THE VALUE OF CHILDREN IN DIFFERENT SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS; IN THE CASE OF YEKA SUB-CITY OF ADDIS ABABA CITY AND MECHA WOREDA OF AMHARA REGION

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A thesis submitted to the center for population studies

Presented In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science (Population Studies)

Addis Ababa University

Addis Ababa

June 2012

Addis Ababa University
School of Graduate Studies

This is to certify that the thesis prepared by **Tewodros Nibret** entitled: ***"The Value of Children in Different Socio-economic Status; The Case of Yeka Sub-city of Addis Ababa City and Mecha Woreda of Amhara Region"*** and Submitted to Partial Fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science (Population Studies) complies with the regulations of the University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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ABSTRACT

The value of children in different socio-economic status: in the case of Yeka sub-city of Addis Ababa city and MechaWoreda of Amhara region.

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Addis Ababa University, 2012

To understand incomplete explanations of cultural, socio economic and generation differences in fertility behavior, three complementary parts of VOC are systematically categorized according to kagitcibasi's family change theory which is important in shedding light on parental goals and expectations regarding children, intergenerational relationships and a host of related factors that reflect the place of the child in family and society. In this study, the value that children have for women (i.e., social/traditional, economic/utilitarian, and psychological—value of children [VOC]) is tried to assessed in two socioeconomic statuses and three generations. Young women's views regarding the value of children are important in the context of generational change. This study focused on MechaWoreda and Yeka sub-city women, the later residing in urban/metropolitan, and the Mecha residing in rural settings. Attitudes and values of women aged 18 to 65 were compared. a total of 383 women were analyzed on their attitudes and values of children. Comparisons across generations, cultures, and sees levels reflected changes over time and across geographical regions. The expectations of women from an offspring also build significantly in a theory of family change, which enlightens this study. Compatible to the hypothesis: the economic and social value of children increases with increase in age and decrease in socioeconomic status. Moreover, differences in VOC across generations and socioeconomic/cultural comparison groups provided some support for kagitcibasi's family change theory.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This thesis was prepared with the assistance of the number of people. In particular, I am greatly indebted to Dr. Eshetu Gurmu, who has advised me on the proposal and fieldwork preparations. And my thesis advisor Dr. k. Devaraj who has devotedly advised me in a family hood manner, providing insight guidance and equipped me with valuable knowledge for running the research. He is the most thankful scholar for his enriched experience sharing, timely corrections and genuine devotion from the early design of the research proposal to the final stage of the thesis.

I also acknowledge the Yeka sub city and MechaWoreda offices of finance and development for letting me to use their respective data banks and genuinely cleaned the way for the gathering of firsthand information from respondents, without which it was difficult to get this data I used for this analysis.

When I was in MechaWoreda, AtoYenealemAtinaffu and his family handled me all the challenges and made every way safe to gather the needed information. It will be inappropriate not to acknowledge him and his family in this page. Thank you AtoYenealem!

I want to express my heartfelt gratitude to my parents who has shared the discomfort, hardship and went through ups and downs with me for the success of this thesis. It is my pleasure to send my thanks to AtoNibretFantahun and W/o WorkneshBayleyegn, YonnasNibret and FevenNibret for providing me with all kinds of support whenever I need. I am also grateful to my brother DanelTessema, who has earnestly supported me in different directions.

My deepest gratitude also goes to my friends AfrahAbubeker, Birhanu Assefa, EtsegenetKebede, Senayt G/mariam and SintayehuTessema who support me with ideas to the end of this thesis and teaching me research is not only intensive work but fun too.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVATIONS

AACoFED	Addis Ababa City Office of Finance and Economic Development
ANOVA	Analysis Of Variance
ARoFED	Amhara Region Office of Finance and Economic Development
CDS	College of Development Studies
CEB	Children Ever Born
CPS	Center for Population Studies
CSA	Central Statistical Agency
DMPC	Disaster Management and Prevention Commission
e-VOC	Economic Value of Children
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
Kebele	Peasant Associations
MWoFED	MechaWoreda Office of Finance and Economic Development
PPS	Probability Proportion to Size
p-VOC	Psychological Value Of Children
SES	Socio Economic Status
SPSS	Statistical Package For Social Science
s-VOC	Social Value of Children
SWM	South West Maize Lively Hood Zone
TFR	Total Fertility Rate
VOC	Value of Children
YSCoFED	Yeka Sub City Office of Finance and Economic Development

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 GENERAL BACKGROUND

'Value of children' refers to the benefits parents receive from having and rearing children. Benefits may be acquired from the children themselves, from the experience of rearing them, or from the responses of kin, community, and society at large. Children also cause costs for parents and the 'value of children' sometimes refers to their net value (benefits minus costs). Benefits and costs of children are shaped by the economic values, by forms of social organization, and by cultural beliefs and practices. The net value of children underlies parents' desires for children; childbearing desires, in combination with the ability to achieve them determine whether or not individuals or couples have children and how many children they have (Hoffman and Hoffman, 1973).

The economic value of children is a key component of fertility variation and change (Schultz 1973). In agricultural economies and during early periods of industrialization, parents and kin make the heavy investment of time and money in young children in order to reap the rewards of children's labor from adolescence onward (Schultz 1973). The old-age security value of children is particularly important in contexts where no public provisions exist for elder care (Cain 1985). For large numbers of agricultural and non-industrial people throughout the world, the economic value of children continues to be a primary benefit of parenthood.

For most parents in industrial societies, however, children provide very little or no economic value. Children's labor does not produce subsistence for the family nor do children often support their parents in old age. Children are extremely costly to raise and often require economic support well into the young adult years as they complete their formal education. The location and organization of paid employment produces high opportunity costs of childrearing for parental employment. Fertility declines in the twentieth century have been attributed in large part to declines in the economic value and increases in the economic costs of children to their parents (Fawcett 1983).

After Hoffmann, L. W. and Hoffmann, M. L. conducted a research on The Value of Children to Parents in 1973; people start to recognize that the value of children extended beyond their economic benefits. Hoffman and Hoffman in 1973 identified the following psychological needs fulfilled by parenthood and the experience of childrearing: (a) adult status and social identity, (b) expansion of the self (tie to a larger entity, 'immortality'), (c) morality (including religion, altruism, good of the group), (d) primary group ties, affiliation, (e) stimulation, novelty, fun, (f) creativity, accomplishment, competence, (g) power, influence, effectance, and (h) social comparison, competition. The influence of such benefits on fertility would depend on the availability of alternative mechanisms for fulfilling the identified needs. They also recognized that childrearing carried out with its potential psychological costs such as stress and worry.

Later byKagitcibasi (1982a), those values of children mentioned by Hoffman and Hoffman were categorized into three dimensions; (1) Psychological-emotional value of children (2) Economic-utilitarian value of children and (3) Social-normative value of children.

As of cultural anthropologists and sociologists, Colman J. (1990), proposed the theory that children produce social capital for parents. Social capital consists of social relationships and the social resources they provide. At birth, children strengthen parents' ties to kin. Through schooling and other activities, they link parents with community resources. As adolescents and young adults, children bring new information, ideas, and social relationships to parental households. And most parents eventually obtain in-laws and grandchildren as a consequence of parenthood. Parents may also, of course, incur loss of social capital because they have less time to maintain friendships, relationships with co-workers, or connections to social and political organizations.

While the distinctions among economic, psychological, and social benefits and costs of children make some sense (and also fit disciplinary boundaries), it is important to recognize their interrelationships. Economic subsistence comes first in a list of parental needs, so the economic value of children may be sufficient to stimulate parenthood, whether or not children have any social or psychological value. Social and psychological benefits may be viewed as extras that make the task of childrearing less burdensome, or at least outweigh the social and

psychological costs of parenthood. On the other hand, the kin and community ties produced by children may be indirect sources of economic benefits. Several of the benefits identified as psychological also have social components: primary group ties include the parents' relationship, itself a form of social capital; expansion of self includes ties to larger social groups, including kin, community, and society (Bühler, 2006).

The value of children in Ethiopia-a developing country with total population of 73,750,932 in which about 86% living in rural areas and agricultural society is expected to be less costly, bringing extra working hands to the family, ultimate for old age security, and highly social and psychological. The country is experiencing a fast population growth as a whole and below replacement fertility in its capital Addis Ababa. To understand why, how and what brought the difference in growth rate, and for estimating the future and to get ready for the policy actions, studying the value of children have indispensable value. This study tries to evaluate the VOC in west Gojam (particularly MechaWoreda) of Amhara region, which has a TFR of 4.385, and is agrarian and rural society. And compares with the VOC in Addis Ababa (by collecting data from Yeka sub-city), the low level of economic development, wide spread of poverty, high rate of un-employment, high living cost and the contemporary process of modernization (westernization). Based on this framework, the value of children of a women and its variation in different socio-economic situations was assessed in this study.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

There were studies about the value of children since mid-1970s (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973, Fawcett 1983, kagitcibasi2007, 2010). Their models and findings served as a corrective to the economic conceptualization of the demographic transition, indicating that the economic value of children decreases and their cost increases it in turn brought a reduced fertility. The findings have significant contributions with major implications for understanding fertility behavior as well as parenting and family dynamics in general.

The value of children for the parents, the society, or the population as a whole is a basic factor for the future of thepopulation's behavior. One of the factors that the fertility status of the population depends on is the value that the parents and society

gives to having a child. Those values that the populations give to the child can be achieved from social/traditional, economic/utilitarian, and psychological perspectives. The religious, the societal, and the traditional beliefs about having a child or being childless for the parent, the money needed for child rising or gained by a child, and the psychological feeling by having or not having a child are the determinants of the family size and the fertility trend of a family and the population.

One of the main findings of the Aycicegi and Kagitcibasi (2010) value of children studies was the utilitarian/ economic VOC and especially of the old age security value of children for parents in less developed countries like Ethiopia has been less. There was also a decrease in intergenerational dependencies with socioeconomic development. Material interpersonal interdependencies decreased with increasing prosperity, but psychological and religious interdependencies remain important.

Based on this, this study will explore how societies in different socio-economic and demographic situation perceive the determinants of value of children, which are; economic, social, and psychological values of having children in Ethiopia. By comparing the average fertility schedule of the nation to the lowest-in Addis Ababa, the situations in VOC and the actual fertility behavior will be explored.

Therefore, the study tries to answer the following research questions at the end of the study.

1. What are the economic, social, and psychological values of children in case of Yeka sub-city?
2. What are the economic, social, and psychological values of children in MechaWoreda?
3. Is there a change in the economic, social, and psychological values of children in case of Yeka sub-city?
4. Is there a change in the economic, social, and psychological values of children in MechaWoreda?
5. Is there a difference between the values of children in societies with different socio-economic and demographic status?

1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1.3.1 General Objective of the Study

The general objective of this study is to assess the value of children for women in Yeka sub-city of Addis Ababa city and MechaWoreda of Amhara regions that are with different socio-economic and demographic status.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives of the Study

The specific objectives are:

1. To examine the strength of potential factors that determine the value of children in the two societies,
2. To assess the social/traditional, economic/utilitarian, and psychological value of children in the two societies,
3. To compare the social/traditional, economic/utilitarian, and psychological value of children in young and adult women, and
4. To assess how different socio-economic and generational statuses affect the values of children.

1.4 HYPOTHESIS

This study is based on the theoretical assumptions of Hoffman & Hoffman (1973), in which they categorized in to nine categories of values of children and later by the family change theory of kagitcibasi (1982a, 2010) those VOCs categorized into three dimensions;

1) Psychological-emotional value of children,

2) Economic-utilitarian value of children, and

3) Social-normative value of children.

From the previous studies of value of children around the world and demographic and socio-economic behaviors of the country, and by using kagitcibasi's theory of family change as a theoretical framework, the following results were expected after the study.

1. Respondents from rural will stress on social/traditional VOC than urban respondents. And younger respondents will place less emphasis on the social/traditional VOC in comparison to their elders.

2. Respondents from rural will stress on economic VOC than urban respondents. And respondents will place less emphasis on the economic/utilitarian value of children compared to their elders.
3. Respondents will stress the psychological VOC more than their elders. That is, it is predicted that the present generation will demonstrate increased expectations of psychological support from their children relative to their elders attitudes.
4. Urban respondents will demonstrate less expectations of support from their grown up children than rural respondents will. And Younger respondents will expect less from their grown up son or daughter than their elders. That is, it is predicted that the present generation will demonstrate less expectations of support from their grown up children relative to their elders attitudes.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

In developing countries like Ethiopia, high fertility, which is not proportional to the economic growth, is believed to be an obstacle for development. Despite methods like contraceptives, family planning educations and other methods are being used; the fertility rate has not been minimized as expected. One way to look at this problem is by assessing the value of children in the country. The value of children for a family or the society as a whole has been becoming the one of the determinants of fertility in the population. One way or another, the values that families give to their children determines the number of children that a family desires. Hence, assessing this value of children will have contribution to understand the fertility schedule of the society. This study in turn will be an input to reevaluate methods of fertility control at macro and micro level. Moreover, this study produced empirical findings for further researchers.

1.6 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

This study is confined in MechaWoreda of Amhara National Regional State and Yeka sub city of Addis Ababa City Administration. This study was intended to assess the value of children, which is about perceptions of women in the study areas on the expectations from a child. It focused on the economic, social and

psychological values of a child for women and expectations from a grown up son or daughter separately.

1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Regardless of the plan of the study, every research is subject to different shortcomings. This study; as a low budget, a less time and a less experienced professional study, has faced many problems. With respect to the quality of data, the problems of registration of demographic events lead respondents (mainly for rural) for memory bias. Age preference was also observed in both rural and urban samples. This may have an influence on the analysis done with generational groups. Despite proper training of enumerators, potential information bias like impossible responses, incompatible answers and incomplete questionnaires may have occurred in some cases. Non-completion of the questionnaires for some respondents was addressed by checking the questionnaire at the nighttime, so that a second visit was arranged within the next day. At the data entry and cleaning level, around 11 questionnaires, which could not checked in the field, were discarded due to this problem on measurement and incompleteness.

For the assessment of the trend of the value of children in generations and analysis of the changing effects of generational differences in VOCs, longitudinal study designs are preferred. However, the study design possible to use for this study was cross sectional. Data used for this study was collected at one point in time, to overcome this problem; the analysis was done by using three age groups of respondents. Ethiopia is a multinational and multicultural country, and the social and psychological values are highly affected by cultural variables, findings from this study could not be nationally representative.

1.8 ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

This study is organized into six chapters. The first chapter of the thesis deals with the introduction, which includes statement of the problem, objectives, hypothesis, significance of the study, scope of the study, and limitations of the study. The second chapter presents review of literature and theoretical framework of the study. The research methodology is explained under the third chapter where data source of the study, sampling methods, sample size determination method of data of analysis are explained. Chapter Four presents the general background of the study

area and the sample households. Chapter Five discusses the results of the study. Finally, chapter six presents summary and conclusions.

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURES

2.1 VALUE OF CHILDREN; AN OVERVIEW

While economic/utility value of children (e-voc) was the main expected value for having children, two other value types, psychological (p-voc) and social (s-voc) were also identified. Psychological values referred to the happiness, joy, and companionship or to the discomfort and stress which parents expect to experience with having a child. Social values referred to the expected social advantages or disadvantages of having children (e.g., social approval and social status when a married couple has a child; continuation of the family line as in the case of having a son as in patrilineal societies) (Lackland Sam D.2001). Although s-voc may be seen as an instrumental value type, it is different from the economic/utilitarian value of child. The e-voc referred to the expected material benefits and costs of children when they are young and when they become adults (e.g., economic support given by parents to their young children and given by older children to their elderly parents). Social VOC on the other hand are more related to beliefs about the ideal family, marriage, or the role of women. Social VOC is cultural in orientation and may be more relevant in certain cultures than others. Depending on general cultural values, this social value may again have different implications. Having a child may fulfill the need to improve the marriage or family life (Lackland Sam D.2001).

According to Yohannes H. (1994) The analysis on economic value of children the perception of parents indicated two dimensions of costs, three dimensions of benefits from young children and two dimensions of benefits from adult children. The costs of children are the direct economic cost and the indirect or opportunity costs of children. Of the first dimensions appeared stronger. On the benefit side of young children, labour/physical support, transfers in the form of kind and transfers in the form of cash are successfully identified. The first factor happened to be labour support. The second, transfer in cash.

Personal networks receive increasing recognition as structural determinants of fertility. However, the network perspective also helps to explain personal

motivations for having children. Using theories of interpersonal exchange and of the value of children, it is argued that children can substantively alter and improve their parents' social networks. Individuals perceive this potential advantageous development as a structural benefit and consider this value in their reproductive decisions. Data from Bulgaria, collected in 2002, support this argument (Bühler 2006). The intentions of females and males to have a first or second child are positively influenced by at least one structural value. Women's intentions are promoted by the prospect that a child will bring their parents and relatives closer or will strengthen the bond with the partner. Male's intentions are closely associated with the expectation that a child will improve their security at old age (Bühler 2006).

According to Javier A. Birchenall (2007), the value of children and future generations in the evaluation of health policies is achieved through the incorporation of altruism and fertility in "value of life" type of framework. Birchenall were able to express adults' willingness to pay for changes in child mortality.And also, to incorporate the welfare of future generations in the evaluation of current policies. This model clarifies a series of puzzles from the literature on the "value of life" and on intergenerational welfare comparisons. The study show that, by incorporating altruism and fertility into the analysis, the estimated welfare gain from recent reductions in mortality in the U.S. easily doubles. (Birchenall, 2007)

2.2 MEASURING THE VALUE OF CHILDREN

The economic value and costs of children could be measured indirectly by estimating the value of children's labor and transfers to parents over the life course, expenditures related to childrearing, and the value of parental time that might otherwise be spent on income-producing activities (Rosenzweig 1978). Similar estimates of social or psychological values have not been attempted, and it could be argued that a shared metric for economic, social, and psychological values does not exist. Even if it were possible to measure the true net value of children, parents' perceptions of those values are what enter into fertility decisions.

The term 'value of children' is most closely associated with a set of surveys conducted in the mid-1970s in the United States, the Philippines, South Korea,

Taiwan, Indonesia, and Thailand (Fawcett 1983). Although based on the psychological values of children discussed above, the surveys also contained information on the perceived economic and social benefits and costs of children. Respondents were asked structured questions about reasons for having or not having children. They were also asked to rate the importance of several lists of child benefits and costs as reasons to have or not have children or their next child. Analyses of these data remain the primary source of current knowledge about variation in the value of children.

Measures of the benefits and costs of children are also the basis for subjective-expected-utility or expectation-value models of fertility decisions (Davis k. et al. 1995). Respondents are asked to rate the value of possible outcomes of having or not having a child and also the subjective probability that having or not having a child will produce the outcome. The product of those two responses comprises the importance of a given outcome as a reason to have or not have a child. Almost all of the research based on these models has focused on the total expected utility of having a child, rather than on the relative importance of specific child benefits and costs.

Recently, several European Fertility and Family Surveys (Kagitcibasi, 2005, 2007, 2010, Schoen et al. 1997) and the US National Survey of Families and Households used structured importance ratings to measure the value of children to parents. In these surveys, the rating scales are more extensive than the three-point scale used for the earlier VOC surveys, the questions try to cover all of the theoretical benefits and costs discussed above. Sometimes Analyses of these data have combined ratings of social and psychological benefits of children into a single scale.

2.3 VARIATIONS IN THE VALUE OF CHILDREN

2.3.1 The Value of First And Later-Born Children

First, second and higher-order births are associated with distinct benefits and costs (Bulatao 1981, Fawcett 1983). The first child confers the status of parenthood, so that benefits associated with parenthood can be acquired by having only one child. Adult status, relationship stability, parent-child interaction, and kin connections are all cited as primary reasons for becoming a parent. The first child is also associated

with the greatest increase in opportunity costs, that is, constraints on parental time and energy.

The most important value of a second child is to provide a sibling for the first (Bulatao 1981). Second, children may further strengthen partnership and kin ties and provide additional opportunities for rewarding parent-child interactions. The value of higher-order births is predominantly economic—each child contributes additional labor or economic security for parents. Restrictions on parents' time are also associated with higher birth orders, but at a diminishing rate. Financial costs of children become more salient to parents at the birth of fourth and higher-order siblings.

2.3.2 Gender And The Value of Children

Overall, men and women perceive the values and costs associated with children in much the same way. The few differences that are observed are consistent with traditional gender roles (Fawcett 1983). Men are on average more concerned than women about the financial costs of childrearing and about having sons to continue the family name. The latter difference is particularly pronounced in patrilineal societies. Women place greater importance than do men on the work and strain of raising children, the opportunity costs of children for other activities, and the benefits of children for the marital relationship; the last difference is also larger in patrilineal than in bilineal kinship systems.

Differences in the perceived benefits of daughters and sons are also related to differences in the roles and behaviors of men and women (Fawcett 1983). Sons are valued more than daughters for kinship ties, that is, to continue the family name, and for financial assistance. These values are especially pronounced in patrilineal family systems and where men have greater access than women to economic opportunities. Daughters are valued more than sons for household and childcare help and companionship. In patrilineal societies, the values associated with sons are produced for the most part in adulthood, those associated with daughters during childhood, consistent with the practice of daughters' leaving the parental home upon marriage. Many of the benefits of children, particularly social and psychological benefits, do not appear to differ for sons and daughters (Huntsinger 2000).

2.3.3 Socioeconomic Variation In The Value of Children

The economic value of children is associated with agricultural and household economic production and the absence of social insurance for elderly parents. Although, children also entail high economic costs in such contexts, they are necessary for survival. Industrialization and urbanization reduce the economic value of child labor and increase the costs of rearing children to be economically independent. Economic development eventually leads to the development of social insurance that reduces further the economic value of children for support in old age. As a result, children's net economic value is perceived to be lower in industrialized wealthy countries than in poorer countries with a greater dependence on agricultural and household production (Fawcett 1983).

Psychological benefits and costs of children are reported to be more important in industrial and postindustrial settings than in agricultural settings (Fawcett 1983). This difference may arise because of the priority of economic survival over psychological wellbeing, that is, children may provide psychological benefits (and costs) for parents in all settings, but these components of child value become salient only when children become irrelevant to economic survival. On the other hand, the increasing complexity and impersonal character of daily life in industrialized urban societies may produce a greater need for the love and companionship and stimulation of children. At the same time, psychological costs of childrearing may increase because kin and community take less responsibility for the supervision and care of children(Lackland Sam D. 2001).

Because the social capital value of children has only recently been introduced into theoretical discussions of the value of children, it will be tried to understand how such values might vary under different economic conditions. In agricultural settings there may be a stronger association between economic and social ties so that the latter are not distinguishable from the former. Only in industrial and urban societies social capital may be sufficiently separable from financial capital to identify it as a separate source of child value.

Socioeconomic variation in the value of children is also evidenced across families within societies (Fawcett 1983). A consistent finding from VOC surveys was that urban respondents place a lower economic value and a higher emotional value on

children than do respondents living in rural areas. Similarly, education is inversely associated with children's economic value and directly associated with their emotional value as well as with perceived restrictions or opportunity costs of parenthood. Direct financial costs and childcare stresses do not vary substantially across countries or across individuals in different economic circumstances. Increasing economic status is associated with desire for increased child 'quality' which means greater financial and time/ energy investments in each child. Thus, the perceived cost of childrearing, other than opportunity costs, remains essentially the same across socioeconomic levels.

2.3.4 Culture and the Value of Children

Broad cultural values may also serve as sources of specific or general values of children. Religious institutions and beliefs may support the value of children for social and psychological benefits. For example, Catholicism is viewed as a support for large-family values in the Philippines, Confucianism for the high value of sons to carry on the family name in some Asian countries. The relative values of daughters and sons are associated with broad cultural values on gender equality (Fawcett 1983).

Lesthaeghe (1983) argued that ideational change is an independent force underlying current low fertility in Western countries. He identifies the two most salient features of this change as secularization and individuation. Secularization allows more latitude to individual morality; individuation stresses the importance of personal self-actualization. Using national surveys of social and family values, they distinguished two dimensions of family values—a nonconformity dimension linked to partner relationships and non-marital childbearing; and the 'meaning of parenthood,' including beliefs that children are necessary for 'fulfillment' and for marital success. Measures of secularism and individuation were strongly associated with nonconforming family values, but only weakly associated with the meaning of parenthood.

2.3.5 The Value of Children and Fertility

Relatively moderate associations between value of children and completed fertility should not be surprising. Specific values are associated with particular numbers of children, not consistently with large or small numbers. Child values can influence

only desired fertility, so that the relationship between values and outcomes depends on the degree of fertility control. In addition, measures of the perceived value of children have often been relative. When a particular parity progression is specified, when contraception is pervasive, and when precise measures of the expected value (net of cost) of children are generated, very high correlations are observed with birth intentions and eventual births (Davis k. et al. 1995).

2.4 THEORY OF FAMILY CHANGE

This VOC study conducted in two socioeconomic and three generation groups assumes the theory of family change as a theoretical framework and all the hypothesis for this study is developed from Kagitcibasi's theory of family change. According to Kagitcibasi, (1990, 2007) Three prototypical family patterns were distinguished. The first, the family model of interdependence, is more common in less developed, rural, agrarian contexts with closely knit communities, that is "cultures of relatedness" (Kagitcibasi, 1985) or collectivism, and is characterized by familial interdependencies in both psychological/emotional and material realms. The contrasting pattern of "independence" is more common in Western industrial urban settings with an individualistic culture. Thus together with socioeconomic development/urbanization, individualism–collectivism (Triandis, 1990) constructs are also relevant here. A third pattern, the psychological/emotional interdependence model, is a synthesis of the first two patterns and is posited to characterize especially the urban and more developed socioeconomic contexts within cultures of relatedness (Kagitcibasi, 2010).

Therefore, this change does not imply a shift toward the Western family pattern of separation and independence as predicted by a general modernization perspective. Instead, a different pattern of family relations emerges that combines interdependence in the emotional realm with independence in the material realm. This pattern differs from the traditional (rural/low SES) family pattern given the former's decreased intergenerational material interdependence as well as decreased social/traditional VOC, including son preference. It also differs from the prototypical Western (middle-class) family pattern in containing intergenerational psychological/emotional interdependence (Dekovic, Pels, & Model et al, 2006; Jose, Huntsinger, Huntsinger, &Liaw et al., 2000; Kagitcibasi, 1990, 2007; Kim et al., 2005; Koutrelakos et al., 2004).

Considering the material/economic versus psychological interdependencies in the family, it is understandable why the former should decrease with increased affluence, urbanization, and economic development. With these lifestyle changes, organized social support systems such as old-age pensions, social security benefits, life/health insurance, and so forth become more readily available to the elderly so that they do not have to depend on their adult offspring for their livelihood, thus decreasing intergenerational material dependencies in the family. However, there is no reason why emotional/psychological connectedness or interdependencies should decrease with socioeconomic development, particularly in collectivistic cultures where "relatedness" values are cherished. These are not incompatible with socioeconomic development and urban lifestyles. Perhaps that is why in the VOC Study while economic VOC decreased with socioeconomic development, psychological VOC did not change or even increased (Kagitcibasi, 1982a, 1982b).

There are important implications of the model of family change for childrearing. In the traditional (rural/low SES) family pattern of interdependence, parents are dependent on their adult children for material benefits and old-age security. Autonomy of the child is not desired because an autonomous child may develop into a separate, independent adult who attends to his or her own needs rather than those of the family of origin. With urbanization and socioeconomic development, however, material dependence on the offspring decreases, as having children starts to entail economic costs rather than assets and as parents acquire alternative sources of old-age security. Thus, autonomy of the child is no longer a threat to the family well-being. Autonomy is also adaptive in urban lifestyles, particularly for success in school and in specialized employment. Therefore, there is more room for autonomy in childrearing. Nevertheless, there is also continuing parental control because close relations are desired rather than individualistic separation (i.e., relatedness is still highly valued). The resultant self is the "autonomous-related self," which is different from both the autonomous-separate self, prototypical of the Western individualistic family pattern, and the heteronomous (dependent)-related self, prototypical of the traditional collectivistic (low SES/rural) family (Kagitcibasi, 2005, 2007).

CHAPTER THREE

3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 PHYSICAL SETTING OF THE STUDY AREA

Addis Ababa city is the political and economic capital of the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. The city lies at an altitude of 2,300 meters and is a grassland biome, located at 9°1′48″North38°44′24″East 9.03°North 38.74°East covering an area of 526.99 square kilometers. Addis Ababa is bordered with the Regional State of Oromia in all directions. The city is administratively structured in to 10 sub cities and 203 kebeles. It has an annual rainfall of 1,161 millimeters. It boasts of many international bodies and embassies including the United Nations. The city is inhabited by numerous nationalities with foreigners constituting less than 1% of the population. Based on the 2011 statistical abstract conducted by the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia (CSA), Addis Ababa has a total population of 3,041,002, of whom 1,449,002 are men and 1,502,000 women; all of the population are urban inhabitants. The total fertility rate is 1.485 (CSA, 2010, AACoFED, 2011).

Whereas the other study area; Amhara Peoples Regional State is one of the nine regions, which constitute the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. The Regional state is located in the North-west part of the country, at a distance of 583 km from Addis Ababa. Astronomically, the regional state is located between 08045' – 13045' north latitudes and 35046' – 40025' east longitude and bordered with the Republic of Sudan to the west, Benshangul-Gumuz southwest, Oromia regional States to the south, Afar, to the east and Tigray to the north. The region is administratively structured into 10 zones, 137 Woredas, One town administration, two special Woredas and 5300 kebele administrations. The region, with a geographic size of about 170152 Sq. Km, the topography of the area is almost altitude ranging from 550 - 4520 meter above sea level (ABoFED, 2011).

The two study areas were Yeka sub-city from Addis Ababa and MechaWoreda from Amhara region. Yeka is one of the administrative areas of Addis Ababa city administration with a total population of 346,664 and a total fertility rate of 1.455.

And MechaWoreda belongs to west Gojam zone in Amhara region with a total population of 317,961 and 4.385 TFR (CSA, 2010, 2011).

The first study area, MechaWoreda is one among the 137 Woredas of the Amhara Regional State. It is located about 545 km northwest of Addis Ababa and about 38 km west of Bahir Dar, the capital of the regional state. The Woreda bordered with BahirdarzuriaWoreda to the north, semen and debubacheferWoreda to the west, Sekela and FagitalokomaWoredas to the south, and YilmanadensaWoreda to the east. And has 39 rural Kebele administrations and 2 urban administrations (MWoFED, 2011).

The second study area, Yeka sub city is one among 10 sub cities of Addis Ababa city. It is located in the northeast part of the city. The sub city bordered with bole sub city to the south, Kirkos sub city to the south-west, Arada sub city to the west, Gulele sub city to the north-west and Finfinezuria zone of OromyaRigion to the east and north. The sub city has 13 urban kebele administrations (YSCoFED, 2011).

3.2 STUDY DESIGN

A cross-sectional quantitative design was employed to accomplish the above stated objectives of the study. As Cross-sectional studies are carried out at a single point in time, this study has emphasized particularly on identifying the value of children status for women at the time of the study. Value of children status of women in both SES was measured by analyzing the strength of expected gains from having a child. This study has not only tried to show the strength of factors that determines VOC status between the two socioeconomic groups but also identifying the generation effects in the perception of VOC in different age groups. Furthermore, since cross-sectional studies are only carried out at one point in time, the study could not consider trends of women's expectations from having a child over time.

3.2.1 Study Population

The study population is women aged 18 t0 65. Women starting from age 18 were considered to assess the values of their children and their perception of their parents' value on them. The criteria were;

- Only women aged 18 and above were included.
- For memory bias women above 65 was not included.

3.3 SAMPLING METHOD

The study primarily focused on the MechaWoreda of Amahara Peoples Regional State and Yeka sub city of Addis Ababa city administration. In order to undertake the study both areas were selected because they possess significantly different demographic and socioeconomic situations. There are 39 rural kebeles in MechaWoreda. Out of 39 kebeles, five kebeles were randomly selected. From 13 kebeles of Yeka sub city, four were randomly selected. In order to select the eligible respondents the list of women aged 18 to 65 were taken from their two administrative offices.

A multi-stage sampling technique was employed to select the unit of analysis – women aged 18 to 65 in the reference period. The sampling design combined stratified, simple random sampling and systematic random sampling methods. The homogeneity stratification was based on the socio economic status of the study areas as – Mecha for rural socio economic status and Yeka for urban socio economic status. The first stage-sampling units were kebeles and the second stage units were women who are aged between 18 and 65.

The sampling frames for each stratum were prepared using the list of women in selected kebeles, which was obtained from the Central Statistical Agency (CSA) based on the 2007 National Population and Housing Census and the records of finance and economic development offices of the two strata.

The selection of women involves three stages;

1st Stage: Selection of study areas

First, by using systematic random sampling technique, the two strata (SES groups) were selected according to the socio economic and demographic statues. The list of kebeles having information on the age distribution was obtained from mechaWoreda finance and economic development bureau and Yeka sub city finance and economic development bureau. Based on this list of kebeles, five kebeles were selected from the first stratum- mechaWoreda and four kebeles were

selected from the second stratum- Yeka sub city. A total of nine kebeles were considered in this study.

2nd Stage: Selection of kebeles

The numbers of kebeles in the mecha stratum wereFive.And Fourkebeles were selected from Yeka sub city randomly and a total of Nine kebeles were included for this study. Listing of all households was undertaken in the selected kebeles.

3rd Stage: Selection of Women

The last stage sampling units - women whose ages are between 18 and 65 at the time of the survey were selected from a sampling frame (Listing form) prepared in each kebeles. The allocation of the predetermined sample of women was using the probability proportional to size. The allocated sample of women selected from each kebele was done using systematic random sampling method.

3.4 SAMPLE SIZE DETERMINATION

To determine the sample size, the following formula for random sampling technique was used (Kothari, 1997). The calculation of a target sample size resulted in a sample size of 422 women. This sample is allocated among the enumeration area (for this study Enumeration area refers to the randomly selected kebeles) using probability proportional to size –PPS method. Table 3. 1 gives the details of sample allocation

The formula used for this study was,

$$n = \frac{(P*(1.00-P)}{e^2} * Z^2$$

Where:

n = Sample size

P= Estimated proportion of respondents. As the proportion was not known, 0.5 was used as P value to obtain maximum number of the respondents.

Z= the number of standard error corresponding to 95 percent confidence interval which is 1.96.

e = Margin of error that the researcher tolerates which is 0.05

Therefore: The total number of sample included in the study was

$$= \frac{0.5*(1.00-0.5)*1.96^2}{0.05^2}$$

$$= 384$$

With 10 percent contingency, the total number of the respondents were= 384+38= 422

Table 3.1 schematic representation of sampling distribution

Stratum	Kebeles	Proposed number of respondents	Selection of eligible women	Actual number of respondents
Mecha	Ambomesk	51	By Using the orders of their name and starting from the third name	46
	Bachima	47		44
	Dagiabyot	35		32
	Andinet	48		41
	Tirumeda	30		27
Total	5	211		190
Yeka	04	44		41
	05	57		54
	14/15	61		55
	20/21/23	49		43
Total	4	211		193
Selection method	Random sampling	Probability proportion to size	Systematic random sampling	Completeness of the questionnaire and data clearing

3.5 DATA SOURCES AND STUDY INSTRUMENT

The questionnaire for this study was adopted from the value of children project by Gisela Trommsdorff et al. in 2005, this questionnaire was in many ways similar to the original VOC study ofKagitcibasi in 1982. In Both questionnaires, to assess the expectations of women from an offspring, A five-point Likert-type response format was employed ranging from 'not important at all' (score 1) to 'very important' (score 5). By incorporating questions on demographic and socioeconomic status and other relevant questions, and rearranging with respect to the purpose of this

study the questionnaire was administered to participants. These structured questions were prepared in English and translated in to Amharic.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION MANAGEMENT

3.6.1 Organization and Management of theField Operation

The quality of the study is depending highly on the work done in the field. Therefore, it was tried to carefully plan the fieldwork activities in terms of the recruitment and training of the field personnel, pre-testing the questionnaires and the capacity of the interviewers.

3.6.2 Recruitment and Training of TheField Personnel

The field team were consists two supervisors, and eight enumerators. The entire group was trained on the general task to increase their understanding of the nature of the Study and their specific activities. The training was given in both study areas and include about the overview of Study and the objectives, nature of data to be collected, description of the sampling method, field procedures and interview. In addition to this training manual was prepared for the purpose of the training and to serve as a field guide for the supervisors and enumerators.

3.6.3 Pre-Testing the Interview

Before the actual fieldwork, the prepared questionnaire was checked by the pretest interview. In addition, after the pretest discussion was done with trainees. The issues were question clarity, cultural and local context appropriateness and other problems. On this, it was tried to arrive at consensus on many of the issues raised.

3.6.4 Field Work Procedures and Supervision

Four enumerators and one supervisor were deployed to undertake the data collection from respondents in MechaWoreda and the other four enumerators and one supervisor were set out in Yeka sub city. During the fieldwork, there was close monitoring of the field work to insure the accuracy of the data checking. There was also daily review of enumerators' work. The questionnaires completed were also checked and systematically spot-checked through conducting short re-interview for

their completeness and avoiding irregularity on a daily basis. In addition to this, it was tried to provide adequate logistical arrangements.

3.7 METHODS OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data Entry, Cleaning, Processing & Analysis

Data was entered in to Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) computer based packages. Running and tabulating all variable frequencies was carried out as part of data cleaning. This was followed by analysis using both bivariate and multivariate approaches.

Both bivariate and multivariate analyses were employed to identify the differentials and determinants of values of children in two societies. The analysis focused on the three VOC sub scales with respect to socioeconomic groups and generational differences.

The collected data was processed following the necessary requirements before analyzing. Then it was subjected to different statistical tools depending on the nature of data.

Since Factor analysis attempts to identify underlying variables or factors, that explain the pattern of correlations within a set of observed variables, It was carried out on the questionnaire assessing the respondents' childrearing attitudes. Analyses was done on factors loaded on the subscales assessing the social/traditional VOC, psychological VOC, economic VOC, and respondents expectation from a grown up son and daughter separately and combined.

After assessing internal consistency, by using alpha coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for each of the subscales, the strongest and most determinant factors for each value of children sub scales and the additional expectation from a grown up offspring was examined. Factor loading was done for two SES separately so that to compare which factor is the strongest in different socioeconomic groups.

For a differential analysis, Analyses of variance (ANOVA; 2 ×3) was carried out with two Socio-economic situations and three generations(age groups) to test several of the aforementioned hypotheses. In addition, separate ANOVAs

was carried out to determine whether socioeconomic and demographic groups differed when the three generation respondents evaluated their childrearing attitudes. Partial eta-squared was computed to assess the effect size of the VOC sub scales in terms of socioeconomic group and generation group differences for the above-mentioned ANOVAs. For the separate ANOVAs, post hoc comparisons were done by using schiff's test. The post hoc test breaks down the main effects generation and SES so that it will be possible to compare the strength of significance independently.

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

All ethical research criteria were assured. In the beginning, letter of support was written by center for Population Studies / CPS/, college of Development Studies /CDS/, Addis Ababa University. Following the letter research area administrative councils wrote a letter to all respective sectors (offices) to assist the researcher in providing support for the research work. On the informed consent part of the questionnaire all their rights were addressed for the respondents, data was collected only on the respondents' willingness. To assure confidentiality, efforts were made not to include sensitive questions.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA AND THE SAMPLERESPONDENTS

4.1 Demographic and Socioeconomic Profile Of the Study Areas

4.1.1 Demographic Profile

According to CSA based on the 2011 statistical abstract, MechaWoreda had a total population of 317,963 of whom 160,686 are men and 157,277 women. Mecha had a population density of 214.6, persons per square kilometer (CSA, 2011). The economically active (15-64 years) are 59.87% of the total population, while economically inactive, children below 15 years are 38.63%, and elders (65 years and above) were only 1.68%. The results of the census revealed that only 0.46% was urban and 99.54% were rural inhabitants. The average household size was 4.1 persons per household. Total fertility rate of the Woreda was 4.385 (CSA, 2010).

Yeka sub city had a total population of 384,810. Of whom 179,370 are men and 205,440 women.Yeka had a population density of 4475.6 persons per square kilometer (CSA, 2011). The economically active (15-64 years) are 72.47% of the total population, while economically inactive, children below 15 years are 24.06%, and elders (65 years and above) were only 3.47%. Yeka had an average of 3.8 persons per household. The results of the census revealed that all of residents were urban inhabitants. Total fertility rate of the sub city was 1.455 and average CEB form a woman was 1.36 (CSA, 2010).

The religious composition of Yeka showed that the majority, about 84.47% of the total population of the sub city was the follower of Orthodox Christian religion, while 6.08 % are Islam, Protestantism, accounts about 7.35%, Catholics, traditional religions and others accounts for about 1.36. While in MechaWoreda, almost all (98.9%) are orthodox. (CSA, 2010)

4.1.2 Social and Economic Conditions

To bring rapid development of a society in all aspects, education is the most determinant and leading sector. The 2007 census data on the literacy status of the population of Yeka sub city indicated that 85.97 % of the population aged five years and above were literate, while about 14.03 % are illiterate (CSA, 2010). The 2007 census data on the literacy status of the population of MechaWoreda indicated that only 32.16 % of the population aged five years and above were literate, while about 67.83 % are illiterate (CSA, 2010). In Mecha, there are 23 schools. There is three secondary school (Grade 9-10), and 17 primary schools, of which eight are (Grade1-8) and 9 are (Grade1-5). In addition, one kindergarten and four alternative basic education centers are available. There is one preparatory school, one technical and vocational school, and three private colleges in the Woreda (MWoFED, 2011).

95.8% of the residents in Yeka have access to improved water mainly from piped water either into the dwelling (35.3%) or into the yard (67.2%). There are, however, 4.2% of the sub city had no access to piped water. This part of the population had to use public taps to get safe water (YSCoFED, 2011). While, MechaWoreda residents have access to water from multiple sources. From piped water into the yard (9.2%). The other however, has no access to piped water. This part of the population had to use public taps to get safe water. Unsafe water from rivers and ponds is the main source of water in the Woreda. This risk is compounded by the fact that most households (91.8%) do not treat their water before consumption (MWoFED, 2011).

Agriculture for MechaWoreda is the main and important economic sector, which is mixed agriculture type. Accordingly, both crop production, traditional animal husbandry and little fishing. Some people have been engaged in beekeeping since a remote past and are still produced honey using hive made of medium size log and kept on top of tree branch in the forest. The major crops produced in the area are maize, teff, millet, nug seed and trees. In addition, cattle, goats and chickens are livestock productions of the Woreda. According to The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Disaster management and prevention commission (2009), this area is a food secure area with no history of relief assistance. Surplus crop

production ensures food self-sufficiency and generates relatively higher cash income specifically for the better-off and middle households (DMPC, 2009).

As an urban residence, About 20% of Yeka sub city's workforce is government employees, 31% private organization employees, 25% own-account workers, 2% employers and 2% unpaid family workers and others. There is a substantial engagement in the informal sector (YSCoFED, 2011).

4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIOECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE RESPONDENTS

Assessing the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of a sample household is crucial in terms of identifying casual factors driving VOC changes as well as the status of values of children of the study areas. To this end, this section explains demographic (e.g. Age, marital status, children ever born), social (e.g. religion and educational status) and economic conditions (job engagement, wealth status) of sample respondents households in all sample kebeles.

4.2.1 Demographic Characteristics

Demographic characteristics of the sample households have given due emphasis in this section because they can give reflections about the status and determinants of VOC in the study areas.

Age Composition

Out of the total respondents covered in the survey, age group 18- 29, dominate the distribution of respondents. Thus, 43.6 % respondents were found in the age group 18-29, while 35.6 % respondents between 30 and 44 years old and the remaining 17.8 % were the age of 45-65.

Table 4.1.Distribution of respondents by age and residence.

Age Group	Mecha		Yeka		Total	
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%
18– 29	98	51.6	69	35.7	167	43.6
30 – 44	50	26.3	98	50.8	148	38.6
45–65	42	22.1	26	13.5	68	17.8
Total	190	100.0	193	100.0	383	100.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

The overwhelming majority of the people living in the rural areas of MechaWoreda are quite young in age. As shown in Table 4.1, this study conducted in sample 'kebeles indicated that, a majority of respondents (51.6%) of the total sample population belongs to 18-29 years. While, the middle age group (30-44 years) was 26.3%. The proportion of the population 45-65 years accounted approximately 22%. As regards to Yeka respondents' age structure, the area under study has a slight dominance of age group 30-44. It accounts about 50.8%. Younger respondents (age group between 18 and 29) constituted about 35.7% and the rest, 13.5% were belongs to age group of 45-65.

Marital Status

According to the survey result (Table 4.2), in MechaWoreda, currently married respondents in the sample kebeles constitute 71.6%, while currently unmarried took 28.40 % share of the total sample household heads. In Yeka sub-city, 67.9% currently married and 32.1% currently unmarried respondents were selected.

Table 4.2 Distribution of Respondents by Current Marital status

	Mecha		Yeka	
	Number	%	Number	%
Currently married	136	71.6	131	67.9
Currently not married	54	28.4	62	32.1
Total	190	100.0	193	100.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

4.2.1 Social Characteristics

In this research part, social characteristics of the respondents encompass religion and educational status of MechaWoreda and Yeka sub city. According to the result, the religion of the sample respondents in Yeka sub-sample included Protestant, Orthodox and Islam 18.7%, 49.2% and 32.1% respectively (Table 4.3). Regarding to MechaWoreda, all respondents were Orthodox Christians. This homogeneity is also work in the total population of the Woreda.

Figure 4.3 Distributions of Respondents by Religion

	Mecha/rural		Yeka/urban	
	Number	%	Number	%
orthodox	190	100.0	95	49.2
protestant			36	18.7
Islam			62	32.1
Total	190	100.0	193	100.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

As shown in Table 4.4, educational status of the sample respondents in Mecha sub-sample included is 57.9% illiterate and 22.1% primary level. While in Yeka sub city, all respondents have at list primary education. From the descriptive statistics below, it is visible that Yeka respondents were better educated than Mecha.

Table 4.4.Distribution of respondents by educational status

	Mecha/rural		Yeka/urban	
	Number	%	Number	%
no education	110	57.9	0	0
primary education	42	22.1	18	9.3
secondary education	22	11.6	44	22.8
Certificate	0	0	26	13.5
higher education	16	8.4	105	54.4
Total	190	100.0	193	100.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

4.2.3 Economic Conditions

In the analysis of value of children, it is believed that the economic conditions of a society have a significant impact on the people's perceptions about having a child. In this study, the economic conditions of the sample respondents were assessed by including their job engagement in the last 12 months. The following results were revealed from the questionnaire.

Table 4.5 Job engagement in the last 12 months

	Mecha/Rural		Yeka/Urban	
	Number	%	Number	%
No job	24	12.6	4	2.1
Public/service	12	6.3	129	66.8
Craft	8	4.2	0	0
Commerce	12	6.3	26	13.5
Agriculture	102	53.7	0	0
Industry	2	1.1	0	0
Private	30	15.8	22	11.4
Others	0	0	12	6.2
Total	190	100.0	193	100.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

For Yeka respondents, public and service sectors have the biggest share of (66.8%). On the other hand, the commerce and other jobs follow (13.5% and 11.4% respectively). And as expected, the Mecha respondent's main job is agriculture (53.7%) followed by private jobs and jobless (15.8% and 12.6%).

Wealth

According to the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Disaster management and prevention commission, the livelihood zone of a household in MechaWoreda is categorized under South West Maize, Finger Millet &Teff (SWM) Livelihood Zone. Based on the information obtained from the commission, it was possible to extract the criteria to assess the well-being of a given household. Hence, by using number of livestock, total land size under both annual and perennial crops, reserved

assets in cash or kind, four major socio- economic groups could be identified. These were very poor, poor, medium and better-off. Whereas, for the Yeka respondents; the well-being of a household was analyzed by using monthly income of the households. Thecriterion for categorizing the households in to wealth groups was according to Ingo Outes-Leon (2008).

Table 4.6 wealth of the respondents by residence

	Mecha		Yeka	
	Number	%	Number	%
Very poor	73	38.4	49	25.3
Poor	42	22.1	89	46.1
Middle	49	25.8	43	22.2
Better off	26	13.7	12	6.21
Total	190	100.0	193	100.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

According to table 4.6, from the sample in MechaWoreda, 38.4% of the respondents fall in the 'very poor' wealth category. 25.3% of the households were in the middle class. 22.1% of the total respondents were poor. The other 13.7% represents the better-off class. The majority of respondents in Yeka sub city belong to poor economic class (46.1%). According to their reported monthly income and household size, the very poor and middle income households account 25.3% and 22.2% respectively.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

The data for the Value of Childrenanalysis were gathered only for the purpose of this study. The data set contains 383 completed interviews, with a quota of rural and urban settings in Ethiopia, MechaWoreda from Amhara National Region with a rural setting and Yeka sub-city for urban setting from Addis Ababa City were selected. In both settings, respondents were interviewed with a standardized questionnaire, based on Amharic translation of the English standard instrument.

Purposively, the societies included in the study differ considerably with regard to the general level of fertility as well as their respective position in the socio-economic status, and thus should vary considerably according to the utility of children. The following groups of respondents can be distinguished.

First, Mecha has by far the higher fertility level with a 4.385 TFR (CSA, 2010). The second group, Yeka sub-city has a TFR of 1.455 (CSA, 2010). Participants recruited from urban/metropolitan settings in Yeka sub-city represent a moderate level of socioeconomic development and "westernization," whereas residents residing in the less developed and rural areas of MechaWoreda embrace a more "traditional" culture. Initially, data from Merawi town of MechaWoreda was collected and analyzed for consistency. However, the fertility level as well as the socio-economic status demonstrated different response profile from the rural Mecha sample; therefore, it has not been used for further analysis.

Table 5.1. Demographic profiles of respondents by socioeconomic status								
Socio-economic status comparison groups			Age	Children ever born	educational status	Religion	Wealth	Marital status
Rural/ Mecha	N	Valid	190	190	190	190	186	190
		Missing	0	0	0	0	4	0
	Mean		33.66	3.49				
	Std. Deviation		13.92	3.421				
Urban/ Yeka	N	Valid	193	193	193	193	179	193
		Missing	0	0	0	0	14	0
	Mean		33.78	1.75				
	Std. Deviation		8.338	1.948				
F			12.89	37.938	10.456	.232		5.437
P			.000	.000	.000	***Ns***		.000

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

5.1.1 Children Ever Born (CEB) Patterns

According to Kagitcibasi (2005, 2007), theory of family change in a long term, the perceptions of a society on child rearing values determines the pattern of fertility of the society. Therefore, question about children ever born by a woman was included. As a result, the following table indicates the frequency and average children ever born of the two societies. MechaWoreda have the higher (3.49) CEB than Yeka sub city (1.75). This may indicate MechaWoreda values a child than the urban respondents. 44.5% of respondents from MechaWoreda have more than three children. Whereas 79.4% of respondents of the Yeka sub city have less than four children.

Table 5.2. children ever born (CEB) by residence				
CEB	**Mecha**		**Yeka**	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
0	60	31.6	70	36.3
1 –3	46	24.3	83	43.1
4 –7	62	32.7	40	20.7
8+	22	11.8	0	0
Average	3.49		1.75	

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

5.1.2 Gender Preference Patterns

As an indicator of gender preference, respondents were asked what sex would they chose is they only have one child. More than half of the respondents (57.89%) in the total sample population answered that sex of the child was not their concern. Both socio-economic groups prefer a girl than a boy (24.7% and 26.3% for Mecha and Yeka respondents respectively).

Table 5.3. Respondents gender preference if they only have one child						
	Mecha		Yeka		Total	
	Frequency	Valid %	Frequency	Valid %	Frequency	Valid %
Boy	34	18.3	26	14.9	60	16.62
Girl	46	24.7	46	26.3	92	25.48
All the same	106	57.0	103	58.9	209	57.89
Total	186	100.0	175	100.0	361	100.0

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

5.2 DETERMINANTS OF THE VALUE OF CHILDREN

The VOC instrument included questions that measure four main factors. The first three, the social/traditional VOC, the economic/utilitarian and the psychological VOC sub scales were used to analyze the three main dimensions of values that mothers expect by having a child in different SES and generational differences. The fourth factor is mothers' expectation from a grown up son and daughter separately. In order to measure the perceived value of children, the respondents were given the following statement: 'I have a list of reasons people may give for

wanting to have children in general. . . . Think about your experience with your own (child/children) and tell me how important the following reasons for wanting to have children are to you personally.' A five-point Likert-type response format was employed ranging from 'not important at all' (score 1) to 'very important' (score 5).

5.2.1 Current Status of VOC in The Study Areas

As the VOC measure should be multidimensional, factor analyses were applied to establish equivalence of the respondents' childrearing attitudes (social/traditional, economic/utilitarian and psychological values) and on the expectations from a grown up son and daughter. The following strategy was chosen. First, a general factorial solution for the two socio-economic groups of women was established, which had to meet the following criteria. The extracted structure needed to be in line with the theoretical propositions and also explain an acceptable amount of the total variance. The single items, in turn, should be unambiguous, i.e. they were not allowed to show high cross-loadings but high loadings on the respective factor. Exploratory factor analyses (oblique rotation) were performed. Second, the remaining item pool of the final solution, which emerged as a consequence of this iterative procedure, was factor analyzed for both samples. The ultimate aim was to compare in pairs the pooled solution with the respective sub-sample solutions. The computation of target rotation (van de Vijver and Leung, 1997) was performed, which provides factor specific agreement coefficients. Factor loadings less than .4 are less contributing in VOC.

The Analyses restricted to four factors revealed mostly similar factor structures for the two societies and items loaded onto the expected factors. That is, subscales assessing the social/traditional VOC (factor loadings ranged from .281 to .775), psychological VOC (factor loadings ranged from .366 to .744), economic expectations (factor loadings ranged from .559 to .925), and expectations from a grown up son and daughter (factor loadings ranged from .364 to .798 from son and .360 to .697 from daughter).

Table 5.4. Factor Loadings for Value of Children (VOC) scale

Economic VOC	**Rural**	**Urban**
Because a child helps around the house,	.925	.640
To have one more person to help your family economically,	.559	.569
Your children can help you when you're old,	.873	.574
Social/traditional VOC		
Because any new family member makes your family more important,	.683	.503
Because people with children are less likely to be lonely in old age,	.775	.281
Because some of your older relatives feel that, you should have more children,	.518	.624
To carry on the family name,	.617	.375
Psychological/Emotional VOC		
To have someone to love and care for,	.556	.527
Because it is fun to have young children around the house,	.380	.723
When it is a duty to have children according to your belief,	.744	.366
Expectations from a grown up offspring		
To what extent do you expect the following kinds of help from a grown-up son?		
…that he provides financial assistance to you,	.642	.561
…that he cares for you when you are old,	.798	.737
…that he provides emotional support to you,	.752	.364
To what extent do you expect the following kinds of help from a grown-up daughter?		
…that she provides financial assistance to you,	.472	.360
…that she cares for you when you are old,	.695	.697
…that she provides emotional support to you,	.482	.682

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

To assess internal consistency, alpha coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for each of the sub scales (based on the aforementioned factor analysis) were computed. Separate alpha values for subscales assessing expectations for both socio-economic statuses were also calculated. As shown in Table 5.5, the VOC subscales, in general, were internally consistent; however, the VOC subscales of urban respondents separately measuring expectations of psychological values had substantially lower alpha value.

Table 5.5. Cronbach's Alpha Values for the VOC Sub scales

Factors	***Rural***	***Urban***
Social/traditional VOC	.83	.94
Economic expectation	.92	.81
Psychological VOC	.79	.41
Expectation from a grown up son and daughter combined	. 84	.76

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

Note: VOC-combined = sum of scores for son and daughter.

Factor loading for the expected vale of children sub scales for the two socio-economic statuses indicate that in the economic expectations sub-scale; the reason 'because a child helps around the house' is the strongest factor to have a child for both rural and urban respondents, with factor loadings .925 and .640 respectively.
Old age security is the second strongest reason of economic expectations from a child for both rural and urban respondents (factor loadings .873 and .574 respectively). The least strong factor for women of both socio-economic statuses in economic expectations from a child, which is the lowest economic value of children, is 'having a child to have one more person to help economically with a factor loading .559 and .569 in rural and urban settings.
In the social/traditional values of children sub-scale, the reason 'because people with children are less likely to be lonely in old age' is the strongest factor to have a child for rural respondents (with factor loading .775). While for urban respondents this is the lowest social/traditional reason for having a child.
'Because any new family member makes your family more important' is the second strongest reason of social/traditional values from a child for rural

respondents (factor loading .683). in order of appearances, expected reasons 'to carry on the family name' and 'because some of your older relatives feel that you should have more children' are the other significantly strong social/traditional factors (with factor loadings.617 and .518 respectively) that lead women in rural Mecha to have (more)children.

The strongest social/traditional factor for women in urban socio-economic statuses to have a child is 'because some of your older relatives feel that you should have more children' (factor loading .624). The other strong social/traditional value of children is 'Because any new family member makes your family more important' with a factor loading .503.

Factor loading for the expected vale of children sub scales for the two socio-economic statuses indicate that in the psychological VOC sub-scale; the reason 'when it is a duty according to your belief' is the strongest factor to have a child for rural Mecha respondents with factor loading .744. Whereas, for Yeka respondents; having children around the house is the strongest factor with a factor loading .723.

'To have someone to love and care for' is the second strongest reason of psychological expectation from a child for both rural and urban respondents (factor loadings .556 and .527 respectively).

In addition, the above expected Value of Children sub-scales, separate factors were loaded to assess expectations from a grown-up son and daughter. Respondents were asked their expectations from their grown-up son and daughter separately, to cheek gender-dependant expectations. Women from MechaWoreda expect care when they get older from their son and daughter first. Emotional support comes second in expectations of rural respondents from their grown up sons and daughters. Financial expectation comes next. For urban women, being taken care of by their grown up offspring has come first as the rural respondents. Financial support from a grown up son and emotional support from a daughter comes second. Lastly, financial support from a daughter and emotional support from a son are the list expectations of women in Addis Ababa's Yeka sub city.

5.3 THE DIFFERENTIALS OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND GENERATIONAL GROUPS ON THE VALUE OF CHILDREN

Analyses of variance (ANOVA; 2 × 3 were carried out with two SES/cultural groups (urban Yeka sub city and MechaWoreda) and three generations(age groups) to test several of the aforementioned hypotheses (i.e., Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4; see Table 5.6). In addition, separate ANOVAs were carried out (as shown in Table 5.7) to determine whether socioeconomic/development groups differed when three age groups of respondents evaluated their childrearing attitudes (age groups 18-29, 30-44, and 45-65). I report separate ANOVA outcomes (for age groups 18-29, 30- 44 and 45-65) and effect size values as well as post hoc comparisons in Table 5.7. Main effects are also reported in Table 5.6 (i.e., socioeconomic development status and age groups). Here the dependent variables are mean VOC subscale scores.

Pair wise comparisons were carried out using the Scheffé test (Table 5.7). In addition, I reported partial eta-squared (η_p^2) values for each ANOVA outcome (Tables 5.6 and 5.7) and described the magnitude of significant group differences. Effect size values (partial eta-squared) falling in the .01 to .05 range will be considered small, whereas values in the .051 to .14 range will be considered moderate. Partial eta-squared (η_p^2) values greater than .14 will be considered large, whereas values less than .01 will be described as trivial.

Table 5.6. 2 X 3 ANOVA for socioeconomic status and generation effects

Dependent Variables	Main effect Residence			Main effect Generation			Interaction		
	F(1, 383)	*Sig.*	η_p^2	*F(2, 383)*	*Sig.*	η_p^2	*F(2, 383)*	*Sig.*	η_p^2
Economic/utilitarian VOC	1299.72	.000	.820	.481	.399	.006	2.87	.005	.037
Social/traditional VOC	13.894	.000	.046	3.390	.022	.026	.303	.708	.002
Psychological VOC	24.208	.000	.078	.847	.459	.005	.617	.566	.004
Old age expectation from a grown up son	9.500	.002	.032	6.485	.021	.027	2.34	.245	.010
Old age expectation from a grown up daughter	38.800	.000	.120	3.005	.074	.018	.613	.586	.004
Old age expectation from a grown up son and daughter – combined	29.067	.000	.093	4.385	.012	.031	.762	.457	.005

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

Table 5.7 separate ANOVAs and post hoc comparisons for socioeconomic status

Dependent Variable	*Age groups*	*Rural*				*Urban*			
		Post hoc	*F*	*Sig.*	η_p^2	*Post hoc*	*F*	*Sig.*	η_p^2
Economic/utilitarian VOC	18-29	4.19	1.750	.178	.027	1.75	4.023	.020	.048
	30-44	4.20				1.91			
	45-65	4.37				2.13			
Social/traditional VOC	18-29	3.61	1.491	.229	.023	3.21	2.584	.079	.031
	30-44	3.72				3.41			
	45-65	3.82				3.60			
Psychological VOC	18-29	3.84	1.316	.272	.021	3.47	.267	.766	.003
	30-44	3.97				3.39			
	45-65	3.75				3.33			
Expectations from a grown up son	18-29	3.33	2.675	.073	.041	3.14	3.110	.047	.037
	30-44	3.68				3.47			
	45-65	3.87				3.22			
Expectations from a grown up daughter	18-29	4.03	.342	.711	.005	3.33	3.407	.036	.041
	30-44	4.10				3.50			
	45-65	4.17				3.68			
Combined expectations from a grown up son and daughter	18-29	3.68	2.123	.124	.033	3.24	3.902	.022	.047
	30-44	3.92				3.57			
	45-65	3.98				3.36			

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

5.3.1 SOCIAL/TRADITIONAL VOC IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND GENERATIONAL GROUPS

The first hypothesis (Hypothesis 1) predicted that Mecha respondents with rural environments, when asked to evaluate their childrearing attitudes, would stress the social/traditional VOC more than the Yeka respondents residing in urban settings. Hypothesis 1 further stated that young adults would place less emphasis on the social/traditional VOC in comparison to their elder's attitudes. Thus, it was expected that the emerging adults and their elders (as age groups18-29, 30-44 and 45-65) would demonstrate distinct response patterns, with the younger generation

(age group 18-29) revealing less social/traditional VOC regarding their (future) children in comparison to their elders' values. As shown in Table 5.7, ANOVA revealed that age groups does not bring a variation on the VOC subscale assessing the social/traditional values of rural respondents, with $F(2, 190) = 1.491$, $p= .229$, $\eta_p^2 = .023$. Post hoc comparisons showed that respondents in age group 18-29 obtained the lowest social/traditional VOC scores (regarding rural respondents), whereas participants with age group45-65 obtained the highest scores but this post hoc scores are not significantly different.

For Yeka sub city, ANOVA (table 5.7) indicated that age groups brings no significant variation on the social VOC with $F(2, 193) = 2.584$, $p= .079$, $\eta_p^2 = .031$ Individuals residing in the urban regions (higher level of development) with age group 45-65 obtained higher scores relative to respondents with age groups 30-44 ($p < .05$), whereas the latter group scored significantly higher on the social/traditional VOC than the youngest participants (age group 18-29) ($p < .05$). Findings support Hypothesis 1. A 2×3 ANOVA revealed a main effect for age group differences on the VOC subscale measuring social/traditional values, with $F(2, 383) = 3.39$, $p = .022$, $\eta_p^2 = .026$ (see Table 5.6). And the other main effect for socio-economic status differences had also a significant impact on social/traditional values, with $F(2, 383) = 13.894$, $p = .000$, $\eta_p^2 = .046$ Young adults obtained lower scores in comparison to their elders (as determined by post hoc comparisons of age groups), an outcome that supports Hypothesis 1. Figure-5.1 further presents age group and socio-economic differences in social/traditional VOC.

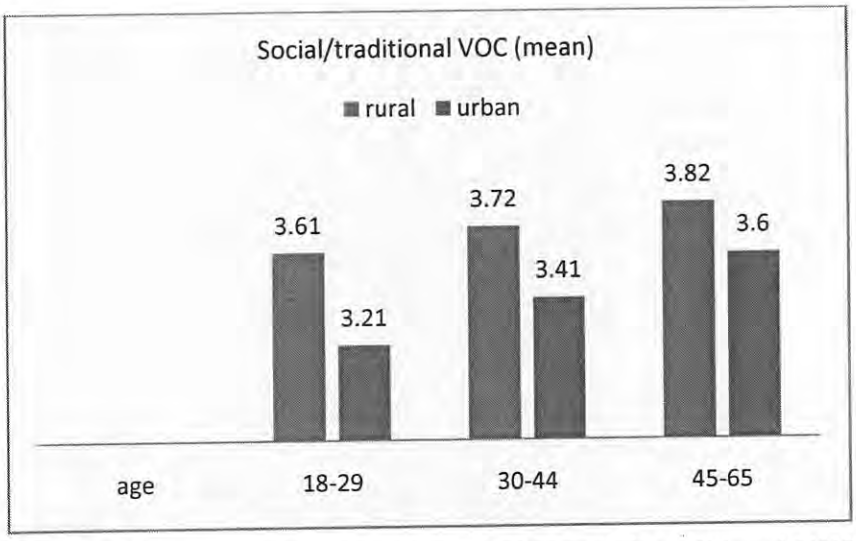

Figure 5.1 mean post hoc compressions for social/ traditional VOC sub scale

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

5.3.2 ECONOMIC/UTILITARIAN VOC IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND GENERATIONAL GROUPS

Hypothesis 2 states that Yeka respondents raised in urban environments, when asked to evaluate their childrearing expectations, would be less likely to emphasize the economic/utilitarian VOC in comparison to respondents residing in less developed rural setting MechaWoreda. It was also anticipated that younger respondents would report themselves as having lower utilitarian/economic expectations compared to their elders.

As shown in Table 5.7, for Mecha socioeconomic development group, age groups (i.e., 18-29, 30-44 and 45-65) do not differed significantly on the VOC Subscale assessing expectations of economic support, with $F(2, 190) = 1.750$, $p = 0.178$, $\eta_p^2 = .027$. Post hoc analyses (Scheffé test) revealed that participants with age group 45-65 obtained higher scores on economic expectation from children in comparison to adults age groups (30-45) residing in Mecha sub sample ($ps < .05$), Unexpectedly, respondents with age groups 18-29, 30-44 and 45-65 did not obtain significantly different scores on economic expectations (see Figure 5.2 and Table 5.7).

A 2 × 3 ANOVA (two levels of socioeconomic development—rural, and urban/metropolitan, and three generations age groups 18-29, 30-44 and 45-65) was carried out to test Hypothesis 2 (Table 5.6). Groups of socioeconomic development—rural, and urban/metropolitan differed significantly on the VOC

subscale measuring expectations of economic support with F (1, 383) = 1299.7, p < .001, ηp2 = .820. Urban respondents rated themselves as having less expectation of financial support from offspring compared to rural respondents. While, generation groups did not show significant difference on the VOC sub-scale of economic/utilitarian expectations. Table 5.6 shows F(2, 383)= 0.48, p= 0.399, ηp2 =0.006 which is not significant. Interaction was found between generational variables and socio-economic groups for the total score of economic expectation (see Table 5.6).

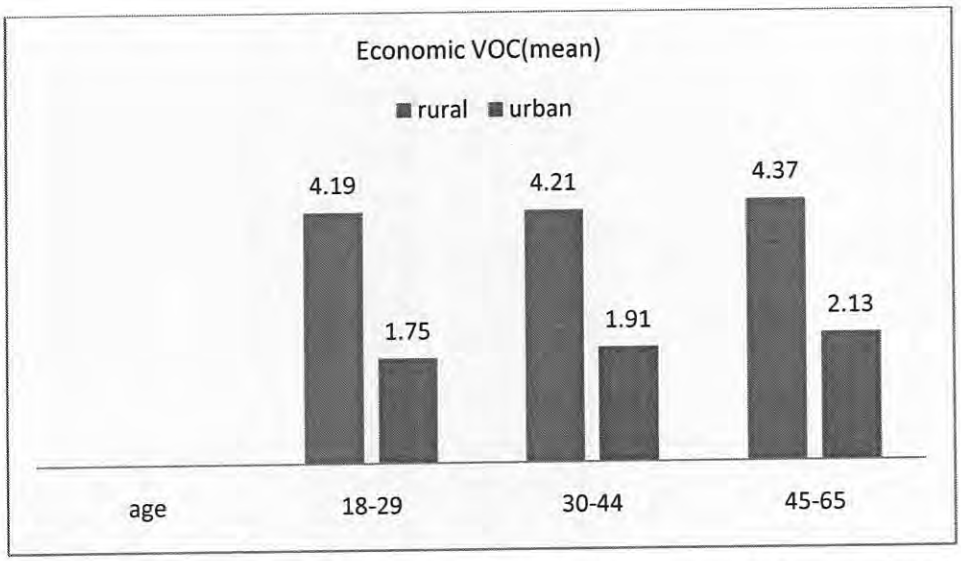

Figure 5.2 mean post hoc compressions for economic/ utilitarian VOC sub scaleSource: Field Survey Data, 2012

5.3.3 PSYCHOLOGICAL/EMOTIONAL VOC IN SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND GENERATIONAL GROUPS

Hypothesis 4 states that, urban/metropolitan Yeka respondents would be more likely to emphasize the psychological VOC more important than rural Mecha respondents would. In addition, younger women would value the psychological benefits that children provide more than their elders would. ANOVA revealed that age groups does not change on the VOC subscale assessing expectations of rural socioeconomic development group psychological support from their children, with F(2, 190) = 1.316, p = .272, ηp2 = .021. Post hoc analysis revealed that youngest rural (age group 18-29) participants obtained higher scores than respondents with age group 45-65 on their perceived psychological VOC (ps< .05). This finding supported Hypothesis 3 with a very week effect size. Yet, the middle age group (30-44) scores were higher than the younger age group (see Table 5.7). Regarding

urban respondents expectations of psychological support from (future) offspring, the three age groups also does not differ significantly, F(2, 193) = 0.267, p =0.766, ηp2 = .003. Post hoc analysis revealed that youngest urban (age groups 18-29) participants obtained higher scores than respondents with age group 30-45 on their perceived psychological VOC (ps< .05). This finding supported Hypothesis 4. The middle age group (30-44) scores were higher than their old age group (45-65). However, the effect size was very weak (see Table 5.7).

A 2 × 3 ANOVA revealed that socio-economic status groups differed on the psychological VOC subscale, with F(1, 383) = 24.23, p < .001, ηp^2 = .078 (see Table 5.6). Groups of generations did not show significant difference on the VOC sub-scale of psychological expectations. Table 5.6 shows F(2, 383)= 0.847, p= 0.459, ηp2 =0.005 unfortunate to hypothesis 4, psychological value of children did not affected by age. Also, the interaction between SES group and generation does not reach statistical significance, F(2, 383) = 0.617, p =.566, ηp^2 = .004. Whereas, younger respondents rated themselves as emphasizing the psychological VOC to a greater level than their elders (as classified by their age in three groups), supporting Hypothesis 4 (see Table 5.7 and Figure 5.3).

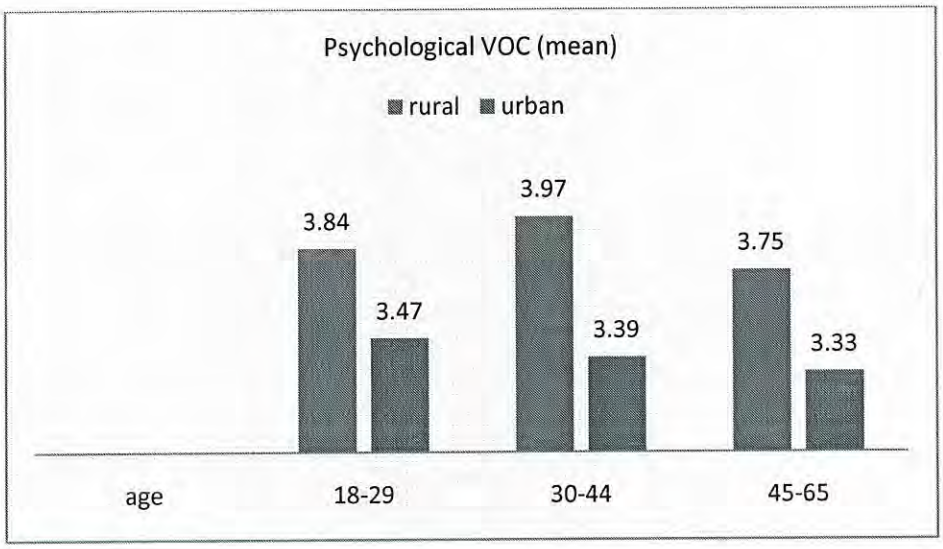

Figure 5.3 mean post hoc compressions for psychological/emotional VOC sub scale

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

5.3.4 MOTHER'S EXPECTATION FROM A GROWN UP SON AND DAUGHTER IN DIFFERENT SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS AND GENERATIONAL GROUPS

To examine the results further, total expectations from a son or a daughter were analyzed separately. As shown in Table 5.7, for Yeka women, age groups differed significantly on their beliefs regarding expectations of support from a grownup sons, $F(2, 193) = 3.11$, $p = .047$, $\eta p2 = .0.37$. Post hoc comparisons showed that respondents from urban/ metropolitan Yeka sub-city with ages 30 to 44, scored significantly higher on the expectation of total support from grownup sons in comparison to young respondents of age group 18-29 and older one's(age group 45-65) (ps< .05; see Table 5.7). When rural respondents from Mecha were asked to evaluate their own expectations of support from a grownup son, generation groups does not differed significantly, with $F(2, 190) = 2.675$, $p = .073$, $\eta p2 = .0.41$. For rural respondents, regardless to the hypothesis, age has no significant effect on expectations from a grown up son. However, post hoc analysis revealed that age group 45-60 from the rural Mecha setting obtained the highest score and middle age (30-44) participants obtained the next highest score. The youngest respondents from MechaWoreda has the list post hoc score (ps< .05; see table 5.7).

A 2 × 3 ANOVA revealed that generational groups differed significantly, $F(2, 383) = 6.485$, $p = 0.021$, $\eta p2 = .027$, as well as the socio-economic groups differed significantly, $F(1, 383) = 9.50$, $p = 0.002$, $\eta p^2 = .032$. An interaction between SES group and generation was not observed. Urban respondents anticipated receiving less support from a son, when he is grown up in comparison to rural expectations of support (as data analyzed from MechaWoreda). That is, respondents from the rural region obtained higher scores in comparison to urban respondents' expectations from a grown up son.

Regarding to total expectations from a grown up daughter; as shown in Table 6, for Yeka women, age groups differed significantly on their beliefs regarding expectations of support from a grownup daughter, $F(2, 193) = 3.407$, $p = .036$, $\eta p^2 = .0.41$. Post hoc comparisons showed that respondents from urban/Yeka sub-city with ages 45 to 65, scored significantly higher on the expectation of total support from grown up daughter(3.68) in comparison to middle generation grouprespondents of age group 30-45(3.50) and young respondents (age group 18-

29) has scored the list post hoc value (3.35) (ps< .05; see Table 5.7). When rural respondents from Mecha were asked to evaluate their own expectations of support from a grownup daughter, generation groups indicate no significance, with F(2, 190) = 0.342, p = .711, ηp2 = .005. For rural respondents, regardless to the hypothesis, age does not bring variance on expectations from a grown up daughter. in the face of that, post hoc analysis revealed that age group 45-65 from the rural Mecha setting obtained the highest score and middle age (30-44) participants obtained the next highest score. The youngest respondents from MechaWoreda has the list post hoc score (ps< .05; see table 5.7).

A 2 × 3 ANOVA revealed that generational groups does not bring a significant variation among age groups for expectations from a grown up daughter, F(2, 383) = 3.005, p = 0.74, ηp2 = .18, but the socio-economic groups(rural Mecha and urban Yeka) differed significantly, F(1, 383) = 38.80, p < 0.001, ηp^2 = 0.12. An interaction between SES group and generation was not observed. Urban respondents anticipated receiving less support from a grown up daughter in comparison to rural respondents expectations of support from a grown up daughter. That is, respondents from the rural region obtained higher scores in comparison to urban respondents' expectations from a grown up daughter (mean post hoc scores 4.10 and 3.50 respectively). When comparing the two socio-economic statuses by using mean of post hoc scores of all age groups; the sex preference for respondents' expectations from a grown up offspring, expectations from a grown up son is much higher for rural participants.

Finally, the respondents combined expectations from a grown up daughter and son by using one way ANOVA; as shown in Table 5.7, for Yeka women, age groups differed significantly on their beliefs regarding combined expectations of support from a grown up daughter and son, F(2, 193) = 3.902, p = .022, ηp2 = .0.47. Post hoc comparisons present the mean post hoc results from son and daughter expectations. It showed that respondents from urban/Yeka sub-city with ages 30 to 44 scored significantly higher on the expectation of total support from grown up daughter and son combined (3.57). (ps< .05; see Table 5.7). When rural respondents from Mecha were asked to evaluate their own expectations of support from a grown up daughter and son and analyzed together, generation groups indicate no significance, with F(2, 190) = 2.123, p = .124, ηp2 = .0.033. Here,

regardless to the hypothesis, age does not bring variance on expectations from a grown up son and daughter combined. Despite that, post hoc analysis revealed that age group 45-65 and middle age (30-44) participants from the rural Mecha setting obtained the highest and approximately similar scores. The youngest respondents (age groups 18-29) has the list post hoc score (ps< .05; see table 5.7).

A 2 × 3 ANOVA revealed that generational (age) groups differed significantly for expectations from a grown up daughter and son combined, $F(2, 383) = 4.385$, $p = 0.12$, $\eta p^2 = .31$, And the socio-economic groups(rural Mecha and urban Yeka) differed significantly, $F(1, 383) = 29.067$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta p^2 = 0.93$. An interaction between SES group and generation was not observed (table 5.6). Urban respondents anticipated receiving less support from a grown up daughter in comparison to rural respondents expectations of support from a grown up daughter and son combined. That is, respondents from the rural region obtained higher scores in comparison to urban respondents' expectations from a grown up son and daughter (see table5.7).

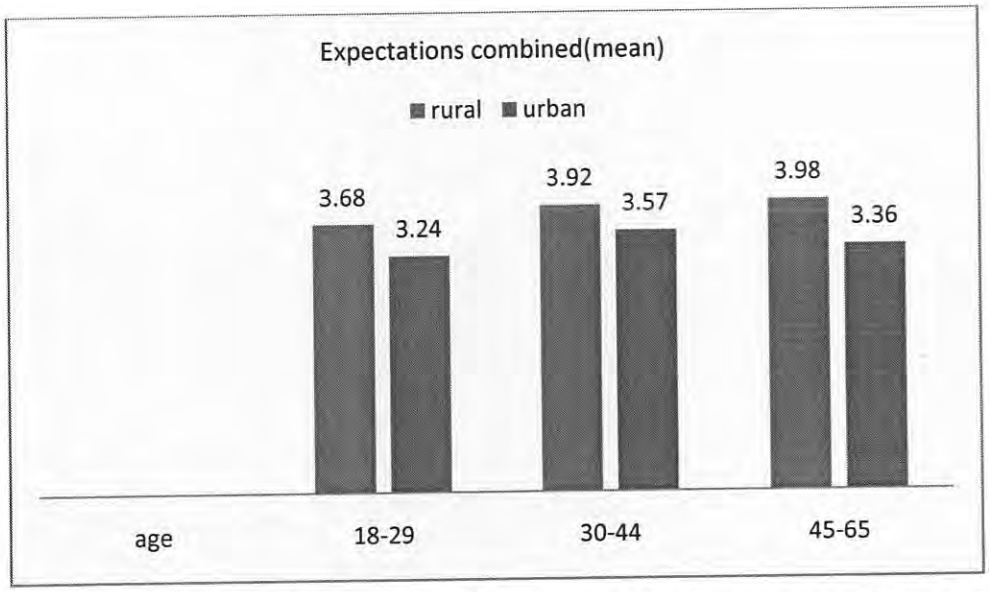

Figure 5.4 mean post hoc compressions for combined expectation from a grown up child sub scale

Source: Field Survey Data, 2012

5.4 DISCUSSIONS

As noted above, ANOVAs revealed that for subscales assessing Values of Children, socioeconomic development groups differed significantly on the social/traditional, economic/utilitarian, and psychological VOC dimensions. Effect size value for the economic/utilitarian VOC subscales were much stronger (0.82- large effect) than value for the social/traditional VOC sub scale (0.46- small effect), combined expectations from an offspring and psychological VOC subscales (moderate effects). Effect size values for respondents expectation from a son is also a small effect (see Table5.6).

Effect size values for generational comparisons ranged from trivial effects (for expectations from a daughter in rural setting and psychological VOC for urban settings) to small (social/traditional, psychological, and economic VOC subscales in rural settings) and moderate (economic/utilitarian VOC subscales and combined and expectations from son and daughter for urban settings) effects (see Table 5.7). Socioeconomic development group and generation interactions did not, in general, reach statistical significance, and many of the effect sizes for significant differences were trivial (less than .01; see Table 5.6).

In summary, the significance tests and effect size findings clearly support Hypotheses 1 regarding social/traditional VOC in socio-economic group differences (effect size values for SES group differences were stronger than the value for generational differences). Findings regarding age (generational) groups were more equivocal. Although SES group differences were stronger than generational differences with small and trivial effect size values, respectively, post hoc analyses revealed that rural generation groups did not differ in social/traditional values.

Hypothesis 2 states that Respondents from rural will stress on Economic/utilitarian VOC than urban respondents. And the hypothesis also stated respondents will place less emphasis on the economic/utilitarian value of children compared to their elders. The main effect socio-economic status significance test indicated that socio-economic status has significant effect on the economic/utilitarian value of children, the effect sizes for the separate ANOVAs support Hypothesis 2. Although generational differences (age groups) were not significant for SES group

differences and age groups from Mecha does not differ on economic expectations, with moderate effect size values for Yeka respondents, post hoc analyses revealed that younger respondents expectations of economic support is lower than their elders, a finding that does support Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2 was supported with a moderate effect size and one SES.

Contrary to the expectations, Findings were inconsistent with Hypothesis 3 regarding psychological VOC, the only hypothesized result was socio-economic differences are statistically significant on psychological VOC. whereas, generational differences (age groups) were not statistically significant and with a small effect size. Age groups were not significant on both SES, with no significances; post hoc comparisons show inconsistent response patterns in expectations of psychological values from an offspring.

The last hypothesis, Hypothesis 4: states urban respondents will demonstrate less expectations of support from their grown up children than rural respondents. And Younger respondents will expect less from their grown up son or daughter than their elders. The significance tests and effect size findings support the Hypotheses regarding expectations in socio-economic group differences (also effect size values for SES group differences were stronger than the value for age group differences) and age (generational) group differences. Separate analyses revealed that rural age groups did not differ in expectations from a grown up son and daughter (see Table5.6 and 5.7). Although the effect sizes are small, the urban age groups show different expectations from a grown up son and daughter. And the post hoc comparison of expectations from a daughter supports the hypothesis (see table5.7).

CHAPTER SIX

6. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 SUMMARY

The general objective of this study was by using intergenerational and SES/development level variations as indicators of VOC change, to explore statuses in the values attributed to children by mothers or potential mothers. In the absence of extended longitudinal studies, non-historical group comparisons that are informed age groups are used to provide an understanding of the nature of certain systematic patterns of change in values of children. In this study, intergenerational variation was approximated by assessing three age groups views. The variation among different socioeconomic development levels was studied by comparing rural and urban groups. Compatible to Kagitcibasi's Theory of Family Change (Kagitcibasi, 2010), both SES/development differences and generational differences were expected in most response patterns.

A main finding that social/traditional value of children shows logical variation with socioeconomic development and generation points to the decreasing importance of having children for social acceptance (e.g., to have a son, for making a family more important, and so forth) among the younger generation and with high SES, urbanization, modernity, and individualism. This is consistent with Kagitcibasi's Theory of Family Change and provides us with an understanding of some of the basic patterns of change in family dynamics. For example, endorsing the statement "Having a child to carry on the family name," a social conformity view, was higher among the rural Mecha respondents than among the urban ones.

Similarly, parallel to Lestheagch's findings, (Lestheagch, 1983) due to variations in secularization and individuation among socio-economic status groups the social/traditional VOC shows a significant variation. The more secular and individual urban group shows lower social/traditional expectations from an offspring than the rural group. This verdict provides us secularism and individuation of a society determines the social/traditional expectations from an offspring.

In line with the Theories (Kagitcibasi, 1990, 2007 and Fawcett, 1983), both generational and SES differences are seen in economic/utilitarian expectations from children. Urban respondents have these expectations less than rural respondents do. Again, as predicted by the Family Change Theory, in Yeka; with high SES, urbanization, modernity, and individualism older respondents attributed higher economic expectations than younger respondents did. Unexpectedly, the economic/utilitarian expectation of rural respondents does not differ in generational groups. This may be due to agriculture and household production was not changed for generations in rural Mecha.

As for the psychological VOC, there is again a socio-economic status effect, the rural, less developed and agricultural society stressing it a little more than the urban socioeconomic development group with a small effect size. With regard to generational group differences, age is not an effect for psychological/emotional VOC. Despite our hypothesis it is been observed that there is insignificant psychological/emotional interdependence among generations in both SES.

Women in both generational and SES groups have shown differences in total expectations from a grown up son. Urban respondents have these expectations less than rural respondents do. Again, separately in Yeka; with high SES, urbanization, modernity, and individualism with small effect size generation groups have difference in expectations from a grown up son. However, these differences are not visible in rural Mecha respondents. That is the general expectation of rural respondents from a grown up son does not differ with generational groups.

For women's expectation from a grown up daughter, there is again a socio-economic status effect. With regard to generational group differences, age is not an effect for women's expectation from a grown up daughter. When separately analyzed for the two SES groups, age has no effect for both rural and urban socioeconomic statuses. The analysis further revealed that women expect more from their grown up daughter than son for both socio-economic status groups. This finding is supported by women's sex preference if they only have one child. The results are compatible; daughters are preferred than sons.

The implications of this situation for parental dependence on the son or the daughter for old-age support and even for sex preference in children are important.

Cultural values regarding gender, beyond socioeconomic development, seem to be important here and complicate the picture. The importance of the "bread earner" role of the son appears to have been replaced by the "reliable support" role of the daughter in the urban family; in line with the finding of sociological research regarding family support in Europe and North America (Bengtson, 2001). In rural Ethiopia, a daughter helps her family in house work and child rearing. While a son will have a share of land from his parents which is economically burden.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the present study point to some significant family patterns that show systematic differences among socioeconomic development/culture groups and generations. These patterns are, for the socioeconomic part, consistent with Kagitcibasi's Family Change Theory (Kagitcibasi, 1990, 2007) and provide insights regarding variations over socioeconomic status. In particular, the decrease in the importance of social/traditional VOC from urban mothers to rural women and from elder (age 45-65) generation to middle (age 30-45) and youngest (age 18-29) respondents reflects different meanings attached to children with urbanization, westernization, and socioeconomic development. A similar decrease in economic expectation from offspring for emerging adults, compared to their elders, concurs with the above changes in values. This change in economic/utilitarian VOC is of a greater magnitude than in the other VOCs as apparent from its larger effect size.

In case of psychological/emotional VOC, despite the hypothesis (hypothesis 3) this value is higher for rural and agricultural societies of MechaWoreda than the urban and more developed Addis Ababa society. According to the theory of family change, the psychological/emotional interdependence model, is a synthesis of the first two (social and economic VOC) patterns and is posited to characterize especially the urban and more developed socioeconomic contexts within cultures of relatedness. Therefore, this change does not imply a shift toward the Western family pattern of separation and independence as predicted by a general modernization perspective. Instead, a different pattern of family relations emerges that combines interdependence in the emotional realm with independence in the material realm. This pattern differs from the traditional (rural/low SES) family pattern given the former's decreased intergenerational material interdependence as

well as decreased social/traditional VOC (Kagitcibasi, 1990, 2007). Recent theoretical arguments reject lists of psychological benefits as sufficient to explain why people continue to have children when they become economic liabilities. One alternative theory claims that the reduction of uncertainty is the primary goal of parenthood (Friedman et al. 1994). Those with limited access to other means for uncertainty reduction, such as stable careers and marriages, will want to become parents. The result of the current study is congruent with Friedman et al. 1994.

As in the family change theory of Kagitcibasi and studies on Perceptions of the Value of Children by Fawcett (1983), as for the expectation of women from a grown up offspring, socioeconomic group differences were observed. The rural respondents expect more from their grown up offspring than the urban respondents. In his study 'Perceptions of the Value of Children: Satisfactions and costs',Fawccett. J.T mentioned that lower economic status and absence of social security will let the society to expect more from their grown up offspring. In both socioeconomic statuses women prefer a girl if they only have one child. Grown up daughters are more important than sons for a family. This is because the data was collected from women; daughters are more important in house hold work and child rearing, in social participations, daughters are more close to their mothers' than sons. And emotionally women get support from their grown up daughter than son.

With regard to generation group differences comparing age groups 18-29, 30-44 and 45-65 was not enough to assess trends of family change in VOC sub scales for both SES. Since the three age groups are experiencing the same or very slowly changing cultures and the data collected for this study was cross sectional, the expected changes in value of children were not found. Even if the post hoc comparisons show results parallel to the family change theory (high post hoc for old ages and low for younger), the effect size are small in most cases and age can only significantly affect the economic VOC of women in urban socioeconomic group. This may be due to the process of modernization and individuation is fast enough to affect the economic VOC in urban Yeka society.

The other factor in which we cannot have significant VOC differences in generations is that the demographic transition stage that Ethiopia is possessing. Clearly, Ethiopia is very slowly moving in between the second and third transition

stages. The individuation, secularization and modernization processes are very slow that cannot affect the VOC sub scales in the above-mentioned age groups. The best way to overcome the inconveniency will be either to compare women's expectations from a child in generations from the past studies in this issue- which is not possible in this case or to design the research in cohort way and collecting the information longitudinally.

The results of this study provide some insight into family dynamics within socioeconomic/cultural context. The values attributed to children by parents and expectations from them, as important aspects of intergenerational relationships, are key to understanding interface of individual, family and society. The present study examined several of these key factors. However, the study has some inherent weaknesses. First, it does not involve a longitudinal design but uses data obtained from women in three age groups (18-29, 30-44, and 45-65). Thus what we have here is the comparison of VOCs of the two SES(the urban socioeconomic status was obtained from Yeka sub city, Addis Ababa and the rural socioeconomic status was obtained from MechaWoreda of Amhara region) from three generation contexts, young (18-29), middle (30-44), and older (45-65). Yet, given that the study is comparable to some extent with the original VOC studies of the 1970s and many other (Hoffman and Hoffman 1973, Fawcett 1983) and, more importantly, Kagitcibasi's Family Change Theory, it provides us with some systematic and possibly causal explanations for the findings and provides us with hypotheses for future research endeavors.

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APPENDIX I; the Value of Children Questionnaire

My name is TewodrosNibret, I am a student of population studies in Addis Ababa university and I am working a thesis required for my graduation. First of all, thank you very much for offering to participate in our study. The purpose of the study is to explore why some people want to have children and others do not and how people think about certain topics like child rearing, family, and their relationship with other people. I also would like to find out if people in different socio-economic status have different opinions and what kinds of differences there are. Therefore, these questions are being asked in a number of other peoples as well.

The interview will take 15 to 25 minutes. Participating in this interview is only by your consent: you have the right not to participate at all or refrain from the interview at any time. Listen to each question carefully. If you have any problems understanding a question, please feel free to ask me to repeat the question or explain what I mean by it. If you also have a question that you don't want to answer inform me and I will pass to the next question.

Can we proceed now?	1. yes 2. no---------→	End of interview.

So let's start the interview.

Thank you!

Interviewer signature _____ date _____ time_____

REGION	ZONE	WOREDA	KEBELE	RESPONDENT'S NAME

Part 1.**Demographic questions**

1.	When do you born? (what year and month?)	month:_____ year _____	
2.	Age in complete years	_____ years	*Cheek Q1 and Q2 for compatibility.*
3.	Religion	0. no religion 1. orthodox 2. protestant 3. catholic 4. other 5. other (describe)_____	
4.	Have you ever attended formal education?	**1.** Yes **2.** No -------→	*Go to Q6*
5.	What is the highest level of education that you attained?	1. primary education (1-8th grade) 2. secondary education(9-12th grade) 3. technique and vocational certificate 4. Higher (college diploma and above)	
6.	Do you have a job in the last 12 months?	1. Yes 2. No ----------→	*Go to Q8*
7.	What kind of job are you doing now?	1. public sector 2. craft 3. trade 4. agriculture 5. industry 6. privet 7. other/describe _____	
8.	Comparing yourself with households in your neighborhood, how do you judge your wealth status?	1. low 2. lower-middle 3. middle 4. higher-middle 5. high	
9.	Current marital status	1. Currently married 2. Currently not married ----→	*Go to Q13*
10.	When did you and your husband get married?	Year _____.	
11.	Does your husband have a payable job in the last 12 months?	1. Yes 2. No ----------→	*Go to Q13*
12.	What kind of job is your husband doing now?	1. public sector 2. craft 3. trade 4. agriculture 5. industry	

		6. privet 7. other/describe _____	
13.	How many children have you ever had? Please include all children, that means also children who have died, who don't live here any longer, children who are not your natural children, like adopted children, stepchildren, or foster children.		1. _____ children 2. daughter_____ 3. son_____ 4. I have no child
14.	As far as you know, are you physically able to have a child?	1. yes 2. no----------→ 3. don't know	*Go to Q18*
15.	Would you like to have any (or more) children?	1. yes 2. no ----------→	*Go to Q17*
16.	Would you prefer your next child to be a boy or a girl or is it all the same to you?	1. boy 2. girl 3. all the same	
17.	If you had exactly one child, would you prefer it to be a boy or a girl or is it all the same to you?	1. boy 2. girl 3. all the same	
18.	When did you move out of your parents' home? (What year?)	19 _____ 20 _____ 00 Respondent is still living in her parents' home	
19.	All things considered, how much is the total monthly household income of everyone living in your home? Please tell me the monthly net income. Please also include additional income, such as from real estate, financial support from relatives, as well as welfare, housing benefits, etc.		_____ birr

20. Are the following things available in your household?

	1.Yes	2. No		1.Yes	2. No
Electric power			Bicycle		
Watch			Motor bicycle		
Radio			Animal cart		
Television			Vehicle		
Cell phone			Boat		
Phone(land line)					
Refrigerator					
Electric or gas cooker					

21.	Do you live in this home as the owner?	1. Yes 2. No	
22.	Do you own a farmland?	1. Yes 2. No----------→	*Go to Q 24*
23.	How much is your farmland?	_____ timads	_____ hectare

24.	Do you own...							
		1. Yes	2. No	How much		1. Yes	2. No	How much
	Ox				Horse			
	Cow				Donkey			
	Sheep				Hen			
	Goat							

Part 2 Values of Children

Now I will ask you some questions on your personal opinion about children and relationships that children would have with parents. Could we please start with the following questions?

25. We often talk about small and large families, but people have different ideas about what that means. How small is a "small family" in your opinion? In other words, how many children are in a "small family"? _____ children
26. How large is a "large family" in your opinion? In other words, how many children are in a "large family"? _____ children
27. And what is the "ideal family size" in your opinion? In other words, how many children are in an "ideal family"? _____ children

28. Now I'll be asking you some questions about how you think about relationships with parents. Using this scale, please tell me how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree

28.1 One should maintain good relationships with one's relatives.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
28.2 Parents shouldn't get involved in the private lives of their married children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
28.3 Children have obligation to care for their parents when their parents are old.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
28.4 A family's problems should be solved within the family.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
28.5 We should honor and protect our family's reputation.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
28.6Children should obey their parents.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

29. Now I'll be asking you some questions about how you think about yourself. Using this same scale, please tell me how strongly you agree or disagree with the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree

29.1It is important to me to respect decisions made by my family.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
29.2I prefer to be direct and forthright when dealing with family members.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

29.3I enjoy being unique and different from family members in many respects.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
29.4My personal identity, independent of my family, is very important to me.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
29.5Being able to take care of myself is a primary concern for me.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
29.6 My happiness depends on the happiness of my family.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
29.7I would sacrifice my self-interest for the benefit of my family.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

30. Using this scale as a guide, please tell me how satisfied you are . . .

1	2	3	4	5
Not satisfied at all	Not very satisfied	Moderately satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied

30.1 ... with your friendships.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
30.2 ... with your health.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
30.3 ... with your work.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
30.4 ... with your family.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
30.5 ... with your husband.(optional)	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
30.6All things considered, how satisfied are you with life as a whole?	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

31. I have a list here of reasons people may give for wanting to have children in general. Please use this scale as a guide. Think about your expectations from your own (child/children) and tell me how important the following reasons for wanting to have children are to you personally.

1	2	3	4	5
Not important at all	Not very important	Moderately important	Important	Very important

31.1 Because a child helps around the house.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.2 Because any new family member makes your family more important.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.4 Because having children brings more love to you and your husband.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.8 Because it is fun to have young children around the house.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.10 Because of the special feeling of love that develops between a parent and a child.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.12 Because people with children are less likely to be lonely in old age.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.14 Because some of your older relatives feel that you should have more children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.15 Because you can make new friends through your children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.16 Because you want to share what you have with children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.18 To be sure that enough children will survive to adulthood.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.19 To have a girl/another girl.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.20 To carry on the family name.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.21 To have one more person to help your family economically.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.22 To have someone to love and care for.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.23 To provide a companion for your child/children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.24 To have a boy/another boy.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

31.25 When it is a duty to have children according to your belief.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.31 When your husband wants more children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
31.27 Your children can help you when you're old.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

32. Here I have a list here of reasons people may give for not wanting to have children in general. Please use this scale as a guide. Think about your expectations from your own (child/children) and tell me how important the following reasons for wanting not to have children are to you personally.

1	2	3	4	5
Not important at all	Not very important	Moderately important	Important	Very important

32.1 Because a child is a lot of work and bother.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.2 Because children are hard to discipline and control.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.3 Because children create problems with neighbors and in public.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.4 Because having a child causes problems and strains in your marriage.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.5 Because having children is a financial burden for the whole family.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.6 Because it is harder to hold a job.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.7 Because large families are not well accepted in society.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.8 Because of fear of pregnancy and childbirth.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.9 Because of the worries that children cause when they are ill.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.10 Because you are too concerned about the kind of future your children will have.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.11 Because you cannot give enough care and attention to your children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.12 Because you cannot spend as much time with your husband when you have children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.13 Because you lose contact with your friends.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.14 When you already have all the children you want.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.15 When your health does not permit it.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.16 When your housing situation is not suitable.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
32.27 When your husband does not want any children.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

33. If you were to raise only one child, to what extent would it be a financial burden to you?

Number of children	*No financial burden*	*Moderate financial burden*	*Heavy financial burden*
One child			
Two children			
Three children			
Four children			
Five or more			

34. The following questions concern investments in your (child/children) and how important such investments are for you

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Quite a lot

34.1. How much do you lower your standard of living to your (child's/children's) education payments?	1–2–3–4–5
34.2. How much do you lower your standard of living to your (child's/children's) other expanses?	1–2–3–4–5
34.3. To what extent do you lower your own standard of living to increase your (child's/children's) inheritance?	1–2–3–4–5

35. Who costs the most financially: sons, daughters, or do they cost about the same?

1 sons
2 daughters
3 same

36. Using this scale, please tell me the extent to which you expect the following kinds of help from a grown-up son.

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Quite a lot

36.1 That he continues living close to you.	1–2–3–4–5
36.2 that he provides financial assistance to his younger brothers and sisters.	1–2–3–4–5
36.3 that he helps you with housework.	1–2–3–4–5
36.4 that he provides financial assistance to you.	1–2–3–4–5
36.5 that he helps you care for his younger siblings.	1–2–3–4–5
36.6 that he cares for you when you are old.	1–2–3–4–5
36.7 that he provides emotional support to you.	1–2–3–4–5

37. To what extent do you expect the following kinds of help from a grown-up daughter?

37.1 that she continues living close to you.	1–2–3–4–5
37.2 that she provides financial assistance to her younger brothers and sisters.	1–2–3–4–5
37.3 that she helps you with housework.	1–2–3–4–5
37.4 that she provides financial assistance to you.	1–2–3–4–5
37.5 that she helps you care for her younger siblings.	1–2–3–4–5
37.6 that she cares for you when you are old.	1–2–3–4–5
37.7 that she provides emotional support to you.	1–2–3–4–5

38. Why would you help your grown up child when he/she is going to have a baby and need help? By using this scale, please tell me how much you agree on the following potential reasons for help.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree

38.1 ... because I would want my child to feel good.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.2 ... because it's my duty as a mother.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.3 ... because I would be giving my child the same thing that I received from my parents.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.4 ... because (he/she) would pay me back later.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.5 ... because other people would be surprised if I didn't help my child.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.6 ... because my child has given me so much love that I would want to compensate.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.7 ... because my help would improve my child's situation.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.8 ... because my child would expect me to.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.9 ... because I would feel guilty otherwise.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
38.10 ... to maintain a good relationship with my child.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

The following question is about your relations with your parents.

39. Why would you help your parents when they are old and need help? By using this scale, please tell me how much you agree on the following potential reasons for help.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Slightly agree	Strongly agree

39.1 ...because I would want my parent to feel good.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.2 ...because it is my duty as a daughter.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.3 ...because I would be giving my parent the same thing that I will receive from my own children later.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.4 ...because other people would be surprised if I didn't help my parent.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.5 ...because my parent has done so much for me that I would want to compensate.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.6 ...because my help would improve my parent's situation.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.7 ...because my parent would expect me to.	1 – 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.8 ...because my share of my parent's inheritance will compensate for it.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.9 ...because I would feel guilty otherwise.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5
39.10 ...to maintain a good relationship with my parent.	1– 2 – 3 – 4 – 5

Thank you!

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned declare that this thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Declared by:

Name: Tewodros Nibret

Signature: _____

Date: 14/06/2012