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# Baseline Survey of the Third Cohort:

## A Supplemental Report from the YouthSave Ghana Experiment

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## Purpose of the Report

This report supplements the Ghana Experiment baseline report (Chowa et al., 2012). It uses baseline survey data from a new cohort of 2,000 youth and 2,000 parents and guardians. This cohort was added in September 2013 to maintain statistical power of the Experiment, because delays in rolling out the youth savings product (treatment) meant that two cohorts from the original sample had either no or very brief (less than a month) exposure. The additional cohort is comprised of 20 randomly selected incoming 7<sup>th</sup>-grade students at each of the 100 schools within the YouthSave Ghana Experiment. This report presents baseline findings of the new cohort.

Baseline data on the additional cohort were collected from September to October 2013 by the Institute of Statistical, Social and Economic Research (ISSER) at the University of Ghana. The youth survey used the same questionnaire from the experiment, which includes questions about demographics, household characteristics, education, health, financial capability, asset ownership, and future aspirations and expectations. The experiment also contains a survey for parents or guardians, which includes questions on household socioeconomic characteristics and youth's education, health, psychosocial, and financial well-being.

### YouthSave Initiative and the Ghana Experiment

The YouthSave Initiative aims to demonstrate and build knowledge on the delivery of savings products and services that may increase savings and assets and improve the life chances of low-income youth in four developing countries: Colombia, Ghana, Kenya, and Nepal. The baseline report (Chowa et al., 2012) contains the details of YouthSave.

### YouthSave Ghana Experiment

The YouthSave Ghana Experiment investigates potential effects of savings on youth development outcomes, including financial, economic, education, health, and psychosocial issues. Study findings seek to address a critical gap in research, knowledge, and practice in the field of youth financial inclusion in developing countries. Details of the experiment can be found in the baseline report (Chowa et al., 2012).

### Reasons for an Additional Cohort in the YouthSave Ghana Experiment

The YouthSave Ghana experiment investigates the development outcomes of youth between the ages of 12 and 18. The YouthSave intervention is a youth-tailored savings account offered to youth of the same age. Although the intervention is accessible to youth regardless of whether or not they are in school, the experiment is restricted to in-school youth. In eight administrative regions in Ghana (Ashanti, Brong-Ahafo, Central, Eastern, Greater Accra, Northern, Volta, and Western), 100 schools were randomly selected to participate in the experiment. Fifty schools were randomly assigned to treatment conditions, and the remaining 50 were randomly assigned to no-treatment (or control) conditions. Within the 50 schools that received treatment, 25 were randomly selected to receive in-school banking services. In these 25 treatment schools, youth make school-based deposits that are collected by local HFC Bank staff. The other 25 treatment schools were randomly selected

to receive intensive marketing of the savings product from HFC Bank staff; however, youth attending these 25 schools can only make deposits at the local HFC Bank branch.

The experiment's sampling frame was limited to students who are attending junior high schools (JHSs) within HFC Bank's catchment area. A multi-stage cluster randomization was used to select the original sample of 6,252 in-school youth, with half in treatment and half in the control group. In each school, at least 60 students were randomly selected to participate in the study. The following sampling steps were used to select the final sample:

1. Identification of the eight administrative regions in Ghana where HFC Bank operates
2. Random selection of 100 JHSs from HFC Bank's catchment area
3. Random assignment of the 100 schools into 50 treatment and 50 control schools
4. Random assignment of the 50 treatment schools into two treatment conditions with 25 schools randomly assigned to in-school banking and 25 schools to outreach marketing
5. Random selection of at least 60 students within each of the 100 schools, 20 students from each class in each school (JHS in Ghana is from 7<sup>th</sup> grade to 9<sup>th</sup> grade.)

Due to operational delays in the project, the treatment was not rolled out the first year and for most of the second year of the experiment. As a result, all the 9<sup>th</sup> graders (the last grade at the JHS level) at all the schools in the experiment graduated without being exposed to the treatment. In the second year, treatment was only rolled out towards the end of the academic year in some schools.

Therefore, very few 9<sup>th</sup> graders who were originally 8<sup>th</sup> graders were exposed to treatment before graduating, because not all schools were reached before the original 8<sup>th</sup> graders who were 9<sup>th</sup> graders at the time of roll out were exposed to treatment. The original 7<sup>th</sup> graders were exposed to a year of treatment across all schools, as they transitioned to 9<sup>th</sup> grade in the third year when treatment was fully rolled out. As a consequence, the need arose to preserve the power of the experiment, because there was only one cohort that had been exposed to one full year of treatment. An additional cohort was added which comprised of 20 incoming 7<sup>th</sup> graders from each of the 100 schools. These were randomly selected to participate in the experiment, from the control and treatment schools.

The 7<sup>th</sup> graders were chosen after these students graduated from elementary school, meaning they did not have prior knowledge of the youth savings account treatment in the junior high schools. Therefore, potential contamination of participants was minimized.

### **Data Collection and Measures**

Two waves of data collection—baseline and endpoint—are planned for the additional cohort. The endline for the additional cohort will take place from July to August 2014 at the same time as the endline for the entire sample in the experiment. This cohort will therefore be exposed to treatment for at least eight months. However, treatment by HFC Bank and Savings Demand Assessment data collection, which includes all the bank transactions for study participants who have opened accounts, will continue until the end of the year. This effort will enable researchers to test the impact on savings with data of up to one year for the additional cohort.

## **Key Findings in the Supplemental Baseline Report**

### **Youth and household characteristics of the supplemental cohort**

In the sample of 2,000 youth who reside in 42 districts across eight geographic regions, there are slightly more girls than there are boys. Most live in homes made of cement or sandcrete with iron-sheet roofs. Most households in the cohort own personal property, cell phones, radios, televisions, and irons, while many own chickens, and a few own vehicles, land, or additional houses. Parents or guardians in the sample are predominantly married, have very little formal education, and hold some form of employment. The average monthly income for households is GHS 301 (USD 135), with a median monthly household income of GHS 200 (USD 90).

### **Youth and parent financial knowledge, behavior, attitudes, and experiences**

The findings with the supplemental cohort suggest that the financial behaviors, financial attitudes, and use of financial institutions are similar to the original three cohorts in the Ghana Experiment. Most youth save money for short durations. For more immediate needs, such as school supplies, they rely on informal methods of saving, including using secret hiding places, informal savings clubs, and friends or family members. Most youth consider themselves good money managers, but those who have earned income—from doing odd jobs or selling things—are more likely to consider themselves good money managers than those without earned income. Most youth live within 5 km of a bank, although regional differences exist in their experience with and proximity to banks.

### **Youth educational performance, parental involvement, and academic self-efficacy**

Overall, academic performance of the supplemental cohort is low and consistent with the original findings from the baseline report of the Ghana Experiment. Both male and female youth spend a fairly comparable amount of time on their school work after normal school hours. However, the students who attend school more often tend to achieve higher grades in math and English subjects. The results also show that the majority of parents are involved in their children's schooling, although married parents and those with a university education tend to be more involved.

### **Health**

The supplemental baseline data provide an important description of young Ghanaians' health. We examine health topics critical for safe transitions from adolescence to young adulthood and explore how these issues differ according to gender and financial behavior (i.e., whether a young person saves money at least once a month). Although we find statistical differences based on gender and financial behavior, the results are preliminary and exploratory because we did not control for other factors associated with health outcomes. The findings indicate that most youth have positive perceptions of their health, have negative attitudes towards engaging in sex at a young age, and believe condoms are an effective way to prevent getting infected with HIV/AIDS. They are also closely connected with their parents or guardians, who frequently give advice, support, and encouragement. We also found that hospital and health centers or polyclinics are the closest health facility for most households.

### **Future orientation and expectations of youth and their parents**

Youth and their parents have the same educational expectations and are hopeful about the future. This finding is consistent with findings from the original baseline data. Generally, boys and girls have similar expectations for their academic future. Students who expect higher academic grades tend to spend more time on their school work than those with lower academic expectations. Students from the northern region have the highest expectations for both math and English scores.

### **Conclusion and Next Steps**

The baseline data for the additional cohort will be merged with the original baseline data from the YouthServe Ghana experiment. The endline data will include both the original sample and the additional cohort. Though the length of time in the treatment for the different cohorts will be different, we will base our analysis and investigation of the YouthServe intervention's impact on the merged sample. We will also investigate the treatment's effects on both the whole sample's financial capability and also the educational, health, and psychosocial outcomes.

## Chapter 1: Youth and Parent Household Demographics and Economic Circumstances

### Demographics and Residency Characteristics

In this chapter, we present the demographic characteristics of youth and parents in the additional cohort, along with descriptions about their households and residency.

#### Gender and Age

There are almost equal proportions of males and females in the study, with females involved at a slightly greater percentage: 52% female to 48% male. Youth's ages range from 11 to 25 with an average age of 14 and half years.

#### Region of Residence

The additional cohort has a very similar geographical distribution pattern as the baseline sample, given that both are from the same schools. The distribution is as follows: 24% from the Eastern region and 39% from the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions. The Northern, Western, and Volta regions have 8%, 6%, and 1% participation, respectively.

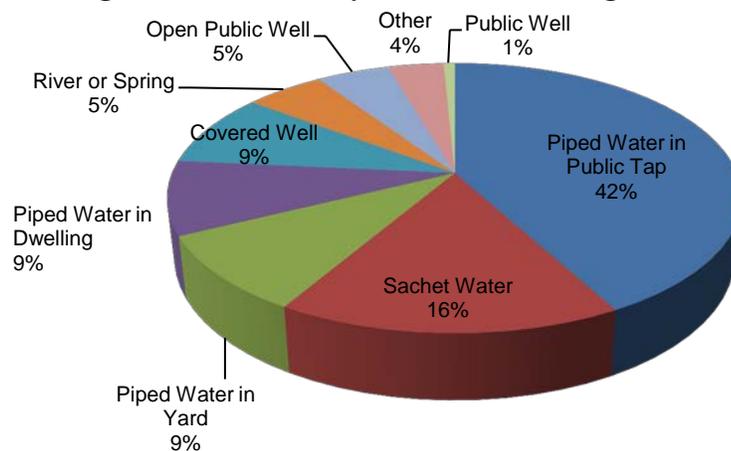
#### Dwelling

The majority (59%) of the additional cohort lives in compound houses,<sup>1</sup> while 25% live in other types of rooms. All of the participants live in dwellings that are permanent structures.

#### Drinking Water Source

Figure 1.1 shows the breakdown of households by type of drinking water source.

**Figure 1.1. Percentage of households by source of drinking water**



<sup>1</sup> A compound house is one that has many rooms. It is located within a group of houses. The rooms normally have doors or entrances from the outside for direct access to the outdoors.

## Source of Energy for Cooking

There are three primary sources of energy for cooking: 44% of the households use charcoal; 36% use firewood or straw; and 19% use LPG or natural gas. About 4% use electricity, biogas,<sup>2</sup> and kerosene.

## Toilet Facility

Thirty-three percent of households use public toilets, the most commonly used type of restroom facility. Other types of facilities used include pit latrines (28%), private Kumasi Ventilated-Improved Pits<sup>3</sup> (KVIPs, 16%), and private flush toilets (16%). Public toilet facilities include flush, bucket, and KVIPs. Ten percent of youth in the additional cohort are from households that have no toilet facility.

## Types of Outer Walls, Floors, and Roofs

A majority of participating youth (85%) live in dwellings with outer walls made of cement or sandcrete<sup>4</sup> blocks. Twelve percent live in homes with mud or mud-brick outer walls. The most prevalent type of dwelling floor is cement or concrete, which is found in 91% of participant homes. Five percent have floors of mud or mud bricks, while 3% have ceramic, marble, or vinyl tile floors. Most participant homes (83%) have roofs of corrugated iron sheets. Other materials such as mud bricks/earth, palm leaves or thatch, and cement or concrete are much less common.

## Youth and Family Assets

Assets are categorized by real property (e.g., houses, land), personal property used for transportation (e.g., bicycles, vehicles), livestock (e.g., cattle, chickens, donkeys, goats, pigs, sheep), and appliances (e.g., irons, telephones, stoves, radios, refrigerators, televisions).

### Real properties

Thirty percent of youth in the supplemental cohort come from families that own land, while only 14% come from families that own a house. These assets look even more different when we focus only on households that own land (21%) or own a house without land ownership (5%) (Figure 1.2).

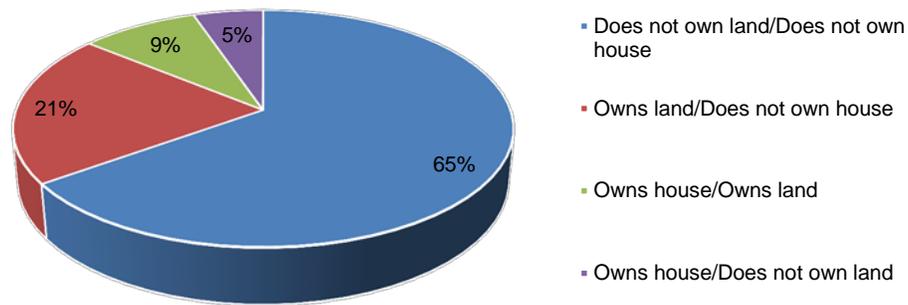
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<sup>2</sup> Biogas refers to gas produced by the biological breakdown of organic waste such as dead plants and animals and kitchen waste.

<sup>3</sup> Kumasi Ventilated-Improved Pits (KVIPs) are twin-pit ventilated improved latrines.

<sup>4</sup> Blocks made of a mix of concrete and sand

**Figure 1.2. Percentage of households by real property ownership**



Ownership of land varies by region ( $\chi^2(7)=171.39, p<.001$ ). More than half of the households in the Central region own land (58%), with the Eastern (50%) and Brong Ahafo (45%) regions closely behind. The Ashanti region has the greatest number of households that do not own land (83%), followed closely by Northern (81%) and Volta (80%), with other regions falling in the middle.

Home ownership also varies by region ( $\chi^2(7)=58.91, p<.001$ ). The Central region has the highest percentage of households that own homes (29%), followed by Northern (19%). Every study household in the Volta region does not own a home (100%), followed closely by Ashanti (94%) and Greater Accra (93%). Across regions, most families do not own their own home.

### Personal properties

In the supplemental cohort, 34% own bicycles, 12% own motorcycles, 11% own motor vehicles, and 1% own a canoe or boat. Ownership of any transportation-related property varies by region ( $\chi^2(7)=223.11, p<.001$ ).

### Livestock

Fifty-one percent of the households in the supplemental sample own chickens, 26% own goats, and 3% own either pigs or cattle. Generally, most households do not own any large livestock such as cattle, sheep, and goats.

### Appliances

Most households in the supplemental cohort own appliances: 93% own cell phones, 82% own radios, 73% own televisions, and 65% own electric irons. Landline phones and kerosene stoves are the least owned appliances at 2% and 6%, respectively.

## Parent Demographics

### Age, gender, and marital status

Out of 2,000 youth in the supplemental cohort, 96% (1,922) of parents or guardians completed interviews. This was a significant improvement from the original baseline. Of the parents who completed interviews, 1,305 are female and 617 are male. Collectively, 44 is the average age for parents. The majority of parents or guardians are married (70%).

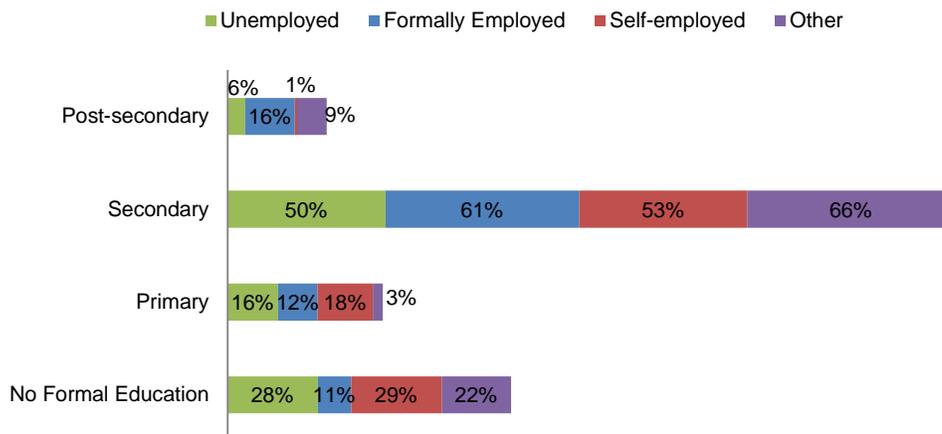
### Education and employment

While a quarter (26%) of the parents or guardians in the supplemental cohort has no formal education, a significant number (74%) of caregivers have some form of formal education. Male parents or guardians have more secondary (62%) and post-secondary (6%) education than female caregivers (52% and 2%, respectively;  $\chi^2(3)=170.69, p<.001$ ).

Employment of parents or guardians varied in status and type of employment. Seventy-six percent of the caregivers are self-employed, while 14% are in formal employment, and 8% are unemployed. Males are least likely to be unemployed (5%) and more likely to be formally employed (23%) than female parents or guardians (9% and 10%, respectively). However, female caregivers are more likely to be self-employed (80%) than the males (68%). The relationship between gender and employment status is statistically significant ( $\chi^2(2)=101.49, p<.001$ ).

The relationship between marital status and employment status is also statistically significant ( $\chi^2(2)=134.16, p<.001$ ). Parents or guardians who are married tend to be self-employed (78%) and are less likely to be unemployed (6%), as opposed to parents or guardians who are not married (71% and 12%, respectively). Interestingly, non-married caregivers are slightly more likely to have formal employment (16%) than married caregivers (14%). The relationship between education and employment status is statistically significant ( $\chi^2(6)=531.23, p<.001$ ), albeit complex. Figure 1.3 illustrates this relationship.

**Figure 1.3. Percentage of parents or guardians by education level and employment status**



## Household dependents

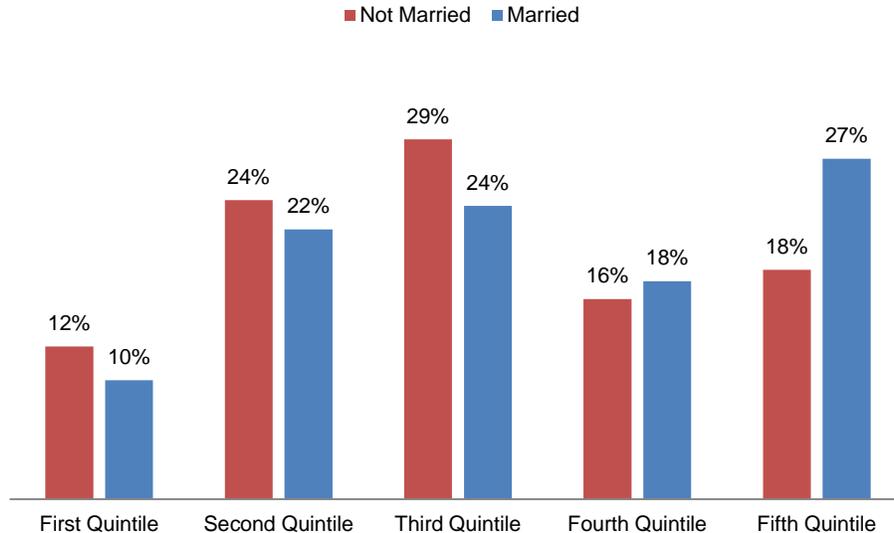
Parents or guardians of youth in the supplemental cohort tend to support a variety of economic dependents.<sup>5</sup> On average, households had five economic dependents, with a median number of four dependents. Most households have economic dependents who are 15 to 35 years of age (74%), 12 to 14 years of age (84%), and less than 12 years of age (74%). Parents or guardians are least likely to have economic dependents between 36 and 60 years of age (16%) or those who are older than 60 (7%).

For the supplemental cohort, the average monthly income for households is GHS 301 (USD<sup>6</sup> 135), with a median monthly household income of GHS 200 (USD 90). Household income is also presented in quintiles. Households in the first income quintile represent 10% of households (n=202); households in the second quintile represent 21% of households (n=428); the third quintile represents 24% of households (n=485); the fourth quintile represents 17% of households (n=331); and the fifth quintile represents 28% of households (n=554).

### *Marital status*

The relationship between marital status and income quartile is also statistically significant ( $\chi^2(3)=58.95, p<.001$ ). In the fourth and fifth quintiles, parents or guardians who are married earn higher monthly incomes compared to caregivers who are not married. Figure 1.4 illustrates the detailed percentages.

**Figure 1.4. Percentage of households by marital status and income of parents or guardians**



<sup>5</sup> Economic dependents refer to individuals who rely on the adult respondent for food, shelter, clothing, or other basic needs.

<sup>6</sup> Exchange rate at time of data collection was 1 GHS=0.45 USD.

### *Education level*

The relationship between education and income quintile is statistically significant ( $\chi^2(9)=234.42$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Parents or guardians with post-secondary education are far more likely (69%) to be in the highest income quintile, earning GHS 361 or greater (>USD 162), than those who have less education. Furthermore, the majority of the highest income quintile group (83%) makes more than GHS 200 (USD 90) per month. This is compared to 45% of parents or guardians with secondary education, 39% of parents or guardians with primary education, and 32% of parents or guardians with no formal education making more than GHS 200 (USD 90) per month. Post-secondary educated parents or guardians only represent 3% of this quintile, while those without formal education represent 31%.

### *Employment status*

The relationship between employment status and income quintile is also statistically significant ( $\chi^2(3)=177.48$ ,  $p<.001$ ). Parents or guardians with formal employment are far more likely to earn the highest monthly income (43%) of GHS 361 or greater (>USD 162) than those who are self-employed (23%), unemployed (11%), or who have other types of employment (36%). Furthermore, the majority of those who are formally employed (64%) make more than GHS 200 (USD 90) per month. This is compared to 40% of parents or guardians who are self-employed, and 25% of parents or guardians who are unemployed. In fact, the greatest range in differences in parental employment and income occurs on the extremes. For those whose income falls in the first quintile, only 3% are formally employed, compared to 24% who are unemployed. Similarly, for those whose income falls in the fifth quintile, 43% are formally employed compared to only 11% who are unemployed.

### *Region of residence*

The relationship between household income and region of residence is statistically significant ( $\chi^2(21)=146.30$ ,  $p<.001$ ). The Ashanti (54%), Brong Ahafo (50%), and Greater Accra (54%) regions are more likely to include households of the supplemental cohort that make monthly incomes in the fourth and fifth quintiles (GHS>200 [USD>90]), which is higher than the median household income across regions (GHS 200 [USD 90]). In contrast, the Central, Eastern, Northern, Volta, and Western regions make comparatively less. For example, only 33% and 25% of Central and Western regions, respectively, make incomes in the fourth and fifth quintiles, while Volta has the highest percentage of households making incomes of less than GHS 41 (USD 18) in the first quintile, followed by Northern and Western regions (both 17%).

## Chapter 2: Youth and Parent Financial Knowledge, Behavior, Attitudes, and Experiences

This chapter describes the supplemental cohort’s financial circumstances, what the participants think about different financial topics, what they do with their money, and experiences they have had, such as visiting a bank or receiving financial education. The chapter also describes the financial attitudes, knowledge, and behaviors of participants’ parents and guardians.

### Amounts of Money

Over two-thirds of the youth in the additional cohort (71%) said they have at least some money that belongs to them. The average amount is GHS 16.44 (USD 7.38), and the median is about five times much lower—GHS 3 (USD 1.35)—meaning most participants have small amounts or no money. On average, boys have significantly more money than girls (GHS 18.70 vs. 14.36,  $p < .05$ ).

### Money Management

Table 2.1 depicts participants’ self-reported money management behaviors. Over two-thirds (70%) of participants said that they are attentive to how much money they spend most or all of the time. Most participants compare prices at shops (62%) and have a plan for using their money (59%). However, less than half (48%) follow spending plans most or all of the time.

Boys and girls do not have significantly different money management behaviors; the percentage point difference by gender for responses to all indicators is no more than 5%.

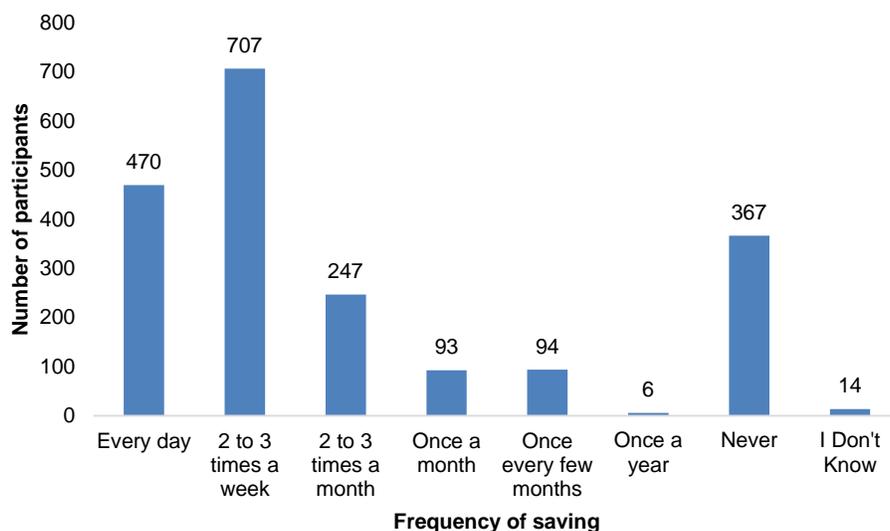
### Saving

The survey defined saving behavior as *setting aside money to use later*. Participants were asked about where they actually keep their saved money. The next section offers an in-depth examination of the five dimensions to the participants’ saving behaviors (i.e., frequency, duration, amount, intended uses, vehicle) and how they differ or relate by participant characteristics.

**Table 2.1. Self-reported money management behaviors**

Indicator	Never	Once in a long time	Sometimes	Most of the time	Always
I pay close attention to how much money I spend (N=1999).	4%	4%	14%	25%	53%
Before I buy something for myself, I compare prices on similar items (N=1998).	10%	7%	20%	23%	40%
I have a plan for how to use my money. (N=1999).	9%	6%	18%	24%	42%
I follow the plan I have for how to use my money (N=1999).	11%	10%	21%	21%	37%

**Figure 2.1. Saving frequency**



Most participants (81%) said they save, though boys (GHC 17.78) save significantly more than girls (GHC 14.84) ( $p < .05$ ). The frequency of saving also varies (Figure 2.1). A majority of participants (59%) said they are frequent savers, setting aside money on a daily or weekly basis. Only 18% said they never save money. The frequency of saving differs little by gender. Girls (19%) were only slightly more likely than boys (17%) to say they never save. Participants consider most of their money (61%) to be savings. This finding does not significantly differ by gender.

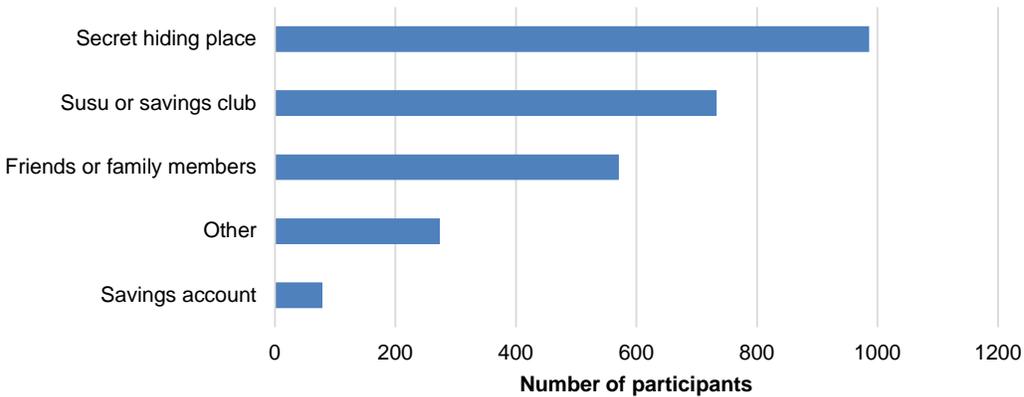
The average amount of money in savings among participants who said they save in a typical month is GHS 13.82 (USD 6.20), but the median value is lower at GHS 10 (USD 4.49). A smaller number of participants save larger amounts, while most save modest amounts. For example, the average amount saved below the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile is GHS 6.01 (USD 2.70), while the average amount at and above the 75<sup>th</sup> percentile is GHS 31.02 (USD 13.93). The difference in the amount saved in a typical month between boys (GHS 17.77 [7.98 USD]) and girls (GHS 14.84 [6.66 USD]) is statistically significant ( $p < 0.05$ ).

Ninety percent of participants who said they save money report that they have goals for how to use their savings. There are no gender differences in terms of whether or not participants have savings goals.

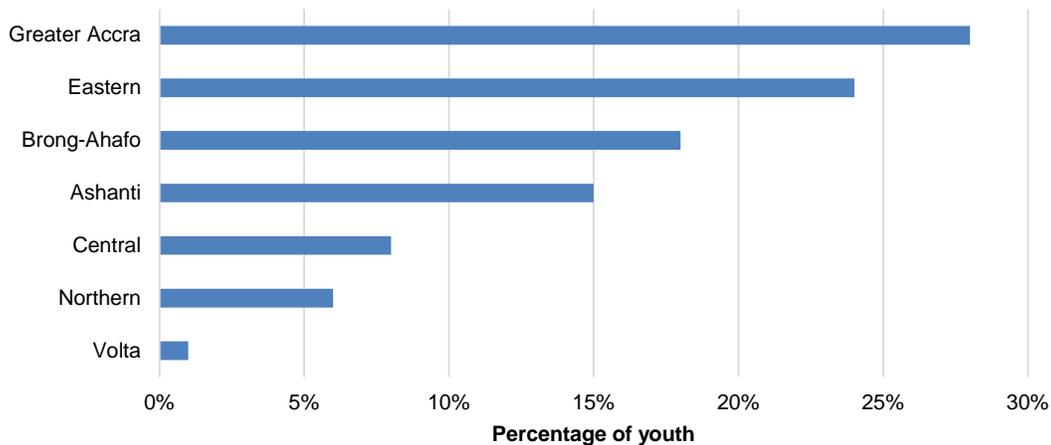
### **Access to and Use of Financial Services**

Participants rely on various informal methods of saving, such as using friends or family members as safekeepers or using secret hiding places, while very few participants ( $N=79$ ; 5%) make deposits with formal financial institutions (e.g., banks, cooperatives, savings and loans institutions, credit unions, microfinance institutions). Most participants keep money in secret hiding places (Figure 2.2). More girls ( $N=303$ ) than boys ( $N=268$ ) reported that they depend on friends or family members to safeguard their savings; otherwise, they differ very little in their savings methods.

**Figure 2.2. Saving methods**



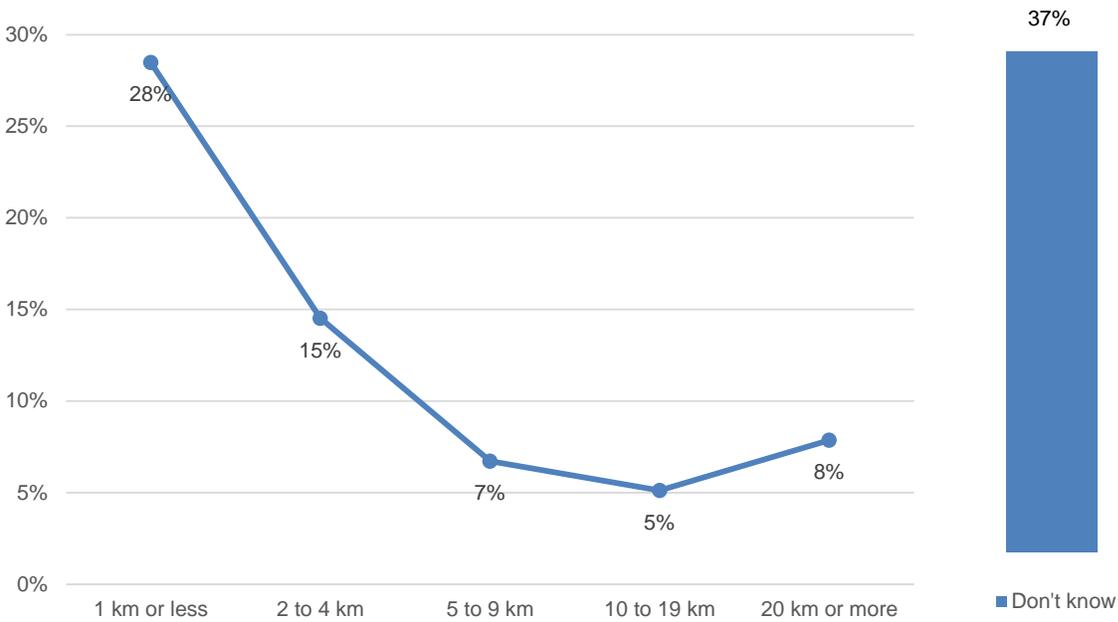
**Figure 2.3. Percentage of youth with experience visiting a bank**



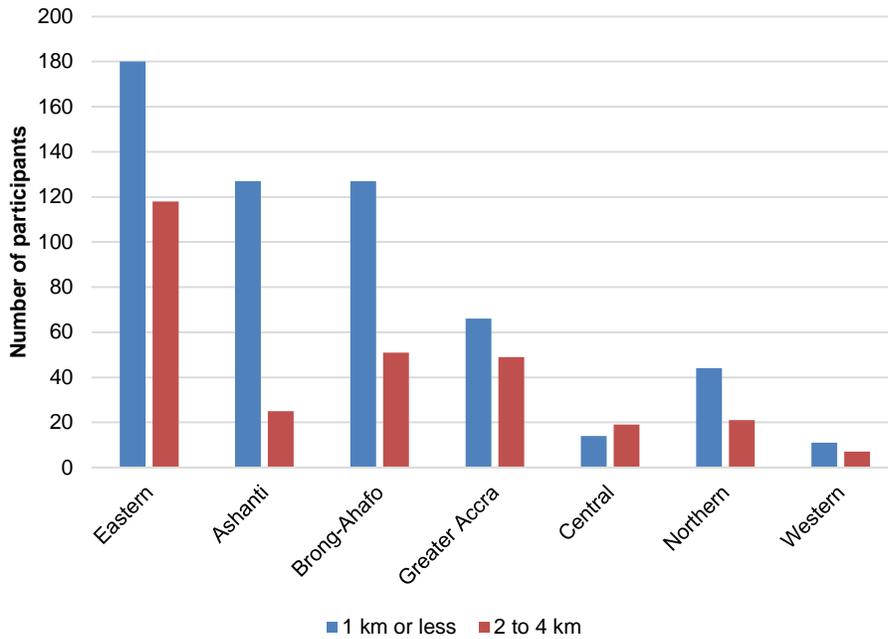
Nearly a third of all participants across all eight project regions (32.5%) reported having ever visited a formal financial institution such as a bank, including a slightly greater percentage of boys (33%) than girls (32%). There are some regional differences in experience with visiting a formal financial institution (Figure 2.3).

Figure 2.4 presents participants' estimates of how far they live from the nearest formal financial institution. Nearly half (43%) estimated that they live relatively close (less than 5 km), but 37% (39% of girls and 35% of boys) were unable to provide a distance estimate.

**Figure 2.4. Distance to nearest bank**

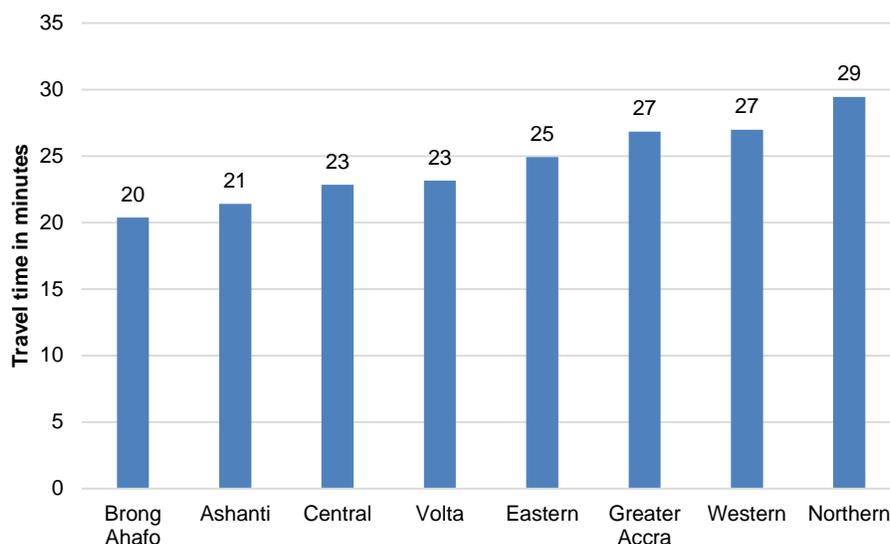


**Figure 2.5. Distance to bank by region**



Across the regions (excluding Volta), the percentage of participants who said the nearest bank is less than 5 km ranged from 2.41% in Western to 40.69% in Eastern (Figure 2.5).

**Figure 2.6. Travel time to bank (measured in minutes) by region**



When asked how they would get to their nearest bank, most participants (68.84%) said they would walk, while almost a fourth (24.47%) said they would use public transportation. Across regions, a majority of participants said they would walk, except in Western and Volta regions, where a majority (69% and 82%, respectively) said they would use public transportation. The percentage of participants who said they would use a bicycle ranges from 0.58% in Ashanti region to 26% in Northern region. As one might expect, transportation methods vary by estimated distance to the nearest bank. Most participants (91%) who live within 1 km of the nearest bank said they would walk, while 6.87% said they would use public transportation.

Participants estimate that on average, it would take 24.36 minutes to get to the nearest bank, but, because the standard deviation was 26.67 minutes, there is considerable variation. Participants with longer estimated distances to the nearest bank also gave longer estimates for the amount of time it would take to get to the bank. Travel time to a bank differs significantly by region ( $F=2.80$ ,  $p<.01$ ). As shown in Figure 2.6, the Northern region has the longest travel time, while Brong Ahafo has the shortest.

### **Financial Socialization and Saving Behavior**

Table 2.2 shows the percentage of participants who are considered “frequent savers” (i.e., participants who save at least once a month vs. less frequently or not at all) categorized by three types of financial socialization: participants who have a parent or guardian who frequently explains financial decisions, participants who have taken a financial education class, and the number of hours of financial education the participant has received.

Table 2.3 shows the percentage of participants who said they keep money saved for at least 1–2 months before using it (longer savings) categorized by the three aforementioned types of financial socialization.

**Table 2.2. Saving frequency by financial socialization experience**

Experience	Number of frequent youth savers	<i>p</i> *
Parent or guardian explains financial decisions		
Sometimes, most of the time, or always	790	.001
Never or once in a long time	1,021	
Ever received financial education classes		
Yes	1,231	.01
No	739	
Financial education hours		
More than 5 hours	175	ns
Less than 5 hours	996	

\* Chi-squared test

**Table 2.3. Saving duration by financial socialization experience**

Experience	Number of youth saving longer	<i>p</i> *
Parent or guardian explains financial decisions		
Sometimes, most of the time, or always	790	.05
Never or once in a long time	1,021	
Ever received financial education classes		
Yes	1,231	.05
No	739	
Financial education hours		
More than 5 hours	970	.05
Less than 5 hours	1,021	

Table 2.4 indicates average monthly savings amounts categorized by exposure to various forms of financial education. Although we might expect greater exposure to financial socialization (from school and parents) to be associated with greater average monthly savings, the only statistically significant association is between average monthly saving and whether participants have attended a

**Table 2.4. Average monthly savings by financial socialization experience**

Indicator	N	Average Monthly Savings (GHS)	<i>p</i> *
Parent explains financial decisions			
Sometimes, most of the time, or always	840	16.41	ns
Never or once in a long time	774	15.73	
Ever received financial education classes			
Yes	1031	16.52	.05
No	557	15.83	
Financial education hours			
More than 5 hours	304	11.67	ns
Less than 5 hours	2,979	17.05	

\**p*<.05, two-tailed independent samples t-test

financial education class. No other financial socialization experience is associated with average monthly saving at a 0.05 statistically significant level. However, these findings are from bivariate analyses only; other factors such as gender, receipt of earned income, and parent and household characteristics were not controlled.

### Financial Knowledge and Attitudes

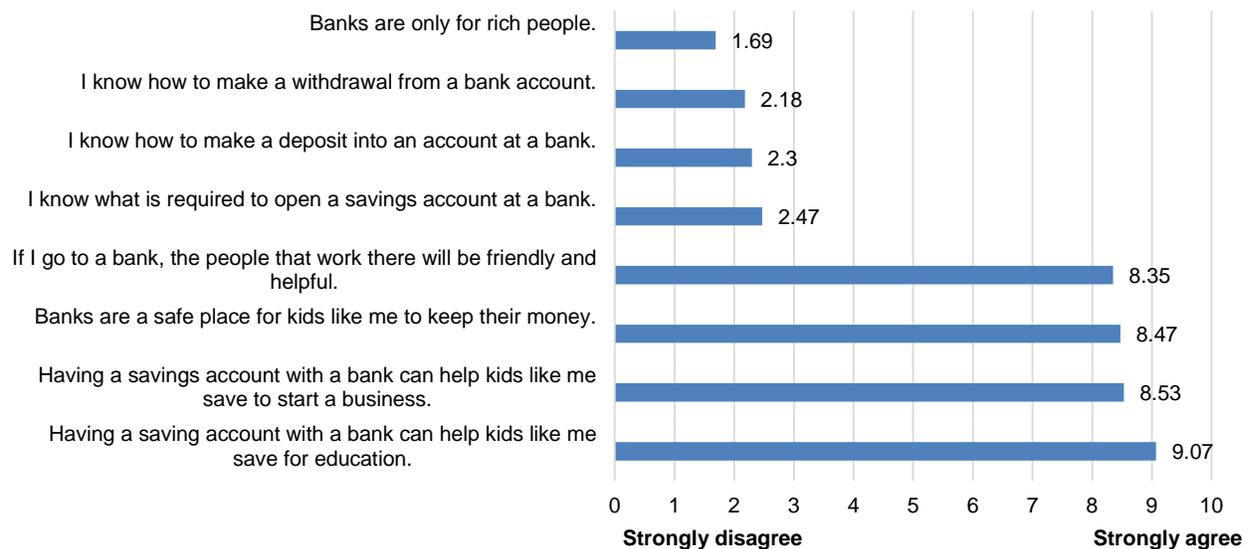
Participants were asked the following two questions<sup>7</sup> to assess an understanding of interest that formal financial institutions offer and charge on savings and loans, respectively:

1. Imagine that you put 100 Ghana cedis in a savings account with a bank. The account pays 5% interest and charges no fees for this account. How much would you have in this account after 1 year?
2. Imagine that you borrowed 100 Ghana cedis from a bank, which charged 12% annual interest. If you were required to pay back this loan after one year, how much would you have to pay?

Only 6.55% and 9.60% of participants stated the correct answer for these two questions, respectively. On both questions, boys (8.14%; 10.86% respectively) performed somewhat better than girls (5.09%; 8.45% respectively).

Participants were asked several questions to assess their attitudes toward, expectations of, and familiarity with banks (Figure 2.7). They indicated the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with each statement on a scale of 0 (*strongly disagree*) to 10 (*strongly agree*). Participants have very favorable attitudes about saving and using banks but do not feel that they are familiar with banking services.

**Figure 2.7. Youth attitudes toward banks and saving**



<sup>7</sup> These questions were intended to assess knowledge of bank interest, though it is possible that they also assess basic numeracy skills.

### **Parent or Guardian Awareness, Behavior, and Attitudes Regarding Child Savings**

Very few (4.43%) parents reported in the supplemental cohort baseline survey that their child has a savings account with a formal financial institution. When asked whether their child uses an informal way to save, 33.09% said yes, 44.97% said no, and 21.94% said that they did not know. When asked whether their child has *any* savings, 28% said yes, 59% said no, and 13% said that they did not know. The average amount that parents or guardians said their child has in savings—including amounts they have saved on their behalf—is GHS 291.17 (USD 130.72). The amount varies tremendously, and ranges from GHS 0.5 to 6000 (USD 0.22 to 2,694) with a median of GHS 99 (USD 44.45).

The average amount that parents or guardians said their child has in savings (GHS 291.17 [USD 130.72]) is far greater than the average amount of money participants consider to be savings (GHS 16.10 [USD 7.23]). This finding suggests participants maintain control over a fairly small amount of their total financial assets but should be viewed with caution given that 78% of parents' or guardians' responses to this question are missing.

### **Parent or Guardian Financial Education and Knowledge**

Using the same two questions asked of participants concerning bank interest on savings and loans, only 9.27% and 8.75% of parents or guardians gave the correct answers, which is only slightly better than participants' response on savings (6.55%) but worse compared to participants' response on loans (9.60%). A smaller percentage of parents or guardians would wait a month to receive a larger reward (57%) as participants (65%). Far fewer parents or guardians (35%) than participants (62%) said they have had a class about money, such as how to spend, save, invest, use credit, and/or use banks.

## Chapter 3: Youth Educational Performance, Parental Involvement, and Academic Self-Efficacy

This chapter focuses on the academic achievement of the participants of the YouthSave Ghana supplemental cohort. Youth at the Junior High School (JHS) level in Ghana are required to take nine courses per academic term, but this chapter focuses on math and English-language courses because these two subjects have been used consistently as proxies for academic achievement in education research. Other topics discussed in this section are parents' involvement in their children's education and youth's sense of academic self-efficacy.

### Educational Performance

As presented in Table 3.1, students performed slightly better in English ( $M=55.40$ ,  $SD=16.55$ ) than in math ( $M=53.13$ ,  $SD=15.93$ ). Because different schools use different weighting systems for class and exam scores (e.g., 30:70, 40:60, 50:50), we standardized each student's score by adjusting class scores to 30% and exam scores to 70%.

**Table 3.1. Educational performance of math and English**

	Sample size	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
Math	1655	53.13	15.93	7.40	98.83
English	1649	55.40	16.55	7.20	98.50

### Students' Class Participation, Conduct in Class, and Tendency to Follow Teachers' Directions

Overall, teachers rated students' class participation as satisfactory. Nearly a quarter (23%) of students had outstanding class participation, and more than 61% students had satisfactory class participation. Only 16% of students had their class participation rated as unsatisfactory.

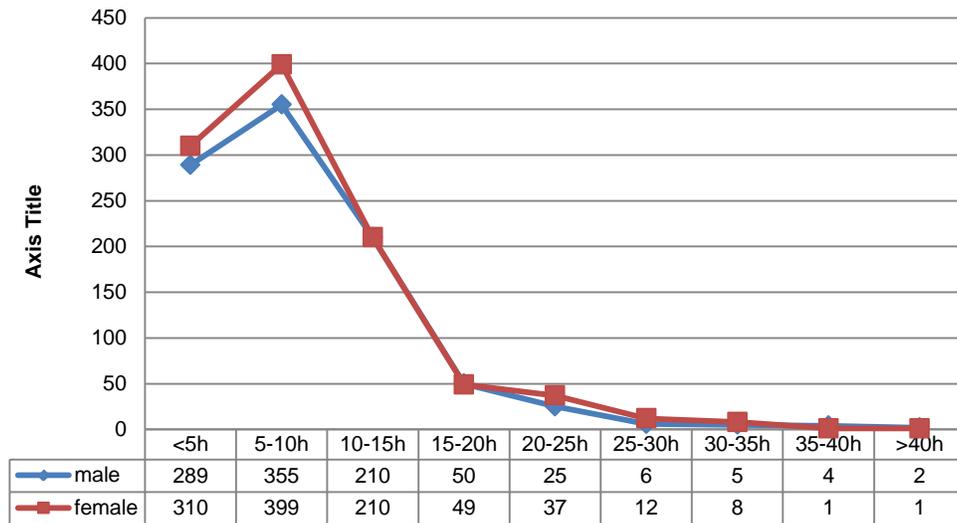
Regarding conduct in class, teachers were mostly satisfied with students' conduct. Twenty-three percent of students exhibited outstanding conduct, while 70% were rated satisfactory. Only 7% students exhibited unsatisfactory conduct in class, based on their teachers' assessment.

Teachers were also asked to assess the extent to which students' followed their directions in class. Most (97%) followed their teacher's direction in class.

### Hours Spent on Schoolwork Outside Normal School Hours

As shown in Figure 3.1, the majority of students (89.86%) spent less than 15 hours per week on schoolwork after class. On average, boys spent slightly more hours on schoolwork after normal school hours ( $M=7.76$ ,  $SD=5.80$ ) than girls ( $M=7.72$ ,  $SD=5.72$ ). There is no statistically significant gender difference between those who spent less than 15 afterschool hours and those who spent 15 hours or more ( $t=0.99$ ,  $p=0.32$ ).

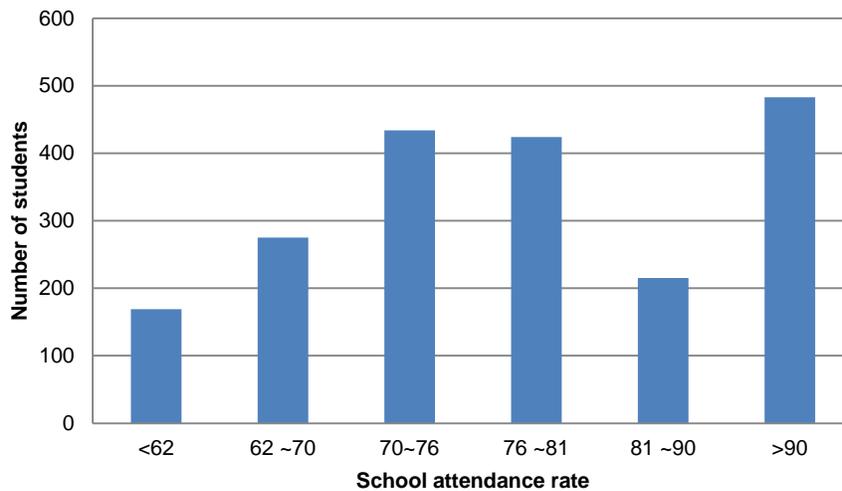
**Figure 3.1. Hours spent on schoolwork outside normal school hours by gender**



**School Attendance**

To better understand the school attendance rate in the YouthSave Ghana supplemental cohort, we collected data on how often students attended school within the academic term. Because different schools have different requirements for number of school attendance days (ranging from 50 to 68), we standardized each student’s school attendance rate by dividing the number of individual students attending school by the required school days for each school. In this sample, Figure 3.2 shows that students attended 75 standardized days (SD=11.25) on average. Nearly a third of students (28.6%, n=483) were in school 90% of the time, but about half of the students (43.9%) missed up to 50% of classes (i.e., attended fewer than 76 standardized days).

**Figure 3.2. Distribution of school attendance**

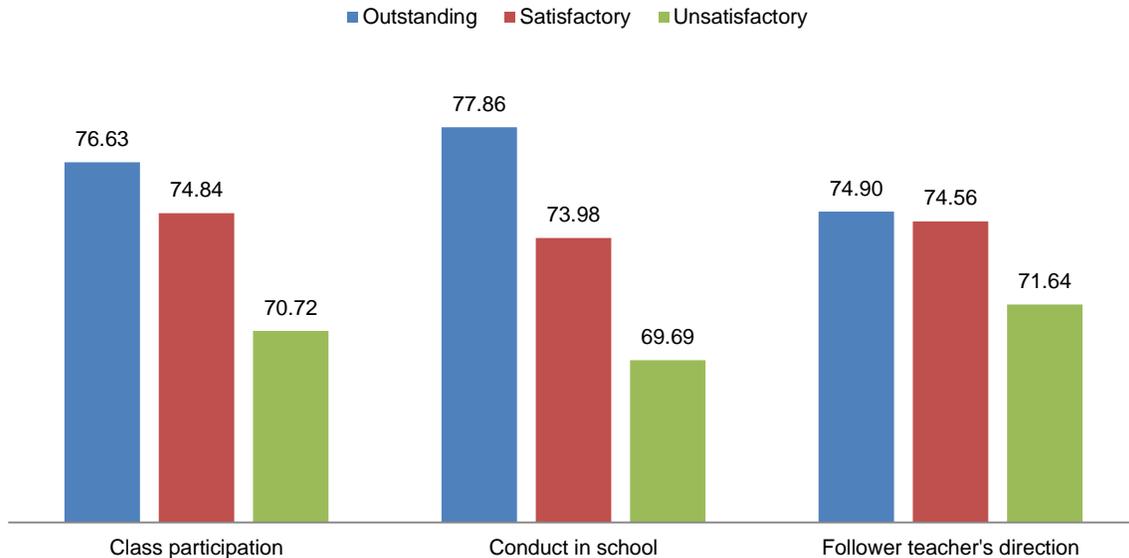


### School Attendance, Academic Performance, In-school Behavior, Earning Money, Hours Spent on School Work, and Saving

We found a positive relationship between school attendance and academic performance in the Ghana supplemental cohort survey data. Overall, we found a statistically significant correlation between school attendance and students' math scores ( $r=.235, p<.001$ ) as well as English scores ( $r=.242, p<.001$ ).

A statistically significant association exists between the standardized school attendance and participation in class activities ( $F=22.00, p<.001$ ) and conduct in school ( $F=28.47, p<.001$ ), but a non-significant association with the likelihood of following directions in class ( $F=1.65, p=.192$ ). Figure 3.3 illustrates how students who exhibited outstanding in-school behaviors attended classes more than those who exhibited satisfactory and unsatisfactory behavior in school. Students whose teachers rated their class participation, conduct, and ability to follow directions as unsatisfactory had the lowest attendance rate. On average, students whose participation was graded as outstanding by teachers, attended school nearly two days ( $M=1.79$ ) more per term than those who had satisfactory participation and just under seven days ( $M=6.94$ ) more per term than students who had unsatisfactory participation. Youth who exhibited outstanding conduct also attended school nearly four days ( $M=3.89$ ) more per term than youth with satisfactory conduct and about eight days ( $M=8.18$ ) more per term than youth with poor conduct. Youth who always follow teachers' instructions were in school three days ( $M=3.44$ ) more per term than those who follow instructions some of the time and nearly three days ( $M=3.26$ ) more per term than youth who never follow teachers' instructions.

Figure 3.3. School Attendance by in-school behaviors



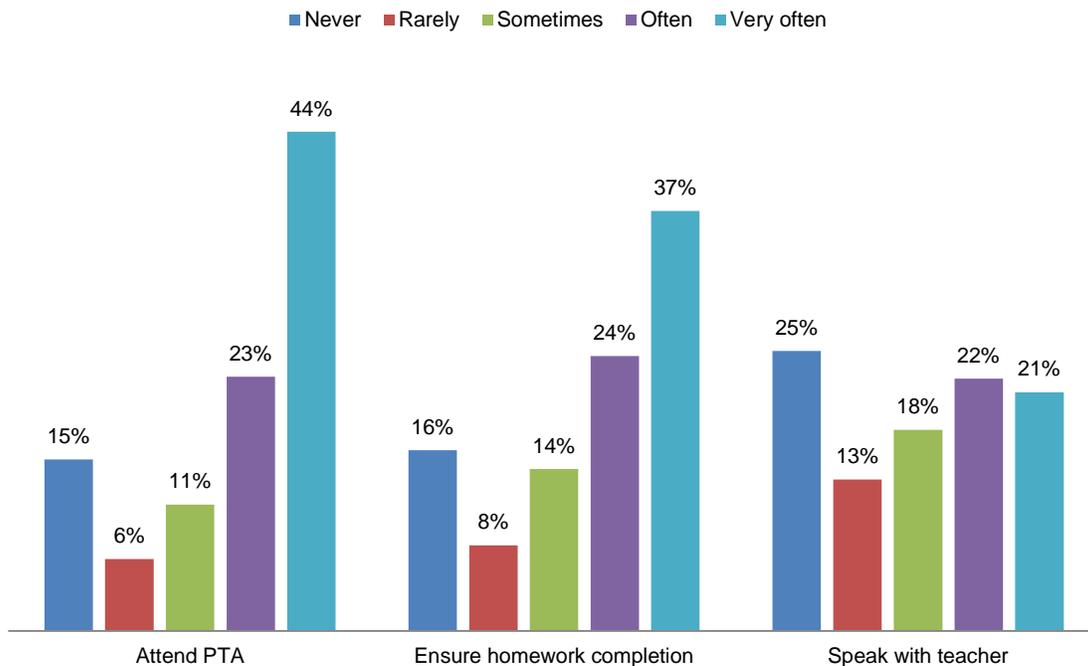
## Parental Involvement

Parents and guardians were asked in the supplemental cohort about their level of involvement in their children’s education. Figure 3.4 shows that the majority of parents (75%-85%) said they sometimes or often attend Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) meetings, speak with their children’s teachers about their progress, or make sure their children’s homework is done. About 15%-25% say they never get involved in any of the activities. Overall, more parents attend PTA meetings (44%)—which is compulsory in many schools—contrasted with other types of parental involvement.

### Parental Involvement and Socio-demographic Characteristics of Parents

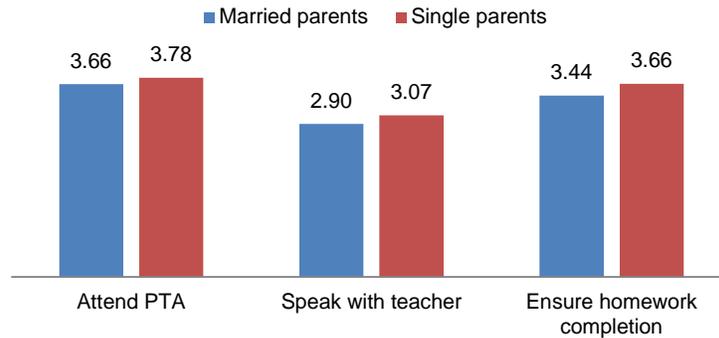
The level of involvement differs by marital status of the parents. On all the measures of parental involvement, married parents are more involved in their children’s education than single parents. For instance, Figure 3.5 shows that married parents check more frequently whether their children have done their homework ( $M=3.66$ ) than single parents ( $M=3.44$ ) ( $p<.01$ ), and married parents speak with their children’s teachers about their progress more often ( $M=3.07$ ) than single parents ( $M=2.90$ ) ( $p<.05$ ).<sup>8</sup> Married parents’ involvement may indicate a joint effort within the household to support and care for the youth.

**Figure 3.4. Parental involvement in children’s education**



<sup>8</sup> Parental involvement is measured on a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very often)

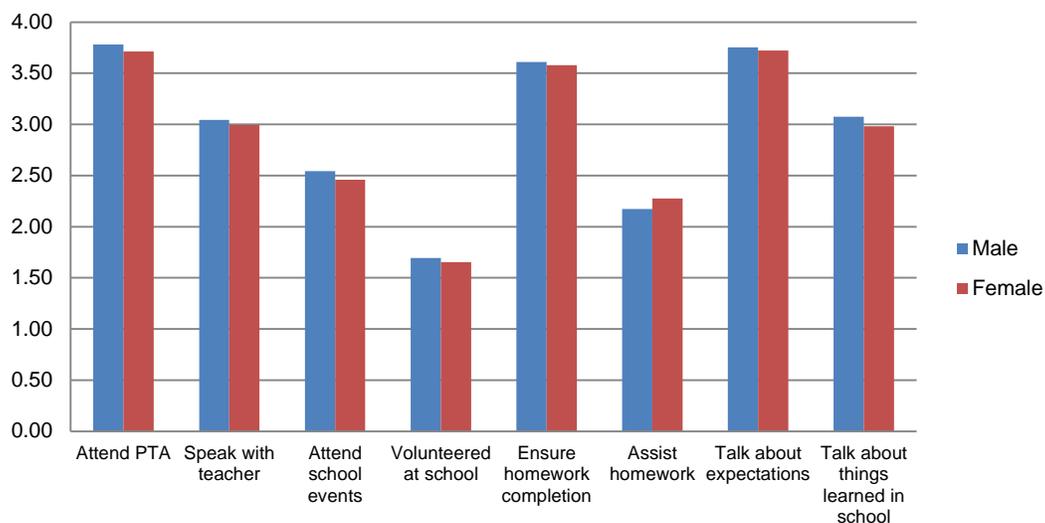
**Figure 3.5. Parental involvement by marital status**



The educational level of parents also determines how involved parents are in their children’s education. Parents with a university education talk to their children about what they learned in school more often (M=4.04) contrasted with those who have completed Senior High School (SHS) (M=3.56) or JHS (M=3.10) or those who have had no formal education (M=2.55). Parents attend their child’s school events more often when they have a university education (M=2.73) than when they have no formal education (M=2.31). Likewise, parents who are university graduates often make sure their children have done their homework (M=4.29) compared to those who have no formal education (M=3.02).

Figure 3.6 depicts that parental involvement in their male children’s education is not significantly different from involvement in female children’s schooling. For example, when the youth is a male (M=3.78), parents attend PTA meetings slightly more often compared to when the youth is a female (M=3.71). However, when the youth is a male (M=2.17), parents assist less with homework compared to when the youth is a female (M=2.27).

**Figure 3.6. Parental involvement in child’s education by child’s gender**

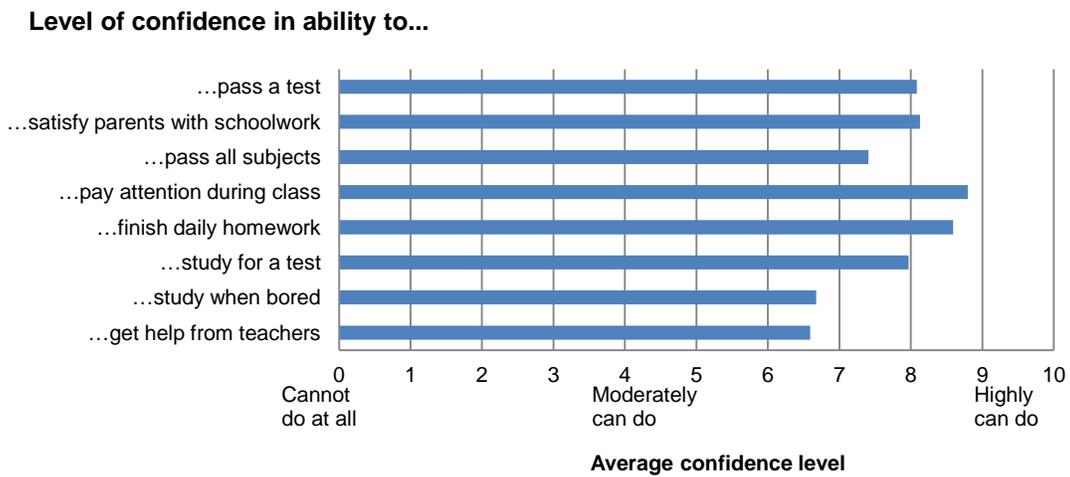


### Academic Self-Efficacy

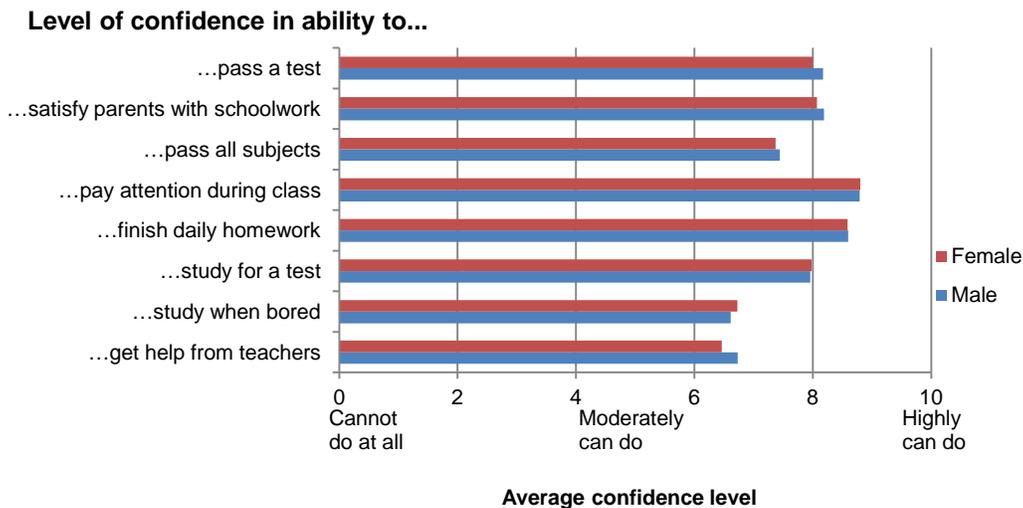
In the supplemental cohort, youth were asked to rate their level of self-confidence related to accomplishing school-related activities and goals. Figure 3.7 depicts participants' self-rated academic self-efficacy. Overall, youth rated themselves as above-average ( $M=7.78$ ) on an 11-point academic self-efficacy scale (from 0, meaning "cannot do at all" to 10, meaning "highly certain can do"). On this scale, a score of 5 or higher means that youth believe they are capable of handling school-related work.

In addition, no noticeable differences exist between females' and males' level of confidence in their ability to accomplish academic goals or engage in school activities (Figure 3.8).

**Figure 3.7. Academic self-efficacy**



**Figure 3.8. Academic self-efficacy by gender**



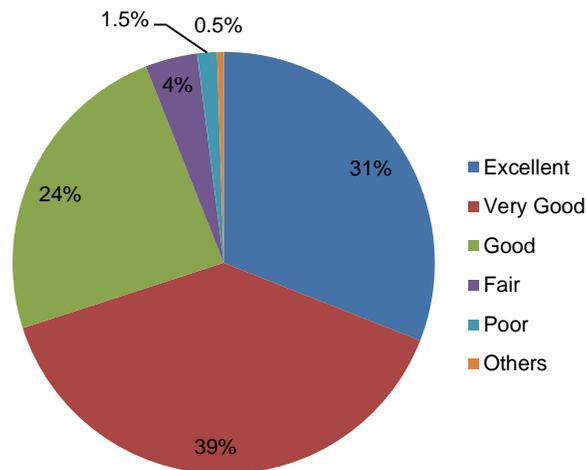
## Chapter 4: Health

This chapter describes the supplemental cohort's baseline survey results related to health and health-related well-being of youth participants and their parents or guardian. Health topics covered in this chapter include health perceptions, protective factors (including parental connection and monitoring), sexual risks (including motivations to engage in risky behaviors and attitudes toward HIV prevention), and access to health facilities. The chapter outlines these results and compares health outcomes and key demographic (particularly gender) and financial behavior (particularly saving money).

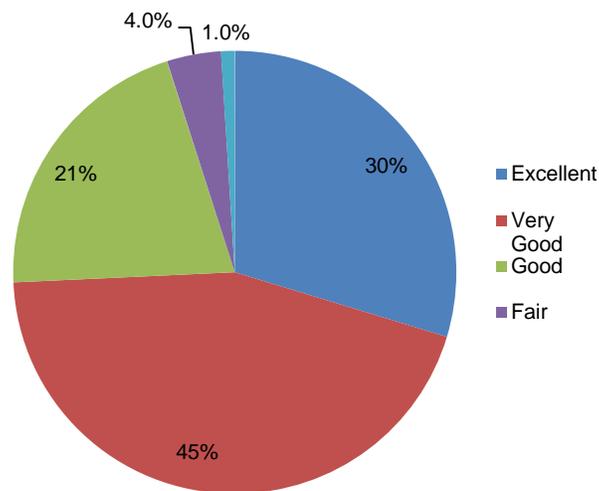
### General Self-Perceived Health Status

Most youth in the study rated their general health condition as good or better. As seen in Figure 4.1, of 2,000 youth interviewed, less than 6% describe their health as fair or poor. Three in 10 youth describe their health as excellent. Of 1,922 parents or guardians interviewed, 96% described the general health of their dependent children as good or better. As illustrated in Figure 4.2, nearly three in 10 parents or guardians described their children as excellent. Although not all parents were interviewed, overall parental self-report results were consistent with youth self-report results of their own health status.

**Figure 4.1. Youth self-perceived health status**



**Figure 4.2. Parent perceived health status of youth**



### Health Perception

When youth were asked whether they seem to get sick a little more easily than other people, 24% agreed, 69% disagreed, and 7% did not know. Nearly all (94%) expect to have better health than other people they know. Whenever gender was taken into consideration, boys were more likely than girls to report that they expect to have better health than other people they know ( $\chi^2(2)=7.45$ ,  $p<.05$ ). However, boys and girls did not differ on their belief about whether they get sick easier than other people. Financial behavior is not associated with how youth perceive their health.

### Parental Connection

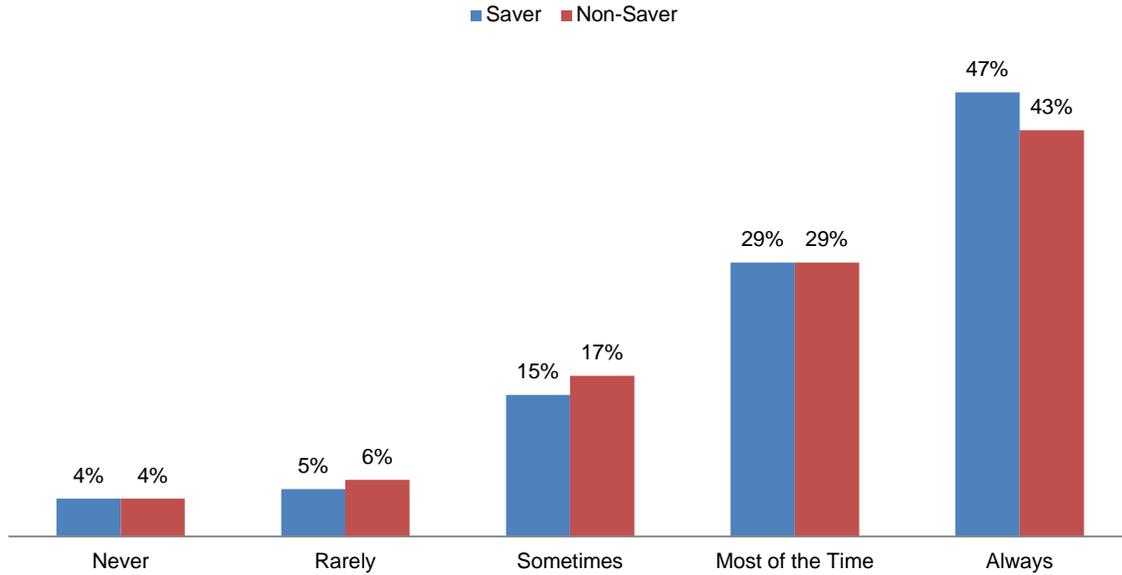
The supplemental cohort baseline data suggest that most youth are connected with their parents. During the 30 days prior to the survey, most youth had frequently received support, advice, and guidance from their parents or guardian. Unlike other parental connection items, a lower number of youth reported frequent conversations (i.e., *most of the time* or *always*) with their parents or guardians about sensitive issues such as having a romantic relationship. These findings suggest that youth are more comfortable receiving support, advice, and guidance from their parents, but are less comfortable talking with their parents about sensitive issues.

### Support or encouragement from parents or guardian

The gender of the youth is not associated with frequency of getting support or encouragement from parents or guardians. In other words, boys and girls are equally likely to receive frequent support or encouragement. Furthermore, financial behavior is not associated with the frequency of receiving support or encouragement from parents or guardians (Figure 4.3).<sup>9</sup>

<sup>9</sup> Total percentages may not sum to 100 because of other responses such as “refuse” or “don’t know.”

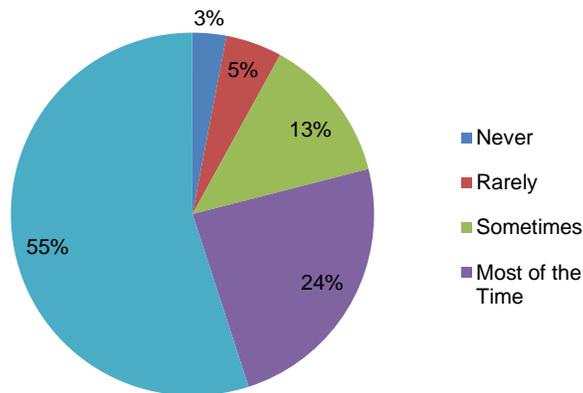
**Figure 4.3. Frequency of getting support from parents by saving status**



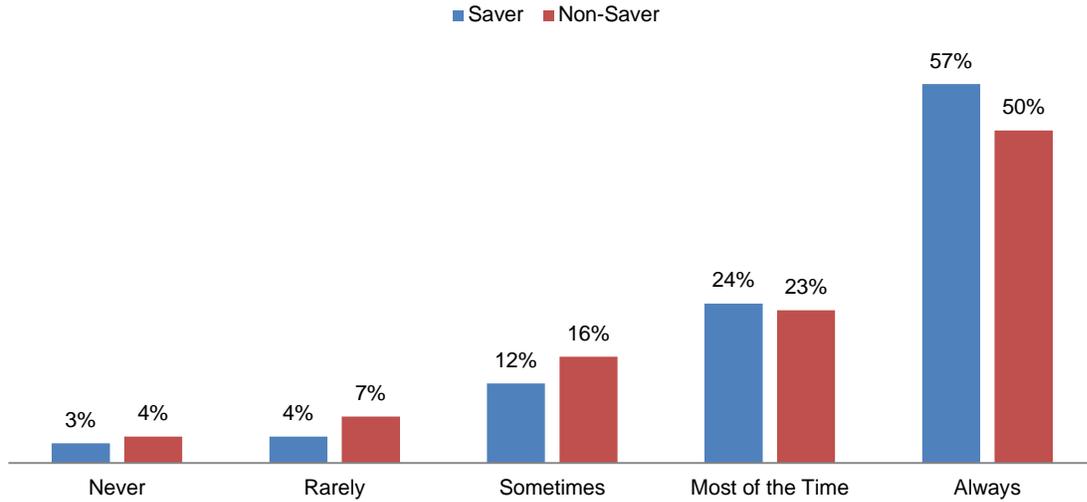
**Receiving advice or guidance from parents or guardian**

Figure 4.4 illustrates what youth said about parents’ or guardians’ guidance and advice. Boys and girls do not differ statistically in terms of frequency of receiving advice and guidance. However, financial behavior is statistically associated with frequency of receiving advice and guidance. As seen in Figure 4.5, youth savers (57%) were more likely than non-savers (50%) to report that their parents or guardian always gave them advice and guidance ( $\chi^2(5)=14.42, p<.05$ ).

**Figure 4.4. Frequency of receiving advice from parents**



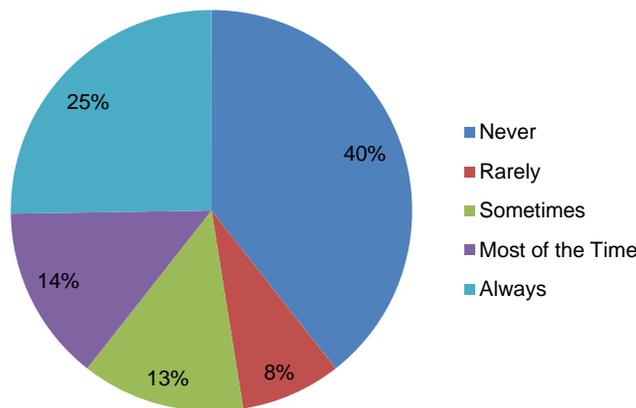
**Figure 4.5. Frequency of receiving advice from parents by saving status**



**Discussing sensitive issues with the parents or guardian**

As shown in Figure 4.6, 40% of youth said that their parents or guardians (*never*) talked with them about sensitive issues, such as having a romantic relationship, during the prior 30 days. When gender was taken into consideration, girls (63%) were more likely than boys (37%) to say their parents or guardians (*always*) talked with them about sensitive issues ( $\chi^2(5)=59.06, p<.001$ ). Conversely, 57% of boys reported they (*never*) discussed sensitive issues with their parents or guardians contrasted with 43% of girls. However, financial behavior is not statistically associated with frequency of discussing sensitive issues with parents or guardian.

**Figure 4.6. Frequency of discussing sensitive issues with parents or guardians**



## Parental Monitoring of Activities and Friends

Most youth (65%) reported frequent parental monitoring of activities and friends, albeit not as frequent as parental connection. Our findings suggest most parents or guardians (*sometimes*) monitor youth's activities and their friends. More youth reported their parents or guardians (*never*) monitor their friends than youth who reported their parents or guardians (*always*) monitor their friends. However, more youth report their parents or guardian (*always*) monitor their free time than youth who report their parents or guardian (*never*) monitor their free time.

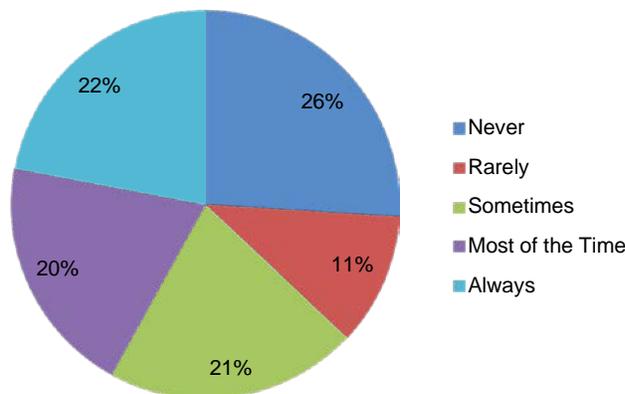
### Parental monitoring of friends

A number of youth say that during the prior 30 days, their parents or guardian (*never*) really knew or tried to know their friends (26%) or only knew or tried to know their friends once in a long time (11%). As seen in Figure 4.7, similar numbers of youth report that their parents knew or tried to know their friends (*always*, 22%), (*most of the time*, 20%), or (*sometimes*, 21%). Boys and girls do not statistically differ on how frequently their parents or guardian knew or tried to know their friends. Financial behavior is also not statistically associated with frequency of parental monitoring of friends.

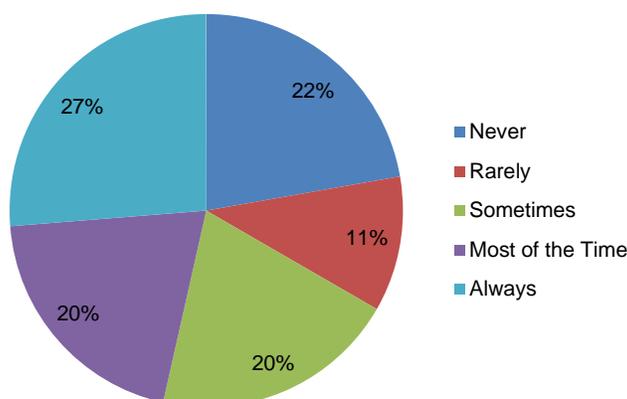
### Parental monitoring of how youth spend free time

Boys and girls do not statistically differ on how frequently their parents or guardians monitor their free time. However, financial behavior is statistically associated with frequency of parental monitoring of youth's free time. Young savers (27%) are more likely than non-savers (23%) to report that their parents or guardians *always* knew or tried to know what they did with their free time ( $\chi^2(5)=11.49, p<.05$ ) (Figure 4.8).

Figure 4.7. Frequency of parental monitoring of youth's friends



**Figure 4.8. Frequency of parental monitoring of youth’s free time**



### Attitudes Toward Risky Behaviors

#### Proper age to have sex

The average age when youth believe it is proper to have sex is 24. Less than 5% believe it is proper to have sex before 18 years of age. Eighteen percent of youth report it is proper to have sex at age 18; 21% percent at age 20; 17% at age 25; and 18% at age 30. Boys and girls reported the same average age (24) when it is proper to have sex. The median age when it is proper to have sex for boys is 22, three years older than the median age reported by girls. However, the relationship between gender and proper age to have sex is not statistically significant.

#### Attitudes toward sex

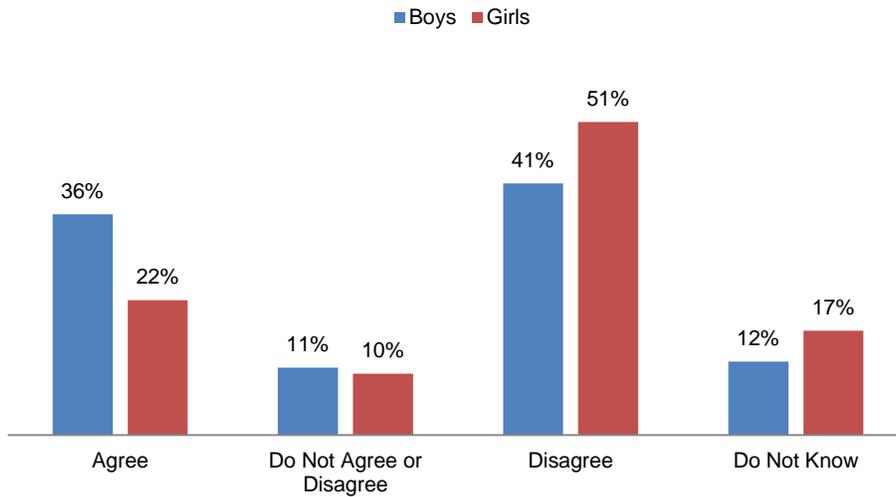
Table 4.1 presents youth attitudes towards sex.

**Table 4.1. Attitudes toward sex by level of agreement or disagreement**

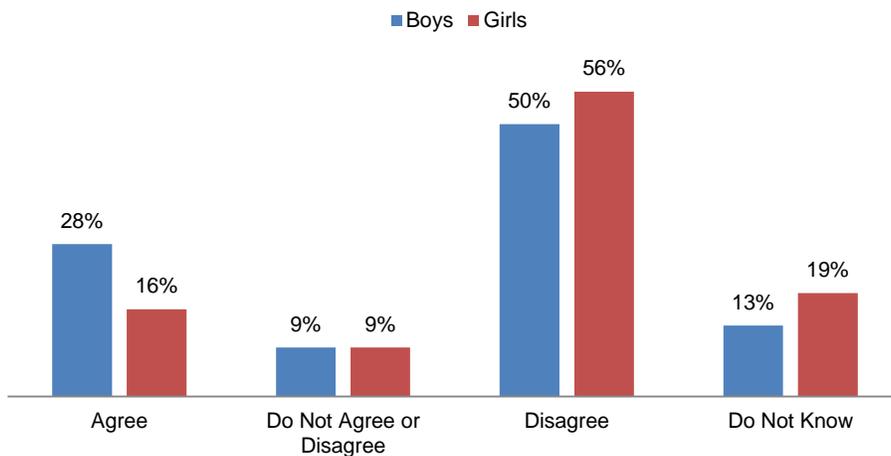
Indicator	N	Disagree	Do Not Agree or Disagree	Agree	Do Not Know
I believe it is OK for people my age to have sex with someone they have just met.	1,998	90%	6%	3%	1%
I believe it is OK for people my age to have sex with someone they love.	1,999	82%	6%	11%	1%
Having sex will make a person feel loved.	1,999	46%	11%	29%	14%
Having sex will make a person feel good.	1,999	53%	10%	21%	16%
I believe it is OK for people to have sex before marriage.	1,998	78%	5%	16%	1%

Motivations to engage in sex differ by gender. As illustrated in Figure 4.9, boys (36%) are more likely than girls (22%) to report having sex will make a person feel loved ( $\chi^2(3)=50.26, p<.001$ ). As seen in Figure 4.10, boys (28%) are also more likely than girls (16%) to report having sex will make a person feel good ( $\chi^2(3)=51.43, p<.001$ ). However, attitudes toward premarital sex are not statistically different between boys and girls.

**Figure 4.9. Beliefs about sex making a person feel loved by gender**



**Figure 4.10. Beliefs about sex making a person feel good by gender**



### Motivations to comply with friends and peers

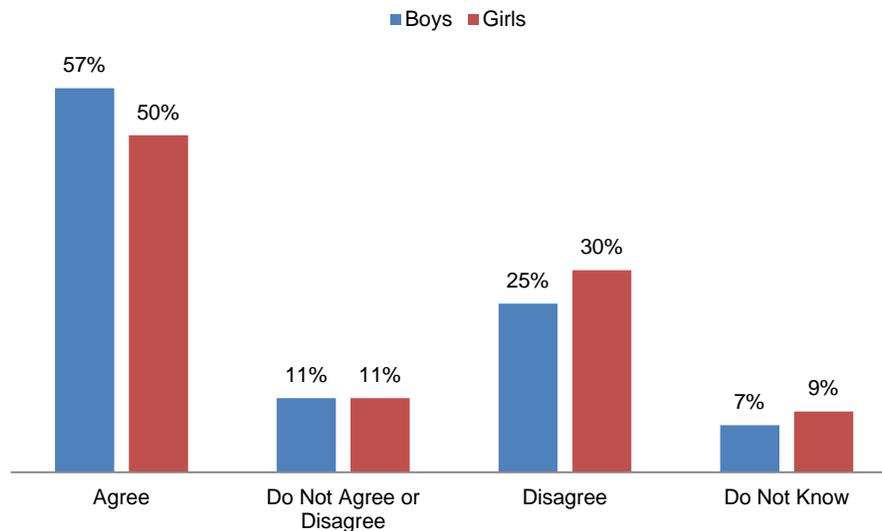
A majority of youth indicate that motivation to comply—particularly among friends and people their age—is important to young people (Table 4.2).

More than 50% of youth agree that young people are happier if they are part of the crowd, and only 28% disagree. Although 22% do not agree, 62% of youth agreed that the worst thing that can happen to a young person is to be considered an outsider. Motivation to comply with friends and peers differs by gender. Boys (57%) are more likely than girls (50%) to report that young people are happier if they are part of the crowd ( $\chi^2(3)=11.76, p<.01$ ) (Figure 4.10).

**Table 4.2. Motivation to comply with friends by level of agreement or disagreement**

Indicator	N	Disagree	Do Not Agree or Disagree	Agree	Do Not Know
Young people are happier if they are part of the crowd.	1,995	28%	11%	53%	8%
The worst thing that can happen to young people is to be considered an outsider.	1,999	22%	13%	62%	3%

**Figure 4.10. Beliefs about young people being happier if they are part of the crowd**



## HIV/AIDS Prevention

### Learning about HIV/AIDS in school

Nearly all youth (97%) have been taught about HIV/AIDS in school at least once. Among youth who have been taught in school about HIV/AIDS, 52% had one to three lessons; 31% had four to six lessons; and 17% had seven or more lessons.

### Perceived severity of HIV/AIDS

The majority of youth (76%) believe that HIV/AIDS is incurable; this proportion does not differ by gender. Table 4.3 presents youth attitudes towards HIV/AIDS.

### Perceived susceptibility of young people to HIV/AIDS

Eighty-three percent of youth agree that young people can get infected with HIV/AIDS; this proportion does not differ by gender.

### Perceived benefits of condom use

Most youth (76%) agree that condoms are effective against HIV/AIDS. Boys are more likely than girls to report that condoms are effective against HIV/AIDS ( $\chi^2(4)=38.95, p<.001$ ). Eight in 10 (82%) boys agree that condoms are effective against HIV/AIDS contrasted with seven in 10 (70%) girls.

### Perceived social support for condom use

More than half of youths (55%) believe their friends think condoms should be used during sex, but 17% do not know what their friends think about condom use. Gender is a factor in youth's perception of their friends' beliefs on condom use ( $\chi^2(4)=24.52, p<.001$ ). Boys (57%) are more likely than girls (53%) to believe their friends think condoms should be used during sex.

**Table 4.3. Attitude toward HIV/AIDS by level of agreement or disagreement**

Indicator	N	Disagree	Do Not Agree or Disagree	Agree	Do Not Know
HIV/AIDS is incurable.	1,998	16%	5%	76%	3%
Young people can get infected with HIV/AIDS.	1,999	10%	4%	83%	3%
Condoms are effective against HIV/AIDS.	1,999	14%	4%	76%	6%
My friends think condoms should be used during sex.	1,996	16%	12%	55%	17%

## **Access to Health Facilities**

### **Health facility**

Baseline findings indicate that youth and their households have varying levels of physical access to health facilities. The health facilities closest to households are hospitals (46%), followed by health centers or polyclinics (40%) and community health center (11%).

### **Distance, traveling time, and transportation to nearest health facility**

The average distance between a household and the nearest health facility is nearly 4 kilometers. Forty-seven percent of households are located within one kilometer from a health facility, while 28% of households live more than 2 kilometers away.

The nearest health facility is most commonly reached on foot (61%), followed by public transportation (33%), and by motorbike or bicycle (4%). Less than 1% of households use a personal or family car to get to the nearest health facility.

Among household members who walk to get to the nearest health facility, the average travel time is 23 minutes; the average distance between their homes and the nearest health facility is 2.3 kilometers. For these households, the nearest health facility is a health center or polyclinic (44%), hospital (37%), or community health center (14%). Among households that use public transportation, the nearest health facility is a hospital (61%), health center or polyclinic (32%), or community health center (6%).

## Chapter 5: Future Orientation and Expectations of Youth and Their Parents

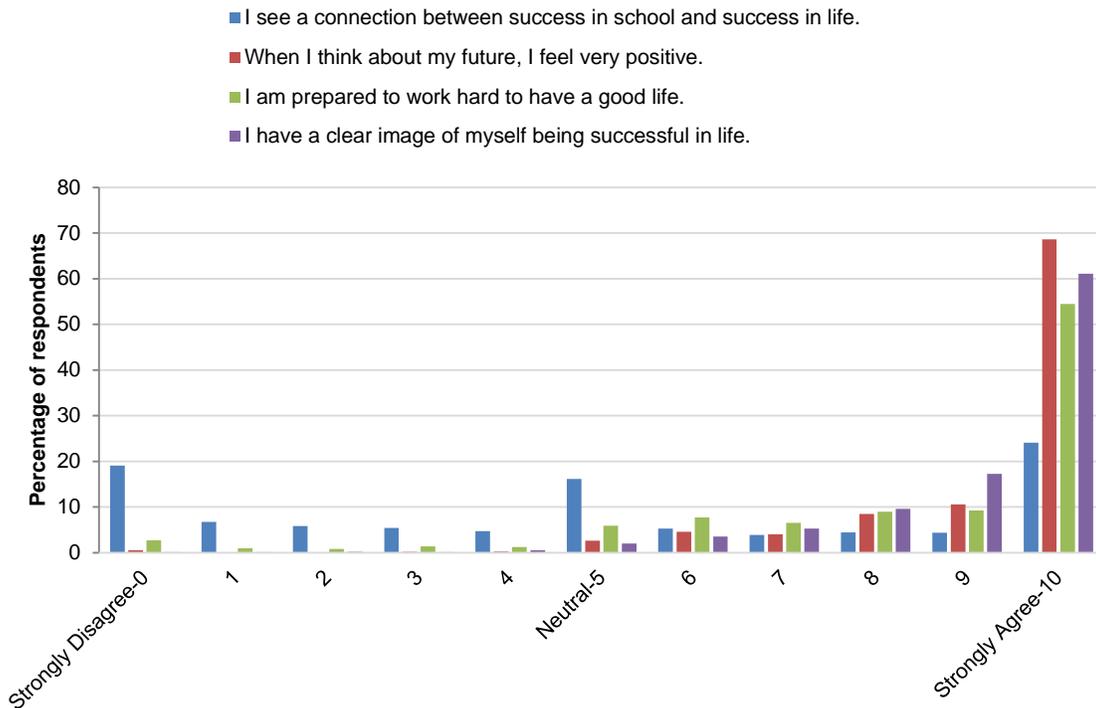
This chapter describes the supplemental cohort’s expectations and orientation toward the future. It also examines possible variations by characteristics, such as gender and region of residence.

### Future Orientation

Most participants are hopeful and oriented toward the future (Figure 5.1). For instance, most youth (96.3%) report that they feel positive when they think about the future, 86.5% are prepared to work hard to have a good life, and 96.9% have a clear image of themselves being successful. The majority report a belief they will succeed and are prepared to work for their success. Less than half of the sample (42.15%) see a connection between school and success in life, which suggests many students see other pathways to success.

The only gender difference in responses about future orientation is whether youth are prepared to work hard to have a good life ( $t=2.32, p=.02$ , male mean=8.46, female mean=8.20). Contrasted with their female peers, male youth report being slightly more prepared to work hard to have a good life. Nearly half (41.74%) do not see a connection between school and success in life, but 65.3% would like to complete tertiary education.

**Figure 5.1. Orientation toward the future**



### Youth and Parent Expectations for Children’s Future Education

Overall, participants and their parents have similar expectations for youth education, but nuances exist. Of the 1,914 parents who responded to the question about their expectations for their children’s education, 38% say they expect their children to be university graduates. However, slight differences exist between what male and female parents expect ( $\chi^2(11)=35.53, p<.001$ ). While 36.56% of female parents expect their children to acquire a university education, nearly half of male parents (47.32%) expect their children pursue a university education. The trend of male parents having higher expectations relative to female parents is the same regardless of the child’s gender. However, slightly more parents (41.91%) expect their children to attend a university when the youth is a male in contrast with 38.27% when the youth is a female ( $\chi^2(11)=24.87, p<.05$ ).

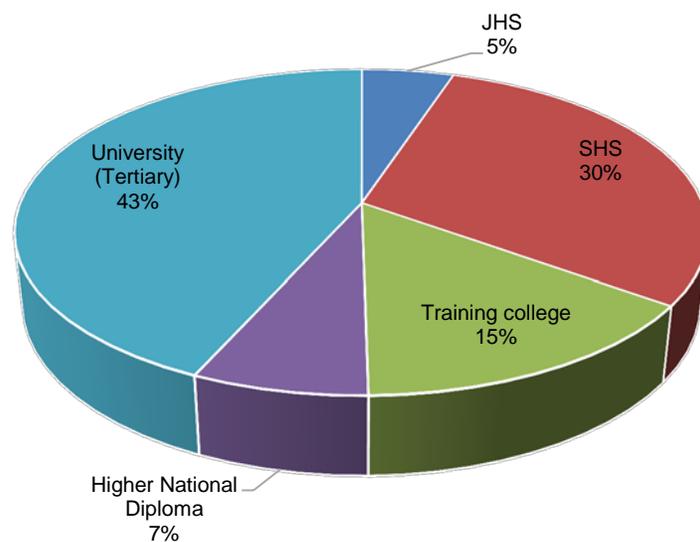
Of the 25.94% (n=497) of parents who do not have any formal education, 32.24% expect their children to attain a university education. Of the 56 parents who are university graduates, 64.29% expect their children to attain a university education.

Parents’ educational expectations of their children are consistent with those of their children (Figure 5.2). For example, nearly 43% of parents want to see their children attend a university, and 35% of youth have the same expectation. Youth’s expectations of their educational advancement do not differ by the youth’s gender ( $\chi^2(11)=6.57, p=.36$ ). While 35.59% of male youth aspire to university-level education, slightly fewer female students (33.59%) aspire to the same level of education.

### Youth and Parent’s Expectations of Future Class Grades

Generally, the higher young people expect to advance in education, the more hours they spend on their school work after normal school hours ( $F=3.91, p<.001$ ). In other words, when youth aspire to higher education, they put in more effort to succeed. However, youth who expect to reach tertiary

Figure 5.2. Parents’ expectations of youth’s education



education spend no more than an hour more ( $M=7.67$ ) on their school work contrasted with youth who do not expect to proceed beyond the JHS level ( $M=7.41$ ). Similarly, parents' expectations of their children do reflect the amount of hours their children put into their school work after normal class hours ( $F=2.09, p=.02$ ). This statistically insignificant result suggest that parents who expect their children to advance far in school may have control over how much time their children spend on school work outside of normal school hours.

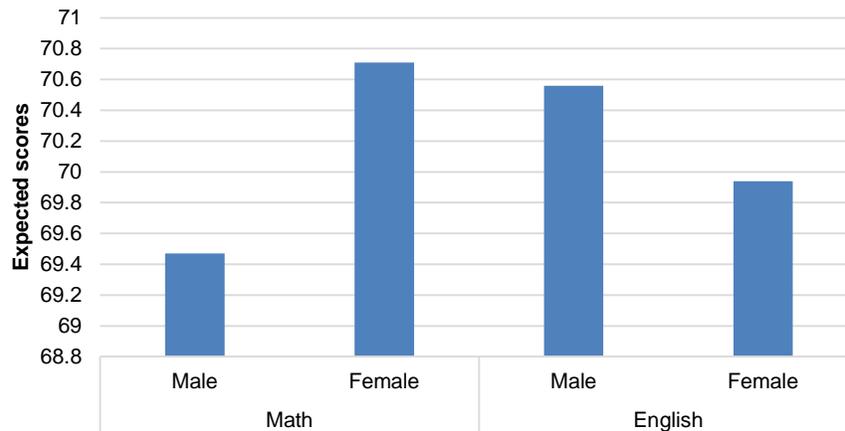
The expected math and English scores vary by region ( $F=10.30, p<.001$  and  $F=9.28, p<.001$ , respectively), with participants in the Northern region having the highest expectations in both subjects while those in Brong Ahafo have the lowest expectation (Table 5.1). Also, the higher the parents' level of education, the higher their children's educational expectations.

Youth were asked about the scores they expect to earn in their math and English classes. On average, they expected to score 70.24% in math and 70.11% in English. The expected math scores do not vary by gender ( $t=.86, p=.38$ ); neither do the expected English scores ( $t=1.64, p=.10$ ). Males expected to earn 0.62 more points in math than their female counterparts, who expected to earn 1.24 more points in English than male students (Figure 5.3).

**Table 5.1. Participants' Math and English Expectations by Region**

Region	Math	English
Brong Ahafo	65.56	64.41
Eastern	68.71	69.52
Volta	69.42	70.26
Central	69.57	66.64
Western	69.83	71.32
Greater Accra	71.39	72.15
Ashanti	70.94	71.33
Northern	78.49	75.86

**Figure 5.3. Male and female youth's expectations for math and English scores**



## Conclusion

Overall, the supplemental baseline findings are consistent with the findings from the original baseline data. However, there are a few differences between the supplemental cohort and original baseline cohort. With regards to savings habits, a majority of the new cohort sample (81%) report saving compared to 74% from the original baseline sample. A test of respondents' financial knowledge shows that both samples are generally not knowledgeable about financial concepts such as interest and charges on savings and loans. However, the original baseline sample has a comparatively superior understanding of financial concepts compared to the new cohort.

On education, most respondents in the new cohort sample spend about twice as much time on their schoolwork outside of normal school hours compared to the original baseline sample. Similarly, a higher percentage of the new cohort's sample (28.6%) attend school (90% of the time) compared to 20% of the original cohort. A fairly considerable disparity exists in the educational expectations parents have for their children. Overall, parents in the original baseline sample have higher expectations of their children. For instance, 79% of parents in the original sample say they expect children to be university graduates compared to only 38% parents in the new cohort.

With respect to health outcomes, a lower percentage of youth (76%) from the new cohort believe that HIV/AIDS is incurable contrasted with 90% of youth from the original baseline sample who believe that HIV/AIDS is incurable. In terms of access to health facilities, the most common type of health facility nearest to the supplemental sample households is a hospital (46%) contrasted with a health center or polyclinic (43%), which is the most common type of health facility nearest to the original baseline sample.

Finally, there are fewer significant (bivariate) associations between health outcomes and gender or financial behavior in the supplemental sample contrasted with the original baseline sample. For example, in the supplemental data, gender or financial behavior is not associated with the frequency of receiving support or encouragement from youth's parents or guardians. In the original baseline data, gender and saving money are statistically associated with the frequency of getting support from parents or guardians. The larger sample size (N=6,232) of the original baseline data may explain the differences in the number of significant bivariate associations. Differences in age composition between the original sample and the new cohort may also be a reason for the differences in some of these characteristics. Age-wise, the new cohort is more homogenous because it is a sample of one grade level contrasted with the original baseline sample, which includes three grade levels.

The endline data in the YouthSave Ghana experiment will include two classes from the original sample in addition to this new cohort. Investigations on the impact of the treatment in the YouthSave Ghana experiment will be made on the new blended sample, which will be different from the original baseline YouthSave Ghana experiment sample.

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