

# RESILIENCE AND FAMILISM

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CONTEMPORARY PERSPECTIVES IN FAMILY  
RESEARCH VOLUME 23

**RESILIENCE AND FAMILISM:  
THE DYNAMIC NATURE OF  
FAMILIES IN THE PHILIPPINES**

EDITED BY

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**A. M. Leal Rodriguez** is a PhD candidate currently affiliated with the University of Auckland as a Faculty of Arts doctoral scholar. A product of the Department of Sociology and the School of Critical Studies in Education, her PhD project focuses on masculinities in the global south, gender, and higher education, or universities (University of Auckland Doctoral Research Fund). Working as a feminist activist with almost 10 years of experience in the development and education sector led her to decolonial and post-structuralist theory. She has presented her work to numerous organizations across the globe (the New Zealand Association for Research in Education Conference, the Sociological Association of Aotearoa New Zealand, the Contacts and Continuities: 500 Years of Iberian-Asian Relations Conference, the American Education Research Association, and the Women's and Gender Studies Association of the Philippines). The textbook she co-authored, *Gender and Society: The Whys of Women, Their Oppressions,*

*and Paths to Liberation*, is being used by higher education institutions for their curriculum on gender studies. She has also worked on projects focusing on ethnicity and youth achievement in education (Performance-Based Research Fund, Tertiary Education Union New Zealand) and exploring political gift-giving in the context of (Marsden Fund, Royal Society of New Zealand). She now resides in Aotearoa New Zealand where she burns rubber through cycling and touches rocks through climbing, to chase inspiration.

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**Jofel D. Umandap** was a marketing professional, with a Management undergraduate degree from Ateneo de Manila University and a post-graduate degree in Commerce from Macquarie University, before deciding to pursue a career as a psychologist. She completed her MA in Psychology from the Ateneo de Manila University and is currently pursuing her PhD in Clinical Psychology, also at the same university. Her areas of interest are marriage and family therapy, personal growth, mindfulness, and self-compassion. She is also involved in developing programs and modules, as well as in facilitating workshops for psychoeducation and brief intervention programs. She is currently a licensed psychologist practicing therapy and training at the Ateneo Bulatao Center for Psychological Services, the research and training arm of the Psychology Department, at UGAT Foundation, an organization with psycho-spiritual interventions for Filipino grassroots families, and at the Life Science Center for Health and Wellness. She is also a part-time Lecturer at the Department of Psychology at Ateneo de Manila University, teaching Abnormal Psychology, Developmental Psychology, and a core formation course, Understanding the Self.

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# FOREWORD

The evolving nature of families across the world is continuously subjected to social changes, cultural shifts, and global flows. In our contemporary world, the dynamics and confluence of factors shaping and influencing “families” remain an intriguing facet of both scholarship and policies. This sociological fascination roots in the central interest of/in knowledge and/or the lack of it in understanding the nature, contours, and textures of families, especially in societies that are historically colonized and persistently marred by problematic socio-political and economical tensions such as the Philippines.

The Philippines is a unique country, and its distinct history and culture provide an intriguing context for families. Comprising over 7,000 islands, the Philippines has been visited by numerous groups in its prehistoric times, while over the past five centuries, Spanish colonization influenced the course of Filipino culture, particularly regarding religion. Even after the formal establishment of the Republic of the Philippines in 1946, American cultural influence persisted. Its long history, coupled with its peculiar population distribution across thousands of islands, has resulted in a culture which is decidedly familistic. Filipino families maintain perhaps the strongest family bonds of any culture and have shown a unique ability to persevere, even when faced with the direst of circumstances.

This multidisciplinary volume of CPFR brings into focus a comprehensive collection of the dynamic nature of families in the Philippines. Generally, we ask: Why do Filipino families maintain perhaps the strongest family bonds of any culture? How has this shown a unique ability to persevere, even when faced with the direst of circumstances?

## MAIN THEMES OF THE VOLUME

Our journey in soliciting academic responses to these questions led us to this collection covering a broad range of topics including Filipino family’s social demography and various dimensions of “familism” in contemporary Filipino families such as parenthood, care provisions, families across sectors (overseas Filipino workers or OFWs, farmers, and fisherfolks), and emerging familial representations. By looking at census and survey data, Jeffrey B. Abalos details his findings in the lead chapter, “A Demographic Portrait of the Filipino Family: A Glimpse from the Recent Past.” In this work, he examined the following: marriage, cohabitation, and other types of relationships, rise of non-marriage, fertility and fertility preferences, childlessness, attitudes toward the family and other relationships, and the living arrangements and exchange of support among the elderly. One of Abalos’ fitting conclusions for this volume is that

while the Filipino family may have changed in size and structure and how it is formed and dissolved, it has remained constant in how it values its members, particularly the young and the old.

Drawing from multidisciplinary views, the empirical descriptions in this collection also draw attention to the underlying “resilience” of/in Filipino families relative to the multifaceted issues explored in this volume. We will discuss the four themes in the succeeding subsections.

### *Narratives of Parenthood*

Parenthood is one of the longest stages of one’s life. Chapters 2–5 will explore the different experiences of parenthood in the Philippines. Samuel I. Cabbuag, in “The Road to Visibility: IVF and Motherhood Journey of Filipino Influencers,” discusses the taboo topic of childbearing via in vitro fertilization (IVF). Through web scraping, he coded 438 comments from YouTube videos of Filipino influencers who opted to bear children via IVF. He argues that through the visibility labor of influencers, the phenomenon of childbearing via IVF is not only promoted as a viable, if not acceptable procreative process, but also perpetuated as an in/accessible procedure in the Philippines.

From YouTube influencers, the volume will then move to a different group in Chapter 3: incarcerated women. Romulo Nieva Jr’s work, “Pregnancy, Motherhood, and Family: Stories Behind Bars,” is based on his PhD project wherein he conducted face-to-face semi-structured interviews with women who had experienced pregnancy in prison. Nieva suggests that experiences of mothering and childbearing for incarcerated women are negative and complex. He finds that “women’s institutionally imposed ‘prisoner identity’ overshadows their pregnancy status and mothering role, exacerbated by their experiences of systemic scarcity, restricted contact with family, and limited autonomy.”

Partnership (or its absence) in connection to parenthood is also an important factor in family formation. In Chapter 4, “Acceptance Is Key: Toward a Framework for Understanding Serial Cohabitation,” Veronica L. Gregorio explores how serial cohabiters with children, in response to social stigma, exhibit resiliency toward stepfamily formation and committed sexual relationships. She conceptualizes “family acceptance” which refers to embracing the fluidity, reconfigurations, and “imperfections” of cohabiters’ newly formed family and “community acceptance” which covers the same affirmation from friends, neighbors, and extended relatives who are considered as relevant others by serial cohabiters.

The above chapters which focus on women’s experiences will be complemented by Chapter 5, “Selected Cases of Teenage Fatherhood in the Philippines: An Analysis of Risks and Resilience,” by Joselito G. Gutierrez, Tisha Isabelle M. De Vergara, and Clarence M. Batan. The authors interrogate the consequences of sexual behaviors on the well-being of teenage fathers in the contexts of their families of orientation and families of procreation. The authors argue that the risks of teenage fatherhood in the Philippines are relatively mitigated by conservative culture and religious orientation that leads to the experiences of “natauhan” (realization), “pinangatawanan” (accountability), and “pinanindigan” (owning responsibility).

*Care Provisions in/From the Family*

As lifespans continue to increase, the chances of facing shocks during middle and old ages also increase. Families face sudden shocks like losing jobs, natural calamities, and health issues, among others. In such times, how do Filipino family members take charge and continue with their lives? The second theme of the volume, Care provisions in/from the family, will explore this question.

In Chapter 6, “ICT-mediated Familial Care in Turbulent Times: Filipinos’ Subjectivities, Virtual Intimacy, and Resilience amid Social Change,” Derrace Garfield McCallum draws on data collected as part of a multi-sited transnational ethnography. The work revolves around the lives of Filipino migrants who live in Japan and their family members who live in the Philippines. McCallum explains how transnational families preserve and nurture their collective commitments using Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs). He argues that families maximize ICTs not just to (re)enact and (re)create mundane existences but also to recognize, celebrate, and display significant family milestones.

Is it possible to turn “caringness” and “responsibleness” into a personality? Rizason L. Go Tian-Ng and Jofel D. Umandap’s chapter, “An Exposition of the Multidimensionality of the Tagasalo Personality,” uses Philippine indigenous psychology literature to provide an in-depth theoretical-historical development of the Tagasalo personality. The Tagasalo is the family member who “catches” or “saves” the family from the different shocks as mentioned earlier. Using case study reviews and thematic analysis of reflective essays, Go Tian-Ng and Umandap propose new dimensions of internalizing and externalizing behaviors that serve to alleviate the distress experienced by the Tagasalo.

The next chapter, “Maintaining Personhood and Identity in Dementia: Families as Partners in Care,” focuses on informal caregivers of persons with dementia. Tricia Olea Santos, Hanna K. Ulatowska, and Carla Krishan A. Cuadro’s work probes into the characteristics and structure of the Filipino family, and the challenges in caring for a loved one with dementia. Aside from turning down career opportunities to stay at home full time, these family caregivers (mostly women) are also designing the day-by-day schedule of their elderly parents using family photo albums, TV shows, prayer meetings, gardening, and even music-related activities. The authors also analyze cultural and relational factors that influence dementia care and the preservation of identity in dementia.

Sexual identities in relation to health status are often analyzed in terms of individual well-being, coping mechanisms, and access to services. The work “Sexual Identity Visibility and Compounding Stigma in the Familial Context: Life Histories Among Filipino MSMs Living with HIV” by Jerome V. Cleofas and Dennis Erasga provides a different perspective by focusing on the family of men living with HIV. The authors partnered with The Project Red Ribbon, a community-based HIV organization, to recruit and conduct key interviews with 31 participants. Based on the results, Cleofas and Erasga conceptualized sexual identity visibility in the family (SIVF) as the nature of the family’s consciousness and acceptance of the informants’ sexual identity/ies and further posit that SIVF shapes an individual’s sexual health across the lifespan.

The last work under the theme on care provisions is “Family Relationship, Mental Well-being, and Life Satisfaction During the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Mediation Study Among Filipino Graduate Students.” With school and work moving online for long periods of time, the quality of life within households abruptly and steadily changed. Drawing from an online survey among 337 graduate students enrolled during the second year of the pandemic, Ryan Michael F. Oducado and Jerome V. Cleofas examined the three family relationship domains (cohesion, expressiveness, and conflict), their predictive relationships with life satisfaction, and the mediating role of mental well-being on these relationships.

#### *Families of OFWs, Farmers, and Fisherfolks*

The next theme is sectoral, with a focus on families of overseas Filipino workers or OFWs, farmers, and fisherfolks. In the exploratory work, “Response and Coping Mechanism of Overseas Filipino Workers (OFW) Children to Parents’ Separation,” Sunshine Therese S. Alcantara focused on the social and emotional costs of migration to Filipino families. She analyzed the experiences of OFW children with separated parents due to marital infidelity and found how they process their emotions to eventually accept their parents’ decisions. Alcantara also emphasized the role of peers in OFW children’s coping process. For future research on the same sample group, she recommends comparing mechanisms between male and female children.

As international migration continues, will farmers continue to work in the fields? In Chapter 12, the contribution of goods to the economy and the reproduction of the next generation of farmers was problematized by Carlo S. Gutierrez. His comparative work, “The Family as a Farm Institution: Cases in Japan and the Philippines,” factors in the demographic changes, role of civil society organizations, and pluriactivity of households in the survival of smallholdings. More importantly, Gutierrez emphasized that in the Philippines, “the absence of an effort by the state for a farm industrialization project led to primarily family-based farming.”

Fishing livelihood is as important as farming, especially in an island nation like the Philippines. The collective decision of rural families to maintain or sell their farms has similarities with the collective decision of fishing families to stay in the sector or to explore other options. Chapter 13, “Parental Livelihood Preference for Children Among Municipal Fishing Families in South Negros, Philippines” by Enrique G. Oracion, will focus on this issue. Using a survey covering 23 coastal barangays, he found that

while fishing is perceived now as risky and hard because of the accumulated impacts of climate change and the persisting problem of illegal, unreported, and unregulated (IUU) fishing, it is always a ready option for the livelihood of their children if they would fail to get quality education and secure better employment opportunities.

#### *Representations of the Filipino Family*

The last theme in the volume will underscore representations of the Filipino family in three aspects: family-orientedness, masculinity vis-à-vis fatherhood, and filial piety toward the elderly.

The chapter of Janus Isaac V. Nolasco, “Self, Family, and Democracy: Individualism and Collectivism in Two Contemporary Filipino Family Films,” provides a refreshing take on democracy and its political resonance in Filipino families. By analyzing hierarchical siblingship dynamics and family relations in the films *Kung Ayaw Mo, Huwag Mo* (1998) and *Four Sisters and a Wedding* (2013), Nolasco argues that such “films seek to articulate, manage, and resolve the tensions between self and family, autonomy and dependence, individualism and collectivism.”

By engaging with Sikolohiyang Pilipino or Indigenous Filipino Psychology, A. M. Leal Rodriguez traced the construction of masculinity vis-à-vis fatherhood in the Philippines. The chapter, “*Tunay Na Lalaki*/True Manhood in the Philippines: Historical Development, Identity Formations, and Family Contexts,” based on a critical review of literature, factored in colonial history and informal systems that form such manhood. Rodriguez proposes to explore Filipino manhood using the banig (woven mat) as representation. Through this banig, “one can dissect how different facets of manhood are woven together to further the country’s machismo, one that pervades different powerful institutions.”

Finally, the last and closing chapter of the volume discusses filial piety toward the elderly. The chapter is symbolic on its own as it was co-authored by pioneering Filipino family sociologist Belen T. Medina with her daughter, sociologist and Asian Studies expert Maria Cecilia T. Medina. Chapter 16, “The Elderly in the Filipino Family,” reviews the importance of intergenerational solidarity (adult child and elderly parent) for the well-being of the elderly. The authors also explain in the chapter why and how institutionalization of the elderly appears to be a last resort, to complement rather than replace the welfare function of the family.

## **THE FUTURE OF THE SOCIOLOGY OF FAMILY IN THE PHILIPPINES**

The first and sole book on *Filipino Family* (1991, with 3rd ed. in 2015) was written by Belen T. Medina. Prior to its launch, many scholars from various fields have also published articles and book chapters that touch on the issues and challenges that Filipino families have faced. This volume is however the first attempt to put together more recent works that highlight the complex changes and relationships among Filipino families, as mediated by technology, and influenced by cultural shifts, economic conditions, and even by the COVID-19 pandemic.

The collection is multidisciplinary but with most authors (15 out of 23) and all three editors coming from the field of sociology. The authors and editors also came from different academic stages – from graduate students, and recent PhD graduates, to postdoctoral fellows, and professors who are already established in their areas. Hence, the topics of interest are not just diverse but also fresh or even controversial. The empirical works, theoretical contributions, and critical reviews in this volume will be most useful if read as a whole collection. With that, we would like to thank all the contributors and anonymous reviewers for their commitment to this collection.

What do we have to say after the completion of this volume? First, parenting among Filipinos will continue to evolve and be increasingly resilient. Second, more work is needed about sexual minorities in family contexts. Third, generational perspectives in different sectors will persistently be tied to economic conditions. And lastly, while hierarchies and gender inequalities are recognized and questioned, familism among Filipinos is here to stay.

As reflected in this work, the future of the sociology of family in the Philippines is in good hands. There is a lot of work to do in enriching the field. We hope to invite more scholars to write, collaborate, and produce related works – looking forward to the next volume!

# CHAPTER 1

## A DEMOGRAPHIC PORTRAIT OF THE FILIPINO FAMILY: A GLIMPSE FROM THE RECENT PAST

Jeofrey B. Abalos

### ABSTRACT

*The Philippines experienced several demographic and socioeconomic changes in the past decades, such as rising urbanization, educational expansion, lengthening life expectancy, and increasing overseas labor migration. These changes will have significant ramifications for families and households. For example, educational expansion may delay union formation and accelerate union dissolution. Meanwhile, the joint effect of declining fertility and increasing life expectancy can lead to population aging, which has important implications for intergenerational support and the provision of care to older adults. Against this backdrop, this chapter aims to sketch a demographic portrait of the Filipino family in the past decades, using different sources, including census and survey data. Specifically, it examines trends in union formation (marriage and cohabitation) and union dissolution (divorce and separation) in the Philippines and explores Filipinos' attitudes toward these behaviors. It also describes trends in fertility, fertility preference, and childlessness among Filipino women. Finally, it investigates changes (or lack thereof) in household size and structure in the Philippines, including the living arrangements and intergenerational support among older Filipinos.*

**Keywords:** Philippines; demography; family; marriage; fertility; aging

## INTRODUCTION

The family is the most important, most valued, and most enduring institution in Philippine society (Asis, 1994). It offers

social security, old age pensions ..., care for the sick, home for the aged, counsel for the troubled, and most of all, love, affection, emotional sustenance, and social stability without which a Filipino's life is meaningless. (Castillo, 1979, p. 103)

Data from the 2019 World Values Survey showed that almost all adult Filipinos regard their family as very important (98.2%) and agree that one of their main goals is to make their parents proud (97.2%) (Haerpfer et al., 2022). However, while the Filipino family may seem to have endured the test of time, it is not impervious to the waves of change (Asis, 1994). Over the last several decades, the Philippines has been confronted by several demographic and socioeconomic changes, such as rising urbanization, educational expansion, lengthening life expectancy, and increasing overseas labor migration. For example, the percentage of the urban population in the country increased from 51.2% in 2015 to 54.0% in 2020 (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2022b), while life expectancy at birth among Filipino men increased from 57.5 years in 1960 to 66.9 years in 2010, and from 59.0 years to 73.0 years among Filipino women (Cabigon, 2001; Philippine Statistics Authority, 2014). The increase in life expectancy, and to some extent, fertility decline, has contributed to the steady increase of older people in the Philippines from 4.5% in 1970 to 7.5% in 2015 (Abalos, 2020; Abalos & Booth, 2020). Another enduring feature of the Philippine demographic landscape is the intensification of international labor migration. Data from the Commission on Filipino Overseas showed that the stock estimate of overseas Filipinos increased from 6.97 million in 1997 to 10.24 million in 2013 or about 10% of the Philippine population. Consequently, the proportion of households in the Philippines with at least one overseas worker nearly tripled from 3.2% in 1990 to 8.0% in 2015. These changes will have significant ramifications for families and households. For example, educational expansion may delay union formation (Abalos, 2014) and accelerate union dissolution (Abalos, 2017). Meanwhile, overseas migration will lead to the physical separation of families, alter the household composition, and impact the availability of support, particularly for older adults.

Against this backdrop, this chapter aims to sketch a demographic portrait of the Filipino family in the past decades, using various sources, including census and survey data. Specifically, the study examines changes in union formation (marriage and cohabitation) and union dissolution (divorce and separation) in the Philippines and explores Filipinos' attitudes toward these behaviors. It also describes trends in fertility, fertility preference, and childlessness among Filipino women. Finally, it investigates changes (or lack thereof) in household size and structure in the Philippines, including the living arrangements and intergenerational support among older Filipinos.

## MARRIAGE, COHABITATION, AND OTHER TYPES OF RELATIONSHIPS IN THE PHILIPPINES

Marriage is a highly revered institution in Philippine society (Gultiano et al., 2009). It is not only a union of two individuals but also a union of their respective

families (Medina, 2015). Thus, parents try to influence their children's mate selection process to ensure the stability of the marriage and upward social mobility of the family, particularly among the more well-off segment of society (Kabamalan, 2006; Xenos & Kabamalan, 2007). Over time, parental influence on their children's choice of spouse persists, particularly among Filipino youth. Based on the 2002 Young Adult and Fertility Study (YAFS), a nationally representative survey of Filipino youth, 2.9% of currently married Filipino youth aged 15–24 years cited arranged marriage as their reason for getting married; this proportion increased to 9.1% in 2013. Parental involvement in selecting their children's spouse can also be gauged in the prevalence of elopement, which is associated with “escaping” or leaving the parental abode without permission (Xenos & Kabamalan, 2007). The YAFS data indicated that the proportion of those currently in union who eloped with their current spouse or partner declined from 20.1% in 2002 to 14.3% in 2013. Based on the 2013 YAFS, their reasons for elopement include “love each other” (43.5%), parents/guardians opposed to marriage/relationship/partner or “parents/guardians are strict” (38.3%), and “got pregnant/got girl pregnant” (10.5%).

The age of marriage among Filipinos is relatively high and has continued to increase over time (Abalos, 2014; Ogena et al., 2008). It increased from 22.8 years in 1970 to 24.6 years in 2015 among women and from 25.4 years to 27.2 years among men (United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2019). Increasing educational attainment may be related to the rising marriage age among Filipinos (Abalos, 2014).

Not only is the timing of marriage formation in the country changing, but also its form. Marriage in the Philippines usually takes the form of legal marriage (through a church or civil wedding) or cohabitation, but the majority of marriages are legal (Gultiano et al., 2009; Xenos, 1997). According to the 2015 Philippine census, 81.7% of the population aged 10 years and over who were in union (e.g., legally married or living-in) were legally married, and 18.3% were living together (Philippine Statistics Authority, 2017). Data from the National Demographic Survey (NDS) and National Demographic and Health Survey (NDHS) showed that while the total proportion of Filipino women who are in union remains relatively stable at around 60% (except in 2003 and 2008), the proportion of Filipino women aged 15–49 years who are legally married steadily declined from 54.4% in 1993 to 42.4% in 2017 (National Statistics Office [NSO] & Macro International Inc. [MI], 1994; Philippine Statistics Authority [PSA] & ICF, 2018). In contrast, the corresponding share of women who are cohabiting increased from 5.2% to 17.5% (National Statistics Office [NSO] & Macro International Inc. [MI], 1994; Philippine Statistics Authority [PSA] & ICF, 2018).

What are the reasons Filipinos are cohabiting instead of formally marrying? Nearly half (47.8%) of the 2013 YAFS respondents who are currently living-in cited economic reasons for cohabiting. Previous research indicated that these economic reasons may include the expenses to cover the costs of the wedding reception and fees to secure a marriage license and other required documents (Kabamalan, 2004). It may also include the “donation”<sup>1</sup> to officiate the wedding ceremony, and in some cases, there is a minimum amount for

this “donation’ that is quite expensive and may not be affordable for the poor (Williams et al., 2007). Other reasons why Filipinos resorted to cohabitation include legal impediments, cultural traditions, and misinterpretation of marriage laws (Kabamalan, 2004, 2011). Some of these legal impediments could be the lack of divorce law in the country, preventing those previously married from marrying again, and the absence of laws that recognize the marriage of same-sex couples (Abalos, 2023).

With the growing phenomenon of cohabitation among Filipinos, the question arises whether cohabitation serves as another path to marriage or an alternative to marriage in the Philippines. Existing evidence implies that it is more of the former than the latter. For example, the 1994 International Social Survey Programme (ISSP) survey showed that 24.8% of married respondents aged 18 years and over lived with their spouse before marriage (ISSP Research Group, 1997). Meanwhile, the 2013 YAFS data showed that 62.3% of currently married non-Muslim respondents aged 15–24 years lived with their partner before formally marrying.

Aside from consensual union or living together, another form of cohabitation is the *querida* system or the keeping of a second wife (Xenos & Kabamalan, 2007). There is sparse literature on the *querida* system in the Philippines, but anecdotes about this phenomenon abound (Kabamalan, 2006). A proxy indicator for the prevalence of the *querida* system is the proportion of Filipinos who have had extramarital sex (EMS). An earlier study based on the 2003 NDHS revealed that 21.6% of Filipino men in 2003 have had EMS; of those who had EMS, 79.8% had regular partners only, 5.3% had occasional partners only, and 3.4% had regular and occasional partners (Abalos, 2011). Moreover, the 2003 NDHS data indicated that the prevalence of EMS among Filipino men was higher among those who are currently cohabiting, those who have no living children, those who are undecided about their fertility preference, or whose wife was sterilized or infertile, those who belong to religions other than Roman Catholic and Islam, and those who have been drunk in the past month.

Meanwhile, the 2013 YAFS data showed that 3.1% of Filipino youth have engaged in EMS; the prevalence of EMS is more than 10 times higher among males (10.1%) than females (0.6%) (Marquez, 2016). Having EMS is strongly frowned upon in Philippine society, with 84.1% of the 2008 ISSP respondents considering this behavior always wrong (ISSP Research Group, 2018). For comparison, 54.6% of respondents in the same survey considered premarital sex (PMS) always wrong (ISSP Research Group, 2018). The strong disapproval against EMS over PMS is because EMS not only disrupts a marriage but also impacts married couples, their children, and other family members (Medina, 2015). For example, the 2013 YAFS data revealed that 23.6% of Filipino youth cited extramarital affairs as the main reason their first marriage ended.

Accompanying the changes in the timing and type of unions in the Philippines is the shift in the type of wedding ceremonies. For example, the proportion of Catholic Church weddings declined from 70.0% in 1960 to 36.2% in 2019, while the corresponding proportion of civil ceremonies increased from 21.4% to 38.6% (Bureau of the Census and Statistics, 1962; Philippine Statistics Authority,

2022a). The cost of having a Church wedding compared to a civil wedding may have contributed to the growing popularity of civil weddings.

Aside from cohabitation, other alternative types of partnerships, such as living apart together (LAT) and commuter marriages that are documented in other countries, may also exist in the Philippines. Couples in a LAT relationship are viewed by themselves and their personal network as a couple, but they do not share a common residence, while those in commuting relationships live in one home, but one (or both of them) have a second apartment where he or she stays when away from home due, to employment or education reasons (Levin, 2004). Qualitative evidence revealed that some Filipinos are in a LAT relationship (Gregorio, 2020), but there are no national estimates of this phenomenon due to limited data. Similarly, estimates of commuter marriages in the Philippines are lacking, but based on the 2017 NDHS, about 8% of Filipino women in a union were not living with their spouse or partner for reasons other than international migration in the past 24 months.

Another emerging type of relationship that has been recently documented in the Philippines is “FUBU” (“fuck buddies”) or “FB” (“friends with benefits”). This type of sexual relationship occurs when “two people who are not in a romantic relationship regularly engage in sexual intercourse” (Marquez, 2016, p. 102). Based on the 2013 YAFS data, 3.6% of Filipino youth have engaged in a FUBU; a higher proportion of males (6.6%) than females (0.7%) engaged in this sexual activity (Marquez, 2016). In addition, an earlier study by the University of the Philippines Population Institute in 2009 also showed that a significant proportion of call center (13.6%) and non-call center (7.9%) professionals with sexual experience have had a FUBU (University of the Philippines Population Institute, 2010).

## THE RISE OF NON-MARRIAGE AMONG FILIPINOS

Along with the changing character and timing of union formation in the Philippines is the growing aversion toward marriage. This is evidenced by the increasing share of permanent celibacy, measured in terms of the proportion of never-married at ages 40–49 years. Census data indicated that the proportion of Filipinos who have never married in their 40s increased from 4.3% in 1970 to 11.3% in 2015 among men and from 7.0% to 8.8% among women (United Nations Statistics Division, 2022). Non-marriage in the Philippines is more prevalent among low-educated men and highly educated women (Abalos, 2023). These patterns where low-educated men and highly educated women experience difficulty finding partners suggest the presence of a “marriage squeeze” (Williams & Arguillas, 2012). The faster expansion of education among Filipino women relative to men and the cultural expectations that discourage women from “marrying down” or marrying someone with lower education than them may have contributed to this phenomenon. The presence of marriage squeeze, particularly among males, is also observed in China (Jiang et al., 2014). These men are referred to as “bare branches,” a term for men in the countryside who are past a

certain age and unable to get married, hence are forced to remain single (Jiang & Sánchez-Barricarte, 2013). However, research also showed that the proportion of unmarried Filipino men in their 40s is almost the same for men with primary and college education (Abalos, 2023). This Philippine pattern deviates from the pattern found in other Asian countries such as South Korea, China, and Singapore, where the share of tertiary-educated men who are unmarried in their 40s is much lower than their counterparts with less than tertiary level education (Jones, 2018).

## UNION DISSOLUTION

Under the Family Code of the Philippines, divorce is illegal in the country, except for Filipinos who are married to foreigners and obtain a divorce in another country and Filipino Muslims who are governed by the Code of Muslim Personal Laws of the Philippines (Lopez, 2001). This makes the Philippines the only state in the world, aside from the Vatican City, where divorce is illegal (Emery, 2013). However, the Family Code offers three measures that permit spouses to seek relief from a marriage: (a) legal separation, (b) annulment of marriage, and (c) declaration of nullity of marriage (Gloria, 2007). Civil registration data from the Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) indicated that of the 14,264 cases of marriage dissolution processed from 1968 to 2016, declaration of absolute nullity of marriage was the most common ground for dissolution (83.6%), followed by Islamic divorce (9.1%), foreign decree of divorce (6.3%), and annulment (1.0%) (De Guzman, 2017). However, despite the availability of a legal means to end a marriage in the Philippines, Filipinos seldom resort to them due to the high costs of the procedure, the lengthy legal process involved, and the uncertainty that they will be approved (Calonzo & Cayabyab, 2013; Emery, 2013; Lopez, 2001; Taylor, 1983). Given these constraints, some couples just informally separate and are reported as separated in surveys and official statistics.

Divorce and separation in the Philippines have become more common in recent years (Abalos, 2017). Census data showed that since 1960, the proportions for both men and women have more than trebled, while the absolute numbers have gone up by at least 14 times. Specifically, the number of divorced or separated Filipino men increased from 28,988 in 1960 to 466,953 in 2015, while the corresponding numbers among women were 52,187 in 1960 and 744,309 in 2015. As in other countries (Dommaraju, 2016), the higher rates of re-partnering among men than women could explain the higher number of women than men who are divorced or separated in the Philippines. Survey data also revealed that the percentage of Filipino women aged 15–49 years who were divorced or separated increased from 1.8% in 1993 to 3.3% in 2017 (National Statistics Office [NSO] & Macro International Inc. [MI], 1994; Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) & ICF, 2018). There are several reasons why Filipinos separate from their partners. As noted earlier, the extra-marital affair was the most common reason cited by Filipino youth why their first marriage ended. Other reasons mentioned by the 2013 YAFS respondents include personality issues (10.8%), disapproval by the family (10.0%), physical and sexual abuse (6.6%), vices (5.3%), and financial matters (5.1%).

## FERTILITY AND FERTILITY PREFERENCES

The total fertility rate (TFR), or the average number of children a woman would have by the end of her reproductive years if she bore children at the prevailing age-specific fertility rates (Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) & ICF, 2018), remains to be one of the highest in Southeast Asia but has slowly declined from 4.1 children in 1993 to 2.7 in 2017 (Table 1.1). The TFR in the country is generally higher among women in rural areas and those with lower levels of education (Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) & ICF, 2018). Moreover, fertility generally declined in all age groups, except among women aged 15–19 years, particularly between 1998 and 2013 (Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) & ICF, 2018). This is consistent with the country’s increasing trend of teenage pregnancy (Gregorio, 2018; Natividad, 2013). Based on the NDS and NDHS, the percentage of Filipino women aged 15–19 years who have begun childbearing rose from 6.5% in 1993 to about 10% in both 2008 and 2013 before dropping slightly to 8.6% in 2017 (National Statistics Office [NSO] & ICF Macro, 2009; National Statistics Office [NSO] & Macro International Inc. [MI], 1994; Philippine Statistics Authority & ICF International, 2014; Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) & ICF, 2018).

However, not all births in the country are “wanted” or within Filipino women’s reported ideal number of children. In 1993, only 2.9 children out of the TFR of 4.1 were considered ideal or “wanted” fertility, and 1.2 children were “unwanted” or above Filipino women’s ideal number (National Statistics Office [NSO] & Macro International Inc. [MI], 1994). Over time, both wanted and unwanted fertility declined, so much so that in 2017, the total wanted fertility was 2.0 children, and unwanted fertility was 0.7 children (Table 1.1). This implies that the TFR in the Philippines would have declined to 2.0 children or slightly lower than the “replacement” fertility of 2.1 children if unwanted births were prevented (Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) & ICF, 2018).

There is a consensus between couples regarding the number of children they would have. For example, in 2017, 69.0% of currently married women reported that they and their spouse want the same number of children, while 20.3% said that their spouse wants more children than they do, and another 7.5% stated that their spouse wants fewer children than they do (Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) & ICF, 2018). Furthermore, regarding the preferred sex of children, 55.7% of Filipino

**Table 1.1.** Trends in Wanted and Actual Fertility of Women in the Philippines, 1993–2017.

|           | TFR | Wanted Fertility | Unwanted Fertility |
|-----------|-----|------------------|--------------------|
| 1993 NDS  | 4.1 | 2.9              | 1.2                |
| 1998 NDHS | 3.7 | 2.7              | 1.0                |
| 2003 NDHS | 3.5 | 2.5              | 1.0                |
| 2008 NDHS | 3.3 | 2.4              | 0.9                |
| 2013 NDHS | 3.0 | 2.2              | 0.8                |
| 2017 NDHS | 2.7 | 2.0              | 0.7                |

Source: Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) and ICF (2018).

Note: NDS = National Demographic Survey; NDHS = National Demographic and Health Survey

women in 2008 had balanced gender preferences, and 8.9% had no gender preference, while 20.9% and 14.5% had daughter and son preferences, respectively (Fuse, 2010).

## CHILDREN AND CHILDLESSNESS IN THE FILIPINO FAMILY

The Filipino family is child-centered, as indicated by the sacrifices and hard work parents make for their children (Castillo, 1979; Medina, 2015). Children are considered a source of joy and support in old age. For example, almost a universal proportion (95.4%) of adult respondents in the 2012 ISSP survey agreed that “watching children grow up is life’s greatest joy,” while 8 in 10 respondents agreed that “adult children are an important source of help for elderly parents” (ISSP Research Group, 2016). Despite the hardships and challenges associated with childbearing and child-rearing in Philippines, children are hardly considered burdens or obstacles to parents’ freedom or career advancement. This is evidenced by a relatively lower proportion of respondents in the 2012 ISSP survey who agreed that “having children restricts the employment and career chances of one or both parents” (22.3%), “children are a financial burden on their parents” (21.5%), and “having children interferes too much with the freedom of parents” (18.6%) (ISSP Research Group, 2016).

The strong value placed on Filipino children begins even before the child is born. For example, the ISSP data indicated that the proportion who agreed that it is always or almost always wrong for a woman to have an abortion “if there is a strong chance of serious defect in the baby” increased from 75.9% in 1991 to 89.3% in 2008 (ISSP Research Group, 1993, 2018). Similarly, the share who agreed that it is always wrong or almost always wrong for a woman to have an abortion if “the family has a very low income and cannot afford any more children” increased from 82.9% in 1991 to 97.9% in 2018 (ISSP Research Group, 1993, 2020). The strong disapproval against abortion among many Filipinos may be due to the influence of the Catholic Church, which 80% of Filipinos adhere to.

While the presence of children is highly celebrated in most Filipino families, their absence can also be a great cause for concern. There is a common assumption that those who get married want to have children, and couples who are childless are considered unlucky and pitied upon because there must be something “wrong” with them (Castillo, 1979). The NDS and NDHS data revealed that the proportion of all Filipino women who are childless at ages 45–49 years slightly increased from 8.5% in 1993 to 9.8% in 2017 (National Statistics Office [NSO] & Macro International Inc. [MI], 1994; Philippine Statistics Authority [PSA] & ICF, 2018). Similarly, the corresponding proportions among women who are currently in union also modestly increased from 3.1% in 1993 to 4.2% in 2017 (National Statistics Office [NSO] & Macro International Inc. [MI], 1994; Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) & ICF, 2018). Childless women in the survey may include those who voluntarily chose to be childless or childfree and those who are infecund or have health conditions that prevent them from getting pregnant.