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The Influence of Parental Factors on Girls' Education in Ghana

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Abstract

Available literature indicates that girls in Ghana face more challenges than boys in obtaining formal education. Meanwhile, girls' education is influenced by various factors, with parental involvement playing a significant role in shaping educational outcomes. This study investigates the effects of parental factors on girls' education, examining how parental characteristics, attitudes, behaviours, and socioeconomic status impact girls' access to, participation in, and attainment of education in Ghana. Using a mixed-method approach, the study discovers a clear relationship between parents' perceptions of their daughters' educational chances and their educational history. Interestingly, parents who have never attended formal schooling are more likely than those who have some degree of education to

mistrust their daughters' capacity to enroll in and finish school. The results show that 36.5 percent of parents lack confidence in their daughters' educational prospects, while 63.5 percent express confidence. The findings underscore the importance of addressing parental factors in efforts to achieve gender parity in education. It is argued that while stakeholders have made consistent efforts to overcome barriers to girls' education, greater attention must be paid to addressing parental perceptions. Ultimately, addressing the factors influencing parental attitudes toward girls' education is deemed critical for achieving tangible progress in promoting gender equality in education.

Keywords: Girls, Parents, Formal Education, Confidence and belief, Educational status

1. Introduction

Formal education is recognized as an essential human right for all individuals. Consequently, significant efforts have been made over the years to promote access to formal education worldwide. The primary rationale behind this endeavor is grounded in the belief that "formal education offers opportunities for social mobility and serves as a pathway out of poverty" (Ghana Statistical Service, 2010, p. 42). This is particularly pertinent for girls, who historically have faced barriers and often find themselves marginalized in today's intricate and competitive landscape. Recommendations from both international organizations and national governments have underscored the importance of investing in formal education for girls. According to the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), "investing in girls' education is not only a means to safeguard the educational rights of all children but also a catalyst for achieving broader development objectives" (UNICEF, 2004, p. ii). While the adoption of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the 1995 Beijing Conference, and other key international agreements have highlighted the importance of upholding the fundamental human rights of all individuals, it was events such as the 1990 World Conference on Education for All (EFA) in Jomtien, the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the World Education Forum 2000 in Dakar, and the 2000 Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that notably emphasized the urgent need to accelerate girls' access to formal education. Despite numerous investments and endeavors spanning several decades from the international community, donor organizations, and national governments to ensure formal education is accessible, acceptable, and affordable for girls, the challenges of delivering quality, inclusive, and equitable education to all girls in Africa persist as a significant concern.

In Ghana, several factors have hindered girls' ability to attend, succeed in, and complete school. Girls in Ghana are less likely than boys to attend school regularly, and even when they do attend, they often struggle to concentrate and participate due to the significant amount of household chores they are required to undertake. These responsibilities may include caring for sick family members or younger siblings, as well as fetching water and other domestic duties (Amenyah, 2012). Additionally, environmental factors such as psychological, physical, and sexual harassment further exacerbate the already low participation of girls in formal education, leading to their reduced visibility in both the classroom and the school environment (Ibid). Furthermore, various factors including violence, religious beliefs, cultural norms, and personal belief systems pose obstacles to girls' concentration in class, regular school attendance, completion of homework assignments, and active engagement in classroom activities, all of which impact girls' participation in education (Ibid).

In recent times however, the issue's trajectory is widely recognized among development stakeholders, governments, and civil society organizations in Ghana. Recommendations and interventions from both the donor community and local actors have historically emphasized strategies such as awareness campaigns, increased funding, counseling services, law enforcement measures, and the introduction of conditionalities for financial incentives, among others. Additionally, there is substantial evidence indicating that this phenomenon's

trajectory is particularly pronounced in many rural communities across the country, especially in the Northern Region. Over the years, Ghana has reformed and restructured its education system in response to a new vision and mission for education to meet the demands of a knowledge society (NTS, 2017).

The first significant reform occurred in 1961 with the introduction of the Accelerated Development Plan for Education (ADPE) (Nyang, 2016). The policy aimed to educate all children between six and twelve years by establishing primary schools and teacher-training colleges nationwide. As a result of the ADPE, primary school enrollment increased from 460,000 in 1961 to one million in 1966 (Nyang, 2016). The policy aimed to increase access to education in underserved areas, particularly in rural communities (Asabere-Ameyaw & Aryee, 2018). The plan involved the construction of new schools and the recruitment of trained teachers. In 1987, the government introduced the Education Reforms Act, which established the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy, making Ghana the first African country to have a standardized curriculum (UNESCO, 2015). The policy aimed to provide quality education to all children regardless of socio-economic background by ensuring that schools offered the same curriculum nationwide. In 1987, the government introduced the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy, which aimed to provide free education to all Ghanaians from primary to junior high school (Asabere-Ameyaw & Aryee, 2018). The FCUBE policy was implemented to address the issue of low enrollment rates and high dropout rates among children from low-income families. The Ghanaian government and international donors funded the policy. Another reform, the Educational Reform Program (ERP), was introduced in the early 1990s to improve the country's education quality (Adjei-Boakye & Tawiah, 2013). The ERP focused on teacher training, curriculum reform, and providing teaching and learning materials.

Through these reforms, the government of Ghana has made significant efforts to enhance education across all levels. For instance, the government is dedicated to achieving Universal Primary Education for All by 2015, as outlined in the UN Development Goals (MDG 2) (UNICEF, 2007). This commitment is reflected in various government reports and policy frameworks, including the 1992 constitution, the Free Compulsory Universal Basic Education (FCUBE) policy, the Education Strategy Plan (ESP) for 2003-2015, and the Ghana Poverty Reduction Strategy (Ibid). Additionally, direct interventions such as the implementation of the capitation grant, school feeding programs, the establishment of girls' educational units within the Ministry of Education, and other initiatives introduced in underserved communities to incentivize teachers and girls, such as salary increases for rural teachers, the distribution of free exercise books, uniforms, and bicycles for girls, are all aimed at achieving gender parity in girls' education.

However, present-day evidence indicates that the rates of school attendance, retention, completion, and educational progression among girls in Ghana across various levels of the education system are steadily declining. For example, girls' enrollment in schools decreases significantly from 0.97 of the General Performance Index (GPI) at the primary school level to below 0.6 of GPI at the tertiary level (Amenyah, 2012). Consequently, there has been a notable lack of representation of girls' concerns and issues, as well as limited participation of

women in politics, social activities, and economic endeavors, despite women constituting approximately 51 percent of the country's population (Ibid). Furthermore, in some instances, their involvement in community participation and development projects has regressed (Wedam et al, 2014). An estimated 69 million children worldwide are thought to not be attending school, with girls making up 54% of this group (Amenyah, 2012). Girls face more obstacles than boys after they are enrolled in school and are more likely to leave before finishing their elementary education. In addition, girls' prospects of attending secondary education are notably lower in many parts of the world, including Ghana. Two-thirds of the 759 million adults who do not possess literacy abilities are women; this percentage has somewhat increased in the last ten years. Factors including ethnicity, disability, and geographic location disproportionately affect poor and marginalised women and girls, making it harder for them to obtain and complete school. These figures highlight a serious human rights violation (Ibid, p.1).

Children's education has been proven to be highly related to demographic, socioeconomic, and family background. This is consistent with the human capital theory, which argues that investment in education will increase an individual's productivity in the labour market in the future. Many studies have shown that family background plays an important role in children's education in various aspects, such as family socioeconomic status (SES), parents' education, family structure, and many others. This study therefore examines the role of parental factors in a child's education. The intention is to establish whether there is a positive link between parental attitudes and behaviours and a child's educational achievements. It is the researcher's belief that this area of social class, cultural capital, and the economic and social factors of a family has never been so important to a child's education, and in turn has never been so much of a factor in a child's attainment to stay in school and proceed onto further education. The significance of this study is lugged on the fact that despite several years of intervention by stakeholders cultural, religious, and personal belief systems as well as a host of environmental problems at home and at school are still a major tailback to girls' acquisition of formal education and the effort of stakeholders in achieving gender parity.

1.1 Theoretical Framework

The study adopted the belief bias model which is a psychological framework used to explain how people's existing beliefs can influence their reasoning processes and decision-making. This model suggests that individuals tend to evaluate arguments and information based on their pre-existing beliefs, rather than solely on logical reasoning or evidence. In this explanation, we will delve into the key components of the belief bias model, including its theoretical underpinnings, empirical evidence supporting its validity, and practical implications for understanding human cognition and behavior. The belief bias model is rooted in cognitive psychology and draws upon theories of cognitive processing, reasoning, and decision-making. It builds upon the broader concept of cognitive biases, which are systematic deviations from rationality or normative decision-making processes. The belief bias specifically focuses on how individuals' existing beliefs, attitudes, and prior knowledge can shape their evaluation of new information or arguments. The model posits that individuals have a network of interconnected beliefs stored in memory. When presented with new

information or arguments, relevant beliefs in this network are activated.

According to the model, individuals tend to evaluate new information or arguments based on their compatibility with their existing beliefs. Arguments that align with pre-existing beliefs are more likely to be accepted, even if they are logically flawed. The model often highlights the tension between logical reasoning and belief-based reasoning. While logical reasoning involves evaluating the validity of arguments based on logical principles, belief-based reasoning involves evaluating arguments based on their consistency with pre-existing beliefs.

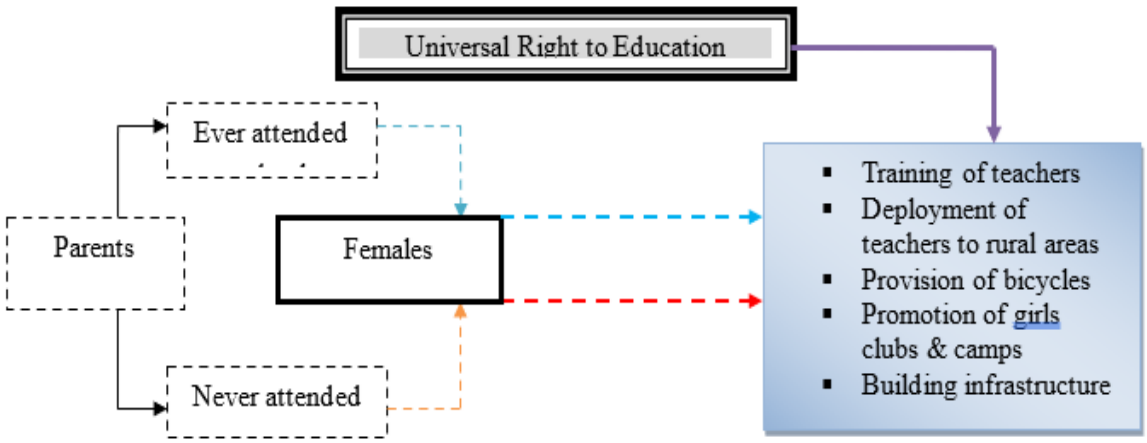
Empirical research has provided support for the belief bias model through various experimental studies and cognitive psychology experiments. These studies often use tasks such as syllogistic reasoning tasks, where participants are presented with arguments to evaluate their validity. Findings consistently demonstrate that individuals are more likely to accept logically invalid arguments if they are consistent with their beliefs, compared to logically valid arguments that conflict with their beliefs. Understanding the belief bias model has important practical implications across various domains, including education, communication, and decision-making. For example, in education, awareness of the belief bias can help educators design instruction methods that encourage critical thinking and mitigate the influence of pre-existing beliefs on reasoning (Dijksterhuis, 2004; Dijksterhuis & Olden, 2006).

While the belief bias model provides valuable insights into human cognition and decision-making, it also has limitations. For instance, the model does not fully account for individual differences in cognitive processes, such as cognitive ability, motivation, and emotional factors, which may influence belief-based reasoning. Future research could explore these nuances and further refine the model to enhance our understanding of how beliefs shape cognition and behavior. The belief bias model offers a theoretical framework for understanding how pre-existing beliefs influence reasoning processes and decision-making. By elucidating the mechanisms underlying belief-based reasoning, this model contributes to our understanding of cognitive biases and their implications for human cognition and behavior (Meltzoff, 2002; Raven, 2008).

1.2 Conceptual Framework

Governments and other stakeholders have been making immense contributions to the promotion of formal education because it is a fundamental right to all. The acquisition of formal education is believed will significantly enhance people's knowledge and skills. In this study, it is postulated that parents who have attended school before will be influenced by their educational status to break cultural, religious and personal belief systems. Thus, we postulate that parents attending school have a positive belief and confidence in the ability of girls to attend and complete school. In the same vein, it is postulated that parents who have never attended school before are influenced by their educational status. We believe that, the educational status of parents who have never attended school before has a negative influence on their belief and confidence in respect of the ability of girls to attend, excel and complete school successfully.

In this study, it is believed that parents who have ever attended school before and parents who have never attended school before can all be influence by belief bias, but it is parents who have never attended school before that have a very high degree of belief bias and low confidence. Again, in this study, we use the phrase attend, excel and complete school to refer to girls attending school from nursery to the tertiary and subsequently complete schooling. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework of the study.



2. Methodology

2.1 Study Area

The study was conducted in Tamale, the regional and administrative capital of the Northern Region. The establishment of the Tamale Metropolitan was formalized through the enactment of a legislative instrument (L.I. 2068). Tamale serves as both the Metropolitan capital and the Regional capital of the Northern Region. The North East and Savannah regions were established as separate entities from the Northern area through a referendum held in December 2018. The Tamale Metropolis is classified as one of the 16 Metropolitan, Municipal, and District Assemblies (MMDAs) within the Northern Region. The Metropolis is situated in the middle region of the Region, and it is adjacent to the Sagnarigu Municipality in the north-west, the Mion District in the east, the East Gonja in the south, and the middle Gonja in the south-west. The Metropolis is situated within the geographical coordinates of latitude 9 °16 and 9 °34 North, and longitudes 0 °36 and 0 °57 West (GSS, 2022). The population of Tamale in 2023 is 730,000, a 4.14% increase from 2022. The metro area population of Tamale in 2022 was 701,000, a 4.32% increase from 2021. The metro area population of Tamale in 2021 was 672,000, a 4.67% increase from 2020. However, it is also known for its susceptibility to flooding, especially during the rainy season (GSS, 2022).

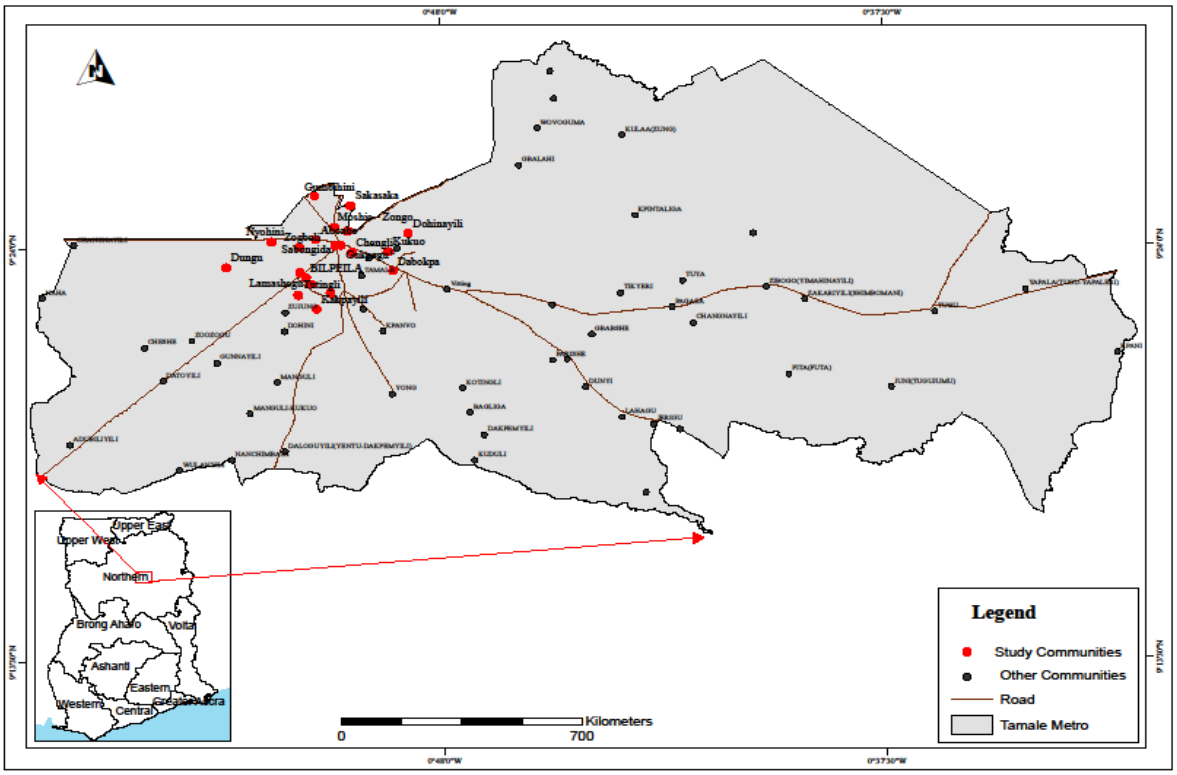


Figure 2. A map Ghana Showing the Study Area

2.2 Data Collection Procedure

Four communities were drawn from the Northern region of Ghana. Two hundred (200) respondents were drawn from these four communities as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Sample of respondents

Educational Status	Districts	Selection of Respondents
Educated and Non-Educated	Lamashegu	50
Educated and Non-Educated	Nyohini	50
Educated and Non-Educated	Tishigu	50
Educated and Non-Educated	Zogbeli	50
Educated and Non-Educated	Total	Educated-100, Non Educated-100 = 200

In this paper, a case study approach was adopted (Yin, 1994; Stake, 1995; Bowling, 2002). Triangulation was employed to improve the quality of data (Silverman, 2006; Mack et al., 2005; Maxwell, 2005). For this reason, data was collected from questionnaires, face-to-face key informant interviews, reports, focus group discussions (FGDs), and other secondary sources. The composition of the FGDs was made up of both males and females. In all, four (4)

separate FGDs were held, with each FGD held in each district (Lamashegu, Nyohini, Tishigu, & Zogbeli) and the number of people in each FGD ranged from nine (9) to eleven (11). According to Tsiboe (2004), this technique of data collection is suitable if the objective of the research is to examine the experiences and opinions of a section of the population about some specific issues connected to their environment. The respondents who were involved in the FGD included parents who had never attended school and parents who had never attended school.

The key informant in-depth face-to-face interview was employed to enable the researcher to capture ancillary information relevant to the study and to also ascertain the precision of the secondary materials that were used in this study. Note-taking and audio recording took place during the in-depth face-to-face interview as well as the FGDs. According to Walliman (2006) audio recording during interviews is critical because it preserves and maintains a complete and uninterrupted recording of what has been said and as a tool to test out against researcher's bias. The respondents who were involved in the in-depth interview were purposively sampled and included teachers, representatives from the Ministry of Education, community opinion leaders, and representatives from Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). The researchers collected both quantitative and qualitative data. In terms of data analysis, the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) and Nvivo were used.

2.3 Theoretical Model and Analysis

In conducting this study, a cross-tabulation and a Chi-Squared Test of Independence were conducted to measure two independent and dependent variables. The objective was to determine whether there were any significant differences between the educational status of parents and their belief and confidence in the ability of girls to attend and complete school. The equation for computing the Chi-Square value is given as;

$$x^2 = \sum \frac{(fo - fe)^2}{fe}$$

Where:

$\sum$= *Sum across all categories of the variable*

fo= observed frequency

fe= expected frequency

Therefore the final equation is presented as;

$$x^2 = \frac{\sum(\text{observed} - \text{expected})^2}{\text{expected}}$$

2.3.1 Hypothesis

$\boldsymbol{H_0}$ = There are no significant differences or relationships between parents' educational status

and their belief and confidence in whether girls can attend, excel, and complete school.

$\boldsymbol{H_1}$= H_0 is not true (two-tail)

Where;

$\boldsymbol{H_0}$ refers to the null hypothesis and

$\boldsymbol{H_1}$ refers to the alternative hypothesis

In this study, we used a significant value $(\propto -\text{alpha})$ of 0.05 to test the significance of the results generated from the chi-square. Therefore;

If $p < 0.05$ then we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate (There are no differences).

If $p > 0.05$ then we fail to reject the null hypothesis

In this study, *df* is referred to as the "degree of freedom" and is defined as N – 1, that is the number of items in the group minus one (1) restriction (Opoku, 2006).

2.3.2 Test of Validity

From the chi-square analysis used in this study, the results show that 0 cells (.0%) have expected counts less than 5. This means that we have not violated the minimum expected cell frequency of five (5) which will make the chi-square test inaccurate. The minimum expected count was 10.00 (see Table 2). Again, from the chi-square analysis conducted, the Continuity Correction significance value (.438) and the Fisher's Exact Test significance value (.439) are all less than the significant value $(\propto)$ of 0.05. This makes the chi-square analysis accurate since the p-value of the results generated is also less than 0.05 (see Table 2).

3. Results and Discussions

A total of two hundred respondents were involved in this study. About 87 percent of the respondents, who had ever attended school before believed that girls could attend and complete school. However, about 74 percent, representing 13 percent of the respondents had a contrary view. Within the sampled population of respondents who had never been to school before, 40 percent of them did not share the view that girls could attend, excel, and complete school. In general, the number of people within the different educational status groups who believed that girls could attend, excel or complete school was more than those who said no. The bar graph (Figure 3) below shows the actual educational distribution and responses of the respondents.

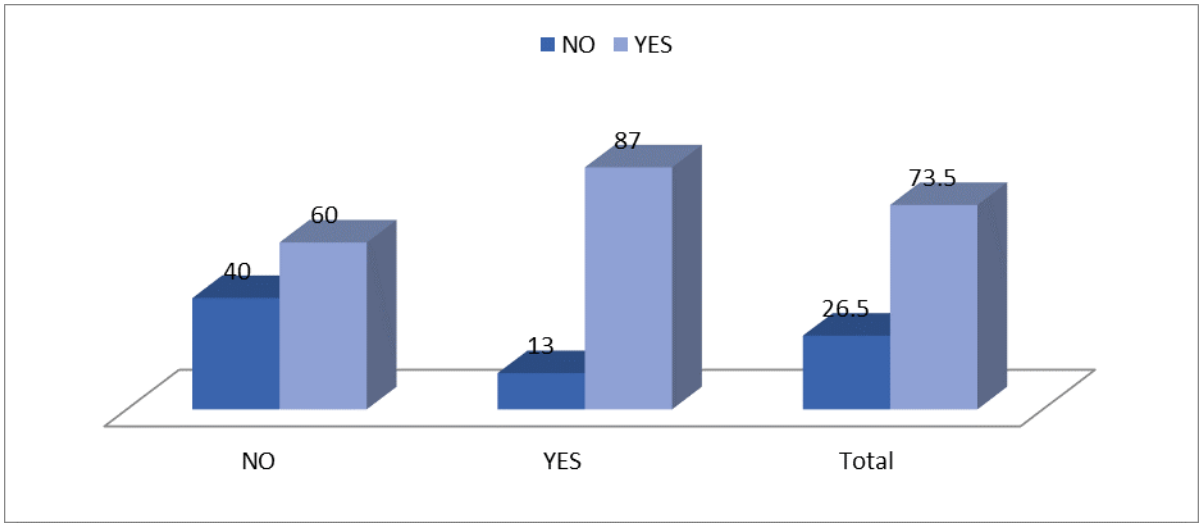


Figure 3. Respondents' views about girls' ability to attend and complete school

The disparities among respondents who had ever attended school before were higher than the respondents who had never attended school before. Some of the factors that accounted for this disparity were the level of exposure and experience of some of the respondents. For instance, respondents who had ever traveled outside their communities were quite conceived that girls could attend, excel, or complete school. Culture, religious myths, and personal beliefs had little influence on the choice of the respondents who had never attended school before. Even though the majority of the respondents who had ever attended school before (71%) believed and had confidence that girls could attend, excel, and complete school, a significant number which is about 29 percent did not support this view. The majority of these respondents were women who dropped out of school as a result of pecuniary and environmental factors. Among the 71 percent of respondents who believed that girls could attend and complete school, about one-third argued that even though girls could attend, excel, and complete school, they still required support from the house, school, and from government.

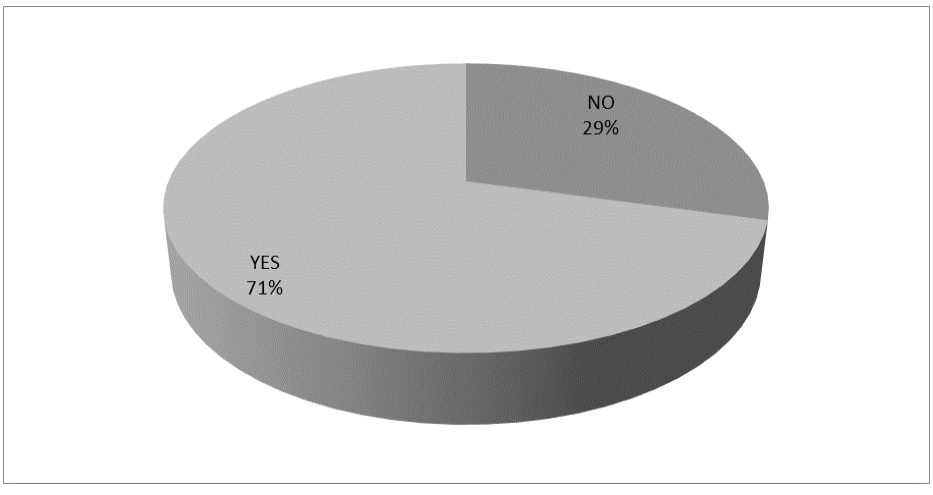


Figure 4. Distribution of views of respondents who had ever attended school

The disparity in views among the respondents who had never attended school before was low. That is, within the sampled population of respondents who had not attended school before, less than half of the population representing about 35 percent of them believed that girls could attend, excel, and complete school. During the FGDs, it was revealed that even though these respondents had never attended school before their views were generally influenced by educational campaigns and advertisements on radio and television. Government officials from the Ministry of Education, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), and Faith-Based Organisations have also played a major role in constructing the belief and confidence that these respondents (35%) espoused. Other factors included the attitude of educated women in the communities. For instance, female community health nurses and teachers were found to have had a very strong influence on the decisions of these respondents. The figure (Figure 5) below shows the distribution of views of respondents who had never attended school before.

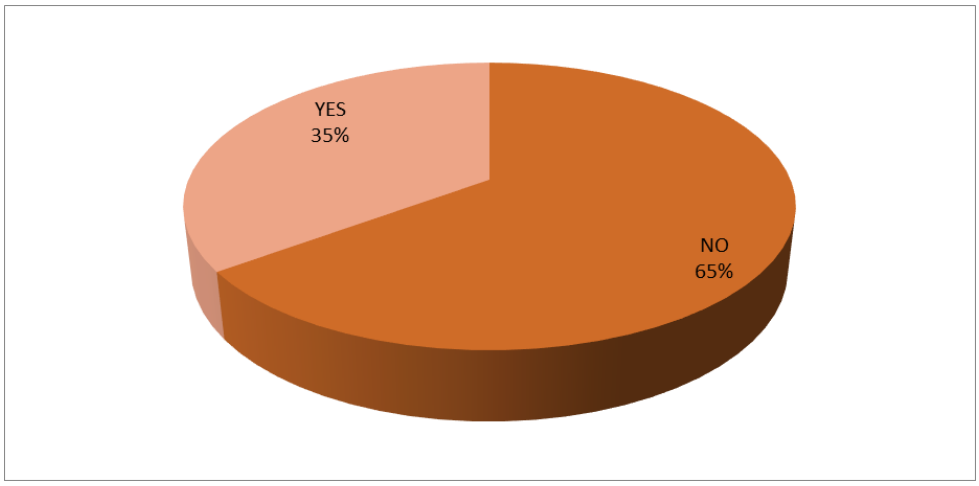


Figure 5. Distribution of views of respondents who had never attended school

Religious and cultural factors were found to be very strong forces that bigoted the belief and confidence of about 70 percent of the respondents who had never attended school before. These respondents had developed a biased attitude towards girls' education based on their religion, culture, and personal belief systems. The study revealed that religion, culture, and personal belief systems have provided an emplacement where the level and rate of girls' acquisition of formal education is vexed in the Northern region of Ghana. Other conventional and environmental factors such as poverty, teacher's attitude, household chores, farm labour requirements, peer pressure, pregnancy, lack of confidence among girls, single parenting, low motivation, early marriage, low level of concentration, and child promiscuity also influenced the views of the respondents who had never attended school before. Among these factors, early marriage, teenage pregnancy, child promiscuity, and low concentration were the major driving forces that influenced the views of the respondents who had never attended school before.

Even though there was evidence of improved infrastructure, increased funding, food rationing

for retention, capacity building, and provision of free exercise books, uniforms, and bicycles for girls inter alia, these improvements did not have any influence on the respondents who had never attended school before. This was because, over some time, a high belief bias syndrome and low confidence had developed among the respondents thus evaporating the significant contributions and intervention by stakeholders. To suffice, culture, religion, personal beliefs and evidence of high school dropout among girls have conspired to cement a very high belief bias syndrome and low confidence among the respondents who have never attended school before.

3.1 Test of Hypothesis

The chi-square test revealed that X^2 (1, N = 200) = 18.714, p = .000. This means a chi-square with one (1) degree of freedom is equal to 18.714, with a *p*-value of = .000 from a sampled population of two hundred (200) respondents. A Chi-square Pearson value of 18.714 at 1 degree of freedom at a significant value $(\propto)$ of .000. Table 2 shows the chi-square analysis of the study.

Table 2. Chi-square analysis

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	18.714[a]	1	.000		
Continuity Correction	17.353	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	19.409	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
N of Valid Cases[b]	200				

a. 0 cells (.0%) have an expected count of less than 5. The minimum expected count is 26.50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

From the chi-square test (Table. 2) $X^2_{(2)}$ = 18.714, the *p*-value is significant (two-tailed). Thus, with 1 *df*, the Pearson value associated with the computed chi-square value is .000 from a two-tailed sampled test (2 × 2). The significant value (alpha) of the chi-square test of.000 is less than 0.05 and this means that there is sufficient evidence to conclude that there were significant relationships between parents' educational status and parents' belief about whether girls can attend, excel, and complete school. Since the significant value of .000 is less (<) 0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. Therefore, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected at the 0.05 level of significance. Thus, the alternate hypothesis (H_1) is rather retained. Similarly, since .000 < 0.05, the null hypothesis is rejected and therefore we can safely conclude that the two values that is parents' educational status and parents' belief and confidence about whether girls could attend, excel, and complete school are significantly related or dependent. The significant value of .000 obtained from the chi-square test (table 2) revealed that the

responses are very strong.

Positive parental attitudes toward education, including beliefs in the value of schooling for girls, have a favorable impact on girls' educational engagement and achievement. Conversely, negative parental attitudes, such as gender bias or skepticism about girls' academic abilities, can hinder girls' access to education and limit their educational opportunities. Active parental involvement in school-related activities, such as parent-teacher meetings, homework assistance, and educational advocacy, contributes to girls' academic success and school retention. Parental engagement fosters a supportive learning environment and reinforces the importance of education in the family. In practical terms, parents who attend school are more likely to have confidence and belief (positive belief) that girls can attend, excel, and complete school than parents who do not attend school (negative belief). This goes to establish the fact that parents' educational status has a very high influence on parents' beliefs, level of confidence, and perception about girls' abilities, capabilities, and success in formal education.

To suffice, apart from the fact that the international community and governments have made significant contributions to accelerate access and enrolment in formal education, they have also been making gargantuan contributions to increase retention, transition rate, and completion rate of girls. However, in doing this, critical attention is not placed on dealing with the parental factors that are factors that affect parents' perception and willingness to take girls to school. This represents a lack of appreciation of the complex nature of the problem or a sheer lack of a comprehensive approach to ensuring that girls can attend and progress up the educational ladder to completion. The findings underscore the multifaceted influence of parental factors on girls' education and highlight the importance of addressing parental dynamics in efforts to promote educational equity and gender equality. Strategies to enhance parental support for girls' education may include targeted interventions to increase parental awareness, provide resources for educational expenses, and challenge gender stereotypes and biases. Moreover, policies aimed at improving parental engagement in schooling, strengthening community partnerships, and addressing socioeconomic inequalities are essential for creating an enabling environment for girls' education. Further research is needed to explore the nuanced interactions between parental factors, contextual influences, and girls' educational outcomes across diverse cultural and socioeconomic contexts.

4. Conclusion and Recommendation

Parental factors exert a profound influence on girls' education, shaping their access to schooling, academic achievement, and educational attainment. Understanding the complex interplay between parental characteristics, attitudes, behaviours, and socioeconomic status is crucial for designing effective interventions and policies to promote girls' education and empower girls to reach their full potential. By addressing barriers related to parental dynamics and fostering supportive family environments, stakeholders can contribute to advancing educational equity and fostering gender-inclusive education systems. Globally, even though it has been extensively argued that girls have the ability and capacity to excel or complete school, some people do not share this view. The significance of this study is potted within the fact that even in the wake of mounting evidence of the contribution of educated

women and distinguished women in government and other high-profile positions, there are still some parents who strongly hold the view that girls cannot attend, excel, and complete school. The trajectory of this view is hauled on religious, cultural, experience, illiteracy, and personal belief systems of parents, particularly of parents who have never attended school before. Efforts to address the problem of school attendance, transition, and completion of girls must be a holistic approach targeted at incorporating all aspects and factors that affect girls' school completion. Of particular importance but often ignored is the educational status of parents.

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