UNIJERPS
Unizik Journal of Educational Research and Policy Studies VOL.19 (3);
January-June, 2025 https://unijerps.org
2023 Impact Factor: **6.834;** 2022 ***Impact Factor***: 5.156; ***2021 Impact Factor: 5.641;***
2020 Impact Factor: 5.355. *Indexing and Impact Factor URL: http://sjifactor.com/passport.php?id=21363*

GENDER PARITY AND EQUITABLE EDUCATION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Prof. Georgina Yaa Oduro
Department of Sociology and Anthropology
University of Cape Coast - Ghana

ABSTRACT

One fundamental principle underlying the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), as contained in the United Nation's 2030 Agenda, is to make life meaningful to everybody. Hence, SDG 4 enjoins governments to provide "inclusive and equitable quality education at all levels," and ensure that "all people, irrespective of sex, age, race, colour, ethnicity" and "persons with disabilities, migrants, indigenous peoples, and children and youth, especially those in vulnerable situations or other status, gain access to inclusive, equitable, quality education and life-long learning opportunities." SDG 5 also seeks to "achieve gender equality and empower all women and girls" by eliminating the root causes of discrimination that suppresses women's rights in private and public spheres. This paper interrogates how African countries are promoting gender parity and equitable education for the purpose of sustainable development.

Keywords: Gender Parity; Equitable Education; Sustainable Development

Introduction

A 1998 Sustainable Development Education Panel Report of the United Nations also states that ESD is all about 'the learning needed to maintain and improve our quality of life and the quality of life of generations to come'. It facilitates the acquisition of requisite knowledge, values and skills for individuals' participation in decisions and activities that will "improve the quality of life now without damaging the planet for the future." Thus, ESD is that type of education that prepares individuals and strengthens institutions to withstand emergency events (such as we experienced with the CoVID-19 pandemic which disorganised all human and institutional activities), climate change, poverty reduction and sustainable consumption. It builds resilience to sustain the development of skills for the continent and beyond." According to UNESCO (2014), "Education for Sustainable Development allows every human being to acquire the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary to shape a sustainable future". Such type of education requires participatory teaching and learning methods that promotes competencies like critical thinking, creativity, and collaborative decision-making skills necessary for building resilience to sustain environmental, economic and social development.

Why Gender Parity and Equitable Education?

I respond to this question by arguing that there cannot be any sustainable development without gender parity and equitable education. But what is Gender, how different is it from sex? The words *gender* and *sex* have a long and intertwined history. Gender unlike sex is a social construct while sex is biological and mainly defined by one's physique and genitalia. Gender is a social attribute linked to society and therefore varies from culture to culture and over time.

Tischler (2007) sums up the definition of gender as the meaning and attributes societies assign to the social condition of being either a man or a woman. The UN Women (2020) also defines gender as socially constructed differences in attributes and opportunities associated with being female or male and the social interactions and relations between women and men. Gender is the product of social organisation and it determines what is expected, allowed and valued in a woman or a man in particular contexts. Sex on the other hand refers to biological features such as *hormones*, chromosomes (XX/XY), *sex organs*, and *biological sex* thereby highlighting the sexual dimorphism (Pierce, 2012; Leonard, 2013; O Connor, 2017).

Gender parity in education refers to 'equivalent percentages of males and females in an education system relative to the population per age group (UNICEF, 2020). Gender parity seeks to achieve equal participation of girls and boys in all forms of education based on their proportion in the relevant age-groups in a particular population. Within the field of sociology, gender parity is generally understood to refer to a binary distinction between people based on identity and sex differences and the unique opportunities available to them (Little, 2014). An equitable education on the other hand, is a process of education that ensures that students are supported to achieve their full educational potential and develop a sense of belonging and self-worth, irrespective of their personal and social circumstances (OECD Education Working Papers, 2012, No. 260)

There is no doubt that quality education plays a crucial role in developing in individuals the knowledge, skills and character necessary for contributing to development of countries. It is in recognition of this crucial role that the late South African President, Nelson Mandela, observed that *"Education is the most powerful weapon, which you can use to change the world"*. Similarly, the Late Kofi Annan (former Secretary-General of the United Nations), observed that "Education is a human right with immense power to transform. On its foundation rests the cornerstones of freedom, democracy and sustainable human development" (cited in Oduro, 2017).

The pivotal role played by education in sustainable development is the reason why as far back as 1948, the Universal Declaration of Human Rights articulated that, "Everyone has the right to education". Similarly, declarations in Conventions such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the 1960 UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education and the 1990

Jontiem pronouncement on Education For All (EFA) recognise the right of the child to education with emphasis on equity and inclusion. These are declarations that most African countries have ratified and adopted leading to the provision of varied forms of free and compulsory education at the pre-tertiary education levels. Article 25 (1) of my own country , Ghana's Constitution, for example, articulates that "All persons shall have the right to equal educational opportunities and facilities and with a view to achieving the full realization of that right, (a) basic education shall be free, compulsory and available to all (b) secondary education in its different forms, including technical and vocational education, shall be made generally available and accessible to all by every appropriate means, and in particular, by the progressive introduction of free education and (c) higher education shall be made equally accessible to all, on the basis of capacity, by every appropriate means, and in particular, by progressive introduction of free education.

Gendered Context and Associated Barriers to Equitable Education

The above ratifications notwithstanding, countries in Africa continue to experience gender disparities and inequitable access to education. A report by the African Commission (AUC) and UNESCO (2023), for example, testifies to inequality and exclusion in education and identified factors such as household poverty, harmful cultural practices, forced migration and limited schooling infrastructure as impediments to equitable schooling among children. The Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA, 2022) also noted that 'unequal domestic burden and gender relations, coupled with issues of affordability and infrastructure, and the sexualisation of the girl child, challenges with gendered subjects as well of the little involvement of women in leadership remain key challenges to equity and improving inclusion and equity for learners in vulnerable populations'.

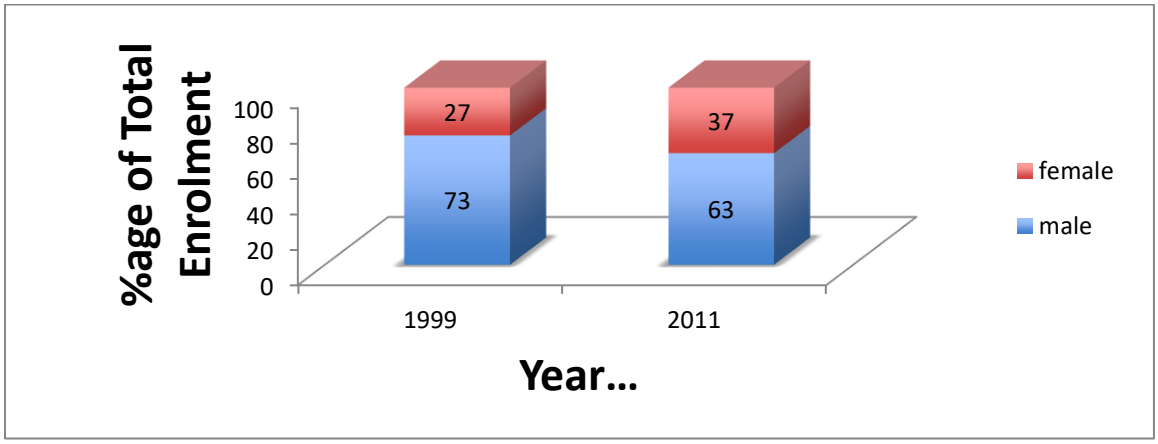
For example, while sub-Saharan Africa is credited with enormous progress in expanding access at the basic school level, secondary education remains a challenge with enrolment rates at only 43.6% in the region (World Bank, 2019). Linked to this is the challenge of school dropout mostly affecting girls' completion of school as a result of the 'leaky pipeline syndrome'. A report of the International Growth Center, IGC (2022), for example, suggests that less than 15% of girls in the Central African Republic, Chad, and South Sudan and less than 30% in Angola, Equatorial Guinea, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Malawi, Mali, Niger, and Uganda are able to complete their lower secondary education. In Ghana, a Multiple Indicator Cluster Survey Six (MICS 6) conducted in 2017/18 by the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS) shows that 25% of youth who should be in Senior High School (SHS) were not in school. At the primary school level, 19% of the number of school-going children were out of school. The report stated that by 2012, only 24 per cent were attending school and projected that 15 per cent of girls were at risk of dropping out of primary school (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019). The Ghana Education Fact Sheet,

(2020) also shows that 71% and 83%, respectively complete at the primary and junior high schools while less than 50% of senior high school students complete.

The low completion rate of girls is attributed to factors such as early marriage and pregnancy, poverty, sexual harassment and other varied barriers (Adu-Yeboah, Oduro & Takyiakwaa, 2021; Oduro, 2017 & Oduro & Oti-Amoah, 2023). Adolescent pregnancy statistics from 2017 show that 14 percent of girls in Ghana aged from 15 to 19 have at least one child (Ghana Statistical Service, 2019). Obviously, the low completion rate at the secondary education level contributes to girls' under representation at the post-secondary education level compared to boys (UNESCO, 2015) and adversely affects female access to high skilled jobs. As articulated by Friedman et al. (2016), it is only when girls are encouraged to complete education at all levels of education that we can assure their empowerment.

Data from Ghana's National Council for Tertiary Education (NCTE) now the Ghana Tertiary Education Council (GTEC), for example (see Figure 1 below), reveal differences in the enrolment of women (27%) in higher education compared to 73% of men in 1999 in Ghana. The number improved to 37% for women in 2011 against 63% for men. This was maintained in 2013/2014 academic year. Though there has been some improvement over the years, estimates still quote about 40% female enrolment in tertiary education against 60% male presence. This improvement though commendable, is far from the global trend where gender parity index in higher education is1.08 in favour of women (Adu-Yeboah & Forde, 2011; UNESCO, 2009).

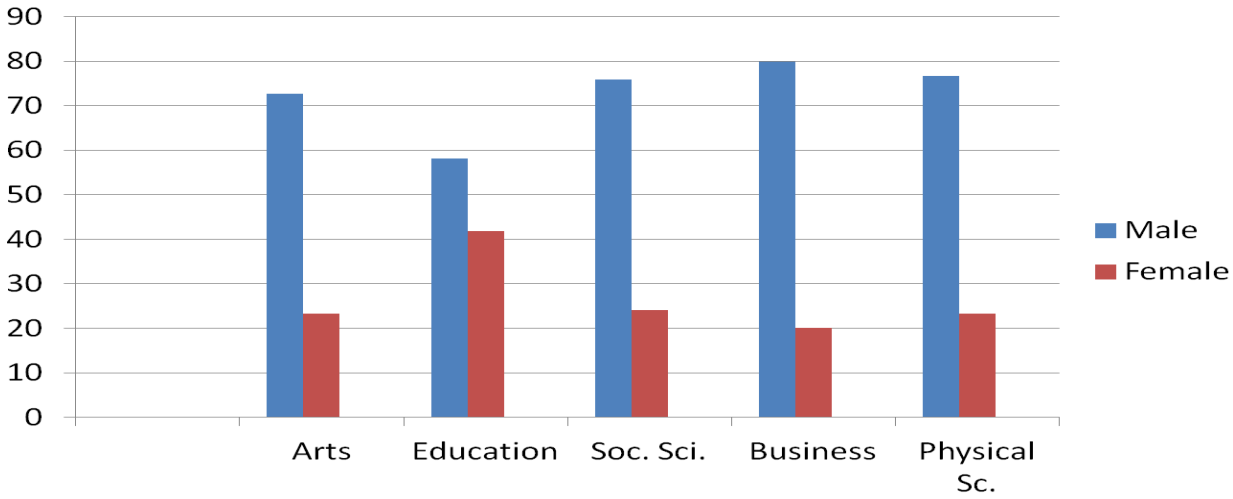
Figure 1: Gendered enrolment in public universities in Ghana in 1999 and 2011



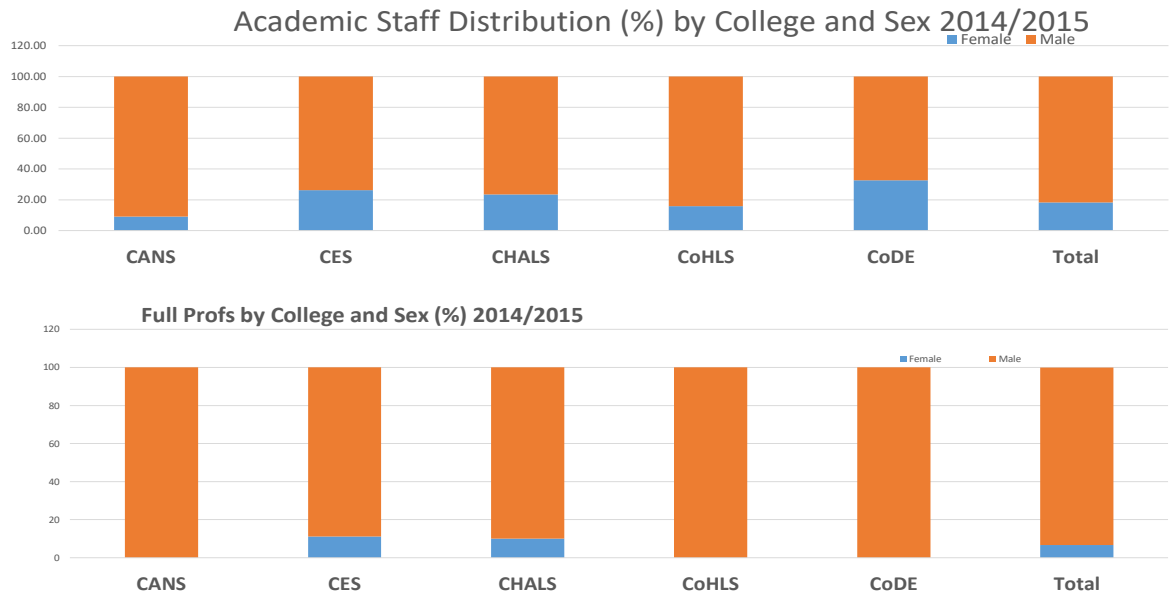
Source: National Council for Tertiary Education (2012)

Data from the University of Cape Coast (UCC) also reveals gross gender disparities at all levels among students and faculty. Enrolment among graduate student is illustrated in figure 2 below:

Figure 2: UCC Graduate Student Enrolment by Gender for 2012/2013 Academic Year.



(Britwum, Oduro and Prah, 2014; Adusah-Karikari, 2008; Daddieh, 2003).



Source: Basic Statistics, 2016; UCC Data Processing Unit

The small female presence in the higher educational sector has repercussions for leadership positions in these institutions. A study by Adu-Yeboah, Oduro and Takyiakwaa (2021) on female participation in higher educational leadership in the Ghanaian context also revealed the few involvements of women at that level and questioned whether their involvement was a matter of representation or tokenism. From the experiences of the women in tertiary educational leadership, they recounted how their meticulousness and high levels of productivity and skills plus enormous workloads are often unappreciated by their male colleagues. Unsurprisingly, these responsibilities were coupled with women's reproductive and productive roles in Ghana's gender stereotypical culture and patriarchal context.

It is, however, worthy to note some few achievements with female leadership in the higher education landscape in Ghana. The University of Cape Coast had the very first female Vice-Chancelor in Ghana from 2008 to 2012 in the person of Prof. Jane Naana Opoku-Agyemang and this feat was well celebrated by feminists and women activists in Ghana and beyond. Luckily, we are seeing a few more female leaders in the higher education sector in the country with the university of Ghana recording two female Student Representative Council (SRC) presidents in the persons of Ms. Louise Carol Serwa Donkor in 2007 and Ms. Esinam Afi Seade for the 2016/2017 academic year and Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology also currently enjoying the services of its first female student leader in the person of Ms. Yvonne Osei Adobea. Similar to the student body, more ladies are being recorded in the academic space and institutional leadership landscape of Ghana since Prof. Naana Jane Opoku Agyemang's feat. Examples can be mentioned of the first female Vice-Chancellor of the young University of Energy and Natural Resources (UENR) at Fiapre in the Brong Ahafo Region (Prof. Esi Awuah) and Prof. Smile Dzisi, the first female Rector of a polytechnic (now Technical University) in Ghana, specifically, the Koforidua Technical University, the current first female Vice-Chancellors of the oldest university in Ghana at Legon-Accra, the University of Health and Allied Sciences (UHAS) at Ho in the Volta Region and the Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST) also at Kumasi in Ghana.

Coupled with the subject of women and leadership in higher education is the phenomenon of gendered subjects. Though both male and female children are introduced to the same subjects upon entry into the school system, it is common to find female and male dominance in some subjects and courses as they climb the educational ladder informed by sociobiological explanations. The practice of male and female dominance and preference in some subjects as a result of interest, coercion, ability and/or strength is known as pursuing gendered subjects. Becky Francis (2000) in her article entitled, '*The Gendered Subjects: students' preferences and discussions of gender and subject ability'* examined gender and subject selection extensively and concluded that it is common to find more females in the humanities and

social sciences while their male counterparts dominate in STEM though the trend is gradually changing. Aidoo (1995) attributes these gendered subjects to socialisation and the influence of colonisation.

The colonial masters among other things, promoted cash crop farming/agriculture and other 'hard' subjects for males and home economics and 'soft' courses for the females for various reasons - a legacy that has stayed with us till today. In fact, these gendered subjects reflect in courses read at the secondary and tertiary educational levels including interest in TVET and related courses per gender lines. Francis (2000) also observed that these gendered subjects are framed by power and status symbols with the male dominated subjects often associated with objectivity, hardness and rationality while the female subjects are perceived as subjective, emotion-laden and soft.

In trying to encourage more women in some of these 'hard' subjects, Ghana introduced the 'Science, Technology, Mathematics and Engineering (STME) workshops in 1987 in second cycle schools throughout the country with a special focus on females. These interventions have had some positive impact on girls' participation in science and mathematics at the university level. Current statistics from the various universities and other tertiary institutions in the country show increasing numbers in female enrolment in traditional science biased courses such as medicine and engineering as well as STEM related jobs (see UCC Basic Statistics, 2016; Herschberg & Berger, 2025; Amponsah & Mohammed, 2019; Stemwomen, 2023).

Gender stereotypes and socio-cultural constructs that define women and girls and limit their access and progression in education are also of interest to this paper in our quest to promote gender parity and equitable education for sustainable development. Adu-Yeboah and Forde (2011), Adu-Yeboah (2015) and Oduro (2017) in separate writings have examined the challenges posed by the reproductive role of women who continue to shoulder the greater burden of care roles and domestic chores. As Daddieh (2003), Adusah-Karikari (2008) and Kissi & Issaka (2023) observed, girls socialisation in Ghana and most African countries stress marriage and motherhood as the primary goals in life and these get deeply ingrained in them by the time, they reach adulthood. Thus, women grow knowing the value of marriage and motherhood which sometimes cause some to sacrifice opportunities for further studies and higher education. In this regard, women and girls tend to be disadvantaged in decisions regarding limited resources and prioritisation of education. Women and girls are often socialised with gender roles and norms that limit their access and participation in the public sphere but rather prepare them for marriage and the private sphere (Kuenyehia, 1995; Prah, 2002; Oduro & Oti-Amoah, 2023). Such feminine roles are seen as not requiring formal education, whereas men who are associated with breadwinning roles are offered formal education to enable them perform their roles effectively (ibid.). Within such a context, female education is often sacrificed in favour of male education with its attendant challenges.

Additionally, excessive household chores and hawking by girls after school that prevent them from resting, enjoying leisure or studying compared to their brothers also need our attention in the quest to promote equitable education and gender parity. Since this tend to have a rippling effect towards female education especially to the higher levels since girls who are introduced to early trading and hawking often prioritize business and trading over pursuing further studies. Different studies by Adu-Yeboah and Forde (2011), Esia-Donkor (2012), and Oduro (2017) further shows that mature students who double as mothers especially at the higher educational level experience serious role conflicts which affects their studies and disadvantaged them academically compared to their male counterparts.

Sexualisation, sexual objectification and/or the practice of seeing women/girls first as sexual beings before valuing their other capabilities has attracted much research attention (Morley, 2011; Britwum and Anokye, 2006; Oduro and Oti Amoah, 2023). This situation can affect girls' academic performance and progression. For example, it is common to have headlines such as 'BECE[1] and pregnant candidates', 'high rates of pregnant candidates at the just ended BECE', 'teenage pregnancy impeding girls' education in Ghana', 'allow pregnant students to write their BECE', 'be patient with teenagers who become pregnant' and many more in both print and oral media during Ghana's Basic Education Certificate Examinations (BECE). Such headlines attest to the challenge with managing the sexuality of young women and girls in our schools. It also confirms recent report by the Population Reference Bureau on health in Sub Saharan Africa, which ranked Ghana as the number one leader in unwanted or "mistimed" teenage pregnancies (Ringheim and Gribble, 2010). Of further concern is how these pregnancies affect the education of women and girls. Does it affect the boys and men who impregnate the young women/girls too? Also, how many of these pregnant girls are able to continue their education after delivery, or rather, how many may risk their life to have unsafe abortion with its associated consequences? What are the implications for sustainable development? It is therefore not surprising that some parents prefer to educate their sons instead of daughters due to the risk of teenage pregnancy and associated 'negative' investment.

In fact, the issue of sexual objectification and harassment is not limited to the basic and second cycle levels as it pertains at the tertiary educational level too. Britwum and Anokye (2006) as well as Morley (2011) in different works have examined the pervasive nature of sexual harassment within Ghanaian and Tanzanian universities. In their views, such unwelcome sexual advances and touches are perpetuated by male faculty and students within a macho culture and politics

[1]BECE refers to Basic Education Certificate Examination. It is an examination undertaken in Ghana at the end of 9 years of basic education and paves access to secondary education.

of male conquest. According to Morley (2011), sexual exploitations and moral corruptions are informed by the hierarchical and gendered power relations by which some institutions have naturalised a sexual contract where some male lecturers consider it a right to demand sex from female students in return for grades. Such abuses are definitely dehumanising and an affront to the academic potentials of women with ultimate implication for sustainable development.

Further, menstruation challenges, lack of washrooms and/or hygienic washrooms in some schools as well as the lack of sanitary pads for some girls and women go a long way to impact female sexuality and causes reproductive health challenges that impede the quality of education and equitable educational experiences for some girls and women with devastating developmental and human right challenges (Dolphyne, 1991; Lambert, Perrino & Barreras, 2012). Having highlighted all these challenges and their implications for quality and equitable education, of interest is, how do we forge ahead?

Ensuring Gender Parity, Equitable Education and Sustainable Development: The Way Forward

Sustainable development according to the United Nations Brundtland Report (1987), is "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." Sustainable development is “people-centered and planet-sensitive”, guided by values of equal rights and social justice, enabled by proactive states and well-functioning institutions, and shaped through the participation of empowered populations. It is the process of establishing a trajectory of equitable human development that allows all people to exercise their choices and meet their aspirations without discrimination which also reflects tenets of gender justice and equitable education. In its quest to ensure total development, the UN through its MDG goals and SDGs goals have focused on women and girls with MDG Goal 3 specifically promoting gender equality and empowering women, while SDG goal 5 aims at achieving gender equality and empowering all women and girls. Both goals aim at a “universal, transformative, and integrated development agenda” for the global community with particular attention on women and girls. In this regard, nations and states have put in place mechanisms and policies to promote gender parity and equitable education including the introduction of the free senior high school policy in Ghana in 2017 by the Akuffo-Addo government. This policy has contributed to an increase in access and enrolment for both males and females at the second cycle levels. However, there have been discussions on the extent to which it has promoted equity and quality issues in education thereby ultimately ensuring sustainable development.

Also, although most countries in Africa have adopted conventions that mandate them to implement and ensure gender parity and equitable education, with additional provisions and requirements for equal opportunity and non-discriminatory practices in their Constitutions, the political will to

enforce implementation of such provisions have been challenging. Governments should therefore be intentional with the implementation of inclusive education policies by practically removing cultural and social practices that tend to suppress girls' completion of education. As identified by the Global Education Monitoring Report (GEMR) of 2022, governments should invest more in school with appropriate infrastructure, sensitive and responsive teacher education that ensures that children gain access to subject teachers irrespective of the location of schools; adequate teaching and learning materials and make quality education realistically accessible to all.

Conscious efforts should be made towards the implementation of ADEA's 2022 declaration to "build sustainable pedagogical interventions through mentorship and shadow practices and encourage the use of the Gender-Responsive Pedagogy (GRP) toolkit for teachers, trainers and leaders to facilitate access, equity, and quality education." The Gender Responsive Pedagogy (GRP) model developed by the Forum for African Women Educationalists (FAWE) is a good example that addresses gender issues in the delivery of quality teaching in most African schools.

Conclusion

I find Kimberle Crenshaw's (2013) intersectionality theory critical and useful in helping us to explain the intersectional barriers and challenges faced by many women and girls in their quest to enjoy quality, inclusive and equitable education as we have seen in the previous sections. Crenshaw (ibid) defines intersectionality as "the complex, cumulative manner in which the effects of different forms of discrimination combine, overlap, or intersect" to amplify each other to create a unique experience of discrimination or marginalisation for people. Hence, in our quest to ensure gender parity, the enjoyment of equitable education and ultimately, promote sustainable development, we need to consciously operationalise SDGs 4 and 5 on quality education and gender equality by empowering all women and girls by drawing on the targets, suggestions and procedures of the sustainable development goals.

As observed by two renowned Ghanaians or rather African statesmen, the late former UN Secretary General, Kofi Annan, and Africa's renowned educationist, Dr. Kwegyir-Aggrey, investing in women's capabilities and empowering them in their choices is the vital and certain way to advance social, economic and political development. This viewpoint attests to the empowering nature of female education. Thus, female education is invested with intergenerational gains, socio-economic returns, female agency, capabilities, poverty reduction synergies and human capital approaches (see Patrinos, 2008; Kabeer, 2005). The provision of female education does not just make women efficient but also empowers them in various fields. Studies by various researchers (Morley, 2011; Kabeer 2005; Patrinos 2008) all reported that female education does not only prevent early marriages among girls but also help reduce women's fertility and give them control over their bodies. Accordingly, highly educated

female population is key to lowering infant, child and maternal mortality rates. Education increases women's participation in the labour force and helps improve their earnings. It lifts them from total male dependence to self-reliance and enables them to support their families with huge inter-generational benefits and socio-economic returns.

Informed by the aforementioned reasons and highlighting the urgency in promoting gender parity and equitable education for sustainable development, I wish to join the UN Secretary General, António Guterres with his observation that, "Gender parity ….. is an urgent need and a personal priority. It is a moral duty and an operational necessity. The meaningful inclusion of women in decision-making increases effectiveness and productivity, brings new perspectives and solutions to the table, unlocks greater resources, and strengthens efforts across all … pillars of work." Gender parity should ensure that the same proportion of girls and boys enter but also complete their education and not fall off on the way due to some of the challenges highlighted above.

REFERENCES

Adusah-Karikari, A. (2008). Experiences of Women in Higher Education: A Study of Women Faculty and Administrators in Selected Universities in Ghana. PhD dissertation, College of Education, Ohio University, USA. Available at https://etd.ohiolink.edu/ietd.send_file?accession=ohiou1210704502&disposition=inline. Accessed on 28/09/2016

Adu-Yeboah, C., Oduro, G. Y., &Takyiakwaa, D. (2021). Women's leadership in Ghanaian higher education: a matter of tokenism, equality, or equity. *Women's representation in higher education leadership around the world: International perspectives. International briefs for higher education leaders*, (9), 18-20.

Adu-Yeboah, C. (2015). Mature Women Students' Experiences of Social and Academic Support in Higher Education: A Systematic Review. *Journal of Education and Training*. Vol. 2(2). Available at http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/jet.v2i2.7511

Adu-Yeboah, C. & Forde, L. D. (2011). Returning to study in higher education in Ghana: experiences of mature undergraduate women. Research in Comparative and International Education. Vol. 6(4): 404-418.

Aidoo, A. A. (1995). 'Women in the History and Culture of Ghana'. In

Mansah Prah (Ed.) *Women's Studies with a Focus on Ghana: Selected Readings*. Schriesheim, Germany: Books onAfrican Studies. Pp. 206 – 226

Amponsah, D. K. & Mohammed, M. S. (2019). Perception of learning science: the
case of females offering STEM majors in Ghana. African Journal of Educational Studies in Mathematics and Sciences Vol. 15, No. 2., 2019

Antwi, M. K. (1992). *Education, Society and Development in Ghana*. Accra, Unimax
Publishers Ltd.

Britwum, A. O. & Anokye, N. A., 2006. *Confronting sexual harassment in Ghanaian*
universities. Accra, Ghana Universities Press.

Britwum, A. O., Oduro, G. Y., & Prah, M. (2014): Institutionalising Gender and Women's Studies at the University of Cape Coast in Ghana. *Rwandan Journal of Education*. 2 (1).pp. 4-19

Buckler, C., & Creech, H. (2014). Shaping the Future We Want: UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development; final report. UNESCO.

Crenshaw, K. W. (2013). Mapping the margins: Intersectionality, Identity politics, and Violence against Women of Color. In *The Public Nature of Private Violence* (pp. 93-118). Routledge.

Daddieh, C. K. (2003). *Gender Issues in Ghanaian Higer Education*. Occasional Papers No. 36. The Institute of Economic Affairs: Accra, Ghana

Dolphyne, F. A. (1991). *The emancipation of women: An African perspective*.

Esia-Donkoh, K. (2011). Child-rearing practices among student-mothers at University of Cape Coast, Ghana. Conference paper- web address

Francis, B. (2000). The Gendered Subjects: Students Subject Preference and Discussions if Gender and Subject Ability. *Oxford Review of Education*. Vol. 26 (1): 35-48

Hajian, M., & Kashani, S. J. (2021). Evolution of the concept of sustainability. From Brundtland Report to sustainable development goals. In *Sustainable resource management* (pp. 1-24). Elsevier.

Herschberg, A., & Berger, M. S. (2015). Gender representation in STEM doctorates: Is policy making a difference? Research in Higher Education, 71(2), 221-242.

Kabeer, N. (2005). "Gender Equality And Women's Empowerment: A Critical Analysis Of The Third Millennium Development Goal." *Gender & Development*. Vol.13, (1): 13-24.

King, E. M., & Hill, A. M. (1998). *Women's education in developing countries barriers, benefits, and policies*. Baltimore: Published for the World Bank [by] the Johns Hopkins University Press.

Kissi, B.A. & Issaka, J. (2023). Barriers affecting Retention of Girls in Schools in the Amasaman Circuit in the Ga West Municipality of the Greater Accra Region of Ghana. *Ghana Journal of Geography*, Vol. 15 (2).

Kuenyehia, A. (1995). Women and Law – Current Status of Teaching and Research in Ghana. In M. Prah (Ed) Women in the History and Culture of Ghana'. In Mansah Prah (Ed.) *Women's Studies with a Focus on Ghana: Selected Readings*. Schriesheim, Germany: Books on African Studies. Pp. 90-83

Kutor, N., Forde, L.D., Asamoah, A., Dunne, M., Leach, F., 2005. *School life: gendered experiences in Junior Secondary Schools in Ghana.* Takoradi: St. Francis Press Ltd.

Lambert, M., Perrino, E. S. & Barreras, E. M. (2012*). Understanding the Barriers to Female Education in Ghana.* Retrieved on 25/03/2024 from www.bluekitabu.org/blue-kitabu.../understanding_the_barriers_pdf

Little, W. (2014). *Gender, Sex and Sexuality*. Introduction to Sociology. Compass OpenEd.

Leonard, D. (2013). *Gender & Development* (2nd ed.). London: Routledge.

Oduro, G. Y. (2017). Nursing Mothers and Distance Education: In the Book; *Essays in Honour of Mr. Kobina Koomson.* (Ed). George K. T. Oduro. Sub-Sahara Publishers – Ghana.

Oduro, G. Y., & Amoah, J. O. (2023). 'Why blame the girls'?: Contextual factors enabling juvenile prostitution in a Ghanaian metropolis. *Children & Society*, *37*(6), 1933-1950.

Pierce, S. J. (2012). *Gender and Education.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sage, M. (2022). Gender equality through secondary education in sub-Saharan Africa.ICG/Blog .Athttps://www.theigc.org/blogs/gender-equality/gender-equality-through-secondary-education-sub-saharan-africa

Ministry of Education (2015). Education Statistics, Ghana. Retrieved on 12/09/2016 from www.moe.gov.gh/emis/index.htm

Morley, L. (2005). Gender Equity in Commonwealth Higher Education. *Women's Studies International Forum* 28:209-221

Morley, L. (2011). Sex, Grades and Power in Higher Education in Ghana and Tanzania. In

Cambridge Journal of Education Vol. 41(1):101-115

O Connor, K. (2017). Gender Identity and the Law: A Handbook for Judges and Lawyers. Oxford: Hart Publishing.

OECD (2012). Equity and Quality in Education Supporting Diverse Students at School. Education Working Papers, No. 260 https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/education/equity-and-inclusion-in-education_e9072e21-en

Patrinos, H. (2008). "*Returns to Education: The Gender Perspective*." In Girls' Education in the 21st Century: gender equality, empowerment, and economic growth. Washington DC: World Bank, 2008.

Pierce, S. J. (2012). *Gender and Education.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Prah, M. (2002). Gender Issues in Ghanaian Tertiary Institutions: Women Academics and Administrators in Cape Coast University. *Ghana Studies* Vol. 1:1-53

Ringheim K, Gribble J. (2010). Improving the reproductive health of sub-Saharan. Africa's youth: a route to achieve the millennium development goals. Washington, DC

Stemwomen (2023). Women in STEM Statistics – General Outlook for Female Students. Accessed from https://www.stemwomen.com/women-in-stem-percentages-of-women-in-stem-statistics on 12th March, 2023.

The National Council for Tertiary Education Act of Ghana, Act 454, 1993.

Tischler, H. L. (2007). Introduction to Sociology (9th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

UNESCO (2014). Education for Sustainable Development https://www.unesco.org/en/sustainable-development/education

UNESCO (2016). Ghana Country Report: National Educational For All (EFA) 2015 Review
Report Retrieved on 12/09/2016 unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002314/231429e.pdf

UNESCO (2009). World Conference on Higher Education: The New Dynamics of Higher Education and Research for Societal Change and Development.

UNICEF (n.d). UNICEF in Ghana: Basic Education and Gender Equality. Retrieved on
12/06/2015 from www.unicef.org/wcaro/wcaro_GHA_MTSP2.pdf
UNICEF (2020). Gender parity in education https://www.unicef.org/topics/gender-equality-education.

University of Cape Coast (2016). 2014/2015 *Basic Statistics.* Cape Coast University Press: Ghana
Vaccari, V., & Gardinier, M. P. (2019). Toward one world or many? A comparative analysis of OECD and UNESCO global education policy documents. International Journal of Development Education and Global Learning, 11(1), 68-86.

World Bank. (2015). The World Bank Overview of Tertiary Education. Retrieved on 16/09/2016 from http://www.worldbank.org/en/topic/tertiaryeducation/overview#1
Women, U. N. (2020). The World for Women and Girls Annual Report 2019-2020. Available https://www.unwomen.org/sites/default/files/Headquarters/Attachments/Sections/Library/Publications/2020/UN-Women-annual-report-2019-2020-en.pdf