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**MOTIVATIONAL VALUES AND CHILDBEARING PATTERNS
AMONG URBAN AND RURAL MARRIED FILIPINO WOMEN**

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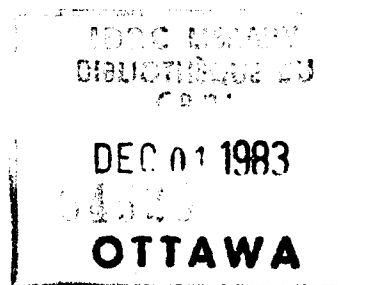
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The population problem concerns all who have a vital interest in the quality of life of present-day society. As such it is no longer just the concern of sociologists and anthropologists, medical doctors and economists but psychologists as well.

In a study by Bulatao (1977), he noted that 32 percent of all births between 1968 and 1972 were unwanted, in the sense that they added up to more children than the woman desired. This he gathered from the 1973 National Demographic Survey. By the middle of 1979, the Philippine population was estimated at 46.6 million and growing annually at the rate of 2.4 percent, although it has declined from .78 percent since 1975 (Republic of the Philippines Fertility Survey, 1980). In order to achieve population levels that are conducive to national welfare, the Commission on Population (1980) has set the following population growth target:

... To reduce population growth rate from an estimated 2.3% in 1980 with a population level of about 48 million to an estimated 2.0% in 1989 (with a population level of about 53 million). This growth reduction is consistent with the long-term goal of achieving replacement fertility or a net reproductive rate of 1.0 by the year 2000, by which time, the population level would be about 67 million, growing at a rate of 1.0% per annum.

In spite of a set long term goal of reducing the growth rate to 1.0 percent by the year 2000, there is still a lack of an explicit policy on the number of children that is advocated in the Philippines which is consistent with such a growth target. Information varies concerning the limit government policy would set on family size, as in the case of maternity privileges and additional tax exemptions. Some Asian countries like Singapore, Malaysia, Taiwan, India and others have existing policies, explicit or implicit, on the desired family size. In Singapore, a series of laws were passed to discourage parents from having more than two children. For Malaysia, the government

has limited maternity benefits for government workers to include only the first three children. The Malaysian government is also considering the possibility of implementing a financial incentive to women found not to be pregnant. There is no definite official policy on the ideal family size in Taiwan. Some family planning groups, however, have provided incentives to parents agreeing to limit family size. One district of Taiwan has come up with an "educational bond" to cover tuition fees to families who have no more than three children. In order to limit family size to two or three in India, monetary compensation for sterilization of both male and female was raised to Rs. 150 for two living children or less, Rs. 100 for three living children and Rs. 70 for four or more children. (Final Report of the Special Committee to Review the Philippine Population Program, Appendix 4). The lack of a government policy in the Philippines regarding completed family size calls for a real understanding of the cultural values attached to children.

There is no doubt that the Philippines is a country whose people put prime importance on children. In the eyes of his or her parents, a child may serve certain economic functions or may satisfy deep psychological needs. Several studies attest to this observation. In their study on childrearing practices among Filipinos, Guthrie and Jacobs (1967) observed that:

The Philippines is a child-oriented society. Children are eagerly desired since they are seen as assets to a family. Their companionship is sought by parents and older siblings, and by other relatives and neighbors as well. At every age a portion of family life revolves around the child providing him with many roles ranging from a passive recipient of the attention which is showered upon him to a responsible caretaker of younger siblings to the ever necessary water carrier. There are few adult activities from which a child is excluded. He accompanies his mother to market, his older sister to school, his older brother when courting, and his father to the fields. The Philippine family creates many places for children within its activities and often creates many children to fill these places.

In the Philippines having children is a central purpose of marriage. Failure to have children is a matter of grave concern to both husband and wife, even to relatives and neighbors. Children are a gift from God. They are an indication that the large family is in "God's grace" or "blessed." Thus there is no real planning as to family size, or any real attempt at spacing (pp. 57-58).

In their anthropological case studies on the Filipino family in its rural and urban setting, Mendez and Jocano (1974) confirmed the previously mentioned findings.

An important reason for getting married is to have children, who are the best proof that husband and wife have become one in their offsprings. They are strong ties that bind a couple, "matibay na bigkis ng magasawa." Couples are less likely to separate if they have children, and husbands are more likely to stay faithful, too. Children are gifts from God, parents with many children are many times blessed (pp. 72-73).

Other studies were cited by Bulatao (1976) with similar findings concerning values associated with children. Arnold, et al. (1975) in a cross-national study of several Asian countries on The Value of Children also had this to say:

Children are more than the object of their parents' attention and love; they are also a biological and social necessity. The human species perpetuates itself through children; cultural, religious and national groups transmit their values and traditions through children; families maintain their lineage through children; and individuals pass on their genetic and social heritage through children. The ultimate value of children is the continuity of humanity (p. 1).

The question of why people continue to have children is a fundamental question of human motivation and values. Motives and values are intricately interwoven and are virtually inseparable. The concept of value is important for it replaces the needs approach to motivation with a positive explanation of why men do what they do. In the needs theory, motivated behavior stems from the elimination

of a lack. A man strives for love because he does not have it and needs it. Essentially he is struggling to fill a void. The introduction of the idea of value, however, changes this interpretation of man's struggle for love to a striving for something that he has learned is good or right or has value. The concept of value therefore provides a positive rationale for motivation (Barry, 1965). Kluckhohn in Smith (1969) defines value as:

... a conception, explicit or implicit distinctive of an individual or characteristic of a group, of the desirable which influences the selection from available modes, means, and ends of action.

The crux of the present conception of values then is the word desirable. The variety of reasons for wanting children are termed as values attached to children to underline the return a parent expects or the utility he or she derives from having children. The contrary concept disvalues refers to costs one expects to incur with children. Thus the term value is used to cover both utility and cost, understood as some cognitively distinguished component or consequent of having children that has affective or moral significance attached to it by some participants in a particular culture (Bulatao, 1976).

An important psychological variable that can be related to the concept of motivational values for childbearing is the variable of locus of control. This was earlier discussed in the context of demographic decisions pointing out that life choices on matters such as occupation, marriage, migration and family size are increasingly subject to volition, rather than tradition or fate. People are not just bundles of beliefs, attitudes and values that channel motives. People differ in the degree to which they are psychologically organized to carry out a planned course of action. However, there is many a slip between intention and realization, between expressions of attitude and consequential behavior (Beck, 1967).

The locus of control construct is a socio-psychological variable that gives considerable evidence of coming to grips with the problem of intention and realization and deals with individual differences in the capacity for self-determination in terms of self-conceptions as being an origin or pawn of social causation (De Charms, 1968) or in

terms of generalized expectancies as to whether outcomes of one's actions are under internal or external control (Rotter, 1966; Lefcourt, 1966). People who are convinced that they are origins referred to as possessing an internal locus of control or internals behave in such a way that outcomes are under their own control; while those who see themselves as pawns referred to as possessing an external locus of control or externals see themselves and behave as though they are at the mercy of external forces.

In Rotter's theory the control construct is considered to be a generalized expectancy, operating across a large number of situations, which relates to whether or not the individual possesses or lacks power over what happens to him. Individuals are labelled externals when they are said to have a generalized expectancy that reinforcements are not under their control across varying situations. The control dimension distributes individuals according to the degree to which they accept responsibility for what happens to them. As a general principle, internal control refers to the perception of positive and negative outcomes as being a consequence of one's actions and thereby under personal control; external control refers to the perception of positive or negative events as being unrelated to one's behavior in certain situations and therefore beyond personal control.

Significance of the Study

Population studies to date involving psychological and socio-demographic variables appear to be in their infantile stage particularly so in the Philippine setting. While it is true that there have been several studies conducted concerning values attached to children, no study has been conducted as yet regarding the relationship of a psychological variable and a socio-demographic variable to values on childbearing. Inasmuch as the act of childbearing involves persons in the context of their own social setting, it is imperative that studies of this nature be investigated.

The conceptual framework upon which this study is based is premised on the idea that locus of control orientation is an important socio-psychological variable that affects motivational values for

childbearing. Such values are assumed to have been acquired from one's social environment because of their desirability. Hence, results of this study could contribute to the existing body of knowledge on the predictive value of the locus of control construct in human behavior, more significantly in the context of the Filipino culture. The findings would also be a contribution in the understanding of the motivational values for childbearing in a culture of poverty.

A theme that underlies much of the speculation about motivations for childbearing is that social change brings about changes in the way children are valued. If more were known about the personal and social values served by childbearing, then the government could be helped in tailoring programs that would provide alternative sources of satisfaction. A humanistic answer to the population dilemma of the immediate future may be found not by denying parents children that they have learned to desire, but by offering alternative sources of satisfaction to rechannel reproductive motivations.

Adequate measures or intervention programs can also be developed to enhance people's propensity to take command of their own fate, that is, deciding on the number of children one can actually have in the context of a realistic life situation. Perhaps, we would be dealing with the very root-cause of the problem of population.

Review of Related Literature

Locus of Control Studies

Rotter's locus of control construct (1954) has generated a wide variety of research using different dependent variables from the more basic like learning to the more applied socio-psychological variables such as conformity, attitude change, mental health, crowding, etc. To reiterate the basic conceptualization on which this theory was based, locus of control was originally conceived as a mediating expectancy variable which primarily affects learning. An internal person has an expectancy that the environment is open to personal manipulation and that a relationship exists between his actions and his reinforcements. An external person, on the other hand, expects reinforcements to be under

the control of others and expects that effort does not necessarily result in reward. Briefly then, the internal-external (I-E) construct is viewed as a generalized expectancy which operates across a variety of situations. Conceptually defined, the locus of control construct refers to the degree to which an individual relates the occurrence of reinforcements (or lack of them) to his own actions. That is, an externally controlled person perceives reinforcements to be primarily determined by factors beyond his control (chance, fate, or powerful others); whereas, an internally controlled person perceives that the reinforcements he obtains are primarily due to the consequences of his own efforts.

Foreign studies. Battle and Rotter (1963) conducted a study on children's feelings of control as related to social class and ethnic group. It was found that the interaction of social class and ethnic group was highly related to internal-external attitudes. Lower-class Negroes were significantly more external than middle-class Negroes or whites. Middle-class children in general were significantly more internal than lower-class children.

Using subjects enrolled in a southern Negro college, Gore and Rotter (1965) found that the I-E Control Scale predicted the type and degree of commitment behavior manifested to effect social change. Those subjects scoring lowest in externality (internal Ss) signed statements expressing the greatest amount of interest in social action while the more external subjects either expressed no interest in participation or minimal involvement probably because they believed that they cannot effect any changes.

A review of ethnic studies revealed that groups whose social position is one of minimal power either by class or race tend to score higher in the external control direction (low internals). Within the racial groupings, class interacts so that the double handicap of lower class and lower "caste" seems to produce persons with the highest expectancy of external control. Perhaps apathy and what is often described as lower-class lack of motivation to achieve may be explained as a result of the disbelief that efforts pay off (Lefcourt, 1976).

Several studies have investigated conformity in relation to the I-E control construct. Researchers have predicted that externals would conform more than internals since their expectations involve the view of events as being due to sources outside their own control. Internals, on the other hand, if aware of outside pressure, should more likely resist this pressure since it would run counter to their expectancies of being in control of their environment. Some indirect confirmation of these hypotheses was obtained in a study (Odell, 1959) which showed that those subjects ranking high in externality on an early version of the I-E scale also were significantly more conforming than were internals. The study conducted by Ritchie and Phares (1969) involved communications which were identical but which were attributed to either high- or low-prestige sources presented to groups of internal and external subjects in order to influence their attitudes. As predicted, external subjects changed more in response to a high-prestige than in response to a low-prestige source and also changed more than internals when both received a communication from a high-prestige source.

A revised version of Rotter's I-E scale known as the IPC Scale developed by Levenson (1972) and used by Mahler (1970) was administered to female and male university students in Japan and the U.S. The Levenson IPC Scale includes two dimensions of externality, namely control by powerful others and control by chance or fate instead of the Rotter unidimensional external variable. Results of the study confirmed two predictions. American students scored in a more internal direction than did the Japanese students, who felt that they were more controlled by chance or luck than do American students. The prediction that the Japanese would score higher on control by powerful others was not confirmed. However, Japanese females were significantly higher than Japanese males in their perception that their lives were controlled by powerful other people in their external world.

Levenson (1973) conducted a study for the purpose of measuring more accurately expectancies of control as they related to adjustment and clinical improvement. The Levenson IPC Scale was administered at monthly intervals to 165 functionally psychotic and neurotic inpatients. Initial testing within five days of hospitalization indicated that patients

perceived significantly more control by powerful others, and control by chance forces than normal samples, and psychotics scored higher than neurotics. Committed patients believed that powerful others controlled their lives, and readmitted patients had higher perceptions of control by powerful others and chance forces than new patients. During their first month of hospitalization, patients gained in their belief in internal control. However, initial scale scores were not significantly different from those obtained before discharge.

Using data from interviews with 1,865 married women in rural and urban strata of three Indian states, the study of Mukherjee (1979) evaluated three core dimensions of modernity namely, subjective efficacy, openness to change and propensity to plan, as predictors of different aspects of family planning and fertility. The hypothesis was tested that the modernity values are positively related to the attitudes toward the small family independent of background and other relevant variables. None of the modernity values, however, were found to predict pregnancy rates. Nevertheless, they contributed substantially to the prediction of knowledge about and attitudes toward family planning, as well as a favorability toward family size. Women who expressed a greater sense of personal efficacy, openness to change and planning propensity were more likely to be favorably disposed toward small families. Carment and Paliwal in an earlier study in 1973 found that among male workers employed in a large factory in Delhi, internals favored contraception more than externals. Empirical results, however, did not establish a direct relationship between locus of control and either fertility or contraceptive adoption, but locus of control may intervene in the relationship between certain socio-economic factors and family planning attitudes through its effect on favorability toward contraception.

Subjective efficacy, defined by Williamson (1970) as "the respondent's feeling that he is in a position to control his own fate, that he can cope with his present environment and that it is possible for a man to have an impact in his environment," appears to be subsumed by the locus of control dimension. It has been shown that family

planning knowledge and fertility-related behavior were associated with subjective efficacy in India. Williamson's analysis indicated that in India "subjective efficacy and ideal family size function more as independent determinants of favorability toward birth control than as intervening variables between the social variables and favorability toward birth control..."

MacDonald (in Fawcett, 1973) reported that "among the unmarried females who indicated that they had engaged in premarital coitus, substantially and significantly more of the respondents high in internal control reported the use of some form of birth control compared to those high in external control."

Rotter's I-E scale was used in relation to life crisis and crisis resolution in the clinical setting. Crisis patients who are usually overwhelmed by forces beyond their control would be more externally oriented on the I-E scale than a similar group of noncrisis out-patients. However, after a six-week crisis resolution period crisis patients would significantly shift toward the internal direction while noncrisis patients would show no significant I-E shift. Results of the investigation confirmed the hypothesis. Magnitude of the I-E change as being negatively related to age was not supported.

In summary, studies on locus of control have shown that the construct is related to (a) social class and ethnic group: lower class being associated with externality, middle class with internality; Japanese students were found to be more controlled by chance or luck than were American students (b) conformity behavior: subjects ranking high in externality were significantly more conforming than internals (c) fertility-related behavior and family planning knowledge: women with greater sense of efficacy (internals) had favorable attitudes toward small families; high internal unmarried women reported the use of some form of birth control methods.

In the clinical setting, it was found that crisis patients (those overwhelmed by forces beyond their control) showed a significant shift to the internal direction after a six-week crisis resolution. In another study, neurotic and psychotic patients who believed that they

were controlled by powerful others and chance forces gained in their belief in internal control. Both studies indicate that internality can be achieved with the right kind of intervention.

Philippine studies. Tangco (1977) studied the effect of frustration on the flexibility of internals and externals. Flexibility was defined as the ability to break existing patterns of behavior, to break sets, and consequently to introduce innovations in approach. Frustration is the blocking of goal-directed behavior. Fifty-six female high school seniors participated in the experiment. They were exposed to a nonsolvable problem after solving a series of problems (embedded in a game presented either as a game of chance or skill) designed to establish a response set. Results of a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ analysis of variance showed that externals given skill instructions were the first to show deteriorative effects in flexibility. Differences in the flexibility scores among internals given skill instructions, internals given chance instructions and externals given chance instructions were not sufficient to arrive at a definite conclusion.

An attempt to relate the locus of control construct with crowding was studied in the Philippines by Mataragnon (1980). Using a $2 \times 3 \times 2$ design she investigated whether the degree of residential crowding experienced by Filipino urban slum-dwellers was affected by sex (male and female), age (children, adolescents, adults), and perceived control (internal vs. external over the environment). Perceived control was operationalized both as a general locus of control orientation (measured by the Filipino Locus of Control Scale for the Urban Poor) and a specific control over the home environment (measured by the Specific Control Scale). Results of her investigation showed that sex had no main effect, but that age and specific control over the home environment had significant effects of crowding. This was true for children and adolescents but not so much for adults. The interaction between sex and age and the interaction between age and specific control also significantly affected scores on crowding. Locus of control did not affect crowding but had some slight relation to the frequency of coping reactions, which also bore little relation to crowding. Locus of control was also found to vary with age. Children

on the whole were less internal in their judgements than adolescents and adults.

Studies on the Value of Children:
Motivation toward Childbearing

Motivation for childbearing can be adduced not only from the fact that most people indeed do have children but also from research and theoretical accounts by sociologists and anthropologists.

Foreign studies. In their attempt to assess motivations for parenthood, Robin and Greene (1968) categorized the responses of their participants through the use of a 30-item incomplete sentence tests. The four categories were: altruistic, the unselfish motivation for parenthood, affection for children, concern for them and the need to express nurturance in relation to them; fatalistic, that man or woman was brought into the world to procreate and perpetuate the species; narcissistic, that the child will reflect glory upon the parent, that it is a proof of either masculinity or femininity as well as proof of either biological, physical or psychological adequacy; instrumental, that a child is employed as vehicle in the achievement of specific parental goals.

Pohlman (1969) reviewed the empirical psychological studies on the number of children desired and the expressed motives for wanting to produce them. Among the predominant motives for childbearing were: children make the parents happy, social pressures to have children, social sex-role expectations and religious pressures. Reasons given for not desiring children (cost factors) were: curtailment of parental time, freedom and privacy; competition for love from the marriage partners and economic considerations.

Hoffman and Hoffman (1972) pointed out, however, that many of the values or motivations that emerged from the studies reviewed by Pohlman appeared to be contradictory and seem to change from one group to another and even within the same individual from time to time. Because of this wide variation, they concluded that generalizations from most of the findings were nearly impossible. Instead they argued that the values for having children are not simple ones but result from a complex interaction of large numbers of social, economic, cultural,

and possibly biological factors. The importance of subgroups within a society as a significant future area of motivational research was pointed out.

Hoffman and Wyatt (in Fawcett, 1970) analyzed recent social changes that might alter individual motives for large families. They focused on three aspects of modern society namely, changes in the parental role and concept of parenthood, changes in the woman's role, and the increasing loneliness and alienations of individuals. These factors according to their conceptual analysis, which did not spell out any specific details, may interact to produce an upward shift in reproductive desires. They point out the relevance of these factors which may be expected to vary for subgroups within the society and may provide an opportunity for empirical tests of their hypotheses.

A study by Singh (1973) was conducted among 500 childless, unmarried male and female (American and Hindu subcultural groups) whose ages ranged from 18 to 21 years. The sentence completion projective technique was used to assess childbearing motives. Significant differences between cultural groups and sexes were found for number of children described, sex ratios, ages, and whether children are named. In the American sample, 42 percent of the males and 74 percent of the females specified the number of children as a part of their stories. In the Indian sample, 58 percent of the males and 83 percent of the females made this specification. With regard to the number of children indicated, the average for American males was 1.58; American females, 2.04; Indian males, 2.31; Indian females, 3.68. Statistical test findings showed that Indians specified a greater number of children than do Americans; females of both cultures described a greater number of children than do males. It was also found that there is a greater preference for males in the Indian sample by both male and female Ss. The tendency for Indians to indicate names was significantly greater than for Americans. Expressed motives for childbearing were: for American males - vicarious fulfillment of avocational desires, father-child love, the father's loss of personal freedom; for American females - mother-child love, joy of watching children grow, loss of personal freedom; for Indian males - financial burden of fatherhood, vicarious

fulfillment of vocational desires, improvement of status on being a father; for Indian females - improvement of status on being a mother, security in old age provided by sons, children's respect for the mother.

Fawcett (1978) using an analytic scheme derived from the cross-cultural study of the value of children involving the U.S., the Philippines, Japan, Taiwan and others (VOC Project) examined the motivational patterns for the first child and the effects of the first birth on motivations for the second child. The data currently available, however, are merely speculative. Concerning motivations for the first child, the controlling positive motivations appear to be of a more symbolic nature than is the case for later children. This, according to him, is partly due to the prospective parent's lack of experience with child rearing; but perhaps more importantly, motivation is related to the role expectations of society. Thus, the first child symbolized such factors as adulthood, parenthood virility or femininity, fecundability, fulfillment of the marriage, and the establishment of a "family".

At a somewhat abstract level is the curiosity motive. People want to find out about the experiences of childbearing and parenthood; they want to reproduce themselves; and they are interested to watch the growth and development of their own child. More concretely, the first child clearly fulfills an emotional need. The desire to give and receive love has been shown to be a powerful first-child motivation. The first child, especially if it is a son, may also fulfill the desire for continuity of the family name.

With regard to the effects of having the first child, the research gives a pattern of motivations emerging subsequent to the first birth that impels people strongly toward a decision for a second child. The major elements appear to be: first, sibling relationship which is activated after the first birth; second, sex preference which is heightened for the parent whose sex is the opposite of the first child, plus the effects of the common desire to have children; third, emotional benefit which is an increased awareness of the gratifications in parent-child relationships based on the feelings generated in having the first

child; and fourth, opportunity costs, the salience of which is decreased after the first birth. These four elements of motivation for a second child would seem to operate for parents in most circumstances. The potential constraints, such as perceived economic costs, do not seem to change substantially after the first birth. From the perspective of parents' perception of values and costs, the birth of a second child seems nearly inevitable, except in cases of extreme social or situational constraints.

Philippine studies. Palabrica (1969) conducted an exploratory study in Cagayan de Oro City which focused upon the motives and attitudes of married women that underlie the large family. Data gathered suggested that the large family is not the result of a desire of couples to have many children nor of a desire to achieve some goal necessarily bound up with a large family. Although several women mentioned family goals, the overwhelming majority desired a large family neither in itself nor as bound up in some other goal. Thus the large family, traditional in Filipino culture, seems more a result of uncontrolled events than of any purposive action. This suggests that ignorance of ways of regulating births together with doubts about the morality and about other aspects of family planning as well as difficulties in following out an orderly, scheduled regime of birth regulation practices, are the factors, which in many cases at least, underlie the existence of large families in Cagayan de Oro City.

Bulatao's study (1976) which was part of the VOC project of the Population Institute of the East-West Center in Hawaii involved 389 relatively young married couples from the urban (middle and lower class from Metro Manila) and rural (lower class from Bulacan) areas. The two most frequently given advantages for having children were: the happiness children bring to parents and into the home (stressed more by the urban sample), and the care, guidance and financial security they provide in old age. The next two were utilitarian in nature which were both stressed by the rural sample: practical help from children, in housework, in running errands, in watching over the house, economic assistance or the help in earning a living or when parents are in need.

The 45-value statements in a Likert-type scale were subjected to a principal component factor analysis to determine the underlying dimensions along which respondents differed in valuing children. The first and most important factor had to do with traditional family values, with the continuity of the family name and of family traditions, of the society through the family, and of the individual through his children. Because of the apparent contradiction of results obtained from the survey instrument and the Likert-type scale, the author suggested the use of multi-dimensional value inventory, taking into consideration the definitions of value as desirable vs. the actually desired or ideal values vs. actual values.

The UPPI (UP Population Institute) conducted a series of surveys in 1976 on the value of children around the Laguna Lake area from three different viewpoints: the parents' point of view, the young people's point of view, and the old people's point of view. The parents' reasons for having children revolved mainly on having some help and care in old age and the desire for having a balance of the sexes in the family. However, a majority of the respondents considered the presence of additional children as limiting their enjoyment of things, as representing a financial burden, or agreed that additional children would mean less time spent with the husband.

The benefits of children as expressed by the youth are less diverse than those mentioned by their older counterparts. Foremost among the advantages mentioned are the economic benefits of children. For every 10 respondents, six to seven believed that children would be the main source of financial support when the head of the family ceased to earn a living. Children are also expected to accomplish housework and to be of practical help for running errands and taking care of the younger siblings. Children are seen as a source of happiness for the family. Viewed from a different perspective, less children means less happiness (VOCPA, Special Report No. 5).

Despite the many advantages of children, the youth clearly associate children with some negative values. Children were perceived to impose a variety of restrictions on privileges, freedom, work and on time. The youth were also cognizant of the financial problems that

children entail. A large family of nine children, for example, would find it difficult to provide each child with an adequate education.

From the old people's (menopausal women and grandparents) view, findings show that only one out of 20 women past the childbearing ages wanted to have additional children while among the grandparents, one out of seven still expressed the desire to have more children. This was principally motivated by the old age support that the respondents expected from their children. Emotional gratification, such as happiness and the companionship that children provide, was a secondary reason. The respondents considered the infants as a fountain of inspiration and happiness for the family members. As the children grow older, they are expected to be of practical help in increasingly extending economic assistance. The respondents exhibited a striking economic dependence on their children.

A large number of the old people interviewed recognized some important advantages of a large family. To four of every five respondents in both groups, a large family meant more support to the parents and the family, more workers and more happiness. In contrast, a small family signified less happiness, limited assistance to parents, and less assurance of having a sufficient number of survivors to adulthood. Another salient advantage of children cited by the respondents was the feeling of accomplishment and satisfaction gained from watching children grow and from being able to satisfy their wants.

The most important disvalues perceived by both groups of respondents fell into three categories, namely, economic costs, emotional costs, and freedom. Additional children would make life harder because of limited income and the difficulty of earning a living. Financial difficulties and fear of not being able to give children an adequate education and a bright future pressured a great majority to desire a family of four to five children.

Part of the survey conducted by Jimenez (1980) also asked questions regarding the importance of children from four sectors: agricultural, industrial, military and the youth. The most important values that emerged were that "children are usually regarded as sources of joy, as a support during one's old age, as an essential part of

married life and as a guarantee of immortality in that one's name and memory are carried on long after one's physical death." The study further revealed that "in general, the emotional benefits derived from children are more important to the urban respondents while economic benefits primarily in terms of old-age security are given more emphasis by the rural respondents."

Both foreign and local studies on motivations for parenthood and values attached to children could be summed up as follows: emotional benefits (happiness and affection, satisfaction of being a parent, etc.), economic or utilitarian benefits (help in old age or in the household), instrumental (the achievement of certain goals like the continuity of family name), and social pressure and responsibility. Values attached to children did not only include the positive but the negative (costs or disvalues) values as well. These disvalues included the financial, emotional and psychological.

Statement of the Problem

In general, this study attempts to find the relationship between two independent variables, namely, locus of control and area of residence, on the motivational values for childbearing as well as childbearing patterns of married low-income Filipino women. Specifically, it attempts to answer the following questions:

1. How do internal women (those who see themselves as having personal control over the consequences or outcomes of their behavior) compare in their motivational values for childbearing with external women (those who see the outcomes of their behavior as beyond their control)?
2. How do urban and rural women compare in their motivational values for childbearing?
3. How do internal women compare with external women in their childbearing patterns?
4. How do urban women compare with the rural women in their childbearing patterns?
5. How are motivational values related to childbearing patterns with one manifestation of the latter being actual, desired and ideal family size?

Figure 1

Conceptual Framework

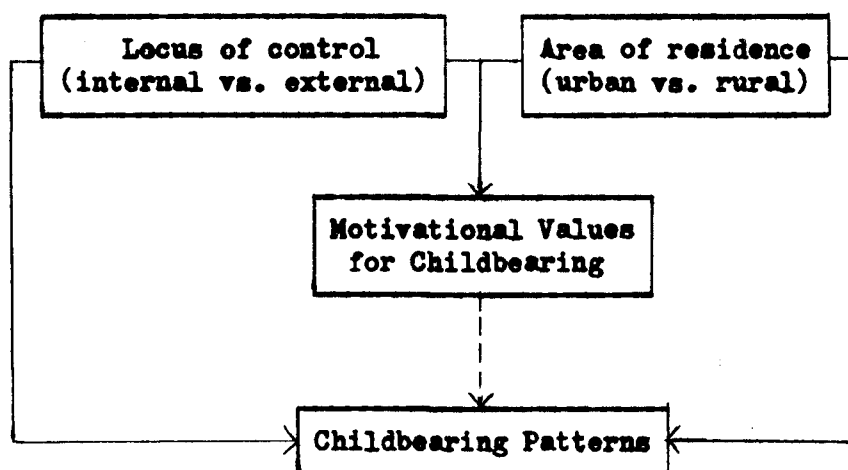


Figure 1 presents the conceptual framework of the study. Locus of control and area of residence are the independent variables; motivational values and childbearing patterns, the dependent variables.

It is widely assumed that values in general are largely determined by culture. It is reasonable to expect that motivational values for wanting to have children are both personal and social. Implicit in the above is that differences in the motivational values result from the extent to which persons differ in their internal-external orientation.

The psychological variable of locus of control and the socio-demographic variable of area of residence are viewed as having an effect on the motivational values for childbearing, which in turn, is related to childbearing patterns. Since childbearing is to a certain extent a purposive behavior, in the sense that some people would attempt to limit the number of children that they would have, the locus of control construct has been considered as having a direct bearing on the anticipated satisfactions and costs of children which would consequently influence fertility behavior. According to Fawcett (1972) the shift from a rural, agricultural

society to an urban, industrialized one implies a reduction in economic benefits from children and an increase in costs.

Due to the lack of studies concerning the relationship between locus of control and values attached to children as well as childbearing patterns, no directional hypotheses have been forwarded in this investigation. Instead, the general hypotheses that internals differ from externals, and that urban respondents differ from their rural counterparts in terms of motivational values and childbearing patterns are what the study attempts to investigate.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Participants

Two hundred (200) married Filipino women, 100 urban and 100 rural, participated in the study. The respondents were all at the peak of their childbearing years, 20-35 years of age and had at least one child at the time of the investigation. The average urban income was P288.17 and the average rural income was P208.84 for the families of the respondents. The income distribution of this sample is provided in Appendix A.

Of the 200 urban and rural respondents only those scoring in the upper 25% and the lower 25% on the locus of control scale were used in the actual data analysis. This was done to discriminate better between the internals and the externals. Thus, the distribution of respondents was done this way:

Figure 2

Distribution of Respondents

	Urban	Rural	Total
Internals (upper 25%)	26	26	52
Externals (lower 25%)	26	27	53
Total	52	53	105

The table below gives more background information about the respondents.

Table 1

Respondents' Background Information

Mean	I (n=52)	vs.	E (n=53)	U (n=52)	vs.	R (n=53)
Age in years	28.02		27.08	26.98		28.11
Number of children (actual)	2.73		2.60	2.46		2.87
Years of schooling	8.54		6.64	8.04		7.14
Number of years married	7.14		6.74	6.21		7.66
Age when married	20.96		20.15	20.62		20.52

In terms of age it can be seen that almost a year difference existed between the internals and the externals with the internals being slightly older. This was also true of the urbans and the rurals with the rurals being slightly older than their urban counterparts. There was only a slight difference with regard to their actual number of children. For level of educational attainment, the internals reached as far as second to third year high school, the externals only sixth grade to first year high school; the urbans reached second year high school and the rurals, first year high school. The internals were found to have been married slightly longer than the externals; the rurals longer than the urbans. There was not much difference with regard to their age when they got married although the internals were slightly older.

Setting of the Study

There were two criteria for choosing research sites for the investigation. First, the urban site should be within Metro Manila, the rural site outside of Metro Manila. Second, both sites should be low-income areas with residents engaged primarily in factory/industry related jobs for the urban while basically agricultural for the rural.

Tatalon, a squatter area in Quezon City was used as the urban research site while San Rafael was chosen for the rural site. The choice of Tatalon was based on contacts established by an earlier study. Also, the Mataragnon study already used five economically depressed areas in Metro Manila with the Locus of Control as one of the instruments. Thus, Tatalon was decided upon because its residents had not been given the above-mentioned instrument which was to be used in the present investigation.

San Rafael is a town in the eastern part of Bulacan. It is considered a truly rural place by Bulakeños that had been interviewed earlier. An informal interview was conducted with an administrator of a private school in the place who pointed to five barrios namely, Talacsan, Maronquillo, Pulo, Libis and Poblacion as low-income. Thus interviews for the study were carried out in these low-income barrios.

Variables

There are two independent variables under consideration in the study: the psychological variable of locus of control (internal vs. external) and the socio-demographic variable of area of residence (urban vs. rural). Locus of control is operationally defined as the ability to accept responsibility for the outcomes or consequences of one's behavior measured in terms of the scores obtained in the Revised Locus of Control Scale. A person who obtains a high score means that she has a high internal (or low external) locus of control while one who obtains a low score means a low internal (or high external locus of control).

A motivational value refers to certain desirable benefits (such as the continuity of the family name and tradition, security and companionship, sense of achievement from being a good parent, etc.) that a mother or a parent derives from having children.

Childbearing pattern is defined in terms of the number of children one actually has and how they are spaced as well as the number of children still desired. It also includes the difficulties experienced in childbearing and the use of any contraceptive method in the regulation of birth.

Motivational values for childbearing and childbearing patterns are the dependent variables. However, motivations for childbearing were considered both as an intervening variable and a dependent variable. As an intervening variable, it links the independent variables (locus of control and area of residence) and the other dependent variable (childbearing patterns).

Instruments

Motivational Value Scale for Childbearing (MVSC)

The Motivational Value Scale for Childbearing was used to measure the strength of values attached to children measured by the degree of agreement or disagreement to value statements related to children. The initial item pool of the MVSC included statements gathered from the use of the technique of pagtatanung-tanong as well as from the findings of earlier studies concerning the reasons, importance and values attached to children. The results of the pagtatanung-tanong may be seen in Table 2. Three judges, two of whom were psychology graduate students, and one an instructor in psychology, were requested to categorize the initial item pool of 59 statements. They were requested to put statements together that appeared to be similar and to comment on the items. The percentage of overlap was used for retaining the items in each category.

Fifty-three of the 59 items were clearly categorized while the six others were either vague, had no categories or were considered irrelevant statements. The categories were later compared with Arnold's (1975); seven of which coincided with his earlier categories.

The 53 items were translated into Tagalog by a Tagalog-speaking graduate student, then back-translated to English by another graduate student. The items were shuffled again and pre-tested among 15 urban (Tondo and Balic-Balic, Metro Manila) and 15 rural (Laguna) low-income Filipino mothers who had at least one child at the time of the pre-test, and were at the peak of their childbearing years.

Table 2

Results of Pagtatanung-tanong:

Frequencies of Values
Attached to Children

Values	Lolo (n=5)	Lola (n=8)	Nanay (n=13)	Tatay (n=8)	Total (n=34)
nagdudulot ng kasiyahan/nakakaaliw sa kalungkutan	3	6	7	3	19
maasahan sa pagtanda, sa gawaing pambahay at katulong sa pagpapasral ng mga kapatid	3	5	5	2	15
pagtakaroon ng kahulugan sa buhay, inspirasyon	1	2	4	3	10
magdadala ng pangalan at magpapatuloy ng mithiin ng magulang	1		1	3	5
nagbibigkis sa mag-asawa		1	2		3
makatulong sa lipunan			1		1
natural lamang ang pagnanais na magkaroon ng anak			1		1
magagantihan ang kabutihang nagawa ng mga magulang				1	1
Di-kainaman					
mahirap magpalaki ng anak			1		1
magastos				1	1
mahirap mag-alaga			1		1
hindi magagawa ang gusto			1		1

All the items were scored on a 1 to 5 scale: 1 (strongly disagree); 2 (disagree); 3 (undecided); 4 (agree); and 5 (strongly agree). This is true for all the items which are positively stated. The opposite was done for the negatively stated items which included all items referring to costs of children. The higher the score in each category, the greater the endorsement of that particular value or disvalue.

Item-analysis was done for the different categories of the entire scale. Eight items were discarded from the total of 53 items leaving the scale with 45 items. The summary table for the item-analysis is found on page 27.

Revised Locus of Control

For measuring the locus of control construct, a revision of the scale developed by Mataragnon (1980) was used. Originally, the scale consisted of 30 forced-choice items using hypothetical events that call for answers varying in locus of control, internal vs. external. The scale was patterned after the Stanford Locus of Control Scale (Lefcourt, 1977). Mataragnon had subjected the instrument to item-analysis, reliability testing, correlation with social desirability and validation using Rotter's Locus of Control Scale.

Inasmuch as the scale was intended for urban respondents in the Mataragnon study, the present investigator had to modify it for rural use. Adding six more items, some of the items of the original scale were adopted for rural purposes.

The Revised Locus of Control was administered to 30 rural mothers in San Pablo, Laguna. Using the median-split, the participants were divided into two groups with 28 and 23 as their respective means. The t-test was applied to see if a significant difference existed between the two groups. Results showed that the two means differed ($t = 3.62$, $df = 28$, $p < .05$). This means that the revised scale discriminated between the high and the low internal participants as far as the rural respondents were concerned. The revised instrument was administered one month later to the same participants and the computed test-retest reliability was .75.

Table 3

MVSC Categories and the Retained Items
after Item-Analysis

Category	Retained Items in the Category	Item-Total Correlations	Coefficient Alpha
I Magdadala ng pangalan, magsasakatuparan ng mithiin ng magulang	8, 15, 22, 23, 42	.63, .47, .65, .80, .63	.89
II Katulong sa pagtanda at gawaing pambahay, pagpapaaral sa mga kapatid	7, 20, 24, 26, 27, 29	.74, .55, .73, .70, .79, .57	.93
III Pagnanais na maging magulang	4, 5, 12, 14	.79, .53, .54, .42	.84
IV Pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal	10, 17, 28, 31, 33, 37	.46, .77, .88, .44, .64, .77	.92
V Pagbibigkis ng mag- asawa	18, 36, 44, 45	.72, .35, .60, .60	.84
VI Pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay	2, 30, 35, 39, 9,	.45, .24, .71 .41, .67	.84
VII Tungkulin sa lipunan	25, 36, 40, 43	.36, .70, .73, .60	.86
VIII Lalong makikilala ang sarili sa pagiging magulang	1, 3, 6, 11, 19, 21	.61, .96, .87, .77, .53, .51	.93
IX Di-kainaman (Costs)	13, 16, 32, 34, 41	.62, .72, .95, .90, .92	.96

Note: Except for Categories VII and VIII which were taken from the categories of Arnold (1975), all the seven categories were tapped in the pagtatanung-tanong.

Interview Schedule

The 45-item interview schedule was developed to tap three major aspects of childbearing: (a) family size and composition which consists of three sub-categories, namely, actual family size, desired family size, and ideal family size; (b) practice of birth control; and (c) childbearing problems or difficulties, aside from gathering some background information on the respondents.

Some of the items were written in Tagalog, others in English but were later translated into Tagalog then backtranslated to English. The interview schedule was pre-tested among 20 low-income, married women having at least one child (10 urban and 10 rural). This was to: (a) find out how long it took each respondent to answer all questions in the schedule, (b) test for comprehensibility, and (c) gather answers to the open-ended questions which served as choices for the final form of the interview schedule.

Procedure

Permission to conduct research in Tatalon, Quezon City was first sought from the Barangay Coordinator at the Q. C. Hall. Two weeks later, the investigator received a formal letter granting permission to go on with the research. The research assistant brought the letter to the barangay captain of Tatalon who requested that names of respondents for the study be submitted to him after the interviews.

The investigator, together with the would-be interviewers, made an exploratory visit to San Rafael, Bulacan one weekend primarily to establish contacts for the actual data gathering. They requested the help of the school directress of a private, Catholic School who then volunteered some initial information regarding the town and its barrios. Five barrios were pointed out as low-income whose people are engaged basically in farming or agriculture. The directress also suggested that initial contacts with the barrio captain be made in each barrio before starting the interviews. This was eventually followed by the research assistant and the interviewers.

Three different instruments were used for the investigation: Revised Locus of Control Scale (RLCS) for dividing the respondents into

the internal and external groups; the Motivational Value Scale for Childbearing (MVSC) for measuring motivational values in desiring children; and the interview schedule for tapping some aspects of childbearing patterns. The Revised Locus of Control Scale was validated for rural use based on Mataragnon's Locus of Control for the Urban Poor; the two other instruments were constructed and developed by the investigator mainly for this study. The details on instruments are described on pages 24-28.

Before starting with the actual data gathering, interviewers were first trained in the use of the instruments by conducting at least two preliminary interviews. This was for purposes of familiarizing themselves with the items in the instrument and to anticipate some practical problems that would come out during the interviews. Interviewers were also instructed to take note of additional voluntary information from the interviewees.

Actual interviews started during the last days of November, 1980 and extended for a period of almost three months until mid-February, 1981. Interviewers and the research assistant went to Bulacan (covering the five low-income barrios of San Rafael) during Saturdays and to Tatalon during the weekdays. Interviews, using the three instruments, usually lasted for almost an hour not to mention the extra time needed for warming up and the "short stories" that spontaneously came up from the participants during the interview.

Data gathered were coded for computer in-put and the computer results analyzed.

Mode of Analysis

Analysis of variance was used for determining significant differences existing between internal and external, urban and rural groups in terms of motivations for childbearing. The chi-square test was employed to determine whether a significant difference exists between internal and external, urban and rural women in terms of certain aspects of childbearing patterns. A correlational analysis was performed to examine the extent of degree of relationship between motivational

values and certain aspects of childbearing patterns, including some background information regarding the participants.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the findings on the motivational values for childbearing measured by the MVSC instrument; childbearing patterns measured by the interview schedule; relationships between respondents' background information and motivational values; as well as the relationship of certain aspects of childbearing patterns with motivational values.

Table 4 gives a summary of the range, mean and standard deviation of the internals (upper 25%) and the externals (lower 25%). The use of the upper and the lower 25% instead of the median-split was to discriminate better between the two groups, internals and externals. Or as Mc Guigan (1978) would put it, "to maximize the difference between the two conditions of the independent variable (IV)". As mentioned, earlier locus of control is one of the independent variables, other is area of residence.

A look at the means alone of the two groups would show us that they are well discriminated, with scores ranging from 27-32 for the internals and 14-22 for the externals.

Table 4

Results of the Upper 25%
and Lower 25% Locus of Control Scores

	Number of Respondents	Range	Mean	S.D.
Internals (upper 25%)	52	27-32	28.92	1.41
Externals (lower 25%)	53	14-22	19.00	2.34

Motivational Values
for Childbearing

Significant findings were obtained in three out of the nine categories of the MVSC. The significant findings are the following: pagnanais na maging magulang (III), pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay (VI) and di-kainaman (IX). Non-significant findings, presented in Appendix B, are: magdadala ng pangalan at magsasakatuparan ng mithiin ng mga magulang (I), katulong sa pagtanda, sa gawaing pambahay at pagpapaaral ng mga kapatid (II), pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal (IV), pagbibigkis ng mag-asawa (V), tungkulin sa lipunan (VII) and, pagkilala nang mabuti sa sarili sa pagiging magulang (VIII).

Table 5 presents the summary of the 2 x 2 analysis of variance (ANOVA) on category III: pagananais na maging magulang (desire for parenthood). A significant effect was obtained for locus of control with internals obtaining a higher mean than externals signifying that internals value children more because of their greater desire to become parents.

There was no significant effect of area of residence which means that urbans and rurals did not differ in their desire to become parents. There was also no interaction effect between locus of control and area of residence.

As far as the internals are concerned, children are valued greatly because they see them as fulfilling the married women's desire for parenthood or motherhood. Being internally oriented, they probably thought of themselves as being ready and capable of becoming parents. Desire for parenthood, therefore, could be equated with readiness to become parents, readiness to raise children, to face and to fulfill the responsibilities of parenthood. This is probably not true of the externals. Children are valued more for the more immediate help or contribution that they give to parents. This is precisely why they give more emphasis to the other categories such as practical help in the home and in old age, as binding the spouses together, etc. Speculatively speaking the internals being slightly older than the externals and having been married slightly longer could have contributed even more to their valuing children as fulfilling their desire for

Table 5

Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category III

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (A) Internals(I) vs. Externals(E)	.146	1	.146	6.347*
Area of Residence (B) Urban(U) vs. Rural(R)	.009	1	.009	.391
Interaction (A x B)	.001	1	.001	.043
Error	2.319	101		
Total	2.319	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category III: Pagnanais na maging magulang

parenthood. Being slightly older and married longer the internals could be more eager to fulfill the goal of rearing a family. As some would say: "mas maigi na iyong magka-anak habang bata pa para makita ang paglaki ng mga bata".

Table 6 presents the ANOVA results on category VI: pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay (giving meaning and direction in life). There was a highly significant effect of locus of control with internals obtaining a higher mean than the externals which means that the internals attached greater value to children because of the meaning and the direction that they give to their life.

With regard to the significant difference, again, the internals, having probably considered and realized the seriousness of marriage and parenthood more than the externals, obtained a significantly higher

Table 6

Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category VI

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (I vs. E)	.104	1	.104	7.428*
Area of Residence (U vs. R)	.002	1	.002	.142
Interaction (A x B)	.004	1	.004	.285
Error	1.433	101	.014	
Total	1,543	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category VI: Pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay

mean score than the externals. Thus, they put more importance to children as giving meaning and direction in life. In constrast, externals may not be as concerned with regard to meaning and direction in life, something which is rather abstract and distant. They are more concerned with the concrete and the immediate. Perhaps, the internals realize that a change in status from being single to being married means giving meaning and direction to their changed lifestyle. Children are seen as fulfilling this objective. Meaning and direction could mean for them having children upon whom they can invest their energies. It means working hard and building a future for them. Thus they have a purpose to live for, a direction to follow. As some parents would say, "natuto kaming magpakahirap nang dahil sa mga anak". Working hard for their children is nothing as long as they are able to give them a good future.

Table 7

Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category IX

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (I vs. E)	.182	1	.182	4.595*
Area of Residence (U vs. R)	.026	1	.026	.656
Interaction (A x B)	.095	1	.095	2.399
Error	4.002	101	.0396	
Total	4.305	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category IX: Di-kainaman ng pagkakaroon ng mga anak

Table 7 gives the summary of the ANOVA on category IX: di-kainaman (costs or disvalues). A significant effect was obtained for locus of control with externals obtaining a higher mean than the internals which means that externals consider children more as burdensome and costly.

This finding can be explained in relation to the previous significant findings, desire for parenthood and giving meaning in life. If internals, as earlier pointed out, are viewed as being more ready for parenthood and that a change of status meant a serious consideration of the role of children in giving meaning and direction in life, then one would expect the internals to be more accepting of the costs or disadvantages that go with having children. Costs, to them, are a natural part of parenthood and should not outweigh the positive values attached to children. If we view the externals as not as ready for parenthood as the internals are, without due consideration of the responsibilities that go with being parents, then they would feel burdened by the coming of children. Thus, children are simply

viewed as "magastos, mahirap magpalaki, disturbo lamang sa buhay" and others.

From Table 8 it can be seen that the internals differed significantly from the externals in categories III (pagnanais na maging magulang), VI (pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay) and IX (di-kainaman). Internals obtained slightly higher scores in categories I, IV and VIII; externals slightly higher in II, V and VII.

Between the urban and rural respondents no significant differences existed across the nine categories. However, the urbans were slightly higher in I, II, III, IV and IX; V, VI, VII and VIII for the rurals.

Although no significant differences between internals and externals appeared in the other categories, it is still interesting to note that internals obtained slightly higher mean scores in categories I (magdadala ng pangalan at pagsasakatuparan ng mithiin ng magulang), IV (pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal) and VIII (para lalong makilala ang sarili sa pagiging magulang). Externals obtained slightly higher scores in categories II (katulong sa pagtanda atbp.), V (paghibigkis ng magasawa) and VII (tungkulin sa lipunan). Looking closely at the categories, one would notice that category I is closely related to category VI, while category VIII to category III. It can be said that the internals are more instrumental (in reference to the attainment of more abstract and futuristic goals) in the way they value children. They desire to become parents (III) so that they are able to know themselves better through parenthood (VIII). Furthermore, children give meaning and direction in their life (VI) by continuing their name and fulfilling their dreams and desires (I). To the internals, this is probably the best way children are able to show their love and affection thus bringing them happiness (IV). Therefore, children are not a burden to them.

The categories in which externals obtained higher mean scores seem to show that they are more utilitarian (this signifies the more immediate, concrete or practical help) in their attached values to children. They look at children as potential help in old age, in the sharing of household work, in sending siblings to school (II) as well

Table 8

Summary of Means for
MVSC Categories

Categories		I vs. E		U vs. R	
I	Magdadala ng pangalan, magsasakatuparan ng mithiin ng magulang	4.14	3.98	4.10	4.02
II	Katulong sa pagtanda at gawaing pambahay, pagpapaaral sa mga kapatid	3.85	3.99	3.93	3.91
III	Pagnanais na maging magulang	4.80*	4.05	4.26	4.17
IV	Pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal	4.13	3.97	4.08	4.02
	Pagbibigkis ng mag-asawa	3.86	3.92	3.87	3.91
VI	Pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay	4.24*	3.97	4.09	4.12
VII	Tungkulin sa lipunan	3.74	3.90	3.76	3.89
VIII	Lalong makikilala ang sarili sa pagiging magulang	4.15	4.05	4.08	4.12
IX	Di-Kinaman (Costs)	3.03	3.38*	3.38	3.24

*p < .05

as binding spouses together (IV). In addition, the value attached to children as responsibility to society or one's community (VII) shows a conforming attitude in the externals. This particular finding is in support of Odell (1959) and Phares (1969) who found confirmation of their earlier prediction that "externals would conform more than internals since their expectations involve the view of events as being due to sources outside their own control". In view of the present investigation, it is more or less the pressure of responsibility toward the community that has made them give more emphasis to category VII.

Earlier surveys have shown that urban and rural respondents tended to differ in their attached values to children. Economic benefits and help in old age were mentioned as the number one reason for having children by the three different rural groups (youth, parents and grandparents) surveyed in 1976 by the UPPI. In the Bulatao study (1976) it was pointed out that the urban sample stressed "the care, guidance and financial security (economic) they provide for old age". The Jimenez survey (1980) confirmed what Bulatao earlier discovered between the urban and rural respondents. Results of this investigation partly supported the claim that the value of happiness is associated with urban, and the value of economic benefits with rural. It turned out that both values have been emphasized by the urban respondents.

The partial support of earlier findings might be explained in the shift from rural to urban living. Having left the provinces, the urban respondents have in some ways been cut off from familial and emotional ties with relatives. They have given up close kinship relations in their search for the "pot of gold" in the city. So when they come to the city and then get married there is the desire to re-establish what one has just "lost"; and one way to have this fulfilled is by having children of their own with whom they can have close inter-personal ties, children who are expected to be loyal to them. At the same time also, they expect their children to be of help in their old age when no relatives other than the children will be around to depend on for support, economically and emotionally.

Costs (di-kainaman) appeared to be more a concern of the urban respondents. This supports Fawcett's (1976) claim that a change from

rural to urban means an increase in costs. From this, one would expect the urban respondents to view children as more disadvantageous than their rural counterparts. To live in the city means first of all survival - to be able to survive on one's own feet without anymore depending on one's relatives. While it is true that it is this same group of respondents who looked at children as potential help in old age, at the same time, there is that growing awareness that having children is burdensome not only financially but emotionally and psychologically as well. To have children could mean crippling the wife's capacity to work, the inability to help the husband in earning a living. Having children also means a more crowded home, a more cramped lifestyle.

Childbearing Patterns

This part of the results section presents the findings on childbearing patterns which include the following: actual, desired and ideal family size; time of birth of the first child and consequent spacing of children; the perceived right number of children for small and big family size; sex preference for the eldest and family composition; information about and use of family planning methods (FP); difficulties in conceiving; experience of miscarriage and its effect on the desire for children; and difficulties in childbirth and its effect on the desire for children.

The following items were subjected to chi-square test (X^2): timing of birth for the first child, perceived number of children for a small and big family, sex preference for the eldest, family composition, information respondents have heard about FP, use of FP, continuing use of FP, difficulty in conceiving, experience of miscarriage, and the effect of miscarriage on the desire for another child. Almost all the items turned out to be nonsignificant except: a) the difference between urban and rural on the perceived number of children for a big family and b) difference between internals and externals on the effect of miscarriage on the desire for another child. The frequency data with their percentages are presented in this section. The contingency tables for the X^2 test are found in Appendix C. The obtained means for the actual, desired and ideal family size were subjected to a

t-test but did not also turn out to be significant. They were only suggestive of slight differences.

Table 9

Mean Summary of Respondents' Actual,
Desired and Ideal Number of Children

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Actual	2.73	2.60	2.46	2.87
Desired	3.28	3.39	3.10	3.57
Ideal	3.55	3.59	3.50	3.74

From the results shown in Table 9, the internals have a slightly bigger number of children than the externals but desire fewer children; both groups have almost the same mean score for the ideal family size. With regard to the urban and rural respondents, it appears that the rurals have a consistently bigger number for actual, desired and ideal family size. There appears to be a big difference in terms of the desired number of children with urbans having a mean score of 3.10 while the rural mean is 3.57. None turn out to be statistically significant when subjected to a t-test.

Regarding birth of the first child, more internals (55.8%) than externals (43.4%) had their first child in less than a year while more externals (52.8%) than internals (42.3%) had theirs more than a year or more than two years after marriage. The group means ($I = 1.03$; $E = 1.34$) show that internals had theirs in a relatively shorter period of time than the externals. This also appears to be the case for urbans and rurals with a mean of 1.02 for the urbans and 1.14 for the rurals as shown in Table 10.

The timing of birth for the first child is consistent with the average spacing of the respondents' actual number of children. Looking

Table 10

Birth of the First Child
after Marriage

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Less than a year	29 (55.8)	23 (43.4)	27 (51.9)	25 (47.2)
1+ - 2+ years	22 (42.3)	28 (52.8)	24 (46.2)	26 (49.0)
3+ - 4+ years	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)
5+ - 6+ years	0 -	1 (1.9)	0 -	1 (1.9)
Total	52	53	52	53
Mean	1.03	1.34	1.02	1.14

The figures in parentheses are percentages while those above are frequencies.

at Table 11, again, the internals obtained a lower mean compared to the externals, and a much lower mean for the urbans compared to the rurals. An inspection of the mean spacing for each child shows that the internals had a more regular pattern of spacing with the next two children spaced about two years, the next three about two and a half years and the last having the shortest spacing. For the externals, it was quite irregular starting with a little bit more than two, to about two and a half years, back to two again, then to more than three years with the last, exactly two years. With regards to the urbans, the pattern appears to be about less than two years to more than two years then back to less than two years. There seems to be no regular pattern for spacing for the rurals. One interesting item of information is the abrupt decline in spacing for the last or the sixth child.

Table 11

Mean Spacing (years)
for Each Child

After:	I vs. E		U vs. R	
1st child	2.22	2.25	1.98	2.48
2nd child	1.99	2.48	2.17	2.93
3rd child	2.45	2.13	2.29	2.56
4th child	2.75	2.09	1.67	2.66
5th child	2.40	3.29	1.67	3.40
6th child	1.50	2.0	1.0	2.0
$\bar{x}$	1.90	2.03	1.80	2.67

The findings that the internals had slightly more children, and it took them a relatively shorter time for the birth of their first child sounds rather intriguing. If the "internals are more unconventional and less conforming" as Teh (1981) found them to be in her study on the personality correlates of internals and externals, which implies that they are more open and receptive to the use of unconventional methods of birth control, then one would expect the internals to use such methods in limiting and spacing their children farther apart than the externals. Unexpectedly the opposite was true.

One should look at these findings, however, as supportive of the earlier finding concerning internals having a greater desire for parenthood. Because of this strong desire, they did not wait for a long time to have the first child and consequently spaced their children at shorter intervals than the externals.

The possible combination or interplay of the variables of age, with internals being slightly older than externals; and the number of

years married, with internals having been married slightly longer; plus the greater desire for parenthood among internals could have triggered a stronger need to have children sooner with less concern for longer spacing. As Smith (1968) has noted, being older and getting married a little later do not necessarily mean having less children. In fact, it could mean a stronger desire to make up for one's "lost time" because of the shorter period of time that is left for childbearing. However, this needs to be further investigated particularly among internals and externals.

If one were to look at the desired number of children, one would find that although the internals have more (actual) children it turns out that they desire fewer children than the externals. In the long run, it is highly probable that the internals might turn out to have fewer children.

In the study by Clifford (1971) the hypothesis that wives with modern orientation associated with the internals would desire a smaller number of children than wives with a traditional orientation associated with the externals was not statistically supported. However, it should be noted that the difference was in the expected direction.

The urbans appeared to have had a consistently smaller average in terms of the actual, desired and ideal family size. This means that in comparison to the rurals, they have fewer actual living children, desire less and view smaller size for an ideal family. This was also true for the birth of the first child and the spacing of their children which both involve a relatively shorter period of time than the rurals. This is in support of the conclusion by de la Paz (1975) that urban respondents are more favorable toward smaller size preference. Mukherjee (1979) asserted that urbanization and the spread of urban attitudes are strongly correlated with family planning adoption. He found in his study among the urban Indian women who showed a higher percentage of favorable family planning attitudes also showed a favorable attitude toward smaller family size.

It is worth mentioning that the urbans were found to be slightly more concerned with costs or disvalues related to children than the

rurals. Then it is not surprising to find the urbans having fewer and desiring fewer children than the rurals. This is not also to mention the other finding that urbans were more affected by their experience of miscarriage in their desire to have additional children.

There was not much difference between the internals and the externals in terms of the reasons given for not wanting more than their desired number of children (Table 12). The three strongest reasons given were: dahil sa lagay ng buhay (because of our life conditions) which was stressed slightly more by the externals, maliit ang kita (small income) which was more emphasized by the internals and para maganda ang kinabukasan (to have a good future), again, stressed slightly more by the internals. Note that the first two reasons refer to the respondents' concern for poverty while the third refers to their concern for the future welfare of the children.

Table 12

Reasons for Not Wanting More Than
the Desired Number of Children

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
maliit ang kita	14 (26.9)	11 (20.8)	14 (26.9)	11 (20.8)
dahil sa lagay ng buhay	24 (46.2)	27 (50.9)	25 (48.1)	26 (49.1)
para maganda ang kinabukasan	11 (21.2)	10 (18.9)	8 (15.4)	13 (24.5)
mahirap mag-palaki	3 (5.8)	2 (3.8)	3 (5.8)	2 (3.8)
sapat na lingap	0 -	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)	0 -
tanang bilang	0 -	2 (3.8)	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)
Total	52	53	52	53

The same reasons were strongly cited both by the urbans and the rurals with the first equally emphasized by both, the condition of poverty. The second reason cited by the urbans was low income while concern for the children's future for the rurals; and vice-versa for their third reason.

Table 13 presents the reasons for not wanting less than the desired number of children. Tamang bilang (right number) was mentioned first by both internals and externals; walang gabay (no help) for the internals while naghihintay ng lalaki (waiting for a boy) for the externals, mentioned as their second reason, which was also the third for the internals. The third reason given by the externals was ayaw ng asawa (husband doesn't like) which means to say that the externals could not have less than what they desire because of pressure coming from the husband.

Table 13

Reasons for Not Wanting Less Than
the Desired Number of Children

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
ayaw ng asawa	2 (4.1)	6 (11.8)	2 (4.2)	6 (11.5)
walang gabay	8 (16.3)	5 (9.8)	4 (8.3)	9 (17.3)
tamang bilang	21 (42.9)	18 (35.3)	19 (39.6)	20 (38.5)
Naghihintay ng lalaki	7 (14.3)	9 (17.6)	8 (16.7)	8 (15.4)
para mas masaya	5 (10.2)	7 (13.7)	10 (20.8)	2 (3.8)
di na-kontrol	6 (12.2)	4 (7.8)	4 (8.3)	6 (11.5)
takot sa FP	0 -	2 (3.9)	1 (2.1)	1 (1.9)
Total	49	51	48	52

The number of children for a small family (Table 14) ranged from only one child to six children. Between the internals and externals, a majority mentioned 2-4 with exactly a mean of 3.0 for the internals, 2.77 for the externals. Regarding the urbans and the rurals, it can be seen that not one rural respondent cited having only one child as a small family but rather it starts with 2 children indicated by most, followed by 3 or 4 children. Quite a number (13.5%) of urbans compared to the rurals cited one child as already making up a small family. However, just like the rurals, the most frequently cited was 2-4 children. In terms of means, the urbans had 2.65 while 3.11 for the rurals. The difference between internals and externals, urbans and rurals in their perceived size for a small family appeared to be quite negligible.

Table 14

Number of Children for a Small Family

Number	I vs. E		U vs. R	
one child	2 (3.8)	5 (9.4)	7 (13.5)	0 -
two children	19 (36.5)	21 (39.6)	21 (40.4)	19 (35.8)
three children	13 (25.0)	14 (26.4)	12 (23.1)	15 (28.3)
four children	14 (26.9)	9 (17.0)	8 (15.4)	15 (28.3)
five children	3 (5.8)	2 (3.8)	3 (5.8)	2 (3.8)
six children	1 (1.9)	2 (3.8)	1 (1.9)	2 (3.8)
Total	52	53	52	53
Mean	3.0	2.77	2.65	3.11

There was not much difference in terms of what the internals (6.8) and externals (6.69) considered big family size (Table 15). A majority of the internals (51.1%), however, mentioned 5-7 followed by 8-10 (29.1%). These were both equally cited by the externals (34.7%). For the urbans 21.3% cited just 2-4 with 53.2% citing 5-7 children. The bigger number of rurals mentioned 8-10 (36.8%) followed by 5-7 (32.7%) and quite a big percentage (18.4) mentioned 11 or even more. The big mean difference between the two groups, $U = 6.26$ and $R = 7.71$, turned out to be statistically significant, $\chi^2 = 8.78$, $df = 3$, $p < .05$.

Table 15

Number of Children for a Big Family

Number	I vs. E		U vs. R	
- 4 children	8 (17.0)	8 (16.4)	10 (21.3)	6 (12.2)
5 - 7 children	24 (51.1)	17 (34.7)	25 (53.2)	16 (32.7)
8 - 10 children	9 (29.1)	17 (34.7)	8 (17.0)	18 (36.8)
11+ children	6 (12.7)	7 (14.3)	4 (8.5)	9 (18.4)
Total	47	49	47	49
Mean	6.8	6.69	6.26	7.71

$$\chi^2 = 8.71, df = 3$$

$$*p < .05$$

The urbans' smaller mean for both small and big family size could be reflective of their greater concern for costs or disvalues attached to children, and the rurals bigger mean reflective of the good and abundant life associated with living in the barrio. Earlier studies have shown that women in Cagayan de Oro City have a strong preference

for large families (Palabrica, 1968). The BRAC Survey by Lynch and Makil (1968) also showed that Filipino women favor large families, five or more, which is especially true of women above 35 years but not those under 35. The authors claimed that this reflects a secular trend toward lower family size preferences. In 1974 the UPPI found the average Filipino family was still composed of six children, which is still big compared to Japan which is two and Singapore which is three. Those with an underlying preference for large family size are less inclined to use contraception (de la Paz, 1975).

An almost equal percentage of internals (50.0%) and externals (51.0%) stated that they did not have any sex preference for the eldest (Table 16). It is interesting to note that 26.4% of the externals expressed a preference for a boy as the eldest while it was an equal percentage (25.0%) for either a boy or a girl for the internals. Just like the internals and the externals, most of the urbans and the rurals had no sex preference for the eldest, with more urbans (57.7%) than rurals (43.4%) saying so. This finding seems to imply that obligations for parental as well as sibling support and assistance devolves on siblings more on the basis of ordinal position than on sex role. In other words, older children, irrespective of sex, carry the prime responsibility and obligation for the support of and assistance to parents and younger siblings (Stinner and Mader, 1975). Quite a big number of rurals (34.0%) expressed a male preference for the eldest while it is a preference for a female by 25.0% of the urbans. This could be suggestive of the economic utility of children rurally, particularly of the eldest male. Parents expect the eldest son to be of help in the farm; or in case the father becomes incapable of doing the farmwork, then the eldest son can take over.

In terms of family composition, again a near majority of internals and a majority of externals preferred an equal number of boys and girls. This was also true of the urbans and rurals. A female dominated family was cited by more of the internals, while a male dominated one by the externals although these were second preferences only (Table 17). Again, this was true of the urbans and the rurals. Jocano (1971) made the observation that balance or equilibrium-maintenance in nature and human

Table 16

Sex Preference for the Eldest

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
girl	13 (25.0)	12 (22.6)	13 (25.0)	12 (22.6)
boy	13 (25.0)	14 (26.4)	9 (17.3)	18 (34.0)
no preference (up to God)	26 (50.0)	27 (51.0)	30 (57.7)	23 (43.4)
Total	52	53	52	53

Table 17

Family Composition

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
male dominated	12 (23.1)	7 (13.2)	11 (21.2)	8 (15.1)
female dominated	14 (26.9)	6 (11.3)	13 (25.0)	7 (13.2)
equal number (succession alternating)	23 (44.2)	33 (62.2)	22 (42.3)	34 (64.1)
no preference at all	3 (5.8)	7 (13.2)	6 (11.5)	4 (7.5)
Total	52	53	52	53

life is a prime feature of Philippine peasant culture. He argues that this is no less so with respect to family sex composition. For couples with all children of the same sex, childbearing is considered to be incomplete; in effect the family is out of balance. However, Jocano was referring only to the peasant society; and findings of this study also indicate that a majority of urbans as well indicated no sex preference. Another plausible explanation could be this. Compared to their Asian counterparts, Filipinos are relatively more emancipated and there exists a general egalitarianism in male-female roles. One might suspect that the emancipation of women and egalitarianism in male-female roles is strongest in Manila (Stinner and Mader, 1975, p. 76).

In Taiwan, for example, there is a strong preference for sons by couples as evidenced in the sex composition of children. This exists as an impelling pressure to achieve the desired composition at the sacrifice of having a larger family than desired (Liu, 1979). Indian mothers, on the other hand, cannot depend on their daughters for support who through marriage have become part of other families. Thus their sole hope is their sons (Singh, 1967). Hence the strong preference for sons over daughters.

Table 18 presents the reasons for having at least one girl in the family. The first three reasons given by the internals were: para makatulong sa buhay (help in the home), gabay sa pagranda (help in old age) and, kulang pag wala (lacking if no girl). The first two reasons were the same for the externals. However, the difference lies in the third, mas masaya (happier). Hardly any difference in terms of percentages could be noticed with regard to the first two reasons. Also, the urbans and the rurals did not differ such on their given reasons with the majority mentioning help in the home, although there were more urbans (65.4%) than rurals (56.6%) citing it. The reasons for girls being more affectionate and the state of some kind of lack in the family if there is no girl were mentioned by an equal percentage (9.6%) of urban and rural respondents. The last was also mentioned by rural respondents (9.4%). The other reason given by the rurals was help in old age, mentioned by more rurals than urbans. The reason of girls being closer cited by the urbans is in support of the earlier findings

Table 18

Reasons for Having at Least One Girl

Reasons	I vs. E		U vs. R	
para makatulong sa bahay	31 (59.6)	33 (62.3)	34 (65.4)	30 (56.6)
gabay sa pagtanda	7 (13.5)	7 (13.2)	4 (7.7)	10 (18.9)
mas malapit sila	6 (11.5)	3 (5.7)	5 (9.6)	4 (7.5)
mas masaya	1 (1.9)	6 (11.3)	3 (5.8)	4 (7.5)
ulang pag wala	7 (13.5)	3 (5.7)	5 (9.6)	5 (9.4)
ba pa	0 -	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)	0 -
Total	52	53	52	53

Bulatao, 1976; UPPI, 1976, Jimenez, 1980) including the present investigation that urbans value more the happiness and affection attached to children. Help in old age, more emphasized by the rurals, is also in support of the findings obtained by the studies just mentioned.

Reasons for having at least a boy in the family are shown in Table 19. The internals and the externals did not differ (except in terms of percentage) in the first three reasons, namely: para makatulong sa paghahanapbuhay (help in earning a living) given by more externals; magdadala ng pangalan (to continue the family name) stressed more by the internals; tagapagtanggol ng mga kapatid (defender of siblings) again mentioned by more internals than externals. It is also interesting to note that none of the internals ever thought of having at least a boy as help in old age or just for the purpose of experiencing having a boy in the family. A few of the externals cited both reasons. This is supportive of the earlier finding that internals

Table 19

Reasons for Having at Least One Boy

Reasons	I vs. E		U vs. R	
para makatulong sa paghahanapbuhay	26 (50.0)	31 (58.5)	27 (51.9)	30 (56.6)
tagapagtanggol ng mga kapatid	6 (11.5)	5 (9.4)	6 (11.5)	5 (9.4)
magdadala ng pangalan	14 (26.9)	8 (15.1)	14 (26.9)	8 (15.1)
parang kulang	2 (3.8)	2 (3.8)	3 (5.8)	1 (1.9)
mas masaya	4 (7.7)	3 (5.7)	0 -	7 (13.2)
gabay sa pagtanda	0 -	3 (5.7)	1 (1.9)	2 (3.8)
nais maranasan	0 -	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)	0 -
Total	52	53	52	53

are more concerned about continuity of the family name, for a more long-term goal rather than a more immediate one, and concern not so much for themselves but for their children.

The first two reasons were cited by the urbans and the rurals, with more rurals citing help in earning a living, while more urbans cited continuity of the family name. For their third reasons, urbans gave defender of siblings while rurals mentioned that being a boy is happier.

The concern for having at least a boy in the family for the purpose of continuing the family name as stressed by the internals is consistent with the earlier finding that internals value children because they continue the family lineage and the parents' aspirations and dreams. However, the earlier finding did not show any significant statistical difference between

the two groups. On the part of the externals, it was found that they stressed more having a boy to help in earning a living and having a girl to help in the home. This sounds consistent with the traditional view that boys should be out working and girls should stay with mother at home to help in the household chores.

There is a remarkable percentage of respondents who have heard about family planning (FP) and birth control methods: I = 92.3%, E = 88.7%, U = 94.2%, R = 86.8% (Table 20). Among the internals who have heard about FP only 45.8% have been using birth control methods; of the externals, only a small percentage, 28.5% (Table 21). Obviously, more internals than externals have been using FP methods. Odell (1959) cited that even among unmarried females, those with greater subjective efficacy have been using birth control methods. There were more internals than externals (I = 85.7%, E = 75%) and more urban than rural (U = 90.5%, R = 66.7%) who indicated that they would continue using birth control methods (Table 22). Possible reasons why some of the respondents would not want to continue using birth control methods could be:

- a) their own apprehension regarding health, that such methods are believed to cause TB, cancer or heart disease;
- b) that they are against the teaching of the Church which states that rhythm is the only accepted method of birth control; and
- c) that they are not to reject children.

All these were expressed by both urban and rural respondents in the study by Mendez and Jocano (1974).

Table 20

Heard About Family Planning

Response	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Oo	48 (92.3)	47 (88.7)	49 (94.2)	46 (86.8)
Hindi	4 (7.7)	6 (11.3)	3 (5.8)	7 (13.2)

Table 21

Use of FP Method

Response	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Oo	22 (45.8)	13 (28.3)	22 (44.9)	13 (28.9)
Hindi	26 (54.2)	33 (71.7)	27 (55.1)	32 (71.7)

Table 22

Continue Use of FP Method

Response	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Oo	18 (85.7)	9 (75.0)	19 (90.5)	8 (66.7)
Hindi	3 (14.3)	3 (25.0)	2 (9.5)	4 (33.3)

The FP methods commonly used by the respondents were: IUD used more by the internals, condom used only by the internals' husbands, oral pills and rhythms used more by the internals, ligation used more by the externals. Not one of the rurals used IUD which was used by 40.9% of the urbans. Oral pills were used by an almost equal percentage of the two groups, while the rurals used rhythm and condom more as compared to the urbans (Table 23).

Three conditions were given for the use of family planning and birth control methods. The respondents were asked either to agree or disagree. More internals than externals agreed to the use of such methods for spacing

after the first child (this explains the more regular pattern of spacing) and to stop childbearing after the desired number of children is achieved. The use of such methods to postpone childbearing was agreed upon by more externals than internals. This is somehow supportive of the data concerning timing of birth of the first child. An overwhelming majority of the urbans agreed to all three conditions in comparison to the majority of rurals (Table 24). Earlier studies have found that higher education and urban residence are frequently associated with approval of FP (Concepcion and Hendershot, 1968; dela Paz, 1975; Mukherjee, 1979).

Table 23

FP Method Used

Method	I vs. E		U vs. R	
IUD	6 (27.3)	3 (23.1)	9 (40.9)	0 -
condom	5 (22.7)	0 -	3 (13.6)	2 (15.4)
oral pills	5 (22.7)	6 (46.2)	7 (31.8)	4 (30.8)
rhythm	4 (18.2)	2 (15.4)	1 (4.5)	5 (38.5)
ligation	1 (4.5)	2 (15.4)	2 (9.1)	1 (7.7)
withdrawal	1 (4.5)	0 -	0 -	1 (7.7)

Childbearing difficulties included the following: difficulties experienced during conception, miscarriage and problems involved in childbirth. Regarding difficulties experienced during conception, such feeling poorly, irritability, etc., there were more internals (65.4%) than externals (56.6%) who did not experience such difficulties; more externals (37.7%) than internals (26.9%) who experienced a few of

Table 24

Conditions for Use of FP Method

Condition	I vs. E		U vs. R	
1. to postpone childbearing				
agree	38 (73.1)	41 (77.4)	42 (80.8)	37 (69.8)
disagree	9 (7.3)	7 (13.2)	4 (7.7)	12 (22.6)
don't know	5 (9.6)	5 (9.4)	6 (11.5)	4 (7.6)
2. for spacing after 1st child				
agree	42 (80.8)	37 (69.8)	43 (82.7)	36 (67.9)
disagree	9 (17.3)	10 (18.9)	4 (7.69)	15 (28.3)
don't know	1 (1.9)	6 (11.3)	5 (9.6)	2 (3.8)
3. to stop childbearing				
agree	45 (86.5)	44 (83.0)	47 (90.4)	42 (79.2)
disagree	6 (11.5)	5 (9.4)	2 (3.8)	9 (16.9)
don't know	1 (1.9)	4 (7.6)	3 (5.8)	2 (3.8)

these difficulties. The majority of urbans and rurals also did not experience difficulties during conception; a little more urbans than rurals experienced those difficulties (Table 25).

Table 25

Difficulty in Conceiving

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Oo	14 (26.9)	20 (37.7)	18 (34.6)	16 (30.2)
Hindi	34 (65.4)	30 (56.6)	31 (59.6)	33 (62.3)
Minsan	4 (7.7)	3 (5.7)	3 (5.8)	4 (7.5)

Again, the greater majority of internals and externals, urbans and rurals have not actually experienced miscarriage (Table 26). Of those who have experienced miscarriage (I = 36.5%, E = 34.0%), more externals than internals claimed that miscarriage affected their desire for another child (Table 27). It could be that the uncertainty of the real cause/reason for a miscarriage has created fear among the externals. This is mainly due to the lack of proper and scientific knowledge regarding pregnancy and childbirth. Such a difference was statistically significant at the .05 level. Although the difference is significant, it should be kept in mind, however, that only a little more than 30% in each group claimed to have experienced miscarriage.

A look at Table 28 would show us that among those who experienced difficulty in childbirth (I = 16, E = 21; U = 15, R = 22), 75% internals compared to 61.9% externals and 72.7% rurals compared to 60% urbans were affected in their desire for another child. It should be recalled that a greater percentage of externals were affected by miscarriage, but it appears to be the opposite with the effect of childbirth difficulties.

Table 26

Experience of Miscarriage

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Oo	19 (36.5)	18 (34.0)	17 (32.7)	20 (37.7)
Hindi	33 (63.5)	35 (66.0)	35 (67.3)	33 (62.3)

Table 27

Desire for a Child
Affected by Miscarriage

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Oo	1 (5.3)	9 (50.0)	4 (23.5)	6 (30.0)
Hindi	18 (94.7)	9 (50.0)	13 (71.5)	14 (70.0)

$$\chi^2 = 6.28, df = 1$$

$$p < .05$$

Table 28

Desire for Another Child Affected
by Difficulty in Childbirth

	I vs. E		U vs. R	
Oo	12 (75.0)	13 (61.9)	9 (60.0)	16 (72.7)
Hindi	4 (25.0)	8 (38.1)	6 (40.0)	6 (27.3)

With regard to the urbans and the rurals, it was the rurals who were more affected by both.

Summary of Differences on Childbearing Patterns

Internals vs. Externals

1. Internals had slightly more children (actual) but desired fewer children than the externals.
2. Internals had a shorter period of time before the birth of the first child, with less spacing among the children.
3. Both groups differed in one of the reasons for having at least a boy or a girl among the children. The internals considered not having a girl as lacking, therefore having at least one completes the family while the externals considered it happier to have a girl. One of the strong reasons for having a boy is the concern for the continuity of the family name in the case of the internals.
4. There was not much difference in terms of their perception of a big or a small family.
5. No difference in terms of sex preference and sex composition was noted between the two groups.
6. More internals than externals have used FP methods and more have indicated that they would continue using them.
7. The three conditions (namely, postponement of childbearing, spacing after the oldest and to stop childbearing after achieving the desired number) were all agreed upon for the use of FP methods. The third condition was overwhelmingly approved by both groups.
8. Externals appeared to have been more affected by the experience of a miscarriage than the internals.

Urbans vs. Rurals

1. Rurals had consistently higher means in terms of actual, desired and ideal family size.
2. The birth of the first child and spacing among the children were shorter for the urbans than the rurals.

3. Both urbans and rurals differed in one of the reasons for not wanting less than the desired number of children. For the urbans, it means the desired number is associated with happiness, for the rurals it is either because the husband does not want less or it is not controlled.

4. There is no difference for sex preference and sex composition. However, for their second choice, the rurals stressed more preference for boys for the eldest and slightly more males than females for sex composition. It was the opposite for the urbans.

5. Both groups did not differ in the first two reasons for having at least a boy or a girl among the children. Girls were seen as closer and as help in old age by urbans and rurals respectively. For having at least a boy, the difference came in the third reason. Boys were considered as "protectors" by the urbans while for the rurals, they were viewed as contributing to a more happy family.

6. There was a statistically significant difference in their perceived size for a big family but not for a small family.

7. More urbans than rurals have been using and would continue to use FP methods.

8. Consistently more urbans overwhelmingly approved the three conditions for the use of FP.

9. The experience of miscarriage affected a greater percentage of urbans than rurals.

Correlations of MVSC Categories with Respondents' Background Information and Their Actual, Desired and Ideal Family Size

This section presents the relationships between a) MVSC categories and respondents' background information such as age when they got married and b) MVSC categories and the respondents' actual, desired and ideal family size. Their actual scores in each MVSC category were correlated with their age, years of schooling, number of years married, age when they were married as well as the number of their actual, desired and ideal family size.

Only the tables with significant correlations are presented in this section; the rest are in Appendix D.

Table 29 presents the correlations of the MVSC categories with the internals' background information. Number of years married was positively and significantly correlated with MVSC categories I (magdadala ng pangalan); II (katulong sa pagtanda) and VII (tungkulin sa lipunan). This means that the longer the internals have been married the greater the value attached to children in terms of continuing the family name, help in old age and responsibility to one's community.

Age when married was significantly but inversely correlated with category VII, responsibility to one's community, which means that the older they have been married the less the value of responsibility to one's community or vice-versa.

It is also to be noted that age is slightly correlated with category IX (di-kainaman); number of years in school with category I; number of years married with category IX and age when married with category II. However, all these relationships were only approaching statistical significance at the .05 level.

Among the externals, age when married was inversely correlated with categories IV (pagdulot ng kasiyahan), and VI (pagbibay kahulugan). This means that the younger they were when they got married, the greater the value of children as sources of happiness and love and the greater the value for giving meaning and direction to their lives (Table 30).

Age and the value of happiness and love were found to be slightly and inversely correlated, but this did not meet statistical significance.

With regard to the urban respondents, number of years in school and age when married were both inversely and significantly correlated with category VII (tungkulin sa lipunan). This means that the less schooling they had and the younger they were when married the greater the value for having children because they feel it a responsibility to their community, or vice-versa.

Number of years in school and the value attached to children as help in old age were found to be slightly and inversely correlated but the relationship was not significant at the .05 level (Table 31).

Table 29

Correlations of MVSC Categories
with Internals' Background Information

MVSC Category	Age	Number of Years in School	Number of Years Married	Age When Married
I Magdadala ng pangalan, magsasakatuparan ng mithiin ng magulang	.187	-.222	.246*	-.116
II Katulong sa pagtanda at gawaing pambahay, pagpapaaral sa mga kapatid	.166	-.151	.292*	-.216
III Pagnanais na maging magulang	-.005	-.091	.108	-.163
IV Pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal	.009	-.025	.124	-.162
V Pagbibigkis ng mag- asawa	.228	-.104	.143	.108
VI Pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay	.088	.076	.042	.092
VII Tungkulin sa lipunan	.026	-.135	.284*	-.319*
VIII Lalong makikilala ang sarili sa pagiging magulang	.064	-.024	.137	-.122
IX Di-kainaman (Costs)	.220	-.068	.221	.030

* .05 level

Table 30

Correlations of MVSC Categories
with Externals' Background Information

MVSC Category	Age	Number of Years in School	Number of Years Married	Age When Married
I Magdadala ng pangalan, magsasakatuparan ng mithiin ng magulang	-.016	-.046	.033	-.041
II Katulong sa pagtanda at gawaing pambahay, pagpapaaral sa mga kapatid	.070	-.123	.179	-.107
III Pagnanais na maging magulang	-.184	-.087	-.043	-.134
IV Pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal	-.228	-.064	-.009	-.266*
V Pagbibigkis ng mag- asawa	-.006	-.093	.077	-.084
VI Pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay	-.092	-.033	.109	-.235*
VII Tungkulin sa lipunan	.029	-.156	.153	-.140
VIII Lalong makikilala ang sarili sa pagiging magulang	-.125	-.083	.047	-.182
IX Di-kainaman (Costs)	.182	-.028	.194	-.012

* .05 level

Table 31

Correlations of MVSC Categories with
Urban Respondents' Background Information

MVSC Category	Age	Number of Years in School	Number of Years Married	Age When Married
I Magdadala ng pangalan, magsasakatuparan ng mithiin ng magulang	.050	-.153	.139	-.045
II Katulong sa pagtanda at gawaing pambahay, pagpapaaral sa mga kapatid	.027	-.220	.037	.039
III Pagnanais ng maging magulang	.003	-.000	.119	-.073
IV Pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal	-.159	-.130	.042	-.187
V Pagbibigkis ng mag- asawa	.098	-.103	.039	.148
VI Pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay	-.011	.026	.107	-.066
VII Tungkulin sa lipunan	-.161	-.261*	.180	-.321**
VIII Lalong makikilala ang sarili sa pagiging magulang	-.080	-.061	.094	-.177
IX Di-kainaman (Costs)	.128	-.235	.149	.009

* .05 level

** .01 level

As shown in Table 32, number of years married was found to be positively and significantly correlated with category II (katulong sa pagtanda) at the .01 level, with category VII (tungkulin sa lipunan) at the .05 level. This means that the longer the rural respondents have been married, the greater the value for children in terms of help in old age and having children as responsibility to the community. The same variable was found to positively correlate with category IX (di-kainaman) but the relationship failed to reach statistical significance.

Age when married was inversely related, significant at the .005 level, with category II. The younger they were married, the greater their value for children as help in old age or help in the household/farm. This was also slightly, and again, inversely related with category IV (pagdulot ng kasiyahan) but the relationship failed to reach statistical significance.

Table 33 shows that among the internals the actual number of children (number of living children) is positively and significantly correlated with MVSC categories I (magdadala ng pangalan) and II (katulong sa pagtanda, atbp.). This means that as their number of children has increased the greater the value attached to continuity of the family name and the value of help in old age in the home and in sending siblings to school.

The number of desired children was found to positively and significantly correlate with MVSC category III (pagnanais na maging magulang). This means that the more the desired number the greater the value attached to the desire of becoming parents.

The findings have shown that length of marriage among the internals significantly and positively correlated with continuity of the family name (I), help in old age (II) and responsibility to society (VII). Age when married negatively correlated with responsibility to society. It should be recalled that earlier the internals were found to attach greater value to desire for parenthood and giving meaning to life. The correlational findings seem to support such values. The longer they have been married the greater their concern for having children who would

Table 32

Correlations of MVSC Categories with
Rural Respondents' Background Information

MVSC Category	Age	Number of Years in School	Number of Years Married	Age When Married
I Magdadala ng pangalan, magsasakatuparan ng mithiin ng magulang	.157	-.031	.176	-.074
II Katulong sa pagtanda at gawaing pambahay, pagpapaaral sa mga kapatid	.174	-.153	.393**	-.424***
III Pagnanais na maging magulang	-.140	-.017	-.003	-.155
IV Pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal	.024	.121	.122	-.201
V Pagbibigkis ng mag- asawa	.122	-.114	.183	-.158
VI Pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay	.029	.191	.063	-.042
VII Tungkulin sa lipunan	.179	-.078	.254*	-.179
VIII Lalong makikilala ang sarili sa pagiging magulang	.001	.041	.076	-.074
IX Di-kainaman (Costs)	.195	-.005	.211	-.043

* .05 level

** .01 level

*** .005 level

Table 33

Correlations of the MVSC Categories with
Internal's Actual, Desired, and Ideal
Number of Children

MVSC Category	Actual Number	Number Desired	Ideal Size
I Magdadala ng pangalan, magsasaktuparan ng mithiin ng magulang	.2321*	.1719	.0687
II Katulong sa pagtanda at gawaing pambahay, pagpapaaral sa mga kapatid	.2559*	.2204	-.0793
III Pagnanais na maging magulang	.1758	.2551*	.1215
IV Pagdulot na kasiyahan at pagmamahal	.1458	.1827	-.1989
V Pagbibigkis ng mag- asawa	.0848	.0140	-.1202
VI Pagbibigay kahulugan at layunin sa buhay	.0551	.1719	-.0713
VII Tungkulin sa lipunan	.1815	.1038	-.0925
VIII Lalong makikilala ang sarili sa pagiging magulang	.1746	.2058	-.0253
IX Di-kainaman (Costs)	.0884	.1391	-.0195

* .05 level

continue the family name and who would contribute positively to the good of society. Help in old age is a natural concern of everybody although this appeared to be a greater value for the externals than the internals in the earlier findings. It should be mentioned, however, the earlier finding involved a functional relationship while the present finding is simply the extent or degree of relationship. Furthermore, the finding was not significant. The significant negative correlation between age when married and responsibility to society shows that the internals who got married younger had a stronger value attached to children because of responsibility to society or vice-versa. This can probably be explained this way. The younger internals who got married had a stronger concern for this particular value, but the older ones were concerned with some other values.

As far as the externals are concerned, age when married was found to negatively and significantly correlate with happiness and affection (IV) and giving meaning to life (VI) which shows that the younger externals were more concerned with such values when they got married or vice-versa. This particular finding did not come as a surprise in the sense that earlier both values were found to have been more emphasized by the internals rather than the externals.

Among the urbans two variables, namely, schooling and age when married, were found to have correlated negatively with responsibility to society. The more schooling the urbans have and the older they were when they got married, the less value attached to responsibility toward society, or vice-versa. Why is this so? The younger urbans and those who had less schooling probably entered marriage to have children who would fulfill their altruistic goal of helping society. The older ones and those who had more schooling were more aware of the practical problems of married life and having children particularly in the city (concern for costs) that such value was less of their concern at the time they were married.

The only variable that was positively and significantly correlated with help in old age (II) and responsibility to society (VII) was the length of marriage. The longer the rurals have been married the greater the value attached to children in terms of help in old age and responsibility

to society. The value of responsibility to society was already found to have been more emphasized by the rurals earlier. However, help in old age was more emphasized by the urbans. Again, it should be mentioned that the difference was very negligible.

No significant findings were found for the three groups (externals, urbans and rurals) regarding relationships between motivational values and actual, desired and ideal family size. As far as the internals are concerned, actual number of children is positively correlated with continuity of the family name and help in old age. This means the more living children the internals have the greater the value for continuity of the family. The findings all seem to support the earlier findings of the study: the tendency of the internals to emphasize continuity of the family and their strong desire for parenthood. Help in old age is supportive of the finding that the older the internals were the greater the concern for help in old age, in the home and in sending younger children to school. It is probably not so much the concern for themselves alone. Note that help involves two different dimensions, the first for themselves and the second for the younger sons and daughters. One can argue, therefore, that as the number of living children increases the greater the concern for their welfare. Again, responsibility is very much equated with the internals.

Internals were significantly different from the externals in terms of desire for parenthood and children as giving meaning and direction in life. They were also found to have emphasized three other motivational values, namely, continuity of the family name, source of happiness and affection and knowing oneself better through the children. The shorter timing of birth for the first child and the shorter spacing of children could be reflective of the internals' greater desire for parenthood. Their greater emphasis on the continuity of family name, though not significantly different from the externals, was also reflected in the greater percentage of internals preferring a male-dominated family composition over the externals. One of the reasons given by the internals in having at least a boy in the family is for the continuity of the family name, given by more internals than externals.

With regard to the externals, the motivational values that were slightly emphasized by them were: help in old age and in the home, binding spouses together and responsibility to society. They differed significantly from the internals in terms of costs. Although it appears that they are aware of the costs involved in having children, this doesn't seem to show in their childbearing patterns. There was no apparent pattern involved in spacing their children although they had relatively longer intervals. More externals than internals approved the use of birth control methods in postponing childbearing after marriage which explains their longer timing for the birth of the first child, but less externals approved the use of such methods for spacing and in stopping childbearing.

The urbans slightly emphasized continuity of the family name, help in old age/in the home, desire for parenthood, source of happiness/affection and costs. Most of these values appeared in their childbearing pattern. The shorter timing of birth for the first child and the shorter spacing could be supportive of the urbans' desire for parenthood. One of their strong reasons for not wanting less than the desired number of children is happiness, again supportive of the value attached to children as sources of happiness/affection. There was generally no sex preference for the eldest, but still there were more urbans than rurals who preferred girls over boys and a female-dominated family composition. More urbans than rurals expressed the reason for having girls as help in the home and the reason for having boys as help in earning a living and continuity of the family name. These were both supportive of the values of help in old age and continuity of the family name. The overwhelming approval of the conditions for the use of FP could be reflective of their greater awareness for costs involved in having children, hence, fewer children both actual and desired.

The values that were slightly emphasized by the rurals were binding spouses together, meaning and direction in life, responsibility to society and knowing oneself better through the children. None of these values seemed to have been reflected in their childbearing patterns except binding spouses together. Although more rurals experienced miscarriages and more of them claimed they were affected by it as well as by the difficulties

in childbirth, still it appeared that they had more children and desired more compared to the urbans. This could be supportive of the value that the more children one has the stronger of the value that the more children one has the stronger the bond between husband and wife.

CHAPTER IV

IMPLICATIONS

The socio-psychological variable of locus of control is to a certain extent predictive of some of the motivational values for childbearing among the Filipino married women involved in this investigation. The fact that locus of control had a main effect but not for area of residence and the lack of interaction effect between locus of control and area of residence is an indication that the determining variable is really locus of control. Although there were some urban and rural differences and slight interaction effects, these did not meet statistical significance. There were differences suggested by the data but the two variables in combination did not seem to influence the respondents' motivational values for childbearing. Locus of control could perhaps combine with other variables such as sex, socio-economic level, educational attainment and the degree of communication between husband and wife. Perhaps, some of these variables combined with the construct of locus of control could be more predictive of differences in terms of motivational values and consequently childbearing patterns. Mukherjee (1979) contends that education provides a sense of efficacy which brings about a positive change in women's perceptions of their status at home and also in their decision-making power which eventually affect family planning adoption and therefore fertility behavior.

The socio-demographic variable of area of residence did not significantly affect the married women's motivational values. The lack of significant effect means that the motivational values appeared to be the same whether one resides in the city or in the rural area. This implies that what is probably more important is not so much in the difference of area of residence but the improvement of the quality of life of the people in these low-income areas. It is often asserted that socio-economic development is the best contraceptive and that with improved socio-economic conditions, there will be not only an increase in family planning adoption but also a decline in the fertility rate (Mukherjee, 1979). The fertility decline recorded in the demographic history of developed nations followed after long periods of social and

economic development. Such development altered the traditional roles of families in society and of children in the family. Large families were no longer important for attaining and holding on to the good things in life. Higher aspirations for each offspring provided inducements for limiting family size (Concepcion and Hendershot, 1968, p. 355). Furthermore, it is their belief that family planning programs are not likely to have much effect unless some simultaneous social and economic progress occurs which will reduce reliance on family ties and on many children (p. 356).

The lack of significant differences between urban and rural respondents in terms of motivational values could also be reflective of what Bulatao (1979) considers as the transition in the value of children. He argues that the transition involves a dual process of liberation. First, children are liberated from having to contribute their labor to their families; then, parents are liberated from the burden of caring for many children. However, this needs to be investigated further involving as wide a sample and as many sample areas as possible.

There appeared to be a relationship between the motivational values for childbearing and actual childbearing patterns. This was more true of the internals and the urbans, and true only to a certain extent for the externals and the rurals. Such a finding raises the question of directional influence that values exert on actual behavior as shown by the internals and the urbans. It also raises the question of why this was true only up to a certain extent for the externals and the rurals. For these two groups, externals and rurals, it is possible that such values have not been internalized by them, hence not operative in their behavior or childbearing patterns. There was simply a lack of congruence between values and actual behavior.

Needless to say, there were certain limitations involved in this study. First is the choice of only one depressed area in Metro Manila. Although the justification for doing so was cited earlier in the study, still it would be better if more depressed areas distributed in different parts of Metro Manila could have been involved. Caution is therefore suggested in generalizing the results of this investigation to other urban areas and to other rural areas.

The forced-choice item locus of control instrument appeared to have created some negative reactions and complaints on the part of the respondents as reported by the interviewers. Some of the respondents would sometimes stop and say, "wala na bang ibang pagpipilian (are there no other choices)". This indicates that given more choices as in a 4-point or 6-point scale, the respondents could have given answers that were closest or most compatible to their own. Another suggestion in the use of the locus of control would be to try out the 2-dimensional aspects of externality (IPV Scale by Levenson, 1974) namely, control by powerful others and control by chance. After all, people do not necessarily feel controlled only by powerful others or by chance alone.

Perhaps better or more significant results could have turned out in terms of the motivational values if more items would have been developed in those categories that had only four items. Or, similar categories could have been put together to see how the groups differed in terms of the lumped categories of the motivational values.

The presence of kin, neighbors or friends during the interviews raises some doubts as to the validity of the answers given by the respondents. There were times when respondents would not want to give any answers and kin or friends would simply blurt out their answers and some of the respondents would simply say, "pareho na rin ng sinabi niya" even if asked again for the second or third time. The use of the technique of pagtatanung-tanong could be a better technique instead of the usual structured interviews.

In the light of the findings of the study the following are given as recommendations. First, a longitudinal study be conducted comparing values attached to children to see if there are any changes and what caused such changes, if there are any. And also to find out if such changes are reflected in their childbearing patterns. Second, a study involving a sample of husband and wife, since childbearing decisions are jointly made by both partners. Third, before launching any government program offering alternatives to values derived from having children, a wide-scale survey be conducted to surface alternatives from the parents themselves. In this way, offered alternatives become more meaningful rather than being imposed by agencies. An upgrading of educational and

career opportunities for low-income women could be provided as alternative sources of companionship and fulfillment. This means providing women with meaningful job opportunities; thus they will find meaning and direction in life and not just rely on children for these values. The government could work out schemes for economic support and security in old age.

In this way, dependence on children for old-age support could be minimized, if not totally eradicated. Fourth, to develop intervention programs to enhance and heighten internality, that people should only have and desire children they are responsible for and not simply leave children to chance or fate. The concept of "what I can do for my child and not what I expect from my child or what he can do for me" should be communicated to the people in the most meaningful way possible.

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APPENDIX A

Table 1

Income Distribution

Pesos	Rural (100)	%	Urban (100)	%
Less than 100	24	24.00	24	24.00
100 - 199	34	34.00	18	18.00
200 - 299	18	18.00	16	16.00
300 - 399	12	12.00	15	15.00
400 - 499	5	5.00	3	3.00
500 - 599	1	1.00	10	10.00
600 - 699	2	2.00	7	7.00
700 - 799	0	-	0	-
800 - 899	1	1.00	2	2.00
900	0	-	3	3.00
No income	3	3.00	2	2.00
Average/month	₱ 208.84		₱ 288.17	

APPENDIX B

Table 2

Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category I

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (I vs. E)	.033	1	.033	2.204
Area of Residence (U vs. R)	.008	1	.008	.513
Interaction (A x B)	.001	1	.001	.065
Error	1.533	101	.015	
Total	1.575	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category I: Magdadala ng pangalan at magsasakatuparan ng methiin ng mga magulang

Table 3

Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category II

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (I vs. E)	.027	1	.027	2.25
Area of Residence (U vs. R)	.001	1	.001	.08
Interaction (A x B)	.012	1	.012	1.00
Error	1.202	101	.012	
Total	1.242	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category II: Katulong sa paglanda, sa gawaing pambahay at sa pagpapaaral ng mga kapatid

Table 4
Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category IV

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (I vs. E)	.035	1	.035	2.57
Area of Residence (U vs. R)	.004	1	.004	.294
Interaction (A x B)	.015	1	.015	1.102
Error	1.375	101	.0136	
Total	1.429	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category IV: Pagdulot ng kasiyahan at pagmamahal

Table 5
Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category V

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (I vs. E)	.007	1	.007	.241
Area of Residence (U vs. R)	.003	1	.003	.103
Interaction (A x B)	.002	1	.002	.068
Error	2.958	101	.029	
Total	2.970	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category V: Pagbibigkis ng mag-asawa

Table 6

Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category VII

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (I vs. E)	.045	1	.045	1.607
Area of Residence (U vs. R)	.026	1	.026	.928
Interaction (A x B)	.002	1	.002	.071
Error	2.863	101	.028	
Total	2.936	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category VII: Tungkulin sa lipunan

Table 7

Relationship between
Locus of Control, Area of Residence
and MVSC Category VIII

SV	SS	df	MS	F
Main Effects				
Locus of Control (I vs. E)	.020	1	.020	1.764
Area of Residence (U vs. R)	.005	1	.005	.294
Interaction (A x B)	.000	1	.000	.000
Error	1.754	101	.017	
Total	1.779	104		

*p < .05

MVSC Category VIII: Pagkilala nang mabuti sa sarili
sa pagiging magulang

APPENDIX C

CONTINGENCY TABLES

Table 8

Birth of the First Child
after Marriage

	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
less than a year	29	23	52	27	25	52
1+ - 2+ years	22	28	50	24	26	50
Total	51	51	102	51	51	102

$$X^2 = 1.412, df=1 \qquad X^2 = .56, df=1$$

Table 9

Heard about
Family Planning

	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
Oo	48	47	95	49	46	95
Hindi	4	6	10	3	7	10
Total	52	53	105	52	53	105

$$X^2 = .399, df=1 \qquad X^2 = 1.68, df=1$$

Table 10

Number of Children
for a
Small Family

Number of Children	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
1 - 2	21	26	47	28	19	47
3 - 4	27	23	50	20	30	50
5 - 6	4	4	8	4	4	8
Total	52	53	105	52	53	105

$$\chi^2 = .868, df=2$$

$$\chi^2 = 3.709, df=2$$

Table 11

Number of Children
for a
Big Family

Number of Children	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
2 - 4	8	8	16	10	6	16
5 - 7	24	17	41	25	16	41
8 - 10	9	17	26	8	18	26
11+	6	7	13	4	9	13
Total	47	49	96	47	49	96

$$\chi^2 = 3.68, df=3$$

$$\chi^2 = 8.71^*, df=3$$

$$*p < .05$$

Table 12

Sex Preference

	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
Girl	13	12	25	13	12	25
Boy	13	14	27	9	18	27
No preference	26	27	53	30	23	53
Total	52	53	105	52	53	105
$\chi^2 = .085, df=2$				$\chi^2 = 3.95, df=2$		

Table 13

Family Composition

	I	E	Total	U	E	Total
Male Dominated	12	7	19	11	8	19
Female Dominated	14	6	20	13	7	20
Equal Number	23	33	56	22	34	56
Total	49	46	95	46	49	95
$\chi^2 = 4.01, df=2$				$\chi^2 = 4.18, df=2$		

Table 14

Use of
Family Planning Methods

	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
Oo	22	13	35	22	13	35
Hindi	26	33	59	27	32	59
Total	48	46	94	49	45	94
$\chi^2=3.11, df=1$			$\chi^2=2.58, df=1$			

Table 15

Continuing Use
of Family Planning Methods

	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
Oo	18	9	27	19	8	27
Hindi	3	3	6	2	4	6
Total	21	12	33	21	12	33
$\chi^2 = .591, df=1$			$\chi^2=2.92, df=1$			

Table 16

Difficulty in Conceiving

	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
Oo	14	20	34	18	16	34
Hindi	34	30	64	31	33	64
Total	48	50	98	49	49	98
$\chi^2=1.265, df=1$				$\chi^2= .152, df=1$		

Table 17

Experience of Miscarriage

	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
Oo	19	18	37	17	20	37
Hindi	33	35	68	35	33	68
Total	52	53	105	52	53	105
$\chi^2= .304, df=1$				$\chi^2= .291, df=1$		

Table 18

Desire for Another Child
Affected by Miscarriage

	I	E	Total	U	R	Total
Oo	1	9	10	4	6	10
Hindi	18	9	27	13	14	27
Total	19	18	37	17	20	37

$$\chi^2 = 6.28^*, df=1$$

$$\chi^2 = .224, df=1$$

$$p < .05$$

APPENDIX D

Table 19

Correlations of the MVSC Categories with
Urban Respondents' Actual, Desired, and
Ideal Number of Children

MVSC Category	Actual Number	Number Desired	Ideal Size
I	.1169	.1062	-.0594
II	.1423	.1101	.0026
III	-.0072	.0465	-.0962
IV	.0009	.0074	-.0947
V	.0307	.0013	-.1916
VI	.0237	.0392	-.1195
VII	.0511	.0406	-.0894
VIII	.0273	.0847	-.0054
IX	.0387	-.0200	-.0794

Table 20

Correlations of the MVSC Categories with
Rural Respondents' Actual, Desired, and
Ideal Number of Children

MVSC Category	Actual Number	Number Desired	Ideal Size
I	.1216	.1448	.1119
II	.1355	.1001	.0146
III	-.0787	-.0033	.0227
IV	.0276	-.0690	-.0325
V	.1173	.0683	.1611
VI	.0503	.0657	.0401
VII	.1881	.1009	.0062
VIII	.0165	.0855	-.0037
IX	.1230	.1354	.0706

Table 21

Correlations of the MVSC Categories with
External Respondents' Actual, Desired, and
Ideal Number of Children

MVSC Category	Actual Number	Number Desired	Ideal Size
I	-.0706	-.0214	-.0061
II	.1190	.1324	.0396
III	-.1224	-.0716	-.0948
IV	-.0823	-.1028	-.0498
V	-.0300	-.0331	.0709
VI	.0033	-.0612	-.0974
VII	.0664	.0125	-.0552
VIII	-.0183	.0715	.0719
IX	.0720	.0058	.0289

SEAPRAP

THE SOUTHEAST ASIA POPULATION RESEARCH AWARDS PROGRAM

PROGRAM OBJECTIVES

- * To strengthen the research capabilities of young Southeast Asian social scientists, and to provide them with technical support and guidance if required.
- * To increase the quantity and quality of social science research on population problems in Southeast Asia.
- * To facilitate the flow of information about population research developed in the program as well as its implications for policy and planning among researchers in the region, and between researchers, government planners and policy makers.

ILLUSTRATIVE RESEARCH AREAS

The range of the research areas include a wide variety of research problems relating to population, but excludes reproductive biology. The following are some examples of research areas that could fall within the general focus of the Program:

- * Factors contributing to or related to fertility regulation and family planning programs; familial, psychological, social, political and economic effects of family planning and contraception.
- * Antecedents, processes, and consequences (demographic, cultural, social, psychological, political, economic) of population structure, distribution, growth and change.
- * Family structure, sexual behaviour and the relationship between child-bearing patterns and child development.
- * Inter-relationships between population variables and the process of social and economic development (housing, education, health, quality of the environment, etc).
- * Population policy, including the interaction of population variables and economic policies, policy implications of population distribution and movement with reference to both urban and rural settings, and the interaction of population variables and law.
- * Evaluation of on-going population education programs and/or development of knowledge-based population education program.

- * Incentive schemes — infrastructures, opportunities; overall economic and social development programs.

SELECTION CRITERIA

Selection will be made by a Program Committee of distinguished Southeast Asian scholars in the social sciences and population. The following factors will be considered in evaluating research proposals:

1. relevance of the proposed research to current issues of population in the particular countries of Southeast Asia;
2. its potential contribution to policy formation, program implementation, and problem solving;
3. adequacy of research design, including problem definition, method of procedure, proposed mode of analysis, and knowledge of literature;
4. feasibility of the project, including time requirement; budget; and availability, accessibility, and reliability of data;
5. Applicant's potential for further development.

DURATION AND AMOUNT OF AWARDS

Research awards will be made for a period of up to one year. In exceptional cases, requests for limited extension may be considered. The amount of an award will depend on location, type and size of the project, but the maximum should not exceed US\$7,500.

QUALIFICATIONS OF APPLICANTS

The Program is open to nationals of the following countries: Burma, Indonesia, Kampuchea, Laos, Malaysia, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam. Particular emphasis will be placed on attracting young social scientists in provincial areas.

Applications are invited from the following:

- * Graduate students in thesis programs
- * Faculty members
- * Staff members in appropriate governmental and other organizations.

Full-time commitment is preferable but applicants must at least be able to devote a substantial part of their time to the research project. Advisers may be provided, depending on the needs of applicants.