

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**THE TEACHING OF “INDIVIDUAL OBLIGATIONS IN THE
FAMILY” AND STUDENTS’ PERFORMANCE OF HOUSEHOLD
CHORES: A STUDY OF SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN
THE TEMA METROPOLIS**



ETHEL GYIMAH

2017

UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA

**THE TEACHING OF “INDIVIDUAL OBLIGATION IN THE FAMILY” AND
STUDENTS’ PERFORMANCE OF HOUSEHOLD CHORES: A STUDY OF
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN THE TEMA METROPOLIS**



**A THESIS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION,
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION, SUBMITTED TO THE
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES, UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION,
WINNEBA IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
AWARD OF THE MASTER OF PHILOSOPHY (SOCIAL STUDIES) DEGREE**

DECEMBER, 2017

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I, **Ethel Gyimah**, declare that this Thesis with the exception of quotations and references contained in published works which have all been identified and duly acknowledged, is entirely my own original work, and it has not been submitted either in part or whole, for another degree elsewhere.

DATE.....

SIGNATURE.....



Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that, the preparation and presentation of this thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines for supervision of thesis as laid down by the University of Education, Winneba.

SUPERVISOR'S NAME: **DR. SAMUEL OFORI BEKOE**

DATE.....

SIGNATURE.....

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

To God be the glory and honour for the great things he has done in making this work a success. am highly indebted to Dr. Samuel Ofori Bekoe who mentored me not only as a supervisor but more as a lecturer. His willingness, devotion, valuable criticism, advice and constructive ideas contributed to the timely completion of the work. I am most privileged to have him as my supervisor.

I want to extend my heartfelt gratitude to Mr. Thomas Ziem (Series Library Department, UEW) for making this work a success. My deepest and sincerest appreciation also goes to Mr. Frank Baah Ameyaw who gave me the necessary financial assistance and material support to ensure the completion of this work. I wish to also register my appreciation to my mother Cat. Elizabeth Nkrumah for her support and prayers.

Finally, my profound gratitude goes to all friends and colleagues who through their advice, comments and suggestions have enriched this research.

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my daughter, Shantel Nana Yaa Adubea Gyimah.



TABLE OF CONTENTS

Contents	Pages
DECLARATION	II
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	III
DEDICATION	IV
TABLE OF CONTENTS	V
LIST OF TABLES	VIII
LIST OF FIGURES	IX
ABSTRACT	XI

CHAPTER ONE : INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 Statement of Research Problem	6
1.3 Purpose of the Study	7
1.4 Research Objectives	7
1.5 Research Questions	8
1.6 Hypothesis	8
1.7 Significance of the Study	8
1.8 Thesis Outline	10
1.9 Definition of Terms	11

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction	13
2.2 Theoretical Framework	13
2.3 Childhood and Socialisation	14

2.4 Characterizations of Socialization Patterns	25
2.5 The Nature of Household Chores Performed by Young People	28
2.6 Significance of chores	35
2.7 Attitudes of Children towards the Performance of their Obligations in their Families	37
2.7.1 Personality	38
2.7.2 Person-environment fit	39
2.7.3 Responsibility characteristics	39
2.7.4 Psychological contract	40
2.7.5 Changing family attitudes and conversations about chores	41
2.7.6 Organizational justice	42
2.7.7 Relationships at work	42
2.7.8 Stress	43
2.8 The Effects of Teaching and Learning on Students' Learning Outcomes	47
2.9 Summary	51



CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction	52
3.2 Research Approach	52
3.3 Research Design	53
3.4 The Study Population	54
3.5 Sample Frame	55
3.6 The Sample Size	55
3.7 Sampling Technique	55
3.8 Data Collection Tools	56

3.9 Validity and Reliability Instrument	57
3.10 Ethical Issues	57
3.11 Data Processing and Analysis	58

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction	60
4.2 Questionnaire Response Rate	60
4.3 Background information of respondents	61
4.3.1 Age distribution of respondents	62
4.3.2 Information on respondents' siblings	63
4.3.3 Information on respondents parent or guardian	64
4.4 Nature of Housework Students Perform at Home	66
4.4.1 Kind of household chores students perform at home	67
4.4.2 Time for chore	69
4.5 Students' Attitude towards the Performance of Household Chores	74
4.6 The impact of the teaching/learning of "individual obligation in the family" on students' performance of household chores	85

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary	94
5.2 Conclusion	94
5.3 Recommendations	95
REFERENCES	96
APPENDICES :	102

LIST OF TABLES

Tables	Page
1: Aggregated Responses to Statements on Students' Attitude of Family Obligations	87
2: Chi-Square Contingency Table	88



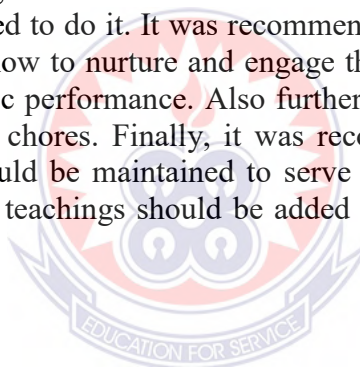
LIST OF FIGURES

Figures	Page
1: Response rate	61
2: Mean age distribution of respondents	62
3: Respondents' age group	62
4: Number of siblings	63
5: Position among siblings	64
6: Parenting state of respondents	65
7: Educational status of parents or guardians	66
8: Kind of chores students perform at home	68
9: Number of chores students perform at home	69
10: Time of day for chore	70
11: Time of day for chore and parenting	71
12: Time of day for chore and parent/guardian's educational status	72
13: Time for finishing morning chores	73
14: Time for finishing evening chores	74
15: Students who feel it is their responsibility to co-operate with their parents/guardians in performing household chores	75
16: Students who agree that it is their responsibility to support their parents/guardians in performing household chores	76
17: Students who feel that they are not obliged to perform household chores	77
18: Students who are satisfied with the kind of household chores they do at home	78

19: Students who are not satisfied with the kind of household chores they do at home and the family they live with	78
20: Students who feel happy to perform household chores	79
21: Students who feel doing chores at home improves their academic performance	80
22: Students who disagreed that doing chores at home do not improve their academic performance and the time of day they do the chores	81
23: Students who feel performing household chore is a form of punishment	81
24: Students who feel they have to be paid for doing chores at home	82
25: Student who willingly do chores at home	83
26: Children who do chores to show respect to their parent/ guardian	83
27: Students who feel only girls should do chores at home	84
28: Students who felt Boys should do More Chores at Home	85
29: Plot of Students who agreed with the statements on attitude of family obligations	90

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to find out the impact of the “teaching of individual obligation in the Family” on the attitudes of SHS students towards the performance of household chores in their homes. The study was conducted at Tema Metropolis. The descriptive cross-sectional design was adopted for this study. The method was chosen because the study did not focus on causal effects in the population. Also it was chosen because it is based on a representative sample of the population, the results can be generalized to the overall population from which the sample came. A Sample size of 240 first year students and 260 second year students was used for the study. But the researcher sampled 100 first years and 100 second years because of time and resources. The simple random sampling was adopted for this study. Questionnaire and focus group discussions were used to gather information for the study. STATA Statistical Software Package and Microsoft Excel was used for the collation and presentation of the results. The results revealed some household chores were seen by the respondents as running errands for their parents/guardians, cooking, ironing of clothes and baby-sitting. In addition, the majority of respondents, irrespective of their academic year of study, agreed that it is their responsibility to co-operate with their parent/guardian at home. The findings also showed that most of the respondents felt they are obliged to do it. It was recommended that a forum should be created to educate parents/guardians on how to nurture and engage their children in chores in order not to affect their attitude of academic performance. Also further research should consider obligations in the family aside household chores. Finally, it was recommended that the topic “Individual obligations in the family” should be maintained to serve as formal confirmation of what they already know and other moral teachings should be added to build morally sound youth for our society.



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

The performance of household chores by children, particularly adolescents, is an age old practice which spans different cultures and countries. In traditional African societies, the performance of household chores by children while growing up is seen as one of the pillars of the traditional educational system (Fafunwa, 1974 cited in Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002) and thus as a means of socialising young people to become functional and effective in the society. Ocitti (1971) for instance identified the philosophical foundation or principle behind this practice as “preparationism” (see Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002). This is explained to imply the kind of education that seeks to equip boys and girls with the skills appropriate for their gender in preparation for their distinctive roles in the society, which is to enable them fulfil socially defined masculine and feminine responsibilities respectively (Adeyemi & Adeyinka, 2002).

In as much as doing household chores is a tradition in Africa, and thus Ghana, traditionally children are seen as economic assets to their families and must therefore work to improve their well-being and that of their families. Tedam (2005) is for instance of the view that children are expected to assist parents by offering services in the form of chores to reciprocate the support they enjoy from their parents or guardians. A study by ILO (2006) indicates that children are active driving forces in the unpaid household work where parents/guardians rely greatly on the services of children in the enterprise.

Weisner (2001) on the other hand stresses the significance of children contributing to the family for their own successful development. It has for instance been argued in the theoretical literature that experiences within the family of origin are meaningful for self-efficacy development (Brown, 1998; Coleman & Karraker, 1997; Jackson & Tein, 1997; Schneewind, 1995). The above has been corroborated by a study conducted by Riggio, Valenzuela and Weiser (2010), which findings indicated that there are *significant positive correlations between housework, regular chores, meal preparation, and general and work self-efficacy* (p. 570). This thus goes to support the long held belief that the performance of household chores by young people is good for their holistic development.

The above justification for the performance of household chores by young people/children notwithstanding, the influence of modernity and the growth of the middle and upper classes in the Ghanaian society seem to have made many urban parents not to insist on their children performing household chores. Indeed there are many of such parents who will prefer employing the services of house-helpers to perform these chores than to allow their children to perform them. There are therefore many children who are neither into performing household chores on regular basis nor performing them at all. The resultant situation is that there are many people in Ghana today who either do not know how to perform their obligations for their families or do not perform them at all (CRDD, 2010). It is therefore being argued that this current practice has led to the dislocation of the family system, which is the bedrock of nation building; some people even though would want to enjoy family privileges, would not want to fulfil their obligations to their families (CRDD, 2010).

It is for the reason stated above that the topic “Individual Obligations in the Family” was introduced into the Senior High School (SHS) Social Studies syllabus to help address the problem of some people trying to enjoy family privileges, but not fulfilling their family obligations, therefore causing dislocation in the family system. This topic has for its objectives/outcomes like learners’ ability to identify and explain the roles and obligations of various members of the family, and the learners’ ability to explain the importance of the family as an institution. It is therefore assumed that learners who have been taught this topic would necessarily develop a positive attitude/attitude towards the performance of household obligations, particularly household chores, and thus acquire a much more positive practical inclination towards them. There is the need therefore to conduct a study to find out whether this is the case, and also to serve as an evaluation of the effectiveness/relevance or otherwise of the topic in the SHS Social Studies syllabus.

The introduction of the “Individual Obligation in the Family”, as a topic in the SHS Social Studies syllabus was deliberately done in connection with the subject’s philosophy and purpose; to inculcate in learners the relevant knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to enable them make reflective decisions and act on these decisions to solve both their personal and societal problems (Bekoe, 2006). The foregoing has thus moved Social Studies from the amalgamation (Kissock, 1981; Quartey, 1984; Barnes, 1982) of discrete traditional Social Science disciplines, which it used to be in the past, to one that is issues centred (Farris, 2001; Noddings, 2000) and problem solving in nature (Martorrela, 1994; Banks, 1990; CRDD, 2010). This transformational shift in Social Studies has been aptly described by Farris (2001) when in reference to Alleman and Brophy (1999) she stated...

“Over the past several years, Social Studies has become a more visible school subject and the conception of learning Social Studies has evolved from doing and knowing to experiencing and making meaning. The tacit and piecemeal curriculum that has long characterized the Social Studies classroom seems to be gradually giving way to a more coherent and integrated set of objectives, benchmarks, and performance indicators. This approach is goal oriented with an emphasis on learner outcomes: the knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and disposition to action that teachers wish to develop in students” (pp 59-60)

An examination of the topics/units in the SHS Social Studies syllabus will therefore reveal a collection of issues that broadly confront the Ghanaian society, and with the specific problems explicitly described under each topic. However, with the introduction of the subject at the SHS level in Ghana, not many studies have been conducted to determine whether its goals and objectives are being attained; especially by learners. Studies so far sighted by this researcher rather focus on how issues like assessment and instructional practices impact on the attainment of the goals and objectives of the Social Studies (see Adam, 2012; Eshun, 2011; Martey, 2011; Bekoe, 2006) and how students’ attitudes impact on its teaching and learning (Sibiri, 2010). It is therefore imperative for a study to be conducted in the teaching and learning of Social Studies to determine whether or not its goals and objectives are being effectively attained. Thus a study, in this case, to find out whether or not the teaching of “Individual Obligation in the Family” is effective is very necessary.

Though many research works have evaluated children working for recompense and outside their families, the uncompensated chores of children especially girls have been underrated and least recognized and so have received less awareness (Niewnhuys, 1996; Punch, 2001). Most of the studies on children involvement in household chores have

been carried out in quest of parents' opinions about their children's roles (Punch, 2001). However, under the auspices of New Social Studies of Childhood (NSSC), the view of childhood is socially constructed as capable social actors (agents) who ought to be given the opportunity to express their own views about issues that concern them (Punch, 2001).

The inclusion of children's perspectives in researches concerning them is thus becoming an important issue of consideration in many fields of study. In anthropological research for instance, Anthropologists have recently drawn attention to the fact that, it is important to include children's perspectives in their research, especially when collecting data on children's lives and activities (Stephens, 1995; Helleiner, 1999; Bluebond-Langer and Korbin, 2007). Scholars in psychology and sociology such as Oakley (1994), Brannen and O'Brien (1996) and Corsaro (1997) have complained about the failure of researchers to document children's perspectives on their everyday life in their studies.

Research by psychologists, on housework and children, often focus on effects of housework on children's cognitive, emotional, and social development (Goodnow 1988), while that of sociologists tend to concentrate on gender inequalities among adults and their implication on reproduction (Corsaro, 1997). Several studies have discussed including children's views when analysing family life (see Galinsky, 2000; Brobbey, 2011). However, children's perspectives on household chores have been ignored except for Brobbey's (2011) research which explored perspectives of rural children on household chores in Sekyere South district in Ashanti region of Ghana. Therefore, this study examined senior high school students' perspectives about their obligations in their families, particularly their performance of household chores, and how that connects with

their family experiences in respect of them being taught or otherwise the topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” in Social Studies.

1.2 Statement of Research Problem

Children’s understanding of their obligations in the family is not a subject of much research although children are central to family life. Although individual obligation in the family has been included as a topic in the syllabus for Social Studies in Senior High Schools, there is little knowledge regarding the effects of the attainment of its learning outcomes on the attitudes and behaviours of learners. This thus raises the question as to whether the inclusion of the this topic in the SHS Social Studies syllabus is of any relevance, and more importantly, whether it is being effectively being implemented by way of its teaching and learning.

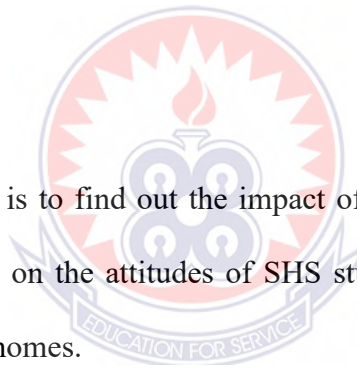
The literature on children’s performance of household chores indicates that children’s views on uncompensated housework have not been researched (Punch, 2001; Brobbey, 2011). Much of the research addressing children’s contribution to household work in various countries, have been conducted by sociologists and psychologists, many of whom use questionnaires, interviews, and time diaries as their data collection instruments (Coltrane 2000). These studies, however, rely primarily on information provided by parents and do not examine children’s perspectives or actual participation in domestic activities. Punch (2001) noted that most of the studies conducted about household work pay no attention to children’s perspectives of their responsibilities. Children’s own perspective of their daily experiences is very important in the understanding and construction of childhood account (Mayall, 2002). Therefore this becomes imperative for

the attitude of Senior High School (SHS) students on the performance of their obligations in the family is studied.

This study seeks to draw on the provisions in Article 12 of the Convention on the Rights of a Child that children should be allowed to express their views in all matters affecting them and to explore opinions of SHS students on children's obligations to the family, especially through the performance of household chores. This may provide empirical evidence about the effectiveness, or otherwise, of the teaching and learning of the topic "Individual Obligation in the Family" and thus its relevance in the SHS Social Studies curriculum.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to find out the impact of the study of the topic "Individual Obligation in the Family" on the attitudes of SHS students towards the performance of household chores in their homes.



1.4 Research Objectives

Specifically the study sought to attain the following objectives:

1. Identify the nature of household chores students perform in their homes, as their obligation towards their families.
2. Assess the attitude of students who have been taught the the topic "Individual obligations in the family" towards the performance of household chores in their homes.

3. Assess the attitude of students who have not been taught the topic “Individual obligations in the family”.

1.5 Research Questions

The main question this study seeks to answer is, how do children perceive their participation in unpaid household work in their families? Some specific questions include:

1. What is the nature of household chores students perform in their homes, as their obligations towards their families?
2. What effects does the teaching of the topic “Individual Obligation” have on students’ attitudes towards the performance of household chores, as their obligation towards their families?
3. What effects does the non-teaching/learning of the topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” have on students’ attitudes towards the performance of their obligations in their families?

1.6 Hypothesis

H₀: There is no significant difference in the attitudes of students who have studied “Individual Obligation in the Family” towards their obligations in their family and that of students who have not studied that topic.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This study will bring to light the influence of the study of the topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” on the attitudes/attitudes of SHS students on their performance

of household chores, as their obligations in their families. The significance of this study can therefore be placed under three main domains/dimensions namely; Policy, Practice and Discourse. In the area of the policy significance of the study, it is envisaged that findings from the study will inform educational policy makers about the effectiveness or otherwise of the teaching and learning of the topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” in the SHS Social Studies syllabus and thus its relevance. This will inform decisions on the future revision of the SHS Social Studies curriculum.

Teachers will also be informed about whether or not their instructional practices, so far as the topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” is concerned, are making any impact on the learning outcomes of their students. Thus in the area of the practice dimension of the significance of the study, the findings may inform teachers about the need to modify their mode of presentation of the topic or otherwise in order to attain its objectives.

Findings from this study will also go to contribute to the discourse and the literature in the field of curriculum development; especially in the areas of the selection of curriculum goals and objectives, and content. It will particularly inform scholars, researchers and experts in the field about what works and what does not work in the areas of curriculum implementation and attainment. In this respect, they will have access to more empirical evidence in clarifying issues and making their points. The literature and discourse on the capturing of the voices of children, in respect of their performance of household chores, will also be enriched.

1.8 Thesis Outline

This thesis, which is resulting from the research conducted in that respect, is presented over five chapters. The first chapter, as presented above, provides a background to the whole study and also offers a brief, but concise statement of the problem, which sets the stage and thus the justification for the study. Also discussed in this chapter are the research objectives, research questions and a hypothesis that guided the conduct of the study. The significance of the study is discussed under three main dimensions, this being the policy, practice and discourse dimensions.

The second chapter reviews both the empirical and theoretical literature in relation with the topic under study. The chapter is divided into seven (7) main sections, including the section on introduction and continues with the theoretical framework, which was adopted to guide the conduct of the study. Other sections in this chapter include Childhood and Socialisation, Types of Household Chores Performed by Children, Children's Attitude toward Household Chores among others. The chapter then ends with a section that summarises the main issues reviewed in the literature.

The third chapter provides a detailed description of the methods, strategies and processes employed to ensure the successful conduct of the study. This chapter also begins with an introduction section and follows with a discussion on the main research paradigm adopted for the study. The study design is described as well as the sample size and sampling techniques used to select the respondents of the study. Tools and processes used in data collection and analysis are also described in this chapter.

The fourth chapter is dedicated to the presentation and discussion of the results that were obtained after the analyses of data collected in respect of the study. The results of the study are presented across three (3) main sections, reflecting the research questions that were posed to guide the conduct of the study. The presentations are then discussed within the context of the literature, where linkages are drawn and emerging issues highlighted.

The fifth chapter presents the summary of the findings, conclusions drawn from the findings of the study and some recommendations in relation to issues concerning policy practice and discourse. Suggestions for further/future research on issues that emanated from the study are also made in this chapter.

1.9 Definition of Terms

Family: is a group consisting of two parents and their children living together as a unit

Family obligation: refers to collection of values and behaviour related to children's, provisions of assistance, support and respect to their parents, siblings and extended family

Household: Household is a social unit living together (retrieved from <http://ardictionary.com/household/4792>). In this study, the term is used to refer to a collective group of individuals who dwell under the same roof and form a family.

Household chores: The term is used in this study to refer to the duties or pieces of work that are done in a home, garden or on a farm beyond one's own self maintenance. These normally include cooking, setting the table and washing dishes, cleaning, sweeping, dusting and moping, ironing, child and elder care, garden and animal care, carrying things and putting things away.

Obligation: is an act or course of action to which a person is morally or legally bound, a duty or commitment.

Childhood: is the age span ranging from birth to adolescence.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the relevant literature in respect of issues related to the objectives of the study. The literature has been reviewed under various themes. It related the study to the on-going discourse on Social Studies and the production of good citizens. In addition, the review gives a framework for establishing the importance and benchmark for comparing results of this research with other findings. The literature review highlighted the gaps in other studies which this research sought to fill. The first section of the review presents the concept of childhood and socialisation and follows it with the concept of household chores. The literature is also reviewed on the nature of the obligations students perform in their families and the effects of the performance of household chores on them. The next main section reviews the literature pertaining to children's attitude and attitudes toward the performance of household chores as part of their obligations to their families. The amount of time children spend on household chores and how this affects their attitudes towards household chores is also reviewed in this chapter. The final section of this chapter reviews the literature on how learners attain learning outcomes as a result of classroom instruction.

2.2 Theoretical Framework

Recently, family scholars have criticized the simplicity of the use of one-dimensional models in research on intergenerational support. More attention has been given to the tension between existing norms and personal circumstances. From that understanding,

this study adopted the New Social Studies of Childhood (NSSC) as the broad theoretical framework guiding the study. The New Social Studies of Childhood was introduced in the 1980s as a response to the silence on children. Children's voices for a long time have not been heard even in the studies that concern them. Therefore, NSSC theory aspires to give children voice by seeing children in their own right (James and Prout, 1990). According to James and Prout (1990) and Morrow (2008) the new sociology of childhood, unlike the development psychology and socialization models which construct childhood as a period of dependency, immaturity, becoming and as incompetent, rather sees children as beings and active people who are capable of constructing their own social worlds and that of others around them. However, this assert appears problematic. The basis is that children's agency and activeness have a limit. In certain circumstances children are competent and active and in another they are inactive and dependent. Thus children as well as adults are both competent and dependent. In this study children's attitude was the focal point and the next section provided insight into the concept of childhood.

2. 3 Childhood and Socialisation

Humans differ from one another in numerous ways. Variations in sex, shape, size and skin colour have formed the basis of social hierarchies in many different times and places. External appearances have often been taken to say something about people's intrinsic natures. In many circumstances, being one human variant rather than another has had serious consequences for people's life chances and the degree of respect and personal dignity that they have been allowed. Chronological age is among the axes of human variability that have been linked to the social distribution of dignity and respect. Children

can be marked out as a social group, distinguished by the visibility of their low chronological age. Their points of view, opinions and desires have often been ignored because their age has been taken as a sign that they are not worth listening to. History of countries such as Hebrews, Greeks and Romans testifies to the fact that children by and large were taken for granted by their parents and patriarchal society at large (Rai, 2011). According to Rai (2011) the resultant effect was that children were treated as objects of intervention rather than legal subjects in their own right. In traditional African societies for instance, people regarded children as community property and were to be cared for by the entire society until colonization stripped them of their autonomy. Colonial rule therefore is claimed to have undermined the human rights of the people including children (Semwaza, 2013).

Research into the concept of childhood became very common after Philippe Ariès' book on *Centuries of Childhood: A Social History of Family Life* — an evocative mistranslation of the original title, *L'Enfant et la vie familiale sous l'Ancien Régime* — burst on the scene in 1962. Ariès' greatest contribution was his insistence on historicity of childhood: that childhood, bound by biologically and psychologically determined phases of development may have been constant, but the understanding of it differed, as did the way it was experienced by both adults and children. He acknowledged society's recognition of children, but maintained that their relationship with adults underwent tremendous transformation through the passage of time. He also posited that the medieval period recognized children more than the ancient society.

In the attempt to define childhood, it is tempting to assume that definitions and expectation of age groups – infants, children, adolescents, adults, and the aged – do not change because they are principally determined by the biological facts of physical and mental development and decay.

In present time, definition of age groups has been influenced greatly by social institutions, customs, and laws that make up a society. In the United States for instance, early childhood may be considered up to age five since it coincides with the entry cultural practice of formal school (Bunker-Corsi A.), while the UNICEF defines early childhood as age from birth to eight years. Montgomery (2003) sees “childhood as an idea which is a product of particular times, places and cultures” (2003:46).

Thus, childhood should be understood within a cultural and social context. Boateng (2010) posits in his research on changes in the concept of childhood that, the social impetus of childhood should not be relegated to the realms of just a natural state. He further elaborated that children are social beings whose world is constructed within a historical and a cultural frame of reference, therefore universalizing the concept of the child will lead to misunderstanding of the world of children and interpretational fallacies. In line with Boateng’s (2010) arguments, Jenks (1996) posits that "childhood is not a brief physical inhibition of a Lilliputian world owned and ruled by others, childhood is rather a historical and cultural experience and its meaning, its interpretations and its interests reside within such contexts".

Qvortrup (1994) on the other hand sees childhood as a period in which children function as human and social beings and also as a category of social class. Therefore childhood and society cannot be treated independently. Children are integral part of the society and therefore affects and are affected by the changes in society. For instance, changes in the economic institution of many indigenous societies have invariably affected the economic roles of children. Children were considered as economic assets for a family, thus it was an economic and social liability for their families.

In Africa particularly, a man's wealth included his children. In modern money income, within the context of traditional African family system, children have become an economic and social liability for their families. In essence, the concept of childhood is intertwined with many other factors of structural significance in a society. In furtherance of the argument for the structural conceptualization of childhood, Qvortrup (1994) argues that children are part of the construction mechanism of childhood and society. He points to the usefulness of children in society, but the nature and the context of their usefulness has undergone some changes. In spite of these changes, children and adults are both active participants in the construction of social realities in every society.

In Ghana, the concept of childhood is largely influenced by economic, social-cultural and political situations. In his research, Brobbey (2011) indicated Children are trained to perpetuate the existence of their families and cultural legacies. Ghanaian children are defined by the socio-cultural environment – that is urban, semi-urban or rural community - in which they find themselves. However, children remain children in many ways and they continue to participate in shaping their image in the country (Boakye, 2010).

Once children or young people become members of a given society it obviously becomes the responsibility of that society to socialise these young members, in order for them to fit well into roles that will be assigned them in future and thus function effectively and productively in that society. It is for this reason that process of socialisation has become an important cog in the wheel of the upbringing of children in most societies.

A survey of the literature on socialisation reveals many and varied conceptions of the term. It is generally seen as the process through which individuals, especially children/young people, are integrated in society through various agencies such as family, peer-group and educational institutions. It is mostly seen as the process through which individuals acquire the social knowledge and skills necessary to enable them to interact with others and develop their specific patterns of socially relevant behaviours and experiences.

Šikić-Mićanović (1997) says that Socialization is the life span process by which someone learns the behaviours and beliefs of a given society or social group. Enculturation was introduced in U.S. cultural anthropology as a substitute or alternative term for socialization. Participation in a socio-cultural system entails learning and internalizing appropriate behaviours, knowledge, values, expectations, and attitudes in order to become an effective member,' that is, both a social and cultural being "Children are born into a world of shared symbols, established patterns, and acknowledged positions all of which already exist. Societal norms, values, statuses, and roles are acquired in different ways primarily through social relationships; others wittingly or unwittingly, teach through their guidance, examples, responses, and emotional attachment (Elkin, 1968:5).

In classical antiquity, children were trained to conform to the pattern of the group: only so there could be safety against hostile strangers or jealous gods. The child was initiated into State ceremonials and taught how to behave towards men and gods (Oxford Classical Dictionary, 1957:306). Historical parameters must be taken into account in any analysis of socialization since child-rearing and socialization practices have differed considerably over the centuries. Furthermore, caution must be taken when attempting to assign "typical" child rearing characteristics to a particular historical period. Rather, families and individual parents tend to employ different modes at different points during their life cycles (Petschauer & de Mause, 1989). Fageyinbo (2005) for instance stated that socialization involves a process of social learning by which beings who are biologically human become socially human. He further stated that it involves the development of the social self through the process of cultural moulding by which the individual learns the accumulated knowledge, skills, beliefs, values, habits and other considered appropriate behaviour patterns in the society. This means that the individual does not really become an accepted member of a given society until s/he is able to acquire and exhibit behaviour patterns that are considered appropriate in that society.

Branmeld (1965) on the other hand views socialization as a process by which different individuals prepare to play many different and varied roles and interact in such a way that the inter-related individuals and groups can function. Otite and Ogionwo (1979) argue on this same line when they opined that socialisation is an interactional process whereby a person's behaviour is modified to conform with expectations held by members of the groups to which she belongs. This is further underscored by Fadeyiye (2003) who defines socialisation as a process through which the individual learns about those vital

behavioural patterns which are necessary in satisfying group needs. Adufe (2004) also adds that socialisation is the process by which an individual acquires the social characterization of the group or the society that the individual belongs to in order for him or her to be regarded as bonafide member of that society or group.

According to Gelles and Levine (1999) socialization is education in the broadest sense, and that through socialisation, a helpless infant is gradually transformed into a more or less knowledgeable and a more or less cooperative member of society. They also claimed that through socialisation, individuals not only learn the values, norms, and skills of their culture but also acquire a sense of who they are and where they belong (Gelles & Levine, 1999). They again indicated that socialisation involves both explicit instruction and unconscious modelling; it influences both personality development and social behaviour.

Socialisation is also seen as the shaping of human behaviour, both mental and physical, through experience in social situation. Thus according to Bhushan (1989) socialisation subsumes all the processes of enculturation, communication and learning, through which the individual human organism develops a social nature and is able to participate in social life. Dillon (2014) shares this view and argues that socialisation is the process by which individuals learn how to be social, how to participate in society and thus how to use and interpret symbols and language, and interact with others. He added that socialisation is necessary because individuals have to be adequately motivated to fulfil the functional requirements of the social system; individual needs must be more or less in synchrony with functional needs of the social system. And thus according to Kornblum (1997)

socialisation is the term used to describe the ways in which people learn to conform to their society's norms, values, and roles.

Kendall (2014) further explicates on the above by arguing that socialisation is the lifelong process of social interaction through which individuals acquire a self-identity and the physical, mental, and social skills needed for survival in society. She also stated that socialisation also helps us to learn how to communicate with other people and to have knowledge of how other people expect us to behave in a variety of social settings. Socialisation is also essential for the survival and stability of society. Socialisation is therefore understood as the process of social interaction by which people acquire those behaviours essential for effective participation in society, and thus the individual and society are mutually dependent on socialisation, which is essential for the renewal of culture and the perpetuation of society (Hughes & Kroehler, 2002).

Berger and Luckmann (1966) in their contribution to the definition of socialisation see it as the occurrence where individuals are socialised within an objective environment called society. Three functions that Berger and Luckmann contend as essential for the socialisation process are externalisation, objectivisation, and internalisation. Baldwin (1992) therefore proposes that combinations of cognitive and behavioural processes are involved in socializing young adults about the beliefs, values, and skills to fit into society. He argues that young adults' development cannot be separated from the socialization process. Similarly, Grusec (2002) contends that young adults can acquire their culture's standards and values by self-regulating their emotions, thinking, and behaviour in accordance with their social group.

O'Keefe and Delia (1985) also recognize an individual's social group as socialising agents within which he or she comes to differentiate his or her constructs about the way to interact in the world. This interpretive approach acknowledges that individuals within a social group come to a "sense" of understanding each other through a reciprocal coordination of perspectives (Grossberg, 1982). Family may be considered a "community" where its members share the same system or network of beliefs, practices, conventions, values, skills, and know-how.

Gaskins, Miller, and Corsaro (1992) have argued that socialisation is both a collective and individual process. Socialization is a collective and negotiated process which is situated within the social structure of the family and culture. This collective meaning-making process of culture is initiated by previous generations and made available to children through parents, grandparents, caregivers, peers, school, and so forth. Socialization is also an individual process as the child chooses to accept or reject the values or beliefs of previous generations and personal meaning-making takes place.

Miller (1996) defines socialisation as "the process of orienting oneself within systems of meaning" (p. 183). At their stage of psychological development of intimacy, young adults are generally motivated to learn more about how to love others and how to have a committed relationship (Erikson, 1968). Young adult grandchildren who are emotionally involved with their grandparents may personalize their own family culture by paying attention to any "clues" from their grandparents that might help them to understand their own experiences with love (p. 196). In her work on personal storytelling, Miller (1996) suggests that "this process of personalization lies at the heart of socialization- this is how

persons and cultures create each other” (p. 196). As experiences are interpreted, they are re-contextualized within the individual’s systems of meaning. For example, when young adults talk to grandparents about how to love or how to act in a committed relationship, young adults apply the understanding of that behavioural value to their own context. Communication plays a key role in the process of socialization as shared values, beliefs, and attitudes from both perspectives of young adults and grandparents is important.

Williams (1972), in another dimension, describes socialisation as a process that transmits human culture. Goode (1960, 1966, see also in Biddle and Thomas, 1966) stresses the idea that socialisation is the internalization of values or norms, rather than merely learning cognitively the actions which will be punished or rewarded. Clausen (1968) therefore views socialisation as a lifelong process by which individuals learn to incorporate cultural meanings. Socialisation is thus seen as a process controlled by the community/society (Luhmann 1995). Elkin and Handel (1972) for instance view socialisation as the social learning of beliefs and behaviour typified by the individual’s adaptation and conformity to social norms. This also includes learning of expectations, habits, values, motives, skills, beliefs that are necessary to interact with one’s own social groups. Weidman, Twale and Stein (2001) add that socialisation is process by which individuals acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes that make them effective members of the society. Furthermore Curcio (2005) is of the view that socialisation is the non-spontaneous process, reiterated from generation to generation, by means of which individuals internalize norms, knowledge, information, symbols, beliefs, and behaviour shared by members of the group to which they belong.

Kelly (1991) extends the debates on the meaning of socialisation and argues that socialisation is a key to the development of self-concept, which he defines as a system of subjective beliefs about personal experience and is often equated with self-image, self-worth, and self-esteem. Arnett (1995) added his views to the debate by outlining the interpretation of the three primary goals of socialisation. He claims firstly that socialisation teaches impulse control and helps individuals develop a conscience. This first goal, he explained, is accomplished naturally: as people grow up within a particular society, they pick up on the expectations of those around them and internalize these expectations to moderate their impulses and develop a conscience. Second, socialisation teaches individuals how to prepare for and perform certain social roles. These include occupational roles, gender roles, and the roles of institutions such as marriage and parenthood. Third, socialisation cultivates shared sources of meaning and value. Through socialisation, people learn to identify what is important and valued within a particular culture.

Agents of socialisation are social institutions that are used to achieve socialisation processes. There are many existing agents of socialisation, namely; The Family or Home, The School, The Age Groups or the Peer Groups, The Mass Media, The Associations or Clubs and The Religious Institutions (Fageyinbo, 2005). The Family being the primary unit that the young person finds himself or herself thus serves as the primary agent of socialisation, where the shared knowledge, values, norms, mores and social roles of the society are inculcated into young members.

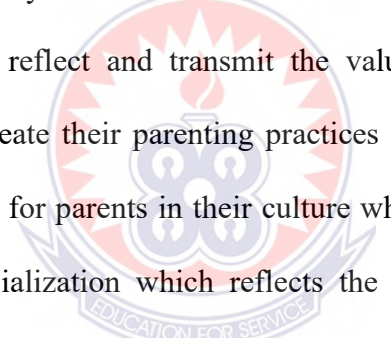
The involvement of children in domestic work, as part of the socialisation process within the family setting, is an expected as well as an accepted practice in all African societies and therefore a common practice among the various communities in the continent (Owiti, 2006). Accordingly, children are expected to help their parents and guardians in some work, as per their ability. This way, such children are expected to acquire skills to become useful in adulthood. However, the noble societal efforts to introduce children to work, thus enabling them to acquire skills for use in adulthood has changed as many parents and guardians now perceive children's work as an economic asset to the family (Owiti, 2006).

It is very clear from the above discussions that socialisation is a very critical social process that enables young people to assimilate the desired values, norms, behaviours and roles of a given society and thus become effective members of that society. The performance of household chores is also seen as an indispensable part of this process and also a critical aspect of the overall development of the child. The question that one may therefore ask is what is the nature of household chores that children/young people are supposed to perform in their various homes? The next section therefore provides insight on children's responsibilities in the home with special focus on household chores.

2.4 Characterizations of Socialization Patterns

Arnett (1995) discerns two general types of cultural socialization, broad and narrow. He asserts that broad socialization is intended to promote independence, individualism, and self-expression. In contrast, cultures with narrow socialization hold obedience and conformity as their highest values, and discourage deviation from cultural expectations. Arnett contends that although it is generally possible to characterize socialization patterns

of a culture as either broad or narrow, this does not mean that cultures can be dichotomized into two homogeneous types because socialization may be relatively broad through some sources but relatively narrow through others. In addition, there is also variation within cultures. Thus, variation is likely to be greater in a culture characterized by broad socialization. In contrast, narrow socialization promotes a narrow range of variance not only in the characteristics of those who are being socialized but also in the practices of those who are doing the socializing. In essence, all the sources of socialization are related to one another and act together to promote the socialization goals of the culture. Arnett claims that the family, peers, school work, community, media, legal system, and cultural belief system are all sources of socialization (1995):

- 
- i) Family practices reflect and transmit the values of the culture as a whole," parents do not create their parenting practices de novo but are likely to follow role requirements for parents in their culture which they have learned as a result of their own socialization which reflects the expectations of the community. Children in nuclear families are much less tightly embraced within the environment of the family since they are more exposed to socialization influences outside the family-(peers, child care workers, TV characters). By diminishing the number of people within the family to whom they owe obedience they are exposed to a greater range of possible models and viable influences.
 - ii) Children and adolescents in industrialized cultures spend a considerable amount of time with peers and their socialization may be in conflict with other sources (e.g., encouragement of alcohol use, high-speed driving) Socialization by peers

becomes narrower in adulthood, even in cultures characterized by broad socialization.

- iii) There have been recent trends in American education to make classroom learning entirely individualistic, such that the teacher does little teaching and attempts to tailor the curriculum individually to each child (Linney and Seidman, 1989 cited in Arnett 1995). This is a quintessential example of broad socialization, specifically designed to recognize and enhance individuality.
- iv) The workplace replaces the school setting, socialization is relatively narrow because roles consist of definite expectations for performance, rewards, and punishments.
- v) Community size and cohesion (or lack of it) determines the nature of social life and socialization. Small scale communities have more power over the individual and are able to bind the individual strongly to the will of the community. In contrast, in the West, most communities have neither much involvement in nor much influence over the socialization of children. Geographical mobility acts to weaken long-term attachments and obligations between community members (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swidler and lipton 1985 cited in Arnett 1995).
- vi) Cultures vary in the range of media they allow their members to consume (cable TV (religious programs, educational programs, pornography) and desktop publishing. Self-socialization is possible, in which individuals are free to choose the materials that contribute to their socialization. They choose the ones that best suit their individual preferences and personalities. In this respect, media differ from other socializing agents in that individuals can exert greater control over

their media choices (Arnett 1995). In cultures characterized by narrow socialization, the media may be tightly controlled by the government and used by the government to promote conformity to government- approved ways of thinking and behaving.

vii) The cultural belief system is a system of norms and moral standards of a society, the standards of right and wrong, good and bad, which in turn, set expectations for behaviour. This sometimes takes the form of definite religious institutions or a political institution. This is not a source of socialization in its own right but provides an ideological basis for socialization through other sources. In cultures characterized by narrow socialization, the cultural belief system promotes values such as self-restraint, self-denial, self-sacrifice, and conformity to a particular way of thinking. Individualism, self-fulfillment, and self-esteem, rather than a set of religious or political beliefs are the most important and influential sources of broad socialization. They form the ideological foundation for socialization through other sources.

2.5 The Nature of Household Chores Performed by Young People

According to Isabella Buber (2002)(Page 23), “household chore refers to unpaid work performed in order to maintain a family and/or a home”. In a comparison of different kinds of work, Bird and Ross (1993) argue that household chore as a primary activity is a more routine activity than unpaid work, provides less work fulfilment, less recognition for the quality of the work and is unpaid. Household chore, they further argue, is the least fulfilment of any type of work examined, and it provides the least recognition for work well done (Bird & Ross, 1993). Despite the description of household chore as a thankless

job, they continued to argue that house-workers are thanked more than paid workers, on the average.

Historically, parents and guardians expected children to contribute to household chores such as cooking, washing, child-minding, petty trading and so on (Tedam, 2005). Work, especially, which is within the family is seen as something positive for children's future (Tedam, 2005) and children themselves see it as something good for them (Meyir, 2010). In view of this the family and the community as a whole join hands to inculcate this vision into children and young people.

Theorists describe children's successful performance of household management and self-care tasks as fundamental experiences in building feelings of competence (Weisner, 2001). Family features, including socioeconomic status, affect the number and level of efficacy-promoting influences within the home environment, including by affecting children's roles in household responsibilities (Gager, Cooney, & Call, 1999). Bandura (1997) asserts that children's increased household responsibilities in impoverished families play a role in resiliency, with such children actively experiencing success in exerting control over their environment (Werner, 1992).

The perceived family obligations between parents and children have been most widely examined and they are the strongest, followed by feelings of obligation towards siblings, grandparents and- children, and wider affinal kin (Wijckmans & Bavel, 2013). McDaniel and Barksdale (2013) identified several responsibilities that children have to perform at homes.

As children grow and develop, they form many lifelong habits. In addition, they develop a number of skills, both socially and cognitively. They learn at school and they learn in play. They also learn at home. Most people would agree that one of the most important vehicles for developing skills at home is through the assignment of household chores.

Household chores for children typically involve making beds, putting toys and clothes away, feeding the family pet, sweeping the floor, taking out the trash, washing dishes, and so forth. However, chores vary depending on a number of factors, including the various needs of the family. What kinds of household chores to which children are assigned is often based on the personal characteristics of the child, the social-environmental factors involving family values and family composition, and the kinds of household tasks that must be completed (Dunn, 2004). When establishing chores, the parents should make certain that expectations are realistic (LaCaze and Kirylo, 2012). Is the child capable of completing the chore and to what standards? To avoid possible misunderstanding, hurt feelings, or resentment, parents should talk with and listen to their children to ensure that their children see a fair and equitable distribution of family household chores and how contributions are viewed. Children in most cases are expected to perform house chores without questioning or arguing with parents about the conditions under which a chore is to be done.

Whatever the family needs, completing household chores allows children to develop skills desirable for independent living later in life. These skills include participating with family members socially and collaboratively. For example, children must learn to interact with family members appropriately in order to complete tasks, which often include

working collaboratively with another family member. In addition, completing chores provides opportunity for children to develop time-management skills, decision-making skills, problem-solving skills, and self monitoring skills. Furthermore, empirical evidence indicates that children who participate in completing household chores are able to exercise better self-control, demonstrate positive social behaviours, and have a less likelihood of developing behavioural problems (Dunn, 2004). The skills developed in completing household chores extend into lifetime healthy habits.

This basic pattern of parents assigning household chores to children to promote their socialization and skills has been found replicated in every human culture. Parents around the world assign children family household work for much the same reasons: to assist the family, to channel the energy of children, to train them in age appropriate skills, and to teach children the skills they will need in adult life (Whiting and Edwards, 1988).

Children around the world seem to agree with parents that they should have a share in the household's work. In a survey of over 4,000 adolescents in six countries, the majority (97.2%) thought that all older children should be assigned household tasks to benefit the family (Bowes, Flanagan, and Taylor, 2001).

Another important point to keep in mind is that children often need guidance in staying on task and remembering to complete their chores. A key to helping children complete chores on a daily or weekly basis is having a consistent routine in place. Doing so helps children to develop habits and understand expectations. Also, because children develop their thinking from the concrete to the abstract, the use of visuals such as recording the completion of their tasks on a chart is useful in their attitudes of accomplishments. Children should learn to record their own accomplishments. They can do this with checks

or with stickers, for example. Children develop a satisfaction of seeing what they have accomplished, which may lead to their development later of intrinsic motivation to cultivate a lifetime of healthy habits (Cline and Fay, 1990).

Knowing that they are contributing in a meaningful and important manner to the smooth running of the household can provide a powerful sense of self-attitude. Parents should strive to acknowledge their children's contributions.

They can reward their children's completion of chores with positive reinforcement, such as giving a compliment for a job well-done, a pat on the back or a hug (Ricker, Calmes and Sneyd, 2006). Again, this can lead to the child's sense of intrinsic motivation and personal satisfaction.

In Kenya, children from poor family settings combine schooling and other activities such as household chores, farm work, work outside homes, and family business (Moyi, 2011). He points out that most of the students who work and attend school may be at a disadvantage because this constitutes educational inequality; learners who combine schooling and work and those who do not. Studies have shown that children in Kenya are engaged in domestic chores, often to the detriment of their education (Kadenyi and Kamunyu, 2006; FAWE, 2003; Ayoo, 2002).

The above categorisation of chores performed by children in the various age bands is more of a western conception than African, thus one would want to know what pertains in both traditional and modern African societies. Although not much has been reported on any such categorisation of age group performance of household chores in the African perspective, a study conducted by Omenge and Nasongo (2010) observed that of the 219

students who participated in this study; 189, 172, 142, 97 and 96 of them got involved in washing utensils, washing clothes, fetching water, harvesting crops and sweeping the house respectively during school days. This translated to 86.3, 78.5, 64.8, 44.3 and 43.8% in that order.

Many parents often assign their wards housework for various reasons. In Thrall's (1978) research he realised that parent's primary reason for assigning work to their children was to make the children feel to be part of the family and for equipping them with skills needed for adulthood. 72% of parents in White and Brinkerhoff's (1981) research stated that responsibility and/or character development were their primary reason for asking their children to work. 23% said they ask their children to do housework because they need help. Blair (1992) also found that some parents engage their children in housework because they are too busy to do the entire work themselves.

In the 70s and 80s, researchers grew interested in the amount of labour that is shifted to children when parents' time is being taken by their job. Blair's (1992) research on parental influence on children's housework uncovered that parents who worked outside of the home are more likely to indulge their children in housework than parents who work at home. This confirmed one of Peters and Haldeman's (1987) findings during their research on time used for housework among school-age children from single-parent, two-parent, one-earner, and two-earner families. However, researchers such as Bianchi & Robinson, (1997) and Hofferth & Sandberg, (2001) found no influence of mother's employment on the time children spend doing household chores. Blair (1992) and Crouter et al., (2001) maintained that youth in poorer homes, with single mothers, and

with employed mothers engage in more chores than youth in wealthier and two-parent families. Manke, et al, (1994)asserted that children overall were doing less household work, including children in families with two parents working outside of the home.

The influence of a child's gender on being assigned housework also became a popular area of interest for researchers during the 90s. Most children begin making household contributions on a regular basis by about age 9 years (Munroe, Munroe, & Shimmin, 1984; White & Brinkerhoff, 1981); and girls have more household work than boys (Crouter, Head, Bumpus, & McHale, 2001). This indication points to the fact that gender plays a lot of role in assigning housework among adolescents and adults. Adolescent boys tend to do about just half of the housework adolescent girls are engaged in (Brody & Steelman, 1985). Researchers also found that children's labour in the house increasingly develops to reflect the adult gender-typing of household labour. Adolescent girls are more engaged in housework such as house cleaning, shopping, dishwashing, food preparation and clothing care than boys (Brody & Steelman, 1985; Cogle & Tasker, 1982). According to Lawrence and Wozniak (1987), boys are also found to be involved heavily in the area of home maintenance and yard work than girls. Overall, researchers found that children's household tasks are less gender typed than those of adolescents and adults (Benin & Edwards, 1990; Goldscheider & Waite, 1991; Hilton & Haldeman, 1991; McHale, et al, 1990). Hilton and Haldeman (1991) indicated that the younger the child, the less gender-typed their chores appear to be. However, parents with more egalitarian gender ideology tend to assign their sons more housework tasks (Benin & Edwards, 1990; Weisner & Garnier, 1994).

Varying results have stemmed from studies documenting the amount of time children spend on household chores. Blair (1992) reported that children spent approximately seven hours a week on household chores. Robinson and Bianchi's study (1997) however reported children to have spent just under three hours a week on housework. White and Brinkerhoff's (1981) research reported children to have spent an average of four hours a week on household work. Cogle and Tasker (1982) also reported approximate children working hours as White and Brinkerhoff's. Individual studies documenting the amount of time children spend on household chores have found varying results. In White and Brinkerhoff's (1981) research, children spent an average of four hours a week on household work. Cogle and Tasker's (1982) research showed children spending approximately three and a half hours a week.

Within the framework of this study, the secondary school children are mostly in their teens (13-19 years) and thus may be only involved in the performance of household chores that are appropriately within their ages as indicated above. However, the responsibilities assigned for these young people to perform seem to be captured from adult's perspectives. There is little to glean from the literature about children's perspectives on what their responsibilities are, therefore becoming one of the Justifications for the study to be conducted.

2.6 Significance of chores

Rende, (2015), in writing a White Paper, *"The developmental significance of chores: Then and now"*, to help understand what current published research says about chore participation and its benefits, it became clear that while chores have been influential in

childhood and adolescence, the type of impact on daily family life has changed over the decades. First among his three discernible trends on the foregoing he said there was a consistent stream of influential papers published more than a decade ago proposing that regular participation in chores and household responsibilities carried multiple developmental benefits. There were review papers that cast chores as a healthy and proactive component of family routines and rituals that promote a sense of family cohesion and positive functioning in the home. Other studies, including more recent ones, reported benefits in terms of engagement in school and academic performance, reduced behavioural problems (both internalizing and externalizing), and protection from early drug use. Influential longitudinal studies, tracking from childhood through adulthood, positioned chores as a surprisingly influential factor that offered strong prediction of positive mental health in adulthood and professional success.

A second trend has been the recognition that the level of participation in chores and household responsibilities has been decreasing across generations. Studies have illuminated the declining percentage of time devoted to chores by children and adolescents across the decades. Intensive observations of middle-class families have painted a picture of the youth who are disengaged from household responsibilities, particularly in comparison to other cultures and generations. Most recently, a survey conducted by Braun Research reported that while 82% of American adults reported doing chores as a child, only 28% are asking their children to do chores today.

This leads to the *third notable trend*. Current research has focused on the negative attitudes that surround chores in the family. Adults report that household responsibilities are a source of mental labour and stress. Physiological assessments reveal that adults are more stressed at home as compared to the workplace. Finding an appropriate balance between work and household responsibilities compounds the issue. Married partners struggle to find what is perceived to be an equitable division of labour. All this negativity experienced by adults certainly filters down to children. Disagreements about chores are a primary source of conflict between parents and adolescents. Parents and children disagree substantially on how many chores are getting done in the home, with children reporting doing much more than their parents say they are doing. Finally, typical approaches to try to increase youth's participation — particularly providing an allowance — simply do not work.

2.7 Attitudes of Children towards the Performance of their Obligations in their Families

In recent years, a growing number of studies focused on attitude towards performance of responsibility. Kay-cheng (2008) discussed attitudes towards performance of responsibilities. It has also been found that people who place a high value on their work tend to take up responsibility. However, the literature is mute on attitudes towards performance of family responsibility in general within the family context.

Within that thinking, an attitude refers to our opinions, beliefs, and feelings about aspects of our environment. We have attitudes toward the food we eat, people we interact with, courses we take, and various other things. At work, two particular responsibility attitudes

have the greatest potential to influence how we behave. These are responsibility satisfaction and organizational commitment. However, attitudes that influence the performance of household chores is not delineated in the literature. Much of the literature on attitudes to work explains that attitudes toward colleagues may influence whether you actually help them on a project, but they may not be a good predictor of whether you will quit your responsibility. Secondly, attitudes are more strongly related to intentions to behave in a certain way, rather than actual behaviours. In other words, while attitudes give us hints about how a person might behave, it is important to remember that behaviour is also strongly influenced by situational constraints. The main factors identified as influencing attitudes towards responsibilities include the following:

2.7.1 Personality

Some experts have shown that personality is an important issue. Some people have a disposition to be happy in life and at work regardless of environmental factors. The literature explains that people who have a positive affective disposition (those who have a tendency to experience positive moods more often than negative moods) tend to be more satisfied with their responsibilities and more committed, while those who have a negative disposition tend to be less satisfied and less committed (Connolly & Viswesvaran, 2000; Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, de Chermont & Warren, 2003). In addition to our affective disposition, people who have a neurotic personality (those who are moody, temperamental, critical of themselves and others) are less satisfied with their responsibility, while those who are emotionally more stable tend to be more satisfied (Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002). Other traits such as conscientiousness, self-esteem, locus of control, and extraversion are also related to positive work attitudes (Judge, & Bono,

2001; Zimmerman, 2008). Some persons are able to make themselves amenable, happy and build better relationships, or they simply see their environment as more positive- whichever the case, it seems that personality is related to work attitudes (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman& Johnson, 2005).

2.7.2 Person-environment fit

Person-responsibility fit and person-environment fit are positively related to performance of responsibilities (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman& Johnson, 2005). This would imply that how a person feels within the particular environment such as the home environment the performance of household responsibilities. However, Verquer, Beehrand Wagner (2003) explained it differently. For them, the person-environment fit relates to abilities too. In their view, when our abilities match responsibility demands and our values match, we tend to be more satisfied with our responsibility. Therefore, what a person brings to an environment is fundamental. What we bring to our work environment and the environmental demands influences our work attitudes.

2.7.3 Responsibility characteristics

The presence of certain characteristics on the responsibility seems to make people more satisfied and more committed. Using a variety of skills, receiving feedback on the responsibility, and performing a significant task are some responsibility characteristics that are related to satisfaction and commitment (Loher, Noe, Moeller& Fitzgerald, 1985). They argued, however, that the presence of these factors is not important for everyone. Some people have a high growth need. They expect their responsibilities to help them

build new skills and improve. These people tend to be more satisfied when their responsibilities have these characteristics (Loher et al., 1985; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

2.7.4 Psychological contract

Psychological contract is a factor that has long been discussed in the literature as a factor of attitudes towards the performance of responsibilities (Premack, & Wanous, 1985; Wanous, Poland, Premack & Davis, 1992). These authors provided knowledge that after accepting a responsibility, people come to work with a set of expectations. Wanous, et al. (1992) explained that psychological contract implies that individuals have an understanding of their responsibilities and rights. In other words, when individuals have a psychological contract they know what is duly expected of them and have accepted to perform those responsibilities without any form of coercion, whatsoever. In a typical job environment, a psychological contract is an unwritten understanding about what the individual will bring to the work environment and what the company will provide in exchange. When people do not get what they expect, they experience a psychological contract breach. The effects of psychological breach are low responsibility satisfaction and commitment (Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski & Bravo, 2007). One way of preventing such problems is to provide realistic responsibility previews to people who are expected to perform them. The meaning is that students are expected to know their family responsibilities and what such responsibilities entail. This research examined the influence of this factor on the performance of responsibilities among students.

2.7.5 Changing family attitudes and conversations about chores

Rende (2015) posits that there is accumulating body of work on toddlers and young children that reveal an inherent drive to be a helper. There are many elegant studies that demonstrate how toddlers — even those not much more than one year old — are primed to help out an adult, particularly when not asked to do so. If an experimenter drops something, a toddler will pick it up for them. If an object is out of reach to the experimenter, a toddler will try to get it for them. Again, it is critical to realize that no reinforcement is necessary for this — in fact, any kind of material reward for helping behaviour in the early years *lessens* the probability of helping out in the future. Just like allowances, material reward seems to undermine youth's natural inclinations to be a helper.

One way we can support families to adopt a new mindset about chores, one focused on caretaking and helping rather than arguments about taking on low-motivation tasks, is to encourage family conversation. We've known, for decades, that the simple act of spending devoted time together as a family — as in the case of shared family dinners — pulls for more cohesive conversation, sharing of perspectives, open avenues of communication, and perceived positive support. Within these contexts of family conversation, it is suggested that parental talk about chores emphasizes “we” rather than the “you” and “me” and the nurturing aspects for caretakers and youth alike. Turning household responsibilities into shared activities provides social support and reduces mental labour and stress. Furthermore, there is accumulating evidence that a powerful form of reinforcement in childhood is to foster children's growing sense of themselves as a “helper” (as opposed to reinforcing the actual helping behaviour). Praising the child

using “helper” as a noun (rather than “helping” as a verb) has been shown to cultivate a sense of self as a caretaker motivated to help others. The family offers perhaps the most influential context to nurture this process, and reframing chores as a tangible way to help in the family — and a shared goal of family members — is a forward-looking way of reversing the troubling trends we have seen over decades.

2.7.6 Organizational justice

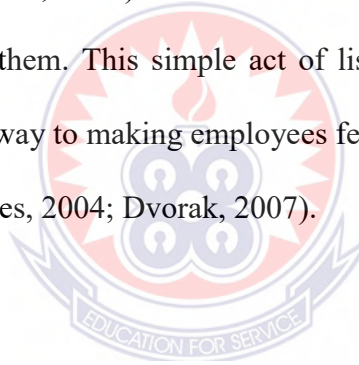
A strong influence over our performance of responsibilities relates to how fairly we are treated. In explaining this point, Cohen-Charash & Spector (2001) noted that people pay attention to the fairness of procedures, treatment from supervisors, and other rewards they receive. Organisational justice, therefore, spans beyond fairness in terms of treatment meted out to people. It extends to motivation provided to individuals as they performed responsibilities (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter & Ng, 2001; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). In other words, students who feel respected, rewarded, appreciated and treated fairly may be motivated to perform responsibilities than those who feel maltreated. This view is explored in this research as there is little literature on the subject.

2.7.7 Relationships at work

Work relationship is known to be a strong predictor of our happiness at work and commitment to responsibilities in more formal environments, especially from a leadership member theory perspective (Gerstner, & Day, 1997; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). The people we interact with, their degree of compassion, our level of social acceptance in our work group, and whether we are treated

with respect are all important factors surrounding our happiness at work. Research also shows that our relationship with our manager, how considerate the manager is, and whether we build a trust-based relationship with our manager are critically important for our responsibility satisfaction and commitment (Rhoades, & Eisenberger, 2002; Dvorak, 2007).

In a typical job environment, relationship implies a situation when our manager and upper management listen to us, care about us, and value our opinions, we tend to feel good at work (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002; Bauer, Bodner, Erdogan, Truxillo, & Tucker, 2007). Even small actions may show employees that the management cares about them. This simple act of listening to employee problems and taking action went a long way to making employees feel that the management cares about them (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004; Dvorak, 2007).



2.7.8 Stress

The amount of stress present in our responsibility is related to experiencing role ambiguity (vagueness in relation to what our responsibilities are), role conflict (facing contradictory demands at work), and worrying about the security of our responsibility are all stressors that make people dissatisfied (Kinicki et al., 2002). However, working under time pressure and having a high degree of responsibility are stressful, but they can also be perceived as challenges and tend to be related to high levels of satisfaction (Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002). Also, Miller, Rutherford and Kolodinsky (2008) explained that much stress sets in when people's work is all-consuming. This implies that people shirk responsibilities when responsibilities are too much. The concept

of always putting work first should become outdated so that the individual performing the responsibilities can expect to lead balanced lives and pursue hobbies. When work life interferes with family life, we are more stressed and unhappy with our responsibilities (Podsakoff, LePine, & LePine, 2007). Research shows that policies that help achieve a balance between work and personal lives, such as allowing telecommuting, are related to higher responsibility satisfaction (Gajendran, & Harrison, 2007; Shellenbarger, 2007).

While some research suggests that household responsibilities for children and adolescents are associated with somewhat negative outcomes, including less parent–child interaction (Blair, 1992) and “parentification” of children (Jurkovic, 1997), most research indicates positive outcomes for youth, including higher achievement motivation (Smith, 1969); more responsible behaviour and stronger nurturance qualities (Munroe et al., 1984); and more concern for others (Grusec, Goodnow, & Cohen, 1996). Outcomes of household work for youth appear to be related to parents’ reasons for assigning chores (Goodnow & Lawrence, 2001); youths’ beliefs about choosing or being “pushed” into household work (Fulgini, Tseng, & Lam, 1999); and quality of relationships with parents (Romich, 2007).

In 1954, Harris and his friends researched into the relationship between children’s home duties and their attitude of responsibility and found no positive relationship. Although household chores can motivate children to achieve higher goals (Smith, 1969) strong demands from parents for children to do chores can have negative effect upon the child’s moral senses (Kohlberg, 1964). During Baumrind’s research into patterns of parental authority in 1971 he realized that children who were assigned household chores were friendlier and more sociable than those who were not. Goodnow’s (1988) research into

parental ideas, action and feelings found inconsistent pattern in the effect of household chores on their personal attributes. In some other researches, high general competence among children between the ages of 8 and 9 years was associated with regular household chores along with parental control and supportive (Amato, 1989). Grusec, Goodnow, and Cohen (1996) also realized that, development of concern for others among 14 year olds (particularly girls) was positively correlated with routine household work that benefited the family as a whole.

Self-care (looking after oneself without direct supervision) is another responsibility experience in the family of origin. Kerrebrock and Lewit (1999) found that about 31% of 11- and 12-year olds regularly engage in self-care, with older children and children with single, employed parents engaging in more self-care. Romich (2007) argues that self-care is “work like” because it requires independence and responsibility for ensuring positive outcomes. Self-care requires self-regulation, including directing and monitoring accomplishment of homework, chores, or sibling care. Romich found that adolescents with supportive relationships with mothers were more responsible in accomplishing self-care and household duties than youth with difficult relationships with mothers.

If a child regularly performs household tasks or self-care while growing up, it seems those experiences would meaningfully affect self-efficacy development by offering opportunities to experience mastery and success, requiring responsible and independent action, and emphasizing self-control and assistance to others (Bandura, 1997). Successful accomplishment of regular chores requires effortful task-engagement and persistence. Because youth receive feedback on household task accomplishment from parents, and concrete rewards like allowance (Blair, 1992), reinforcement of positive behaviours is

increased. Even without positive parental feedback, the youth with regular household chores learn how to work; they learn to push themselves to accomplish assigned duties in pursuit of some goal (including punishment avoidance). Such experiences likely affect beliefs about one's work competence, as well as broader feelings of self-efficacy, even perhaps when relationships with parents are not entirely positive.

A survey carried out in 1998 by Kenyan and Japanese researchers in Kisii Central District, including Mosocho Division (SM ASSE, 2000), revealed that boys were engaged in such domestic tasks as feeding and milking cows whereas the girls performed such tasks as cooking, collecting of firewood and water. Some students involved in the survey said that engagement in such domestic tasks made them to sleep late and wake up early. Students also lamented that their participation in domestic tasks never left them with enough time for doing school assignments and also conducting private study.

Although efforts should be made at family level to have children participate in domestic chores, thus enabling them to acquire skills for use in adulthood (Owiti, 2006), care must be taken so as not to overburden them which could be detrimental to their education. Indeed, when the students who participated in this study were asked to state whether domestic tasks had a negative impact on their academic performance, majority of them agreed that it did. It can be observed from the study that only six or 2.7% of the students involved in this study took care of the young ones while nine or 4.1% of them took care of the sick during school days. Thus the two domestic chores affected students the least (Omenga and Nasongo, 2010).

Hamad (1994) conducted a study on the effects of the home environment on girl's academic performance in secondary schools in Zanzibar. The study sought to identify home environmental factors based on work-habits, parental guidance and support at home to see how these affected girls' academic performance in school. The findings of the study indicated that rural or urban areas' home work habits adversely affected students' academic performance. Work habits had a greater effect on girls compared to boys. The findings also indicated that girls spent less time on academic matters after school hours than boys. Although both girls and boys were equally exposed to the mass media, accessibility to them was less for girls compared to boys. The result showed that the majority (80%) of parents felt that there was a need to educate both girls and boys, but there were also parents who thought that girls did not need higher education and therefore did not take much effort to encourage them.

The study of Mbilinyi (2003) observed that most students especially girls are engaged in such activities as caring for their siblings when their parents are away, fetching water and taking care of the sick children in their family thus limit them to have enough time for study and make revision concerning their study which affected their academic performance.

2.8 The Effects of Teaching and Learning on Students' Learning Outcomes

The review of the literature on the above topic suggests that the attitudes of students towards teaching and learning and how the resultant learning outcomes are related to the kind of environment in which they find themselves. Several studies support the view that the factor most likely to affect positively students' attitudes towards teaching and

learning is an open classroom climate - an environment whose signifying features are teacher respect for students' ideas and teacher use of democratic leadership behaviours (Ochoa, 1991; Angell, 1992; Avery et al., 1993). The beneficial effects of an open classroom climate are cited by virtually every researcher and reviewer who looked at the relationship between educational practices and student results/outcomes (Harmood & Hahn, 1990).

Several other factors are for instance identified as affecting the impacts of Social Studies topics on students. From that understanding, the nature of the learning environment has a direct impact on the attitude of students towards the teaching and learning of concepts (Ayaaba, 2013). As revealed in Harwood's (1992) view of a research that investigated the relationship between climate measures in Social Studies classrooms and students' attitudes towards political concepts, open classroom environments featuring student participation and free expression have a positive impact on students' attitudes towards the learning of concepts. This is also confirmed by Blankenship's findings in 1990 that there was a positive relationship between open classroom climates and several civic concepts and attitude measures. The teacher's role in creating such an open and democratic classroom environment cannot be over-emphasised.

Hepburns (1982) writes that "the teacher's role is crucial because the teacher's way of managing the class sets the climate of self-direction, free exchange of views, egalitarian treatment of peers and at the same time, maintains order and direction in the group" (p. 26). The literature includes many kinds of factors that affect the teaching and learning of Social Studies concepts. Ayaaba (2013) delineated the factors as follows:

- i. Competence of teachers: Tamakloe (1988) examined the status of Social Studies in Teacher Training Colleges in Ghana (now colleges of Education) and found out that the subject was ranked in the lower third, just above Physical Education and Home Economics. He noted that the College Principals ascribed the situation to lack of competent teachers. The need for well trained teachers to teach Social Studies has been emphasized by Social Studies educators including Aggarwal (2001) who made it abundantly clear that Social Studies more than any other subject requires well trained teachers. Stanton's (1987) research with pre-service teachers revealed that two-thirds of them scored below the mid-point on an instrument that assessed teachers' knowledge about concepts in social studies education, while Kickbusch's (1987) classroom observational study revealed "a paucity of teaching skills with which to support... Social Studies education goals" (p. 178).
- ii. Lack of meaning of concepts: Social Studies teachers often present isolated facts with no regard to any context that might give meaning to concepts. Speculating on the reasons for such lacklustre teaching of concepts, Newman (1980) argues that bona fide discussion is usually suppressed by some teachers with the belief that the purpose of teaching is to transmit fixed knowledge to students. This is unfortunate because memorizing a lot of facts as isolated bits of information does not generate the meaning of concepts. As Seefeldt (2001) has pointed out, student teachers who are taught Social Studies by rote are rather like parrots who have been taught to recite without understanding conceptual issues.

- iii. Lack of training in process skills: It has been found out that teachers do not for the most part, provide training or practice in critical thinking, problem solving, decision making or other process skills (Avery et al., 1993; Berman, 1990; Levitt & Longstreet, 1993). In fact, the view that teachers should devote attention and time to teaching students how to think around concepts is popular among many educators today (e.g. French & Rhoder, 1992; Savage & Armstrong, 2000). The latter writers, for instance, stress that learners who leave school with highly developed thinking skills have powerful intellectual skills they can apply to develop and understand other concepts in new situations.
- iv. Avoidance of controversial issues: Either out of fear of complaints (e.g. from parents) or out of personal preference, most Social Studies teachers are unwilling to take up in the classroom the controversies that arise in society that must be addressed in Social Studies lessons (Eveslage, 1993; Levitt & Longstreet, 1993). The teaching of controversial issues is an integral part of the teaching and learning of Social Studies concepts and no effective teacher should compromise this on the altar of fear or intimidation in so far as such controversies are not personalized.
- v. Limited shallow textbook content: Most Social Studies texts are restricted in content, superficial in the treatment of concepts, and present facts out of their contexts (Avery et al, 1993; Eveslage, 1993). In Ghana, most Social Studies textbooks have been written by people with superficial knowledge of the subject, and hence sub-standard, a situation which seriously undermines the effective teaching and learning of Social Studies concepts.

These propositions will suggest that there is limited impact that Social Studies teaching can have on students. In that sense, the teaching of individual obligation to the family is most likely to have little effects on children's attitude of their obligations in household chores. However, little research exists that explores the children's perceived obligations in household chores. It is in this sense that this research contributes to knowledge.

2.9 Summary

The review of the literature, as presented above, so far indicates that children/young people have a role to play in the families they find themselves, and that these are tied to the socialisation process put in place to ensure that they become accepted and useful in their communities/societies. The roles children play, particularly in the performance of household chores, are often shaped by their gender, the kind of family they fall into, the status of their parents and the society as a whole. Adolescent girls are known to be involved in more housework than boys. Children whose parents also work outside the home are also likely to be involved in more housework than those whose parents work at home. Parental ideologies shape the various reasons they assign housework to their children. Some parents engage their children in housework for developmental purposes while others do it because they cannot do all the work since they are busy. Despite the researched factors that influence the roles children play in the family, the literature has been very silent on children's attitude and attitude towards household chores.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methodological approach, techniques and procedures adopted for the conduct of this study. It is divided into sections comprising the research approach, research design, and the scope of the study. There are also sections on the population of the study, sample size and sampling technique, and the instruments used in collecting the data. Other sections in this chapter include the validity of the instruments, the procedures adopted for data collection and the method of data analyses. Some ethical issues involved in the study and how the researcher went about them are also discussed.

3.2 Research Approach

Often the first issue that confronts the researcher, especially the relatively less experienced, is the choice/selection of the most appropriate methodology to adopt for the study being embarked upon. According to Gaskell and Bauer (2000) this is particularly so when one is to use the overall methodological approach to justify the research design, choice of data type and the analytical tools/procedures adopted for the study. The above task is however not a straightforward issue, especially when one gets caught up in the controversial debates surrounding the quantitative – qualitative divide in research. These debates have succeeded in pitching these two research traditions as opposed to each other, as they are seen as representing different theoretical and ideological perspectives, which have different epistemological and ontological characteristics, and thus of different relative strengths and weaknesses (Tierney & Dilley, 2002).

There are some authors who are of the view that there are both minimalist and maximalist versions of the debates, which are described as the technical and epistemological, respectively (Bryman, 1988). Whereas the technical version bases its choice of either numerical (quantitative) or non-numerical (qualitative) methods purely on pragmatic considerations, the epistemological version, on the other hand, bases its choice on what constitute legitimate enquiry and warrantable knowledge. Thus irrespective of the dogmatic position often taken in favour of either approach based on a perceived primacy is not issues for this researcher. Rather the choice of the overall approach was purely based on pragmatic considerations, having to do with the most appropriate method that will enable this researcher collect the data for this particular study and thus analyse and interpret them accordingly.

Thus taking into consideration the issues as raised above coupled with the intended purpose and issues to be considered in this study, the quantitative approach was settled on as the overall methodology to drive the conduct of this research. This decision was based on the fact that the characteristics of the respondents, issues involved in the study, the purpose of the study and the familiarity of the researcher to the quantitative tools made that approach easier and most appropriate in this direction.

3.3 Research Design

The cross-sectional descriptive survey design was used to assess the nature of household chores that respondents, who were students at the Senior High School level, perform in the various homes and their attitudes towards performing those chores. The data collected was also segregated and analysed to determine whether or not students who have been

taught the topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” in Social Studies will have more positive attitudes towards the performance of these chores than students who have not been taught this topic. Shields, et al (2013) elaborated that descriptive research is used to describe characteristics of a population or phenomenon being studied. It does not answer questions about how/when/why the characteristics occurred. Rather it addresses the "what" question (what are the characteristics of the population or situation being studied?). According to Olsen (2004), cross-sectional data represents information about what is going on at only one point in time, involving different groups of respondents/participants. Check and Schutt (2012) stated that cross-sectional design is a study in which data are collected at only one point in time. Gall and Borg (2007) shared that cross-sectional design is a type of investigation in which changes in a population over time are studied by collecting data at one point in time, but from samples that vary in age or developmental stage. Fraenkel and Wallen (2003) stipulated that cross-sectional survey is a survey in which data are collected at one point in time from predetermined population.

The study therefore involved two groups of Senior High School students; 1st Year students who are yet to be taught the topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” and 2nd Year students who are deemed to have been taught the topic.

3.4 The Study Population

According to Polit, et.al (2006) a population is the entire set of elements, that is, individuals, objects and events that have common characteristics as determined by the researcher. There are eleven Senior High Schools in the Tema Metropolitan area but due

to time and financial constraint the researcher sampled Tema Methodist Senior High School for this study. The school has a student population of 2250, out of which 700 are first year students, 750 are second years and 800 are third years. The population for this study therefore is the number of students in the first year and second year classes i.e. 1,450 students.

3.5 Sample Frame

According to Frazer and Lawley, (2000), the Sample Frame defines the number of population participants and how these will be accessed. Also, Gall and Borg (2007) stated that sampling frame is a list of all members of the population from which a sample will be drawn. In this study, the Sample Frame is the 700 first year students and 750 second year students of Tema Methodist Senior High School and their information is acquired from the school's student register.



3.6 The Sample Size

Using Epi-Info Statistical software and the known population at a confidence level of 95%, we arrived at a sample size of 240 for first year students and 260 for second year students. This sample sizes were chosen due to financial constraints.

3.7 Sampling Technique

According to Cochran (1977), Simple random sampling is a method of selecting units of a population such that every unit of the population has an equal chance of being part of the selection. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) indicated that simple random sampling is where each member of the population under study has an equal chance of

being selected and the probability of a member of the population being selected is unaffected by the selection of other members of the population. To reduce bias, the first stage of the sampling employed simple random sampling to select one out of the eleven Senior High Schools in the Tema Metropolitan Assembly for the study. This was done by assigning numbers to each school and then writing the numbers on pieces of paper. The pieces of paper were then folded and shuffled in a bowl where one was picked at random. The school that is assigned the number on the selected folded paper was then used for the study.

Simple random sampling was also used to sample students in their first and second years of study. The same method used for selecting the school of study was used to select students to participate in the research. Names of students found in their register (First years and second years) were assigned numbers. The numbers were then written on pieces of the paper and folded into a bowl. The researcher then picked one folded paper at random after each shuffle until the required number for the sample was attained. This exercise was done separately for the first and second year students. Students whose names are assigned to the numbers found in the selected pieces of paper were contacted for their concern to participate in the study. By doing this every student was given the same opportunity of being included in the research.

3.8 Data Collection Tools

The researcher used a combination of questionnaire and focus group discussions to gather information for the study. This is to ensure triangulation of data as noted by Punch (2003) and cross checking data from multiple sources to search for regularities in the research

data (Bag, 2007). Employment of two or more methods helps the researcher to offset the limitations associated with one method (Creswell 2003: Punch 2005) and to determine the accuracy of information gathered (Bush 2002).

3.9 Validity and Reliability Instrument

Validity refers to the extent to which the research instrument serve the use for which it is intended (Seidu, 2006). The data collection instruments were scrutinized by the supervisor to determine the suitability of the item before pre-test. All the necessary corrections in the items were made and declared valid by the supervisor. This was done to establish content validity. Construct validity was also ensued by critically developing it within established theoretical framework.

Reliability of a study instrument is the consistency of the instrument in producing similar results given the same condition on different occasions (Seidu, 2007). To ensure reliability of the research instruments, a pre-test was done in a different school within the same municipality. At this school a few students who are influenced by similar factors that affect the target population were randomly sampled.

3.10 Ethical Issues

The researcher was given an introductory letter from the Department of Social Studies, University of Education, Winneba, to obtain permission from the head of the school of interest to allow the study to be done.

The researcher explained the purpose of the study and procedure for responding to the questions to the study participants and participants were assured of the necessary

confidentiality. Consent of the respondents and their parents were also sought where necessary. The time and mode of interview was agreed on and the researcher conducted the interviews on the scheduled dates and times.

3.11 Data Processing and Analysis

The questionnaires was collected on the same day of distribution and collation was done within a two weeks after collection. STATA Statistical Software Package and Microsoft Excel were used for the collation and presentation of the results that were gathered. Information gathered from the focused group discussion was coded and entered into the STATA software immediately after each day's work. The results were presented in tables and charts with frequencies, percentages and appropriate statistics (e.g. means, standard deviations, etc.) when necessary.

A chi-square test is used to examine the association between two categorical variables. While there are many different types of chi-square tests, the two most often used as a beginning look at potential associations between categorical variables which is a chi-square test of independence or a chi-square test of homogeneity. A chi-square test of independence is used to determine if two variables are related. A chi-square test of homogeneity is used to determine if the distribution of one categorical variable is similar or different across the levels of a second categorical variable (Jennifer, 2012). The formula for calculating the Chi-Square test statistics is as follows:

$$x^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

Where:

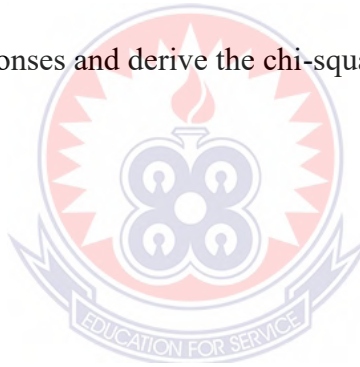
χ^2 = the chi-square statistic

O = Observed values

E = Expected values

n = the number of cells in the contingency table

The researcher employed the Chi-square test of homogeneity to test the hypothesis that the attitude of first year students on obligations in household chores is not different from that of second years. Proportional distribution of the responses from the second years was benched as the expected distribution while the responses from the firs years was used as the observed distribution. The “tabi’ command in STATA statistical software was used to key in the aggregated responses and derive the chi-square statistic and probabilities.



CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents results obtained from the data collected for the purpose of this study. The results are presented under three main themes that reflect the research questions employed to guide the conduct of the study. The results are then discussed within the context of the existing literature on the subject; with linkages being established and their relevance highlighted with reference to the literature. The chapter is thus organized under the following sections:

- Questionnaire Response Rate
- Background Information of Respondents
- The Nature of Household Chores Performed by Students at Home
- Students' Attitudes towards the Performance of Household Chores
- Effects of the Learning of "Individual Obligation in the Family" on Students' Attitudes towards the Performance of Household Chores

4.2 Questionnaire Response Rate

Figure 1 provides information on the number of questionnaires that were retrieved and the state of their completeness. In all 98% (N=196) -100 first year and 96 second year students- of the expected 200 respondents were able to complete and return their questionnaires. None of the questionnaires upon arrival got destroyed. The questionnaire contained 37 questions, out of which 26 were compulsory and the other 11 were optional. Out of the 196 questionnaires, 91.3% (N=179) were fully completed. Out of the

incomplete ones, 2% (N=4) recorded the highest incompleteness, which is, 14 questions incomplete. 6.1% (N=12) had only one question not answered and 0.5%(N=1) had 9 questions unanswered.

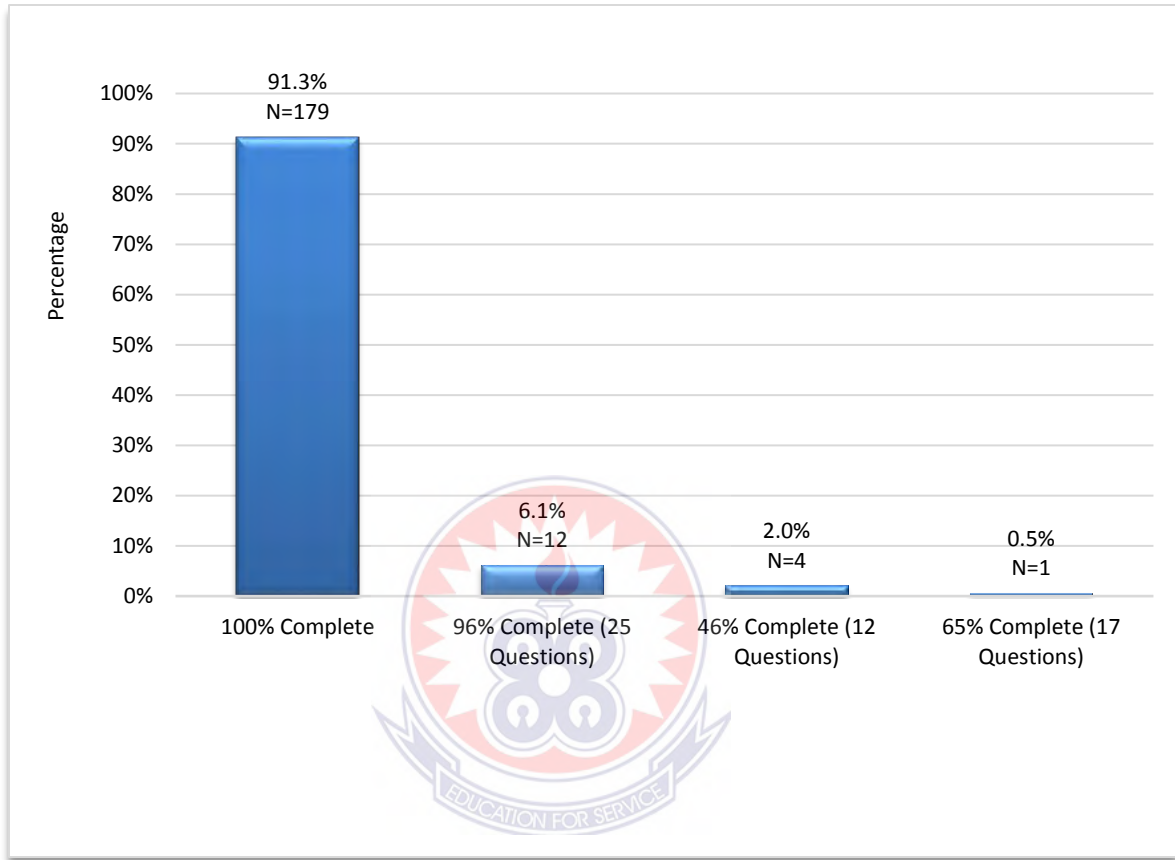


Fig. 1: Response rate

4.3 Background information of respondents

This section presents information about the age distribution of respondents and their parent/guardian and siblings.

4.3.1 Age distribution of respondents

As shown in figure 2, on the average, male respondents for the study were about 19 years while females were about 18 years. The youngest respondents among both males and females were 15 years of age while the oldest were 25 and 20 years for males and females respectively. Figure 3 also depicts that, majority (71%) of the respondents were female and as much as 75% of the total respondents were below 18 years of age. 69.6% of males and 77% of females were below 18 years of age.

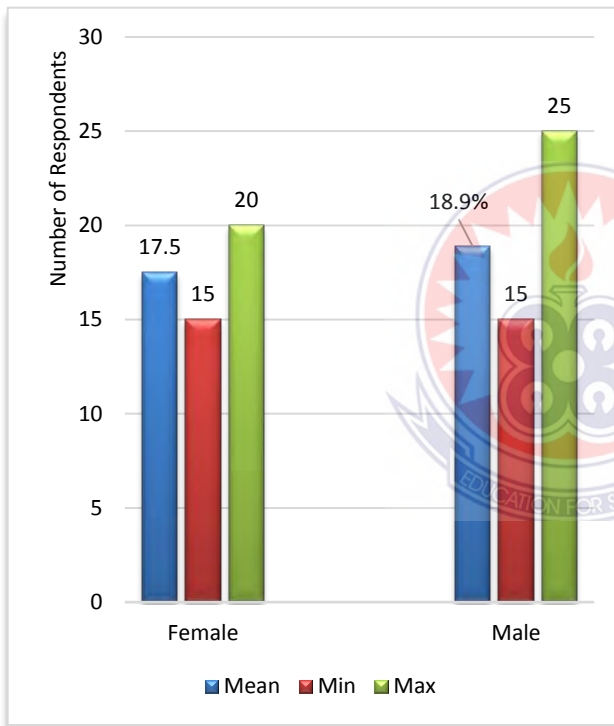


Fig. 2: Mean age distribution of respondents

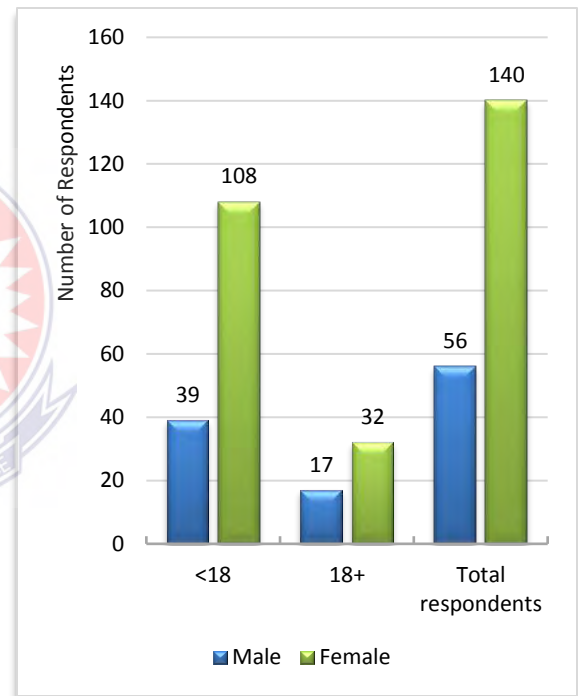


Fig. 3: Respondents' age group

4.3.2 Information on respondents' siblings

From figure 4 the median number of siblings recorded was 6 and about 91% (N=179) of the respondents were having between 1 and 6 siblings. The most recorded sibling size was 3 and it was stated by 28.6% (N=56%) of the respondents. The highest sibling sizes were 24 and 28 siblings, which is very extreme compared to the 1 to 11 sibling size recorded in the study.

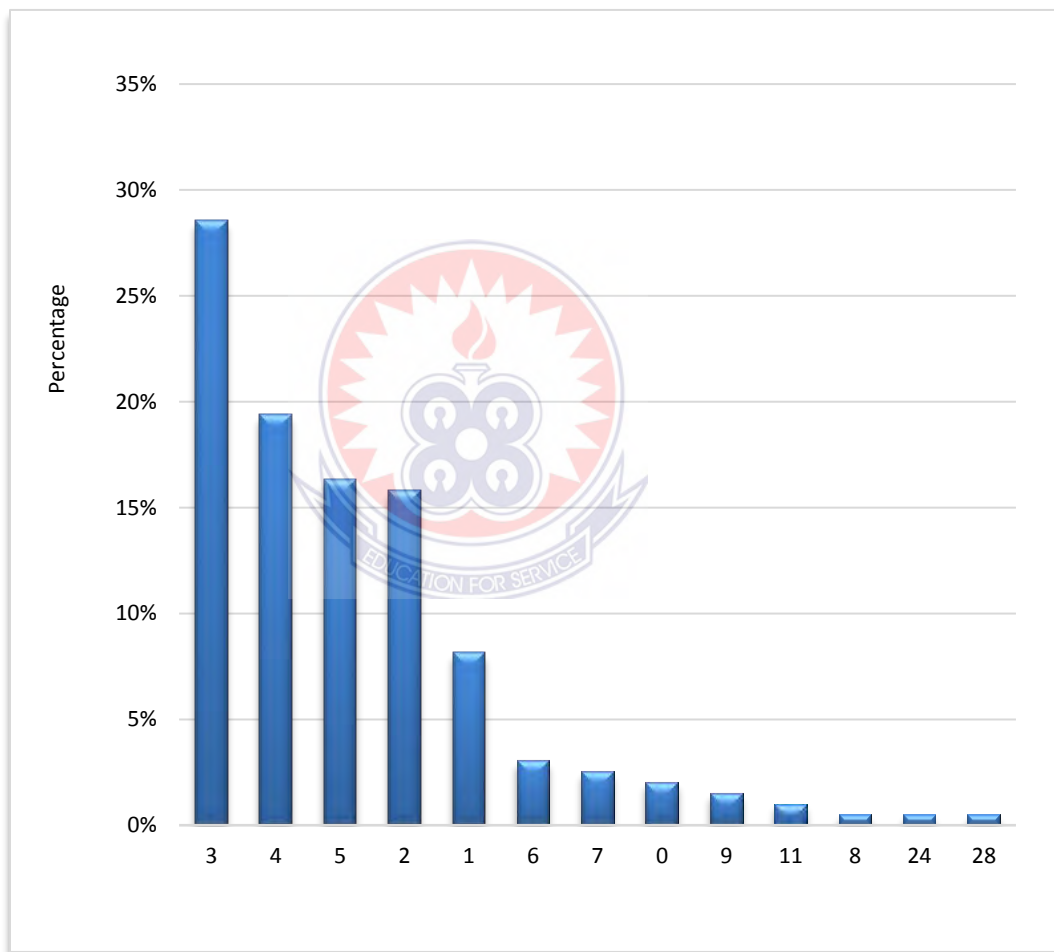


Fig. 4: Number of siblings

According to figure 5, as much as 30% (N=59%) of the respondents were the eldest children among their siblings while 12% (N=24) were the youngest. Yan Wang (2013) argues that, family size plays an important role in influencing the demand for housework. Additionally young children typically increase the amount of housework to be done, and thus increase the demand for (older) children's housework time.

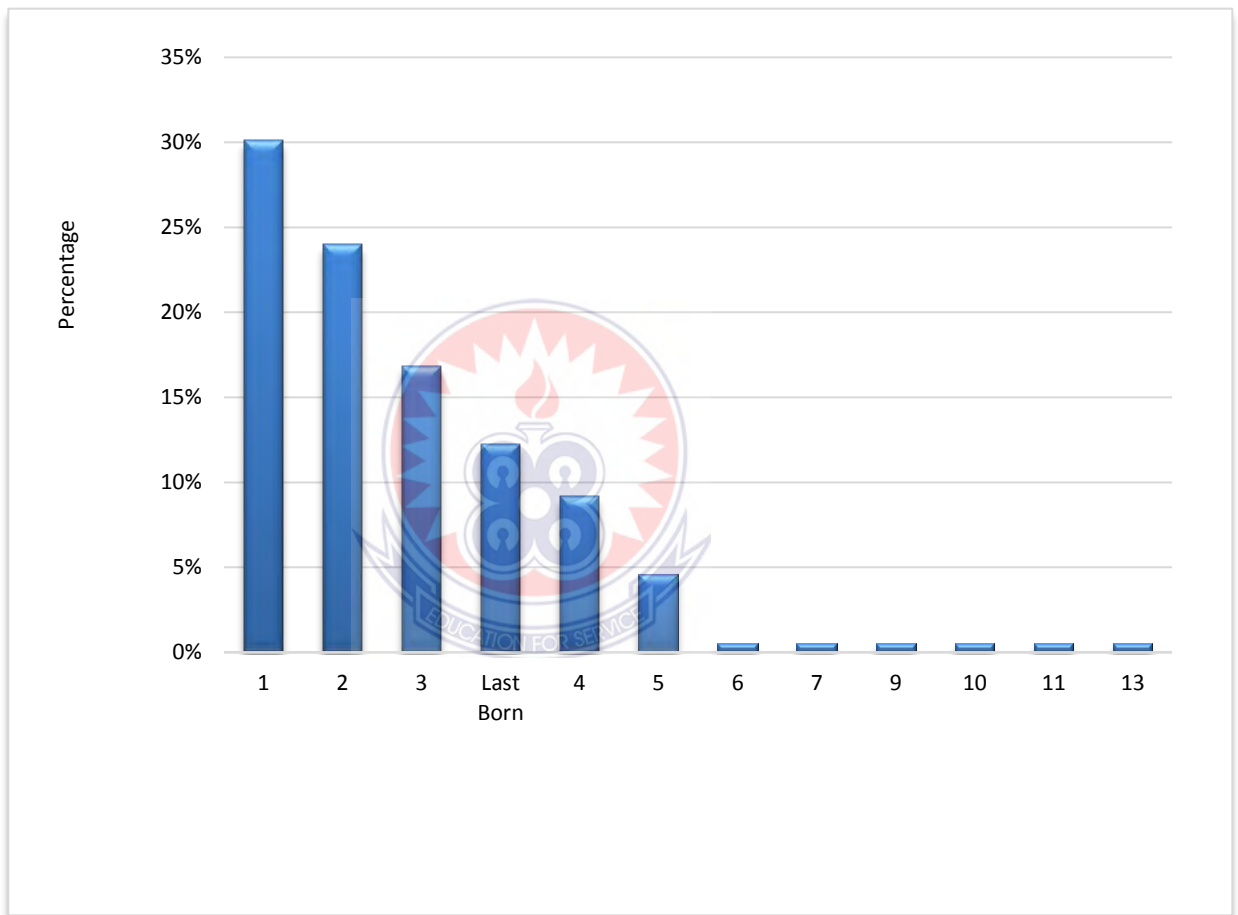


Fig. 5: Position among siblings

4.3.3 Information on respondents parent or guardian

From Figure 6, it can be noted that majority (54%, N=106) of the respondents were living with both parents. As much as 28% (N=55) are being raised by a single parent while 15%

(N=30) are living with relatives. Only 1.5% (N=3) lives with non-relatives. The 16.5% (N=33) respondents who do not stay with any of their parents have a high tendency of not performing family obligations as asserted by Daatland (2007).



Fig. 6: Parenting state of respondents

Figure 7 below depicts that as much as 27% (N=52) of the respondents' parents/guardians have gone through tertiary education while 33% (N=65) and 28% (N=54) have attained senior and junior secondary educations respectively.

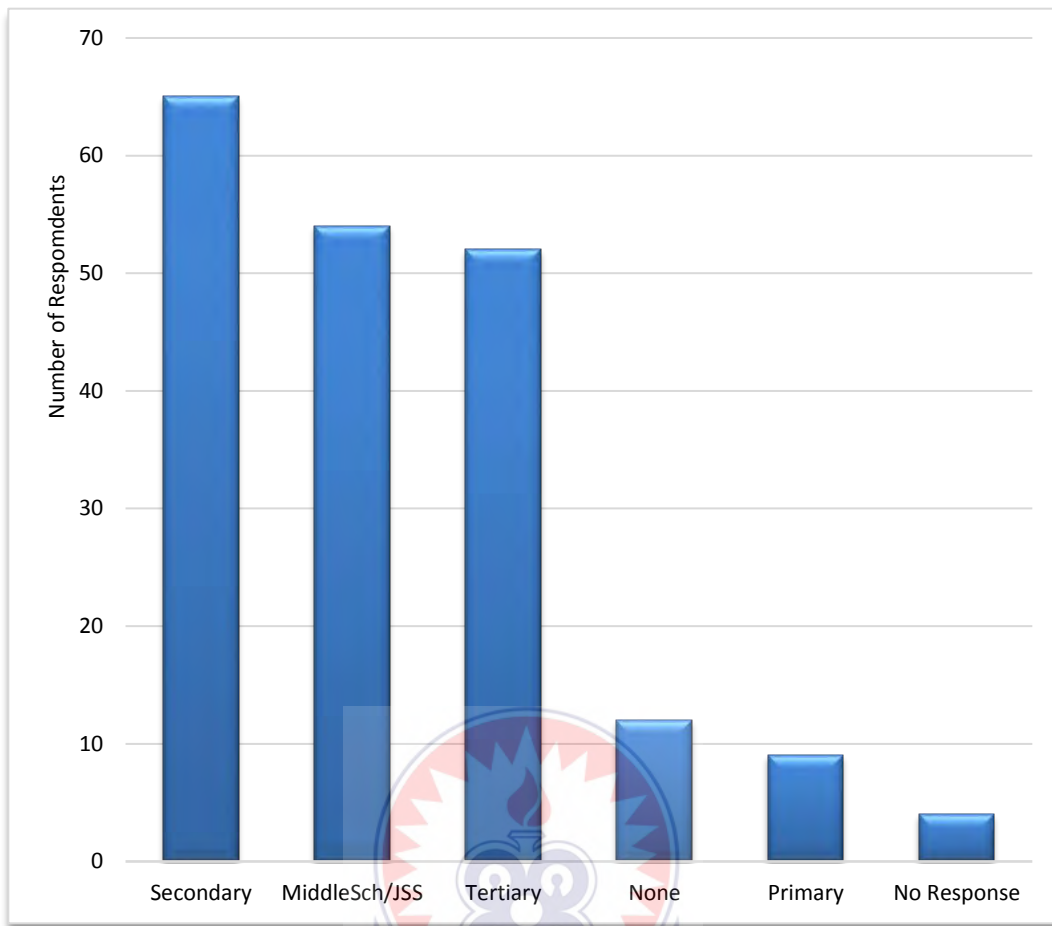


Fig. 7: Educational status of parents or guardians

4.4 Nature of Housework Students Perform at Home

This section presents findings of the study emanating from the analysis of data collected in respect of the first research question, which states “*What is the nature of household chores students perform in their homes, as their obligations towards their families?*” The findings are presented under sub-themes such as the kind of household chores students perform at home, the number of chores they do and the frequency at which they are engaged in chores. This information is subsequently analysed against basic backgrounds such as single/double parenting and educational background of parents/guardians.

4.4.1 Kind of household chores students perform at home

The study revealed that children engaged in this study runs errands for their parents/guardians, cooks at home, irons clothing for the home, does home repairs and maintenance, baby-sits and goes for hawking as part of the chores they undertake at home. These stated chores were also outlined by McDaniel and Barksdale (2013) in their study as they identified several responsibilities that children have to perform at homes.

It was also realized that the most likely chore that majority of the children (both boys and girls) are likely to be engaged in is “running of errands”. From figure 8, as much as 84% (N=164) of the respondents indicated that they run errands for their parents/guardians. The next chore both boys and girls are likely to be engaged in is cooking. 77% (N=151) of the children do cooking as part of their household chores. About 91% (N=127) of girls and 43% (N=24) of boys do cooking at home. Ironing of clothes ranks next to cooking on the chore list boys and girls perform at home. 72% (N=142) of both boys and girls do ironing as part of their chores at home. 66% (N=37) of boys and 75% (N=105) of girls do ironing as chore at home. Baby-sitting ranked fourth among the chores children do and it was frequent among girls than boys. 20% (N=40) of both boys and girls do baby-sitting at home. 22% (N=31) of girls and 16% (N=9) of boys do baby-sitting at home. Home repairs ranked fifth among the chores stated and more boys are involved in it than girls. 34% (N=19) of boys and 13% (N=19) of girls stated they do home repairs and maintenance as part of their chores. 19% (N=37) of both boys and girls do home repairs and maintenance. The least ranking chore was hawking and only 9% (N=18) of children

stated that they go hawking. About 9% each of boys and girls reported they go for hawking as part of their chores.

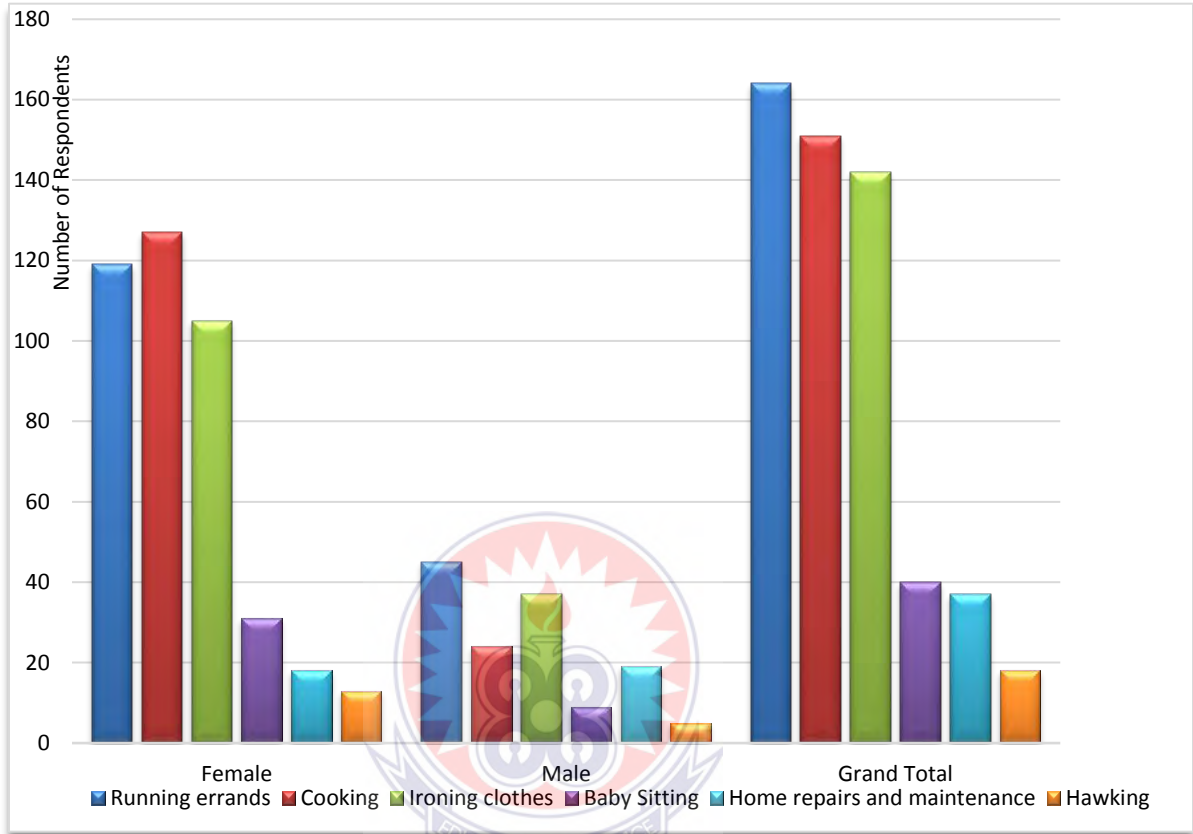


Fig. 8: Kind of chores students perform at home

From figure 9 below it can be realized that, although some children do not do any kind of chore, others do as much as nine chores at home. On the average, children do about 5 different chores at home.

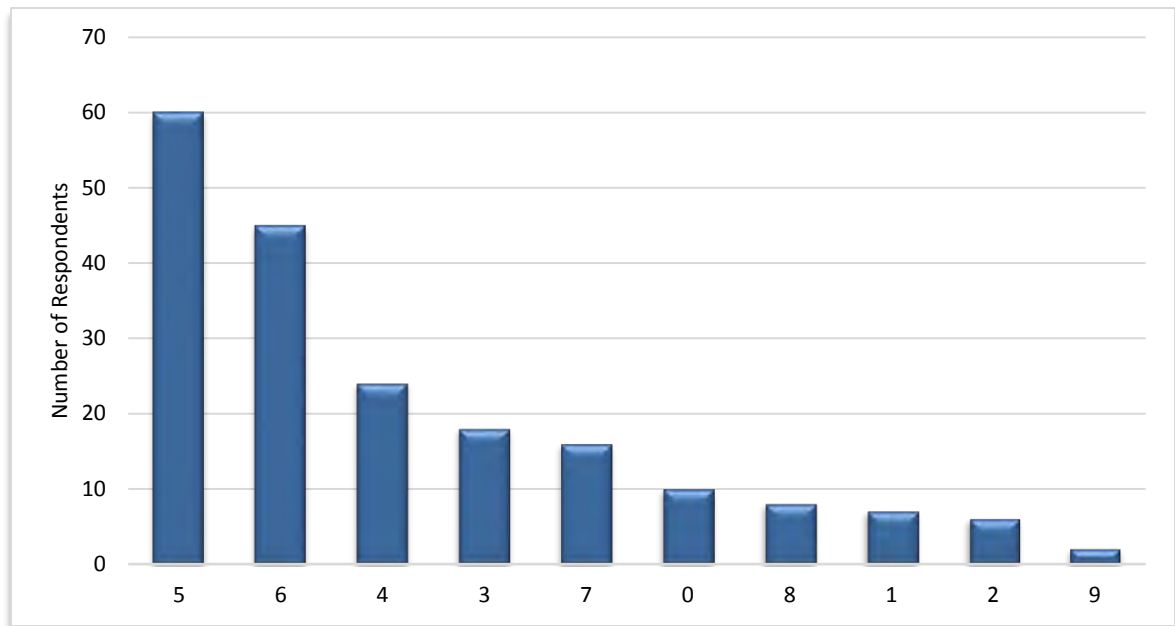


Fig. 9: Number of chores students perform at home

4.4.2 Time for chore

The time for chore examine how much work children are burdened with. The researcher sorted to know which time of the day children are made to do chores and the time they finish. Figure 10 reveals that more children are burdened twice a day to do chores. As much as 68.4% are made to do chores during both mornings and evenings. 26% are made to do chores only in the morning or evening and 5% are not made to do chores at all.

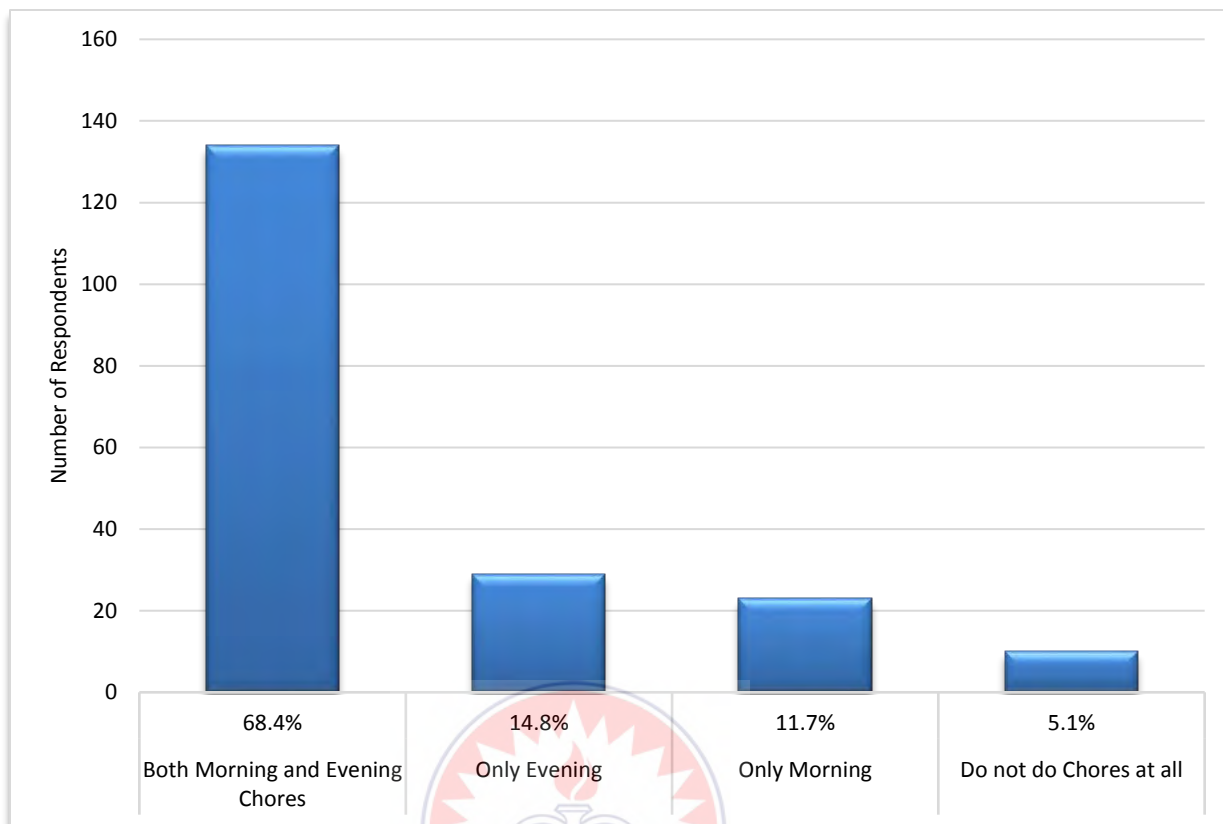


Fig. 10: Time of day for chore

Figure 11 below throws more light on which time of the day children are engaged in household chores. It reveals that 55% of children who stay with single parents do chores both mornings and evenings. This proportion is however lesser than the 71% of those who stay with both parents and 76% of those who do not stay with any of their parents and do chores both mornings and evenings. The less involvement of children by single parent was also revealed by Lin's (2008) research which asserted a decline in involvement of children by their parents after divorce. However, Blair (1992) and Crouter et al., (2001) maintained that youth with single parents engage in more chores than youth in two-parent families.

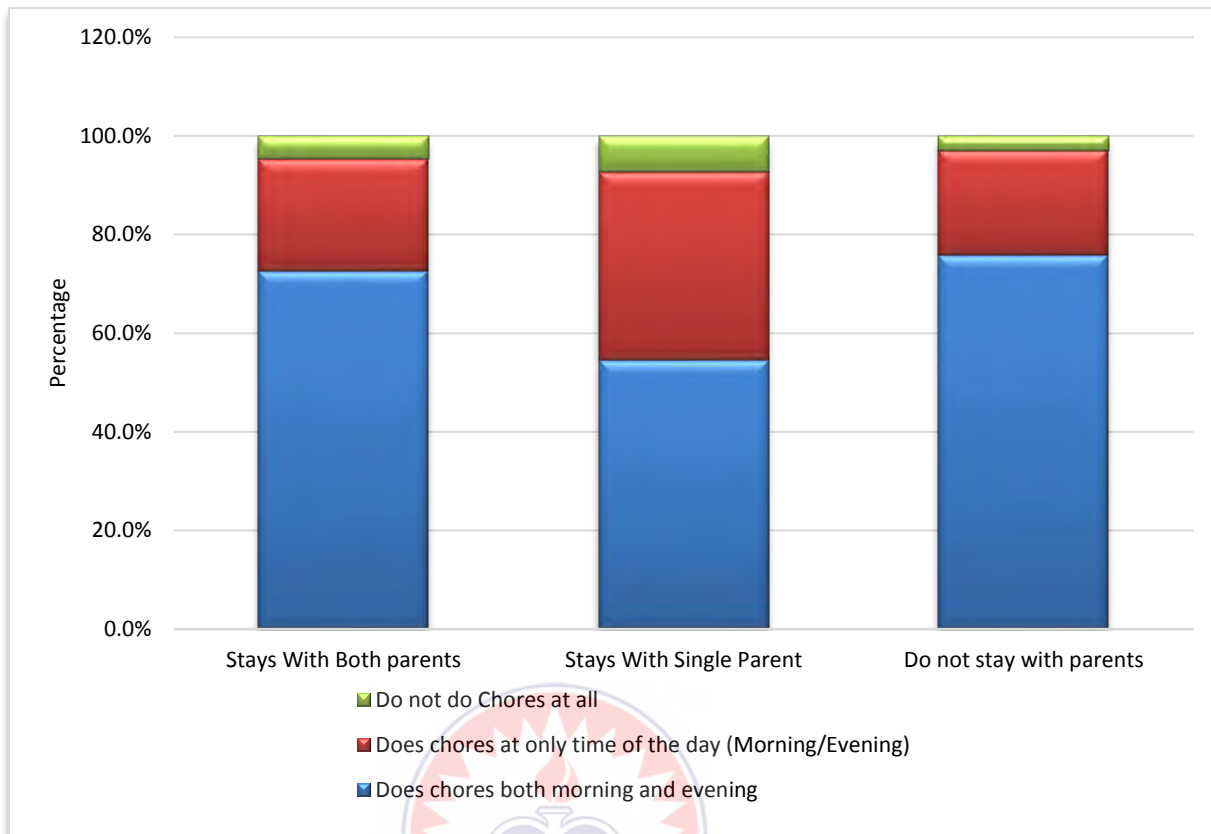


Fig. 11: Time of day for chore and parenting

Figure 12 below is used to depict the educational level of parents/guardians and the frequency at which children are engaged in household chores. It revealed that children whose parents/guardians have had no formal or primary education do not frequently engaged in chores like those whose parents have had formal education from the Junior Secondary to the Tertiary level. 58.3% and 44.4% of children whose parents/guardians have had no formal and primary education respectively are engaged in chores both in the mornings and evenings. These are lesser than the 73.1%, 66.7% and 72.3% of those whose parents/guardians have had Junior secondary, Senior Secondary and Tertiary education respectively and are engaged in chores both mornings and evening.

The Figure also indicate that 8 out of 10 (80%) of the children who are not engaged in chores at all have parents or guardians who are educated up to the senior secondary level. All children whose Parents/ guardians do not have any formal education or are educated up to the primary level are engaged in one chore or the other at a point during the day.

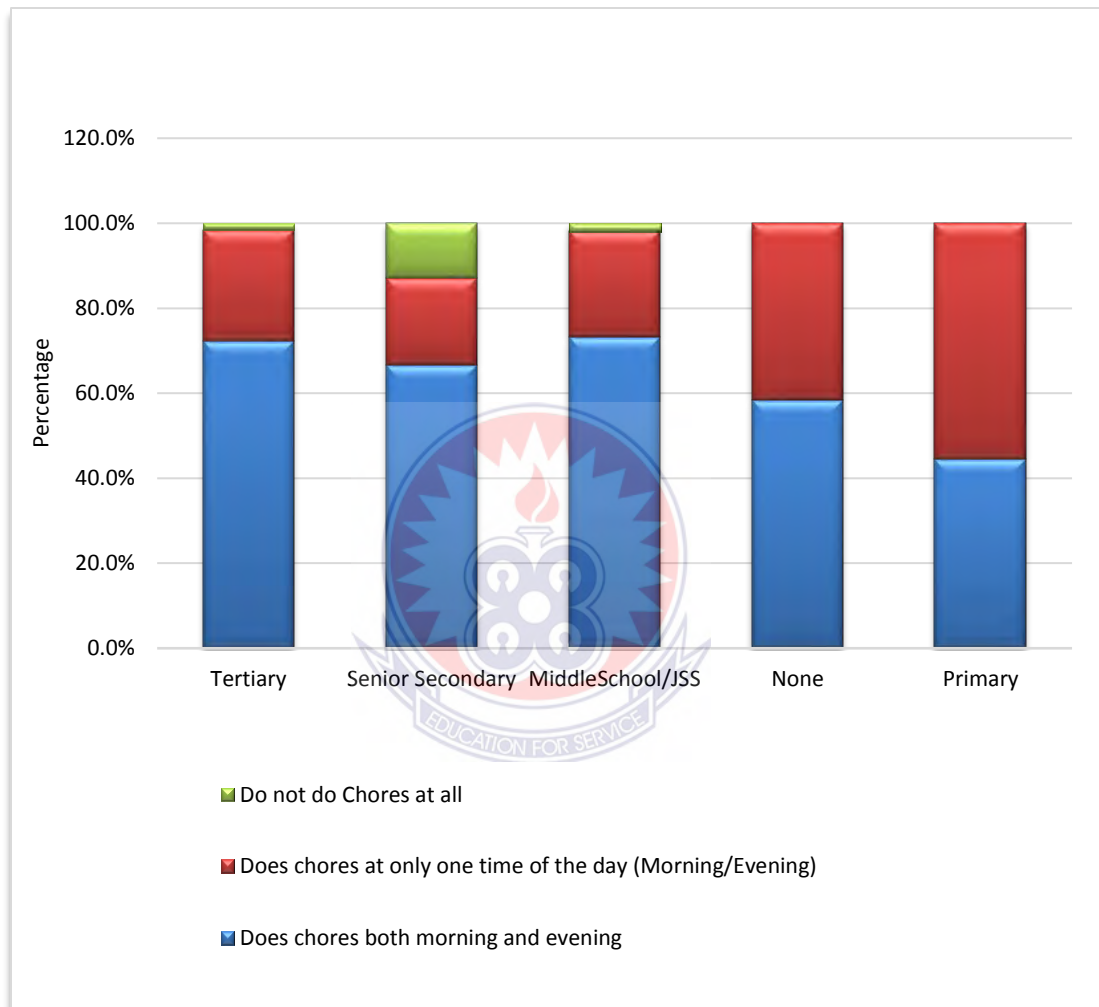


Fig. 12: Time of day for chore and parent/guardian's educational status

Although most children are frequently engaged in chores, 51% of those who do morning chores finish their chores by 5am and this gives them room to prepare to get to school early since reporting time in most schools is 7am. Those who finish their chores by 6am (33%) and above (16%) are most likely to be late for school (Figure 13).

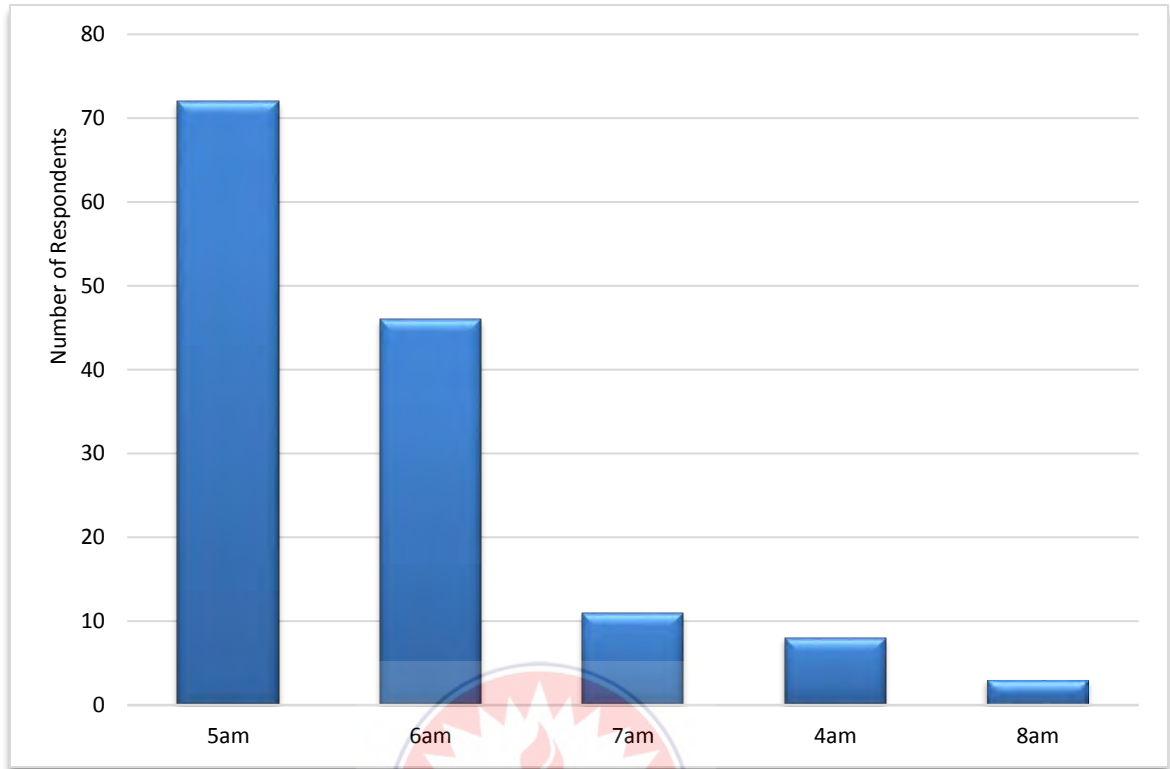


Fig. 13: Time for finishing morning chores

According to National Sleep Foundation (2017), teenagers are supposed to have 8 to 10 hours of sleep at night. For children to have 8 or more hours sleep and still be able wake up early to do household chores and prepare to go to school before 7am, they will need to sleep at 8pm. From Figure 14 below, it could be deduced that 55% of children who do chores in the evening are able to finish their chores by 7pm and this gives them the room to settle for bed by 8pm. The rest of the 45% of respondents who finish their household chores after 7pm, are likely to sleep after 8pm. The 18% who finishes their evening chores as late as 9 and 10pm are likely to sleep as late as 11pm, which can cause them not to have their 8 hours sleep if they are to wake up as early as 5am to prepare for school.

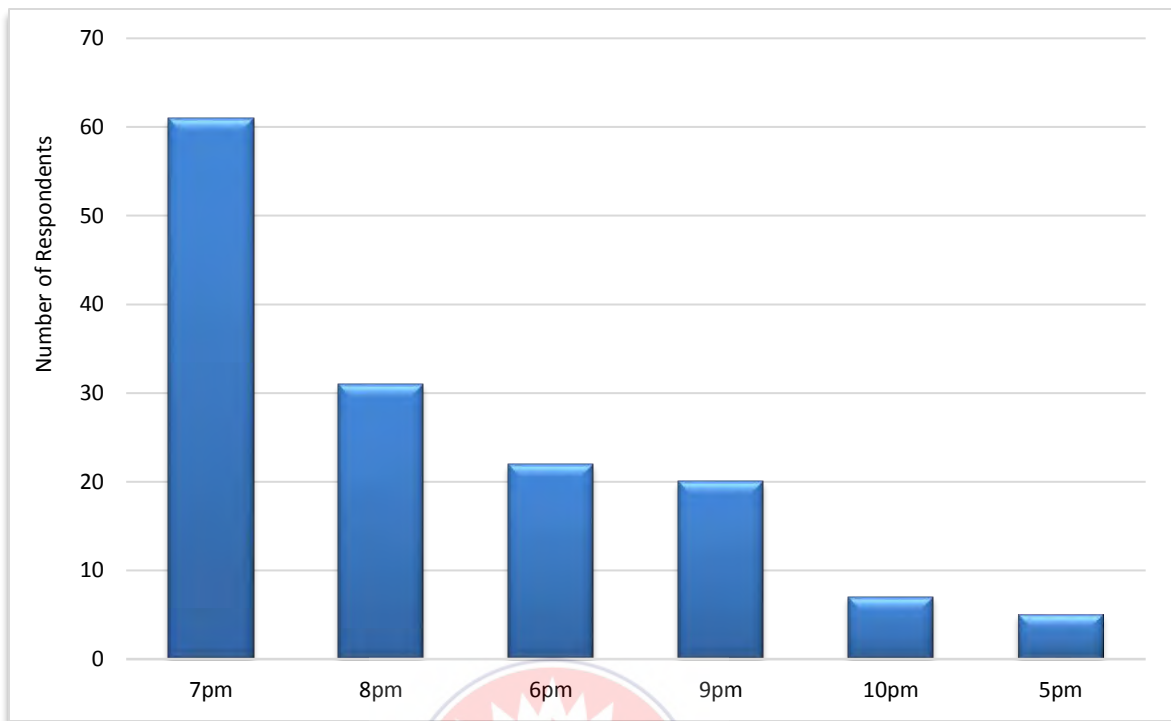


Fig. 14: Time for finishing evening chores

4.5 Students' Attitude towards the Performance of Household Chores

This section covers the presentation of findings of the study, based upon the analysis of data collected in order to answer the second research question posed to guide the conduct of the study. This research question is stated as, “*What attitudes do students have towards the performance of household chores, as their obligation towards their families*”? In this section various charts are used to represent the responses of the student respondents, after which the findings are discussed in relation to the existing literature.

Figure 15, as presented below, paints a clear picture that the majority of respondents, irrespective of their academic year of study, agree that it is their responsibility to co-operate with their parent/guardian at home. As much as 93% and 88% of 1st year students and 2nd year students respectively agreed that it is their responsibility to co-operate with their parents/guardians. Also, as much as 86% and 85% of 1st year students and 2nd year students respectively agreed that it is their responsibility to support their parents/guardians (Figure 16). This indicates that children are very much aware of their responsibility to co-operate with their parents as stated in the United Nations Convention on Rights of Children.

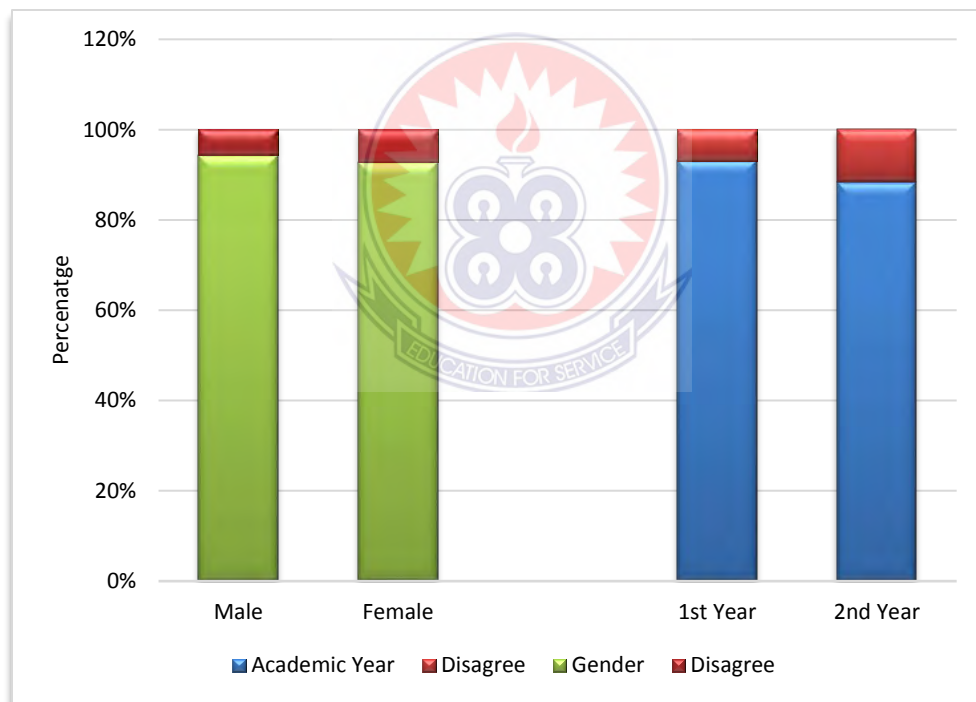


Fig. 15: Students who feel it is their responsibility to co-operate with their parents/guardians in performing household chores

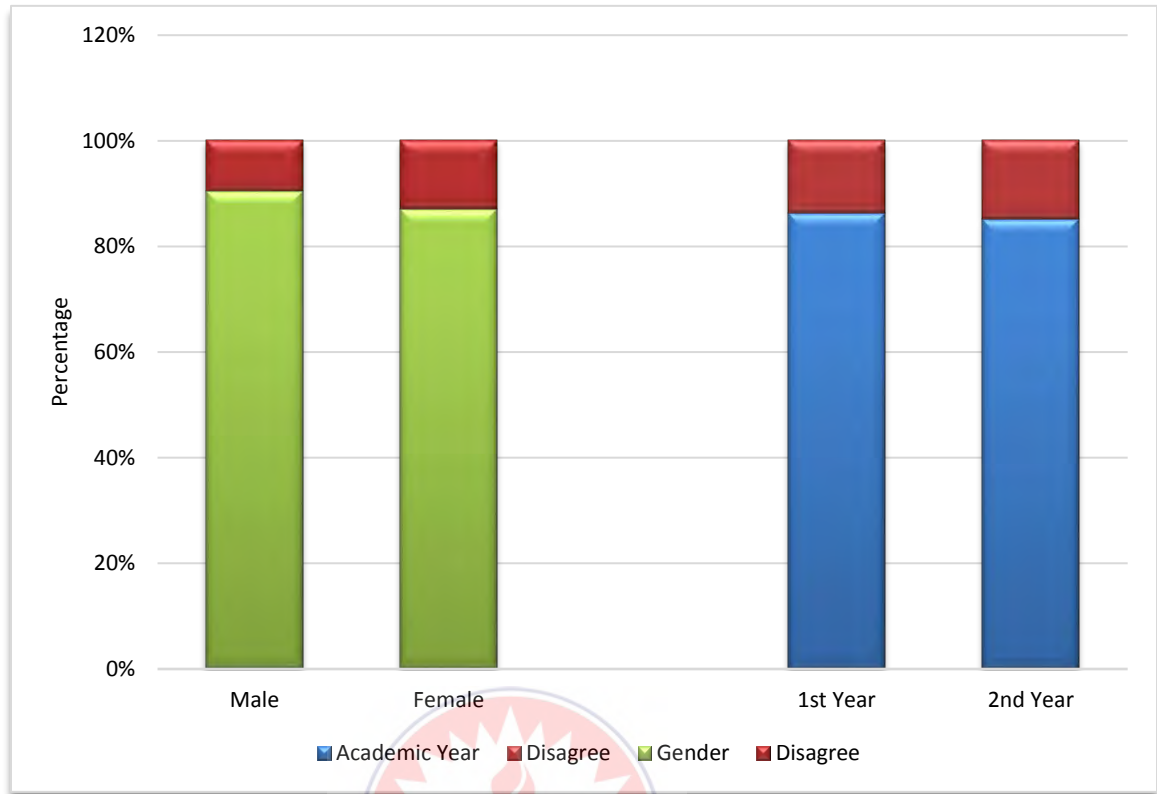


Fig. 16: Students who agree that it is their responsibility to support their parents/guardians in performing household chores

When the students were asked whether they are obliged to perform household chores or not, more than 80% of both 1st year students and 2nd year students felt they are obliged to do it. However, more proportion of girls (17.4%) felt they are not obliged to perform household chores than the proportion of boys (7.5%). Also the proportion of 2nd year respondents who disagreed with the statement that they are not obliged to perform household chores (10.6%) are less than that of the 1st year respondents (17.6%) who disagreed (see Figure 17).

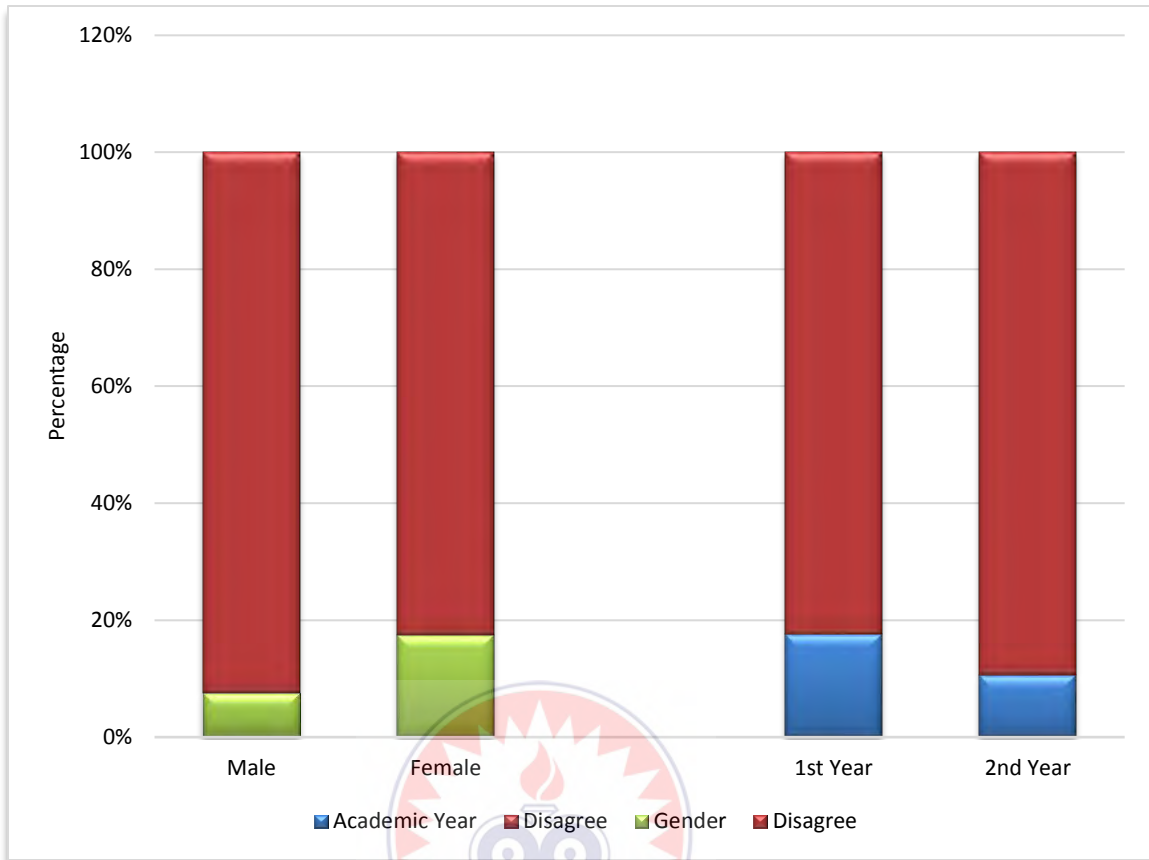


Fig. 17: Students who feel that they are not obliged to perform household chores

Generally, majority of both 1st year students (77.5%) and 2nd year students (73.4%) were satisfied with the kind of chores they do at home. Although 2nd year students have been thought the topic on family obligations, more of them (27%) seem to be unsatisfied with the kind of chores they do at home than the 1st year student (23%) who have not been taken through the topic (see Figure 18).

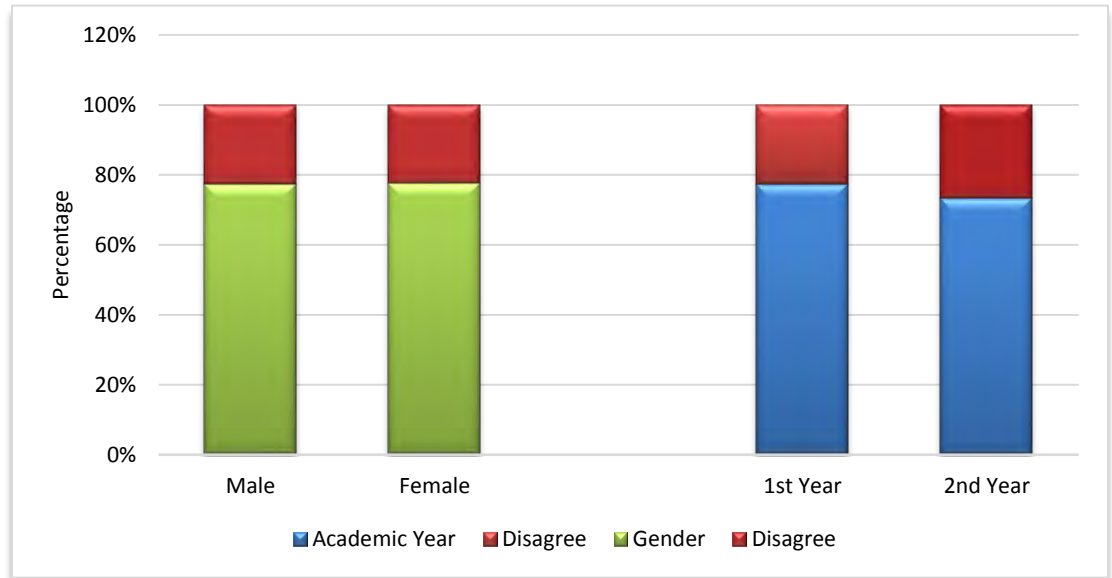


Fig. 18: Students who are satisfied with the kind of household chores they do at home

It is noticeable from Figure 19 below that none of the respondents who were not satisfied with the chores they do at home lives with both parents. The majority of such respondents (77%, N=17) live with male guardians (Father/Uncle).

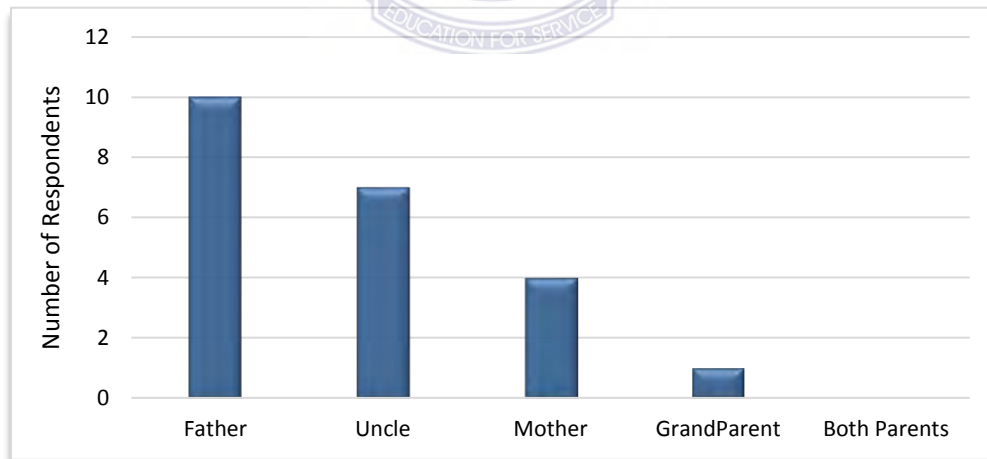


Fig. 19: Students who are not satisfied with the kind of household chores they do at home and the family they live with

It is interesting to note from Figure 20 below that student respondents who were not satisfied with the kind of chores they do at home were however happy doing them anyway. In this respect the analysis of the data revealed that 83% and 80% of 1st Year students and 2nd Year students, respectively, were happy doing chores at home. The analysis also revealed that more proportion of girls (90%) are happy doing chores than boys (75%).

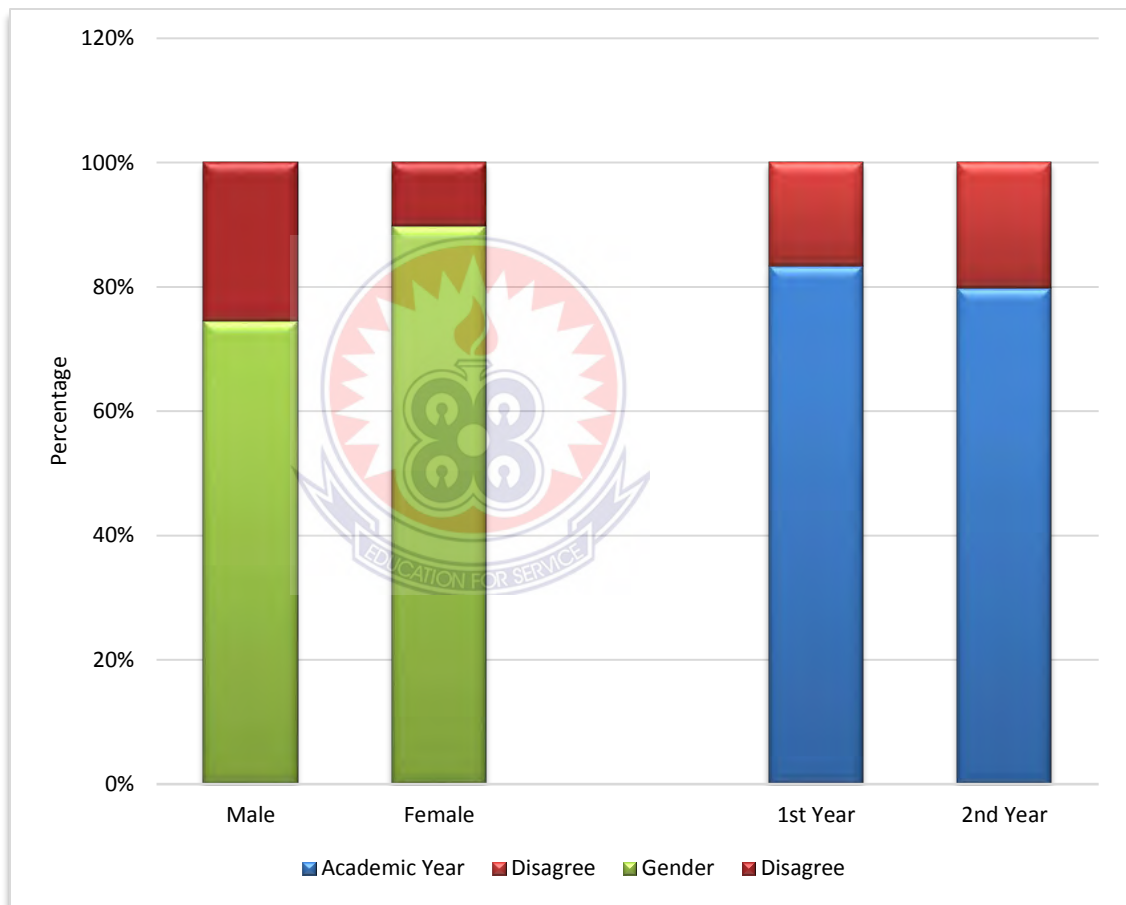


Fig. 20: Students who feel happy to perform household chores

The majority of the respondents (65% of 1st year students and 73% of 2nd year year students) feel doing chores at home do not improve their academic performance. More proportion of boys (78%) than girls (63%) did agree with the statement to that effect (see Figure 21).

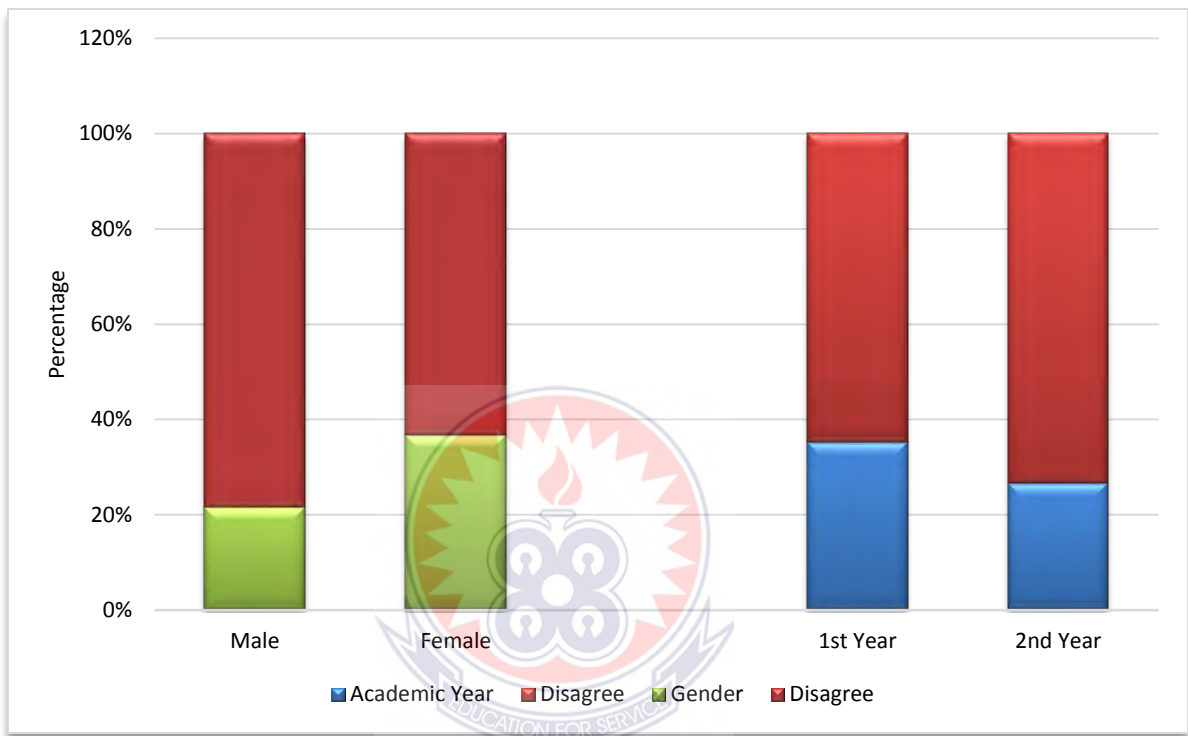


Fig. 21: Students who feel doing chores at home improves their academic performance

It was realized that, as much as 73% of the few who disagreed that doing chores at home improves their academic performance do their chores both in the mornings and evenings. It was also revealed that 15% and 12% of the respondents do their chores only in the evenings or mornings respectively (see Figure 22).

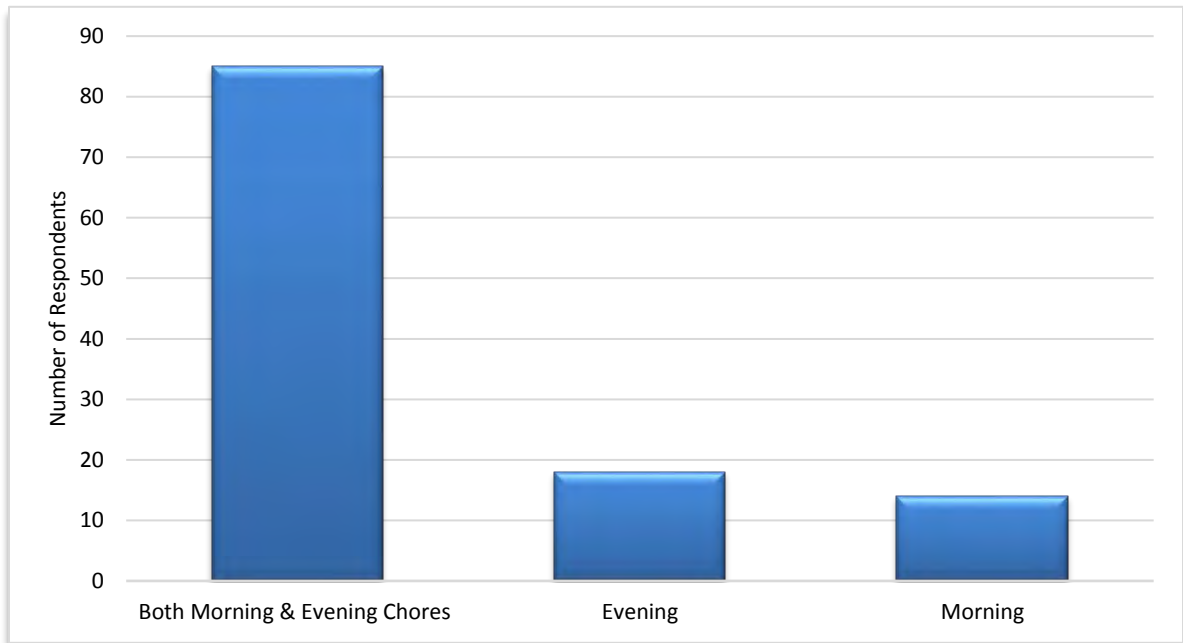


Fig. 22: Students who disagreed that doing chores at home do not improve their academic performance and the time of day they do the chores

Irrespective of gender and academic year of study, more than 90% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that household chore is a form of punishment (see Figure 23).

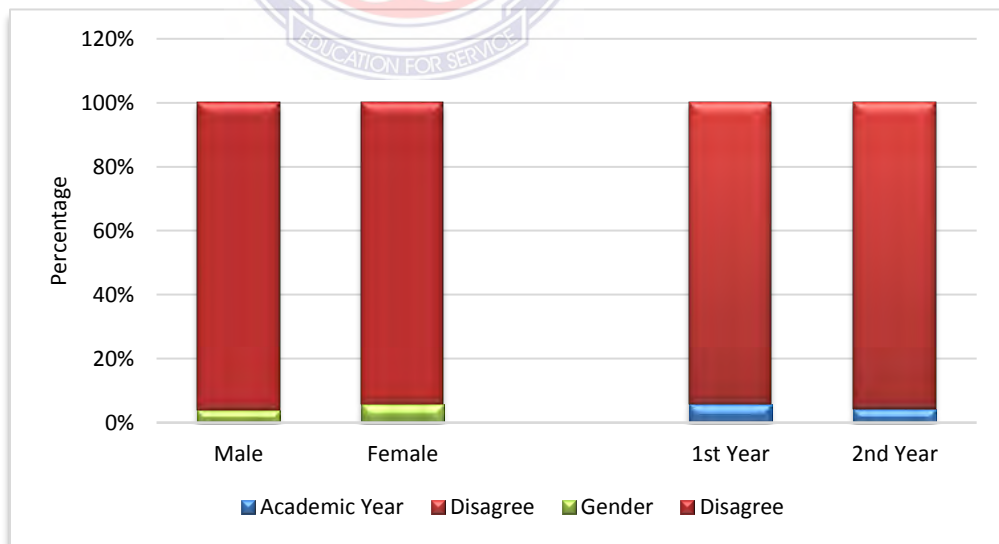


Fig. 23: Students who feel performing household chore is a form of punishment

As shown in Figure 24 below, only about 11% of both First Year and 2nd Year students feel they have to be paid for the chores they do at home. In this respect more proportion of boys (19.2%) than girls (9%) felt so.

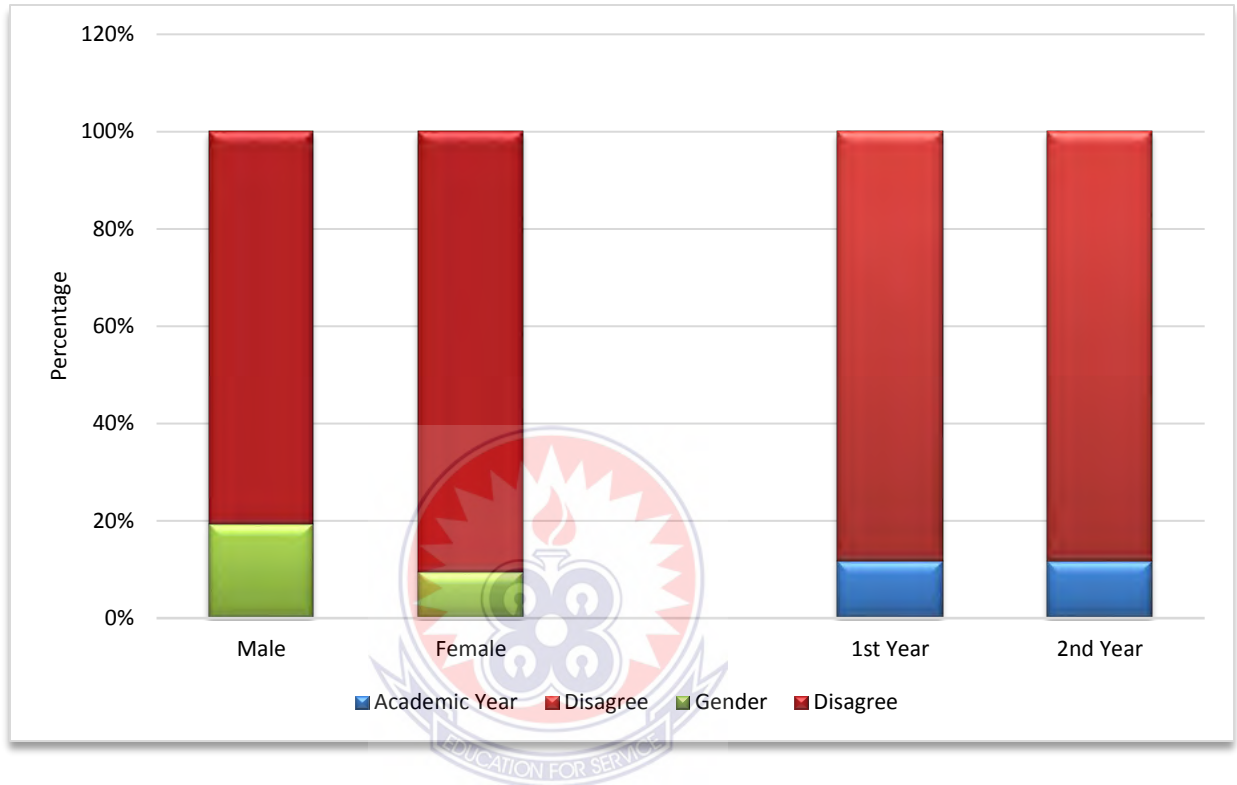


Fig. 24: Students who feel they have to be paid for doing chores at home

Although some respondents feel they have to be paid for the chores they do at home, the majority of them stated that they do their chores willingly (83% of respondents in the 1st Year and 79% of respondents in the 2nd Year). The findings also indicate that more girls (89%) do chores willingly than boys (73%) (see Figure 25).

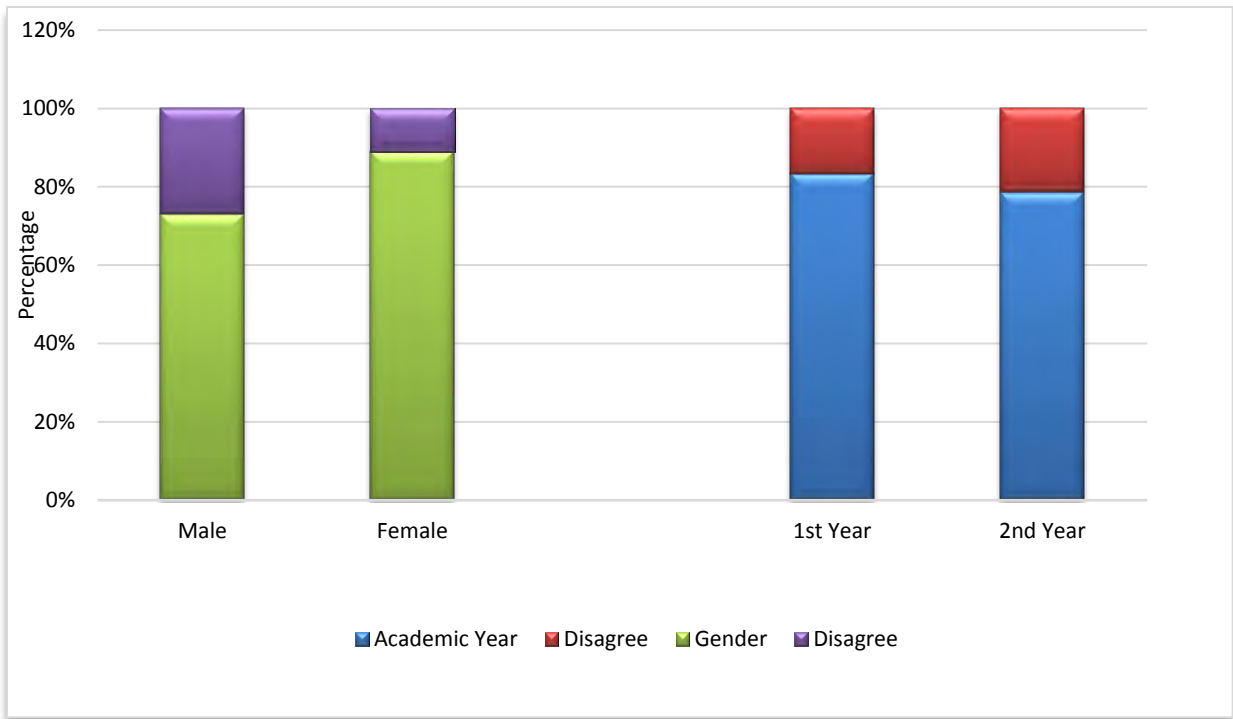


Fig. 25: Student who willingly do chores at home

More than 80% of both boys and girls, irrespective of their academic year of study, do chores at home because of the respect they have for their parent/ guardian (see Figure 26).

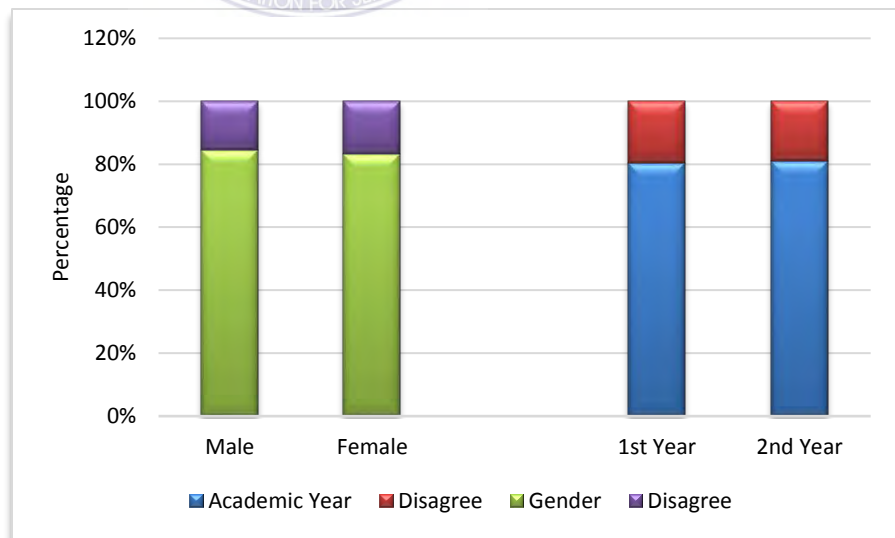


Fig. 26: Children who do chores to show respect to their parent/ guardian

The data analysis also revealed that more boys (16%) than girls (7%) felt only girls should do chores at home. On the contrary as much as 88% of respondents in the 1st Year and 94% of respondents in the 2nd Year disagreed with the statement to the effect that only girls should do chores at home (see Figure 27).

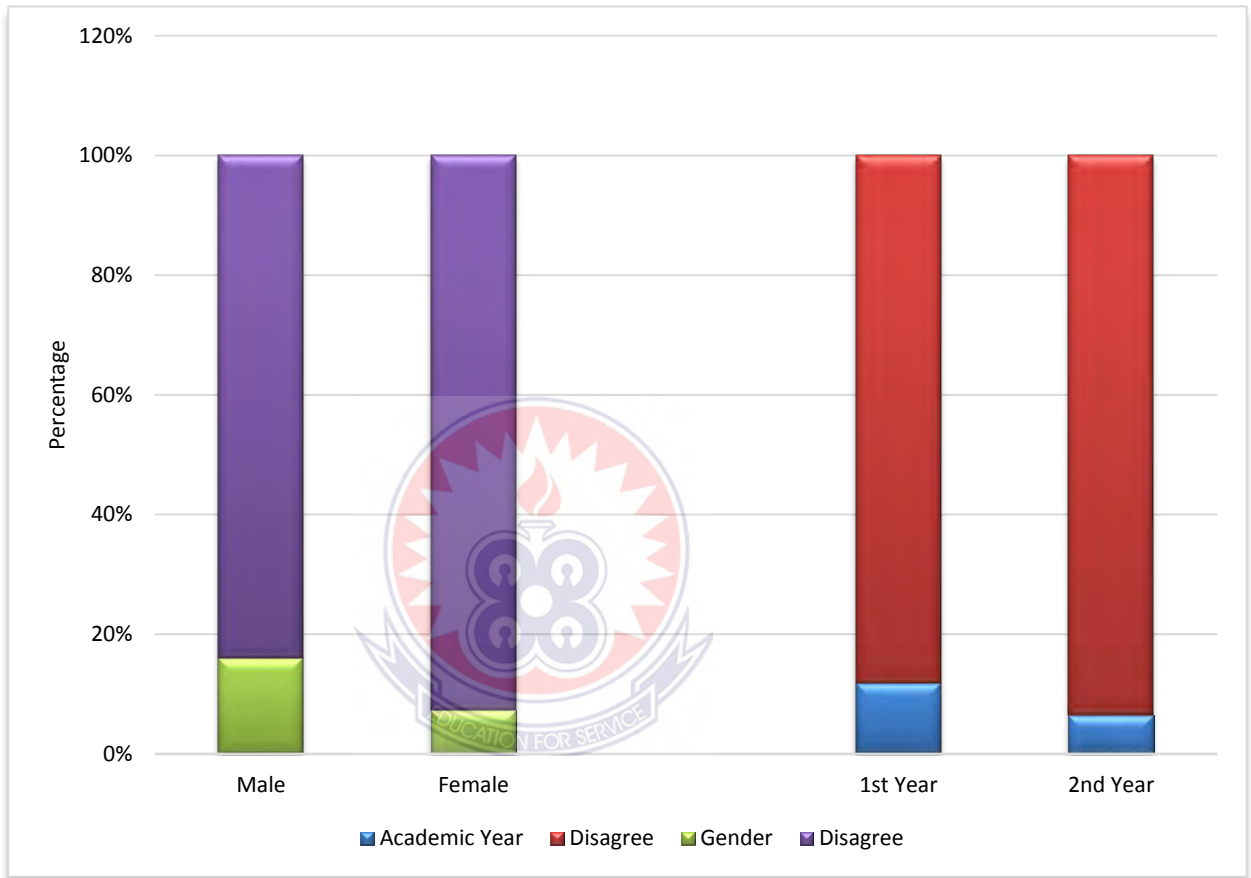


Fig. 27: Students who feel only girls should do chores at home

The majority of both boys (83%) and girls (75%), and 80% of respondents in the 1st Year and 75% of respondents in the 2nd Year disagreed with the statement that boys should do more chores at home. Thus about 8% more of girls than boys feel boys should do more chores at home (see Figure 28).

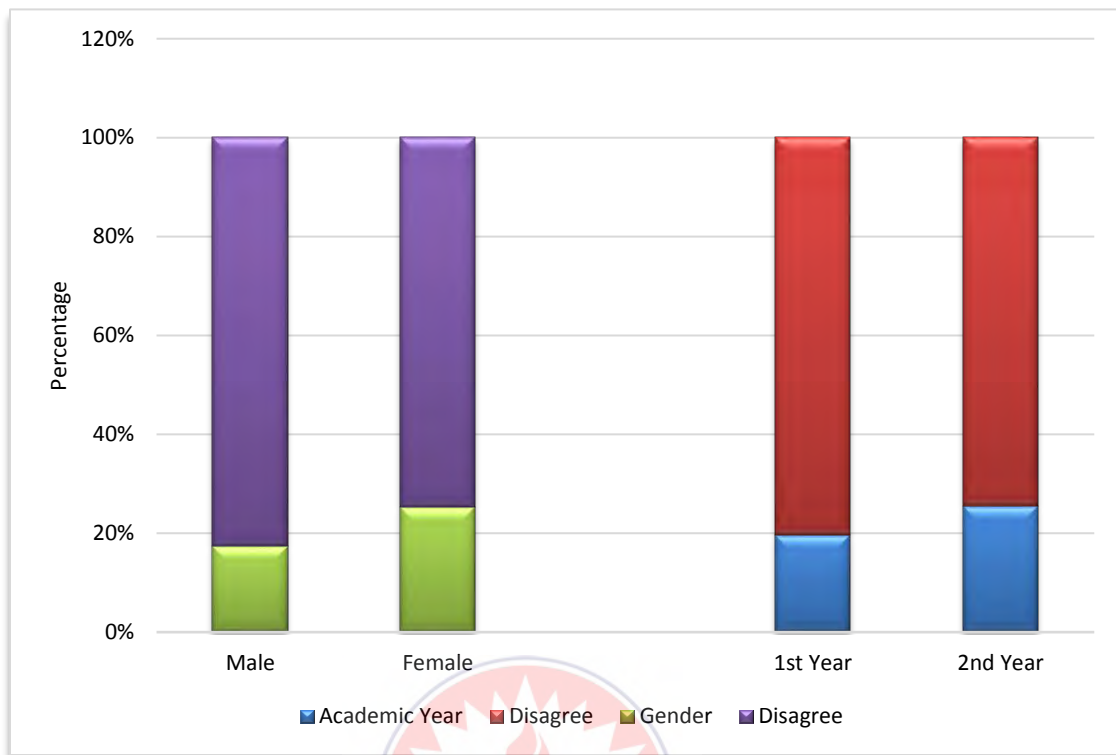


Fig. 28: Students who felt Boys should do More Chores at Home

4.6 The impact of the teaching/learning of “individual obligation in the family” on students’ performance of household chores

This section presents findings of the study in relation with the third research question and the hypothesis posed under this question. The research question was stated as follows:

“What effects does the teaching/learning of the topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” have on students’ attitudes towards the performance of their obligations in their families?”

As part of the research objective the researcher sought to determine if there is significant difference between attitude of students in their first and second years towards their obligations in household chores. It is expected that since students in their second year of study at the Senior High School level have been thought the topic “Individual Obligation

in the Family”, they would have a more positive attitude about their obligations in performing household chores than those in the first year. The following hypotheses was therefore posed:

H₀: There is no significant difference in the attitude of students who have studied “Individual Obligation in the Family” and those who have not, towards their obligation in performing household chores.

H₁: There is significant difference in the attitude of students who have studied “Individual Obligations in the Family” and those who have not, towards their obligations in household chores.



Table 1: Aggregated Responses to Statements on Students' Attitude of Family**Obligations**

Statements on Students' Attitude of Family Obligations	Total Students who responded to the Statements on Attitude		Students that agreed with the Statements on Attitude		Proportion of Respondents who agreed with the Statements on Attitude	
	1st Year A	2nd Year B	1st Year C	2nd Year D	1st Year E=C/A	2nd Year F=D/B
Responsibility to co-operate	99	92	95	83	0.96	0.90
Responsibility to support	99	92	88	80	0.89	0.87
Obliged to do chores	99	92	84	84	0.85	0.91
Satisfied with kind of chore	100	91	79	69	0.79	0.76
Chore is not a punishment	100	91	96	90	0.96	0.99
Chores improves school performance	96	91	36	25	0.38	0.27
Should not be paid for doing chore	99	92	90	83	0.91	0.90
Happy to do chores	97	92	85	75	0.88	0.82
Willingly do chores	99	91	85	74	0.86	0.81
Does chores as a form of help to parents	99	92	89	82	0.90	0.89
Does chores to show respect	97	92	82	76	0.85	0.83
Not forced to do chores	98	91	88	81	0.90	0.89
Chore is not meant for only girls	97	91	90	88	0.93	0.97
Disagree boys should do more chores	97	91	82	70	0.85	0.77

The table above (Table 1) outlines the aggregated responses of students who agreed with the listed statements on attitude towards family obligations which were included in Section C of the questionnaire, which was used to collect data for the study.

Table 2: Chi-Square Contingency Table

Statements on Students' attitude of family obligations	Observed Frequencies (O) = C	Expected Frequencies (E) = F*C	Total
Responsibility to co-operate	95	89	184
Responsibility to support	88	86	174
Obligated to do chores	84	93	177
Satisfied with kind of chore	79	76	155
Chore is not a punishment	96	99	195
Chores improves school performance	36	26	62
Should not be paid for doing chore	90	89	179
Happy to do chores	85	79	164
Willingly do chores	85	80	165
Does chores as a form of help to parents	89	88	177
Does chores to show respect	82	80	162
Not forced to do chores	88	87	175
Chore is not meant for only girls	90	94	184
Disagree boys should do more chores	82	75	157
Total	1169	1141	

Pearson chi2 (χ^2) = 2.8661

Pr = 0.998 df = 13 α = 0.05

The table above (Table 2) is a contingency table which was derived from Table 1. After obtaining the contingency Table the aggregated values were keyed into the STATA statistical software using the “tabi” command to generate the Pearson Chi-Square statistics and probabilities. The derived probability (Pr=0.998) of the Pearson’s Chi-

Square being greater than the 5% significance level ($\alpha = 0.05$) indicates that, there is insufficient evidence to reject the null hypothesis that, the attitude of students who have studied “Individual Obligations in the Family” is different from those who have not toward their obligations in the family. We therefore conclude that, there is insufficient evidence to indicate that the study of “Individual Obligations in the Family” by Senior High School students has significant effect on their attitude towards family obligations.

The figure below (Figure 29) provides a scatter plot of the responses of students (1st Year students against 2nd Year students) who agreed with the statements on attitude of family obligation. The plot shows a positive relationship between the responses of 1st Year students and 2nd Year students. This indicates that both 1st Year students and 2nd Year students have about the same attitude about their performance of household chore and thus their obligations in the families. This also confirms the Chi-Square test that concluded that there is no significant difference between the attitude of 1st and 2nd Year students about the performance of chores at home and thus, by extension, their obligations in their families.

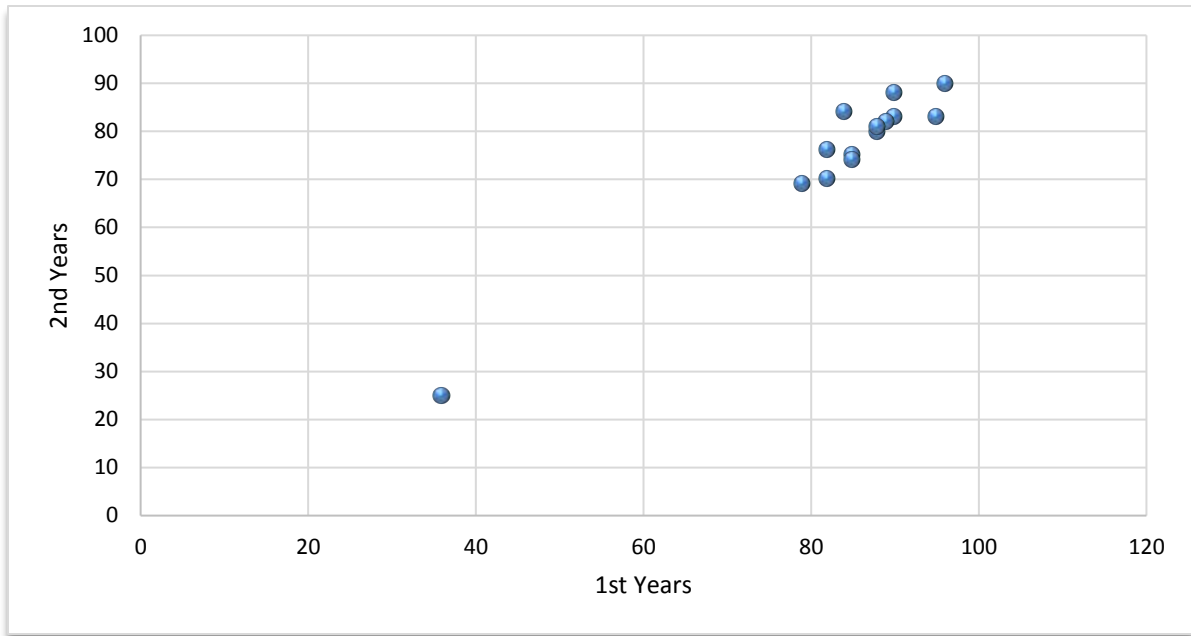


Fig. 29: Plot of Students who agreed with the statements on attitude of family obligations

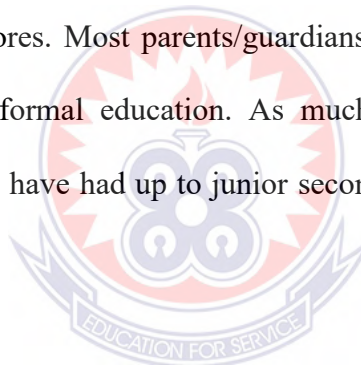
The foregoing therefore goes to indicate that students generally have a positive attitude towards the performance of household chores, irrespective of whether they have studied the Social Studies Topic “Individual Obligation in the Family” or not. This implies that the study of the Topic stated above has no effect on students’ attitude/attitudes towards the performance of chores at home. This could be as a result of the fact that the performance of household chores by young people is so ingrained in their socialisation process, particularly in traditional African societies, so much so that these young people do not need any other form of socialisation (education) to have a positive attitude towards this activity. Responses on chores performed by children revealed that children are involved in chores such as running of errands, cooking, ironing of clothes, baby sitting, home repairs and maintenance and hawking. The kind of chores these children do at home conforms to what is expected of them at their age as stated by McDaniel and

Barksdale (2013) in their study which focused on identifying several responsibilities children perform at home. Also, more than half (54%) of them do about 5 to 6 chores at home and 5% (N=10) do not do any chores at all. As much as 68% of the children do chores both in the mornings and evenings. The study revealed that children with two-parent families engage in more chores than those with single parents. Only 54.5% of children who stay with single parents are engaged in chores both in the mornings and evenings. This is less compared to the 72.6% of those who stay with both parents and do chores both mornings and evenings. This finding confirms Lin's (2008) assertion that involvement of children by their parents declines after divorce but contradicts Blair (1992) and Crouter et al., (2001)'s claim that the youth with single parents engage in more chores than youth in two-parent families. Children with parents/ guardians who have had primary or no education do not engage in more chores at home. 44.4% and 58.3% of children with parents/guardians who have had Primary and no formal education respectively are engaged in chores both mornings and evenings. This proportion is less compared to the over 67% of children with parents/guardians who have attained secondary to tertiary levels of education and do chores both mornings and evenings. Only 10% of the children who do chores stated that they finish their evening chores at 5pm. Majority (63%) finished their evening chores around 7pm and 8pm. About 19% finished their evening chores around 9pm and 10pm. Also, about 19% finishes their evening chores around 5pm and 6pm. Majority finishes their morning chores by 5am (51%) and by 6am (33%).

Out of the 200 students sampled for the study, a total of 100, 1st year students and 96, 2nd year students responded to their questionnaires. As much as 91.3% of the retrieved

questionnaires were fully completed. Although the youngest and the eldest among the respondents were 15 and 25 years respectively, majority (75%) were less than 18 years of age.

Assessment of the respondents' background revealed that, most of them were having between 1 and 5 siblings, however those having only 3 siblings were more. About 30% were eldest and 9% were youngest among their siblings. More than half (54%) of the respondents stay with both parents and 28% stay with single parents. 15% stay with their relatives and about 2% live with guardians who are not their relatives. As asserted by Daatlannd (2007), those who do not stay with their parents are likely to be exempted from doing household chores. Most parents/guardians of the respondents were noted to have had some kind of formal education. As much as 33% have had up to senior secondary education, 28% have had up to junior secondary education and 27% have had up to tertiary education.



The study revealed that most of the children are aware of most of their responsibilities which are stated in the United Nations Convention on Rights of Children. More than 80% agreed that it is their responsibility to support and co-operate with their parents. About same majority believed they are obliged to do chores at home and are satisfied with the kind of chores they are obliged to do. Majority (63%) of children who were not satisfied with the kind of chores they do at home lived with single parents (63%) but none of them lived with both parents.

Aside being satisfied with the chores they do, more (more than 80%) of the children felt happy doing their chores. However, as much as 65% of 1st year students and 73% of 2nd year students do not believe household chores improves their academic performance. Majority (63%) of children who do not believe doing chores can improve their academic performance do chores both mornings and evenings.

Nine (9) out of Ten (10) children believe that doing chore is not a punishment and children should not be paid for doing chores. Eight (8) out of Ten (10) children agreed that they willingly do chores at home. Same proportion Eight (8) out of Ten (10) agreed that they do chores to show respect for their parent/ guardian.

Majority Nine (9) out of Ten (10) do not believe only girls should do chores at home. 80% 1st years believed that boys should not do more of chores than girls and 70% of 2nd years believe same.

In all, children's attitude towards obligations in household chores seemed to be positive irrespective of their academic levels of study or gender. This outcome was confirmed using the chi-square test of homogeneity which arrived at the decision that, there is no significant difference between the attitude of students who have studied the topic on individual obligations in the family (2nd year students) and those who have not.

In further confirmation, responses of students in their 1st and 2nd academic years were plotted against each other to have a scatter plot. The plot revealed a positive correlation between the two responses. This indicates that, children are much aware of their obligations in household chores before studying the topic on "Individual obligations in the family".

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Summary

The research focused on attitude of teenagers who have been thought the topic “Individual Obligations in the Family” towards their obligation in household chores. Senior High School students in their first and second academic years were therefore targeted. It was assumed that those in their first year have not been thought the topic on obligation since it is part of the second academic year curriculum.

5.2 Conclusion

From the revelations we have had in the findings we can state that:

- Children are likely to be involved in chores such as running of errands, cooking, and ironing of clothes, baby sitting, home repairs and maintenance and hawking.
- Children do about 5 to 6 chores at home.
- Children who stay with both parents do more chores than those who stay with single parents.
- Children who stay with educated parents/guardians do more chores than children who stay with parents/guardians who have not had more than primary formal education.
- Children are aware of their responsibilities in the family.
- Children have good attitude about their obligation in household chores before they study the topic on “Individual obligations in the family” at school.

- Albeit children have good attitude about their obligations in household chores, they believe too much engagement in household chores can negatively affect their academic performance.

5.3 Recommendations

Since the research findings revealed that children are already aware of their obligations i recommend that the topic on “Individual obligations in the family” should be maintained to serve as formal confirmation of what they already know and other moral teachings should be added to build morally sound youth for our society.

Also, a forum should be created to educate parents/guardians how to nurture and engage their children in chores in order not to affect their attitude of academic performance.

Although the research findings has revealed that children are already aware of their obligations in household chores, their attitude on other obligations were was not considered. I therefore recommend that, further research should consider obligations in the family aside household chores.

Also the research failed to focus on all uncountable factors that may affect children’s attitude toward their obligations so further researches can expand their factors to widen the scope of their findings.

REFERENCES

- Adeyinka, A. A. (09 Jan 2013). *The Principles and Content of African Traditional Education*.
- Adeyinka, M. B. (2003). *The Principles and Content of African Traditional Education*. Published by Blackwell Publishing, 9600 Garsington Road, Oxford, OX4 2DQ, UK and 350 Main Street, Malden, MA 02148, USA.
- Adam, M. (2012). Senior high school Social Studies teachers' formative assessment practices in the northern and central regions of Ghana. An unpublished MPhil Thesis submitted to the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana
- Adeyemi, M. B. & Adeyinka, A. A. (2002). Some key issues in African traditional education. *McGill Journal of Education*, 37 (2), 223 – 240.
- Alleman, J. & Brophy, J. (1999). The changing nature and purpose of assessment in the Social Studies classroom. *Social Education*, 63(6), 334 – 337.
- Amato, P. R., & Booth, A. (1991). Consequences of parental divorce and marital unhappiness for adult well-being. *Social Forces*, 69, 895–914.
- Aries, P. (1962). *Centuries of childhood: A social history of family life*. New York: Vintage Books.
- Arnett, J. J. (1995a) Broad and narrow socialization: The family in the context of a cultural theory. In: *Journal of Marriage and the Family*.
- Arnett, J. J. (1995b) Adolescents' uses of media for self-socialization. In: *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 24(5), 519-533.
- Ayoo, S. J. (2002). Factors affecting students' performance in Kenya certificate of secondary education in Public Secondary Schools in Maseno Division. Unpublished M.Ed. Thesis, Nairobi, University of Nairobi.
- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Bandura, A., Caprara, G. V., Barbaranelli, C., Gerbino, M., & Pastorelli, C. (2003). Role of affective self-regulatory efficacy on diverse spheres of psychosocial functioning. *Child Development*, 74, 769–782.
- Banks, J. A. (1990). *Teaching strategies for the Social Studies: Inquiry, valuing and decision-making (4th ed.)*. New York: Longman
- Barnes, D. (1982). *Practical curriculum study*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul

- Bekoe, S. O. O. (2006). *Assessment and curriculum goals and objectives: Evaluation of the systemic impact of the SSSCE on the senior secondary school Social Studies curriculum in Ghana*. Unpublished PhD Thesis submitted to the University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK.
- Benin, M. H. & J. Agostinelli (1988) Husbands' and wives' satisfaction with the division of labour. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 50, 349-361.
- Bird, C. E. & C. E. Ross (1993) House workers and paid workers: Qualities of the work and effects on personal control. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 55, 913-925.
- Blair, S. L. (1992). Children's participation in household labour: Child socialization versus the need for household labour. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence*, 21, 241-258.
- Blair, S. L. (1993) Employment, family, and attitudes of marital quality among husbands and wives. *Journal of Family Issues* 14(2), 189-212.
- Boakye, A. B. 2010. The state of childhood in Ghana. *Journal of International Social Research*, 1, 3-10.
- Bryman, A. (1988). *Quantity and quality in social research*. London: Unwin Hyman
- Brunner, M. & Jenks, C. (1996). *Childhood*. New York: Routledge.
- (Brown, C. &. (April 2010). *Household responsibilities in the family of origin: Relations with self-efficacy in young adulthood*. Elsevier Ltd.
- Check, J. & Schutt, R.K. (2012). *Research methods in education*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Cline, F. W., & Fay, J. (1990). *Parenting with love and logic: Teaching children responsibility*. Colorado Springs, CO: Pinion Press.
- Cochran W. G. (1977). *Sampling techniques*. New York: John Wiley & Sons,
- Cohen, L. Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education (7th ed)*. London: Routledge.
- CRDD (2010). *Teaching syllabus for Social Studies (Senior High School 1 – 3)*. Accra: Ministry of Education.
- Crouter, A. C., Head, M. R., Bumpus, M. F., & McHale, S. M. (2001). Household chores: Under what conditions do mothers lean on daughters? *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 94, 23-41.

- Dunn, L. (2004). Validation of the chores: A measure of school-aged children's participation in household tasks. *Scandinavian Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 11(1), 179-190.
- Elkin, F. (1968). *The child and society; The process of socialization*. New York: Random House.
- Eshun, I. (2011). Influence of the differences in Social Studies teachers' curriculum conception on classroom practices in senior high schools in the central region. An unpublished MPhil Thesis submitted to the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.
- Fafunwa, A. B. (1974). *History of education in Nigeria*. London: George Allen & Unwin
- Farris, P. J. (2001). *Elementary and middle school Social Studies: An interdisciplinary approach*. New York: McGraw-Hill Companies Inc.
- FAWE (2004). Girls' Education at the Grassroots: Communities as Agents of Change. *Nairobi*, 11(4).
- Fraenkel, J. R. & Wallen, N. E. (2003). *How to design and evaluate research in education (5th ed)*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Fulgini, A. J., Tseng, V., & Lam, M. (1999). Attitudes toward family obligations among American adolescents with Asian, Latin American, and European backgrounds. *Child Development*, 70, 1030–1044.
- Gager, C. T., Cooney, T. M., & Call, K. T. (1999). The effects of family characteristics and time use on teenagers' household labour. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 61, 982–994.
- Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P. & Borg, W.R. (2007). *Research methods in education*. Boston: Pearson.
- Gaskell, G. & Bauer, M. W. (2000). Towards public accountability: Beyond sampling, reliability and validity. In M. W. Bauer and G. Gaskell (Eds.). *Qualitative researching with text, image and sound: A practical handbook*, pp. 336 – 350. London: Sage Publications.
- Goldscheider, F. K., & Waite, L. J. (1991). *New families, no families? The transformation of the American home*. Berkeley, CA: University of California Press.
- Goodnow, J. J., & Lawrence, J. A. (2001). Work contributions to the family: Developing a conceptual and research framework. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 94, 5–22.

- Grusec, J. E., Goodnow, J. J., & Cohen, L. (1996). Household work and the development of concern for others. *Developmental Psychology*, 32, 999–1007.
- ILO. (2006). *ILO Report 2006* .
- Jennifer L. W. (2012). How to perform and interpret chi-square and t-tests. Retrieved 2nd July 2017, from <http://support.sas.com/resources/papers/proceedings12/155-2012.pdf>
- Jurkovic, G. J. (1997). *Lost childhoods: The plight of the parentified child*. New York: Routledge.
- Kadenyi, M.M., & Kamunyu, M.E. (2006). Challenges facing women in tertiary institutions: A case of Eldoret municipality. *The Educator*, 1(1), 121-1218.
- Kerrebrock, N., & Lewit, E. M. (1999). Children in self-care. *Future of Children*, 9, 151–160.
- Kissock, C. (1981). *Curriculum planning for Social Studies teaching*. New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- LaCaze, D., & Kirylo, J. D. (2012). Family connections: Addressing behaviour issues: Practical tips for parents. *Childhood Education*, 88(1), 57-58. doi: 10.1080/00094056.2012.643728.
- Martey, D. O. (2011). The impact of external assessment on teaching and learning of Social Studies in senior high schools in the eastern region, Ghana. An unpublished MPhil Thesis submitted to the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.
- Martorella, P. H. (1994). *Social Studies for elementary school children: Developing young citizens*. Ohio: Merrill.
- Meyir, S. I. (2010). Children's participation in family decision-making in Ghana: Evidence from the Lawra District. Unpublished master's thesis presented to NOSEB Munroe.
- Moyi, P. (2011). Child labour and school attendance in Kenya. *Educational Research and Reviews*, 6(1), 26-35.
- National Sleep Foundation, (2017). Excessive Sleepiness. Retrieve 19th August 2017, from <https://sleepfoundation.org/excessivesleepiness/content/how-much-sleep-do-babies-and-kids-need>.
- Noddings, N. (2000). A morally defensible mission for schools in the 21st Century. In F. W. Parkey and G. Hass (Eds.). *Curriculum planning: A contemporary approach*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

- Ocitti, J. P. (1971). *African indigenous education: As practised by the Acholi of Uganda*. Nairobi: East African Literature Bureau.
- Petschauer, P. & de Mause, L. (1989) The childrearing modes in flux: An historian's reflections. In: *Journal of Psychohistory*, 17(1), 1-34.
- Quartey, S. M. (1984). Social Studies and its implication for teaching. *Journal of Research in Curriculum, CESAC*.
- Qvortrup, J. (1994). Childhood matters; An introduction. In J. Qvortrup, M. Bardy, G. Sgritta, & H. Wintersberge (Eds.), *Childhood matters: social theory, practice and politics*, (p. 1-23). Brookfield, VT: Aveburg.
- Ricker, A., Calmes, R. E., & Sneyd, L. W. (2006). *How happy families happen: Six steps to bringing emotional and spiritual health into your home*. Center City, MN: Hazelden.
- Riggio, H. R., Valenzuela, A. M. & Weiser, D. A. (2010). Household responsibilities in the family of origin: Relations with self-efficacy in young adulthood. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 48, 568 – 573.
- Romich, J. J. (2007). Sharing the work: Mother–child relationships and household management. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 27, 192–222.
- Sibiri, J. K. (2010). An evaluation of the impact of students' attitudes towards the teaching and learning of Social Studies in senior high schools in the upper west region. An unpublished MPhil Thesis submitted to the University of Education, Winneba, Ghana.
- Šikić-Mićanović (1997). *Socialization and gender: the significance of Socio-cultural Contexts*, Zagreb Institute of Social Sciences Ivo Pilar.
- Smith, C. P. (1969). The origin and expression of achievement-related motives in children. In C. P. Smith (Ed.), *Achievement-related motives in children*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation
- Tedam, P. (2015). Enhancing the practice learning experiences of BME students: Strategies for practice education. *The Journal of Practice Teaching and Learning*
- Tierney, W. G. & Dilley, P. (2002). Interviewing in education. In J. F. Gubrium & J. A. Holstein (Eds.). *Handbook of interview research: Context and method*, pp. 453 – 471. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications
- Weiser, V. a. (April 2010). *Household responsibilities in the family of origin: Relations with self-efficacy in young adulthood*. ResearchGate.

Weisner, T. S. (2001). *The American Dependency Conflict: Continuities and Discontinuities in Behavior and Values of Countercultural Parents and Their Children* . American Anthropological Association .

Weisner, T. S. (2001). Children investing in their families: The importance of child obligation in successful development. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, 94, 177–183.

Werner, E. E. (1992). The children of Kauai: Resiliency and recovery in adolescence and adulthood. *Journal of Adolescent Health*, 13, 262–268.

White, L. K., & Brinkerhoff, D. B. (1981). Children's work in the family; its significance and meaning. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 43, 789

<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Socialization>



APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE

Thank you for willingly accepting to be part of this research which seeks to find your perspective on the household chores you do at home. This research is being conducted in fulfilment of academic requirement for the award of Master of Philosophy in Social Studies at the University of Education, Winneba. I assure you that your anonymity will be fully protected and also no part of the information you provide will be produced or kept as records with your names.

Kindly provide your response to the questions below by ticking below [✓] or writing where appropriate.

Section A: Personal and Family Information

1. Age _____
2. Sex Male Female
3. Which academic year are you?
 Year 1 Year 2 Year 3 Year 4
4. How many siblings do you have? _____
5. What is your position among your siblings? _____
6. Do you stay with both of your parents?
 Yes No
7. If no, which parent or guardian do you stay with?
 Mother Father Aunty Uncle Other Specify _____
8. Who is the head of your family? _____

9. What work does your parent or guardian do?

Trading Salaried worker Other Specify _____

10. What is the educational status of your parent or guardian?

None Primary Middle/JSS Secondary Tertiary

Section B: Nature of Housework Students Do at Home

11. Do you do housework before going to school in the morning?

Yes No

12. Do you do housework before going to bed in the evening?

Yes No

13. At what time do you usually finish your housework in the morning and evening?

Morning _____ Evening _____

Please tick the kind of chores your parent/guardian assigns to you at home. Tick all that applies.

14. Baby Sitting

19. Running errands

15. Home repairs and maintenance

20. Sweeping

16. Yard work and lawn mowing

21. Ironing clothes

17. Cooking

22. Hawking

18. Washing clothes

23. Store keeping or shop

attending

Section C: Students' Attitude toward Housework

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
24. I think all children have an obligation to their families				
25. It is my responsibility to support my parents/guardian				
26. Children are not obliged to do household chores				
27. I perform household chores because I have an obligation to do so.				
28. Housework is a form of punishment for children.				
29. Household chores are meant for girls only.				

Section D: Effect of the Topic "Individuals Obligations in the Family"

30. The topic, Individual obligation was useful for me.				
31. I think learning the topic, individual obligation to the family helped changed my views				
32. All students need to learn the topic, Individual obligation to the family				
33. Learning the topic, Individual obligation to the family helped changed my views about doing household chores.				

APPENDIX B

 UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION, WINNEBA
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCE EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION
C. Box 25 Winneba, Ghana socialstudies@uew.edu.gh
+233 (0)20 264 1094

24th April, 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTORY LETTER: MS. ETHEL GYIMAH (8160140008)

I write to introduce Ms. Gyimah to your outfit. She is an M.Phil student of the Social Studies Department in University of Education, Winneba.

She is conducting a research on the topic, "Senior High School Children's Perception of their Obligations in Household Chores in the Tema Metropolitan Assembly, Ghana". The research project is at the data collection stage.

I would, therefore, be grateful if you could provide her with any assistance that she may need. I wish to assure you that any information given would be treated confidential.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully,


DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL SCIENCES EDUCATION
UNIVERSITY OF EDUCATION
WINNEBA
PATRICIA BERNICE MENSAH
For: Head of Department



 www.uew.edu.gh