they had developed to be able to carry out their economic activities, determine the level of their participation in decision making in the home, and measure the extent to which the men and women took part in decision making in their communities, identify the contextual barriers to enrolment in formal education, investigate the factors that were responsible for the respondents dropped out of school, education status of parents of sampled respondents and to assess the economic activities of parents of respondents, Sierra Leone: Rural – Urban Gaps, Sierra Leone Gender Empowerment Measure.

This survey was conducted among a total of 300 respondents from 10 areas of the study. Fifteen (15) women and fifteen (15) men were selected from each of the 10 study areas in the Pujehun District, making a total of 300 respondents i.e., 150 males and 150 females.

A survey instrument of nine sections with different items was used to elicit information from respondents already mentioned above.

Table 1. **PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-60</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>85.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60+</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>300</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 shows the characteristic of respondents. It is subdivided into 4 sections.

(a). The age bracket of respondents.
(b) Level of education of respondents.
(c) Occupation of respondents
(d) Marital status of respondents.

(a). **Age Bracket of respondents.**

The majority of the subject 85% fell within the active years of 21-60. They were in their independent adulthood stage of development and for that matter formed the labour force of the community. Closely following this majority group are those who are above 60 years 8.3% and the least group 0-20 years forming 6.7%.

(b) **Level of education of respondents**
Generally the respondents had a low level of education with 69.2% of the women being illiterate, and having 22.5% having schooling up to the basic level (Primary, Junior Secondary Schools). While 40% of the men being literate, with 23.9% were illiterate.

(c) Occupation of respondents

Farming/agriculture is the primary source of income for the sampled respondents. About 68.9% of the men rely on agriculture for their sustenance and their dependants; while 50% of the women do the same. Closely following agriculture is petty trading. 31.1% of the men engaged in petty trading, while 50% of the women engaged in petty trading as their non-farming income generating activities. Farming and trading emerged as the major occupations in the areas of study.

The most encouraging aspect of the women’ state of occupation was that the issue of unemployment was not prevalent among the women. Almost all the women reported being engaged in some form of income generating activity be it back yard gardening or petty trading.

(d) Marital Status of Respondents

The tradition of the study areas hold marriage in high esteem. No matter the age, if you reach the age of maturity and fail to marry, you would be regarded as unserious and irresponsible and no assignment of responsibility would be given to you in the community.

The result revealed that as many as 77% of both men and women were married, only 23% were single. Of the 23% who were unmarried, a reasonable number of them disclosed during personal interview that the rebels killed their spouses during 11 years rebel war in Sierra Leone.

4.2 Education empowerment

Table 2. Showing Educational Empowerment of Respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education empowerment of Respondents</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of Male</td>
<td>% of Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No formal education</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>18.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary Education</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>23.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>36.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult Functional Literacy</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180*</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 above shows that the women had low level of formal education than the men. About 40% of the women had no formal education, 17.5% were schooled up to basic level and 19.7% had attended training college. About 59% of the men were literates, 21.69% attended adult Education classes and functional literacy classes to upgrade their knowledge in their different occupation, such as tailoring, carpentry, toilet digging, blacksmithing etc.

Meanwhile, the desire of 97% of the women to participate in training programmes to upgrade themselves and their careers implied that the women were more determined to enhance themselves than the men. At the same time as 80% reported being keen on promoting female education.

4.3 Economic Empowerment
Table 3 showing Economic empowerment of sampled respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic Empowerment of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Respondents engaged in income generating activities</td>
<td>94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Independent to manage own income generating activities</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Independent to access/use own money</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Access to land for farming/mining</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Access to land for Agriculture</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Depend on husband</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Willing to partake in further training to upgrade oneself.</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Independent to cultivate for commercial purpose.</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Capable to control/manage own income.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results revealed that almost 94% of the women engaged in income-generating activities, 86% reported being able to manage their own income generating activities, 70% were allowed by
husbands to decide on how to use their own money. 40% of the women had access to land for agricultural purposes, while as 60% of them had access to land for farming and mining purposes. 83% of the women were allowed by their husbands to cultivate for commercial purposes. 63% were capable of controlling or managing their own income. 99% of the women were strongly determine to partake in any training programme to upgrade themselves and improve upon their career. Based on these results, it could be emphasized that the women had a high level of economic independence.

It was further revealed that 64% of the women depended on their husbands because they did not have a regular source of income. This implies that the women need to be strengthened or assisted in order to reduce their level of dependence and rather enhance their level of independence.

### 4.4 Respondents Participation in Decision Making in their community.

Table 4 showing Respondents participation in Decision-making in the community.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision Making</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of Male</td>
<td>% of Male</td>
<td>No. of Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Decision Making</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decision Making</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Views Considered</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Views not Considered</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180*</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>120**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the study 26.6% of the women were allowed to express their views in public. These women either belong to Women’s Organizations, are heads of the bondo society (women’s secret society) or midwives in their communities.

Decision making body in the communities is always composed of more than 85.6% of men over their female counterparts. Out of the 26.6% of women who had the chance of expressing their views lamented that most of the times their views were not taken into account or considered.

Based on these results, it could be observed that the women had low participation in decision-making in the community. Therefore, there is an urgent need for improvement to enhance both
those women who had the chance of participating in decision-making and the majority who seemed not to be involved in decision making at all.

Considering the fact that empowerment is a broad concept there could be a constraint of the study being limited to only the education, economic, decision making at home and community, barriers to girls enrolment in the formal education aspects of empowerment.

### 4.5 Decision Making in the Home

Table 5 showing Respondents participation in Decision Making in the home.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decision Making</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Share ideas with spouse.</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning of family budget</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Able to express view.</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access to own money</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>150</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From table 5 above, it was found out that as few as 30% of the women studied were able to share ideas with their spouse. 8.67% of them said they were able to express their views of family planning, 3.33% of the women were involved in the planning of their family’s budget. 58% were allowed by their husbands to decide on how to use their money. Of the 8.67% of the women who were able to share their views with their spouses, 2.8% of them had their views not taken into account. Again these results show that the women had low participation in decision-making in the home.

There were many lapses which would require capacity building to improve upon their situation. Almost all the husbands had sweeping power in the home.

### 4.6 Contextual Barrier to enrolment in Formal Education

Table 6 Showing Respondents contextual Barriers to enrolment in formal education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contextual variables as Barriers to Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Poverty</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>50.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Gender Parity</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lack of awareness of the value of education. 54% 18% 
- Long distance to school 22% 7.3% 
- Fear of corporal punishment 16% 5.3% 
- Staying home to help parents 38% 12.7% 
- Negative attitude toward schooling 7% 2.3%

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason for Respondent’s Dropped out of school</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Poverty</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Early marriage</td>
<td>46%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Long distance to school</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Lack of awareness of the value of education</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Teenage pregnancy</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Poor learning environment</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Parent preventing child attendance</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 300 sample respondents in the 10 study areas i.e. 150 male respondents and 150 female respondents were targeted. The major reasons for non-enrolment in formal schooling of both sexes in rank are due to various obstacles, poverty and early marriage are the main reason for families to neglect female education. 1000 enrolment of girls in the primary level at the distant location of school away from home hamper female enrolment. It is with noting the presence of other problems such as the shortage of resources and funding of schools for girls within the local communities to segregate girls and boys, and lack of commitment on the part of the educational authorities to promote and raise awareness about the education of girls. Order were poverty of parents 50.7%, lack of awareness of the education 18%, staying home to help parents 12.7%, long distance to school 7.3%, fear of corporal punishment, gender preference of parents preventing the child (girl) attending 3.7%, negative attitudes towards school (I don’t like school) 2.3%. Poor learning environment and unsuitable teaching method 17%, parent preventing child attendance 15%, help parents at home (child labour) 11%, not interest in school (I don’t want to go to school) 10%, bad school administration 9%, fear of corporal punishment 7% and dislike or not interested in subject taught 3%.

4.7 Dropped out 9 of school (incomplete schooling)

Table 7. Showing Reasons why Respondents dropped out of school (incomplete education)
A total of twelve (12) reasons were revealed by respondents in all the study areas for dropping out of school at various levels especially at classes 3, 4, 5 and 6 of basic primary education.

In rank order, the major reasons for dropping out of school were; poverty of parents 57%, early marriage 46%, long distance to school 30%, lack of awareness of the education 28%, teenage pregnancy 24%. With a range of 16.67% to 55% compared with fathers with a range of 26.67% to 53.33%

### 4.8 Education of Parent of Respondent.

Table 8. Showing Educational status of parents of sample respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. of Male</td>
<td>% of Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Education</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete (Drop out)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tertiary</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>53.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>180*</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

180* Male

120** Female

Source: Survey Data 2008

The education status of parents of sampled respondents is characterized by widespread illiteracy, with sorgbema, Makpeli and Gallinas perrie chiefdoms being at a most disadvantaged position; in the never attended school category, the majority of mothers 55% and father 26.67% had never attended formal schooling and were therefore illiterates.
In the drop out category on the other hand the majority of mothers 28.33% and fathers 20% had dropped out of school.

In general, the education status of the respondents parents was characterized by the majority being illiterates with a range between 26.67% and 55.33%. Mothers were more disadvantaged with a range of 16.67% to 55% compared with fathers with range of 26.67% to 53.33%.

4.9 Major Livelihood source of Respondents Parents

Table 9. Showing major livelihood source (economic activities) of sampled Respondents parents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Economic Activities</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Petty Trading</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>25.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empowerment – Govt.</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment – Private</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>13.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Micro</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large (Marco) Business</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>300</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A total of 300 sampled respondents indicated their parents economic activities. The majority of parents of respondents were engaged in peasant agriculture 43.7% or petty trading 25.3% very few parents were employed in government jobs 8.3% or private sector jobs 13%. Others were engaged in small (micro) business 6% and large (macro) business 3.7%.

In terms of daily income the majority of parents engaged in agriculture and fishing were very poor, living on under five (5) thousand leones a day which is equivalent to less than $2 dollars.

Thus poverty engulfs the majority of people in the study areas.

The conclusion reached in this study should be generalized with caution, given the small sample of 300 respondents in only one district out of the 12 districts in Sierra Leone.

A similar study with a larger sample of respondents is recommended to render more support to the findings and conclusion of this study.
Table 10: Showing Sierra Leone: Rural – Urban Gaps

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATOR</th>
<th>YEAR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Rural Population (as % of Total)</td>
<td>59.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Population with Access to Health Services: (“%”) Total</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>90.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Population with Access to Safe Water (%)</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Rural Urban Disparity: Services (100 = Rural Urban Parity):</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safe Water</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sanitation</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 11: Gender Empowerment Measure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Share of Parliamentary Seats (%)</th>
<th>Share of Administrative and Managerial Positions (%)</th>
<th>Share of Professional and Technical Position (%)</th>
<th>Share of Economically Active Population (%)</th>
<th>Share Total Population (%)</th>
<th>Gender Empowerment Measure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>0.3483</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>92.2</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>49</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10 and 11 show gender disparities both between urban and rural dwellers majority of them being women and between women and men.

In Sierra Leone men are the dominant players in decision making, although women shoulder most reproductive, productive and community management responsibilities, many of which are not remunerated or reflected in national statistics. The lower status of women in comparison to men is due to gender imbalances that rise from the unequal opportunities and access to and control over productive resources and benefits.

In Sierra Leone, female constitute approximately 51.3% of the total population and most of them live in the rural areas engaged in subsistence farming, petty trading and management of the family. A gender analysis of development issues on Sierra Leone reveals wide disparity and inequality between women and men in the economic, socio-political and cultural aspects of development. Women like men are involved in productive tasks where they lag behind men in all areas of development.

Some of the reasons lie in certain traditional beliefs, values and practices that for years have encouraged subservience and inferior role-play.

Women work long hours at low wages and are engaged in productive activities and non-remunerative domestic and family tasks. The strains and stresses arising from these have imposed a greater pressure on women, who are culturally pressured to take the responsibility of ensuring the maintenance of good health and nutritional status of the family.

There is great disparity between men and women in the area of education. The overall adult literacy rate of 32% is only 23% of females, while it is 36% for males. Although access to education is open to both sexes, it is estimated that primary school enrolment is only 43% for girls as compared to 57% for boys. The drop out rate for girls is normally higher. It is estimated that 90% of rural women are illiterate.

The Gender disparity in health status relates to women’s productive role. The fertility rate for women is 6.1 children. The high rate has an adverse consequence for mothers, as child bearing can take a heavy toll on their health.
Inadequate access to reproductive health facilities and malnutrition are the major factors behind the high maternal mortality rate, currently estimated at 1800 per 100,000 which is three times higher than the average of 600 per 100,000 for sub-Saharan Africa.

Not only is this level unacceptably high but the average women, especially in the areas continues to suffer from anemia and other diseases. Family planning is not widespread as reflected in the contraceptive prevalence rate of only 6%. All this reflects the poor state of reproductive health facilities in the country.

Sexually transmitted diseases such as HIV/AIDS on the increase with number of reported cases rising from 23 per 1000 in 1992 to 62 per 1000 in 1997. Conditions for rapid propagation of the disease exist - unprotected sex with many partners, the low use of contraceptives, polygamy and poverty.

Customary laws in some part of the country also manifest gender bias, which impede women’s effort to assume policy and decision making responsibilities at various government levels. The absence of ownership of agricultural land by women which could be used as collateral inhibits their chances of accessing credit facilities for the development and expansion of their productive activities. Yet 90% of rural women are engaged in agricultural activities.

They spend long hours at work using rudimentary tools that are time consuming labour-intensive and are dangerous at time.

Women are the main processors of agricultural produce, but technology for the processing is mainly channeled to and utilized by men.

The traditional methods and techniques used by women for processing are inefficient and hazardous, and fall short of the increasing demands of the communities. Little efforts have been placed in developing appropriate technology for improving women’s domestic work. Indeed whenever technologies are introduced to increase productivity and to alleviate work load in female dominated areas such (roles) are often taken over by men who then use the technologies.

In rural areas only a small percentage of the population have access to safe water supply. The majority of the population still get their water from rivers, springs and swamps. Women take the responsibility for this and they spend long hours fetching water. In many cases, they are forced
by circumstances to seek water from unprotected sources, some of them infested with
mosquitoes, often polluted and in poor sanitary conditions.
Waterborne diseases are very common in such areas, and it is one of the major causes for the
high rate of child mortality and low life expectancy.

A high percentage of urban and peri-urban women are actively engaged in the marketing of
agricultural commodities and in other small-scale productive activities in the formal sector. Their
capacity and capability, however, are limited because of inadequate skills and knowledge and
inaccessibility to meaningful credit facilities. Market women operate in poor sanitary
environment, where conditions are not conducive for more enterprising business.

Because of their low educational attainment, women’s access to employment is low as revealed
in table 11, particularly the relatively highly paid professional, technical and managerial jobs. In
formal sector employment, women constitute 40.5% of the clerical cadre and only 8% of the
administrative and managerial cadre. The sectors in which women are commonly employed are
agriculture where they constitute 55% of the labour force, and sales. Women own the majority of
informal sector enterprises as traders and vendors. The general orders of the Sierra Leone Civil
Service do not contain employment or promotion regulations that apparently discriminate against
women. Yet the disparity in gender representation at senior and middle management is
alarmingly and stubbornly high.
(See Table 11) Employment conditions are not conducive to women’s multiple role in the family
as child bearers, home managers and active economic agents.

The global record of women’s political representation among heads of state and government is
dismal. During the 20th century there were only 46 female presidents and prime ministers
worldwide, many of whom served for short periods, sometimes for less than a year. Three were
from Africa: Elizabeth Domitien (1975-76) of the Central African Republic, Sylvie Kinigi of
Burundi, and Agathe Uwilingiyimana of Rwanda. The last two served as prime ministers in
1993-94. The former was ousted in a coup and the latter murdered during the genocide of 1994.

Currently, besides the six presidents, including Johnson Sir Leaf, there are five female prime
ministers, two of whom are from Africa: Mozambique and Principe and Sao Tome. The others
are in Bangladesh, Germany and New Zealand. There are still countries that have never had
women as cabinet ministers (for example, Saudi Arabia) or have had only one (Burma, for
example) or have only had deputy ministers (such as Laos). Many currently boast of one or two female ministers, such as Pakistan (one out of 3), Italy (two of 44). Some African countries are in this miserable league, such as Kenya (two out of 34), and Egypt (two out of 31). In the United States there are only four women in the 22 member cabinet, which is quite deplorable for the self-proclaimed champion of democracy.

But even in those countries with more than a handful of female ministers, the latter tend to serve in stereotypical ‘social welfare’ type departments, such as education, health or women’s and youth affairs, rather than in such prestigious and powerful ministries as finance, defence and foreign affairs. In this regard, South Africa is one of the few admirable exceptions: its cabinet is one of the most representatives in the world. There are 13 female and 15 male ministers and 10 female and 11 male deputy ministers. Many of the female ministers are in crucial ministries including foreign affairs, agriculture, home affairs, minerals and energy, and public service and administration.

Tanzania recently followed the South African example the new president, Jakaya Kikwete has appointed more women to the cabinet than at anytime in the country’s history. Out of a total of 29 cabinet ministers, seven are women and two occupy the influential posts of finance and foreign affairs. Only Sweden can claim a better record in terms of gender parity: there are 11 ministers each for men and women.

Clearly, the record of women’s political representation remains dreadful for much of the world nearly three decades after the adoption by the United Nations General Assembly of the convention on the Elimination of all forms of discrimination against women the international bill of rights for women and four UN sponsored world conferences on women (Mexico in 1995), not to mention the numerous regional and International conventions attended and commitments made by governments with great fanfare. While from a global perspective, women’s access to public office is very disappointing, we should not lose sight of the progress that has been made in some countries in recent years largely in response to the growth of the women’s movement and intensified struggle for democratization. It is of course dangerous to homogenize Africa, a continent of astonishing diversity but prone to simplistic generalizations by outsiders anxious to dismiss it and insiders too eager for its integration and collective development. It is prudent to argue that the patterns of women’s
participation in politics and public life among Africa’s 54 countries have been characterized by uneven progress. It is also quite evident that the African region as a whole compares favorably with other world regions. This is amply borne out in a comprehensive research report, “Gender Equity: Striving for justice in an unequal world,” published last year by UN Research Institute for Social Development assessing progress in gender equality globally since the Beijing conference.

There is overwhelming evidence that the cost of liberalization of services engendered by economic liberalization and deregulation have been disproportionately borne by women. The case of addressing the gender implications of macro-economic policy and incorporating gender in any national project of sustainable development is imperative indeed.

The needs and interests of women will remain peripheral until there is a critical mass of women in leadership positions and decision-making processes. African women have a long and proud history of involvement in politics and public life. There are numerous examples of powerful women and illustrious leaders going back to pharaonic times. Historians have conclusively established that during colonial times women were centrally involved in anti-colonial struggles from demonstrations to riots to armed combat as protestors, agitators, organizers and guerrillas. In fact, in the societies that waged protracted armed liberation struggles and adopted radical programmes of socialist transformation there were great expectations for gender equity and women’s emancipation and empowerment after independence. The extent to which attempts were made by the post-independence states to realize these expectations, of course, varies. However, the record was, on the whole quite unsatisfactory.

Above all, narrowing the gender gap in all works of life is in itself fundamental to expanding democracy. In this regards, the world’s two largest democracies,” India and the United States, exhibit serious democratic deficits in so far as both have some of the lowest levels of women’s representation in national public office. The same can be said of Africa’s most populous country, Nigeria, where women comprise less than six percent of National assembly. From a gender perspective then, in terms of women’s presence and performance in national politics and public office, the road to democracy in Africa and much of the world has a long way to go.
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But even in those countries with more than a handful of female ministers, the latter tend to serve in stereotypical ‘social welfare’ type departments, such as education, health or women’s and youth affairs, rather than in such prestigious and powerful ministries as finance, defence and foreign affairs. In this regard, South Africa is one of the few admirable exceptions: its cabinet is one of the most representatives in the world. There are 13 female and 15 male ministers and 10 female and 11 male deputy ministers. Many of the female ministers are in crucial ministries including foreign affairs, agriculture, home affairs, minerals and energy, and public service and administration.

Tanzania recently followed the South African example the new president, Jakaya Kikwete has appointed more women to the cabinet than at anytime in the country’s history. Out of a total of 29 cabinet ministers, seven are women and two occupy the influential posts of finance and foreign affairs. Only Sweden can claim a better record in terms of gender parity: there are 11 ministers each for men and women.
Clearly, the record of women’s political representation remains dreadful for much of the world nearly three decades after the adoption by the United Nations General Assembly of the convention on the Elimination of all forms of discrimination against women the international bill of rights for women and four UN sponsored world conferences on women (Mexico in 1995), not to mention the numerous regional and International conventions attended and commitments made by governments with great fanfare. While from a global perspective, women’s access to public office is very disappointing, we should not lose sight of the progress that has been made in some countries in recent years largely in response to the growth of the women’s movement and intensified struggle for democratization.

It is of course dangerous to homogenize Africa, a continent of astonishing diversity but prone to simplistic generalizations by outsiders anxious to dismiss it and insiders too eager for its integration and collective development. It is prudent to argue that the patterns of women’s participation in politics and public life among Africa’s 54 countries have been characterized by uneven progress. It is also quite evident that the African region as a whole compares favorably with other world regions. This is amply borne out in a comprehensive research report, “Gender Equity: Striving for justice in an unequal world,” published last year by UN Research Institute for Social Development assessing progress in gender equality globally since the Beijing conference.

There is overwhelming evidence that the cost of liberalization of services engendered by economic liberalization and deregulation have been disproportionately borne by women. The case of addressing the gender implications of macro-economic policy and incorporating gender in any national project of sustainable development is imperative indeed.

The needs and interests of women will remain peripheral until there is a critical mass of women in leadership positions and decision-making processes. African women have a long and proud history of involvement in politics and public life. There are numerous examples of powerful women and illustrious leaders going back to pharaonic times. Historians have conclusively established that during colonial times women were centrally involved in anti-colonial struggles from demonstrations to riots to armed combat as protestors, agitators, organizers and guerrillas. In fact, in the societies that waged protracted armed liberation struggles and adopted radical programmes of socialist transformation there were great expectations for gender equity and women’s emancipation and empowerment after independence. The extent to which attempts
were made by the post-independence states to realize these expectations, of course, varies. However, the record was, on the whole quite unsatisfactory.

Above all, narrowing the gender gap in all works of life is in itself fundamental to expanding democracy. In this regards, the world’s two largest democracies,” India and the United States, exhibit serious democratic deficits in so far as both have some of the lowest levels of women’s representation in national public office. The same can be said of Africa’s most populous country, Nigeria, where women comprise less than six percent of National assembly. From a gender perspective then, in terms of women’s presence and performance in national politics and public office, the road to democracy in Africa and much of the world has a long way to go.

To conclude, this study confirms that education is the most raw material for the democratic, social, economic and peaceful development of all societies. The national government, national and international non-governmental organizations and well meaningful civil societies interested in children’s education are making a significant contribution by offering everyone the opportunity to access education to develop their personalities and to play part in political, cultural and working life. No one may be marginalized or abandoned. The ministry of education, other important stake holders cannot allow around 20% of the younger generation to go missing.

Inspite of all the great strides taken to ensure the availability of affordable and equitable education for all, this study revealed that formal education better prepares man for a better living than does the traditional education, that there is a gender disparity between men and girls in the academic, social, economic, religious and cultural arena. This facts are clearly manifested in the finding of this study. Tables 10 and 11 show this imbalance between men and women at national level in all spheres of life.

Men are dominant key players in every sector of the country. Looking at table 11 specifically, it is crystal clear that beautiful policies in theory calling for gender equity have largely remained unheeded by policy makers to be effectively and efficiently implemented. The share of parliamentary seats for instance between the men and women in Sierra Leone demonstrate high gender inequality 7.8% for the women and 92.2% for men. In the share of administrative and managerial positions 26% is allotted to the women while 75% goes to the men.
The findings of the study further revealed that women have little or no voice in decision making at home and in the community, that the level of education of the majority of the women is very low. In developed countries and communities, women could be seen as partners in development as they are in the majority, inhibiting them from actively participating in the political, social, economic, religious and cultural platform will be unhealthy. This unhealthy situation is also impacting negatively on the future generations of this nation. Hence the national equity. There is substance in the fear that such large powers as traditional religious, political, economic and cultural beliefs give to men could open the door to dictatorship thus rendering the female folks vulnerable if not completely incapacitated. Of the few educated women they are almost on daily basis crying foul of discrimination, injustice, oppression, imbalance access to the world of works. The days are gone when women were to be seen and not heard. More so, without achieving the unconditional inclusion of the women in the educational, political, social, economic, religious and traditional arena, Sierra Leone has no chance of achieving many of the ambitious health, social and development target it has set for itself.

Furthermore, achieving educational equity and quality would require profound conceptual and cultural changes. Unless the countries make substantial efforts to improve educational equity, they will not be able to achieve the Dakar goals as the social-economic structure of Sierra Leone is such that the gap between the poor and the rich is maintaining itself with tenacity, if not widening.

It is time that we Sierra Leoneans recognized that education for all in Sierra Leone cannot be achieved without achieving equitable and inclusive education. In order to do so, each person not only governments or teachers, but also every individual in society must take the shared responsibility of meeting this collective commitment, for education is a right and an imperative for all at the sametime.
CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary of Findings

Education is a critical asset for women and a fundamental human right for all. This silent emergency that has denied so many children, the majority of them girls, this right is scandal that can and must be ended by the action of us all.

Education is not a silver bullet. On it’s own, it is not enough to over come the multiple causes of women’s deprivation and oppression. Women, even those who get an education, face embedded disadvantage in labour markets, property ownership and sexual and reproductive choice. More so, without achieving gender equality for girls in education, the world has no chance of achieving many of the ambitious health, social and development target it has set for itself.

Since women are the majority of the adult population and constitute the largest percentage of illiterates, it is essential that their consciousness be raised concerning their actual condition and their potentialities for decisive social and economic roles. The discrimination against girls/women in all spheres of life has become a major concern in Sierra Leone.

This study was designed to investigate the effects of formal education on the traditional education of the girl child among the mendes in the Pujehun District of Sierra Leone. This research is limited to Wanjama mendes of Pujehun District. Ten out of twelve chiefdoms in the Pujehun District were selected as the study areas. The research was limited to interviewing with questionnaires, discussion and personal observations. In the process of data collection, I firstly reviewed relevant literature from journals, books, and magazines that were pertinent to the study. The study (interviews) were conducted in the selected chiefdoms in Pujehun District, in the homes, gardens, social gatherings etc.

Out of the total population of the study areas 150 women and 150 men were randomly selected from each of the 10 chiefdoms bringing a total of 300 men and women who responded to the questionnaire given. The questionnaire was divided into sections covering. Respondents identification, education status and economic activities of parents of sampled respondents,
contextual barriers to enrolment in formal education, reasons for respondent’s drop out of school, social and psychological effects of illiteracy on respondents, decision making in the community and home.

All the information were analyzed, coded and this helped in the ranking, the data analyzed in tables using frequency counts and percentages. The interpretation derived from the tables are mainly based on simple averages, percentages mean and standard deviations.

In considering the general characteristics of women in the study areas, it was found out that there was a higher rate of illiteracy of women than men. The major reasons for non-or/low enrolment of girls in formal schooling in rank order was established. Poverty is the major cause for the above defect and is rated as 50.7%, next in rank order was “Lack of awareness of the value of education rated as 19% and followed by “staying home to help parents” (domestic work, farm work, trading etc) also rated as 12%. The fourth contributing factor was “Long distance to school” 7.3%.

Nowadays, it is an internationally held belief that education is one of the pillars of national development and that global poverty will not decline unless every one everywhere can enjoy the benefits of quality basic education. The attempts to empower women through education have traveled through the decades. Considerable efforts have been made by governments and other agencies, and most especially the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have been established to address women’s needs and their exclusion from the benefits of development.

It is stated under the third goal of the MDGs on promoting gender equality and empowering women that women have an enormous impact on the well-being of their families and societies but their potentials is not realized because of discriminatory social norms, incentives and legal institution. In the process of promoting and achieving women’s empowerment through education, several policy approaches have been used. It is said that through the Women in Development (WID), Women and Development (WAD)/Gender and Development (GAD) strategies that shaped policy interventions and informed scholarly reflections in the 1960’s and 1970’s were limited by the fact that they remained within the established parameters of the state-led model of development and the discourse of its organic intellectuals, these approaches were some way in addressing some of the gender-based contradictions in the development process. Over the years formal and Adult education have been used as tools for improving the lot of
people through capacity building. Based on the findings of this study/survey on the effects of formal education on the traditional education of the girl child in the Pujehun District, this paper assess how formal and adult education could promote empowerment among women/girls, most especially those in rural communities.

The first part of the paper discusses the women’s empowerment concept. This is followed by a survey report. The final section of the paper shows how education could be used to facilitate empowerment among rural women, conclusions and recommendations.

5.2 The Women’s Empowerment Concept

Private researchers, donor literature, policy documents and several other literatures have shared views on women’s empowerment through education Karl (1995) remarks that long before the world became popular women were speaking about gaining control over their lives and participating in decisions that affected them in the home and the community, in government and international development policies and adds that the word empowerment captures this sense of gaining control, has entered the vocabulary of development agencies and other international organizations.

In defining the term empowerment, Karl (1995:14) explains what power means to her as:

- Having control, or gaining further control
- Having a say and being listened to.
- Being able to define and create from a woman’s perspective.
- Being able to influence social choices and decisions affecting the whole society, and
- Being recognized and respected as equal citizens and human beings with a contribution to make.

Women’s empowerment through education could be briefly explained as the process of improving the human capital of women/girls for effective participation in all aspects of development of a nation. This will make women become markers of development and history, not just receivers or objects of it. Women need not be just objects or beneficiaries of development but the development process of a nation needs the equal participation of women as well. Given that women form over 50% of the world population, their capacity building is crucial for holistic development. Women’s empowerment through formal education could also be said to
comprise building their capacity or making the best of the lives of women for governance and socio-economic advancement. It is obvious that access to literacy or education, information or knowledge resources, natural or material resources, productive skills and capital facilitates the empowerment of women.

It could also be observed that culture, tradition, formed opinions and perceptions all combine to define a marginalized status for women in society. Efforts will therefore have to be made to transform the patriarchal society through conscientization and awareness creation. In this process traditions, structures, institutions and ideologies that have contributed to the discrimination and subordination of women will have to be challenged. Some of these traditions and structures include the extended family, the caste system, ethnicity, religion, the media, the law, policies, and top-down development approaches as against bottom-up women over the years.

The first level, welfare, addresses the basic needs of women. This approach does not recognize or attempt to solve the underlying structural causes which necessitate provision of welfare services. At this point women are merely passive beneficiaries of welfare benefits. It is obvious that such an approach promotes dependence on the provider.

Access, the second level, involves equality of access to resources, such as education, opportunities, land and credit. This is essential for women to make meaningful progress. The path to empowerment is initiated when women/girls recognize their lack of access to resources as a barrier to their growth and overall well-being and take action to address it.

Conscientization is a crucial point in the empowerment frame work. For women/girls to take appropriate action to close gender gap or gender inequalities there must be recognition that their problems stem from inherent structural and institutional discrimination. They must also recognize the role they can often play in reinforcing the system that restricts their growth.

Participation is the point when women are taking decisions alongside men to ensure equity and fairness. To reach this level, however, mobilization is necessary. By organizing themselves and working collectively, women will be empowered to gain increased representation, which will lead to increased empowerment and ultimately greater control. This level reinforces the mainstreaming approach which recognized and integrated into all plans, policies, programmes,
goals, objectives, activities and monitoring interventions, implications for women and women should be assessed in all areas at all levels.

Another implication also is that though there might be the need for special programmes to bridge existing gaps, this should be for a period of time in a project life cycle in order to avoid creating another imbalance. In the framework, control is presented as the ultimate level of equity and empowerment. At this stage women are able to make decisions over their lives and the lives of their children, and play an active role in society and the development process. Further, the contributions of women are fully recognized and rewarded as such.

This framework shows how since the early 70s, the women’s empowerment processes have traveled from Welfare, Women in development, Gender and Development to mainstreaming and empowerment. A study on Gender mapping (2000) also emphasizes that key fundamental changes in the way all government and agencies address women’s concerns have been from Women in Development (WAD) to Gender and Development (GAD); and from targeting to mainstreaming. It is obvious that most of these approaches overlap but this shows the trend of progress. In all these stages of progress, there are bound to be drawbacks and inhibiting factors, which inform the strategy or approach that follows. Despite the constraints and challenges, one could say that much has been achieved towards the empowerment of women/girls through education.

Karl’s (1995) study identifies the measure commonly used by development agencies to include empowerment to increase women’s economic status through employment, income generation and access to credit; and empowerment through integrated rural development programmes in which strengthening women’s economic status is only one component along with education, literacy, the provision of basic needs and services, and fertility control. In recent terms focus has been on integrated quality health care provision, inclusion in sustainable natural resource management, full participation in governance especially at the grass roots level etc. A literate population is a necessity for any nation wishing to take advantage of modern technological growth. Research has shown a direct relationship between literacy among women and relationship between literacy among women and improved health and child care in the family.
The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has long supported the concept that education must be considered an ongoing process. UNESCO has encouraged literacy programmes, agricultural extension, and community instruction. It is in the light of this that formal and adult education become crucial for facilitating empowerment among women/girls. Specific educational activities for the different areas of study to facilitate the women’s/girls empowerment process could include the following:

- **Education** – noting that 42.8% of the women/girls studies had no formal education at all, it becomes crucial to promote female education. The female youth of the community could be counseled, encouraged and given the necessary assistance to go through formal education to a higher level so that they will become well equipped to operate in higher competitive productive activities. Similarly, functional literacy programmes for the female adults will help improve their reading and writing skills. Obviously such skill will further enhance the women’s access to public and educational information. The use of information technology like radio, internet and handheld devices will help reach those in remote areas. Recent studies have shown that women are willing to pay for such services.

- **Decision-making in the community**: Recognizing the influence of men in society and on women, opinion leaders – who are mostly men – could be informed to encourage or motivate more women to express their views in public so that they could as well contribute to the development of their communities. In addition to the queen mother position, women could as well as possible be given key positions among the elders in the traditional, political and other decision-making institutions. In this case it will be useful to equip women with leadership skills for effective participation in all levels of decision making and governance in their various communities. Various religious organizations could also encourage women to get involved in the religious associations and other interest groups that undertake educational activities to facilitate their process of empowerment.

- **Decision-making in the home**: As much as possible it will be useful to encourage communication among couples. Husbands will have to be counseled and given orientation to respect the views of their partners no matter how irrelevant and provoking they might be so that women will be able to build their confidence and
express their views. It will be helpful for husbands or men to consult wives or female colleagues on family issues rather than taking decisions on their behalf. Giving women room to operate will help them to gain a high level of independence and confidence. Above all cordiality among the family and community members will enhance morale.

- **Economic empowerment:** Towards achieving or promoting economic empowerment among women, it will be crucial for change and development agents to organize training for them in farming and other small scale businesses to be able to acquire more skills to enhance their careers.

Traditional authorities could also manage to remove the traditional inhibitions which prevent women from getting equal access to education, land for agricultural purposes, job facilities etc. And that the Sierra Leone child rights Act be fully implemented to the letter with special reference to (Articles 43 and 23 (1) which states that “No person shall force a child into marriage of whatever kind before the age of 18 years”. Every child, especially girls must have access to free quality education”, No person shall deprive the child the right to development to maximum extent possible. Incentives like credit facilities, modern technology for higher productivity, extension services and other assistance will have to be made available to women so that they could improve upon their production and be able to acquire income as well.

In addition women will have to be encouraged and educated to engage in banking transaction other than the “susu” (saving money with unauthorized individuals) means of saving money so that they could benefit from incentives like loans from banks. If women are not comfortable with the bank formalities, the bank will have to be brought to the level of women. It is an established fact that formal education better prepares the girl child for life than does the traditional education. Yet there are some good human values enshrined/inherent in traditional education, these values should be incorporated into the curriculum of formal education at all levels.

5.3 **Cultural Development**

The task of formal and adult education in contributing to endogenous development is to promote, conserve, and use local and indigenous cultures as the content and curricula of its programmes. To revitalize traditional values and systems is not a step backward in time but rather to make
sure that new development policies and humanely based in rich, authentic, cultural forms. In promoting knowledge about and appreciation of the history, traditional cultures and artistic values of society, adult education should also ensure that people are encouraged to express their creative abilities so that a flourishing popular culture exists.

Respect for and understanding of the diversity of customs and cultures and languages within nations and regions as well as internationally is essential for cooperation, peace and mutual learning. Sub groups within a society should be able to express themselves freely, educate themselves and their children in their native tongues, develop their own cultural forms, and learn languages other than their native ones.

Formal and adult education leadership are needed in the revitalization of such cultural centres as museums so that they become community learning centres that encourage existing popular cultural expressions as well as communication the life and creations of the past. In view of the importance of development education for raising the consciousness of members of society towards continuing education and social awareness, teachers/educators are urged to participate in the learning needs of certain groups such as the following:

- Priority should be given to the provision of financial and administrative support to youth programmes both in urban and rural areas to develop responsible leadership skills and activities that stimulate interest in the cultural life of society, in social and economic concerns, and that give young people a sense of self worth through service to others.

- Cooperative relationship with the school system is vital to ensure community learning opportunities for both parents and children.

- Ongoing contract with administrators and teachers in the formal education system can result in learning participation in the devising of curricula teaching methods and techniques that stimulate about development education.

- Traditional practices and attitudes toward women need changing through education directed, in many instances, to men. Since the women are the majority of the adult population and constitute the largest percentage of illiterates, it is essential that their consciousness be raised concerning their actual condition and their potentialities for decisive social and economic roles.
Some nations have a great diversity of cultures and languages and are faced with the problem of reconciling the needs of development within the preservation of cultural diversity. The role of traditional cultures, and of cultural traditions of immigrants, needs interpretation within the development context.

Workers, farmers, peasants, media specialists, trade unions and employers need direction and stimulation in order to develop an appreciation of their role and responsibility in the imperatives of national and international development issues.

Rural development education should stress to farmers the importance of environmental conservation, such as land and water, and its role in immediate and future development.

5.4 Folk Culture And Development

Traditional and popular communications of cultural values and aspirations from an existing network of “folk media” such as songs, dances, festivals, dramas, etc, that can act as carriers of new ideas without distorting their authenticity. They can be used along with the electronic and print media to motivate people to learn and to understand the reason for social change. Traditional cultural expressions also disclose the ways in which people have carried on their own learning in an oral culture and thus show how oral methods can be adapted to the teaching of literacy and to non-formal education.

5.5 Illiterates: Characteristics and Problems

The national government, NGO’s local and international, civil societies are making frantic efforts to eradicate gender inequality in Sierra Leone. However, despite this improvement during the last two decades, it is estimated that girls enrolment ratio is still below that of boys.

- **Girls and women:** Female education in the selected areas of the study is facing numerous obstacles and challenges. Out of school girls and illiterate women constitute a majority; due to unfavourable attitudes towards the education of women, seen as less important, particularly in rural areas; and the shortage of resources, preference is given to men. Poverty and tradition of early marriage, particularly in rural areas and parent unawareness of the importance of girls education, in addition to the shortage of “girls friendly” schools, are the common causes of women illiteracy.
That is not to forget the absence of a strong political commitment to eradicate women’s illiteracy.

- **Rural population.** The respondents from ten selected areas of the study live in rural areas. The rural communities do not receive adequate education services comprising schools, teachers and materials. Low attendance rate are attributed to economic reasons for males and to shortage of resources as well as poverty and early marriage for females. Moreover, the curriculum in rural areas has little relevance to daily life. Surprisingly, in the study areas, the gender gap in literacy among the present younger generation is larger than that of the their parents and even grandparents. This is the result of selective out-migration of literates from the country side to the towns or of insufficient educational access and facilities in rural areas. Part of this high result of illiteracy in rural areas is the relative frequency of households in which both parents are illiterate and who are far more likely to raise illiterate children. Presently, Sierra Leone suffers from a wide discrepancy between Urban and rural literacy for both genders because of the limited available resources and the inability of the education facilities to reach out to all the illiterates. Such a gender disparity between the rural urban communities is due to various obstacles. In the rural communities poverty and early marriage are the main reasons for families to neglect female education. Rural communities low enrolment of girls in the primary level and the distant location of schools away from home hamper female enrolment. It is worth recalling the presence of other problems such as the shortage of resources and funding for girls within the local communities to segregate girls and boys, and the lack of commitment on the part of the educational authorities to promote and raise awareness about the education of girls.

- **The Degree of Corruption in Educational Establishments.**

Almost all the citizens of Sierra Leone point to illegal fees at the educational establishments, despite the guarantee of free basic education. Many poor families say that their children do not attend the school due to this reason. It is fertility and high level of big families. The fees is a huge burden. The system of fees and illegal payments exists in all levels of education starting from the preschool up to higher level establishments.
• **Traditions and life style**

The gender disbalance and low education level among women and girls in some
degree depends on public opinion, traditions and life style. Currently, especially in
rural areas there is less education of girls. This depends on the life style, when a
family itself connects welfare with the male. That is why when there is a choice of
who will continue education the preference is given to boys. Girls in many case will
get married and will live in another family and sons have to support parents in future.
Besides, especially in rural areas the demand for educated women is declining.
Currently in some countries of the region there is a tendency to form a stereotype
among the young and relatively educated men, prohibiting wives to work.

• **Decline in living standards and greater social marginalization.**

Unequal access to education for level families, who live in both rural and urban areas,
lack of funds for purchasing education articles, shoes, clothes, necessity to use
children’s labour in order to survive. Significant share of these families budget in
Sierra Leone (60% and more) is spent on food. Purchasing of the other required items
is limited. Thus many children from these families who do not attend school said that
absence of clothes is the main reason.

• **Management of the Education System.**

Unconformity of the management system to the modern requirements and imperfect
level of the management staff on the issue of modern management as well as the lack
of involvement of civil society resources in management are also an obstacle for
providing quality education to the population.

In conclusion and despite the great strides achieved in Education at basic level in the last decade,
it has been found out that “the awareness in the region of the importance of education and its
central role in achieving sustainable human and social development and a competitive edge on
the global market has not been matched by the provision of the tools necessary to set effective
policies and put in place implementable goals and strategies to achieve it.” (Billeh, Victor,
Educational Reform in the Arab Region. Newsletter Vol.2, No.9, Summer 2002, p.31)
5.6 Conclusion

Over the recent decades, the government of Sierra Leone and other non-governmental organizations interested in education have managed to make important headway in making its population literate. Practically all the chiefdoms in Sierra Leone have been provided at least primary and Junior Secondary schools to enhance the acquisition of compulsory basic education without ethnic, religious, social, economic and political discrimination to ensure quality to education.

Government has placed special emphasis on the girl child education in the Northern Province and Kailahun District in the Eastern province hence research shows that there is a great drop in girl child enrolment in the formal school sector. In the mentioned districts, scholarship, learning materials and in some cases uniforms are also given to girls as a form of incentive or motivator. Educational opportunities for youths and adults are also increasing, although at a slower pace.

Decentralization as well as local government and civil society partnerships give a new dimension to the literacy programs that can thus answer more adequately to the interests and needs of the communities. The fact that these programs acknowledge that literacy is a long-term process associated to schooling could stimulate a more accelerated expansion of the women youth and adult education.

Although one can observe headway, there are challenges that persist Social, cultural, religious, and regional inequalities in the country continue to express themselves in an unequal access to literacy, the poorer social groups and regions concentrate the highest illiteracy indicators. It is alarming that illiteracy still predominate among the women population of Sierra Leone to whom the country has a historic debt. If the factors inhibiting the girl child education, financing and the deficiencies of the regular school remain unchanged the country will probably not achieve the goal of its national plan 2011. The interlinking of educational policies with policies that aim at combating gender inequality, poverty and a more even distribution of wealth is the fundamental condition for the population as a whole to effectively take advantage of the possibilities that education offers for human and social development in all spheres of living.

Since 2004 the Ministry of education has been negotiating with state and local government the setting up of a fund (the fund for development of Basic-Education –that would include all levels
of Basic Education). The National Campaign for the right to education enjoins that minimum values that are spent per student school should correspond to the real needs of each level and type of education. For this, it is fundamental that the sum of public funds geared to education be increased. Unless the binding effect of a consistent policy be seriously scrutinized it will not be possible to achieve even less so, those related to girl child, adult education and literacy.

Finally, if education is conceived as a way to empower the less favoured social sectors, the participation and empowerment of the community-based organizations must also be targeted proposals based on traditional methods continues to be renewed.

5.7 Recommendations
On the basis of the findings revealed, following the interpretation of the field data, the following recommendations and suggestions are made for the attention of the national government, National and International Non governmental organizations interested in child education, civil societies and Human Right Organization etc so as to work in concert with each other to narrow the gap of gender disparity in all spheres of life, that inhibiting women’s empowerment to lives free of suppression or oppression from their mal counterparts at work, homes and societies.

Inspite of all the clarion calls made by women of all the world at their different conferences to be given equal opportunities with their opposite sex in the political, social, economic and religious arenas, there still exist discrimination against them. In this vein, I strongly recommend that the Sierra Leone child Rights Act be effectively enforced to the letter by the appropriate authorities of this nation, with particular reference to (Article 23(1) of the Sierra Leone child Rights Act) “Every child, especially girls must have access to free quality basic education, no person shall deprive the child the right to development to the maximum extent possible.

Article 34 of the same Act states “Every girl child must be allowed to reach the age of 18 before marriage; no person shall force a child into marriage of whatever kind before the age of 18”. Secondly, that government embarks on a massive expansion and upgrading of the government school system, while also investing in measure to help poor girls and other excluded groups get an education. The Sierra Leone government to abolish fees and extra exorbitant charges in the name of “extra school charges”. To make primary education compulsory as well as free.
Thirdly, that government through the ministry of education provide extra incentives to help compensate poor families for girls’ labour. Measures such as these including those guaranteeing quality education: such as reasonable class sizes, adequate hours of instruction, adequate supplies of learning materials that are gender sensitive, and probably most importantly better trained and supported teachers including more female teachers will keep girls in school and enable higher learning achievements.

Fourthly, but as we have for long recognized, individual efforts are not simply enough to bring about the sea change that is needed for aid to make a real impact on the international education goals. We can thus reap clear gains for education if we are able to demonstrate and position a genuinely global initiative involving governments, donors and civil society capable of mobilizing and coordinating the full amounts needed to achieve the education goals in a rational, timely and coordinated way to make the greatest possible impact on the world’s out of school children and illiterate adults, otherwise, the momentum for free and universal education will quickly fade and during the UN MDG’s summit, international leaders will turn their attention to sectors which can lay out a more ambitious and compelling vision and strategy for success.

Fifthly, several concrete recommendations have been offered by the Global Campaign for Education to demonstrate this. They are worth reiterating and highlighting.

- **Donors must commit funds to the FTI enabling it to cover all countries in need.**

Even if governments keep to their end of the bargain and invest substantially in education – as they should do– external assistance will be required especially by the countries most off track currently, the FTI cover only 10 of the 58 countries rated by the UNESCO as being at the highest risk of not reaching the Education for all targets. At least 51 countries representing 75% of the world’s out of school children can meet the Fast Track Initiatives requirements for education performance in coming years. Funds have however not been forth coming.

- **The FTI is perceived in many quarters as a donor driven initiative.**

Some fundamental changes to its decision structures and processes are needed to give a much more wider set of stakeholders a real stake in its success and truly reflect a global partnership. Both developing countries governments and civil society need to be formally represented in FTI
influence in the current structure has not only undermined ownership at the global level but may also weaken the country assessment and reform process. The FTI should establish and inclusive steering committee or board that includes fully empowered representatives of developing country government as well as global civil society.

- **The move towards a more country-focused approach is very welcome.**

Special attention to be paid to the core function requirements for an effective system of public mass education. Country financing estimates and assessment bench marks should however be improved to ensure a stronger focus on building a successful system of free, universal and compulsory public education of good quality. This will include costing out the implications of abolishing all user free charges and ameliorative measure (feeding programmes, subsidies for poor families, scholarship) to ensure greater access to quality education especially for poor girls.

Other dimensions for basic education, including early childhood, adult literacy and life skills especially for women and adolescent assessment process. Working closely with partner governments, FTI donors should develop financing strategies and policy guidelines to ensure attention to the whole EFA (Education For All) agenda based on the country’s actual needs.

These recommendations and suggestions are not new I am sure. Infact there is really nothing much I have written that hasn’t been documented, written about or posed before.

The collective experience, wisdom and scholarship of the international community had already set forth practical steps and solutions to finally fulfill the promise of Education for All (EFA). The point now is to act on these and offer more than a 100 million children of which 60% are girls and 1 billion illiterate adults a fair chance to beat poverty and for FEA to be a reality of our life time.

Sixthly, that dialogue be established between curriculum developers and leaders of the traditional education, all traditional stakeholders to discuss and extract all the good human values enshrined in the traditional education and include them in the curriculum of the formal education creating indiscriminate awareness and early access to sound and reliable family planning information and counseling programmes might improve the health of the girl child helping her ability to cope with schooling.
A nationwide organization of a girl child parliament on important days, such as June 16th “The girl child is equally important in society”. This group might involve others outside the classroom, such as transport workers, teachers and the forces. Monthly monitoring of school girls should become institutionalized, hence reducing the frequency of unwanted/teenage pregnancy.

The payment of salary to girl child for the adult roles they mostly play in their homes, more so, when parents are absent. Prompt payment of salaries to teachers is also very important for the delivery of quality education. The ministry of Gender and Children Affair in concert with the ministry of Education and other well meaning Non-governmental organization both national and international should launch a massive campaign against gender disparity, violence, discrimination of all sorts against women similar to campaigns against HIV/AIDS highlighting the dangers and consequences of the high rate of illiteracy among women in Sierra Leone at large.

Moreover, the implementation of this research result and the encouragement of further research could serve as advocacy to initiate external intervention. Again, the political will should not be underscored and the rights of the girls to equal education and human rights aspect should be embedded and enforced by all governments.

Rapid progress on girls’ education, on the scale needed to achieve gender parity worldwide within the next few years, is eminently possible. If many of the poorest countries have made remarkable progress by increasing the ratio of girls to boys from 67% to 93% between 1990 and 1996. Then I am, confident that Sierra Leone such as Mauritania, Mali, Uganda to name but a few would achieve gender parity too.

Education has been seen as the foremost agent of empowerment. “No matter how we run away from it, the foremost agent of empowerment is education; education is the only passport to liberation, to political and financial empowerment. Education contributes to sustainable developments. It brings about a positive change in our lifestyles. It has the benefit of increasing earnings, improving health and raising productivity. A person’s desire to participate in an educational programme often is the result of a changing personal, social or vocational situation. This individual orientation has resulted in the creation of a continually changing, dynamic field able to respond to the varied needs of society.
Despite Africa’s considerable progress over the last decade, the continent continues to face major challenges, including a high incidence of poverty, illiteracy, poor health conditions, conflicts in some regions and the relentless surge of HIV/AIDS at a time when a number of regions in the developing world are benefiting greatly from economics opportunities resulting from globalization. The situation is so serious that is now generally acknowledged that our continent, more than any other region of the world, faces the danger of regressing and being irreversible left behind as a consequence of the rapid changes being brought about by of globalization. A few facts will convincingly illustrate this argument. The African Development Bank (ADB) has estimated that “between 40 and 45 percent of African continent’s 793 million people live in poverty, with about 30 percent classified as extremely poor, that is living on less than $1 per day “. (O Kabbaj, 2003, pp.3-4). Even more appalling is that “among all developing regions, Africa has the largest proportion of people living in absolute poverty, and that proportion has remained virtually unchanged for a decade”. (Idem)

The UNDP Human Development report 2005 confirmed AFDB’s assessment report 2005 by revealing that “in 1990 the average American was 38 times richer than the average Tanzanian. Today the average American is 61 times richer”. The situation becomes even more unacceptable when it is borne in mind that while a sub-Saharan African lives on $1 a day, a cow in Europe or Japan receives $2 or nearly $4 a day respectively. All because of the alarming high rates of illiteracy in Africa.

Finally, educational rights are amply set in the Sierra Leone constitution. It establishes that is is the right of the citizen and obligation of the state to offer 6 years of free primary education, including for those who did not have access to it at the appropriate age. Public authorities can be made legally responsible if they do not guarantee this right. The existence of such an advanced legal bench mark does not guarantee, however, that this right is made effective. Certainly over recent years education in Sierra Leone has made great progress; the country has managed to almost universalize the access of children to school.

However, the school system faces great difficulties and has very low productivity. Thousands of adolescents drop out of school before finishing primary school, swelling the contingent of youth and adult with insufficient schooling. Sierra Leone still has, therefore, great challenges in
providing literacy and education for all; the other is that the encouragement and facilitation required to build this resource requires an effort not just to promote basic primary education but also to focus on broader development issues of development. This is the most imperative in relation to women’s literacy and education; as long as women continue to lack social, political and personal rights, they will not benefit much from any literacy intervention; moreover, the prevailing inequalities will most likely be reinforced systemically through the systems – and the people within them that design and implement programmes; finally there will be conspicuous absence of inspiring female role models, which will make the path to empowerment that much steeper. This means that the commitment to literacy can only be taken seriously if there is at the same time a commitment to improving women’s entitlements in every sphere of life. One way of understanding this is to say it is a lot to ask; another way is to accept that these are basic requirements.

Unfortunately the politics of affirmative action have been out paced by the logic of globalization, with glaring inequalities and widening disparities being somehow brushed under the carpet, and the carpet declared a level playing field. Needless to say, affirmative action, state subsidies and welfare measures are still the needs for many countries of the world and the role of the state in education is particularly crucial, given the role of education in eradicating poverty and ensuring social justice.
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This questionnaire is intended to illicit information from respondents to investigate the effects of formal education on the traditional education of the girl child in the Pujehun District, in the Southern Provinces of Sierra Leone.

Please feel free to respond to the questions below in the best and sincere way you can. All information provided in this questionnaire would be treated in confidence.

**INSTRUCTION:** Please place a tick in the appropriate box and fill in the blank spaces provided.

**SECTION A – IDENTIFICATION OF FEMALE RESPONDENTS**

1. Time Started………………………….. Time finished……………………
2. Date of interview…………………………………………
3. Sex……………….. Approximate age in years……………………. Ethnicity…………….
4. Marital Status…………………………
5. Do you have children? Yes □ No □
6. How many? Boys □ Girls □
7. Do they go to school? Yes □ No □
8. If no, why………………………………………………………………………..
9. How long have you lived in this town/village? □ Years
10. Do you have a school in this town/village? Yes □ No □
11. If no, how far is the nearest school? Miles
12. Do you hold any position in your community?
13. If yes, state your designation………………………………………………………………
14. Did you ever go to formal school? Yes □ No □
15. If No, Why?..................................................................................
SECTION B.
Education status and Economic Activities of parents of sampled respondents.

16. Are/were your parents literate or illiterate?
   Literate □  Illiterate □

17. If yes, specify level attained.
   Primary □  Secondary □  Tertiary □ etc.

18. Is your father/mother employed? Yes □  No □

19. If yes, specify………………………………………………

20. How many brothers and sisters do you have?
   Brothers □  Sisters □

21. If your parents are not employed, what do they do to sustain their family? (Specify)
   any other Job……………………………………
   (a) Farming  (b) Fishing  (c) Petty Trading  (d) Driving.

22. Do your parents own a house in your village or elsewhere?  
   Yes □  No □

23. How many times do your parents provide food for the family per day?
   Once □  2 times □  3 times □

24. Do your parents treat you equally as your brothers?
   Yes □  No □

25. If no, explain briefly………………………………………………………………

26. Do your parents give any special privilege to your brothers than you daughters?

27. Do you agree that formal education is more beneficial than traditional education?

28. If yes, give 2 reasons why you think so
   a. ..........................................................
   b. ..........................................................

SECTION C
Contextual Barriers to Enrolment of girls in Formal Education.

Please indicate the major reasons for non-enrolment of girls in formal schooling in rank order  
e.g. 1st, 2nd, 3rd, against the list

29. (a) Lack of awareness of the value of education.
(b) Long distance to school (school is far)
(c) Parents preventing the child attending
(d) Poverty of parents
(e) Fear of corporal punishment.
(f) If staying to help parent (domestic/farm work, trading etc.
(g) Negative attitudes towards school (I don’t like school)

SECTION D
Reason why Respondent dropped out of school.
Please indicate in rank order the reasons for dropping out of school at various levels of basic education.

30.  1. Unsuitable teaching and learning environment.
    2. Truancy or dislike of school.
    4. Dislike of subjects taught.
    5. Marriage.
    7. Lack of awareness of the value of education
    8. Poverty of parents.
    10. Long distance to school
    11. Helping at home.
    12. Parents preventing attendance.

SECTION E
Social and Psychological effects of illiteracy on Respondents.

31. Are you part of decision making body in your community?
    Yes ☐    No ☐

32. If no, why?...........................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................
...........................................................................................................

33. Do you regret for not acquiring any form of formal education?
    Yes ☐    No ☐
34. If yes, why? Give any two or more reasons…………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………

35. If no, why? Give any two reasons……………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………
……………………………………………………………………

36. Do you experience inferiority complex when you are among literate women?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

37. If yes, why? Give 2 major reasons for feeling so.
   ………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………

38. If no, why? Give two reasons.
   ………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………

39. As an illiterate woman, do you command the same respect in your community as that of educated woman?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

40. What do you do to raise money for your welfare?
   ………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………

41. Do you give any financial assistance to your husband to sustain the home?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

42. If no, why? Give two main reasons for your failure
   ………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………

43. Do you believe in the existence of HIV/AIDS?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

44. State any 2 measures you are taking to prevent yourself against it?

45. Do you allow your husband to use condom during sex?
   Yes [ ] No [ ]

46. If No, why?……………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………

47. Do you have right to claim your husband’s property when he dies?
   ………………………………………………………………………
   ………………………………………………………………………
48. If No, give 2 reasons for that.

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

49. As a woman, do you own land, house etc for yourself?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

50. Do you have a bank account?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

51. Do you attend adult literacy class?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

52. Do you have health centre in your village/town?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

53. If no, how far is the nearest health centre?

[ ] Miles/Km

54. Do you have safe Drinking water in your town?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

55. How often do you go to hospital when pregnant?

One a month [ ]

Twice a month [ ]

56. Do you still use native medicine/herbs when sick?

Yes [ ] No [ ]

57. If yes, why? Give two reasons for using native herbs.

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