

Changing Family and Challenges of Engendering Government Policy in Japan and ASEAN Member Countries

Dyah Mutiarin

Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta, Indonesia
Email: dyahmutiarin@umy.ac.id

Naoko Kuwahara

Fukuyama City University, Japan
Email: naokoko_pj2002@yahoo.co.jp

Titin Purwaningsih

Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta, Indonesia
Email: titin.p.widodo@gmail.com

Noraïda Endut

KANITA, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Malaysia
Email: idaman@usm.my

ABSTRACT

This research is aimed to (i) describe the role of women in the family with the issue of family changing (ii) to explore the ASEAN and Japanese government's strategy and policy in protecting women. This research in particular uses Policy Analysis Framework to portrait the trends and engendering policy in anticipate changing family. This research relies on qualitative method analyze of the data trend from statistical reports on family changing trend. It is used to analyze the data trend from statistical reports on family changing trend. The major data on family changing will be drawn from many credible sources such as: (a) national population census data and official statistics published by national governments over five years; and (b) country reports, government in figures (c) country population figures collected. The result shows that patterns and trends in household size and living arrangements in ASEAN Countries is different from Japan. The family changing in Japan highlight: first, the changing in lone parent families is critical issue in Japan due to female vulnerable labor forces. The main problem caused to economic hardship for the lone female parents is the legal status of lone parent households. Second, money for marriage was chosen as the most serious obstacle to marriage by both men and women. Ideology of "I-E" still plays crucial role in Japanese "family" system and its gender relations. "I-E" represents "a quasi-kinship unit with a patriarchal head and members tied to him through real or symbolic blood relationship. Third, the spousal tax benefit in resulted in discouraging many women from seeking jobs. While in ASEAN, the family changing more on tackle issues of poverty, children employment, and fertility birth.

KEYWORDS: Changing family, engendering government policy, pattern and trends

BACKGROUND

Family changing turn into the new rising issues of Asia and on populace and advancement which is tended to in the Post-2015 Development Agenda. As national socio-economics change, Japan's populace will incorporate developing partners of more established persons- key populace bunches with interesting unaddressed necessities. With this statistic change, there are likewise numerous elements impact the family patterns, for example, environmental change, extended urbanization, and progressively portable

populaces are patterns that present new difficulties to guaranteeing that family and people can completely accomplish their rights.

The development programs to anticipate family changing also influenced by poverty which is still remains as governance policy constraints toward decent life for family as well. World Family Map 2014 shown that the percentage of the population living in absolute poverty (on less than 1.25 U.S. dollars a day) is greater than the percentage of the population that is undernourished in almost all Asian and sub-Saharan African countries such as China, India, Indonesia, the Philippines, Ethiopia, Ghana, Kenya, Nigeria, South Africa, Tanzania, and Uganda. Strikingly, in Nigeria 68 percent of the population live on less than 1.25 U.S. dollars a day and 7 percent are undernourished. Though not as extreme, a similar story is taking place in Ghana, where 29 percent of the population live in absolute poverty and less than 5 percent are undernourished. Some countries are able to make combating hunger a high priority among expenditures; in addition, private-sector programs as well as international food aid, food pricing differences, and a country's food distribution infrastructure may help explain these differences (World Family Map, 2014).

One of important issues related to the phenomenon is the women's role changing in the family which is previously limited in domestic affairs. Since the increasing intensity of women's activity, they will perform as money earner beside doing domestic affairs. The changing role of women is a consequence of technology advancement, feminism movement, globalisation, migration and complexity of life needs. Feminism movement has effectively improved the performance of women from internal household affairs to external household affairs including work to earn money. Meanwhile globalization process along to the advancement of technology has provided a large access for women to fill jobs all over the world.

In response to development programs of family changing under poverty circumstances, the government of ASEAN countries have made this journey a reality into three pillars of ASEAN, namely the ASEAN Economic Community, the ASEAN Political Security Community and the ASEAN Socio-cultural Community. Latest economic data have shown that, in general, all member countries, both old and new, have shown remarkable economic growth even though there is a big economic gap between the CMLV (Cambodia, Lao PDR, Myanmar and Viet Nam) and the other six countries (Malaysia, Indonesia, Singapore, Brunei, Thailand and the Philippines).

When economic development takes place in any country, family, as a feature of social institution, has been shown to experience many dimensions of change. Rapid urbanization, for example, has led to the breakdown of the extended family which is very much a form of family in rural communities, into a more nucleated form of family. Gender roles have also been shown to change though certain roles have remained intact, resulting in stress and strains in

family relationships. Migration is a common feature in ASEAN and a gendered phenomenon with serious implications on family dynamics. Yet much still remains to be understood about family in ASEAN.

One of important issues related to the phenomenon is the women's role changing in the family which is previously limited in domestic affairs. Since the increasing intensity of women's activity, they will perform as money earner beside doing domestic affairs. The changing role of women is a consequence of technology advancement, feminism movement, globalisation, migration and complexity of life needs. Feminism movement has effectively improved the performance of women from internal household affairs to external household affairs including work to earn money. Meanwhile globalization process along to the advancement of technology has provided a large access for women to fill jobs all over the world. In addition, migration phenomenon also influences the change role of women. Indonesian women workers (TKW) who worked overseas for several years has social both positive and negative impacts in their family. On one hand, the women workers' activity has contributed significant income for their family, but on the other hand, it also causes family disharmony, such as divorce and infidelity behavior. Finally, the complexity of life needs is also stimulating women to work to complement the husband's earning which is frequently insufficient for everyday living.

RESEARCH QUESTION

Base on this background, this research is aimed to (i) describe the the role of women in the family with the issue of family changing (ii) to explore the ASEAN and Japanese government's strategy and policy in protecting women.

RESEARCH METHOD

According to Maxwell and Chatterji, qualitative research remains an important tool for policy researchers (Maxwell 2004; Chatterji 2005 in Fischer et al, 2007). Qualitative research involves research that uses observational, communicative, and documentary methods in natural settings (Riehl 2001, 116 in Fischer et al, 2007) in an effort to understand the social world.

According to Denzin and Lincoln, it is multi-method in focus, involving an interpretive, naturalistic approach to its subject matter. This means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them. Qualitative research involves the studied use and collection of a variety of empirical methods—case study, personal experience, introspective, life story, interview, observational, historical, interactional, and visual texts—that describe routine and problematic moments in individuals' lives. (1994, 2).

This research will be used to analyze the data trend from statistical reports on family changing trend. The major data on family changing will be drawn from many credible sources

such as: (a) national population census data and official statistics published by national governments over five years; and (b) country reports, government in figures (c) country population figures collected.

LITERATURE REVIEW

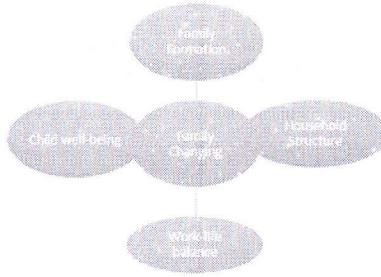
On family changing, the study in 2003 by Quah, has shown that there are five main global trends identified by United Nations experts in the comparative analysis of family formation and family structure. More specifically, UN experts assume that families are (1) facing changes in structure leading towards “smaller size households, delayed marriage and childbearing, increases in divorce rates and single parenthood”; (2) undergoing demographic transformation characterized by “aging”; (3) affected by a rise in migration; (4) suffering the effects of the HIV/AIDS pandemic; and (5) trying to cope with the effects of globalization.

Quah (2008) continued her research on family changing and found that Asia is a region comprised of more than 50 nations and 60 % of the world’s population. It encompasses countries that exemplify the extremities in economic development, fertility, and life expectancy, such as the cases of Japan and Afghanistan. Japan, the beacon of modernity in Asia and one of the wealthiest nations in the world, sharply contrasts with Afghanistan, one of the poorest.

Further Esteve and Liu (2009), explain that a sizeable literature has examined the evolution of the family systems in Asia. Modernization theory predicted that as countries advance economically, the pervasiveness of multigenerational living arrangements will decline as a result of urbanization, economic power, and value in privacy (Goode, 1963; Quah, 2003 in Esteve and Liu, 2009). Nevertheless, Esteve and Liu (2009), stated very little decline has been detected for China, India, and Vietnam, despite their substantial economic development in the past few decades.

To update think about on family changing, The Organization for Economic Co-activity and Development (OECD) led an overview on 2011 on family changing. The outcomes demonstrated that families have changed in the course of recent years. It gives an outline of the adjustments in family arrangement, family unit structure, work-life equalization, and kid prosperity. Fruitfulness rates have been tirelessly low in numerous OECD nations prompting littler families.

Figure 2. Family Changing



Source: OECD, 2011

In family changing, poverty risks are highest in jobless families and lowest amongst dual-earner families. Important gains in female educational attainment and investment in more family-friendly policies have contributed to a rise in female and maternal employment, but long-standing differences in gender outcomes in the labour market still persist.

Family behavioral changes have occurred in a context of major structural changes in economies, education systems, and other institutions (Noriko et al, 2005; Rindfuss et al, 2010). A study lead by East-West Centre researchers found that there are diffusion of selected innovative family behaviors that are rare in Japan today, including childbearing outside of marriage, cohabitation without marriage, remaining unmarried throughout the childbearing years, and use of childcare centers for very young children. A high level of acceptance of non-traditional behaviors can reinforce the diffusion of such behaviors (Noriko et al, 2005; Rindfuss et al, 2010). This study also examines the patterns of change in family behavior and the relationship to changes in economic conditions, education systems, and other institutions in Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and the United States. Behaviors including marriage, childbearing, divorce, cohabitation, gender division of labor, and intergenerational relationships (Noriko et al, 2005; Rindfuss et al, 2010).

Challenges of engendering policy towards family changing

The significance of family changing to policy maker has been featured by The Organization for Economic Co-activity and Development (OECD), it states for what reason should the fate of the family intrigue approach producers? Since it offers them a crystal through which both to consider how society may change over the coming decades, and to be better arranged for those progressions. It is through the lens of the family that multifaceted developments can be explored and perhaps anticipated such as in housing, health, work, welfare, leisure, migration, finance, economy, technology, and so on, helping policy makers to identify upcoming issues and stimulate the debate on long-term policy strategy for society (OECD,2008).

Changes within society will impact on government policies, so will government policies impact on families and young people themselves. While it is always difficult to predict how policies towards housing, education and training, taxation, social benefits, employment, health, media and entertainment etc. will influence family formation and outcomes for young people, the experience of the last fifty years or so of the welfare state may have useful pointers to offer for the future (OECD,2008).

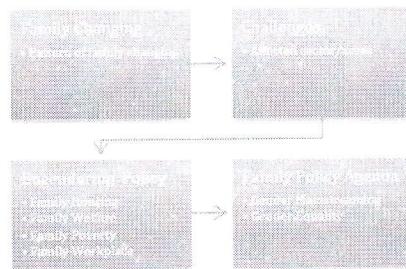
In family, the job of people is similarly imperative and reciprocal. The term of correspondence among ladies and men is a human right, and a precondition for, and a marker of, maintainable individuals focused advancement. Discrimination could imposes large costs on a developing country's capacity to increase economic growth and raise living standards by excluding women or men from access to resources, public services or productive activities.

Engendering policy play crucial role in determining the fair and just distribution of benefits of development to the people. Economic and social policies that fail to take into account gender disparities contribute to the creation of further gaps in the ability between women and men to achieve decent livelihood on an equal basis. These policies include those related to work and employment, tax and budget systems and trade regimes. Structures of governance where women have limited opportunities to influence policies and economic decisions may further exacerbate the situation for women (Endut and Mu-tiarin, 2014).

Gender mainstreaming should implanted out in the policy. The talk about gender fairness as an approach ought to be seen in a pubic arrangement space. Policy will dependably be about open arrangement as component that originates from the procedure of politic framework. Open arrangement shows up from a procedure of data sources transformation that is the interest or support from the encompassing that began from issues or issues developing in the general public.

Theoretical framework

This research resumes the theories using in this conceptual frame work as below:



Research Parameters

1. Family Changing

- a. The structure of families (SF)
 1. Families and Children
 2. Fertility indicators
 3. Marital and partnership status
- b. The labour market position of families (LMF)
 1. Families, children and employment status
 2. Workplace hours and time for caring
- c. Public policies for families and children (PF)
 1. General policies for families with children
 2. Child-related leave
 3. Formal care and education for very young children
 4. Typology of childcare benefits and net parental fees by family type and income level
- d. Child outcomes (CO)
 1. Child health
 2. Child poverty
 3. Education/literacy
 4. Societal participation

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Asean Family Changing

The analysis of Indonesian data is basically an analysis of trend in socio economics and gender data based on World Bank Data, from the years 2005-2015. All the data use in this analysis were taken from the official World Bank website.

To provide the regional background and to position Indonesia in comparison to its ASEAN neighbors, the table below provides the basic overview of the total population for

each country by sex.

Table 1. Total population for each country by sex

Country	Total Population	Male Population		Female Population	
		Number	%	Number	%
Brunei	417,211	216,600	51.92%	200,600	48.08%
Cambodia	15,578,000	7,599,000	48.78%	7,979,000	51.22%
Malaysia	31,100,111	16,112,111	51.66%	15,074,111	48.34%
Myanmar	53,897,000	26,335,000	48.86%	27,562,000	51.14%
Singapore	5,955,229	1,929,229	49.05%	4,026,000	50.95%
Thailand	67,961,000	33,466,000	49.29%	34,465,000	50.71%

Source: Brunei Darussalam, Department of Economic Planning and Development. Brunei Darussalam Statistical Year Book 2015; United Nations, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2015). World Population Prospects: The 2015 Revision, custom data acquired via website; Department of Statistics Malaysia. The Labour Force Survey Report 2015; Singapore Department of Statistics.

The total population and percentage of male and female population in Brunei, Cambodia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore and Thailand are shown in the table. Thailand has the largest population, followed by Myanmar, Malaysia, Cambodia, Singapore, and Brunei has the least population. Among the six countries, female population in Cambodia (51.22%), Myanmar (51.14%), Singapore (50.95%) and Thailand (50.71%) are slightly higher than their male population.

Table 2: Women in Parliament, Women in Ministerial positions, and Years with Female Head of State for Last 50 Years

	Country	Female	Male	Female to Male ratio (truncated)	Rank
Women in Parliament	Singapore	24	76	0.31	59
	Cambodia	20	80	0.26	73
	Malaysia	10	90	0.12	118
	Brunei Darussalam	6	94	0.07	130
	Thailand	6	94	0.06	132
	Myanmar				
Women in Ministerial positions	Cambodia	7	93	0.08	123
	Malaysia	6	94	0.06	130
	Singapore	6	94	0.06	131
	Thailand	4	96	0.04	136
	Brunei Darussalam	0	100	0	139
	Myanmar				
Years with female head of state (last 50 years)	Thailand	3	47	0.06	38
	Cambodia	0	50	0	68
	Malaysia	0	50	0	68
	Singapore	0	50	0	68
	Brunei Darussalam	0	50	0	68
	Myanmar				

Source: The Global Gender Gap Index 2016

Table 2 shows the rankings and truncated female to male ratio (F/M ratio) of Brunei, Cambodia, Malaysia, Myanmar, Singapore and Thailand in the three variables of Political Empowerment (sub-index of the Global Gender Gap Index). The three variables include Women in Parliament, Women in Ministerial positions, and Years with Female Head of State for Last 50 Years. These three variables were included to evaluate the gender gap in Political Empowerment across countries.

Singapore ranked the highest position among the 5 countries in the variable "Women in Parliament" (Global Rank= 59, F/M ratio = 0.31), followed by Cambodia (Global Rank = 73, truncated F/M ratio = 0.26), Malaysia (Global Rank = 118, F/M ratio = 0.12), and Brunei (Global Rank = 130, F/M ratio = 0.07). Thailand shows the biggest gender gap for seats in Parliament, as compared to the other 4 countries (Global Rank = 132, F/M ratio = 0.06). Myanmar was not in the ranking due to the absent of latest statistics.

For the variable "Women in Ministerial Positions", Cambodia fall at the first place with highest ranking (Global Rank = 123, F/M ratio = 0.08), indicating that gender gap in

Ministerial Positions in Cambodia is the smallest among the 5 countries. Both Malaysia and Singapore have the same F/M ratio in Ministerial Positions, which is 0.06, putting them at Global Rank 130 and Global Rank 131, respectively. Thailand ranked lower than Malaysia and Singapore (Global Rank = 136, F/M ratio = 0.04), while Brunei do not have any female holding Ministerial Positions, putting it at Global Rank 139, lowest among the 5 countries. Myanmar was not in the ranking due to the absent of latest statistics.

Lastly, referring to the variable “Years with Female Head of State for The Last 50 Years”, among the 5 countries, Thailand ranked the highest position with three out of fifty leader of state are women (Global Rank = 38, F/M ratio = 0.06). The other 4 countries have 0 female head of state for the past 50 years, putting all of them at Global Rank 68. Myanmar was not in the ranking due to the absent of latest statistics.

Table 3: The Global Gender Gap Index 2016

Country	Global Index Rank	Economic Participation and Opportunity		Educational Attainment		Health and Survival		Political Empowerment		
		Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	Score	Rank	
Singapore	55	0.712	17	0.793	95	0.975	121	0.967	97	0.111
Thailand	71	0.699	22	0.77	74	0.99	1	0.98	131	0.057
Brunei Darussalam	103	0.669	56	0.696	70	0.992	130	0.966	141	0.021
Malaysia	106	0.666	80	0.658	89	0.985	109	0.969	134	0.051
Cambodia	112	0.658	77	0.659	128	0.897	1	0.98	108	0.098
Myanmar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Source: The Global Gender Gap Index 2016

Table 3 shows the Global Gender Gap Index (GGGI) 2016, which has ranked the countries according to their current gender gap in different field. The Global Gender Gap was indexed based on women participation in 4 sub-indexes: Economic Participation and Opportunity, Educational Attainment, Health and Survival and Political Empowerment. Referring to the global index, among the 5 countries (Myanmar was not ranked in the Global Gender Gap Index 2016), Singapore ranked the highest (Global Rank = 55), followed by Thailand (Global Rank = 71), Brunei (Global Rank = 103), Malaysia (Rank 106), and Cambodia fall at the lowest rank (Global Rank = 112). The Global rankings suggests that after taking account into all the sub-indexes, among these 5 countries, the overall gender gap is the least in Singapore and the most in Cambodia.

The sub-index Economic Participation and Opportunity was ranked based on 5 variables (in ratio): female labour force participation over male value, wage equality between women and men for similar work, female estimated earned income over male value, female legislators, senior officials and managers over male value, and, female professional and technical workers over male value. In this sub-index, Singapore is at the highest

rank (Global Rank = 17), indicating that its gender gap in this sub-index is the lowest as compared to the other 4 countries. Thailand took the second place in this ranking (Global Rank = 22), followed by Brunei (Global Rank = 56) and Cambodia (Global = Rank 77). Malaysia ranked the lowest among the 5 countries in women economic participation and opportunity sub-index.

The sub-index Educational Attainment was ranked based on 4 variables (in ratio): female literacy rate over male value, female net primary enrolment rate over male value, female net secondary enrolment rate over male value and female gross tertiary enrolment ratio over male value. In this sub-index, Brunei Darussalam was placed at the highest rank (Global Rank = 70), indicating that its gender gap in this sub-index is the lowest as compared to the other 4 countries, followed by Thailand (Global Rank = 74), Malaysia (Global Rank = 89), Singapore (Global Rank = 95) and lastly Cambodia (Global Rank = 128), which is the lowest rank among 5 countries, suggesting great gender gap in terms of educational attainment.

The sub-index Health and Survival was ranked based on 2 variables (in ratio): Female over male ratio at birth and female healthy life expectancy over male value. In this sub-index, both Thailand and Cambodia fall at the highest rank (Global Rank = 1), suggesting both countries have low or close to none gender gap in Health and Survival issues. Next, among the 5 countries, Malaysia took the second place (Global Rank = 109), followed by Singapore (Global Rank = 121) and Brunei (Global Rank = 130).

The last sub-index for the Global Gender Gap Index 2016 is Political Empowerment. This sub-index was ranked based on 3 variables (in ratio): females with seats in parliament over male value, females at ministerial level over male value, and number of years with a female head of state for the last 50 years over male value. In this sub-index, Singapore ranked the highest among 5 countries (Global Rank = 97), followed by Cambodia (Global Rank = 108), Thailand (Global Rank = 131), Malaysia (Global Rank = 134), lastly Brunei (Global Rank = 141). The rankings suggest that among these 5 countries, the gender gap in political empowerment is the least in Singapore and the most in Brunei.

Table 4: Marital Status by Sex Aged 15 Years & Over

Country	Marital Status							
	Male (%)				Female (%)			
	Never Married	Married	Widowed	Divorced/ Separated	Never Married	Married	Widowed	Divorced/ Separated
Brunei Darussalam	39.27%	58.34%	1.33%	1.06%	34.86%	56.68%	4.91%	3.55%
Cambodia	35.31%	62.53%	1.30%	0.86%	27.40%	61.29%	8.38%	2.93%
Malaysia	37.83%	59.76%	1.91%	0.50%	32.21%	59.44%	7.20%	1.15%
Myanmar	32.26%	61.40%	3.10%	1.36%	29.54%	57.79%	10.42%	2.04%

Singapore	33.57%	61.83%	1.86%	2.74%	29.78%	57.32%	8.46%	4.44%
Thailand	29.47%	63.92%	3.12%	3.48%	22.35%	61.35%	11.48%	4.80%

(Source: Brunei Darussalam, Department of Economic Planning and Development. Brunei Darussalam Statistical Year Book 2015)

(Source: National Statistical Office, Ministry of Information and Communication Technology, Thailand. The Labor Force Survey Quarter 3 July-September 2016)

(Source: National Institute of Statistic Cambodia. Cambodia Inter-Censal Population Survey 2013)

(Source: United Nations Statistics Division)

(Source: Singapore Department of Statistics)

The table above shows the marital status of citizen aged 15 years and above of each countries by biological sex between year 2013-2015. Overall, the percentage of “never married” male (aged 15+) is higher than the percentage of “never married” female (ages 15+) across the six countries. The percentage of “married” male is higher than the “married” female, same patterns appear in all six countries. However, when it comes to “widowed”, the percentage of “widowed” female is higher than the percentage of “widowed” male across the six countries. Also, the percentage of “divorced/separated” female is higher than the percentage of “divorced/separated” male across the six countries. Brunei has the highest percentage of “never married” male and female as compared to the other 5 countries. Thailand has the highest percentage of “married” male and female as compared to the other 5 countries. Both Thailand and Myanmar have relatively higher percentage of “widowed” male and female as compared to other countries. In Thailand, 3.12% of the male population and 11.48% of the female population are widowed. While in Myanmar, 3.10% of male population and 10.42% of female population are widowed. Singapore has the highest percentage of “divorced/ separated” female (4.44% of female population), while Thailand has the highest percentage of “divorced/ separated” male (3.48% of male population), among the 6 countries.

Table 6. Female Healthy Life Expectancy over Male

Country	Female	Male	Female to	F/M ratio	Rank
			Male ratio	(truncated)	
Thailand	69	63	1.1	1.06	1
Cambodia	64	60	1.07	1.06	1
Malaysia	66	63	1.05	1.05	75
Singapore	78	75	1.04	1.04	92
Brunei Darussalam	69	68	1.01	1.01	137
Myanmar	-	-	-	-	-

Source: The Global Gender Gap Index 2016

Table 6 shows the truncated female healthy life expectancy over male (F/M) ratio in six countries. In the Global Gender Gap Index 2016, female in five countries (except Myanmar) have higher healthy life expectancy compared to male. Both Thailand and Cambodia

scored Rank 1 in female healthy life expectancy over male ratio with the truncated ratio of 1.06. Next to the two countries are Malaysia (Global Rank = 75, F/M ratio = 1.05) and Singapore (Global Rank = 92, F/M ratio = 1.04). Brunei scored lowest female healthy life expectancy over male ratio among the 5 countries (Global Rank = 137, F/M ratio= 1.01). Myanmar was not in the ranking due to the absent of latest statistics.

JAPAN FAMILY CHANGING

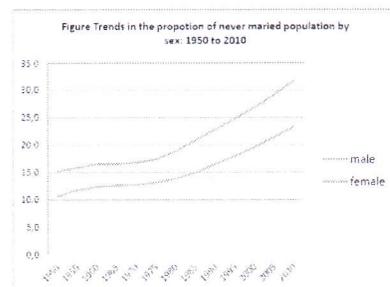
The size of household becomes smaller and “the number of households with 3 persons or less shows an upward trend while the number of household with 4 persons and over shows a downward trend since 1995”: the households with 2 persons and 3 persons account for 27.2% and 18.2%, respectively, and 4 persons accounts for 14.4%, in 2010 (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications of Japan, 2010).

There were about 4.5 million lone parents with kids’ family units in Japan in 2010, a figure which has developed from 3.5 million of every 2000 to 4.0 million out of 2005 and after that further to 2010 (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications of Japan, 2010). The expansion of around 1 million somewhere in the range of 2000 and 2010 is measurably noteworthy. Lone parents with kids’ families spoken to 24% of all families of family unit with youngsters in 2010, higher than 19% out of 2000 and 22% out of 2005. In 2010, ladies represented 85% of lone parents with youngsters and men the rest of the 15 %.

Marriage as option

In 2010, the standardized data for marital status (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications of Japan, 2010), the proportion of the never-married men and women, and the proportion of the divorced men and women showed an upward trend.

Figure 1. Figure Trends in the propotion of never married population by sex: 1950 to 2010



(Source: Statistics Bureau, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, *Summary of Results of Population Census of Japan 2010*, p.396.)

Table 7. Trends in the number of Marriage and Divorces: 1950 to 2010

	'1950	'1960	'1970	'1980	'1985	'1990	'1995	2000	2005	2010
Number of marriages	115	86	109	115	130	122	192	198	114	100
Number of divorces	84	69	90	142	161	150	199	204	202	211

Benefits of single life which never-wedded men picked were (1) freedom of activity and way of life (69.7%), (2) no obligation regarding supporting a family so can relax (26.7%), (3) prosperity (25.2%), (4) simpler to keep up an extensive variety of kinship (17.3%), (5) opportunity in association with the contrary sex (7.2%), (6) more decision in living condition (6.3%), (7) having the capacity to proceed with cozy associations with ebb and flow family (3.4%), and (8) keeping up social association through work (2.8%) in 2015 (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, 2016). Benefits of single life which never-wedded ladies picked were (1) freedom of activity and way of life (75.5%), (2) less demanding to keep up an extensive variety of kinship (25.8%), (3) no duty regarding supporting a family so can relax (19.8%), (4) prosperity (16.2%), (5) having the capacity to proceed with cozy associations with ebb and flow family (10.6%), and (6) keeping up social association through work (9.8%), (7) more decision in living condition (6.0%), and (8) opportunity in association with the contrary sex (4.9%) in 2015 (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, 2016). The far most noteworthy extent of never-wedded the two men (more than 2 to 3 people) and ladies (more than 3 to 4 people) picked opportunity of activity and way of life as value of single life.

Snags to marriage which never-wedded men picked were (1) cash for marriage (43.3%), (2) habitation for wedded life (21.2%), (3) occupation and work (14.5%), (4) school and scholarly accomplishment (11.1%), (5) endorsement from guardians (8.5%), (6) age-related issues (4.7%), (7) living with and supporting guardians (4.6%), and (8) wellbeing related issues (2.2%) in 2015 (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, 2016). Hindrances to marriage which never-wedded ladies picked were (1) cash for marriage (41.9%), (2) occupation and work (19.9%), (3) home for wedded life (15.3%), (4) endorsement from guardians (14.3%), (5) school and scholarly accomplishment (12.8%), (6) living with and supporting guardians (6.5%), (7) age-related issues (4.5%), and (8) wellbeing related issues (2.8%) in 2015 (National Institute of Population and Social Security Research, 2016). Cash for marriage was picked as the most genuine snag to marriage by the two people.

Ideology of “I-E”

Ideology of “I-E” still plays crucial role in Japanese “family” system and its gender relations. “I-E” represents “a quasi-kinship unit with a patriarchal head and members tied to him through real or symbolic blood relationship” (Sugimoto, 2010). In the pre-World War II Civil Code, the head was equipped with almost absolute power household matters

including the choice of marriage partners for his family members. "The headship of ie was transferred from one generation to another through primogeniture, whereby the first son normally inherited most of the property, wealth, and privilege of the household as well as ie headship. As a general rule, the second son and younger sons established their branch families, which remained subordinate to the head family. For the continuation of ie arrangements, it was not unusual for a family without a son to adopt a boy from a different family. (Sugimoto, 2010)" The amended Civil Code after the World War II considerably dismantled the patriarchal system under the introduction of gender equality. The ideology of "I-E", however, remained as an undercurrent of family life in Japan.

The provision of the amended Civil Code forced marriage couple to use the same surname reflects the "I-E" ideology under which marriages unions between not individuals but families. During the Meiji era (1868-1912), when the law was introduced, it was common for a woman to leave her family to become part of her husband's family. While the law does not stipulate which name married couples shall adopt, in practice almost women take their husband's name reflected by Japanese male-dominated society, and many women, especially professionals, continue to use their maiden names at work and their legal and married surname in official documents. The issue of the married couple's surname had divided public opinion for a long time in Japan. A poll by the liberal Asahi newspaper found that 52% of respondents believed couples should have the right to choose, while 34% opposed the move; and, with option, more than 70% answered that they would adopt a single family name (The Japan Times, 2015).

CONCLUSION

1. The approaches which focused to expand pay of poor family conveys better effect to female work interest, however the neediness of lone parent families end up basic issue.
2. The information of lone family destitution have suggestion on sex imbalances. The circumstance of female lone parent family units is more terrible than it is for lone male parent families because of female powerless work powers.
3. Family changing example appeared on the connection among family and family specialists, richness level, time of first marriage, high school mother, and contributing family laborers.
4. The working populace as a key driver of the economy is contracting in Japan in view of the declining birthrate and quick maturing populace.
5. Japan have gained noteworthy ground in advancing gender mainstreaming worldview. Anyway the difficulties still stay in female political support, and female work constrain cooperation.

6. Japan Government's Gender Strategy organize the significance of securing rights, opportunity and welfare of its subjects (people). The arrangement is to advance gender equality in the family, society and country.

REFERENCE

- ASEAN Economic Community Blueprint. (2008). Association of Southeast Asian Nations.
- AUSAID. (2007). Gender Equality In Australia's Aid Program – Why And How ?
- Bauer, M. W., & Gaskell, G. (2000). *Qualitative Researching*. London: Sage Publications
- Brasor, M. T. P. (2015, November 7). No relief in sight for Japan's poor single-parent families. Retrieved from The Japan Times: <http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2015/11/07/business/no-relief-sight-japans-poor-single-parent-families/#.WN5Ifxhh2u0>
- Chen, S., & Ravallion, M. (2011). The Developing World Is Poorer Than We Thought, But No Less Successful in the Fight Against Poverty." *Quarterly Journal of Economics* 125(4): 1577–1625.
- Denzin, N. K. & Lincoln, Y. (2002). *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials*. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications.
- Endut, N., & Mutiarin, D. (Eds). (2015). *Towards good governance, leadership and decent livelihood for women: some experiences of Malaysia and Indonesia*. PustakaPelajar, Yogyakarta.
- Esteve, A., & Liu, C. (2009). European Research Council, WorldFam project (ERC-2009-StG-240978).
- Fischer, F., Miller, G. J., & Sidney, M. S. (eds). (2007). *Handbook of Public Policy Analysis Theory, Politics, and Methods*. CRC Press Taylor & Francis Group.
- Goode, W. (1963). *World Revolution and Family Patterns*. New York, The Free Press of Glencoe.
- Grindle, M. S. (1980). *Politics and Policy Implementation in the Third World*, Princeton University Press, New Jersey.
- Kagitcibasi, C. (2002). A Model of Family Change in Cultural Context. *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 6(3). <http://dx.doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1059>
- Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications of Japan. (2010). *Summary of the Results*

of Population Census of Japan 2010. Statistic

Moving too slowly towards an ASEAN Economic Community. 14 October 2014, Jakarta Post.

National Institute of Population and Social Security Research. (2016). The Fifteenth Japanese National Fertility Survey in 2015 Marriage Process and Fertility of Married Couples Attitudes toward Marriage and Family among Japanese Singles. Survey.

Neves, B. B., & Amaro, F. (2011). Family Diversity and Gender, *Journal Of Comparative Family Studies*, Volume XXXII September-October Number 5, 2011.

Office for National Statistic of UK. (2015). Families and Households. Statistical bulletin.

Quah, S. R. (2008). *Families in Asia: Home and Kin*. 2nd ed. Routledge.

Quah, S. R. (2003). Major Trends Affecting Families in East and Southeast Asia, Programme on the Family Division for Social Policy and Development Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations.

Rindfuss, R. D., Choe, M. K., Kabamalan, M. M. M., Tsuya, N. O., & Bumpass, L. L. (2010). Order amidst change: Work and family trajectories in Japan. *Advances in Life Course Research* 15:76-88. <http://doi.org/10.1016/j.alcr.2010.02.001>.

Sugimoto, Y. (2010). *The Introduction to Japanese Society (Vol. 3)*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The Japan Times. (2015, December 16). Japan Upholds Rule that Married Couples Must Have Same Surname. Retrieved from The Japan Times.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2008). *The Future of the Family to 2030. A Scoping Report*.

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD). (2011). *Doing Better for Families*.

Tsuya, N. O., Bumpass, L. L., Choe, M. K., & Rindfuss, R. R. (2005). Is the gender division of work changing in Japan? *Asian Population Studies* 1(1): 47-67./p>

World Family Map. (2014). *Mapping Family Change And Child Well-Being Outcomes*. Doha International Family Institute, Institute for Family Studies, Focus Global, and the Social Trends Institute.