BIBLIOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

1. CONTROL NUMBER	2. SUBJECT CLASSIFICATION (695)
PN-AAH-805	SEOC-0000-G732

3. TITLE AND SUBTITLE (240)
Involvement by choice; the role of women in development

4. PERSONAL AUTHORS (100)
Illo, J. F. I.

5. CORPORATE AUTHORS (101)
Inst. of Philippine Culture

6. DOCUMENT DATE (110)	7. NUMBER OF PAGES (120)	8. ARC NUMBER (170)
1977	224p. 226p.	RP301.412.I29

9. REFERENCE ORGANIZATION (130)
IPC

10. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES (500)

11. ABSTRACT (950)

12. DESCRIPTORS (920)

Women	Philippines
Development	Bicol, Philippines
Development strategy	Participation
Women in development	Household surveys
River basins	

13. PROJECT NUMBER (150)

14. CONTRACT NO.(140)	15. CONTRACT TYPE (140)
AID-492-1205-T	

16. TYPE OF DOCUMENT (160)

AID 590-7 (10-79)

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3 1 4 2
1 2 4

INVOLVEMENT BY CHOICE:
The Role of Women in Development

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INVOLVEMENT BY CHOICE

The Role of Women in Development

Final report submitted to the U.S. Agency for International Development (Manila) by the Social Survey Research Unit (Naga City), Institute of Philippine Culture in May 1977

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THE INSTITUTE OF PHILIPPINE CULTURE is a research organization that studies local problems of development in the hope of promoting a better understanding of Filipino ways of life.

Its approach is broadly interdisciplinary, for it knows that only the combined efforts of many arts and sciences can hope to reveal some part of the mystery that is man.

It starts with the assumption that there are, in fact, shared and patterned ways of thinking and doing, of valuing and feeling, that are characteristically Filipino.

It operates on the principle that these qualities, with their local and other variations, can be discovered through patient investigation prosecuted in an orderly fashion by members of various social-science and humanities disciplines working in close cooperation with one another.

It is inspired by the conviction that the knowledge derived from this effort will be of transcendental importance for all those who must reckon with the cultural backgrounds of the Filipinos they serve.

Since its founding in 1960, the IPC has undertaken 141 research projects. The 100th of such projects inaugurated a series of field studies to be undertaken by the newly-created Social Survey Research Unit, a joint activity of the IPC and the Research and Service Center, Ateneo de Naga. This private research organization was contracted by the Bicol River Basin Council in August 1973 to serve the social-science research needs of the Plans and Programs Division of the Bicol River Basin Development Program.

The study of womanpower described here represents one of the research studies conducted by the SSRU. It aims to generate accurate information on the situation of women and, in particular, their roles --actual and potential--in the Bicol River Basin. Stressing the social soundness approach, it proposes strategies for involving women in development efforts. Through these findings and analyses, the IPC strives to fulfill its mandate of promoting a better understanding of Filipino life, particularly of its more disadvantaged sectors.

FOREWORD

International Women's Year in 1975 brought to the world's attention the problems that half of the human population face simply because they are female. At the same time it emphasized the numerous and varied contributions to society women were already making and still hope to make. Whatever one's assessment of the meeting in Mexico itself, there is little doubt that the United Nations-sponsored gathering gave a new impetus to the conscious examination of women's roles and ways in which they could be revitalized to benefit family, community, workplace and nation, as well as the individual woman herself.

Understandably, the most avid students of women have been women themselves. Virtually no Filipina social scientist can escape what has come to be seen as her distinct responsibility--to investigate some aspect of the Filipino woman's situation and to recommend ways of improving it. Nor did the Filipina social scientist in fact want to evade this task. For years she had been undertaking research projects that called for interviewing both males and females; but like her male colleagues, rarely had she shown concern for women as a separate group with its own particular interests. She did not stop to consider that the development projects she enthusiastically supported as beneficial for the community as a whole might actually depress the situation of women. A case in point were the financial management training programs given to male farmers even though the farm woman had actually taken charge of home finances for as long as anyone could remember. Hence, the men advanced--a desirable happening in itself, of course--but at the expense of the women, who remained untrained in their own given area of skills.

In any event, Filipina social scientists (with a few men among them) are now redressing the wrongs they have inflicted upon their own sex in the past. They are currently giving particular attention to the behavior, attitudes, and values of women as expressed by the women themselves, and as affected by men's behavior, attitudes, and values. The influence of social institutions and the social system as a whole have also come under careful scrutiny.

Jeanne Frances I. Illo, Chief of Operations of the IPC's Social Survey Research Unit in Naga City, brings to the study of womanpower in the Bicol River Basin her training both in economics (M.A., University of the Philippines) and in applied sociology and anthropology (M.A.S.A. candidate, Ateneo de Manila University), and her extensive field research experience in the Basin. She reviews extensive data on income, labor force participation, and life concerns gathered from women, men, and unmarried daughters--a total of 288 households scattered in lowland rice-farming, coastal fishing, and urban communities. The results are then woven into a proposal for involving women in development efforts that rests on a social soundness approach. Categorizing Bicol women into the two dominant role-types found there, namely, the traditional pure housewife, and the part-time working mother (the third relatively infrequent type is the career woman), the author presents a profile of each and suggests viable approaches for improving these role situations.

The arguments for or against an interpretation, then, emerge from the data rather than from any previous advocacy position held by the author. Such results should lead to the serious discussion that every social issue deserves, and eliminate or at least downplay the emotionally charged repartee that "the women issue" often engenders

among even the most serious analysts. The needs of the entire Bicol population, as felt and lived by its women, demand a sober reassessment by all no matter what their vested interests are in the roles of women with whom they interact.

Mary Racelis Hollnsteiner
Director
Institute of Philippine Culture

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank the following for their assistance in particular phases of this study:

Frank Lynch, S.J., SSRU Director and IPC Resident Consultant, for his valuable comments on the study designing; Sulpicio S. Roco, Jr., for preparing the sampling design for the third phase of the study, and the sections on children and social participation used in the interview schedule of the third phase; William Pooler of Syracuse University, for his suggestions on the research design, particularly the framework of analysis planned for the study;

Robert C. Salazar, for writing the draft on female concerns which was incorporated into the second chapter of this paper;

Mary Racelis Hollnsteiner, IPC Director, for her substantial comments and suggestions on both style and content of the earlier drafts; Ricardo G. Abad, for his comments on the interpretation of the results of statistical analyses; Elizabeth U. Eviota, for presenting alternative ways of looking at the data;

USAID AD/RD-Bicol staff members, Don F. Wadley and C. Stuart Callison, for their encouragement and helpful suggestions on both the research design and the first draft of this paper; and the representatives of the Bicol River Basin Development Program (BRBDP) who have reviewed the draft copy of this document.

Although all of us have tried to prevent errors from appearing in the final manuscript, some might have escaped our attention. I take full responsibility for any that might have found their way to print.

J. F. I. Illo

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EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The purpose of this study is to generate more accurate information on the situation of women and in particular their roles--actual and potential--in the Bicol River Basin. Considering that they constitute a little over one-half of that population, at least that much attention is due them in the process of generating improved levels of living in the Basin population.

To elicit information particularly on women, and to design a framework within which to view women's role in the changing order of things, we employed a three-stage investigation. The three stages are: depth interview of a panel of purposively selected informants, resident observation in a limited number of Basin households (representing three ecosystems in the area) to generate time-allocation pattern data, and a social survey of 288 married women, 241 of them interviewed with their husbands, and 65 with their daughters.

Of primary importance in any attempt to design a development assistance program for women is the identification of what they feel to be their concerns or problems. Important female concerns elicited pertain to housing and household possession, social services or benefits, their own education, job and income, and the health condition of the family (vis-a-vis increasing prices of commodities including cost of medicine). The first two concerns are directly related to the function of the woman as housekeeper, and her motherly concern over the welfare of her family or household. Her own education seems to be a perceived problem as it relates to the prospective status and esteem she could enjoy (but lacks) in the community. Or, perhaps more importantly, education is viewed as a means of access to economically well-paying employment opportunities which are education-specific. At

present, most women are engaged in any of the following occupations: farm work (usually as an unpaid family worker), petty trading, or a clerical job. Although not actually a concern in the sense of women feeling unhappy about it, marital relationship figures as the most important determinant to female life satisfaction.

Among the married-women population, there are as many working women as there are housekeepers. Not so many, however, participate or serve as members of formal organizations. Moreover, only 25 percent of Bicolano married women have ever visited social service institutions like hospitals, health and family planning centers. The few who are either members or clients can be found among the more urbanized, and among the working women.

Although more women might be enticed to leave the home to participate in outside economic and social activities, they must confront a value system which dictates that the woman's place is the home, and that it is the husband's duty (not hers) to support the family; consequently, a working wife may be taken as a sign of his failure to perform this economic function. Other values stress that men are "naturally superior" to women, and that there are activities which are proper only to the male, or only to the female. These views apply in several spheres--the household, the economy, and the larger society. Significant objective (positive) determinants of female market participation in the Bicol River Basin are women's occupation, socioeconomic status of the household, and husband's participation in housekeeping.

Two alternative female roles dominate the local scene: the pure housewife and the part-time working mother (traditional-transitional) roles. A small number of nontraditional career women make up the third, but still incipient alternative. The career woman role-model differs from the part-time working married woman in two ways: first, the time spent in a career or occupation; second, the constraints

recognized by women when deciding about their occupation or career. While the career woman engages in an occupation full-time, sometimes beyond regular working hours, the part-time working married woman, on the other hand, works either intermittently or less than what is considered full-time (e.g., 40 hours per week) and devotes more time in her housewifely duties. Moreover, while the part-time working married woman tends to accommodate her work within her housekeeping schedule as much as possible, the career woman, for her part, recognizes her housewifely duties but does not consider them to be inimical to her career. In a manner of speaking, she views her career or occupation the same way a man or a single woman would.

Inasmuch as rural and urban women can, and in many instances want to, assume broader roles, programs need to be designed to take these needs into account. Approaches are suggested, for instance, by the International Labour Office (1976: 61):

> One is to enable them to contribute more effectively to the satisfaction of their families' basic needs, within the framework of their traditional responsibilities. The other, which is a fundamental need of the women, themselves, is to ease their work burden while furthering their economic independence and their more equitable integration into the community, beyond the narrow circle of the family.

Clearly there is no single approach suited to all women; rather varying adaptations need to be worked out to accommodate the natural range of possibilities women may seek.

An important point to consider is the freedom of the woman to choose from among alternative roles (i.e., traditional pure housekeeper, traditional-transitional mother and part-time worker, and non-traditional career woman). The duty of the policy-makers, even as the women population is considering its own views, should be to evolve viable options derived from women's consensus and from which the latter can choose. Concomitant to this task of providing alternatives is that

of designing schemes to allow for an increasing choice of the mother-worker role over the pure housewife one. In effect, the enhancement of the role and status of women should take place not just in one area, but in several: home, economy, polity, and society.

Applying the people-leading-experts-following approach to program planning and implementation presented in Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda (1976), we present projects based on the felt needs of the women population, but with the suggestion that these projects be validated and operationalized with the female population of the Bicol River Basin. To accomplish this, some forum should be created to elicit the suggested participation of the women beneficiaries.

Cognizant of the three role-models from which women in the Bicol River Basin may choose, and the women's felt needs, the following projects, which accommodate particularly but not necessarily exclusively those women exemplifying the role-model, are worth considering.

A. <u>Traditional role oriented projects</u>

1. Home management training, including nutrition, health, sanitation, family planning, and child care;

2. Management of basic service-delivery systems at the community level for integrated health services and other resource distribution;

3. Workshops to develop management and leadership skills;

4. Organization of women's associations;

B. <u>Traditional-transitional role oriented projects</u>

5. Adult-education classes, or "manpower" training projects, to develop female skills for income generation such as dressmaking, food preservation, bagmaking, and other cottage-industry skills;

6. Training programs for small-scale business management, particularly involving the marketing or distribution of agricultural and cottage-industry output;

7. Programs to develop and upgrade clerical skills, particularly involving typing, filing, stenography, bookkeeping and accounting;

C. Nontraditional career woman role oriented projects

8. Workshops to develop communications and leadership skills;

9. Special skills development training program covering formerly all-male fields like farm management, general business management, machine technology, and the like;

10. Conscious integration of women in the organization and management of agricultural cooperatives and credit organizations, probably beyond the presently planned vehicle which is the precooperative Samahang Nayon;

11. Day care centers involving community women.

To achieve the goal of wage-equity between the sexes, women's organizations to monitor employment and investment opportunities and practices can be encouraged. A similar, if not the same, organization can also ensure female representation in local political and social organizations both in the roster of leaders and of members. Protection of women's rights and interests might also constitute another of its functions. In any event, they provide an incentive for women's assuming roles outside their domestic or petty economic undertakings.

In view of the strong effect the marital-relationship concern has on woman's overall happiness, programs that are being developed to advance the status and role of women should strive to avoid marital strain as so far as possible. Shifts in status or roles, which are likely to ensue, should be geared toward relationships acceptable to both men and women. For the pure housewives, programs designed to improve the efficiency of women in traditional activities, including child care, home management, and family planning, would be less

threatening and therefore more conducive to marital harmony. Nonetheless, alternatives must also be given them to go beyond this to outside work involvements if she chooses, either on a transitional or career basis. In this case, family life training programs that include men will help overcome the tensions that may arise. At the same time, innovators must expect a certain amount of strain as traditional values appear to be threatened in favor of new adaptations to modern life.

Experts should be careful not to draft purely-for-women employment policies. Since the employment of women, given unchanged socioeconomic structures, could pose a threat to currently unemployed males, the preferred strategy should allow for the creation of opportunities for both women and men. This will contribute to the evolution of more favorable opinions and attitudes toward working mothers. Since the changing roles and status of married women will surely create new sets of relationships and expectations, the focus of development programs should fall equally on women and men. Since uppermost in the minds of married women is domestic peace, any move that disturbs this will achieve less success than will an activity that reinforces the tranquility of the home. The need to orient men as well as women on the positive aspects of broadening women's (and therefore the family's) options is imperative if domestic harmony is to prevail in the face of change.

I. AIMS AND METHODOLOGY

The Filipino woman has been extolled by men and women alike for the strong and decisive role she plays in family, work, and community. Held up for comparison with her Asian, European, and American counterparts, she usually comes off better in the international assessment. Yet many of the glorifying statements made about her stem from stereotypes developed over the years rather than from clearcut empirical information drawn from a broad spectrum of scientific observations.

The overall purpose of this study is to generate more accurate information on the situation of women and in particular their roles--actual and potential--in the Bicol River Basin. Considering that they constitute a little over one-half of the population, at least that much attention is due them in the process of generating improved levels of living in the Basin population.

The growing body of literature on women in the Philippines provides useful guidelines for a study focussing on a particular geographical area.[1] In order to plan programs that integrate women more meaningfully and equitably into the development process, great deal of data needs to be gathered to remedy existing gaps. Accordingly, the Bicol research team undertook a three-pronged study: (1) an intensive and extensive interview of a purposively selected panel of male and

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[1]The literature survey report of Gonzalez and Hollnsteiner (1976) gives some insights on male and female roles in the Philippines, as has Castillo's monograph on women as manpower (1976); Mangahas and Jayme-Ho's female participation model (1976), and several articles emerging from a Laguna study (King 1976, Popkin 1976, Boulier 1976, Jayme-Ho 1976b). These have provided us with more than enough starting information to give this research direction. A similar, but nationwide, survey on the roles and statuses of women was earlier undertaken by the Philippine Social Science Council with the University of the Philippines' Social Research Laboratory under Dr. Rodolfo A. Bulatao.

female informants; (2) observation of several Bicolano households' time allocation patterns over a week's period; and (3) a survey of randomly selected married women, plus their husband and/or adult unmarried daughters, if in residence. This womanpower study began in July 1976 and was completed eight months later.

The following sections discuss the specific objectives of the research and of this paper, strategies used in data collection, and methodologies employed in the analyses of the data collected.

Objectives of the Research

The initial research design sought to accomplish four basic aims: (1) to devise an alternative way of measuring "work," especially in connection with women, for reflection both in labor force participation and in the measurement of family/household income; (2) to identify female roles through people's perceptions and the use of a checklist; (3) to specify female life concerns and their effect on overall life satisfaction; and (4) to design how women can be involved in the development efforts in a manner which is "socially sound."

In line with the people-centered development program planning (and assistance) spelled out by Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda (1976), this report starts out with the description of the beneficiary population and their major concerns. Second, it attempts to spell out the determinants of the orthodox interpretation of "integrating women in the development efforts," and "female participation in the market economy." Third, it specifies the constraints faced by women in their efforts to be involved in their community. These constraints have been categorized as values, attitudes, and certain practices prevailing in the society within which the beneficiaries operate. And lastly, drawing together the separate impressions about women's major concerns, their current conditions, an empirical model for their involvement in the market economy, and the various constraints they face in departing from the

traditional mother-wife-housekeeper roles, we design a framework within which female integration should be understood.

Before proceeding to methodological discussions, a brief description of the study population and of the study area is presented.

Study Population and Area

The topic population of the research on which this paper is based covers opinions, attitudes, values, and behaviors of women in the Bicol River Basin. Two sets of respondent populations were involved. The first is composed of women (unmarried, married, separated, widowed) in different occupations (e.g., professionals, executives, housekeepers, entertainers, leaders, students, unemployed, farm workers). In addition to the female respondents, male informants corresponding to the females in each occupational type were included to elicit opinions and attitudes on women. This series of interview made up the first phase of the study.

The second respondent-population set, used in the social survey portion of the research, is composed of married women, particularly of household heads or, in the case of female-headed households, of married female household heads. Minor respondents in this phase are the husband and one unmarried daughter aged 15 years or older, if available for interview. These minor respondents gave their attitudes and opinions on women in different activities and statuses.

Unless specified, the respondent population we shall be discussing refer to the <u>married women</u> in the Bicol River Basin, or to the second respondent-population set.

The land area covered by the survey is that portion of the Bicol River Basin which is located in the province of Camarines Sur. Included in the sample, however, are only five of the 35 municipalities, and one of the two cities in the said province.

Strictly speaking, however, that is, the Bicol River Basin as an area drained by the Bicol River and its tributaries, includes about 312,000 hectares. Two-thirds of this land are in Camarines Sur, but the Basin extends to both Camarines Norte and Albay.

The six communities which were sampled represent three different development levels found in the province. Thus, Naga City and Goa were selected (the first, purposively; the second, at random) to represent areas with highest level of development. The municipalities of Nabua and Pamplona, on the other hand, were selected at random to represent those with the lowest development level. For a fuller description of the municipal classification by development levels, see Roco and Lynch (1975).

The Research as Conducted

This section is divided between the strategies followed in data collection, and the methods used in the analyses of the data gathered.

Data collection

The data were collected using a combination of approaches, namely: key-informant depth interview, resident observation, and social survey. The first strategy, depth interview, involved intensive interview with representative females and corresponding males. See Table B1 for the distribution of the key informants into the different categories.[2]

A semistructured interview guide was used. Discussions centered on women in three spheres: home, work, and community. In each of these areas, roles and statuses for women and men were specified; rewards and sanctions for acceptable and unacceptable behavior

[2]Tables numbered A1, A2, and so on appear in Appendix A, while those numbered B1, B2, and so on are in Appendix B. Tables without the letter prefix are in the text.

identified; and man-woman relationships delineated. Further, pregnancy and employment histories were collected from 14 married women informants.

The second strategy, resident observation, sought to investigate the time used by women for home and/or market production, and for personal activities. In all, 18 households were observed for at least three days each. Six of these households were in a coastal fishing community; another six, in a lowland rice-farming communiyt; and the last six, from an urban center. This distribution in terms of the area's major economic activity was premised on the probability that community typology such as the one used here, involves significant differences in lifestyle and interaction.

Apart from the community source of livelihood, households were selected using the following criteria: household type (nuclear or extended), household size (about 5 to 7 members), and the socioeconomic status of the household (indicated by house construction materials; Illo and Lynch 1974). Having very few cases to work with, we were constrained to focus our attention on average-sized households. To see possible divergences in time allocation between nuclear and extended families, we made sure that the latter type was represented in our cases. Furthermore, Laguna and Cebu studies (Popkin 1975, 1976; Jayme-Ho 1976a, 1976b; King 1976) have indicated that the husband's income and household wealth affect the participation of women in market production activities, that is, women's time allocation. As a catch-all indicator of socioeconomic status, we used house construction materials (an easily verifiable indicator). See Table B2, for the actual distribution of households observed by the criteria cited above.

Each of the 18 selected households were observed for a total of three to five days. In the urban area, the researcher lived with a selected household during the entire period of observation. In the fishing and rice-farming communities, on the other hand, the researcher

were not able to reside with the target households. Most of the rural cases were lower class, which could not fit an additional person (a nonrelative, at that) into their already cramped dwelling. Instead, the researchers boarded with the more affluent household in the community, and studied the target household during the latter's "working period," extending from 4 in the morning to about 10 at night.

The monitoring instrument for householders activities used in the second phase was patterned after the 1975-76 Laguna study. One day was reckoned from 0001 (1 minute after midnight) to 2400 (midnight). Activities were recorded as they took place, with the starting and ending time noted. Joint activities, or those done simultaneously (e.g., cooking and child care), were identified. All the members of the sampled household were observed. Thus, not only did we measure the mother's time allocation, but also that of the entire household.

The third strategy, social survey, pertains to a small-sample social survey conducted in November-December 1976. A two-step stratified random sample with preclustering was employed for this phase.

The first of the two stratifications divides the population into three types by community complexity: those living in towns of high complexity level, those in medium, and those in low levels, as identified in previous studies (Roco and Lynch 1975). Holding reliability at 95 percent, and the sampling error at 10 percent, a sample of 96 households was required for each level. Basinwide, however, the total sample numbered 288, giving us an allowable error at 6 percent, with the same reliability.

The second stratification step divides the population into three geographically distinct strata: communities within the poblacion or municipal centers, those outside the poblacion within a 5-kilometer travel distance, and those beyond the 5-kilometer limit. Only the first and last groups were included in the sample. The first group

was to represent a respondent type expected to have easy access to opportunities found primarily in municipal centers. Relative to the Bicol River Basin, these are the more urban respondents. The last group served to represent respondent types with the least access to the same opportunities, by extension these may be considered as the most rural.

Given limitations in funding, time, and work force, we felt that a survey in all towns within the Basin lay beyond our means. Moreover, since more similarities than differences were expected of respondents from the same level of complexity, the populations of each level were clustered into municipalities, where a municipality represented the whole level. For our purposes, two towns were randomly chosen to represent each level.

After stratification of the population by levels and within each town, sample barrios were randomly selected from qualified communities. From a household map of each chosen community, the prescribed number of households were randomly chosen. One important criterion was necessary, however, to qualify the household in the sample. In residence must be at least one married or widowed woman who is either the wife of the household head, or is herself the household head. She, if available, is the major respondent. The two minor-respondents --husband and adult daughter--were to be taken only when available. See Tables B3 and B4 for the distribution of the sample respondents by level of development and by community type (urban or rural).

The research instrument used for this phase is a 55-page interview schedule of eight blocks. The questions were grouped into the following areas: Housewife's background data (Block 1); Household data including demographic, labor force, income, and household possessions (Block 2); Decision-making (Block 3); Perceptions, attitudes, and values (Block 4); Time allocation data using recall method (Block 5); Child-rearing practices and value of children (Block 6); Household

expenses and marketing patterns (Block 7); and, Social services, social participation, and household health data (Block 8). Apart from these data, all preschoolers in the sample households were weighed, and their heights taken. The weight taken with the age (in months) information yielded the nutritional status of children.

The minor respondents were asked selected questions in Blocks 3 and 5, while the housewife-respondents were asked all the questions. Interview of a household lasted from a little less than 2 hours (when only the housewife was interviewed) to 3 hours.

Data analysis

The survey (third-phase) results provide the major data for this report. However, the depth interview data were considered and incorporated into the analysis where qualitative information and micro-cases were necessary to dramatize general contentions generated by the survey results. In the following chapters, where first-strategy data are employed, this would be so indicated.

The time allocation materials gathered using the resident observation method appear in Annex 2 of Appendix A, as case studies for three ecosystems in the Bicol River Basin.

The survey data, as analyzed for this paper, had community type as a major control variable. This refers to a modification of the urban-rural distinction as presented above (see page 6). Conceding to the point raised by other researchers over the arbitrariness of labeling "poblaciones" as urban, we segregate the Naga City sample as our "urban" population; the poblaciones sample, "semiurban;" and those living in the sample barrios, "rural." Although recognized as important, we did not consider level of complexity as another control variable. (Instead, we suggest that further studies based on this research might well investigate the possible divergences between communities of different levels of development or complexity.)

The analytical methods employed in this paper are as diverse as the topics considered. Quantitative as well as qualitative analyses have been conducted. Factor, multiple regression, and correlation analyses are applied to one set of data; with another, qualitative analysis illustrates points more dramatically, or presents meaningful insights.

Factor analysis is described by Rummel (1967: 445) as follows.

> Factor analysis is a means by which the regularity and order in phenomena can be discerned. As phenomena co-occur in space or in time, they are patterned; as these co-occurring phenomena are independent of each other, there are a number of distinct patterns.

The patterns, or "factors," which may emerge from factor analyzing a set of variables could, then, be used either as an output by itself, or as an input to further statistical analysis. The treatment of the decision-making factors in Chapter IV illustrates the first-mentioned function of factor analysis results. In this case, the evolved grouping of decision-making issues were analyzed without further recourse to other quantitative tools. The second-mentioned function, for its part, is applied in the discussions of female market participation, where an initial list of 36 variables was subjected to factor analysis. Setting the eigenvalue (mineigen) to 1.0, 11 factors emerged from the 36-variable list. Having reduced the independent variables from 36 to 11, we then proceed to regress the 11 factors to the market time of women.

Multiple regression analysis enables us to specify the direction and the magnitude of some hypothesized relationship between one variable (denoted as dependent variable) and a set of independent variables or "factors." Factor analysis identifies the clusters of intercorrelated variables, regression analysis, for its part, relates these

variable-clusters to the identified dependent variable. The regressions results may, then, be interpreted in terms of the direction of the causation (i.e., direct or inverse, positive or negative) based on the sign of the regression coefficient of the factor, and/or the change in the dependent variable which would ensue given an earlier change in one factor, others assumed to be unchanged. The size of the regression coefficient measures the alteration in the dependent variable just mentioned above.[3]

Responses of couples interviewed have been compared to see the strength of agreement between them. To do this, a test of association, known as the Kendall tau correlation, was used. Not unlike the parametric Pearson's moment correlation coefficient, the Kendall tau figure ranges from -1 to +1, and may be interpreted as denoting "strong," "moderate," or "weak" association or agreement. But, unlike the Pearson's r, the data used in the computation of the Kendall tau coefficient are ordered ranks, not raw scores (Blaloc 1972: 418-421; Siegel 1956: 213-223).

To summarize, a combination of quantitative and qualitative analyses have been undertaken. The insights and innuendos offered by non-quantifiable data can be meaningfully described without recourse to any quantitative tool. Tighter and more rigorous relationships and patterns, on the other hand, have called for the statistical approaches we have described above.

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[3]For a fuller discussion of multiple regression analysis, see Mordecai and Fox (1970), or any standard text on statistical analysis.

II. THE BICOLANO MOTHER: HER HOUSEHOLD AND HER CONCERNS[4]

The equitable integration of women into the community beyond the narrow circle of the family, emerges as one of the primary themes in the women-in-development literature (ILO 1976: 6). This implies an expansion, if not a shift, in women's roles. Programs and policies governing women, therefore, are increasingly geared to realizing this developmental goal. Despite the optimism underlying this change process, and perhaps sometimes because of it, conflicts are bound to occur between the demands of the new situation and the so-called traditional concerns of women. As in developmental work in innovation and planned change programs, policy planners have of late become more cognizant of the need for programs to consider the existing statuses, roles, and concerns of women--how these are perceived, how they are interrelated with one another (if at all), or to what extent overall quality of life is affected by these factors. Only then, it is felt, can genuine development proceed. A Filipino adage best expresses the essence of this realization: "Ang hindi lumingon sa pinanggalingan ay hindi makararating sa paroroonan" (She who does not look back from where she has come, can never reach where she is going).

To this end, the present study initially concerned itself with these questions:

1. What are the current concerns of women, and how do they feel about each of these?

2. To what extent do these subjective expressions of quality of life concerns correspond with some objective indices?

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[4]The sections on Life concerns and Major value factors of this chapter were written by Robert C. Salazar, a research associate of the project.

3. How are these life concerns interrelated?

4. To what extent is the overall quality of life of women affected by any or all of these clusters of concerns?

Before proceeding further, however, we offer a description of the respondents and their households.

The Sample Bicolano Mother and Her Household

Demographic[5]

With the exception of a few cases, all our female respondents are currently married, with an average of about five living children (urban = 3.9; semiurban = 5.0; and rural = 5.2), one of whom is aged 6 years or younger. The average (median) age is 38.4 years (urban = 38.2; semiurban = 40.5; and rural = 38.1), the age range being 17 to 78 years. Over half or 57 percent of the respondents are of the same age group as their husband, that is, women in their twenties are most likely to be married to men also in their twenties, and so on. When asked about their age at the time of their present marriage, the average age reported was 20.4 years (urban = 23.1 years; semiurban = 21.7; and rural = 19.5).

Ninety-seven percent of the married women respondents are literate, with an average of 5.9 years of formal education (urban = 12.8; semiurban = 6.2; and rural = 4.4 years). Women tend to be married to men with approximately the same amount of education, although in semiurban areas, husbands tend to be more educated than their wife. In rural areas, a number of cases with wife more educated than the hus band are observed.

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[5]Tables B5-B7 present in detail data described in this section.

Using house-construction materials (strong, mixed, light) and the structure's current state of repair as indicators of the respondent's socioeconomic status (SES), we find that the sample may be divided into three subgroupings: upper class, elite (5 percent); upper class, marginal (22 percent); and lower class (73 percent). Taken by community type, 60 percent of the elite-class women are found in the city while 81 percent of the lower-class women are located in the barrios.

Economic

Of the 288 married women interviewed, about 44 percent (urban = 52; semiurban = 57; rural = 40 percent) report having worked on an economically gainful occupation during the week preceding the interview date (see Table B8). Of the remaining 56 percent, 70 percent are pure housekeepers (urban = 72; semiurban = 78; rural = 80 percent), while about 8 percent have a regular job but were either sick or on vacation during the reference period (urban = 8; semiurban = 6; rural = 14 percent).

The occupation of a large part of the working women respondents is either clerical or sales (urban = 48 percent; semiurban = 56 percent) or farm work (rural = 42 percent). More than three-fifths of nonurban female workers (semiurban = 65; urban = 76 percent) are working within their community of residence, while more than half (56 percent) of the urban sample are engaged in occupations which take them outside their community.

Significantly more elite-class married women are working (67 percent) than either marginal- (58 percent) or lower-class women (53 percent). Because of the higher education completed by women of the elite class, they tend to occupy more prestigious occupations (i.e., professions) as compared to lower-class females who find themselves in the modal occupations cited in the earlier paragraph.

Probably due to the lower household incomes earned by less urbanized households, underemployment (measured by willingness to take on an added job by employed workers) is significantly higher outside the city (40-44 percent) than inside (29 percent).

The average (median) workweek of married female workers is 27.9 hours (urban and semiurban = 40 hours; rural = 23.7). The median monthly (cash and noncash) income is estimated to be ₱425 in the city; ₱149, in poblaciones outside Naga City; and ₱60, in the barrios.

The average (mean) annual total household income as reported stands at ₱6001, which is ₱291 more than total cash expenses but ₱1221 short of total estimated household expenses. Regardless of residence, average annual household income (urban = ₱14,179; semiurban = ₱7753; rural = ₱3726) invariably exceeds cash needs of the household (urban = ₱13,929; semiurban = ₱6653; rural = ₱3548), but falls short of total (cash and noncash) expenses of the unit (urban = ₱15,674; semiurban = ₱7765; rural = ₱5086).

The average Bicolano household has at least one household appliance (urban = 3.3, semiurban = 1.1; rural = .6) usually a radio; and three pieces of furniture (urban = 5.8; semiurban = 4; rural = 2.3), invariably a bed, a concoction of a dining room set, and a toilet of some sort.

Of the total sample, 241 households have both housewife and husband interviewed. Fifty-three percent of these couple-respondents follow traditional arrangements with only the husband working, while 41 percent had working husband and wife (see Tables B9 and 10). Among the nontraditional couples, men with nonfarm occupations invariably hold jobs equal to, if not actually greater than, their wife's in prestige. In the case of farmers and agricultural entrepreneurs, on the other hand, we have the commonly observed combination of farmer- or agribusiness-husband, and petty-trader or farm-worker wife. In most

cases, moreover, we find women occupying subordinate positions either because they hold less prestigious jobs, or because they are considered auxiliary income receivers.

Familial data

Although some husbands help out in housekeeping chores--particularly in child care (25 percent), marketing (22 percent), and food preparation (17 percent; see Table B11)--the typical Bicolano housewife is nonetheless burdened with a considerable portion of the housekeeping (Table 1).

Table 1. Average (mean) hours per week spent by selected household members in housekeeping (including child care), and percent of total household housekeeping time contributed by each household member category (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Labor contributor	Time (in hours/week)	Percent
Mother	45.9	56%
Father	7.8	10
Children	19.0	23
Helpers/relatives	8.6	11
Total household	81.3	100%

The presence of helpers in urban households relieves the city housewife of a significant proportion of household chores, while her counterpart in poblaciones and rural areas falls prey to the confining role of sole housekeeper. Regardless of residence, more than one-third of the mother's home production time is spent in child care (16 hours per week) while more than one-fourth, on food preparation (13 hours). The rest of the estimated 46 weekly home-production hours of the mother is spent in laundering (5 hours), dishwashing (4 hours), and other preoccupations at home. (For more detailed information, please see Tables B12-B14).

Looking after the children, particularly infants, eats up a significant portion of a mother's home production time. Of activities related to child care, feeding absorbs, on the average, 5 hours per week (28 percent of total mother's child care time); while cuddling or general supervision of the children, 11 hours (68 percent).

The feeding time deviation might be explained in part by feeding practices of mothers. Overall, 67 percent of mothers are breast-feeders, while 24 and 7 percent are mixed and bottle-feeders, respectively. Significant feeding-practice divergence is noted among community types: urban mothers are largely mixed (46 percent) or bottle-feeders (30); nonurban mothers, breast-feeders (rural = 79; semiurban = 62 percent). However, given the opportunity and/or physical ability to breast-feed, about 90 percent of mothers, regardless of residence, would opt for the practice.

Using weight and age (in months) data collected for preschool-aged children in the sample households, 68 percent were found to be malnourished (urban = 37; semiurban = 71; rural = 72 percent), with incidence of malnutrition reportedly greater among female preschoolers (74 percent) than among the boys (63 percent). Surprisingly perhaps, children of working mothers are better nourished than those of nonworking mothers, the percent of malnourished children being 56 and 75 for the former and the latter, respectively.

The sample Bicolano households have an average (mean) of two members who got sick during the past 12 months (urban = 2.5; semiurban and rural = 2.0), but an average of three illnesses (with the same individual sometimes becoming ill more than once) in the household during the year (urban = 3.9; semiurban = 3.6; rural = 3.2). Some 94 percent of those who got ill recovered (urban = 98; semiurban = 94; rural = 93 percent). The physician is the most popular medical practitioner availed of by Bicol River Basin households (urban = 100 percent; semiurban = 94; and rural, 70). However, more than one-fourth

of the households employed the services of folk medical practitioners (urban - 12; semiurban = 28; rural = 35 percent) during the year; while slightly fewer than a quarter tried home treatment on the ill household members (urban = 26; semiurban = 16; and rural, 25 percent).

On the questions of sanctions and personality formation of children, the following may be said about Bicolano families.

1. Although family decision-making is usually joint, even in matters of child discipline (see Chapter IV), the mother is reported as the person who handles immediate disciplining of children (urban = 66; semiurban and rural = 54 percent).

2. Rural children are usually exposed to more adults who tease, cajole, and scold them (29 percent), as compared to semiurban (20 percent) or city children (14 percent).

3. Although mothers are frequently the disciplinarians, children, regardless of residence, are significantly more obedient to their father, their obedience score being 1.62 vs. that for mother which is 1.86.[6]

4. Children's obedience score for both father and mother rises as the community's level of urbanization declines (father: urban = 1.77; semiurban = 1.75; rural = 1.57; mother: urban = 2.08; semiurban = 1.88; rural = 1.82).

5. Faced with complaints from neighbors about her child's misdemeanors, the Bicolano mother usually investigates first (62 percent), and faced with the facts of the case, scolds the erring child (47 percent). Fifteen percent of our

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[6]Obedience measure extends from "always obeys," 1; "reasons out, but obeys later," 2; "sometimes obeys, sometimes disobeys," 3; "reasons out, but disobeys later," 4; and "always disobeys," 5. The lower the figure reported, then, the higher is the degree of obedience.

mother respondents, however, report ignoring the complaint (urban = 28 percent; semiurban = 9; rural = 14 percent).

6. Male children, probably because of the nature of the trouble in which they usually involve themselves, are more subject to active disciplining measures like spanking or scolding (56 percent) than the girls (40 percent).

7. Urban children (boys = 54; girls = 43 percent) do not seek help as often as those in semiurban areas (boys = 81; girls = 70 percent) or those in the barrios (boys = 70; girls = 77 percent). Generally urbanized female preschoolers are more independent than their male counterparts. The opposite pattern is evident in the countryside.

8. Overall, Bicol mothers perceive their children as moderately dependent (dependency score, 3.33; urban = 3.39; semiurban = 3.54; rural = 3.27).[7]

Social participation of married women

Only one-third of our housewife-respondents report membership in at least one formal organization. Urban women are more active (percentage of organization members, 42) than either those in the poblaciones (40) or in the barrios (30); significantly more among elite-class women are members of organizations (53 percent) than among women of marginal (40) or lower class (30). Moreover, probably related to the automatic membership in work-related organizations, significantly more working women (40 percent) are organization members than are non-working ones (25 percent).

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[7]Using a 5-point measure, very independent is coded as 1; moderately independent, 2; neither dependent nor independent, 3; moderately dependent, 4; and very dependent, 5. Thus, the higher the score reported, the more dependent the child is supposed to be.

Informal groups (e.g., neighborhood groups, friends, and cliques) are found to involve more people--and women--than do formal groups. Ninety percent of all Bicolano housewives report belonging to one group or another (urban = 88; semiurban = 95; rural = 90 percent). Again, partly because of a wider "social world," more working mothers are members of informal groups (93 percent) than nonworking ones (87 percent).

Of 11 institutional social services included in our checklist,[8] an average housewife would know or be aware of about five (urban = 8.4; semiurban = 6.1; rural = 4.5); have visited about three (urban = 4.1; semiurban = 3.5; rural = 2.2); have tried the services of fewer than three institutions (urban = 2.9; semiurban = 3.2; rural = 2.0); still visit and practice, fewer than two (urban = 2.2; semiurban = 2.0; rural = 1.3).

Of the four formal noninstitutional social services included,[9] an average Bicolano housewife would be aware of about three (urban = 3.6; semiurban = 3.3; rural = 2.8); have visited about two (urban = 2.9; semiurban = 2.6; rural = 1.9); still visit fewer than two (urban = 2.4; semiurban = 2.0; rural = 1.3). On the other hand, of the four folk noninstitutional social services listed,[10] she would be aware of more than three (urban = 2.6; semiurban = 3.0; rural = 3.5); have visited fewer than three (urban = 1.6; semiurban = 2.2; rural = 3.0); still visit about two (urban = 1.0; semiurban = 1.6; rural = 2.2).

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[8]The institutional social services listed are family planning clinics, rural health units, puericulture centers, malaria control units, rural improvement clubs, Department of Social Services and Development (DSSD) local offices, adult education classes, Catholic Relief Services (CRS) local units, private hospital, public hospital, and private clinics.

[9]The four formal noninstitutional social services are: doctor, dentist, nurse, and licensed midwife.

[10]Included in the four folk noninstitutional social services are: partera (midwife), parahilot (traditional birth attendant), herbolario (quack doctor), and parabawi (faith healer).

Life Concerns

From a previous study on the perceived quality of life (Salazar and Lynch 1974) were taken those items which were felt to be of equally significant concern to women. Added to the list were aspects of life hypothesized to bear some relationship with the woman's sense of well-being, e.g., participation in decision-making, time allocation, marriage, family size, and child-rearing practices. In all, 20 life concerns were included for investigation:

1. Education of self
2. Children's education
3. Employment status
4. Job
5. Income of self
6. Household income
7. Present housing
8. Household appliances
9. Household furniture
10. Decision-making
11. Time allocation
12. Marriage
13. Family size
14. Child rearing
15. Prices in general
16. Food and drink
17. Health and social services
18. Health and physical condition of self and family
19. Organizational participation
20. Participation in informal groups

"All things considered, how do you feel about _____, are you happy, unhappy, or somewhere in between?" was the question asked of the women respondents on each of the life areas and on life as a whole.[11] It was expected that this kind of measurement would indicate to a certain extent the felt needs and wants of women.

Because survey respondents in studies soliciting answers to somewhat personal questions typically avoid replies indicating extreme

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[11]A 7-point scale was used--"1" for very happy, and "7" for very unhappy. Overall sense of life quality (Life #3) is the average of the answers to the same questions concerning life in general asked twice in the interview situation at different intervals.

displeasure or unhappiness (or extreme satisfaction for that matter), the data were further reinterpreted and delineated, into the categories "fairly happy," "neutral," and "fairly unhappy," as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Life concerns of Bicolano female respondents, by their feeling about each concern (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Feeling about this concern (range of scores)	Concern
FAIRLY HAPPY (2.30 - 2.80)	Children's education
	Participation in informal groups
	Family size
	Marriage
	Child rearing
	Organizational participation
NEUTRAL (2.81 - 3.31)	Health and physical condition
	Decision-making
	Job
	Food and drink
	Time allocation
	Health and social services
	Employment status
	Income
	Household income
	Present house
FAIRLY UNHAPPY (3.32 - 5.15)	Furniture
	Education of herself
	Household appliances
	Prices in general

The respondents, therefore, feel happiest about their children's education (2.30). Also perceived as happy areas are their participation in informal groups (2.52), the size of their families (2.55), their marriage (2.57), their child-rearing practices (2.65), and their organizational participation (2.76). (See also Table B15, for the means, standard deviations, and n for each life concern.)

On the other hand, women feel clearly unhappy about the prices of things (5.15). Relative to the other life concerns, lower levels of satisfaction are also expressed for possessions like furniture and appliances (3.15 and 3.52, respectively), or their own education (3.53). In-between these extremes may be placed those life concerns considered as more-or-less happy areas (mean values ranging from 2.81 to 3.31).

Although some differences between community types (urban, semi-urban, and rural) were found not to be significant, a general pattern was nevertheless evident--urban women are happier than their rural counterparts. To some extent urban respondents may also be said to be happier than the semiurban women, just as the latter are, relative to their rural counterparts.

A rough comparison on 12 life concerns was also made between the results of this study and those from the annual panel survey which had a predominantly male sample (91 percent). The data suggest that women feel the same way as men about many life concerns, at least as far as the ranking of values relative to one another are concerned. Except perhaps for the education of the children (considered the happiest domain by women but sixth by the men), women as well as men feel happy about their social relationships and social acceptance but less so with their economic conditions (see Table B15).

Meaningful use of these subjective estimates of well-being may be limited if no congruence is found to exist between them and other verifiable indices. It may be difficult for the planner to justify the improvement of housing conditions, for example, if the people who live in what to an outside observer appears abject, e.g., a nipa and bamboo hut badly in need of repair, are the very same people who express positive feelings over their houses.

Subsequent comparisons made on the various life areas generally showed that feelings about specific aspects of life vary quite

predictably with more visible indicators. Feelings about household appliances, furniture, and the respondent's own education, for example, closely correlate with the number of material possessions and formal years of study, respectively. Similarly, the wife's perception of her marriage is related to her perception oh how the husband treats her. Correlations for this and the life concerns just cited are significant for all types of communities.

The relationships between the other life domains and selected objective indicators can be summarized as follows:

1. The woman with a job is happier than the woman without one.
2. The greater the proportion of household members who are sick, the less likely is the women to express satisfaction over her health and physical condition and that of her family.
3. The more social services she has availed of herself, the happier she is about the health and social services in the community.
4. Those whose present houses are built of mixed or strong materials are happier about their housing situation than others are.
5. The higher her primary occupation is in terms of prestige value and the higher the household income, the happier she is about her job and the income of the household.
6. Satisfaction over child-rearing practices depends on the manner of breast-feeding, the number of living children, and the mother's perceived dependency of her child.
7. Feelings concerning the size of the family seem to vary directly with the number of living children, that is, the fewer the children, the happier the mother is.

8. Those who express positive feelings about their participation in informal groups are also those who speak and associate with these groups more frequently.

9. The greater the expenses for food per capita, the less happy she is about the family's food and drink.

Some hypothesized relationships, however, were found not to exist, e.g., between the frequency of attendance and verbal participation in meetings, on the one hand, and satisfaction over organizational participation on the other. Surprisingly, too, happiness over income did not correlate significantly with the respondent's own actual income. The same result was found between satisfaction over decision-making and a derived decision score.[12]

Despite these deviations, however, the data generally indicate that subjective measures such as these can nevertheless be taken as valid and reliable information in studying the reactions of women toward various life aspects.

Major Value Factor

It may have occurred to some that many of these life concerns are highly interrelated and that using measures on each aspect would seem redundant. Further analyses of the data using factor and regression analyses showed not only the interrelationships among these aspects but their effects, taken singly or in combination, on the person's overall sense of well-being as well. Reflected in Table 3 are, in effect, the primary values of the Bicolano women, presented in their decreasing order of effect on the overall perceived quality of life.

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[12]We suspect, however, that the low correlation is a result not so much of the absence of relationship between them but of some procedural or methodological difficulties, e.g., only 26 cases qualified for the income correlation, and the derived decision-score may have been too arbitrary. Further refinements of methods and replication of these analyses are suggested.

Table 3. Major value factors of adult female Bicolanos, with related desirable behavior and their effect on the overall happiness with life (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Factor (in the order of effect on overall life quality)*	Desirable behavior	Effect on overall life quality†
1. Marital relationship	To have a part in decision-making at home and to be treated well by my husband	Strong
2. House and home	To have a sturdy home, adequately furnished and with sufficient household appliances	Strong
3. Social benefits	To be assured of health and social services and of institutional organizations that are of benefit to me and my family	Moderate
4. Education	To get myself as much formal education as possible	Moderate
5. Good provider	To have a respectable job and an adequate income for myself and my family	Moderate
6. Physio-economic security and stability	To keep myself and my family healthy and adequately to meet the increasingly high costs of living	Weak
7. Social participation, status and esteem	To participate comfortably and enjoyably in small-group activities and community affairs and to achieve favorable status and esteem as one whose children are well educated	Weak
8. Family management	To manage adequately family behavior in general, and the number and rearing of children in particular	Weak

Table 3 (cont'd)

Factor (in the order of effect on overall life quality	Desirable behavior	Effect on overall life quality
9. Housekeeping	To be efficient in managing the various housekeeping activities, particularly in providing sufficient food and drink to the family	Weak

*For factor loadings, see Tables B16 and B17.

†For the correlation coefficients, see Table B18.

Most likely to affect satisfaction with one's life, then, is the quality of the marital relationship, that is, the extent to which the wife is involved in decision-making and the manner in which she is treated by her husband. A woman's overall sense of well-being heavily depends further on her satisfaction with the condition of her house and the material possessions therein. On the other hand, satisfaction over her management of the rearing of children and of the various housekeeping activities do not seem to influence strongly the nature of her total life perception. The latter data seem understandable insofar as these concerns subsequently depend on the opportunities she has or are given her as wife and mother; this explains further the primacy of the marital relationship factor.

Taken together, the factors which have been statistically shown to matter significantly in relation to the woman's overall quality of life are: marital relationship, house and home, social benefits, education, and good provider (see Table B18 for the regression results). This does not provide the policy planner, however, with immediate priorities. Women may feel most unhappy about a certain factor X for example, but attending to this need as first priority may be a failure, as it may be shown that such factor had little effect after all on the

overall sense of life quality. In Table 4, we attempt to combine the data in Tables 1 and 2 in the hope of determining the priorities of factors for program and policy formulation.

Table 4. Major value factors of women, by degree of satisfaction for each factor and by the effect this factor has on the overall happiness with life (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Feeling about this factor*	Effect of this factor on overall happiness		
	Strong	Moderate	Weak
FAIRLY HAPPY (2.48 - 2.87)	Marital relationship		Family management Social participation, status and esteem
NEUTRAL (2.88 - 3.27)	Social benefits	Good provider	Housekeeping
FAIRLY UNHAPPY (3.28 - 3.67)	House and home	Education	Physio-economic security/stability

*The categories "Fairly happy," "Neutral," and "Fairly unhappy," result from an interpretation of the average scores recorded for the respective concerns comprising the cluster or factor.

From this source, we can conclude that any planned shift in or expansion of roles needs to consider these indications or patterns:

1. Of primary importance is the fact that women remain highly concerned about houses, furniture, and appliances. We may hypothesized various reasons for this phenomenon. Having sufficient appliances may be a matter of plain convenience for the housekeeper, just as having a sturdy home may be the safest and most secure. Yet these possessions and structure have a latent social meaning of prestige and social class. Thus, underneath this concern may be the value of socioeconomic

mobility. This concern can also mean that women, after all, do not wish totally to abandon their role as housekeeper. At the same time, the availability of appliances can free the woman from routine chores for other activities. For the woman, the community or larger society through its formal and nonformal services and organizations should be of functional assistance to the household. We would expect that the more the woman goes beyond the household, the greater her need would be for these support services. Again, it may be of great benefit if the policy planner is cognizant of his expectation.

2. Of secondary importance are the education and good-provider factors. No doubt, the improvement of the status of women has to consider the aspect that is similarly strongly reinforced by society--the need for a good education. We suspect, however, that the need for this factor is strongly felt more as a means to economic security, inasmuch as the latter is more readily assured given an adequate education. When giving education to adult females is difficult if not impractical, making available more well-paying jobs to women (good provider factor) would seem to have more impact on women's overall quality of life.

3. The third priority represents the remaining factors, namely, marital relationship, family management, social participation, housekeeping, and physio-economic security and stability.

III. FEMALE MARKET PARTICIPATION

Advocates of women's integration into the development process strongly encourage their participation in market activities, particularly in the so-called formal sectors. Involvement in petty trade activities like buy-and-sell of agricultural crops and other consumer items, or in preparation (production) of food for sale in a small scale, are considered as "informal" market enterprises. These activities generate low income and seasonal (irregular) employment opportunities. Nonetheless, they provide the women, especially in the rural areas, opportunities to earn something, however minimal, unlike, for instance, pure housekeeping activities. Most people recognize housekeeping as "work," but do not consider it economically gainful in the sense that it does not add directly to household cash income; it nevertheless reduce family purchase requirements by producing some of the family consumption goods at home. Thus, although the new household economics expands the realms of productive female participation to include housekeeping and child care, this chapter will focus its investigation on the possible determinants of woman's involvement in income-generating production activities, both in the formal and the informal market sectors.

The Laguna study conducted in 1975-76 produced, among other things, time allocation models which highlight the determinants and constraints of time allotted by the household members (particularly the father and mother) in market, home production, and leisure activities (King 1976). One time allocation model, for instance, attempts to explain mother's market time allocation by appealing to personal attributes (i.e., age, education, wage, work status, and occupation) not only of the mother, but also of the husband, household wealth, and family composition (ibid.). The results are reproduced in Table 5.

Table 5. Derived and expected directions of relationship between selected independent-variable factors and their components, and female market participation (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November -December 1976)

Independent variable factor loading sign	I.V. factor components	Relationship with dependent variable (female market time)*	Expected sign	King's (1976) result†
Factor 1 HH socioeconomic status (SES)‡		+	+, -	
+	HH expenses	+	+	
+	Woman's education	+	+	+ (.05)
+	Husband's education	+	+	+ (n.s.)
+	Husband's income	+	+, -	+ (n.s.)
+	Husband's primary occupation	+	+	+ (.05)
+	Community type§	+	+	
+	HH appliance	+	+, -)	
+	HH furniture	+	+, -)	+ (n.s.)
+	House construction materials	+	+, -)	
Factor 2 HH size and composition‡		+	+	
+	Household size	+	+	
+	No. of children in school	+	+	
+	No. of male children aged 12 years or older	+	+	
+	No. of female children aged 12 years or older	+	+	

*The signs reported refer to that of the regression coefficient.

†Data taken from Table 12. The figures in parentheses refer to level of significance of reported relationship.

‡The level of significance of this factor's regression coefficient is 0.05.

§Community type was initially coded in such a way that urban community was given the score of "1" while semiurban (poblaciones) and barrios, "2" and "3," respectively. Thus, the initial report of negative correlation (and regression and factor) coefficients would be interpreted as positive correlation with degree of urbanization.

Table 5 (cont'd)

Independent variable factor loading sign	I.V. factor components	Relationship with dependent variable (female market time)	Expected sign	King's (1976) result
Factor 3 Child care‡		+, -//	+, -	
-	Woman's age	+	+	+ (n.s.)
-	Husband's age	+	+	+ (n.s.)
+	Woman's child-care time	-	-	
+	No. of preschool aged children	-	-	- (n.s.)
Factor 4 Woman's occupation‡		-	-	
-	Woman's prim. occ.	+	+	- (.001)
-	Woman's work location	+	-	
-	No. of employed HH members	+	+	
+	Babyfeeding practices	-	-	
Factor 5 Satisfaction**		+,	+	
+	PQL life (3)	+	+	
+	PQL employment status	-	+, ○	
Factor 6 Health status of the family‡		-	-	
+	Proportion of sick members of total size	-	-	
+	Proportion of illnesses to total HH size	-		

//The two coefficient signs reported above, are to be interpreted as conflicting results of two multiple regression methods used: stepwise regression and one-step multiple regression. See Tables B21 and B22.

**Based on the best predictive equation derived through stepwise regression, the sign of this factor's coefficient is significant at 0.05 level. Using one-step multiple regression, however, the coefficient of this factor was not found to be significant.

Table 5 (cont'd)

Independent variable factor loading sign	I.V. factor components	Relationship with dependent variable (female market time)	Expected sign	King's (1976) result
Factor 7				
Father's housekeeping participation‡		+	+	
-	Woman's participation in decision-making	-	+	
+	Husband's child-care time	+	+	
+	Husband's housekeeping time	+	+	
Factor 8				
Woman's informal participation		-, +	-	
-	Husband's market time	-	-	
-	Informal group participation	+	+	
+	Total household income	+	+, -	
Factor 9				
Woman's formal organizational participation		+, -	-	
+	Couple's value agreement score	+	?	
-	Woman's organizational participation	-	-	
Factor 10				
Household type††		+, -	+, -	
Factor 11				
Woman's housekeeping participation		-, +	-	
-	Woman's income	+	+	- (.01)
-	Woman's housekeeping time	-	-	

††The regression coefficient is significant at 0.10.

Another article which came out of the same Laguna study investigates the relative effect of family size and family composition on the mother's time allocation (Jayme-Ho 1976b). The author concludes that it is not so much family size as family (age) composisition that affects the mother's time allocation, including the hours she spends in market activities.

Other studies have a bearing on the present attempt to specify a female-labor-market-participation model in the Bicol River Basin. Mangahas and Jayme-Ho (1976), working with the 1968 National Demographic Survey results, estimate labor force participation functions of married women. Encarnacion (1973) also presents a participation model as related to education and female fertility. Two Laguna-study articles which focus on the impact of children on mother's activities (Boulier 1976, and Popkin 1976), and a small-sample-based labor force participation of Cebu mothers (Jayme-Ho 1976a) are also worth noting.

The Model

Where earlier models, however, employed mostly economic variables, this Bicol study makes use of both economic and noneconomic variables to explain what, and how, factors influence market time kept by women in the Bicol River Basin.

The dependent variable is woman's total market time (in hours) during the week preceding the interview date. This datum was derived by adding the number of hours worked by the woman in all her occupations--primary or secondary, formal or informal--during the reference period.

Our list of independent variables are economic, e.g., income expenses, possessions or wealth, time, and occupation; social, meaning organizational and informal group participation, and access to social services; attitudinal, or value agreement between couples; demographic, that is, education, family size, residence or community type; psycho-

logical, or life satisfaction, and decision-making factors. All told, the variable list contains 36 items. For the operationalization of the variables, see Tables A1 and A2.

Subjecting these 36 variables to factor analysis[13] resulted in 11 factors, namely: household socioeconomic status, household size and composition, child care, woman's occupation, satisfaction with life and one's employment status, health status of the family, husband's housekeeping participation, woman's informal group participation, woman's organizational participation, household type, and woman's housekeeping involvement. Table 5 summarizes the factors and their components, plus their expected and actual, derived through regression analysis, direction of relationship with the market participation of married women.

Of these 11 factors, however, only four were found to be significant predictors of woman's market participation. These are woman's occupation (WOCC), satisfaction with life and employment status (SAT), husband's housekeeping participation (HHKPART), and household's socioeconomic status (HSES). These four factors were identified when stepwise regression was used to derive the most meaningful multiple regression equation for woman's participation in the Bicol River Basin economy.[14] With the possible exception of the woman's occupation

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[13]For a description of the factor analysis methodology, see Chapter I. The so-called OBLIQUE ROTATION method was employed with the initial factors derived from the unrotated (without iteration) analysis. This method (OBLIQUE) differs from ORTHOGONAL rotation because the former recognizes the intercorrelation among the evolved factors. For our purposes, the more realistic OBLIQUE rotation method was adjudged as more useful and, thus, was used. See Table B20 for the factor loading matrix using the 36 variables.

[14]When all 11 factors were subjected to one-step regression method, six, not four, were found to be significant determinants, at 0.05 level of significance. The seventh factor was candidate for inclusion in the list of statistically significant factor-predictors if the level of significance was reduced to 0.10.

factor, all are positive predictors of female market participation.[15] Formally, the model could be stated as follows:

$$WPART = f\ (F_1, F_2, F_3, F_4)$$

$$WPART = a - b(-WOCC) + c(SAT) + d(HHKPART) + e(HSES)$$

where

WPART = market participation of women measured in terms of hours per week

F_i where $i = 1, \ldots, 4$ = variable-clusters derived through factor analysis which have been identified in this study as the following:

WOCC = woman's occupation factor

SAT = woman's satisfaction factor

HHKPART = husband's housekeeping participation factor

HSES = household's socioeconomic status factor

Furthermore,

$$F_i = a_{i1}X_1 + a_{i2}X_2 + \ldots + a_{i36}X_{36} \qquad (i = 1, \ldots, 4)$$

Fitting our Bicol data into the model resulted in a confirmation of most, if not all, of our expected relationships (see Annex 1 of Appendix A for the technical notes on the model). The direction of relationship between market time and woman's organizational participation is tentatively specified as well. We shall discuss the determinants in the order of the significance of their regression coefficients (see Table B21, for the stepwise regression results; and Table B22, for the one-step multiple regression output).

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[15]Even the woman's occupation factor can be treated as a positive determinant of woman's market time because of the negative sign of the factor itself, i.e., -WOCC. Thus, -b(WOCC) is really -b(-WOCC), or +b(WOCC). See Annex 1, Appendix A.

The Determinants

Woman's occupation factor

This includes type of primary occupation, arranged according to prestige attached to occupation (modified Bacol scheme; Illo 1975: 19); work location, coded according to distance from home; number of household members; and baby-feeding practice.

As hypothesized, the more prestige (and the higher the income) associated with the occupation held, the greater the women's participation in market activities. The loss in earnings due to nonpractice of a profession or training could be high enough to encourage the woman to work, at least part-time, in an occupation. However, it is recognized that untrained (or not so trained) women hesitate to leave the home, the opportunity costs involved in nonparticipation being low or minimal.

Distance of the worksite from home refers to whether the woman's work takes place within the house premises (as when she engages in any of the cottage industries, sari-sari (small variety) store business, or, as in some cases, practice of a profession like medicine or dentistry, the clinic of which may be located within the house), outside the homestead but within the community where she resides, inside the same municipality but outside her community of residence, or outside of her municipality of residence. Although we expect a woman to work longer hours in a market activity which is closer to home, the derived positive correlation between distance and market time of the woman could probably be caused by the high correlation (r is 0.70) between distance and type of occupation. Thus, where a woman's job is highly profitable, she might be enticed to work longer hours despite the possibly increasing distance it would take her from home, rather than work in an enterprise which might be located right in her community

but would not pay comparably well (transport and bother factors being taken into account).

Feeding practice, on the other hand, could affect woman's market time inasmuch as one feeding practice like breast-feeding involves more mother's time than another one like bottle-feeding. With breast-feeding given the greatest weight, involving, as it does, longer woman's time, it is not surprising that we should derive a negative correlation between baby feeding practice (as weighted here) and mother's market participation.

Satisfaction factor

This is a psychological variable which we included in our variable list to determine whether perceived satisfaction with life and with one's employment status (i.e., working or not) will have any effect on the hours spent on the job. Regression results show that hours kept by women correlate positively with the satisfaction factor. One should be wary, however, in interpreting the direct relationship in view of the following methodological issues.

Perceived quality of life (PQL) is measured using a 7-point scale, extending from "very happy," which is coded as 1, to "very unhappy," coded as 7. The higher the PQL score, therefore, the less satisfied (or, the unhappier) the person would be in a particular life domain. The positive sign of a regression (and correlation) coefficient between satisfaction and market participation should, thus, be interpreted as an inverse relationship between woman's market time and her satisfaction with life, or with her employment status.

Dissatisfaction with life (probably with poverty and the absence of adequate family resources to feed, house, and provide the children with their needs) could very well motivate a woman to work, more than it would someone else who is content with what she has. In an effort

to help augment family funds, the wife might decide to leave full-time housekeeping to engage in one cash-earning economic enterprise or another. Indeed, a significant number of our housewife-respondents, who were asked why they have continued working (in some cases, over their husband's objections), pointed to the advantage of extra income, or the need to supplement their spouse's income as their overriding motivation. There are several cases, however, where self-fulfillment in work was given as the primary reason for holding on to their job. Although our regression result does not explicitly support this, we would suggest that the satisfaction factor would more likely affect a decision to shift from housekeeper-status to (part-time or full-time) worker-status, than the decision, for instance, to work longer hours, the latter being relevant particularly to women who are currently jobholders. More than anything else, the significant coefficient derived for satisfaction (when market time was regressed to it) is of primary interest as it is indicative of the importance of noneconomic variables, which in this case are psychological, to married female market participation, in addition to economic and other determinants.

Husband's participation in housekeeping

Expectedly, wives with husband who shares in housekeeping chores would have greater chances to engage in nondomestic activities, such as economic employment, than those with a spouse who has rarely, if ever, pitched in. The usual household activities in which husbands share are child care, food preparation, and marketing, and the male-chores of fetching water and house repairs.

The participation of the woman in decision-making is found to load negatively with the husband's housekeeping participation factor, and to relate inversely with female market participation. Restated in terms of husband's participation, husband's role in family matters correlates positively with both the husband's housekeeping participation factor, and with female market participation.

It seems that contrary to our expectations, a more active voice for the wife in family matters would dampen (rather than heighten) her involvement in the market. This is probably due to the interpretation that more active participation in family decision-making represents an added responsibility. This way, it should be expected that the greater the responsibilities the wife has at home, the less time would she likely have for nondomestic, noneconomic activities. Added husband's participation would relieve her of some of her traditional burdens and allow her greater involvement in market activities.

Household's socioeconomic status

This factor would expectedly be related with female market participation in two ways. Married women among the lower classes would be striving to bring the household resources up to a certain "decent" level, and to provide the family with some minimum (purchaseable) basket of goods. The necessity of covering such needs with cash outlay, faced with inadequate husband's income, would prod the wife to engage in any cash-earning enterprise. Thus, we find women dominating the informal sector's petty trading and manufacturing activities, the return to labor of which, under different circumstances, would discourage any worker's participation. As improvement in the status of lower-class households is felt, rising expectations would likely ensue. In this case, female participation in market activities is seen as a "necessary" evil in the race between "expected needs" and "actual resources" to provide for the added requisites to a new minimum combination of physiological and social needs.

Beyond a certain socioeconomic status threshold, however, the motivation of women's decision to work become complicated. Husband's income would be high enough to warrant a nonworking wife, the maintenance of which is socially acceptable in view of the value system found dominant in the area (see Chapter IV). Higher-class women are

also generally more educated than the lower-class, and, as a result, have more opportunities to be employed. The former's decision to work would probably be for an entirely different reason. Theirs is not a necessity, if one defines this as family's economic survival. Rather, theirs is a decision reached at leisure. For, although the added-income dimension to wife's working is attractive (indeed, more attractive than that faced by their lower-class counterpart), the prevailing motive seems to be the self-satisfaction which can be had with an independent source of income (the woman "liberated"from her husband's pocketbook) and the practice of one's profession. There is also the self-enhancing benefit accruing from frequent contact with colleagues and other professionals. There is much action in the outside world--and they want a part of that action.

All things considered, female market participation may indeed be a positive function of socioeconomic status of the household. This stems from the probability that, especially beyond some status threshold, the self-satisfaction among higher-class mothers from a career and/or an independent source of income substitutes for the income motive of lower-class women.

Household size and composition

Two papers from the Laguna study pointed to the relative significance of household composition, more than mere size, as a determinant of mother's time allocation (Jayme-Ho 1976b; King 1976). Cognizant of the possible explanatory power of household (age) composition and of household size, we included both variables in the list subjected to factor analysis. One of the resultant factors made up of size and composition variables we call "household size and composition."

Taken singly or together, size and composition of the household are found to affect market time of married women positively. These results could be interpreted in terms of increased household needs

(or, the cost effect of the size variable), and of the availability of labor substitutes in housekeeping like adult children (or, the production effects of age-composition variable). The impact of the cost and the production (or income) effects of the "household size and composition" factor seems to be one where the cost-effect of household size reinforces, rather than negates, the production effect of increasing number of children aged 12 years or older on the increased market participation of married women.

Child care

Loading highly with this factor are the parents' age, wife's (mother's) child-care time, and number of preschool-aged children in the household. Although the component variables do not relate with the factor in the same direction, taken together, the variable-cluster which we identify as child care appears to have a positive effect on market time of mothers.

The opposite loadings are understandable since older-households are more likely to have reached their completed family size than younger ones; the latter have just started to build their family and, thus, are more likely to have preschoolers at home than the former. The negative child-care aspect of the factor appears to be offset by the direct impact of the couple's age on the woman's market participation. Up to the age of 54, the person's age, it should be noted, is a positive determinant of one's employability, as well as hours worked in the market (Illo 1975: 36).

Child-care time and number of preschoolers are, naturally, negative determinants of the mother's market involvement. Child-care time is a positive function of the number of young children to be tended, and the former also accounts for a traditional female, and labor-intensive, activity. That child care is labor- (and time-) intensive is borne out by the mother's time allocation (see Table 6).

Table 6. Average (mean) mother's time (in hours per week) spent in, and percentage distribution of her time among, selected domestic activities (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Domestic activity	Hours per week	Percent
Child care (feeding, cuddling)	16.3	36%
Food preparation/cooking	12.7	29
Laundering	4.8	10
Other housekeeping chores	12.1	25
Total	45.9	100%

*Included were all the mothers, regardless of whether they were engaged in the activity or not.

Clearly, the presence of infants and small children in the house involves the channelling of mother's time (and of household's) for their care and nutriture. Moreover, we note that total weekly home production is increased by 16 hours among working mothers, and by 31 hours among nonworking mothers (see Table 7). This longer production involvement eats up a significant portion of what could have been either market production, or leisure time. We suspect that independent of the feeding-practice effect, child care poses as a negative determinant of mother's market time.

Health status of the family

This factor is to be understood as the relative incidence of sick members and/or illnesses in the household. The variables loading to this factor are (1) proportion of sick members to total household size, and (2) proportion of illnesses to total household size. Taken singly or together, these variables are found to relate negatively with the mother's participation in market activities.

Table 7. Average (mean) housekeeping and child-care time (in hours per week) spent by mothers, classified by presence or absence of preschoolers in the household, crossclassified by mother's work status (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Activity and presence or absence of children aged six years or less	Working		Nonworking	
	Mean	S.D.*	Mean	S.D.*
a. Housekeeping				
With preschoolers	30.5	18.4	31.7	22.0
Without preschoolers	24.0	16.3	25.7	18.6
b. Child care				
With preschoolers	17.1	17.0	31.0	24.9
Without preschoolers	0.7	4.0	0.6	1.6
c. Total home production time (housekeeping and child care)				
With preschoolers	47.6	27.5	62.7	34.7
Without preschoolers	24.7	16.7	26.2	19.0
Total sample (n) with qualified data				
With preschooler	98		103	
Without preschooler	60		27	
Total	158		130	

*This refers to the standard deviation.

The mother, more than the father (people are wont to say), concerns herself with the physical welfare of the family. The care of sick family members, for instance, is considered to be a mother's job. As in child care, care of the sick falls into the sphere of mother's activity. Thus, an inverse relationship appears between the competing areas of market participation and of ministering to the health needs of her family.

Other possible (although insignificant) explanatory factors

Three factors which constitute other complementary areas of woman's participation, and another household variable, do not appear to affect significantly the wife's (mother's) market time. We shall present them here, nonetheless, to provide interested readers with additional explanations to the intricacies of woman's involvement in the market.

Negatively related with market time of married women are the housekeeping factor (woman's income and housekeeping time), which we arbitrarily tag as involvement in informal groups factor (husband's income, total household income, and participation in informal groups), and household type. The first two factors behaved as expected. Being possible areas for female participation, they inversely correlate with another time-intensive activity, market participation. Working within a time constraint, the woman can only do so much. Longer involvement in one activity would usually cause the sacrifice of another.

Household type, on the other hand, was expected to be a direct determinant of mother's market participation. Extended-family type is assumed to provide the wife with greater free time to involve herself in nonhousekeeping matters. This, because of the presence of adults (parents of either husband or wife, or their siblings) who can alternate for the wife in housekeeping chores. It seems, however, that another dimension of the household-type variable is at work here. This could be the quality of adult labor provided by the extended family. For example, if the relative living with the nuclear family is infirmed, or needs attention and nurturance, this person would be considered more of a burden than a help. The reason for the displayed negative relationship is not clear to us. However, we feel that it bears further investigation in view of the still prevalent family extensions found in a number of Bicolano households.

Another factor, which we arbitrarily called "formal organizational participation," evinces a direct relationship with woman's time in the market. This factor, however, is composed of two seemingly unrelated variables--couple's value/attitudinal agreement, and woman's organizational participation. These two variables, moreover, load differently with the factor. A tentative explanation we offer starts with the meaning of the value/attitudinal agreement between husband and wife, which is: The higher the score of the couple on this variable, the greater is the disagreement between them. Viewed this way, couples who think differently (for example, wife is nontraditional, husband is) are less likely to agree on whether the wife should participate in nondomestic affairs, regardless of whether the areas of the wife's participation are the traditionally acceptable, e.g., religious, sociocivic, and similar activities; or the less acceptable ones, e.g., career and politics. Couples who are both traditional would probably accept woman's participation in traditional affairs; nontraditional couples, in more modern affairs. A clear, and expected, relationship is displayed by woman's organizational participation and market participation. Increased involvement in social affairs reduces the time available for other activities, market time included, in the same manner that increased time for the latter would reduce the potential time for the former.

Although women's integration into the development process goes beyond their participation in the market, we, nonetheless, focused our attention on female economic participation for the following reasons: First, women are more dissatisfied over their market participation ("good provider" concern factor) than over either their informal or formal group participation; second, satisfaction over their economic role exerts a stronger effect on overall life satisfaction than their happiness over their social role.

To recapitulate, among the important determinants of enhanced female market participation are: woman's occupation (including work

location, baby-feeding practices, and number of employed household members), satisfaction with life and one's employment status, household socioeconomic status, and husband's participation in household chores. Of significant but less important impact also are child care, health status of the family, and household size and composition.

The most effective entry point for enhancing female market participation appears to be the improvement of the quality of women's involvement. By quality we refer to the type of occupation offered them, the improvement of which might require qualifications beyond what most women have now. One should be careful, then, in drawing conclusions about "improving the quality (type) of women's occupation." With the low absorption ceiling of the more prestigious professional and administrative occupations, only a small percentage of women can be employed in these areas or, for that matter, be trained for these occupations. A more meaningful reading, perhaps, is one which focuses on increasing female employment opportunities in more stable (regular) and better-paying occupations. Thus, to induce longer market hours of married women (median work-week among employed female workers being only 27.9 hours), they would have to be trained to work in more productive and higher earning economic enterprises, regardless of prestige associated. The increased opportunity for involvement in more regular and more profitable occupation could probably improve the judgment of people, and men most especially, about working married women; widen acceptable range of occupations for females; encourage greater lèniency to women's working away from home; and encourage more women to work. Porio, Lynch, and Hollnsteiner (1975: 80) found that people who know of a working mother tend to approve of the idea more than those who have never been acquainted with it.

The women's higher income would also improve the women's (and their household's) capacity to provide their infants mother's milk substitutes with minimal, if any deleterious effects. Additional

income could also make possible the purchase of needed household furniture and appliances as aids to the women's housekeeping chores, which they seem not to relinquish although engaged in a gainful occupation. Indeed, the majority of Bicolano households have, at best, one bed, a toilet of sorts, a table and one or two chairs which pass for a "dining" set, and one item of reading material, usually a komiks in Pilipino. Less than half (48 percent) have radios. Most households do not possess housekeeping aids like sewing machines, gas stoves, refrigerators, clothes closets, or the expected sala set. It comes as no surprise then for unhappiness to be keenest over household possessions.

Couple-sharing of household tasks and other family responsibilities provide another incentive for female market participation. Clearly, if female market participation is to be enhanced, the husband should start to accept alternative man-wife roles so that his traditional breadwinner role combines with housekeeper roles, in the same way that his wife is fusing the two. Both husband and wife can work on a job and also collaborate at home. Since housekeeping and child care are major deterrents to woman's market participation, easing her burden in these areas through more equitable distribution of labor would encourage a more profitable mix of domestic and nondomestic involvements for both partners.

Beyond the determinants discussed in this chapter, we further recognize that the expansion of female activities outside of the house would be affected by the prevailing value and attitude structures in the community. As social beings, people usually find themselves behaving according to what society has dictated to be "good" or "bad," "acceptable" or "taboo." Lest they be ostracized, they allow themselves to be carried along the mainstream of their society or culture. On the other hand, structural and technological changes in society do have an impact on community norms, reformulating them to respond to

new realities over time. Innovative currents here and there shift the main course and change the flow patterns of the cultural mainstream which sustains Bicolano norms, and which conditions women's behaviors and outlooks. The dominant norms as well as the points where deviations occurred make up the subject of discussion in the next chapter.

IV. FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN THE DEVELOPMENT PROCESS: IDENTIFYING ATTITUDINAL AND PERCEIVED CONSTRAINTS

Participation of women may be viewed in terms of their "traditional" or "nontraditional" roles. For instance, one might consider the housekeeper-role as one of the traditional ways in which women can get involved in macro development process. Here, one can speak of qualitative improvement in their performance or productivity as housekeepers and child-rearers. At the other extreme, women can be drawn to participate in nondomestic affaris that relegate housekeeping to the background. An example may be a total career woman who delegates both housekeeping and baby care to a battalion of hired helpers. This total involvement of a married woman in a career, or any "unhousewifely" enterprise, brings up the question of net benefit or cost, that is, the difference between the cost of hiring and maintaining servants, and the possible deterioration of the health condition of infants and young children, on the one hand, and the benefit accruing to the woman and her household as a result of her participation in nondomestic activities, on the other. Is there any humane point where a woman can strike a balance and practice a profession or apply her training without the family's (particularly the children's) suffering from a worsening health or nutritional status, for example? Or, should one consider such questions at all?

Although there exist a large number of pure-housekeeper cases, we do not find as many pure-professional or pure-housekeeper cases among married Bicolanas (or Filipinas). Instead, a growing number of women are shuttling, not so comfortably perhaps, between work or nondomestic involvement and housekeeping. Theirs is a concession to the traditional homeboundedness of their sex and the exigencies of extra-home participation.[16]

[16]Reason for working is said to vary according to income class.

The significantly high proportion of pure housekeepers incidentally raises the issue of constraints, real or imagined, to their potential involvement in the development of their community. In this chapter, we shall investigate these constraints--values, attitudes, and practices--which inhibit female participation in the relevant areas of life, particularly those beyond the boundaries of home.

Values and Attitudes

Some human behaviors, if not all, may be said to be conditioned by norms or standards governing action in, and feelings toward, particular situation. People value some behaviors as "good," others, as "bad." This judgment proceeds from the application of "norms or standards for decision and choice" (Lynch 1975: 80) in varying circumstances. Apart from these nonaffective values, people act and react according to their "evaluative feeling of pro or con, favorable or unfavorable, with regard to particular objects," or to what we refer to as attitudes (Insko and Schopler 1971: 22). Imperfect though they may be as predictors of behavior, values and attitudes do provide us with an indication of sorts as to how people will act in given situations, and as to how they will react to others.

To elicit such values and attitudes, three sets of questions are employed, namely: (1) life domains and people's perceived satisfaction on each (Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda 1976), (2) agreement-disagreement questions on 16 attitudinal statements, and (3) views on female participation in selected economic and noneconomic spheres.

Work for the lower-class woman is viewed primarily as an extension of her traditional role, the performance of which would depend on how the household head provides for the family. Where family income is so low, women would be expected to help out by working in some petty economic enterprise such as sari-sari store business, general buy and sell, and the like (see Gonzalez and Hollnsteiner 1976: 4-5). Work for women in higher income classes, on the other hand, could be based not only on the desire to increase family income, but also on the desire to find self-fulfillment in tasks other than chores at home (see Marquez 1958).

Major value factors of adult Bicolanos

Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda (1976: 26-27), working with Bicol River Basin male household heads, define five major value factors, namely: good provider, house and home, status and esteem, social participation, and education factors. Generally, however, one may speak of the values of economic security (factors of good provider, and of house and home), social acceptance (status and esteem and social participation), and of social mobility (education, and status and esteem factors).

Working with housewives' data and with an expanded list of life domains (added domains being family size, child-rearing, decision-making participation, marriage, and time allocation) resulted in nine value factors (for more detailed discussions, see Chapter II, above): mother as good housekeeper, well-planned family size and child-rearing practices, family health condition, and wife's activities and satisfaction in married life, in addition to the five factors cited earlier in this section.

We can possibly restate Bicolano (and, generally, lowland Filipino; Lynch 1975: 80-81) values after integrating the manifest female values as follows.

> Economic security: To have a respectable job and an adequate income for myself and my family, and so keep my family in good health, housed decently with at least the minimum necessary furniture and appliances;
>
> Social acceptance: To participate comfortably and enjoyably in small-group activities and community affairs, and to achieve favorable status and esteem as one whose children are well-educated.
>
> > Traditional wife-mother role: To manage adequately family behavior in general, and the number and rearing of children in particular; to be efficient in managing the various housekeeping activities, particularly in providing food and drink to the family; to be assured of health and social services and of institutional organizations that are of benefit to me

and my family. Most importantly, to have a part in decision-making at home, and to be treated well by my husband.

Social mobility: To have myself get as much formal education as possible to enable myself to advance up the social ladder in my community through my access to more prestigious and better-paying jobs; and to enjoy relatively high status and favorable esteem among my fellows.

It appears, then, that men and women share the common values of economic security, social acceptance, and social mobility. One should be cautious, however, in interpreting the applicability of social acceptance and social mobility factors uniformly to men and women. That is, a socially acceptable female behavior could be one where a woman places high value and gives greater priority to the valued traditional wife-mother role rather than to her participation in nondomestic activities, e.g., community organizations, informal social groups, social services, and the like. One gets this impression from the literature on Filipino women (particularly the literature survey article of Gonzalez and Hollnsteiner 1976), and from the responses of sampled Bicolanos to selected issues. These are discussed in the following subsection.

Values and attitudes related to sex

To elicit sex-related values and attitudes, respondents were asked to react (i.e., agree or disagree) to 16 selected statements (see Table B23). Of these 16 statements, four touched on morals (particularly on sexual matters); six on man-wife relationship; four on general man-woman status differences; and two on the real-man concept.

To all statements, except the ones we shall present shortly, male and female respondents register concurrence. The issues where disagreement has been reported are the following:

1. People think less of a man if his wife works;

2. A man should not be expected to have respect for a woman if they have sexual relations before they got married; and

3. Women think less clearly than men, and are more emotional than men.

It must be noted that Statement 1 has as many conformists as nonconformists among women (45 percent for both subgroups), while among the male respondents, 51 percent tend to agree with the statement and 41 percent would rather disagree. The pressure to keep women from working appears to be stronger on the man, whose ability to provide for his family is threatened--and his prestige lessened--by the presence of a working wife. Nonetheless, one should also notice the fairly sizeable proportion who opt for the more flexible arrangement.

As in Statement 1, men and women react differently to Statement 3. That is, whereas 61 percent of the men agree with the concepts of male superiority and female subjectivity, only 48 percent among the women respondents (versus 16 percent no-opinion and 36 percent dissenters) think similarly. From the trend of the responses elicited, objectivity seems to be viewed as better and, in fact, a superior quality as compared to subjectivity. Objectivity is associated with rational behavior, while subjectivity connotes the heart's (sentiment's) overriding the more logical dictates of the mind. On these issues, we detect diverging perceptions: men think they are emotionally superior than women, while the latter tend to reject such reported superiority.

Statement 2, on the other hand, finds more supporters among female respondents. Premarital sex is generally frowned at. But what seems to mitigate the "unsavory" association people have with it is the virtually mandatory resulting marriage between the couple, especially if a child has been conceived. It might not be too incorrect for us to suggest society's censure, rather than acceptance, of

continuing liaison without marriage. The woman in such a relationship usually suffers from the loss of the man's and society's respect. This, because of the generally agreed woman's responsibility (more than a man's) of upholding society's moral codes, especially on sexual matters.

Considering all 16 value/attitude statements, and after employing factor analysis on them, six value and attitude clusters emerged (see Table B24).

Morality factor: It is a woman's more than a man's duty to uphold society's moral code. Hence, unmarried mothers are viewed as morally a greater failure than an unmarried father. In marriage, moreover, betrayal of one through infidelity poses a serious threat to conjugal harmony, a highly valued thing by married women.

Female role factor: The woman's proper place is the home. Family matters should take precedence over community affairs, career, or other nondomestic involvement, although women should take an active interest in the community. To be able to keep the wife at home, the man should earn enough to support his family by himself.

Real-man factor: A man ought to be aggressive. He must be fired with ambition to succeed or "to make good." His ambition, moreover, should be coupled with determination for his plans to be realized.

Male-female status factors. The three value clusters dealing with the differences in the status of men and of women are as follows:

a. Man ought to play a dominant role in decision-making within the family. Thus, the wife cannot, by herself, make any long-range plans since they depend on her husband's. This dominant male status is enhanced by man's ability to think more objectively, clearly unbeclouded by emotions.

b. It is somehow unnatural to place w men in positions of authority over men. Man should be the superordinate; woman, the subordinate. Moreover, society tends to look down on a man who repudiates this asymmetrical relationship, as when he allows his wife to work.

c. A man ought to be a good provider lest he fails as husband and father. A man is not expected to respect a woman with whom he had had premarital sexual relations before marriage. All told, the women of today are still faced with discriminating and unfair conditions which ought to be removed

Using these value factors, how do values of Bicolano couples compare? Do we find husband and wife holding convergent or divergent norms? Which of the 16 issues discussed are characterized by agreement between couples; by disagreement?

We find moderate consensus between Bicolano couples on the real-man image and, to a certain extent, on the morality factor. Weak to moderate agreement between couples is likewise noted in the specification of the (traditional) role of women, especially after marriage. Although significant relationship is registered between responses of husband and wife on the male-female status factors, there is, at most, weak correlation between these responses. Conversely, discordance in couple's opinions would be registered more in areas where weak correlation has been reported. Since this degree of association is weakest on the issues of male superiority, the earlier-discussed disagreement between adult male and female Bicolanos' perception of men's superiority over women is further reinforced.

Although the value clusters discussed are based on responses of our married female respondents, one might suggest a similar patterning of responses of husband-respondents. This contention appears to be supported by the similar proportion of respondents of both sexes which agree with the statements.

What, then, can we say about societal values, attitudes, and expectations.

Bicol River Basin society seems to be characterized by a value system which places importance on economic security, social acceptance (especially in a woman's credible performance of her roles as wife,

mother, and housekeeper), and social mobility. Social acceptance can also be viewed as subsuming conformity to society's moral code especially by the woman who, in case of nonconformity, would bear the stigma of being impure.

There persists complementary expectations from man and woman. In matters of morals, woman is expected to be superior and to keep herself untarnished until marriage, after which she is bound to keep her husband's name beyond reproach. In other matters, the male of the species is seen as superior and, thus, faces mounting pressure to show more aggressiveness, ambition, and determination to succeed. In effect, there is the constant compulsion to prove his "natural" superiority over women. This is particularly manifested in his desire to be a good provider so as to be able to afford the luxury/necessity of supporting his family and a nonworking wife decently. If such cultural expectations are stifling, although ego-enhancing to the male, the absence of similar expectations for the woman could also be viewed as a limiting factor to her striving for total development and participation in the development of her society.

Significant deviations from the cultural mainstream have been noted in the more urbanized areas, particularly in the city. Perhaps true to the expectation that the structural and technological changes that usher urbanization or modernization cause the modifications in attitudes and relationships in almost all life spheres (i.e., family, economy, polity, culture, mores, and the like), men and women of the city have displayed disagreement with barrio residents on several attitudinal and value issues. These matters pertain particularly to morality, certain female roles, and the presumed superiority of men. Urban men and women, for instance, agree less with the following issues than their rural counterparts: (1) greater woman's duty (than man's) to uphold society's moral code, (2) unmarried mothers as morally greater failure than unmarried fathers, (3) particular importance

of ambition and determination in a prospective husband, (4) lower esteem for husbands with working wife, and (5) female plans as dependent on the husband's. In all these issues, urban residents tend to consider women as equals of men. Hence, for the city residents, it is as much a male as it is a female duty to uphold society's moral code. Similarly, women have as much right as men to work. Thus, men with working wife are not to be looked down. Instead, in view of rising costs of living, and the possible training which their womenfolk has received, their pragmatic attitude might be accepted, if not extolled.

Residents of urban and rural areas, however, appear to agree on two moral issues, infidelity and view on premarital sex. Men anywhere in the Bicol River Basin also share similar views on the matter of good provider, and on their assessment that women are still faced with discriminatory conditions inimical to their development.

Among the women, however, greater ambivalence appears to prevail, especially in the city. For example, while the urban women tend to concur more with allowing wife to work, and with encouraging active female participation in nondomestic activities, they, nonetheless, agree more with the woman-is-for-the-home statement than the supposedly more traditional women. Among urban males, the pattern is reversed. While they tend to agree more than the rural men with not allowing women to engage in extrahome activities (e.g., work or politics), they, nonetheless, tend to consider committing women in the home with less favor. Women, regardless of residence, appear to be divided on the issue of man's natural superiority over women, and on their assessment of the fairness of existing conditions and structures with regards to women. Urban women are not only more conformist than rural ones on these issues, there are also relatively more nonconformists among the former than the latter. All told, people in less traditional settings appear to be torn between clinging to traditional ways and embracing a set of nontraditional mores.

Beyond the minor discrepancies noted, the pattern that emerges is one where greater degree of nonconformity or nonagreement with traditional attitudes or values is evinced by urban respondents. The patterning of responses, in other words, reveals declining traditionality as we go from the city and the poblaciones to the countryside.[17]

Overall, although variations are observed between urban and rural areas in the Bicol River Basin, the prevailing value system appears to be "traditional" with greater room for maneuver granted the male in both domestic and nondomestic matters. This is probably due to the predominantly rural character of the Bicol River Basin, the rural areas being expectedly more tradition-bound than the cities.

Sex-Association of Activities

People are bound to evaluate the propriety (or impropriety) of female involvement in certain activities based on mental reservations as to whether such activities are "for women" or not. There persists a widespread opinion, for instance, that occupations which entail "going out" or "doing field work" are not for women, these being the province of men. The constraint to successful (i.e., acceptable) entry of women in occupations of this nature stems not from any attitude that women are intellectually inferior, but rather from the view that women are weak and fragile. Similarly, there exists some consensus on the femaleness or maleness of certain household chores. Women doing repair jobs (i.e., changing nipa shingles) are judged as

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[17]Aside from the urban-nonurban distinction, we likewise noted differences in orientation between men and women of the Basin. Generally, women are more traditional than male. Particularly, women are more rigid in matters of morals, and in acceptance of various traditional female roles. Among the female respondents, older-generation women ("mothers") are generally more traditional than the younger generation ("daughters"), the former being more steeped in traditional ways more than their daughters (see Table B26).

"masculine" and men doing the laundry, "feminine." Validating these impressions with a sample of respondents, the following insights emerged.

Household activities

Division of labor at home appears to be based on some implicit logic. The overall expectations about work assignment in Bicolano homes (clearly with rural bias), for example, seem to be heavily founded on a stronger-weaker-sex distinction and on the common sex-association of activities. The following activity groupings derived by factor analyzing the nine household chores, appear to support these contentions (cf. also Tables B27 and B28).

Female activities: Dishwashing, house/yard cleaning, clothes washing and ironing, child care, and marketing;

Share activities: Child discipline, and budgeting; and

Male activities: House repair, fetching water, and firewood gathering.

Unanimously viewed as woman's work, regardless of residence, are laundering, washing the dishes, and as the man's burden, house repairs, and providing the household with water and fuel. Apart from these chores, the tasks associated with women vary significantly with the degree of urbanization of the community. Shared activities perceptively decline as we move from urban to rural areas. Thus, while food preparation, house and yard cleaning, child care and discipline, and budgeting are disassociated from the sex of the doer by urbanites, not all are similarly evaluated by noncity residents. In poblaciones, budgeting and child care are female tasks; in the barrio, food preparation and cleaning the homestead are woman's work. Put differently, the standard burden imposed on women by their community's expectations is definitely less in urban than in nonurban areas. As expected, residents in urban areas are less traditional than those in the countryside.

Incidentally, the general bias concerning household division of labor appears to have the concurrence of the women. That is, they appear to agree with the menfolk about the chores they have to do as women of the house.

Economic activities

As in household chores assignment, people likewise tend to categorize some occupations as properly male; others as properly female. Between these extremes, there exist work activities which may be performed by either man or woman. In a survey of Bicolano couples, for instance, 93 percent (of 241 couples) could think of at least one occupation which they associate solely with men. Faced with a list of 17 occupations ranging from professions to farm work (see Tables B29 and B30), at least five careers were thought to be fields where they would greatly discourage, if not ban, entry by women. These are the following: land preparation (plowing and harrowing); transport work (as driver, conductor, or inspector); military service; engineering; and entertainment.

Asked why they consider these as nonfemale occupations, responses touched on the physical requirement of the job ("too strenuous for a woman"), to appeal to traditional sex association ("it's not feminine" or "it is usually done by men"), to woman's natural weakness ("too soft hearted"). Manual nonfarm occupations would also fall within this category, and for the same reasons. Examples of such jobs would be carpentry, mazonry, plumbing, and the like.

Occupations which we euphemistically categorize as "entertainment" comprise another field where female involvement is disapproved; this, because most people associate them with the rougher world of prostitution rather than with the more glamorous stage and movie careers. Work in this field is considered unacceptable to decent society, and is degrading to the family.

In less structured interviews with another set of informants, law and management careers are suggested as relatively closed to women in addition to the occupations mentioned earlier. Women are dubbed as soft-hearted, a quality the respondents feel would affect negatively her ability to make decisions as a manager, or her arguments in court as a lawyer.

Despite these attitudes, there is nonetheless a grudging recognition and awareness that all these essentially "male" or "nonfeminine" fields believed to be inappropriate to women do in fact have women practitioners. Nonetheless, given the opportunity to influence decisions or career choices of younger women, men and women alike would steer them away from these occupations.

What, then, are the acceptable careers for women? The practical domain for female careers covers home-based income-generating activities (e.g., sari-sari store, small-scale food manufacturing, dressmaking), nursing and midwifery, as well as the female-responsive fields of teaching, clerical and general office work, medicine, pharmacy and laboratory work, small-scale buy and sell, harvesting and threshing, and domestic service.

One notes that the general acceptability of female involvement in cottage industries stems from the closeness of the worksite to home. This enables the woman to engage in an economically profitable employment which allows her, at the same time, to keep an eye on the children and do some housekeeping activities.

Teaching, clerical work, and pharmacy and laboratory work are not seen as physically strenuous or as exposing women to the elements of sun and rain. Female workers in these fields are tied to a particular place and are expected to follow fairly regular work hours. One might belabor the point that these occupations are extensions of motherly preoccupations of instructing the children, or ministering to the health needs of the family. These service careers merely

extend her efforts beyond nuclear family to cover other families as well. The same argument could be offered concerning the acceptance of women in medicine, nursing, and midwifery, and, to some extent, in domestic service.

Harvesting, threshing, transplanting, and weeding, for their part, are phases in plough agriculture which permit female participation. Compared to less advanced agricultural systems (e.g., shifting cultivation) where women's involvement has been found to be high, plough agriculture dictates a dominantly male production system (Boserup 1970: 24-26). Only in these activities, perhaps because they do not require much brute strength, are women allowed to work. Further, the traditional practice of employing women to serve as supplementary labor at peak work periods appear to have mitigated the general bias against women's exposure to the elements as part of their work.[18]

Having discussed the acceptable realm of occupations and housekeeping activities, what do people feel about female participation in noneconomic, nondomestic, or community activities?

Noneconomic community activities

Although people would rather see women at home, they do not, in principle, object to their active interest in community problems and activities. There are, however, varying shades of agreement to female involvement in specific types of organized action. While there is almost unanimous approval of women's taking active part in religious

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[18]The occupational distribution of women workers in the Bicol River Basin illustrates the behavioral patterning as probably affected by, and affecting people's attitudes toward women, and the kind of employment they can have: Relatively more female than male workers are found in white-collar occupations (e.g., sales, clerical, professional, etc.), off-farm work (e.g., transplanting, harvesting, and threshing, etc.), and service occupations (e.g., dressmaking, domestic service, and the like). See Illo 1976: 18-19.

and sociocivic activities, people are not as enthusiastic (although still generally approving) over women's becoming involved in politics. Very minimal disagreement on this score exists between men and women, and among women of different generations ("mothers" and "daughers"). Surprisingly, perhaps, urban dwellers, regardless of sex or age group, appear to be less approving of female political participation than the supposedly more traditional barrio populace (see Table B31 for empirical evidences).

The ambivalent attitude over the presence of women in political as opposed to sociocivic and religious organizations stem from the perceived link between the nature of the activity and expected female interests. Political affairs are invariably associated with the Batasang Bayan and Sangguniang Bayan, two significant political forums created under martial law. Politics is still linked with pre-martial law political parties, elected political positions in the community, and the active and energy-draining election campaigns. Very seldom do we find people operationalizing "political involvement" as the exercise of suffrage, attendance and participation at meetings in preparation, for instance, for forthcoming referenda or plebiscites.

Moreover, topics of conversations are observed to differ between sex-groups. Thus, while men engage in long and oftentimes heated discussions over political issues (e.g., martial law, the Aquino case, and referenda issues), women generally pursue small talks or home-related community issues like family planning, nutrition, prices, baby feeding, and similar problems.

Religious and civic activities, on the other hand, are commonly associated with beautification campaigns, food and nutrition drives, fiesta preparation, and similar thrusts viewed as mere extension of housewifely chores and interests. Furthermore, religion and religion-related activities seem to be correlated with feminine concerns; spiritual matters are assigned to women; secular or worldly affairs, to men.

An investigation of the reasons given by our sample household respondents in relation to their negative view over female political vs. female civic participation illustrates the points raised above (Table 8).

Table 8. Reasons reported by respondent-type why women should not participate, by two selected noneconomic community activities (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Reason	Political		Sociocivic	
	Husband	Wife	Husband	Wife
Activities are for men	58%*	48%	14%	15%
Women are for the home	26	36	43	69
Activities are strenuous	16	0	29	23
Women's service not needed	10	9	0	0
Sample n	38	58	7	13

*The percentages refer to the proportion of respondents in each class who gave the particular reason to total respondents who think women should not participate in noneconomic community activities.

An apparently more important point against female participation in political affairs is the incongruity of women's presence in activities which are mainly for men. The traditional apology, "women are for the home," seems to be an overriding deterrent to the minority who disapproves of female involvement in nonhousehold activities, political or not. Moreover, it is more popularly alluded to in connection with women's commitment to sociocivic organizations. Indeed, one cannot consider civic affairs as the monopoly of men; on the contrary, these are seen as the province of women. Thus, dissenters might indeed resort to the locus of a woman's life as being housebound to justify their views, but not to civic activities' being properly male.

Why do most people, despite the general traditional attitudes held, react favorably toward woman's involvement in noneconomic community activities?

Men make up only half of the total population, but this half seems to monopolize organizations, community affairs, and executive positions, with the understandable exception of all-female organized groups. Most, if not all, people recognize the need for the female half of the population to be given (if only token) representation in organizations and activities which are not exclusive to any one sex. Moreover, many say that women ought to be given their chance to contribute to the welfare of their community. These points are borne out in the reasons given by our sample respondents (Table 9).

Apart from the reasons cited above, women are also thought to be naturally inclined to participate in religious activities. Moreover, women are thought to be more interested than men about participating in civic affairs. The interest women are assumed to have in religion and religion-related activities has a bearing on the welfare of the family; initial religious instructions are viewed as one of the duties of a good mother. The molding of the child's character is of utmost importance, and the spirituality of the mother is seen as contributory to this effort. However, like any other interests, the woman has still to consider child care and housekeeping as more immediate than, for instance, attendance in religious (or civic) organizational meetings or affairs. As always, the woman has to make sure that her participation in such affairs would not undermine her performance as mother and wife.

Community leadership

Beyond mere membership in community organizations, what chances do women have to become leaders? Put differently, who has better opportunities to emerge as a community leader--a man or a woman?

There appears to be some consensus as to the lopsided spread of opportunities, which favor men more than women.[19] When asked the

[19]At least for the five municipalities and one city covered in

Table 9. Reason reported by respondent-type as to why women should participate in two selected noneconomic community activities (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Reason	Political		Sociocivic	
	Husband	Wife	Husband	Wife
Female representation/contribution to total welfare	68%	67%	47%	38%
Personal (female) development	7	10	14	21
Equal chances for equals	28	19	13	12
Female service is needed	17	21	20	21
If women so desire to participate	19	24	18	25
Sample n*	201	219	230	262

*The percentages total to more than 100 since they represent the proportion of respondents in each sex class who gave the reason either as first-mentioned, second- or third-mentioned. This allows the possibility of the sum of the number of reports to exceed the sample n.

above questions, about 63 percent of adult male and female respondents perceive a male-biased leadership structure; 34 percent feel that women have as much chance as men to assume positions of authority. Urban residents, more than their rural counterparts, share the equal-opportunity distribution perception. The Bicol River Basin being more rural than urban reflects the unequal distribution of authority positions between the sexes. Why a male bias exists might be explained by the reasons given in Table 10.

Men, most people would say, are expected to be superior and, thus, "naturally" assume authority positions. The presidency, chairmanship, or headship are male preserves. Moreover, community leadership

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the third phase of the study, only 4 percent of the 25 poblacion and 119 barrio barangays have a female barangay captain; 19 percent of the 137 barangay councilmen in the poblaciones, while only 15 percent of the 693 barrio barangay councilmen, are women. The membership of the Sangguniang Bayan in these communities is also male-dominated: 98 out of 107 members being male.

Table 10. Reasons reported by respondent-type as to why leadership opportunities in their community for men are better than those for women (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Reason	Husband	Wife
Leadership positions are reserved for men	53%*	50%
Men are expected to be leaders	26	34
Activities are strenuous	16	14
Men are more capable	-	7
Female domestic responsibilities limit her participation	-	10
Sample n	147	152

*The percentages given refer to the number of times a particular reason is given in relation to the number of respondents who report that male opportunities are better than those for females.

positions usually involve firm and decisive action ("women are more emotional;" "women are soft-hearted"), time to organize and coordinate projects and activities ("women have to attend to housekeeping and the children"), and sometimes entail going out at night. These aspects of a leader's life do not accommodate very comfortably with the crowded domestic schedule of a married woman. It does not come as a surprise, then, if the typical female leader who does emerge is either unmarried or a mother with grown children. These women's relatively greater time for extrahome activities is surely an advantage they enjoy over the stereotyped harrassed housewife with housekeeping and growing children (plus a baby, perhaps) to deal with. Nonetheless, women, single or married (with or without growing children), have to contend with the general stereotype that they as women are usually dominated by their emotions than by their mind. Indeed, this is probably the first handicap women aspiring to become leaders have to overcome.

Intensive interviews with female leaders--political, civic, and religious--reveal several interesting insights. One of the most active political, civic, and religious woman-leaders in the Bicol River Basin, for instance, observed that although opportunities for women are present, women, as a rule, prefer to stay at home to care for their family. There is also the preference of males and females alike for male leaders. Thus, although leadership positions are theoretically open to either sex, female reluctance and people's male preference perpetuate male domination of leadership positions.

In her case, she says, she started her service career with civic and religious organizations, where she held responsible positions including the presidency. These groups were all-women organizations like the Daughters of Isabela, Catholic Women's League, and Women's Club, among others. Having established her credentials as an effective leader, she branched out to politics. If women have to be represented in politics, the voters might have reasoned, let her be it. Although she is generally acknowledged as a female political leader, she holds a position similar to that of housewife to husband, that is, the post she assumed is an auxiliary rather than a dominant leadership post.

Another, much younger, woman-leader got involved in politics while she was still in her late twenties. The political party to which her family is affiliated needed a woman candidate on its slate. Although she did not have the same experience as the first-mentioned leader, her father's supporters as well as her "titulo" (she is an engineer) helped her win the election. Because of her involvement in community affairs even before marriage her husband did not object to her pursuing her political career. Accordingly, contrary to usual experience, she is a triple-status woman (wife, mother, and career woman), shuttling not only from home to work but also to meetings, rallies, and project sites.

A well-known civic leader in the study area is an unmarried woman in her fifties. She is established in her profession (teaching and educational management), which has exposed her to community problems and activities. This lady's participation is an offshoot of her earlier involvement with teachers' groups, and, probably, her assumption of an important professional post. She became a familiar figure in civic organizations and was later elected to serve as the head of committees as well as an officer in these groups.

These three cases have several things in common with the other leaders interviewed. First, successful women-leaders have completed some professional education prior to entry to public life. There are lawyers, doctors, engineers, pharmacists, teachers, and similarly educated female leaders in the Basin. Second, among those who have gone into politics, successful entry appears to have been facilitated by affiliation--consanguinal or affinal--with a family of politicians. At the outset, they were guaranteed some support by their family's "lideres" (campaign managers) and followers. Among those who have excelled in civic affairs, their access to a clique which is probably composed of women in the same profession made their rise easier, if not actually faster, coupled, of course, with their potentials and interests to become leaders. Lastly, most, if not all, come from the upper-middle and elite classes. To stay in business, one must be able to spend time and money to finance one's participation as officials in a number of affairs.

More than men, perhaps, women have to prove themselves in politics. One effective way, it seems, is through education. Acting as a foil to the traditional bias against women's assumption to positions of authority, education can be considered as "proof" of a woman's preparedness to tackle more than just housewifely chores.

As earlier mentioned, people acknowledge the need for female representation not only in the roster of organization members but in

the officialdom, as well. As one female political leader puts it: Women are needed on planning and program implementation boards to ensure that female concerns are taken up and programs properly devised. "Naturally feminine" problems which include nutrition, family planning, beautification, and similar issues, would be better handled if women were involved in the drafting of solutions. Upon closer inspection, however, we note that female participation is focused on housewifely concerns. It seems that women's involvement--as member or leader--takes the nature of a transference of the woman as housekeeper to that of a community-keeper, both roles of which are supportive rather than principal roles.

Having discussed several significant attitudinal and perceived constraints to woman's complete integration into the community beyond her traditional roles of mother, wife, and housekeeper, we now ask the question: What, in household decision-making practices, holds back women from participating in extrahome activities?

Household Decision-making

Since the activities of women usually revolve around household management and family life, these female preoccupations might also serve as constraints to their participation in nondomestic affairs. In this section, we shall investigate patterns of decision-making and how the woman figures in this process.

Decision-making may be viewed as the selection of a course of action from among alternate courses. In such a process, actors may take equal or unequal roles. With the former, decisions are reached jointly. Where the household is the locus of such an interaction, joint decision-making would refer to an activity where the selection of the course of action to be taken involves the husband and the wife. In some areas, this activity includes the children as well. Where primary or major decision-makers can be identified, decision-making

may be said to involve dominant versus docile actors, the former being the principal decision-maker.

To identify the patterns of decision-making in Bicolano households, 18 issues were considered. Both housewives and husbands were asked to specify who, in their household, usually decides on certain issues. In a separate investigation where we worked with fewer informants the dynamics of household decision-making was discussed. We shall touch on these aspects below.

Decision-making areas

Eighteen issues were initially discussed. Based on the answers collected from a sample of housewives these issues were factored out. The ensuing issue-groups together with the component issues are as follows:

1. Children's activities: choice of friends, school to be attended, course in college to be taken;
2. Family planning: family size, and pregnancy interval;
3. Children's external participation: participation in community affairs, and work involvement;
4. Domestic issues: residence, and household budget;
5. Economic issues: family investment or business work involvement of the wife, and daughter's disciplines(?);
6. Family affairs: wife's community participation, son's community participation, and discipline of son; and
7. Family recreation.

The seventh factor can be subsumed under family affairs, bringing the number of issue-groups down to six. Factors 1 and 3 pertain to children. But, while the first issue-group relates to children's informal group participation and formal socialization activities, the third pertains to their involvement in organized community affairs (e.g.,

beautification campaigns, fiesta programs, and the like) as well as in the labor market. It must be noted that the first group of children-related issues covers socialization areas through which the younger household members would normally go. Community and market participation, for their part, provide realms of involvement which are not usually considered essential to growing up. They are, if ever, activities associated with grownups.

Decision-makers(s) identified

With the exception of children's activities the selection of which is done primarily by children, the common household decision-maker is not just the wife or husband, but both. This is particularly true in family planning matters, family affairs, family recreation, and children's external participation. The choice of school is a two-state affair: in the earlier years (i.e., elementary and probably until secondary years) the couple decides; later, the children take over when the choice of college to be attended is at hand. With the selection of school the children also choose the course they want to take up in college. This freedom enjoyed by children, however, is tempered by the availability of family funds to finance children's educational plans.

The wife, for her part, is acknowledged to be the major decision-maker in matters pertaining to the family budget and her possible (if not actual) participation in the labor market. However, although she is not identified as the primary actor in other issues, she is nonetheless a participant in the selection of action to be taken in all other questions where the mode of decision-making is joint. The prevalent relationship between Bicolano couples, then may be said to be egalitarian (i.e., shared authority), an observation similar to that reported by Stoodley (1957: 242) among Tagalog families and, to a certain extent, by Porio, Lynch, and Hollnsteiner (1975: 36-37) among urban Filipino households.

Joint decision-making is said to involve the initiation of the problem or issue by either husband, e.g., family business, or wife, e.g., children's discipline, for the two of them to act on together. Discussion of possible actions then ensue. After evaluation of the pros and cons of the alternative course of action, some degree of consensus is reached. However, where conflict occurs, the husband's opinion is invariably followed. The wife, however, can take recourse to any of the following to reverse the decision: arguing with her husband, keeping her peace, sulking, nagging, or disregarding her spouse. Nonetheless, except for the few times when the couple is at loggerheads, the final decision can still be viewed as the result of shared responsibility and authority.

Regardless of this prevalent decision-making mode in a number of family issues, one is struck by the way wife's community participation is settled as compared, for instance, to participation by husband, or to the issue of whether the wife should work or not. Although the wife is the key person involved in the question of whether or not she should be allowed to participate in organized community affairs, most households report shared husband-and-wife decision-making as the usual way of deciding that issue. In the case of a husband's similar participation, however, the husband is left to decide by himself whether he should get involved or not. It appears then that the man is given greater leeway in deciding what he may do. This might be the result of the view of woman's involvement in non-domestic activities as competing with the demands of housekeeping, an activity she is expected to perform. Because of the disruption in household routine which could result from her participation in nonhousehold affairs, she feels that the husband should not only know about the planned participation but also share in the decision for her to participate or not. This way any untoward effects of the diversion of housewifely attention would be borned not entirely by her, but shared by her husband.

Juxtaposed with the working-mother issue, a divergence in decision-making pattern is likewise noted. While, as stated earlier, the most popular mode for deciding on woman's community involvement is joint, the decision as to whether or not the wife should work is entirely left to the woman. Joint decision-making comes as a mere second most popular pattern. The observed difference could be related to several factors among which are (1) the nature of the involvement, and (2) attitude toward nondomestic participation.

Labor market participation is an area where benefits may be measured in terms of earnings--cash or noncash. Such activity, then, is viewed as a possible means of augmenting household income or, as local people would say: "pandagdag sa pagkabuhay" (added lease to life). It is rational behavior for lower-income class households, for instance, to acknowledge the necessity of a working mother to make both ends meet. But, because of the traditional role assignment of man as earner and woman as housekeeper, it might be less face-losing ("dai gayong nakakasupog") for the woman to decide whether she wants to work or not. This way the man can explain away the fact of his wife's working as the result of his wife's nagging him to allow her to work. As a matter of "delicadeza" (roughly translated to self-respect) he would rather not be involved in this decision. For, would not the expectation of most people be that he should have put his foot down and make her stay at home? But, if she insists on working, could it be taken as his fault or could it not be charged to woman's fancies? Moreover, the spiraling increase in prices must have shrunk the purchasing power of the husband's income. At least to help maintain the family's current level of living, the wife is oftentimes forced by circumstances to work and, thus, increase the family income.

The participation in social, civic, and similar affairs, on the other hand, might be considered not only as disruptive but also as unnecessary. The household stands to profit more if the mother is

free of outside commitments. Unlike her working, other types of community involvement could more likely be a drain rather than an addition to family funds. These being the likely effects, the wife would rather involve the husband in deciding whether to let her participate or not, than bear the consequences of a personal decision alone. Moreover, in some cases the work-question is a matter of the woman's staying in a job she had held before marriage. The discussion below will illustrate how some household decided on the work issue.

Employment decisions and marriage: Illustrative cases

In the first phase of this study, 14 married women were interviewed and asked to give their employment history for the past 10 years (i.e., 1966 until 1976). These 14 cases are described in Table 11.

It appears from the cases for which we have records that women who before marriage were already working especially in white-collar occupations do not automatically leave work after marriage. Only in the case of W03 do we find a withdrawal from the labor market, although this was not brought about by marriage per se or by the coming of the children. Instead, this woman decided to leave her teaching post after her husband got involved with an agricultural venture which would take him out (and far) from his family most of the time. This entailed, according to the respondent, someone's having to stay at home. In the second case of job withdrawal (case of W01), the husband insisted on the wife's leaving her business and attending to the family full-time. It could be that the earnings from this business could not compensate for "losses" which would likely be incurred

Table 11. Selected employment data for 14 Phase I married-women cases (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Case no.	Work status in Oct. '76	Worked before marriage?	Primary occupation	No. of years worked	
				Before marriage	After marriage
W01	No	Yes	Beautician	9	0
W02	No	No	Housekeeping	0	0
W03	No	Yes	Teacher	4	4
W04	Yes	Yes	Clerk	5	4
W05	Yes	Yes	Clerk	6	6
W06	Yes	Yes	Teacher	1/2	1
W07	Yes	Yes	Service	n.d.	3
W08	Yes	Yes	Teacher/accountant	1	18
W09	Yes	Yes	Lawyer	0	10*
W10	Yes	Yes	Physician	0	11
W11	Yes	Yes	Pharmacist/	1	27
			Political leader	0	8
W12	Yes	No	Trader	0	1
W13	Yes	No	Vendor	0	1
W14	Yes	Yes	SSS business	n.d.	2

*Pertains to period starting 1966 only.

by the family if the woman were to work, or that the work usually took the woman into town. The husbands in both cases had jobs.

Is the husband's ability to support his family (i.e., his holding a job) a necessary condition for him to ask his wife to quit working? Generally, perhaps, yes. In some exceptional cases, however, we find a man who works at odd jobs asserting his ability to feed and clothe his family without his wife's going out to work. This, according to the woman-respondent who found herself in such a position, was ridiculous but her husband insisted that she stay at

home. How did she manage to persuade him to let her work? By challenging him to support her and their (then) only child without the assistance of his parents. They discussed the necessity of her going back to work. The woman had about five years work experience and there was a restaurant which was then in need of a worker. She said that he eventually capitulated when she found work in a restaurant in the poblacion, the owners of which were friends of her husband's family. Otherwise, she would not know whether he would have relented in his insistence for her to stay home.

Two of the 14 for which we have employment histories left work after their children started coming. One, for her part, stopped working when her husband decided to enter on agribusiness venture and she had to stay home to take care of the household. Where it was necessary for somebody to stay with the children, it looks as though the women have to give way to the men. Most females interviewed--married or not--confided that had their husbands seriously objected to their working and could afford to support them and the children, they would probably have stayed home. Professional women, on the other hand, were less willing to give up their career. This is especially the case among female lawyers, doctors, engineers, and, to a certain extent, teachers.

Women who formerly were not working either decide not work at all, or given a situation of dire financial need in the family would look for cash-earning employment for the first time. These ventures are usually in the form of buy-and-sell of consumer items (e.g., textile, jewelry, or canned goods) or of personal services (e.g., dressmaking, manicuring, or hair dressing).

One can, therefore, tentatively suggest that working women generally do not leave their work after marriage. Those interviewed commented that their decision to hold on to their job is probably because they have been used to having money of their own, and they

think they can cope with two responsibilities--work and home. Most, however, had husbands who did not object to their holding on to their job. Those with spouses who were not very keen on their working reported that this matter was painlessly settled as the man eventually came around to the wife's point of view. There were cases, of course (as stated above) where some women were prevailed on to leave their jobs. This, however, did not immediately take place as a consequence of marriage.

Summary

The women in the Bicol River Basin appear to be living in a society entrenched in traditional values and attitudes, particularly as related to women and what they can do. Although there have been changes through the years, old ways of thinking seem to prevail.

Where changes have taken place we find contradictions. An example is presented by the issue of woman's participation in nonhousehold activities. The value of traditional female roles (i.e., wife, mother, and housekeeper) appears to clash with the growing recognition and acceptance of women's presence in community affairs. There exist, nonetheless, more acceptable spheres of female involvement (e.g., religious and civic activities) than others (e.g., politics), and degree of participation (membership vs. leadership).

In both the household and economic spheres, some activities are judged to be more female-elastic than others. But, as in values and attitudes, there have been recognizable shifts in the identification of occupations as female or male. Women have increasingly invaded once purely-male domains. Thus, we now have female lawyers, bus conductors, executives, and the like. Only in the rougher activities of land preparation where we find attitude and behavior coinciding, the women have chosen to leave the field entirely to men.

Despite the traditional view that man should have the major say in family matters, most family issues are decided jointly by wife and husband. One, of course, could wonder about the relative weights of roles in a supposedly egalitarian process. Reported practices appear to diverge from expectation in decision-making concerning the wife's community participation. Here, the wife seems to waive her principal "right to decide" in favor of joint or of husband's decision. In an effort perhaps. to mitigate the possible blame which would befall her nonhousehold involvement, the wife opts for her husband to decide whether she can participate or not. In matters of working outside the home, however, she makes the decision. Any objections on her husband's part are mitigated by the income she brings to the household--a not insignificant contribution in the inflationary economy of the past few years. Nonetheless the attitude that a woman's place is in the home rather than in the market economy persists. It will take considerable pressure from demographic trends and institutions in society to change this orientation and the norms that sustain it.

V. WOMEN AND DEVELOPMENT: ALTERNATIVE ROLES AND STRATEGIES

Total development of a people is possible only when they themselves participate consciously in mapping and carrying out their own destinies. Too often, well-meaning but impatient change agents in government or private sectors unilaterally draw up a blueprint for people's lives. Wh[illegible] the end product entails increased rice yields or an overall scheme for improving quality of life, the imag[illegible] inevitably reflects the "experts" views rather than those of the ordinary villagers.

A program for total development envisions people neither as objects nor subjects but as partners with change agents in humane, people-centered planning and implementation. This model is one that has people leading and experts following (Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda 1976). Strategies for the integration of women in developmental efforts are no exception.

Women, like men, must be viewed as playing not merely beneficiary but participatory roles as well. Their concerns, the constraints they face, and the alternative roles they can play in the changing order of things demand intensive consideration. Many new roles will emerge from existing ones, and undergo modification as they blend in more or less harmoniously with the evolving sociocultural environment. Others will burst forth more dramatically as clear deviations from tradition. Whichever is the case for specific women or groups of women, all must have a say in the directions they will take.

In light of the findings of this Bicol study, let us now evaluate alternative roles which women in general and married women, in particular, can assume in the development of the Bicol River Basin.

Alternative Female Roles

However much one might want to vary the roles that each sex plays, he will, nonetheless, have to contend with models of desired or expected male and female behavior. The female roles encompass three models. At the two extremes are the pure or full-time housewife, on the one hand, and the career woman, on the other. In-between comes the transitional-traditional part-time working woman who straddles both the outside work world and the domestic environment.

The pure housewife

This most socially valued female preoccupation encompasses a composite of roles, the most important of which are the following: housekeeper (i.e., washerwoman, cleaning woman, marketwoman, budget officer, and the like), mother, and wife. All three require meritorious performance. Of particular significance is her mother-role, which presupposes her supervision over the feeding, grooming, and training of her children. In her rests the responsibility of ensuring that the next generation is well brought up. Accomplishing this task has kept the woman at home, tied to home-based responsibilities.

One look at the prevailing economic conditions in the Bicol River Basin, however, raises the questions as to the practicality of the 100-percent housewife model. The area reflects a dominant poverty situation involving about 80 percent of the households in the area (Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda, 1976; Illo and Lynch 1975). Against this backdrop, the traditional female role presents a paradox: the full-time housewife is viewed as the architect of a strong family, but also contributes little to its strength in terms of actual cash income. This implies a divergence between the family's physiological and social needs, on the one hand, and its material resources, on the other. With resources so low, nonworking housewife may in a sense turn out to be an unrealistic household luxury. One should, of course,

recognize the probability that nonworking housewives have been deterred from seeking paid employment by the absence of opportunities in their community, or by the discrepancy between existing job requirements and their educational training. Our findings, however, seem to point to a moderate pyschological preference among women to stay at home after marriage. With the exception of women who have been employed before marriage, or whose level of training is so high that nonpractice would entail too great a loss in prospective income, the absence of opportunities coupled with the nonwork preference appear to foster the present full-time housewife phenomenon.

What can one say about the benefits of this role? Housekeeping and other housewifely chores encompass skills, attitudes, and values that women have learned consciously and unconsciously during childhood and early adolescent socialization. More than men, therefore, they are better equipped to carry out housekeeping and child-care activities. Beyond these natural or acquired skills and traits, women also earn less than men. This, people reason, makes logical the division of labor that identifies the husband as earner and the wife as housekeeper.

Moreover, the involvment of the wife in nondomestic activities could usher in the need for hired helpers or relatives to keep the house in order and the children out of trouble during her absence. In both instances, this means added mouths to feed, additional space requirements; in the case of hired help, wages to be paid. Consequently, a careful weighing of the monetary and nonmonetary expenses entailed by the wife's working against the prospective earnings she would bring home becomes necessary. Or, put another way, would the additional peso income generated compensate for the additional peso cost that would be incurred.

Another advantage associated wih the pure housewife role is the positive psychological impact the mother's constant presence is believed

to have on the children during the latter's growing and formative years. More than anybody else, a mother exhibits the greatest amount of care and affection for the child. The constant absence of a working mother, or her greater activity in nondomestic affairs is seen as depriving the child of the qualitative features of the mother-child relationship. Assessing housewifely roles is largely a qualitative judgment that ultimately only people themselves can make.

In general, Bicol women report their feeling fairly happy over the present arrangement as regards time allocation, decision-making participation, child care, economic conditions, and others (see Chapter II). Women who are saddled with full-time housekeeping report significantly lower life satisfaction, and are not as happy as the working ones. Those with less access to social services show less satisfaction with existing health and welfare clinics and centers.

Assuming the validity of the full-time housewife-role as a real and acceptable role alternative for women in the development of the Bicol River Basin, one can take steps to improve their satisfaction in those domains having the greatest impact on their life quality. These are the following: household possessions which can aid them in household chores and, possibly, lend prestige to their household; greater access to social, particularly health, services; education and training both for improving their status in the community and preparing them for better-paying jobs; and time allocation between household and activities. Even full-time housewives do not perceive the home as the world.

The career woman

A rare breed among married women, the career woman is often caricatured in popular literature as a mother faced with delinquent children, a topsy-turvy household, and a marriage on the rocks. Some

believe that a woman must choose a career or a marriage, since they are mutually incompatible.

Nonetheless, cases of two-career families where the wife, like the husband, follows a lifestyle characterized by involvement in a profession or a career, show that such couples cope with their situation substantially differently than do the more traditional working-husband/nonworking-wife couples, or working couples where the wife takes on part-time work (Holmstrom 1972). Each partner considers the other's career demands in planning his or her activities. Both are involved in household tasks including child care. Thus, faced with a sick child, the woman is not necessarily called upon to leave her work. Rather, the husband, if his job allows greater leeway for absence, can stay home and take over the care of the child. This model suggests a marriage of equals.

Although this arrangement is not common in the Philippines and in the Bicol River Basin in particular, it is nonetheless one alternative. Here the woman assumes the same opportunities as the man to develop a career without having the traditional housewifely demands as a constraint. Where constraints exist, they would affect both man and woman. Thus, both partners would be faced with the same domestic limitations in their efforts to maximize their satisfaction in professional as well as in family life.

The part-time working married woman

Among the Bicol married-woman sample, about half fall into the traditional-transitional role. As in the first role stereotype, this transitional role embraces several subroles, namely: housewife, part-time worker, and mother. Apparently, wives do not relinquish the traditional roles as they add on the worker's role. Women in this role-model tend to take on jobs which their household schedule can accommodate. Although in some instances helpers have been employed or relatives

requested to tend to the children, a large part of housekeeping responsibilities is still reserved for the woman when she comes home from work. Hence, multiplication of demands, expectations, and pressures descends upon the woman who leaves her traditional niche to compete with others--men or women--for whatever jobs exist or whatever income can be earned.

In the more urbanized areas in the Bicol River Basin, however, these mounting pressures have been slightly mitigated by the changing orientation of husbands, who lean toward some work-sharing at home, especially if no domestic or kin assistance is available. More urban husbands are reportedly doing even such traditionally female tasks as dishwashing (15 vs. rural 12 percent) or food preparation (25 vs. rural 24 percent). However, even in these cases, the backbreaking work of laundering, housecleaning, and child care are still looked upon as housewifely chores.

The shift in the locus of woman's activities--from home-only to work-and-home--is to be taken with the following in mind. More intensive market participation is possible only by reducing child-care or housekeeping time, either with outside domestic and kin help, or greater participation in housekeeping chores by the husband. The least tiring or tedious arrangement tolerable for a working wife, involves a husband accepting the idea of a modified household division of labor. Without this, the low-income woman will be burdened with more work than she can normally carry, and possibly incur negative physical and emotional consequences. Among low-income households, hired help or relatives are almost out of the question since they entail maintenance costs which are beyond the resources of the household.

Nonetheless, an argument for the working wife stems from the very low levels of income endemic in the region. Added take-home earnings from the wife represents an important contribution to family

welfare. It makes possible access to improved health services, purchase of better food, household furniture, and appliances which lighten housekeeping activities and turn the house into a more homey place. While having all these items may not be possible at the same time, being beyond the range of low-income households, anyone of them can make life more tolerable for the woman and her family.

Contributions notwithstanding, misgivings abound over wife-mothers who hold jobs. Most common are the fear of lower-health status for the children, delinquency, quarrels between husband and wife, and abandoned housekeeping responsibilities. The husband also opens himself to criticism by his peers if he allows his wife to work. Society still dictates that the woman's place is the home. If the man can afford it, he should not let his wife work. A working wife indicates his inability to support his family, and almost by definition, his failure as a husband and father.

On the other hand, our findings show that working mothers have children of higher nutritional status than those of nonworking mothers, regardless of socioeconomic status; husbands eventually accept the idea of a working wife, particularly if the latter was working even before marriage, and/or is earning well; and the woman still does the housekeeping when she returns home, including washing the clothes, and caring for the children. Where no relative or helper can attend to the children, the wife makes sure that she does not work too far from home, and that her work will not eat up too much of her time. These reported arrangements seem to meet the approval of the husband. Thus, in very few cases do we find husband-wife strife based on her work. This absence of work-related marital trouble is significant inasmuch as woman's happiness with life is closely linked with her marital satisfaction.

To sum up, therefore, a condition for painless (or less traumatic) integration of women in the market economy entails a change of attitude

among the males toward housekeeping-sharing; women's training for a well-paying job; and their assurance of greater access to both institutional and noninstitutional social services. In fact, Bicol couples seem to make the kinds of adjustments needed to sustain working wives. The most significant consideration in evaluating the effect that work may have on the marital relationship stems from the wife's overriding desire to maintain a harmonious relationship with her spouse, whether she works or not.

Framework for Integrating Women

Having considered the different roles which women can assume, we now consider a framework for designing assistance (development) programs which cover not just one role, but several alternative roles. Approximating the people-leading-experts-following approach to planning and implementation, we shall take as our starting point the concerns elicited from the female population of the Bicol River Basin. From there, we shall work out possible programs and projects which allow for the enhancement of female status under any of the three models described in the last section. Then, we shall subject these projects to means-ends analysis to see how well they fulfill the criteria for social soundness stipulated in Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda (1976: 3-5), which, when applied to women, may be paraphrased as follows:

1. Does the program provide for the interests of women?
2. Does the idea for the program come from the women?
3. Will the delivery of the benefits be through the women?
4. Will the program in fact bring its benefits to the women?
5. Should the program not come from the women or not be delivered through them, is the program an essential prerequisite for the basic felt needs of the women?

Applying these criteria to particular projects envisioned for the Bicol River Basin by its high-level planners and as suggested in this paper, we shall first review four elements necessary in designing a development program for women: (1) a review of the problems faced by women; (2) the goals, and the projects that should achieve them each with its agreed-on-indicators of accomplishment and specified function in the overall plan; (3) a justification, on economic and technical grounds, of the goals and projects that were selected; and (4) a justification, on social-soundness grounds, of the selected projects.

Problem identification: First element

Since an exhaustive list of problems which confront the largely male household heads in the area have been presented elsewhere (Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda 1976: Table 7), we shall present here only the concerns of the housewives in the study area. There are, as we shall observe, overlaps in the concerns of male and female adults in the Basin, but this should come as no surprise; neither should the additional concerns that surfaced with the expansion of the life domains which our married-women respondents evaluated.

As indicated in the earlier discussions (Chapter II), housewives cited as their major problem areas or concerns the following:

1. House and home: housing and household possessions;
2. Social benefits: social services and formal organizational participation;
3. Education;
4. Job and income;
5. Physio-economic security and stability: health of self and family, and prices; and
6. Housekeeping: time allocation, and food and drink.

Additional concerns, about which women report they are fairly happy, are the marital relationship, family management, and social (informal) participation and children's education.[20]

Concerns shared with their husbands are house and home, education, job and income, and physio-economic security and stability. On the other hand, social benefits, housekeeping, marital relationship, and family management, which appeared as only peripheral concerns in the earlier social soundness analysis, received greater prominence among women respondents as properly their spheres. However, in areas where problems identified overlap for men and women, the character of the problem varies by sex. For, whereas men's activities are not subject to heavy surveillance in the community, women have to contend with more rigid standards or conditions applied to their behavior, be it in the labor market or in community organizations. An example is afforded by the job-and-income concern.

The male problem focuses on an anxiety over his potential (if not actual) failure to find a job, or earn enough for his family; this brands him a failure as husband and father. Women express similar worries, but apparently do not experience these to the same degree as the male. Women, after all, are not expected to be the breadwinners, although they receive praise if they can supplement the family income. Thus, they remained confined to their homes partly because they have little chance to engage in a really well-paying job beyond those petty enterprises with only irregular income. While the male concern over a job or income, therefore, stems from his desire to live up to society's expectations of him as breadwinner, that of the female comes from her having to circumvent established norms about women's working or deriving income from outside the home. The issue then entails not merely jobs, but attitudes people have toward jobs and their holders.

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[20]Marital relationship explains a very high percentage of the

A more detailed review of major female problem-concerns and their present state appears below.

Housing and home. Only 5 percent of the Basin households live in sturdy houses, while 73 percent dwell in flimsy bamboo-and-nipa houses. Possessions--furniture, appliances, and the like--are limited to the bare essentials in most houses: a bed, a table, and several chairs (serving concurrently as a dining set), a semblance of a toilet, and for some, a radio. Most households and their housekeepers, are forced to content themselves with less than what would normally satisfy them.

Social benefits. A typical Bicolano housewife has visited no more than 25 percent of the available social service institutions (e.g., clinics, adult education classes, hospitals, and centers), or has ever tried the services of these institutions. A slightly larger proportion (33 percent) are members of formal organizations, most of them civic or religious in nature. Exploring further those who do participate, either as client or member, yields the information that these experiences are monopolized by the more urbanized, educated, and higher-income women of the poblaciones and cities. Hence, the situation of the lower-income majority of women suggests much greater deprivation on this score.

Education. Although a little better off than their male contemporaries, the average education among married women falls short of an elementary education. Basically, this implies inadequate training in general skills that might start them off in better-paying jobs. The avenues faced by most women in this case, like their men, are narrow if not altogether closed.

Job and income. About half of the married-women population are not actively engaged in the labor market, but instead confine

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variation in overall life satisfaction, while the last two are weakly correlated with one's satisfaction with life.

themselves to housekeeping activities. Among those who are employed (38 percent of all married women), about one-third are engaged in petty trade or in clerical jobs, while 49 percent are working on a farm, either as workers on their own farm (36 percent) or as hired farm laborers (13 percent). Except for some with regular clerical positions in offices, most are employed at irregular intervals. Their unemployment rate is estimated at 12 percent; their underemployment rate, at 39 percent. Both phenomena are worse than the 1974 levels of 8 and 14 percent for unemployment and underemployment, respectively, estimated for the Basin's female population (Illo 1975: 68-69).

The median monthly income (1976) of working women is ₱120, or ₱30 per week. The 1976 median weekly income falls short of the amount needed to support one person even when measured against the total-poverty income threshold estimated in 1974 at ₱42 per week (Illo 1976: 15). With the levels of inflation experienced between 1974 and 1976, we can expect these female workers to be worse off than their counterparts in 1974.

Health of self and family. On the average, two members of a household are taken ill during the year, and over three illnesses are usually experienced by the household for the same period. Apparently ill health strikes two members more than once. With high prices, particularly of medical supplies, coping with illnesses in the family becomes more and more difficult. Moreover, among the preschoolers, some 68 percent are reportedly malnourished (first degree, 41 percent; second and third degree, total of 28 percent), malnutrition being more rampant in less urban areas, and in household with nonworking mothers.

Housekeeping. Housewives in general are laden with housekeeping jobs 7.5 hours every day; sometimes do market production for 0.5 hour; and attend to personal activities for 8 hours (not counting sleep which claims another 8 hours). Nonworking mothers are invariably

involved in housekeeping longer than working mothers: 6.8 versus 5.7 hours per day. Although working mothers are actually busy because they combine work and home tasks, and have less personal leisure time, they nonetheless enjoy the opportunity of contact with other people, and doing something more than housekeeping.

Goals and projects: Second element

After drawing up the concerns or problems of the women as the beneficiary population, the second element of an assistance program would be the setting of goals and designing of projects to solve the identified problems.

Goals. These may be classified as ultimate, intermediate, or immediate. As an ultimate goal, significant improvement in the quality of life has been proposed (see Figure 1). This improvement can be measured in terms of satisfaction as reported by the beneficiaries of the project at several points during the life of the project. An increase in local per capita income, the most common measure of development progress, might say little if anything about greater satisfaction if it fails to touch a significant concern of the people. Moreover, it is entirely possible that an increase in per capita income might not cause improved life quality if, for example, environmental, social, or other noneconomic conditions deteriorate.

Four intermediate goals are increased income, more equal distribution of income, improved nutrition, and increased participation in decision-making. The indicators for assessing whether these goals have been accomplished or not appear in Lynch, Illo, and Barrameda (1976: 71-75). Again paraphrasing the social soundness goal of increased participation in decision-making as it applies to women, we can restate the issue as follows:

> Increased participation in decision-making should be thought of as the intermediate goal par excellence of

genuinely human development. For without it even increased income and its more equal distribution will fall short of the mark. Unless women are involved in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of at least regional and local efforts that affect their well-being, their increase in status (should it eventuate) would do little to promote their growth as citizens and human beings. Women must be given a partner's share with men in the entire development process.

Immediate goals which can be proposed are these: more employment, greater productivity, increased production, and poulation control. The verifiable indicators for all these goals may be those in current use. However, bearing women in mind, there should be an additional goal of narrowing the wage differentials between men and women employed in the same category. This increased wage equity between the sexes would also indicate significant achievement in status relationships. As pointed out in several writings on women in the Philippines and elsewhere (Gonzalez and Hollnsteiner 1976: 23; Illo 1976: 19; Sullerot 1971) men usually receive higher pay than do women for work of the same type and caliber. Removing discriminatory practices like this one can be taken as an important step toward the integration of women into development efforts.

Projects. Faced with the possibility that women in the Bicol River Basin may opt for any of the three-role models (i.e., traditional, traditional-transitional part-time working married women, and nontraditional career woman), mechanisms should be provided to allow for a meaningful involvement of women in the development process under any of these three-role models. An array of sample projects or programs to accommodate particularly, but not necessarily exclusively, those women exemplifying the role-model appear below:[21]

A. Traditional role-oriented projects

1. Home management training, including nutrition, health, family planning, and child care;

[21]Some of the projects listed are already included in the development projects for the Bicol River Basin and thus hold some promise for women (BRBDP 1976: 122-44).

2. Management of basic service-delivery systems at the community level for integrated health services and other resource distribution;

3. Workshops to develop management and leadership skills;

4. Organization of women's associations;

B. Traditional-transitional role-oriented projects

In addition to the projects listed under "A," the integration of traditional and worker's role would call for the following:

5. Adult-education classes, or "manpower" training projects, to develop female skills for income generation such as dressmaking, food preservation, bagmaking, and other cottage-industry skills;

6. Training programs to develop small-scale business management skills, particularly involving the marketing or distribution of agricultural products and cottage-industry output;

7. Programs to upgrade and develop clerical skills, particularly involving typing, filing, stenography, bookkeeping and accounting;

C. Nontraditional career women role-oriented projects

8. Seminars and workshops to develop communication and leadership skills;

9. Special skills development training program covering formerly all-male fields like farm management, general business management, machine technology, and the like;

10. Conscious integration of women in the organization and management of agricultural cooperatives and credit organizations, probably beyond the presently planned vehicle which is the precooperative Samahang Nayon; and

11. Day care centers involving community women.

To achieve the goal of wage-equity between the sexes, women's organizations to monitor employment and investment opportunities and practices can be encouraged. A similar, if not the same organization can also ensure female representation in local political and social organizations both in the roster of leaders and of members. Protection of women's rights and interests might also constitute another of its functions. In any event, they provide an incentive for women's assuming roles outside their domestic or petty economic undertaking.

Project-and-goal justification: Means-ends relationships

In this section, we shall consider five particular programs or projects from among those listed earlier. They are (1) home management training program (excluding family planning); (2) family planning; (3) manpower training, integrating those subsumed under traditional-transitional and nontraditional role oriented projects; (4) women's organizations; and (5) leadership training.

Using the social soundness style of illustrating graphically the means-ends connections, we describe four categories and, in Figure 1, show the relationships among them. Specific projects are shown in rectangles, intermediate and immediate goals in rhomboids, the people's concerns in hexagons, and the ultimate goal in a circle.

The lines that connect the enclosed figures with one another may indicate causal, sequential, or modificational relationships. Thus, for instance, the line connecting family planning and population control may be understood as "should bring about, or help to cause." As in the earlier document, where a line enters one of the nine hexagons, the line is to be interpreted as "the conveyor of some change" for the better, which, when reflected on by the people, will make them happier about that particular aspect of their lives.

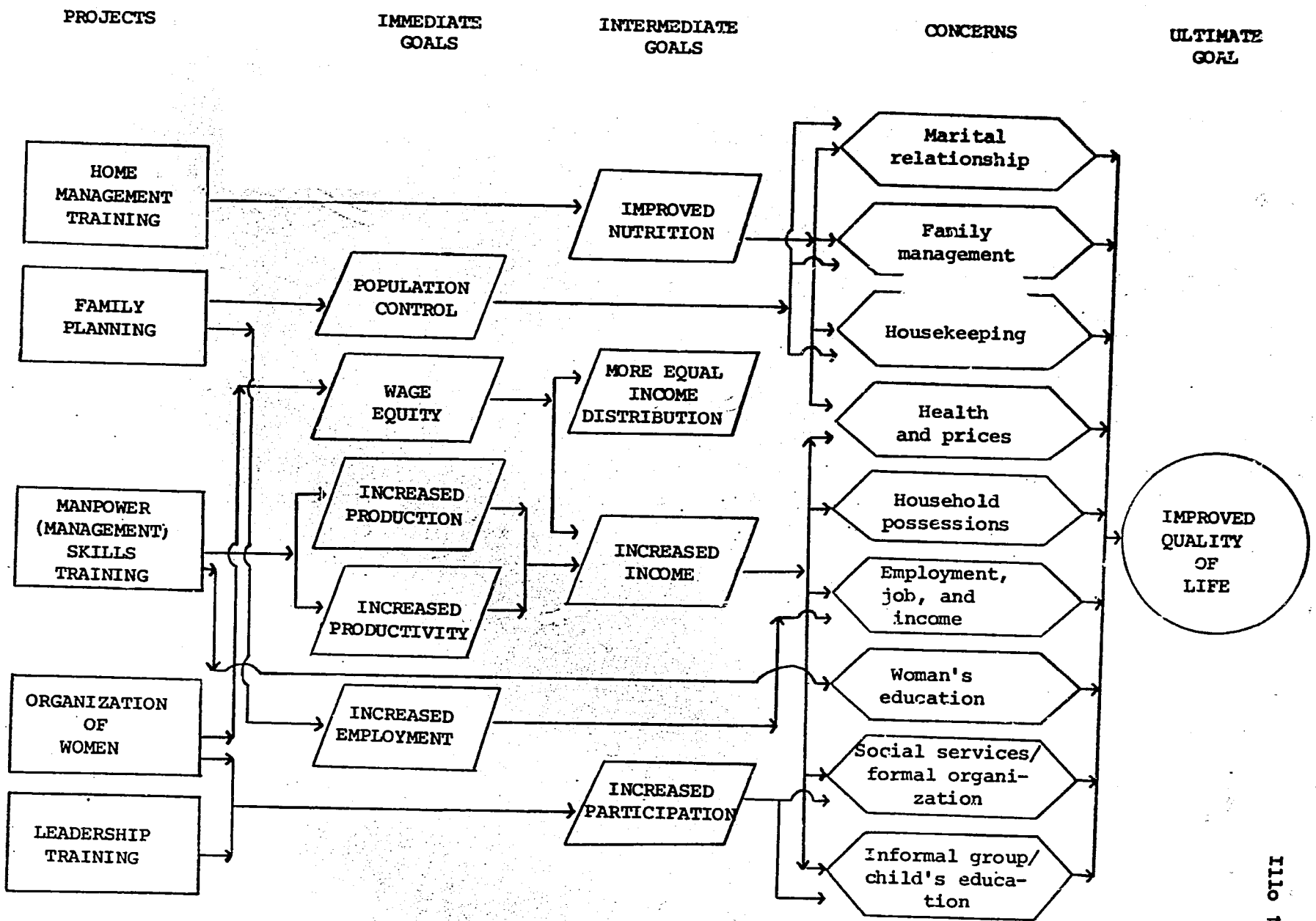

Figure 1. Means-ends framework of projects and goals involving women within a people-centered assistance program framework for the Bicol River Basin.

Nutrition program and home management training projects are viewed as contributory to the improvement of mothercraft skills of Bicolano women. These two projects help achieve the intermediate goal of improved nutrition, and the immediate goal of increased productivity for wives and mothers.

Family planning programs are designed to help control population growth, an immediate goal. With fewer children, the period of women' noninvolvement in the market economy can be shortened if they wish. This applies particularly to traditionally inclined women who shy away from market involvement to tend to their growing children. For them, work is incongruous with motherhood. Thus, the shorter the period required by child care, the greater the likelihood that more married women still in their prime productive years can engage in a gainful occupation. With fewer children in a family, nutrition is also likely to improve.

Manpower training programs, combined with the different sectoral (agricultural, industrial, and the like) development programs, can increase the productivity of women in existing and future jobs. Increased productivity will in turn encourage the payment of higher wages, bringing about increased income for the worker. Woman's access to employment opportunities will also be enhanced, and the employability of women heightened particularly in the more formal market sectors. Manpower development programs, therefore, need not literally be geared only to men but to women, too. They reinforce the women's choosing either the traditional-transitional, or the nontraditional worker role as they broaden their participation in Bicol's development

Women's organizations may decide to monitor employment opportunities and pr. ices, and beyond that, improve wage equity between males and females in comparable occupations. With more equal salaries or wage scales for both sexes, women's incomes will increase, and the

distribution of incomes become more equitable, at least between male and female workers.

Together with leadership (and communication skill) development training programs, organizing women intensifies their participation in decision-making, particularly in the nondomestic sphere. In fact, by cultivating their ability to articulate their needs and their demands, partly as a result of leadership and organizational training programs, women can achieve more meaningful involvement in community affairs.

As projects lead to the realization of goals, and the mitigation of problems or concerns, the women's overall happiness will presumably be increased, and the ultimate goal achieved in their own judgment as program beneficiaries. The planners, for their part, will pursue other indicators, and decide to what degree their evaluation of the people's level of living must be altered as a result of program's impact.

Goals-and-project justification: Social soundness

The fourth element of a people-centered development program consists of testing the proposed goals and projects by seeking answers to two sets of questions. In terms of the five criteria stated earlier, the first set of questions refers to the intended-effect test. These questions are: Does the program provide for the interests of women? Does the idea for the program come from them? Or, is the program an essential prerequisite for the basic felt need of women to be met?

The second set, comprising the intended-mean test, is made up of two questions: Will the delivery of the benefits be through the women? And, will the program in fact bring the benefits to the women?

The four intermediate and five immediate goals were tested earlier according to the intended-effect test. Subjecting our six women-oriented projects to the same test, we note that although the concerns as felt by the women might not be stated in terms of any one of the projects designed, the latter, nonetheless, are reflective of perceived needs. Manpower training, for example, approximates the job-and-income concern; nutrition program suggests women's family management and health concerns; and leadership training and women's organizations allude to the social services and formal organizational participation concern. Thus, we can say that, overall, the projects answer affirmatively the questions composing the intended-effect test. Moreover, the means-ends analysis provided in the previous section for these projects and their goals shows that in cases where a rigid application of the second criterion (Does the idea for the project come from the beneficiaries?) might fail, these projects emerge as clearly necessary for the associated needs to be met (Criterion 5).

As regards the intended-mean test, nothing definite can be said about the delivery of the projects' benefits to or through the women. At this point, we can only suggest that some type of a forum for working out the final projects for women be created. The planner and implementing agencies must investigate the possibilities of working with new structures which will elicit the participation in discussions, planning, and implementation of women from all classes.

Recommendations for Further Research

From the findings on the situation of women in the Bicol River Basin comes the realization that much more information is needed on certain aspects of the problem. Areas that require further investigations are the following:

1. Determinants of participation of women in nondomestic social

and political activities. Demographic data, socioeconomic status, values and attitudes, and other relevant variables which characterize the female organization members and leaders can be identified and analyzed from the data generated in this study. An intensive investigation of the conditions which have made possible the involvement of the few married-women respondents may provide useful insights to agencies interested in organizing women.

2. Policies, practices, and attitudes of employers toward women workers. As possible indicators of institutional constraints to more effective participation of women particularly in the formal market sectors, existing policies, plans and practices involving recruitment, hiring, work assignment, promotions, and firing of workers need to be studied. Discriminatory policies and practices inimical to female market involvement can be identified. In addition to these behavioral data, the attitudes and values of current employers will also be worth noting since the direction and bias of their employment plans will be affected by these subjective factors.

3. Child care efficiency and its determinants. Using nutritional status as an initial measure of child care efficiency, the researcher can test how other variables might affect the mother's proficiency and effectiveness at child care. Suggested variables to be investigated are mother's time input, mother's competing activities (e.g., housekeeping, work, social participation), child's personal data, educational attainment of mother, socioeconomic status of the household, access to infant-care institutions, availability of other household members to care for the child, and other household data. Secondary analysis of the data gathered in this study

will yield this information. The reports on the exploratory study conducted in Cebu and in Laguna will guide the investigator of our data in the analysis of the Bicol situation (Popkin 1975; Jayme-Ho 1976a).

Summary and Conclusions

From the diverse findings and discussions presented earlier in this chapter and in the previous chapters, the following highlights may be cited.

1. There are as many working women in the Bicol River Basin as housekeepers. Not so many , however, participate or serve as members of formal organizations. The few who do can be found among the more urbanized, and among the working women.

2. Only 25 percent of Bicolano married women have ever visited social service institutions like hospitals, health and family planning centers. Moreover, the incidence of malnutrition among children aged six years or younger is high, but especially so among rural children, and children of pure housekeepers.

3. Important concerns of women pertain to housing and household possessions, social services or benefits, their own education, job and income, and the health condition of the family (vis-a-vis increasing prices of commodities including cost of medicine). The first two concerns are directly related to the function of the woman as housekeeper, and her motherly concern over the well-being of her family or household. Indeed, the social services and benefits concern can be derived from them and evaluated in terms of the good they can do to her family's welfare.

Her own education seems to be a perceived problem as it relates to the prospective status and esteem she could enjoy (but lacks) in the community. Or, perhaps more importantly, education is viewed as a means of access to economically well-paying employment opportunities which are education-specific. At present, most women are engaged in any of the following occupations: farm work (usually as unpaid family worker), petty trading, or a clerical job. Life satisfaction would be enhanced if women were given a chance to obtain work in better-paying enterprises.

4. Although more women might be enticed to leave the home to participate in outside economic and social activities, they must confront a value system which dictates that the woman's place is the home; that it is the husband's duty (not hers) to support the family, and consequently a working wife may be taken as a sign of his failure to perform this economic function; and that men are "naturally superior" to women. Furthermore, there are areas or spheres of activities which are thought to be proper only to the male, or only to the female. These hold true in several spheres--the household, the economy, and the larger society.

5. Two alternative female roles dominate the local scene: the part-time working married woman (traditional-transitional) and the pure housewife roles. A small number of full-time career women make up the third, but still incipient alternative. Notwithstanding their rarity, they do provide another nontraditional alternate role-model for women.

6. Since rural and urban women can, and in many instances want to, assume broader roles, programs need to be designed to take these needs and aspirations into account. The International Labour Office (1976: 61), for instance, suggests

two aspects to a basic-needs strategy for women in developing countries:

> One is to enable them to contribute more effectively to the satisfaction of their families' basic needs, within the framework of their traditional responsibilities. The other, which is a fundamental need of the women, themselves, is to ease their work burden while furthering their economic independence and their more equitable integration into the community, beyond the narrow circle of the family.

Clearly there is no single approach applicable to all women; rather varying adaptations need to be worked out to accommodate the natural range of possibilities women may seek.

7. In view of the strong effect the marital-relationship concern has on a woman's overall happiness, programs that are being developed to advance the status and role of women should strive to avoid marital strain in so far as possible. Shifts in status or roles, which are likely to ensue, should be geared toward relationships acceptable to both man and woman. For the pure housewives, programs designed to improve the efficiency of women in traditional activities, including child care, home management, and family planning would be less threatening and therefore more conducive to marital harmony. Nonetheless, alternatives must also be given them to go beyond traditional activities and get involved in outside work if she chooses, either in the transitional or career basis. In this case, family life training programs that include men will help overcome the tensions that may arise. At the same time innovators must expect a certain amount of strain as traditional values appear to be threatened.

8. For the greater participation of women in the market economy, the most critical point to consider centers on the type of

occupation that will be offered them. Jobs must pay enough to counterbalance the distance of work from home, the hiring of domestic helpers or having a relative in the household as babysitter, and the substitution of more expensive bottled or solid feeding for breast-feeding. Further, there has to be increased husband's participation in housekeeping and child-care activities. Easing some of the household burden will encourage the woman to keep longer and more regular working hours and therefore earn more.

9. For the development of women, education plays a critical role. Women are unhappiest with their education, after the quality of housing and household possessions; education does have a moderate effect on overall life satisfaction. Improving their formal and nonformal education will surely raise their life satisfaction, and their chances of participating in higher-income activities and organized community affairs. A better understanding of modern child-rearing practices relates positively to their performance in housekeeping and housewifely roles. The capacity to articulate problems and solutions will encourage them to be active in community affairs. These apply particularly to lower-class Bicolano women, whose conditions remain far from satisfactory.

An important point to consider centers on the freedom of the woman to choose from among alternative roles. The duty of the policymaker, even as the women population is considering its own views, is to evolve viable options derived from women's consensus and from which the latter can choose. Concomitant to this task of providing alternatives is that of designing schemes to allow for the increasing possibility of married women to choose the mother-worker role over the pure housekeeper one. In effect, the enhancement of the role and

status of women should take place not just in one area, but in several: home, economy, polity, and society.

Experts, however, should be careful not to draft purely-for-women employment policies. Inasmuch as the employment of women, given unchanged socioeconomic structures, could pose a threat to currently unemployed males, the preferred strategy should allow for the creation of opportunities for both women and men. This will contribute to the evolution of more favorable opinions and attitudes toward working mothers. Since the changing roles and status of married women will surely create new sets of relationships and expectations, the focus of development programs should fall equally on women and men. Since uppermost in the minds of married women is domestic peace, any move that disturbs this will achieve less success than will an activity that reinforces the tranquility of the home. The need to reorient men as well as women on the positive aspects of broadening women's (and therefore the family's) options is imperative if domestic harmony is to prevail in the face of change.

APPENDIX A

Annex 1: Technical notes

Annex 2: Mini-time-allocation studies

Annex A

TECHNICAL NOTES

FEMALE PARTICIPATION MODEL (Chapter III)

(1) $WPART = f(F_1, F_2, F_3, F_4)$

Using stepwise multiple regression the most significant prediction equation is:*

(2) WPART = a - b(WOCC) + c(SAT) + d(HHKPART) + e(HSES)

(3) $$WPART = 11.377 - \underset{(0.008)}{0.037WOCC} + \underset{(0.004)}{0.010SAT} + \underset{(0.007)}{0.014HHKPART} + \underset{(0.006)}{0.021HSES}$$

$\bar{R}^2 = 0.12$

$F = 8.95$

Where:

(4) WOCC = - 0.844WPROCC -0.884WWORKLOC - 0.482NHHEMP + 0.391BFEEDP

(5) SAT = 0.689LIFESAT + 0.792EMPSAT

(6) HHKPART = 0.712HHKTIME + 0.556HCHCATIME - 0.614WDMSCORE

(7) HSES = 0.783HHEXP + 0.733WEDUC + 0.780HEDUC + 0.549HINC + 0.789HPROCC + 0.765COMMTYPE + 0.675HHAPP + 0.671HHFURN + 0.760HSEMAT

Substituting equations (4) to (7) for the FACTORS IN equation (3):

(8) WPART = 11.377 + 0.031WPROCC + 0.033WWORKLOC + 0.018NHHEMP - 0.014BFEEDP + 0.007LIFESAT + 0.008EMPSAT + 0.010HHKTIME + 0.008HCHCATIME - 0.008WDMSCORE + 0.009HHEXP + 0.009WEDUC + 0.009HEDUC + 0.006HINC + 0.009HPROCC + 0.009COMMTYPE + 0.008HHAPP + 0.008HHFURN + 0.009HSEMAT

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*All regression coefficients are significant at least at .05 level. Number of cases included total to 240. Tolerance level for inclusion of variable in the equation is .001.

Table A1. List and description of variables used in the stepwise multiple regression presented as female market participation model in the Bicol River Basin

CODE	Description
WPART	Woman's market participation in hours per week
WOCC	Woman's occupation factor
WPROCC	Woman's primary occupation. Coding of the reported occupations is as follows: Profession and administrative . . . 8 Sales and clerical . . . . . 7 Upper skilled . . . . . 6 Lower skilled/unskilled . . . . . 5 Owner-farmers . . . . . 4 Nonowner-farmers . . . . . 3 Agribusiness . . . . . 2 Off-farm worker . . . . . 1 Not working 0
WWORKLOC	Woman's primary occupation's work location. This is coded as follows: Within house premises . . . . . 0 Same community as residence . . . . 1 Outside community but same municipality as residence . . . . 2 Outside municipality but within province of residence . . . 3 Outside province but within Bicol Region . . . . . 4 Outside the region 5
NHHEMP	Total number of household members employed
BFEEDP	Baby-feeding practice. Coding of response is as follows: no baby, 0; bottle-feeding, 1; mixed feeding, 2; and breast-feeding, 3.
SAT	Satisfaction factor
LIFESAT	Perceived quality of life score for life in general, where "very happy" is coded as 1, and "very unhappy," as 7.

Table A1 (cont'd)

CODE	Description
EMPSAT	Perceived quality of life score for employment status. Same coding as in LIFESAT.
HHKPART	Husband's housekeeping participation factor
HHKTIME	Total husband's housekeeping (home production) time
HCHCATIME	Husband's child-care time
WDMSCORE	Woman's decision-making score. This score is derived by adding the responses to 18 decision-making issues, the sum divided by the number of issues with qualified responses. The response to each issue is coded as follows: wife only, 2; wife with husband and/or children, 1; wife not involved, 0.
HSES	Household socioeconomic status factor
HHEXP	Total household annual expenses (in pesos)
WEDUC	Woman's education (in years of school attendance)
HEDUC	Husband's education (in years of school attendance)
HINC	Husband's annual income from all occupations
HPROCC	Husband's primary occupation. The same coding instruction as that for WPROCC has been used.
COMMTYPE	Community type. Urban has been coded as 1; semiurban or poblaciones, 2; and barrios or rural, 3.
HAPP	Household appliance score. This is derived by adding the number of appliances present in the household. Based on our checklist, the maximum number would be 8; the minimum, 0.
HFURN	Household furniture and other possessions score. This is derived by adding the number of furniture present in the household. The maximum score (based on our checklist) would be 9; the minimum, 0.

Table A1 (cont'd)

CODE	Description
HSEMAT	House construction materials. Coding is as follows. Walls of bamboo and/or nipa with a nipa or cogon-grass roof ("light" construction), in need of repair . . . . . 1 in good repair . . . . . 2 Walls of wood, with a nipa or cogon-grass roof ("mixed" construction), in need of repair . . . . . 3 in good repair . . . . . 4 Walls of wood or concrete, with a galvanized iron or aluminum roof ("strong" construction), in need of repair . . . . . 5 in good repair 6

Table A2. List and description of variables used in the correlation and factor analyses to derive the female market participation model for the Bicol River Basin

VAR CODE	Description
00	Female market time (in hours per week)
01	Total household annual expenses (in pesos)
02	Woman's education (in number of years of school attendance)
03	Husband's education (in number of years of school attendance)
04	Woman's age (in years)
05	Husband's age (in years)
06	Woman's annual income from all sources (in pesos)
07	Husband's annual income from all sources (in pesos)
08	Total household annual income (in pesos)
09	Woman's participation in decision-making or woman's decision-making score (see WDMSCORE in Table A1 for measure used)
10	Woman's primary occupation (see WPROCC in Table A1 for scales used)
11	Husband's primary occupation (see WPROCC in Table A1 for scales used)
12	Woman's work location (see WWORKLOC in Table A1 for measure used)
13	Husband's market time for all occupations (in hours per week)
14	Woman's housekeeping time (in hours per week)
15	Woman's child-care time (in hours per week)
16	Husband's child-care time (in hours per week)
17	Total household size

Table A2 (cont'd)

VAR CODE	Description
18	Number of employed household members
19	Number of preschool-aged household members
20	Household type (coded as follows: nuclear household, 1; nuclear-extended household, 2; nuclear and nonkin, 3)
21	Community type (coded as in COMMTYPE in Table A1)
22	Proportion of sick household members to total household size
23	Proportion of total number of illnesses to total household size
24	Woman's organizational participation (coded as follows: member of at least one formal organization, 1; nonmember, 0)
25	Informal group participation of woman (coded as follows: member of at least one informal group, 1; nonmember, 0)
26	Average agreement score between husband and wife on 16 value statements: The range of answer to a statement extends from 1, "agrees strongly," to 7, "disagrees strongly." The answer of husband and wife was compared and the distance (difference) measured. The absolute value of the distances were summed, then divided by 16. The resulting quotient is the couple's average agreement score.
27	Baby-feeding practices (coded as follows: 1, bottle feeding; 2, mixed feeding; 3, breast-feeding)
28	Household appliance score (see HAPP in Table A1)
29	Household furniture score (see HFURN in Table A1)
30	House construction materials (see HSEMAT in Table A1)
31	Husband's housekeeping time (in hours per week)
32	Overall life satisfaction (average of PQL-Life 1 and PQL-Life 2)

Table A2 (cont'd)

VAR CODE	Description
33	Employment status satisfaction (or PQL-employment status)
34	Number of children in school
35	Number of male children aged 12 years or older
36	Number of female children aged 12 years or older

Annex 2

MINI-TIME-ALLOCATION STUDIES

Activities of household members may be classified in several ways. One approach focuses on the beneficiary of the activity where one can distinguish between family and personal activity. Family activities included all those done by any member of the household which benefit the other members as well as the doer. Personal activities, on the other hand, refer to those done by and for the specific family member involved in the activity. An alternative approach considers activities according to production or consumption function. Production activities, which may be divided between home and market production, are those which generate income (cash or in kind) for the household and/or those activities which result in goods or services which could have otherwise been bought from the market. Consumption activities, for their part, pertain to the ingestion or use of goods and services which are either bought from the market or are produced at home. Included in the consumption-activity category are rest and sleep, as well as recreation and personal care.

The following pages describe how household members in three ecosystems found in the Bicol River Basin allocate their time among all the activity groups considered earlier. These three ecosystems range from urban (provincial city), coastal-fishing, and lowland rice-farming community. Selected households in the three communities were observed for a period of three to five days. To describe a typical household in any of the three communities, the simple average of the six household cases is computed for each activity group. Each household case study starts with a brief description of the community.

Time allocation in a typical urban household

The urban community located in Camarines Sur, is a provincial city rated as the most important center in the Bicol River Basin (Roco and Lynch 1975). The six households studied are found in the built-up area within the city proper. Consistent with the dominant economic atmosphere of the area, household heads are engaged either in a profession or an office (accounting) job, or skilled occupation (e.g., driver, factory worker).

The typical household is nuclear in form, usually composed of the father, mother, two children aged 7 or older, a preschool-aged child, and an occasional domestic help staying with the family. Using house construction materials as an indicator, this household is classifiable either as upper marginal or lower class. The father is a white-collar worker; the mother, either a clerk, a teacher, or engaged in petty trading.

In this household a normal weekday appears like this: the father is out working in an office; the mother goes out to work for about 3 hours during the day and stays home afterward; the older children attend school; the younger ones play at home with other children or by themselves; and the domestic helper involves herself with the laundry, housecleaning, keeping an eye on the small children, and other household chores. The mother once home from work, sees to the cooking of the meals, caring of the children, and other housewifely duties.

In terms of the production-consumption classification of activities we presented earlier, the following patterns are observed (see Table A3):

Father. One-third of the father's day is spent at work and travel to and from work. When at home, he spends about an hour and 36 minutes helping in the food preparation or with the children. He does

Table A3. Time allocation (in mean hours per day) of adult members of an urban community, classified by selected activity and by household member (Phase II, Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, October 1976)

Activity	Father	Mother	Adult child*	Other HH member†
Market time				
Wage-earning	7.04	2.72	0.00	1.63
Farm activities	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Backyard gardening	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.53
Others	1.22	0.00	0.27	0.88
Total	8.26	2.72	0.27	3.04
Home production time				
Food preparation	1.19	0.38	0.06	2.13
Marketing (plus travel time)	0.16	0.24	0.15	0.30
Washing clothes/dishes/ cleaning the house	0.06	2.86	0.22	6.60
Child care	0.22	1.29	1.38	0.00
Feeding	0.00	0.60	0.00	0.00
Cuddling/playing with child	0.22	0.69	1.38	0.00
Fetching water	0.01	0.01	0.09	0.00
Total	1.64	4.78	1.90	9.03
Personal consumption time				
Sleeping/personal care	8.87	11.16	10.62	9.10
Eating	1.01	1.69	1.14	0.42
Recreation	3.44	3.62	3.87	0.77
Others	0.78	0.03	6.20	1.64
Total	14.10	16.50	21.83	11.93
GRAND TOTAL	24.00	24.00	24.00	24.00

*The average number of children aged 7 years or older is 2.3

†The range of number of non-nuclear family members found in the urban household is 0 to 3.

not shun from going to the market or the nearby sari-sari (variety) store to buy something the household needs, although this task is usually assigned to the children. The remaining 14 hours he spends either sleeping (8 hours) or doing other personal-care or leisure activities (6 hours).

Mother. The mother, for her part, spends an average of 3 hours in a part-time job or in a gainful occupation of her own. Another 5 hours are spent in household chores including child care (1 hour). The remaining 16 hours she spends sleeping or resting and doing other personal-care activities. Normally, however, the woman with preschool-aged children does not really rest completely. Rather, she watches over the children even while she seems to be chatting with some friends in the neighborhood, or reading, or just lounging.

Children aged seven years or older. A child seven years or older spend, on the average, about 6 hours in school; 2 hours helping at home, particularly keeping the younger children out of trouble or running errands for mother, and 4 hours alternately doing his homework and playing.

Preschool-aged children. The world of the younger members of the family is circumscribed around sleeping, playing, and other children's preoccupations. Sleeping accounts for 10 hours of their day; playing with other children (4 hours) or by himself (5 hours) accounts for a total another 9 hours; and personal activities like eating (1 hour), bathing and the like (2 hours) make up the rest (see Table 4). Children in their third year or over start becoming useful and may be sent by their mother to buy items like salt, or soy sauce, or vinegar from the nearest corner store. In addition, they are bullied to run small errands for their older siblings.

Domestic helper. Usually a girl, the household help does chores for the household. An average of 9 hours is spent in housekeeping, including laundry, house cleaning, and other chores (7 hours) and food

Table A4. Time allocation (in mean hours per day) of preschool-aged child by community type (Phase II, Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, October 1976)*

Selected activity	Community type		
	Urban	Coastal fishing	Rice farming
Sleeping and resting	9.91	11.81	9.25
Personal care	2.47	2.36	4.46
Eating/being fed	1.43	1.08	0.59
Playing	9.68	7.21	7.84
By himself	5.44	0.95	1.19
With other children	3.62	6.34	6.65
With adults	0.62	0.02	0.00
Cared by adults	0.47	1.17	1.73
Helping in household chores	0.04	0.30	0.11
Others	0.00	0.07	0.02
Total	24.00	24.00	24.00

*The mean number of preschool-aged children in the households in each of the community types are as follows: urban, 1.0; coastal fishing, 2.3; and rice farming, 2.5.

preparation (2 hours). Not much is done with respect to child care, though.

Overall, a typical urban household may be said to be characterized by a full-time working father, a cash-earning part-time working mother, two children who are in school during the day, two preschoolers who are big enough to take care of themselves, and a domestic helper who does most of the household chores. Of the 24 hours, the housewife has about half of the day to herself. Thus, the mother of such household is not constrained by household demands which confront most married women in the Bicol River Basin.

Time allocation in a typical coastal fishing household

The community where our coastal-fishing household can be found is located in the Ragay Gulf side of the Bicol River Basin. The primary occupation of most, if not all, adult males is fishing. During off-fishing season, however, they turn to upland (corn or rice) farming, selling of anahaw leaves in the poblacion of Pasacao (also in Camarines Sur), or odd carpentry jobs. They also take this opportunity to repair their fishing nets and/or boats. Assisting them in this fishing-related activity are their womenfolk and adult children. The major economic preoccupation of the housewives centers around the production of native mats (locally known as karagumay).

The residential pattern in the community is one where the dwelling units are clustered a few meters from the shore. With the exception of one cement-and-galvanized-iron-made house, the rest are constructed with light materials: bamboo for walls, anahaw leaves for roof, and the earth as the floor. They, however, invariably have an elevated area with bamboo or wood flooring which serves as the family sleeping quarters.

The household population of the place is quite high. Those observed, for example, have 5 to 8 household members, although more households in the area have 7 to 12 members. Except for some period during the year when the parent(s) of either spouse come to visit with their child's household (some for as long as six months), the prevalent household form is nuclear. Being lighly built and small, houses in this community cannot possibly admit another person permanently. Thus, the dominantly nuclear-household type in the area.

The researchers' visit to the community coincided with the slack period in fishing activities. Thus, more men than would otherwise be were present in the households observed. Furthermore, the adult male members of the household were observed as they work not in their major occupation but in the available secondary occupations in the area.

With these qualifications in mind, the patterning of individual activities in a typcial fishing household may be described as follows (see Table A5):

Father. Being a slack period in fishing, the male household head works for about 4 hours a day in any of the income-generating occupations cited earlier. Moreover, he sees to the mending of his fishing net and/or boat for about 3 hours daily. Having spent only 7 hours in market production activities (versus the daily 24-hour work period at sea during the peak deep-sea fishing months), he helps out in housekeeping and other chores. For instance, the market being of some distance from the barrio, he does the marketing of household supplies. This takes him a total of 2 hours daily including the 30-minute or so one-way boat ride to and from the market. He also does the male chores of fetching drinking and laundry water for more than 30 minutes. He also throws in about 38 minutes a day in child care.

Mother. The housewife weaves native mats about 2 hours daily. She also raises some garden crops both for sale in the barrio and for home consumption. Overall, about 4 hours is spent by the mother in market production activities. Having no maid (unlike the city mother) she puts in 7 hours a day in housewifely chores. These production activities leave her about 4 to 5 hours of her waking time to attend to personal needs.

Children aged 7 or older. Like his counterparts in other areas in the Bicol River Basin, a child of school age spends a portion of his waking time in school. In a fishing community he/she puts in about 4 hours in classroom activities. Outside the classroom, he engages in games either with a younger sibling in tow (2 hours) or alone with friends (2 hours). He also contributes his bit (2 hours) in market-production activities, and in household chores (2 hours outside of tending the preschoolers).

Table A5. Time allocation (in mean hours per day) of adult members of a coastal fishing community, classified by selected activity and by household member (Phase II, Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, October 1976)

Activity	Father	Mother	Adult child*
Market production time			
Wage-earning	4.12	2.14	0.00
Farm activities	0.00	0.22	0.19
Backyard gardening	0.04	1.04	0.32
Others	2.51	0.26	1.13
Total	6.67	3.66	1.64
Home production time			
Food preparation	0.38	2.73	0.52
Marketing	2.19	0.47	0.25
Washing clothes/dishes/ cleaning the house	0.04	1.07	0.85
Child care	0.64	2.89	2.10
Feeding	0.00	0.14	0.00
Cuddling/playing with child	0.64	2.75	2.10
Fetching water	0.55	0.03	0.68
Total	3.80	7.20	4.30
Personal consumption time			
Sleeping/personal care	9.37	10.84	11.10
Eating	0.46	0.54	0.89
Recreation	2.12	1.76	1.76
Others	0.35	0.00	4.21
Total	13.52	13.14	17.96
GRAND TOTAL	24.00	24.00	24.00

*The average number of children aged 7 years or older is 2.0.

Preschoolers. Probably because the preschoolers found in our typical fishing household are younger, on the average, than those in the other two ecosystems, about half-day is spent in sleeping. Moreover, this household's preschoolers plays with the neighborhood children more (6 hours) than the urban child. He is amused also by adult in the household longer than his urban contemporary. Aside from sleeping and playing, he is likewise involved in small chores at home

Overall, the average fishing household (during off-fishing season) has part-time working parents, a mother who spends almost one-third of her day in meeting household demands, and children who lends helping hands in housekeeping.

Time allocation in a typical lowland rice-farming community

The rice-farming community included in the second phase of the study is found in the municipality of Minalabac, a rice-growing area of Camarines Sur. From the town center, the barrio can be reached after a two-hour motorboat trip along the Bicol River. The primary economic activity in this community is rice farming. A large proportion of the rice farms are irrigated by water pumps, making possible more than one crop per year. Apart from farming, some households operate sari-sari stores, billiard hall, quasi-beer pubs, and other small service organizations.

The relative affluence of this rice-farming community (vis-a-vis our fishing community) is further demonstrated by the presence of more dwelling units of mixed or strong construction materials. Moreover, there are more extended family types among the households in the rice-growing barrio, although the dominant household form is also the nuclear parents-and-children arrangement. Although bigger in population than the fishing community studied, the average household size is about the same. A typical rice-farming household includes the couple, two preschoolers, and two children aged 7 or older.

When visited by the researchers, the wet-season crop is ready to be harvested. Some farms have even started harvesting work.

Viewed against these macro backdrop, the typical ricefarming household may be described, time-allocation wise, as follows (see Table A6):

Father. Six hours of the father's waking time is spent in the farm, another hour in nonfarm income-generating activities. At home, he tries his hand at cooking (3 hours per day) and takes his turn at child care (1 hour). Outside of these 11 hours of (market and home) production work, he has 13 hours for himself, or about 5 hours of waking time for personal consumption activities.

Mother. She runs a small business of her own (a sari-sari store) although she helps out in farm work. During the period of observation time, input was but 22 minutes a day. All told, she spends about 3 hours in market-production activities. Home production work, for its part, absorbs more than 4 hours of her time. These leave her 13 hours for sleeping, resting, and general personal care, and 4 hours of socializing and recreation.

Children aged 7 years or older. Attending the local public elementary school, about 7 hours of a school-aged child is spent in school; while for playing games, 3 hours (including playing with younger sibling, 1 hour). Beyond these activities the child sleeps, bathes, eats, and does personal-care tasks.

Preschoolers. Just like any preschooler, a significant portion of his 24-hour day is taken by sleep and rest (9 hours). The next most time-intensive activity is playing with other children (7 hours) or by himself (1 hour). He is more attended to by adult members of the household (2 hours) than his counterpart elsewhere in the Basin.

Table A6. Time allocation (in mean hours per day) of adult members of a lowland rice-farming community, classified by selected activity and by household member (Phase II, Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, October 1976)

Activity	Father	Mother	Adult child*
Market production time			
Wage-earning	0.86	2.22	0.05
Farm activities	5.50	0.27	1.25
Backyard gardening	0.02	0.15	0.02
Others	0.24	0.20	0.28
Total	6.62	2.84	1.60
Home production time			
Food preparation	2.74	1.77	0.12
Marketing	0.15	0.18	0.12
Washing clothes/dishes/ cleaning the house	0.25	0.54	0.29
Child care	0.83	1.60	1.15
Feeding	0.04	0.11	0.00
Cuddling/playing with child	0.79	1.49	1.16
Fetching water	0.11	0.34	0.16
Total	4.08	4.33	1.85
Personal consumption time			
Sleeping/personal care	11.51	12.60	11.54
Eating	0.52	0.64	0.60
Recreation	1.27	2.11	1.48
Others	0.00	1.48	6.93
Total	13.30	16.83	20.55
GRAND TOTAL	24.00	24.00	24.00

*Mean number of children aged 7 years or older is 2.5.

Overall, the typical rice-farming household is characterized by farmer-husband and petty-business woman-wife. A regularly large portion of the couple's time is spent in market production activities, although when compared to urban couples, the latter appear to put in more time in economic undertakings.

As elsewhere in the Basin, children are expected to and do help out in household chores. The husband also helps, but not as regularly perhaps to ease some part of the housekeeping burden from the wife.

APPENDIX B

Tables to accompany text

Table B1. Planned and actual distribution of key informants by informant-type, and by sex (Phase I, Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Type of informant	Planned			Actual		
	Female		Male	Female		Male
	Single	Married		Single	Married	
Housekeeper	0	8	0	0	8	0
Professional/ executive	3	3	2	3	3	2
Teacher/clerk	3	3	2	3	2	2
Petty trader	2	3	3	1	4	3
Manual worker	2	2	2	2	1	2
Service worker	3	3	3	4	3	3
Farm worker	4	2	2	3	2	2
Farmer	0	0	3	0	0	4
Religious	2	0	2	2	0	2
Civic leader	2	2	2	2	3	2
Political leader	2	2	3	1	1	2
Student	3	0	3	3	0	4
Unemployed	2	0	2	2	0	2
Total	28	29	29	26	27	30
Total n			86			83

Table B2. Planned and actual distribution of households observed, by household type and socioeconomic status, and by type of community (Phase II, Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Criterion item		Planned				Actual			
		Type of community				Type of community			
		Farming	Fishing	Urban	Total	Farming	Fishing	Urban	Total
Nuclear family	Elite	1	1	1	3	0	0	2	2
	Marginal	1	1	2	4	2	1	1	4
	Lower	2	2	3	7	4	3	3	10
Extended family	Elite								
	Marginal	1	1	2	4	0	1	0	1
	Lower	1	1	0	2	0	1	0	1
Total		6	6	8	20	6	6	6	18

Table B3. Actual distribution of housewife-respondents, by levels of development and sample municipality, and by community type (Phase III, Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Levels of development and municipality	Community type*			Total
	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	
a. High level	48	8	40	96
Naga City	48	-	-	48
Goa	-	8	40	48
b. Medium level	-	16	80	96
Nabua	-	8	40	48
Pamplona	-	8	40	48
c. Low level	-	16	80	96
San Fernando	-	8	40	48
Magarao	-	8	40	48
Total	48	40	200	288

*Rather than follow the original urban-rural dichotomy set forth in the research design, the "urban" category as earlier identified (n = 88) has been broken down into urban (Naga City) and semiurban (poblaciones outside Naga City). Our urban and semiurban sample makes up about 31 percent of the total sample, making the "urban" population over-represented in the sample. Based on the NCSO 1970 Census of Population and Housing estimates, the percentage of urban population to total Bicol River Basin (in Camarines Sur) population is 16 percent (Illo and Lynch 1974: 6).

Table B4. Distribution of sample households by community type and sample municipality, and by housheold-respondent types (Phase III, Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Community type and municipality	Respondent type in the household				Total
	HW only*	HW & Hus	HW, Hus & Da	HW & Da	
a. Urban	8	30	8	2	48
Naga City	8	30	8	2	48
b. Semiurban	8	20	7	5	40
Goa	2	3	3	0	8
Nabua	0	5	1	2	8
Pamplona	1	6	1	0	8
San Fernando	3	2	0	3	8
Magarao	2	4	2	0	8
c. Rural	22	135	41	2	200
Goa	6	27	6	1	40
Nabua	5	21	14	0	40
Pamplona	3	30	7	0	40
San Fernando	5	25	9	1	40
Magarao	3	32	5	0	40
Total	38	185	56	9	288

*The symbols used above are to be interpreted as follows: HW - housewife; Hus - husband; and Da - daughter.

Table D5. Selected demographic characteristics of sample housewife respondents, by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Selected characteristic	Selected measure*	Urban	Semiurban	Rural	Overall
a. Age (in years)	$\bar{x}$	40.9	43.0	43.2	40.7
	S.D.	12.7	14.3	13.0	13.2
	Md.	38.2	40.5	38.1	38.4
	Min.	20	18	17	17
	Max.	74	73	78	78
b. Education	$\bar{x}$	12.8	6.2	4.4	5.9
	S.D.	3.4	3.8	2.2	3.92
	Md.	13.5	5.8	4.6	5.6
	Min.	3	0	0	0
	Max.	18	14	11	18
c. Civil status	%	100	100	100	100
Married	%	95.8	80.0	96.5	94.1
Widow	%	4.2	12.5	3.5	4.9
Single	%	-	7.5	-	1.0
d. Mother tongue	%	100	100	100	100
Naga-Bikol	%	81.3	52.5	54.0	58.3
Other Bikol	%	10.4	40.0	45.0	38.5
Tagalog	%	8.3	5.0	-	2.1
Others	%	-	2.5	1.0	1.0
e. Religion	%	100	100	100	100
RC	%	100.0	97.5	96.5	97.2
INK	%	-	-	1.0	0.7
PIC	%	-	2.5	0.05	0.7
Protestant	%	-	-	1.0	0.7
Others	%	-	-	1.0	0.7
f. R's literacy	%	100	100	100	100
Yes	%	100	90.0	87	89.6
No	%	-	10.0	13	10.4
g. Length of residence	$\bar{x}$	10.9	12.0	11.2	14.9
	S.D.	10.6	14.1	11.8	16.6
	Md.	6.5	6.4	5.7	6.0
	Min.	0	0	0	0
	Max.	42	53	57	57

*The symbols used are to be interpreted as follows: $\bar{x}$, mean; S.D., Standard deviation; Md., median; Min., minimum value; and Max., maximum value.

Table B5 (cont'd)

Selected characteristic	Selected measure	Urban	Semiurban	Rural	Overall
h. R's age at marriage	$\bar{x}$	23.1	21.7	19.5	20.4
	S.D.	5.0	5.6	4.8	5.1
	Md.	21.7	20.0	17.8	18.5
	Min.	16	14	13	13
	Max.	37	40	43	43
i. Duration of marriage	$\bar{x}$	17.1	20.3	20.1	19.6
	S.D.	12.5	13.6	12.5	12.7
	Md.	12.7	19.0	19.0	18.4
	Min.	1	1	0	0
	Max.	48	57	65	65
j. No. of living children	$\bar{x}$	3.9	5.0	5.2	5.0
	S.D.	3.1	3.3	2.9	3.0
	Md.	3.2	4.2	5.1	4.7
	Min.	0	0	0	0
	Max.	12	13	12	13
k. No. of children who died after birth	Md.	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.0
	Min.	0	0	0	0
	Max.	2	9	8	9
l. No. of stillborn babies	Md.	0.7	0.9	0.9	0.8
	Min.	0	0	0	0
	Max.	4	3	4	4
m. House construction materials†	%	100	100	100	100
Lower	%	33.3	57.5	86.0	73.3
Marginal	%	48.0	30.0	13.5	21.6
Elite	%	18.8	12.5	0.5	5.2

†The legitimacy of inferring socioeconomic status from the combination of house construction and state of repair has been established in Illo and Lynch (1974: 8).

Table B6. Housewife-respondents classified by her age and her husband's age, crossclassified by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Housewife-respondent age	n	Husband's age and community type		
		Urban	Semiurban	Rural
16 - 19	2	-	16-19 (1)	20-24 (1) 25-29 (2)
20 - 24	18	25-29 (1)* 30-34 (1)	-	20-24 (7) 25-29 (6) 30-34 (1) 35-39 (2)
25 - 29	40	25-29 (4) 30-34 (3) 40-44 (1)	25-29 (2) 30-34 (2) 35-39 (1) 45-49 (1)	20-24 (1) 25-29 (8) 30-34 (13) 35-39 (4)
30 - 34	25	30-34 (2)	25-29 (1) 30-34 (3)	25-29 (2) 30-34 (12) 35-39 (2) 40-44 (3)
35 - 39	48	35-39 (3) 40-44 (4) 45-49 (2) 55-59 (1)	35-39 (2) 40-44 (1) 45-49 (2)	30-34 (5) 35-39 (9) 40-44 (13) 45-49 (4) 50-54 (2)
40 - 44	21	40-44 (1) 45-49 (1)	40-44 (1)	35-39 (3) 40-44 (7) 45-49 (6) 50-54 (1) 55-59 (1)
45 - 49	34	45-49 (1) 50-54 (2) 55-59 (1)	45-49 (4) 50-54 (1)	35-39 (1) 40-44 (1) 45-49 (8) 50-54 (8) 55-59 (6) 60-64 (1)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of housewife-respondents who have husband of reported age.

Table B6 (cont'd)

Housewife-respondent age		Husband's age and community type		
		Urban	Semiurban	Rural
50 - 54	15	50-54 (1) 55-59 (1) 65+ (1)	55-59 (1)	45-49 (1) 50-54 (3) 55-59 (5) 60-64 (1) 65+ (1)
55 - 59	18	55-59 (3) 60-64 (2)	55-59 (1) 60-64 (1)	50-54 (1) 55-59 (3) 60-64 (5) 65+ (2)
60 - 64	9	60-64 (1)	-	60-64 (2) 65+ (6)
65+	7	-	65+ (2)	65+ (5)

Table B7. Housewife-respondents classified by education and her husband's education, crossclassified by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

R's education	Husband's education & community type		
	Urban	Semiurban	Rural
None (n = 15)	E1-5 (1)* E6-HS3 (1)		N (6) E1-5 (6) E6-H3 (1)
Elem 1-5 (n = 95)	E1-5 (2) E6-H3 (1) H4-C3 (1) C4+ (1)	E1-5 (2) E6-H3 (1)	N (7) E1-5 (51) E6-H3 (27) H4-C3 (2)
E6 - H3 (n - 86)	E1-5 (2) E6-H3 (7) H4-C3 (2)	E1-5 (1) H4-C3 (1) C4+ (2)	N (2) E1-5 (22) E6-H3 (45) H4-C3 (1) C4+ (1)
H4 - C3 (n - 17)	E6-H3 (1) H4-C3 (2)	H4-C3 (6) C4+ (4)	E1-5 (1) E6-H3 (1) H4-C3 (2)
C4+ (n = 23)	H4-C3 (1) C4+ (3)	H4-C3 (4) C4+ (15)	

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of housewife-respondents who have husband with reported education.

Table B8. Selected labor force participation information about sample housewife respondents, by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Selected labor force information	Urban		Semiurban		Rural		Overall	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
a. Whether worked the week prior to the interview								
Yes	23	48	22	55	65	32	110	38
No, but with a regular job	2	4	1	2	15	8	18	6
No, unemployed	3	6	2	5	12	6	17	6
Est. labor force	28	58	25	62	92	46	145	50
No, not member of the labor force	20	42	15	38	108	54	143	50
Total sample n	48	100	40	100	200	100	288	100
b. Jobseekers among those who did not work the week prior to interview								
Jobseekers	2	8	1	6	5	4	8	4
Non-jobseekers	23	92	16	94	130	96	169	96
Total n	25	100	17	100	135	100	177	100
c. Reason for not working the preceding week								
Housekeeping	18	72	14	78	108	80	140	79
Retired	3	12	-	-	-	-	3	2
Disabled physically	1	4	-	-	8	6	9	5
Too old	-	-	3	17	3	2	6	3
Temporarily sick/on vacation from job	2	8	1	6	11	8	14	8
Others	1	4	-	-	5	2	6	3
Total n	25	100	18	100	135	100	178	100
d. Primary occupation of employed housewife respondents								
Lower professional	9	36	3	13	-	-	12	9
Administrative	2	8	-	-	1	1	3	2
Sales/clerical	12	48	13	56	14	18	39	31
Upper skilled	1	4	1	4	2	2	4	3
Lower skilled/ service/unskilled	1	4	4	17	7	9	12	9

Table B8 (cont'd)

Selected labor force information	Urban		Semiurban		Rural		Overall	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Farm workers	-	-	-	-	33	42	33	26
Agribusiness	-	-	-	-	2	3	2	2
Cottage industry/ backyard gardening	-	-	-	-	5	6	5	4
Off farm workers	-	-	2	9	15	19	17	13
Total employed housewife respondents	25		23		79		127	
Sample employment rate		90		92		87		88
e. Location of primary occupation								
Within house premises	6	24	5	22	11	14	22	17
Within same community	5	20	15	65	61	76	81	63
Outside community	14	56	3	13	8	10	25	20
Total n	25	100	23	100	80	100	128	100
f. Whether willing to take on added job or not								
Yes	8	32	11	48	37	46	56	44
No	17	68	12	52	43	54	62	56
Total employed	25		23		80		128	
% of willing to work more to total labor force		29		44		40		39
g. Hours worked per week by employed housewife respondents								
Mean ($\bar{x}$)	39.1		44.0		24.9		31.1	
Standard Deviation (S.D.)	(18.9)		(28.4)		(18.9)		(22.3)	
Median	40.0		40.0		23.7		27.9	
Range (min.-max.)	0 - 84		12 - 112		0 - 98		0 - 112	
Sample n	25		23		79		127	

Table B8 (cont'd)

Selected labor force information	Urban	Semiurban	Rural	Overall
h. Monthly income (in pesos) from primary occupation				
Mean ($\bar{x}$)	₱422	₱355	₱116	₱225
Standard Deviation	(208.2)	(816.1)	(199.0)	(251.8)
Median	₱425	₱149	₱ 60	₱120

Table B9. Sample household couples classified by employment status of husband and wife, crossclassified by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Couple's employment status		Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Overall
a. Working couple	n	15	15	70	100
	(%)	(42)	(56)	(39)	(41)
b. Traditional couple*	n	16	10	102	128
	(%)	(44)	(37)	(57)	(53)
c. Both husband and wife are not working	n	2	1	4	7
	(%)	(6)	(4)	(2)	(3)
d. Husband not working; wife, working	n	3	1	2	6
	(%)	(8)	(4)	(1)	(2)
Overall	n	36	27	178	241
	(%)	(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)

*Refers to a situation where only the husband is working while the housewife is pure housekeeper.

Table B10. Sample household husband-respondents classified by his primary occupation and his wife's primary occupation, crossclassified by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Husband's primary occupation	Wife's primary occupation and community type			
	Urban	Semiurban	Rural	Overall
Upper professional	Sales/clerical (1)†	Lower prof'l (2)		Lower prof'l (2) Sales/clerical (1)
Lower professional	Lower prof'l (2)			Lower prof'l (2)
Administrative	Administrative (1) Sales/clerical (2)	Sales/clerical (1)		Administrative (1) Sales/clerical (3)
Sales/clerical	Lower prof'l (3) Sales/clerical (2)	Sales/clerical (1)	Sales/clerical (2) Cottage ind. (1)	Lower prof'l (3) Sales/clerical (5) Lower skilled (1) Cottage ind. (1)
Upper skilled		Lower skilled (1)	Farm worker (2)	Lower skilled (1) Farm worker (2)

*The classification of reported occupation of both husband and housewife was largely based on Illo and Lynch (1974: 30). The additional categories--agribusiness, and cottage industry--have been spelled out here but which appear in Illo and Lynch as non-farm-agricultural occupations. Agribusiness refers to livestock-raising, fishing, and the like; cottage industry and backyard gardening cover such activities as home production and noncommercial gardening; farm worker refers to unpaid family workers, earlier subsumed under farmers (Illo and Lynch, ibid.)

†Figures in parentheses indicate the number of housewife-respondents with husband engaged in the reported occupation.

Table B10 (cont'd)

Husband's primary occupation	Wife's primary occupation and community type: Urban	Semiurban	Rural	Overall
Lower skilled/service/ unskilled		Sales/clerical (2)	Farm worker (2)	Sales/clerical (2) Farm worker (2)
Farm owner	Sales clerical (2)	Lower prof'l (1) Sales/clerical (3)	Administrative (1) Sales/clerical (7) Lower skilled (5) Farm worker (21) Agribusiness (2) Cottage ind. (2) Off-farm (3)	Lower prof'l (1) Administrative (1) Sales/clerical (12) Lower skilled (5) Farm worker (21) Agribusiness (2) Cottage ind. (2) Off-farm (3)
Farmer-nonowner	Sales/clerical (1)		Sales/clerical (2) Upper skilled (1) Farm worker (3) Off-farm (1)	Sales/clerical (3) Upper skilled (1) Farm worker (3) Off-farm (1)
Agribusiness		Lower skilled (1)	Sales/clerical (2) Upper skilled (1) Lower skilled (1) Off-farm (1)	Sales/clerical (2) Upper skilled (1) Lower skilled (2) Off-farm (1)
Cottage industry/ backyard gardening			Cottage ind. (2)	Cottage ind. (2)
Off-farm work		Lower skilled (1)	Sales/clerical (1) Off-farm (6)	Sales/clerical (1) Lower skilled (1) Off-farm (6)

Table B11. Sample households classified by wife's work status and whether husband helps in selected household activity, crossclassified by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Activity	Urban		Semiurban		Rural		Overall	
	W	NW	W	NW	W	NW	W	NW
Marketing	3 (14%)	2 (12%)	3 (19%)	1 (9%)	17 (25%)	14 (28%)	23 (22%)	17 (23%)
Food preparation	3 (12)	4 (24)	8 (44)	1 (9)	30 (32)	13 (15)	41 (30)	8 (13)
Washing dishes	1 (4)	3 (17)	6 (33)	-	13 (14)	9 (10)	20 (14)	12 (10)
Yard/house cleaning	2 (8)	3 (18)	7 (39)	-	11 (12)	4 (5)	20 (15)	7 (6)
Washing/ironing clothes	3 (12)	-	1 (6)	-	-	4 (4)	4 (3)	4 (3)
Child care	5 (42)	4 (40)	6 (50)	3 (33)	10 (16)	17 (22)	21 (25)	24 (25)

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Table B12. Average weekly time allocation (in hours) pattern of sample households, by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Activity	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Total
Home production				
Marketing	6.2	5.2	6.0	6.0
Cooking	25.2	23.2	22.5	23.1
Dishwashing	7.8	6.0	6.9	6.9
Cleaning the house	10.2	7.0	7.6	8.0
Washing clothes	10.3	8.5	7.7	8.2
Sewing	1.6	2.0	2.6	2.3
Child care	28.9	24.9	21.7	23.4
Other activities	2.7	1.8	3.8	3.4
Subtotal	92.9	78.6	78.8	81.3
Market production (done at home)				
Backyard gardening/ livestock	2.6	2.5	6.3	5.2
Washing for pay	0.3	0.4	-	0.1
Cottage industry/SSS	12.5	10.4	5.0	7.0
Subtotal	15.4	13.3	11.3	12.3
TOTAL	108.3	91.9	84.1	93.6

Table B13. Average weekly time allocation (in hours) of household members in home production activities, by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Item	Urban		Semiurban		Rural		Overall	
	Time	%	Time	%	Time	%	Time	%
Home production	92.9	100%	78.6	100%	78.8	100%	81.3	100%
Mother	40.7	44	42.6	54	47.7	61	45.9	56
Father	7.6	8	6.2	8	8.1	10	7.8	10
Adult child	11.3	12	16.9	22	21.3	27	19.0	23
Help/relatives	33.3	36	12.9	16	1.7	2	8.6	11
Child care	28.9	100%	24.9	100%	21.7	100%	23.4	100%
Mother	16.7	58	16.3	65	16.2	75	16.3	70
Father	3.7	13	3.1	12	0.9	4	1.7	7
Adult child	3.0	10	2.1	8	4.1	19	3.6	15
Help/relatives	5.5	19	3.4	14	0.5	2	1.8	8

Table B14. Average weekly time allocation (in hours) at home of sample housewives, by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Activity	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Total
Home production				
Marketing	3.0	3.5	2.7	2.8
Cooking	12.5	10.8	13.2	12.7
Dishwashing	1.6	2.4	2.8	2.6
Cleaning the house	2.7	3.0	4.5	4.0
Washing clothes	3.2	4.2	5.3	4.8
Sewing	1.3	1.6	2.3	2.0
Child care	16.7	16.3	16.2	16.3
Other activities	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.7
Subtotal	40.7	42.6	47.7	45.9
Market production (done at home)				
Backyard gardening/ livestock	0.6	1.0	2.5	2.0
Washing for pay	0.3	0.4	-	0.1
Cottage industry/SSS	8.2	7.0	3.1	4.5
Subtotal	9.1	8.4	5.6	6.6
TOTAL	49.8	51.0	53.3	52.5

Table [illegible]. Mean and standard deviations of affective responses (1-7) to life as a whole and to selected life domains, by respondent and community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Life concern		Female sample*						
		Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Total	Rank†	Generally male sample‡	Rank
1. Life as a whole	$\bar{x}$	2.35	2.94	3.28	3.08		3.61	
	S.D.	-	-	-	-		1.04	
	n	48	40	200	288		3181	
2. Children's education	$\bar{x}$	2.29	2.89	3.18	2.30	1	3.56	6
	S.D.	1.17	1.47	1.28	1.33		1.40	
	n	41	35	176	252		2599	
3. Participation in informal groups	$\bar{x}$	2.07	2.40	2.65	2.52	2	3.16	1
	S.D.	0.67	0.64	0.88	0.84		1.10	
	n	43	38	184	265		2100	
4. Organizational participation	$\bar{x}$	2.27	2.35	3.00	2.76	3	3.31	2
	S.D.	1.12	0.70	1.09	1.09		1.21	
	n	22	17	72	111		1752	
5. Health and physical condition of R and family	$\bar{x}$	2.12	2.68	3.03	2.84	4	3.49	
	S.D.	0.64	1.10	-	-		1.30	
	n	48	40	195	283		3201	

*The data used here are taken from all-female sample (n = 288) interviewed in the third phase of this study.

†Mean happiness score reported for the domain.

‡Data from the Annual Panel survey sample consisting of 91 percent male respondents (n = 3240).

Table B15 (cont'd)

Life concern		Female sample: Urban	Female sample: Semi-urban	Female sample: Rural	Female sample: Total	Rank	Generally male sample	Rank
6. Job	$\bar{x}$	2.58	2.62	3.05	2.91	5	3.66	8
	S.D.	1.31	1.21	1.06	1.22		1.31	
	n	45	37	188	270		3067	
7. Food and drink	$\bar{x}$	2.33	3.08	3.03	2.92	6	3.42	3
	S.D.	0.67	1.34	0.90	0.97		1.18	
	n	46	38	200	284		3194	
8. Health and social services	$\bar{x}$	2.50	2.95	3.20	3.05	7	3.55	5
	S.D.	0.99	1.28	1.28	1.26		1.30	
	n	48	39	192	279		3115	
9. Income	$\bar{x}$	2.84	3.15	3.18	3.12	8	3.94	9
	S.D.	1.31	1.46	1.10	1.19		1.40	
	n	45	40	196	281		3130	
10. Present house	$\bar{x}$	2.79	2.72	3.30	3.13	9	3.64	7
	S.D.	1.44	1.30	1.27	1.32		1.32	
	n	48	40	200	288		3223	
11. Furniture	$\bar{x}$	2.58	3.52	3.72	3.51	10	4.35	11
	S.D.	1.18	1.52	1.29	1.37		1.43	
	n	48	40	200	288		2989	
12. R's education	$\bar{x}$	2.40	3.20	3.87	3.53	11	4.05	10
	S.D.	1.28	1.57	1.45	1.54		1.52	
	n	48	40	200	288		3155	

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Table B15 (cont'd)

Life concern		Female sample: Urban	Female sample: Semi-urban	Female sample: Rural	Total	Rank	Generally male sample	Rank
13. Prices	$\bar{x}$	5.42	5.50	5.01	5.15	12	5.61	12
	S.D.	1.47	1.54	1.36	1.41		1.44	
	n	48	40	200	288		3209	
14. Family size	$\bar{x}$	1.94	2.62	2.69	2.55		-§	
	S.D.	0.87	1.39	0.97	1.06		-	
	n	47	40	197	284		-	
15. Marriage	$\bar{x}$	1.96	2.75	1.68	2.57		-	
	S.D.	1.13	1.37	1.01	1.01		-	
	n	48	40	200	288		-	
16. Child rearing	$\bar{x}$	2.04	2.61	2.80	2.65		-	
	S.D.	0.87	1.21	1.02	1.06		-	
	n	46	39	194	279		-	
17. Decision-making	$\bar{x}$	2.29	2.75	3.00	2.84		-	
	S.D.	0.92	0.98	0.92	0.96		-	
	n	48	40	200	288		-	
18. Time-allocation	$\bar{x}$	2.52	2.92	3.19	3.04		-	
	S.D.	0.88	0.90	1.00	1.00		-	
	n	48	39	200	287		-	
19. R's employment status	$\bar{x}$	2.60	2.78	3.24	3.06		-	
	S.D.	1.23	1.33	1.13	1.20		-	
	n	48	40	194	282			

§Life domains which are denoted with a hyphen refers to areas about which life satisfaction was not asked of males.

Table B15 (cont'd)

Life concern		Female sample					Generally male sample	Rank
		Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Total	Rank		
20. HH income	$\bar{x}$	2.83	2.98	3.26	3.15		-	
	S.D.	1.17	1.27	1.12	1.16		-	
	n	47	40	198	285		-	
21. HH appliances	$\bar{x}$	2.69	3.95	4.08	3.82		-	
	S.D.	1.52	1.75	1.53	1.64		-	
	n	48	39	197	284		-	

Table B16. Factor loadings of 20 life domains using OBLIQUE rotation method (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Variable (life domain)	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
a. Factor pattern									
1. R's education	0.08340	0.09893	-0.02224	-0.07766	-0.13464	0.10534	0.83979	-0.11858	0.02627
2. Children's education	-0.05240	0.24453	-0.03077	0.24347	0.07979	0.03027	0.02301	-0.11903	-0.73815
3. Employment status	0.65598	-0.06899	-0.24615	0.03289	-0.20318	-0.13117	0.16437	-0.02064	-0.15147
4. Job	0.88716	0.00103	-0.06083	-0.05650	0.00267	0.02017	-0.00480	-0.00727	-0.01613
5. R's income	0.88201	0.05775	0.09083	-0.01350	0.16203	-0.02503	0.01445	-0.08027	0.03982
6. HH income	0.44832	-0.01363	0.30204	0.42931	-0.13352	0.22275	-0.06323	0.12077	-0.05950
7. House materials	-0.02299	0.00962	0.06464	0.78179	0.05791	0.12668	-0.11468	-0.22732	-0.01577
8. Appliances	0.09189	-0.06448	-0.31400	0.63588	0.06098	-0.10975	0.38897	-0.12359	0.17827
9. Furniture	-0.00628	-0.07456	-0.02599	0.81002	-0.16948	-0.07624	-0.01450	0.16332	-0.12452
10. Decision-making	0.01740	-0.04315	0.08428	0.01925	-0.14780	-0.07573	0.13987	-0.85728	-0.13916
11. Time-allocation	0.06559	0.27130	-0.02621	0.11339	-0.73394	-0.17757	-0.14453	-0.12909	-0.04056

*Mineigen specified is 0.75.

Table B16 (cont'd)

Variable (life domain)	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
12. Marriage	0.15689	0.24005	-0.04238	0.07701	0.11596	0.22258	-0.04908	-0.62594	0.09081
13. Family size	0.01477	0.81215	0.06241	-0.12183	0.03263	-0.03049	0.06063	-0.04968	-0.23241
14. Child rearing	0.00536	0.89512	-0.04624	-0.00878	-0.13679	0.02009	0.03653	0.00334	0.07224
15. Prices	0.05003	0.22521	0.52344	0.12626	0.16102	-0.07924	0.36252	0.31219	-0.02044
16. Food and drink	-0.08687	-0.03216	0.08731	0.00831	-0.86599	0.13578	0.18435	-0.01035	-0.00962
17. Health services	0.01356	0.18843	-0.31408	0.07926	-0.14827	0.71106	-0.06664	-0.03043	0.21508
18. Health condition	0.07127	0.03523	-0.89504	0.06365	0.09521	0.09484	0.08086	0.09663	-0.12995
19. Organizational participation	-0.04612	-0.15777	0.06691	-0.04359	0.07073	0.72466	0.18366	-0.06505	-0.35860
20. Informal groups	0.22995	-0.03366	-0.15379	-0.12762	-0.19012	0.07881	-0.08423	-0.00734	-0.73548
). Factor structure									
1. R's education	0.26285	0.23475	-0.07081	0.07838	-0.19482	0.16679	0.86612	-0.22358	-0.11113
2. Children's education	0.21680	0.33592	-0.01603	0.28668	-0.10554	0.19958	0.12729	-0.26688	-0.76935

Table B16 (cont'd)

Variable (life domain)	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
3. Employment status	0.75505	0.07079	-0.32455	0.24043	-0.33155	-0.00931	0.28868	-0.17788	-0.30250
4. Job	0.88413	0.13692	-0.15334	0.17088	-0.10832	0.09751	0.14374	-0.14868	-0.19800
5. R's income	0.86263	0.19407	0.00848	0.19337	0.05640	0.04235	0.16496	-0.17129	-0.13111
6. HH income	0.54211	0.09151	0.23633	0.56373	-0.21015	0.25707	0.07318	0.01234	-0.21637
7. House materials	0.18918	0.08351	0.00365	0.79166	-0.07311	0.24011	-0.01859	-0.30427	-0.07903
8. Appliances	0.30603	-0.00826	-0.34142	0.68563	-0.06262	0.00301	0.45098	-0.21883	0.11964
9. Furniture	0.20296	-0.05669	-0.01256	0.80973	-0.26380	-0.00253	0.07195	0.07638	-0.15551
10. Decision-making	0.19632	0.19706	-0.10069	0.14049	-0.27548	0.12013	0.19307	-0.85933	-0.24927
11. Time-allocation	0.21552	0.37794	-0.10991	0.22033	-0.80177	-0.07763	-0.06636	-0.27758	-0.16829
12. Marriage	0.28592	0.39396	-0.18989	0.18535	-0.02647	0.36962	0.03218	-0.73724	-0.04150
13. Family size	0.16298	0.84622	0.10885	-0.07036	-0.08223	0.04859	0.14694	-0.22537	-0.30796
14. Child rearing	0.15580	0.90632	-0.01729	0.04842	-0.23740	0.07970	0.12107	-0.22492	-0.03779
15. Prices	0.05898	0.20821	0.62392	0.12196	0.20181	-0.16279	0.89007	0.36940	-0.03461
16. Food and drink	0.05255	0.09040	-0.02053	0.13602	-0.85856	0.16819	0.20361	-0.12681	-0.15444

Table B16 (cont'd)

Variable (life domain)	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
17. Health services	0.11933	0.22063	-0.41577	0.17068	-0.22248	0.74776	-0.02798	-0.28656	0.07406
18. Health condition	0.20664	-0.00598	-0.87736	0.09629	-0.04164	0.20873	0.10304	-0.13526	-0.12683
19. Organizational participation	0.07761	-0.05785	-0.01402	0.04861	0.00585	0.76677	0.20942	-0.18505	-0.45064
20. Informal groups	0.37618	0.07942	-0.19264	-0.00436	-0.32438	0.21538	-0.00656	-0.16359	-0.80262

Table B17. Factor loadings of 20 life domains using ORTHOGONAL (VARIMAX) rotation method (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Variable (life domain)	Factor						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
R's education	0.20622	0.00138	0.19844	0.00430	0.12150	0.14492	0.84062
Children's education	0.31782	0.21533	0.18047	-0.01664	0.63462	0.13316	-0.04865
Employment status	0.00757	0.13072	0.75512	0.18098	0.09547	0.28501	0.17595
Job	0.10606	0.10825	0.84328	0.09211	0.09303	0.00479	0.05685
R's income	0.19757	0.15415	0.81143	-0.03811	0.03786	-0.15670	0.06204
HH income	0.04938	0.56253	0.37681	-0.19195	0.24615	0.09654	0.01463
House materials	0.14505	0.81157	0.01552	0.13469	0.10883	-0.02279	-0.04002
Appliances	-0.03055	0.61537	0.24300	0.25925	-0.20873	0.01408	0.42583
Furniture	-0.14659	0.76407	0.11632	-0.06999	0.04145	0.25620	-0.00538
Decision-making	0.43634	0.15775	0.09486	0.34557	0.19335	0.19851	0.14166
Time-allocation	0.34826	0.16487	0.13887	0.10115	-0.04105	0.77680	-0.10763
Marriage	0.57696	0.21376	0.12971	0.44648	0.12434	-0.12792	0.06543

*Eigenvalue specified is 1.0.

Table B17 (cont'd)

Variable (life domain)	Factor						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Family size	0.79547	-0.13534	0.12148	-0.16665	0.17929	0.09171	0.04699
Child rearing	0.83039	-0.01667	0.06773	-0.03279	-0.06058	0.20039	0.09960
Prices	0.10709	0.11477	0.03711	-0.74614	0.01476	-0.15017	0.28539
Food and drink	0.05083	0.10732	-0.06504	0.06077	0.14537	0.79913	0.24110
Health services	0.22891	0.18271	-0.07638	0.60288	0.21865	0.01546	0.16381
Health condition	-0.10243	-0.02555	0.27304	0.71089	0.05553	0.02402	0.13453
Organizational participation	-0.01022	0.07744	-0.07110	0.20805	0.76541	-0.13722	0.26467
Informal groups	0.03712	-0.08627	0.39222	0.13280	0.66837	0.33533	-0.13432

Table B18. Results of the stepwise multiple linear regression of nine (9) domain-factors on Life #3 (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Life domain or concern factors	Multiple R	R Square	RSQ Change	Simple r	B	Beta
Marital relationship	0.47762	0.22812	0.22812	-0.47762	-0.30214	-0.32453
House and home	0.62500	0.39062	0.16250	0.42091	0.23759	0.36607
Social benefits	0.68039	0.46293	0.07231	0.31173	0.17669	0.23071
Education	0.72768	0.52952	0.06659	0.32429	0.14317	0.21351
Good provider	0.74752	0.55879	0.02928	0.39308	0.13188	0.15621
Physio-economic security and stability	0.75452	0.56930	0.01051	-0.29189	-0.09126	-0.12388
Social participation status and esteem	0.75929	0.57652	0.00722	-0.08668	-0.07165	-0.07777
Family management	0.76290	0.58202	0.00550	0.24743	0.06530	0.07475
Housekeeping	0.76574	0.58636	0.00434	-0.19732	-0.06453	-0.06746
(Constant)					-0.31286	

*The number of respondents whose data qualified them for inclusion in this analysis is 79.

Table B19. Correlation matrix of 36 selected variables used in factor analysis for the female market participation model (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Variable code*	Factor 02	03	04	05	06	07	08	09	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
00	0.17	0.13	0.08	0.08	0.30	0.11	0.17	0.04	0.62	0.12	0.48	-0.04	-0.17	-0.24	0.07	0.15	0.39	-0.18
02	1.00	0.75	-0.28	-0.24	0.22	0.51	0.38	-0.03	0.37	0.52	0.35	-0.07	-0.11	0.04	0.24	-0.04	0.13	-0.09
03		1.00	-0.12	-0.11	0.29	0.48	0.41	-0.11	0.33	0.59	0.28	-0.02	-0.14	0.03	0.22	0.07	0.19	-0.12
04			1.00	0.93	0.08	0.06	0.21	-0.02	-0.06	-0.10	-0.05	-0.07	-0.20	-0.46	-0.22	0.22	0.33	-0.41
05				1.00	0.07	0.05	0.19	-0.04	-0.08	-0.11	-0.07	-0.10	-0.21	-0.40	-0.20	0.19	0.30	-0.36
06					1.00	0.17	0.48	0.07	0.40	0.09	0.32	-0.10	-0.01	-0.12	0.06	0.06	0.30	-0.14
07						1.00	0.69	0.03	0.23	0.50	0.28	-0.01	-0.13	-0.10	0.05	0.20	0.40	-0.16
08							1.00	0.06	0.25	0.29	0.25	-0.07	-0.13	-0.16	0.00	0.24	0.51	-0.21
09								1.00	-0.00	0.11	0.02	0.01	-0.08	-0.12	-0.07	0.00	-0.01	0.04
10									1.00	0.24	0.71	-0.14	-0.13	-0.18	0.18	0.06	0.42	-0.08
11										1.00	0.21	0.14	-0.04	0.13	0.19	0.06	0.19	-0.12
12											1.00	-0.07	-0.09	-0.15	0.14	0.05	0.40	-0.05
13												1.00	0.03	0.06	-0.19	0.04	-0.07	0.07
14													1.00	0.18	-0.02	-0.13	-0.08	0.10
15														1.00	0.21	-0.15	-0.36	0.35
16															1.00	-0.17	-0.08	0.10
17																1.00	0.43	0.34
18																	1.00	-0.25
19																		1.00

*See Table A_2, Annex 1 of Appendix A.

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Table B19 (cont'd)

Variable code	Factor 20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	01
19	0.02	0.26	-0.01	-0.00	-0.06	0.05	0.00	0.11	-0.27	-0.30	-0.17	0.15	-0.02	-0.05	-0.02	-0.17	0.18	0.35
20	1.00	-0.24	-0.06	-0.08	0.09	-0.15	0.12	-0.06	0.27	0.35	0.28	-0.12	-0.18	-0.03	-0.05	0.10	0.18	0.27
21		1.00	-0.07	-0.08	-0.12	0.06	-0.19	0.29	-0.58	-0.60	-0.59	0.11	0.34	0.24	-0.12	-0.02	-0.23	-0.71
22			1.00	0.62	-0.00	-0.00	-0.08	-0.08	-0.02	-0.01	0.04	0.04	0.00	0.04	-0.18	-0.19	-0.21	0.10
23				1.00	+0.02	-0.11	0.03	-0.04	-0.06	-0.08	-0.00	0.16	-0.01	-0.03	-0.18	-0.18	-0.16	0.06
24					1.00	-0.02	-0.07	-0.11	0.13	0.22	0.07	-0.05	-0.10	-0.02	0.10	0.20	0.22	0.12
25						1.00	-0.12	-0.02	-0.22	-0.11	-0.08	-0.10	0.17	0.16	0.04	-0.10	-0.12	-0.08
26							1.00	-0.02	0.10	0.13	0.13	0.07	-0.02	-0.01	0.05	0.02	-0.03	0.09
27								1.00	-0.26	-0.28	-0.22	0.10	0.16	0.11	0.02	-0.02	-0.01	-0.35
28									1.00	0.67	0.61	-0.20	-0.20	-0.20	0.30	0.17	0.41	0.70
29										1.00	0.67	-0.18	-0.13	-0.11	0.28	0.23	0.41	0.59
30											1.00	-0.12	-0.16	-0.16	0.20	0.10	0.31	0.61
31												1.00	0.06	0.08	-0.20	-0.17	-0.26	-0.08
32													1.00	0.36	0.08	0.03	-0.25	-0.29
33														1.00	-0.04	-0.02	-0.14	-0.15
34															1.00	0.46	0.39	0.02
35																1.00	0.38	0.04
36																	1.00	0.19
01																		1.00

Table B19 (cont'd)

Variable code	Factor 20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	01
00	-0.00	-0.14	-0.07	-0.04	0.08	0.10	0.00	-0.23	0.25	0.21	0.15	-0.15	0.04	-0.10	0.21	0.06	0.26	0.16
02	0.23	-0.70	0.07	0.06	0.19	-0.06	0.16	-0.34	0.56	0.55	0.52	-0.09	-0.31	-0.22	0.09	-0.00	0.15	0.70
03	0.34	-0.70	-0.02	-0.02	0.17	-0.14	0.19	-0.30	0.62	0.60	0.59	-0.09	-0.37	-0.23	0.18	0.08	0.24	0.68
04	0.12	-0.08	-0.12	-0.13	0.06	-0.12	0.01	0.08	0.18	0.24	0.11	-0.12	0.06	-0.09	0.24	0.42	0.40	0.05
05	0.14	-0.11	-0.09	-0.14	0.06	-0.12	0.01	0.16	0.16	0.20	0.12	-0.10	0.04	-0.09	0.20	0.39	0.34	0.04
06	0.04	-0.39	-0.06	-0.05	0.16	-0.18	0.08	-0.12	0.43	0.31	0.21	-0.08	-0.17	-0.24	0.08	0.07	0.27	0.30
07	0.09	-0.45	0.01	-0.01	0.15	-0.09	0.12	-0.25	0.60	0.37	0.43	-0.13	-0.30	-0.24	0.21	0.26	0.31	0.60
08	0.22	-0.38	-0.02	-0.05	0.26	-0.26	0.13	-0.24	0.67	0.50	0.42	-0.16	-0.17	-0.26	0.24	0.40	0.39	0.52
09	0.01	0.10	0.05	-0.09	-0.04	-0.00	-0.02	0.02	-0.09	-0.05	-0.09	-0.12	-0.04	-0.10	-0.00	0.01	-0.01	-0.12
10	0.10	-0.33	-0.10	-0.00	0.16	0.12	0.05	-0.27	0.31	0.29	0.25	-0.04	-0.17	-0.25	0.06	-0.02	0.18	0.37
11	0.06	-0.50	0.11	-0.05	0.09	0.04	-0.00	-0.29	0.47	0.39	0.48	-0.10	-0.15	-0.15	0.23	0.05	0.12	0.53
12	0.10	-0.28	-0.02	0.08	0.19	0.11	0.07	-0.32	0.27	0.20	0.17	-0.06	-0.13	-0.16	0.06	0.02	0.14	0.35
13	-0.09	0.18	-0.08	-0.08	0.04	-0.04	-0.08	0.00	-0.04	-0.17	-0.08	0.04	0.06	0.21	0.01	0.01	0.00	-0.05
14	-0.10	0.12	0.06	0.07	-0.00	0.10	0.03	0.05	-0.17	-0.13	-0.05	0.00	0.16	0.13	-0.13	-0.13	-0.26	-0.14
15	-0.09	0.01	0.14	0.12	-0.14	0.06	0.08	0.05	-0.19	-0.15	-0.12	0.19	0.04	0.18	-0.22	-0.27	-0.31	-0.07
16	0.00	-0.28	0.12	0.16	0.03	0.01	0.07	-0.07	0.03	0.09	0.14	0.31	-0.07	-0.10	-0.14	-0.17	-0.12	0.17
17	0.08	0.03	-0.30	-0.26	0.18	0.02	0.04	0.08	0.15	0.17	0.11	-0.17	0.01	-0.03	0.72	0.60	0.58	-0.17
18	0.05	-0.14	-0.17	-0.12	0.30	-0.02	-0.05	-0.18	0.39	0.27	0.15	-0.18	-0.10	-0.16	0.29	0.52	0.52	0.25

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Table B20. Factor-loading (factor pattern) matrix of 36 variables using OBLIQUE method to derive factors of female market participation (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Variable code†	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
01	0.78314	-0.19990	-0.16164	-0.17334	-0.02159	0.05060	0.03562	0.12512	0.01429	0.04158	-0.01127
02	0.73326	-0.03873	0.25151	-0.17685	-0.10407	0.04651	-0.01897	0.00928	0.02442	0.12156	0.03815
03	0.77978	0.02704	0.17040	-0.06050	-0.13601	-0.07222	0.06882	0.04934	0.02353	0.17875	0.02939
04	-0.09910	0.17340	-0.87484	0.09432	0.01596	-0.03125	0.05271	-0.03584	0.02666	0.06904	0.06645
05	-0.05537	0.15480	-0.85199	0.13790	-0.01302	-0.02305	0.08579	-0.05804	0.02872	0.09513	0.07456
06	0.03014	-0.03806	-0.06061	-0.33766	-0.12017	-0.10836	-0.00456	0.09184	0.18157	-0.00970	-0.50205
07	0.54908	0.26091	0.00396	-0.09590	-0.18266	0.10293	-0.09555	0.28582	0.07456	-0.20961	0.00055
08	0.33998	0.28065	-0.13259	-0.15271	-0.18703	0.09712	-0.11454	0.33056	0.20598	-0.00566	-0.28271
09	-0.23259	0.00518	0.11758	-0.12443	-0.18934	0.08536	-0.61376	0.05245	0.28278	-0.01093	0.17601
10	0.06358	-0.03050	0.02186	-0.84420	-0.08019	-0.11285	0.08589	-0.15947	0.02698	0.00015	0.01222
11	0.78912	0.11666	0.14351	0.00492	0.02608	-0.00837	-0.05008	0.06834	-0.14390	-0.27900	0.08074
12	0.00509	0.01295	0.04460	-0.86384	0.05574	0.03161	0.02379	-0.03232	0.04437	0.03280	0.03607

*Minimum value specified, 1.0.

†See Table A.2, Annex 1 of Appendix A.

Table B20 (cont'd)

Variable code	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
13	0.04051	-0.03639	0.14086	0.06543	0.29638	-0.17840	-0.03105	0.68866	-0.16614	-0.00186	0.17057
14	-0.03968	-0.11979	0.26156	0.14704	0.19182	0.01182	-0.06663	-0.12630	-0.05990	-0.10173	-0.73467
15	0.14853	-0.05357	0.55847	0.26111	0.09110	0.06434	0.22619	0.02679	0.08379	-0.06295	-0.10301
16	0.17145	-0.04709	0.15703	-0.16898	-0.15233	0.13679	0.55645	-0.22142	0.09085	-0.05513	0.09886
17	-0.07327	0.95852	0.17983	-0.00825	-0.00394	-0.12658	-0.01818	-0.03909	-0.01062	0.08598	0.04492
18	-0.02481	0.42061	-0.27024	-0.48181	-0.06247	-0.02670	0.00478	0.14245	-0.14193	-0.08730	0.19375
19	-0.28386	0.35228	0.74680	0.04651	-0.06981	-0.01080	0.08620	-0.06306	0.06967	0.18043	0.07523
20	0.19769	-0.06106	-0.00637	-0.00097	0.07224	-0.04837	-0.11473	-0.02599	0.08945	0.81812	0.09963
21	-0.76544	0.06401	0.09737	0.05344	0.15910	-0.04634	-0.10840	0.16251	-0.40608	-0.10073	0.01375
22	0.07459	-0.03368	-0.00431	0.10094	0.06946	0.89391	-0.11772	-0.05705	-0.08568	-0.02284	0.02307
23	0.07714	0.00708	0.00850	-0.02838	0.00642	0.86484	0.10971	-0.01425	-0.00222	0.00340	0.00472
24	-0.05285	0.20258	0.03164	-0.25893	0.01913	0.10604	0.13321	0.16640	-0.45472	0.32547	0.23068
25	0.04687	0.03000	0.09548	-0.27710	0.36423	-0.10702	-0.11736	-0.51901	-0.23874	-0.22390	0.12042
26	0.11911	0.05105	0.06042	-0.06260	0.16089	-0.04226	0.07047	0.01486	0.73571	0.13708	0.05112

Table B20 (cont'd)

Variable code	Factor 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
27	-0.30091	0.12622	-0.06540	0.39139	-0.08874	-0.10422	0.16439	-0.11676	0.08984	0.00569	-0.07835
28	0.67503	0.11510	-0.16653	-0.06882	-0.08907	-0.02329	-0.05833	0.16297	0.11297	0.04131	-0.16120
29	0.67144	0.12663	-0.20096	-0.04456	0.06621	0.00078	-0.03586	-0.12129	0.07410	0.28247	-0.11380
30	0.75954	0.08466	-0.09217	0.06408	0.00993	0.01085	0.00266	-0.12064	0.08299	0.13033	-0.04913
31	-0.19303	-0.09845	0.02040	-0.08111	0.01497	0.05521	0.71210	0.21670	0.20757	-0.09903	0.16249
32	-0.17462	0.10331	-0.13465	-0.04427	0.68916	0.04267	0.01669	-0.09544	0.25513	-0.18441	-0.13082
33	-0.05537	-0.01348	0.04489	0.03584	0.79250	0.01473	0.05025	0.14909	0.00894	0.19110	0.00000
34	0.22191	0.78537	-0.01080	0.05628	0.08390	-0.07068	-0.07756	-0.13029	0.06117	-0.18745	-0.06607
35	-0.00940	0.65990	-0.25717	-0.00634	0.03352	0.01527	-0.03684	0.16320	0.01436	0.01287	-0.02058
36	0.12954	0.[illegible]3415	-0.22240	-0.04145	-0.22124	-0.11098	-0.02771	0.04818	-0.19161	0.19821	0.00782

Table B21. Results of the stepwise multiple linear regression of eight (8) variable factors on female market participation (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Life domain or concern factors	Multiple R	R Square	RSQ Change	Simple *r*	B	Beta
Woman's occupation	0.29304	0.08588	0.08588	-0.29304	-0.04323	-1.29893
Satisfaction	0.34139	0.11655	0.03067	-0.23132	0.03055	1.77238
Father's housekeeping participation	0.34726	0.12059	0.00404	-0.15957	0.13323	5.24128
HH socioeconomic status	0.36367	0.13225	0.01166	0.10185	0.04530	1.42613
Household type	0.36606	0.13400	0.00174	-0.13005	-0.01418	-0.76338
Health status of the family	0.37187	0.13829	0.00429	0.10496	-0.07405	-3.13599
HH size and composition	0.37626	0.14157	0.00328	0.12162	0.13199	5.60739
Child care	0.38624	0.14918	0.00761	-0.24277	-0.11515	-1.71999
(Constant)					8.63060	

*The number of respondents whose data qualified them for inclusion in this analysis is 240.

Table B22. Results of the one-step multiple linear regression of 11 variable-factors on female market participation (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Life domain or concern factors	Multiple R	R Square	RSQ Change	Simple *r*	B	Beta
Woman's housekeeping participation	0.26829	0.07198	0.07198	-0.26829	-0.05884	-6.99553
HH socioeconomic status	0.27435	0.07527	0.00329	0.10185	0.75787	23.85935
HH size and composition	0.34435	0.11858	0.04331	0.12162	1.24962	53.08927
Child care	0.35419	0.12545	0.00687	-0.24277	0.42847	6.39983
Woman's occupation	0.35609	0.12680	0.00135	-0.29304	-0.95186	-28.60222
Satisfaction	0.36373	0.13230	0.00550	-0.23132	-0.27810	-16.13578
Health status of the family	0.37278	0.13896	0.00666	0.10496	-0.19291	-8.16953
Father's housekeeping participation	0.39059	0.15256	0.01360	-0.15957	0.28177	11.08467
Woman's informal participation	0.41682	0.17374	0.02118	0.20219	-0.00339	-0.46302
Woman's formal organizational participation	0.41854	0.17517	0.00143	0.21573	-0.73543	-64.41043
Household type	0.42886	0.18392	0.00874	-0.13005	0.64647	34.79587
(Constant)					18.03169	

*See Table B21 footnote.

Table B23. Agreement of couple (husband-housewife) respondents on selected value statements (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Value statement	Response	Respondent Hus	Respondent Wife	Kendall tau coeffic.	sig. (n)
1. The husband should have the main say-so in family matters	Agree	88%	83%		
	Neutral	8	8	0.13	0.010
	Disagree	7	9		(241)
2. A man who does not provide well for his family ought to consider himself pretty much a failure as husband and father	Agree	73	71		
	Neutral	9	8	0.07	0.079
	Disagree	17	21		(240)
3. If a man can afford it, he should not allow his wife to work	Agree	80	78		
	Neutral	5	6	0.08	0.059
	Disagree	15	16		(241)
4. Infidelity is the worst fault a husband could have	Agree	76	87		
	Neutral	5	2	0.12	0.016
	Disagree	19	11		(240)
5. In choosing a husband, a woman will do well to put ambition at the top of her list of desirable qualities	Agree	71	80		
	Neutral	9	8	0.22	0.001
	Disagree	20	12		(239)
6. People think less of a man if his wife works	Agree	51	45		
	Neutral	8	10	0.15	0.002
	Disagree	41	45		(240)
7. Women should take an active interest in politics and community problems as well as in their families	Agree	72	75		
	Neutral	9	8	0.15	0.002
	Disagree	19	17		(241)

Table B23 (cont'd)

Value statement	Response	Respondent Hus	Respondent Wife	Kendall tau coeffic.	sig. (n)
8. Almost any woman is better off in the home than in a job or a profession	Agree	61%	64%		
	Neutral	10	10	0.20	0.001
	Disagree	29	26		(239)
9. A man should not be expected to have respect for a woman if they have sexual relations before they are married	Agree	27	33		
	Neutral	13	12	0.16	0.001
	Disagree	61	55		(236)
10. It is somehow unnatural to place women in positions of authority over men	Agree	48	52		
	Neutral	12	13	0.12	0.008
	Disagree	40	35		(239)
11. It is a woman's job more than a man's to uphold our moral code, especially in sexual matters	Agree	67	71		
	Neutral	16	10	0.20	0.001
	Disagree	17	19		(238)
12. The unmarried mother is morally a greater failure than the unmarried father	Agree	60	66		
	Neutral	19	13	0.13	0.007
	Disagree	21	21		(240)
13. The most important qualities of a real man are determination and driving ambition	Agree	83	80		
	Neutral	7	10	0.19	0.001
	Disagree	10	10		(238)

Table B23 (cont'd)

Value statement	Response	Respondent Hus	Respondent Wife	Kendall tau coeffic.	sig. (n)
14. Women think less clearly than men and are more emotional	Agree	61	48	0.04	n.s. (240)
	Neutral	13	16		
	Disagree	26	36		
15. Even today women live under unfair restrictions that ought to be done away with	Agree	63	61	0.07	0.087 (239)
	Neutral	15	15		
	Disagree	22	24		
16. Married women cannot make long-range plans for their job because it depends on their husband's plans	Agree	71	71	0.01	0.034 (240)
	Neutral	11	10		
	Disagree	18	19		

Table B24. Factor matrix of 16 value/attitude statements using ORTHOGONAL (VARIMAX) rotation method (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)*

Statement†	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Statement 1	0.32323	-0.15431	0.47737	0.41538	-0.05488	-0.07693
Statement 2	0.39698	0.13336	-0.32272	0.29830	0.52756	0.20516
Statement 3	0.12079	0.06499	-0.03059	0.65308	-0.05931	0.09746
Statement 4	0.60431	-0.02266	0.02374	-0.03228	0.17102	-0.32180
Statement 5	0.05089	0.80074	0.18545	0.07859	-0.12647	0.16686
Statement 6	0.05060	-0.17583	0.12006	0.28847	0.09273	0.56349
Statement 7	0.26131	-0.37722	-0.08765	-0.42851	-0.03817	0.14499
Statement 8	-0.07363	-0.02952	0.09830	0.70000	0.06877	0.20355
Statement 9	-0.04077	-0.14920	0.11861	0.03810	0.72600	0.15256
Statement 10	0.15756	0.16814	-0.01838	0.04245	0.12785	0.74863
Statement 11	0.63344	0.08677	0.10197	0.05786	-0.03885	0.28528

*Eigenvalue specified, 1.0.

†See Table B23 for the description of the statement code used.

Table B24 (cont'd)

Statement	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	Factor 6
Statement 12	0.68551	0.13273	0.12376	-0.00161	-0.05492	0.25421
Statement 13	0.27255	0.68722	-0.17258	-0.04443	0.28272	-0.11068
Statement 14	-0.05671	0.14200	0.70526	-0.02617	0.15873	0.14685
Statement 15	-0.00516	-0.23725	-0.23748	0.11262	-0.62922	-0.09584
Statement 16	0.19048	-0.00890	0.76861	0.09830	0.09816	-0.03624

Table B25. Agreement of sample household couples on selected value issues, by degree of agreement, and estimated Kendall tau coefficient range (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Degree of significant agreement*	Range of Kendall tau coefficient	Value issues
a. Very weak	0.10	A man who does not provide well for his family ought to consider himself pretty much a failure as husband and father;
		If a man can afford it, he should not allow his wife to work;
		Women think less clearly than men and are more emotional;
		Even today women live under unfair restrictions that ought to be done away with
b. Weak	0.10-0.19	The husband should have the main say-so in family matters;
		Infidelity is the worst fault a husband could have;
		People think less of a man if his wife works;
		Women should take an active interest in politics and community problems as well as in their families;
		A man should not be expected to have respect for a woman if they have sexual relations before they are married;

*Level of significance is not lower than 0.10.

Table B25 (cont'd)

Degree of significant agreement	Range of Kendall tau coefficient	Value issues
		It is somehow unnatural to place women in positions of authority over men;
		The unmarried mother is morally a greater failure than the unmarried father;
		The most important qualities of a real man are determination and driving ambition;
		Married women cannot make long-range plans for their job because it depends on their husband's plans
c. Moderate	0.20-0.22	In choosing a husband, a woman will do well to put ambition at the top of her list of desirable qualities;
		Almost any woman is better off in the home than in a job or a profession;
		It is woman's job more than a man's to uphold our moral code, especially in sexual matters.

Table B26. Sample household respondents (husband, housewife, daughter) classified by agreement on selected value statements, crossclassified by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Value statement	Agreement*		Husband			Housewife			Daughter		
			Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural
1. The husband should have the main say-so in family matters	Ag	n	37	23	152	29	22	148	6	10	37
		%	(89)	(84)	(85)	(80)	(80)	(83)	(60)	(83)	(90)
	N	n	2	2	14	3	3	14	2	1	2
		%	(16)	(7)	(8)	(3)	(11)	(8)	(20)	(8)	(5)
	Da	n	2	2	12	4	2	17	2	-	2
		%	(6)	(8)	(7)	(11)	(8)	(9)	(20)		(5)
2. A man who does not provide well for his family ought to consider himself pretty much a failure as husband and father	Ag	n	26	22	130	21	20	130	4	9	25
		%	(72)	(84)	(72)	(59)	(77)	(73)	(40)	(76)	(62)
	N	n	3	2	16	2	2	14	3	2	5
		%	(8)	(8)	(9)	(6)	(8)	(8)	(30)	(17)	(12)
	Da	n	7	2	32	13	4	34	3	1	11
		%	(20)	(8)	(20)	(36)	(16)	(20)	(30)	(8)	(26)

*The symbols are to be interpreted as follows: Ag, agree; N, neutral; DA, disagree.

Table B26 (cont'd)

Value statement	Agreement		Husband			Housewife			Daughter		
			Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural
3. If a man can afford it, he should not allow his wife to work	Ag	n	31	19	144	27	17	143	7	9	33
		%	(86)	(70)	(70)	(70)	(62)	(80)	(70)	(75)	(80)
	N	n	1	3	9	3	2	9	-	1	1
		%	(3)	(11)	(5)	(8)	(7)	(5)		(8)	(2)
	Da	n	4	5	25	6	8	26	3	2	7
		%	(12)	(18)	(14)	(17)	(19)	(16)	(30)	(16)	(17)
4. Infidelity is the worst fault a husband could have	Ag	n	27	18	137	33	22	156	8	9	30
		%	(75)	(66)	(77)	(82)	(81)	(88)	(80)	(81)	(74)
	N	n	4	2	7	1	1	4	1	1	3
		%	(11)	(7)	(4)	(3)	(4)	(2)	(10)	(9)	(7)
	Da	n	5	7	33	4	2	17	1	1	8
		%	(14)	(25)	(18)	(12)	(8)	(10)	(10)	(9)	(20)
5. In choosing a husband, a woman will do well to put ambition at the top of her list of desirable qualities	Ag	n	21	17	131	27	21	143	9	9	33
		%	(59)	(62)	(75)	(75)	(78)	(82)	(90)	(75)	(81)
	N	n	3	3	51	1	2	15	-	1	3
		%	(8)	(11)	(8)	(3)	(7)	(8)		(8)	(7)
	Da	n	12	7	30	8	4	18	1	2	5
		%	(33)	(26)	(18)	(22)	(15)	(10)	(10)	(17)	(12)

Table B26 (cont'd)

Value statement	Agreement		Husband			Housewife			Daughter		
			Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural
6. People think less of a man if his wife works	Ag	n	15	10	97	11	9	89	3	5	21
		%	(42)	(37)	(54)	(31)	(34)	(50)	(30)	(41)	(51)
	N	n	–	4	15	1	2	20	1	4	4
		%		(15)	(8)	(3)	(7)	(11)	(10)	(33)	(10)
	Da	n	21	13	65	24	16	68	6	3	16
		%	(40)	(59)	(39)	(66)	(59)	(39)	(60)	(25)	(44)
7. Women should take an active interest in politics and community problems as well as in their families	Ag	n	21	21	131	30	21	130	7	7	25
		%	(58)	(34)	(74)	(83)	(78)	(74)	(70)	(58)	(31)
	N	n	1	5	15	2	–	18	3	1	4
		%	(3)	(18)	(8)	(6)		(10)	(30)	(8)	(10)
	Da	n	14	1	32	4	6	28	–	4	12
		%	(39)	(4)	(18)	(12)	(22)	(16)		(33)	(29)
8. Almost any woman is better off in the home than in a job or a profession	Ag	n	17	13	115	18	16	94	8	8	22
		%	(47)	(48)	(65)	(50)	(59)	(53)	(80)	(67)	(35)
	N	n	3	3	17	2	1	20	–	2	3
		%	(8)	(11)	(10)	(6)	(4)	(11)		(17)	(7)
	Da	n	16	11	44	16	10	62	2	2	16
		%	(45)	(41)	(25)	(45)	(37)	(62)	(20)	(16)	(39)

Table B26 (cont'd)

Value statement	Agreement		Husband			Housewife			Daughter		
			Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural
9. A man should not be expected to have respect for a woman if they have sexual relations before they are married	Ag	n	8	6	49	13	6	59	6	3	16
		%	(22)	(23)	(28)	(35)	(24)	(34)	(60)	(25)	(41)
	N	n	3	6	21	3	2	23	-	4	5
		%	(8)	(23)	(12)	(8)	(8)	(13)		(33)	(13)
	Da	n	25	14	104	20	18	92	4	5	18
		%	(64)	(54)	(60)	(56)	(69)	(53)	(40)	(41)	(46)
10. It is somehow unnatural to place women in positions of authority over men	Ag	n	17	9	90	21	13	91	4	5	14
		%	(48)	(33)	(51)	(58)	(48)	(52)	(40)	(41)	(34)
	N	n	4	5	19	2	4	25	1	3	6
		%	(11)	(18)	(11)	(6)	(15)	(14)	(10)	(25)	(15)
	Da	n	15	13	67	13	10	60	5	4	21
		%	(24)	(48)	(37)	(37)	(37)	(34)	(50)	(34)	(51)
11. It is a woman's job more than a man's to uphold our moral code, especially in sexual matters	Ag	n	19	15	125	21	20	127	7	6	29
		%	(53)	(58)	(71)	(58)	(76)	(72)	(70)	(50)	(72)
	N	n	2	9	26	1	3	21	2	3	6
		%	(6)	(35)	(15)	(3)	(12)	(12)	(20)	(25)	(15)
	Da	n	15	2	21	14	3	28	1	3	5
		%	(41)	(8)	(13)	(39)	(12)	(16)	(10)	(25)	(13)

Table B26 (cont'd)

Value statement	Agreement		Husband			Housewife			Daughter		
			Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural
12. The unmarried mother is morally a greater failure than the unmarried father	Ag	n	18	14	113	19	18	121	4	7	25
		%	(51)	(52)	(63)	(53)	(67)	(68)	(40)	(58)	(61)
	N	n	5	8	32	4	5	23	2	3	7
		%	(14)	(30)	(18)	(11)	(18)	(13)	(20)	(25)	(17)
	Da	n	13	5	32	13	4	33	3	2	9
		%	(37)	(18)	(18)	(37)	(15)	(19)	(30)	(17)	(22)
13. The most important qualities of a real man are determination and driving ambition	Ag	n	33	25	140	34	23	133	10	10	45
		%	(92)	(63)	(80)	(94)	(85)	(76)	(100)	(83)	(91)
	N	n	-	2	15	1	1	21	-	-	-
		%		(7)	(9)	(3)	(4)	(12)			
	Da	n	3	-	20	1	3	21	-	2	4
		%	(9)		(12)	(3)	(11)	(12)		(17)	(10)
14. Women think less clearly than men and are more emotional	Ag	n	25	12	110	19	19	78	5	9	21
		%	(70)	(43)	(62)	(52)	(70)	(45)	(50)	(75)	(51)
	N	n	2	6	23	2	2	35	3	-	6
		%	(6)	(22)	(13)	(6)	(7)	(20)	(30)		(15)
	Da	n	9	9	44	15	6	64	2	3	14
		%	(25)	(33)	(24)	(42)	(22)	(36)	(20)	(24)	(35)

Table B26 (cont'd)

Value statement	Agreement		Husband			Housewife			Daughter		
			Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Urban	Semi-urban	Rural
15. Even today women live under unfair restrictions that ought to be done away with	Ag	n	23	14	114	23	15	107	7	4	22
		%	(64)	(52)	(64)	(65)	(56)	(61)	(70)	(33)	(53)
	N	n	-	4	31	1	3	31	2	5	5
		%		(15)	(18)	(3)	(11)	(18)	(20)	(42)	(12)
	Da	n	13	9	32	12	9	38	1	3	14
		%	(37)	(33)	(18)	(31)	(33)	(21)	(10)	(25)	(33)
16. Married women cannot make long-range plans for their job because it depends on their husband's plans	Ag	n	23	15	131	22	18	131	5	6	29
		%	(64)	(63)	(74)	(61)	(67)	(75)	(50)	(50)	(71)
	N	n	2	1	23	3	1	21	3	3	-
		%	(6)	(4)	(13)	(8)	(4)	(12)	(30)	(25)	
	Da	n	11	9	23	11	8	25	2	3	12
		%	(31)	(33)	(13)	(30)	(30)	(14)	(20)	(25)	(29)

Table B27. Percentage of sample household respondents (husband, housewife, daughter) evaluating selected HK activities as to female, neutral or male occupations, classified by respondent- and community-type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Housekeeping activity	Possible reply*	Urban				Semiurban				Rural			
		Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da	Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da	Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da
a. Cooking/ food preparation	F	44% (16)	39% (14)	19% (7)	30% (3)	44% (12)	44% (12)	26% (7)	50% (6)	51% (90)	62% (109)	38% (68)	58% (24)
	B	56 (20)	61 (22)	36 (13)	70 (7)	56 (15)	56 (15)	37 (10)	50 (6)	49 (87)	38 (68)	26 (46)	42 (17)
	M	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
b. Dishwashing	F	53 (19)	64 (23)	31 (11)	57 (8)	48 (13)	67 (18)	33 (9)	67 (8)	70 (123)	70 (123)	54 (96)	73 (30)
	B	47 (17)	36 (13)	14 (5)	43 (6)	52 (14)	33 (9)	18 (5)	33 (4)	30 (54)	30 (54)	15 (27)	24 (10)
	M	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (1)
c. House-yard cleaning	F	31 (11)	44 (16)	22 (8)	40 (4)	37 (10)	48 (13)	26 (7)	42 (5)	62 (110)	73 (130)	51 (91)	78 (32)
	B	56 (20)	56 (20)	36 (13)	60 (6)	59 (16)	52 (14)	37 (10)	58 (7)	37 (65)	25 (45)	14 (25)	22 (9)

*The possible replies are female (F), both sexes (B), or male (M).

Table B27 (cont'd)

Housekeeping activity	Possible reply	Urban				Semiurban				Rural			
		Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da	Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da	Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da
	M	14% (5)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4% (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1% (2)	1% (2)	0 (0)	0 (0)
d. House repair	F	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	10% (1)	-	-	-	-	1 (1)	1 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)
	B	6 (2)	3% (1)	3% (1)	10 (1)	11 (3)	4% (1)	0 (0)	8% (1)	1 (2)	2 (4)	0 (0)	5% (2)
	M	94 (34)	97 (35)	94 (34)	80 (8)	89 (24)	96 (26)	85 (23)	92 (11)	98 (174)	97 (172)	96 (169)	95 (39)
e. Washing/ ironing of clothes	F	67 (24)	75 (27)	19 (7)	70 (7)	74 (20)	89 (24)	67 (18)	100 (12)	85 (151)	87 (154)	77 (137)	80 (33)
	B	33 (12)	25 (9)	14 (5)	30 (3)	26 (7)	11 (3)	4 (1)	0 (0)	14 (25)	12 (22)	5 (9)	20 (8)
	M	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1 (1)	1 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)
f. Looking after children	F	19 (7)	39 (14)	8 (3)	70 (7)	56 (15)	48 (13)	26 (7)	68 (8)	66 (116)	71 (125)	51 (91)	66 (27)

Table B27 (cont'd))

Housekeeping activity	Possible reply	Urban				Semiurban				Rural			
		Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da	Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da	Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da
	B	81% (29)	61% (22)	50% (18)	30% (3)	44% (12)	52% (14)	22% (6)	33% (4)	34% (61)	29% (51)	15% (27)	32% (13)
	M	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0 (0)	1 (1)	0 (0)	2 (1)
g. Disciplining of children	F	6 (2)	3 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (1)	11 (3)	4 (1)	25 (3)	8 (15)	14 (25)	2 (3)	10 (4)
	B	92 (33)	94 (34)	86 (31)	90 (9)	93 (25)	89 (24)	0 (0)	75 (9)	82 (146)	82 (146)	70 (123)	85 (35)
	M	0 (0)	3 (1)	0 (0)	10 (1)	4 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	9 (16)	3 (5)	1 (1)	5 (2)
h. Budgeting	F	33 (12)	47 (17)	17 (6)	80 (8)	33 (9)	56 (15)	22 (6)	58 (7)	24 (43)	34 (60)	15 (26)	46 (19)
	B	67 (24)	53 (19)	36 (13)	20 (2)	63 (17)	44 (12)	33 (9)	42 (5)	62 (109)	61 (107)	42 (75)	51 (21)
	M	-	-	-	-	4 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	14 (25)	5 (9)	1 (2)	2 (1)

Table B27 (cont'd)

Housekeeping activity	Possible reply	Urban				Semiurban				Rural			
		Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da	Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da	Hus	Wife	Hus-HW	Da
i. Marketing for HH needs	F	67% (24)	75% (27)	53% (19)	90% (9)	74% (20)	67% (18)	59% (16)	67% (8)	42% (75)	49% (87)	30% (54)	76% (31)
	B	33 (12)	25 (9)	11 (4)	10 (1)	26 (7)	33 (9)	18 (5)	33 (4)	50 (89)	48 (84)	34 (60)	22 (9)
	M	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	7 (13)	3 (6)	2 (4)	2 (1)
j. Fetching water/ gathering firewood	F	3 (1)	9 (3)	0 (0)	0 (0)	4 (1)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (6)	3 (5)	1 (2)	0 (0)
	B	23 (8)	20 (7)	6 (2)	40 (4)	15 (4)	30 (8)	4 (1)	17 (2)	18 (32)	25 (45)	8 (14)	24 (10)
	M	74 (26)	71 (25)	54 (19)	60 (6)	82 (22)	70 (19)	56 (15)	83 (10)	78 (139)	71 (126)	10 (17)	76 (31)

Table B28. Selected household activities classified by sex association based on percentage of affirmative responses of sample-household respondents (husband, housewife, daughter), by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Community type	Household activities judged by percent of replies*			
	By hus/wife/daughter as female	By wife/daughter as female	By all as sex-independent	By all as male activity
1. Urban	Dishwashing Washing/ironing clothes Marketing	Dishwashing Washing/ironing clothes Marketing Child care† Budgeting‡	Food preparation House/yard cleaning Child care† Disciplining children Budgeting‡	House repair Fetching water Gathering firewood
2. Semiurban	Washing/ironing clothes Child care Marketing	Dishwashing Washing/ironing clothes Budgeting	Food preparation House/yard cleaning Disciplining children	House repair Fetching water Gathering firewood

*Refers to activities where more than 50 percent of respondents of different categories report such activities either as male, neutral, or female.

†Eighty percent (80%) of daughter respondents evaluate such activity as female while 67 percent of husband respondents and 53 percent of housewife respondents reported such activity as proper for members of both sexes.

‡Seventy percent (70%) of daughter respondents report such activity as female while 81 and 61 percent of husbands and housewives, respectively, report this chore as proper for male or female.

Table B28 (cont'd)

Community type	Household activities judged by percent of replies			
	By hus/wife/daughter as female	By wife/daughter as female	By all as sex-independent	By all as male activity
3. Rural	Food preparation Dishwashing House/yard cleaning Washing/ironing clothes Child care	Food preparation Dishwashing House/yard cleaning Washing/ironing clothes Child care Marketing§	Disciplining children Budgeting Marketing§	House repair Fetching water Gathering firewood
4. Overall	Dishwashing House/yard cleaning Washing/ironing clothes Child care	Food preparation Dishwashing House/yard cleaning Washing/ironing clothes Child care Marketing	Disciplining children Budgeting	House repair Fetching water Gathering firewood

§Seventy-six percent (76%) of daughter respondents judge such activity as female while 50 and 48 percent of husbands and housewives, respectively, report this activity as proper for male or female.

Table B29. Percentage of respondent of husband and housewife with affirmative reply to participation of women in selective economic activities, classified by respondent-type and community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Activity	Urban		Semiurban		Rural		Overall	
	Hus	HW	Hus	HW	Hus	HW	Hus	HW
a. Income-generating activities inside house	100%	100% (36)*	100%	100% (27)	100%	100% (176)	100%	100% (239)
b. Office/clerical work	97	97 (35)	100	100 (27)	99	99 (175)	99	99 (239)
c. Teaching	100	97 (36)	100	100 (27)	100	100 (176)	100	100 (239)
d. Nursing/midwifery	100	100 (36)	96	100 (27)	99	100 (176)	99	100 (239)
e. Entertainment	58	61 (36)	52	59 (27)	56	54 (173)	56	56 (236)
f. Engineering	69	78 (36)	96	73 (26)	78	77 (171)	79	76 (233)
g. Medicine	97	100 (36)	100	100 (27)	98	98 (176)	98	98 (239)
h. Pharmacy/laboratory work	100	94 (36)	100	100 (27)	99	98 (175)	100	98 (238)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of couples (i.e., husband and wife) who had valid answers.

Table B29 (cont'd)

Activity	Urban		Semiurban		Rural		Overall	
	Hus	HW	Hus	HW	Hus	HW	Hus	HW
i. Buy and sell/business	86%	89%	96%	100%	98%	100%	96%	98%
	(36)		(27)		(176)		(239)	
j. Transplanting	94	78	100	100	99	99	98	96
	(36)		(27)		(176)		(239)	
k. Weeding	97	83	100	100	96	99	97	97
	(36)		(27)		(176)		(239)	
l. Harvesting/threshing	92	86	96	100	96	99	95	97
	(36)		(27)		(176)		(239)	
m. Plowing, harrowing	11	14	100	11	5	9	5	10
	(36)		(27)		(176)		(239)	
n. Domestic service	92	92	85	100	92	96	91	96
	(36)		(27)		(176)		(239)	
o. Military service/ police work	83	61	96	78	79	57	82	60
	(36)		(27)		(176)		(239)	
p. Driving/bus conductor or inspector	69	58	74	78	75	73	74	71
	(36)		(27)		(175)		(238)	
q. Business and government executive work	91	97	96	93	92	87	92	89
	(35)		(27)		(173)		(235)	

Table 30. Selected economic activities classified by perceived responsiveness to female participation based on percentage of affirmative responses of respondents in sample households (husband, housewife, daughter), by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Community type	Economic activities judged by percent of replies				
	Unanimously judged as female (H/W/D; 100%)	Unanimously judged by wife and daughter as female	As female-responsive (H/W/D; 80-100%)	Unacceptable for female (H/W/D; 40-79%	Judged as non-female (H/W/D)*
1. Urban	Domestic income activities Nursing/midwifery	Domestic income activities Nursing/midwifery	Office/clerical Teaching Medicine Pharmacy/lab work Buy and sell work Transplanting Harvesting and threshing Domestic service Executive work Weeding§	Entertainment Engineering† Military work‡ Transport work	Plowing and harrowing

*Refers to activity where less than 20 percent of respondents feel women should work in such field.

†Whereas 90 percent of daughter-respondents were for women in this field, only 69 and 78 percent of husband- and housewife-respondents, respectively, feel similarly.

‡Husband-respondents (83 percent) were for female police vs. women-respondents' 61 and 70 percent.

§Although 92 and 86 percent of husband-respondents and housewife-respondents, respectively, were for allowing women in such occupation, only 70 percent of daughter-respondents think similarly.

Table B30 (cont'd)

Community type	Economic activities judged by percent of replies				
	Unanimously judged as female (H/W/D; 100%)	Unanimously judged by wife and daughter as female	As female responsive (H/W/D; 80-100%)	Unacceptable for female (H/W/D; 40-79%)	Judged as non-female (H/W/D)
2. Semiurban	Domestic income activities Office/clerical Teaching Medicine	Nursing/midwifery Domestic income activities Office/clerical Teaching Medicine	Buy and sell work Engineering// Transplanting Weeding Harvesting and threshing Domestic service Military service** Executive work	Entertainment Transport work	Plowing and harrowing
3. Rural	Domestic income activities	Domestic income activities Nursing/midwifery	Office/clerical Teaching Medicine Pharmacy/lab work Buy and sell work Transplanting Weeding Harvesting and threshing Domestic service Executive work	Entertainment Engineering Military service Transport work	Plowing and harrowing

//Housewife-respondents (73 percent) deviated from husbands' and daughters' opinion acceptors

Table B30 (cont'd)

Community type	Economic activities judged by percent of replies				
	Unanimously judged as female (H/W/D; 100%)	Unanimously judged by wife and daughter as female	As female responsive (H/W/D; 80-100%)	Unacceptable for female (H/W/D; 40-79%)	Judged as non-female (H/W/D)
4. Overall	Domestic income activities	Domestic income activities Nursing/midwifery	Office/clerical Teaching Medicine Pharmacy/lab work Buy and sell work Transplanting Weeding Harvesting and threshing Domestic service Executive work	Entertainment Engineering Military service Transport work	Plowing and harrowing

among the latter being 96 and 90 percent, respectively.

**While husbands (96) and daughters (92 percent) think positively about women in the military, relatively fewer housewives (78 percent) share the same view.

Table B31. Sample household respondents classified by selected questions on female noneconomic participation, and possible replies, crossclassified by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Selected question, possible reply, and respondent type		Community type: Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Overall
1. Should women engage in--					
a. political affairs? (yes)					
Wife	%	72	73	85	82
	n*	36	26	173	255
Husband	%	67	85	88	84
	n	36	26	173	235
Daughter	%	70	75	90	84
	n	10	12	40	62
b. sociocivic affairs? (yes)					
Wife	%	97	92	97	96
	n	35	25	171	231
Husband	%	97	100	97	97
	n	35	25	171	231
Daughter	%	100	100	98	98
	n	[illegible]	11	40	60
c. religious affairs? (yes)					
Wife	%	92	100	99	98
	n	36	32	160	218
Husband	%	100	95	99	99
	n	36	22	160	218
Daughter	%	89	100	100	98
	n	9	12	34	55

*This symbol, n, refers to the total number of sample respondents who have valid response ("yes" or "no") to the question.

Table B31 (cont'd)

Selected question, possible reply, and respondent type		Community type: Urban	Semi-urban	Rural	Overall
2. Whose community leadership opportunities are better--female, same, or male?					
a. Female					
Wife	%	6	-	2	2
Husband	%	6	4	3	9
Daughter	%	-	17	7	8
b. Same for male and female					
Wife	%	53	23	31	34
Husband	%	42	50	31	34
Daughter	%	60	58	54	56
c. Male					
Wife	%	42	77	66	64
Husband	%	53	46	66	62
Daughter	%	40	25	39	36
Number of sample respondents with valid replies (n) for this question					
Wife		36	26	176	238
Husband		36	26	176	238
Daughter		10	12	41	63

Table B32. Comparative independent replies of husbands and housewives, and response overlap on selected issues, with computed rank correlation coefficients measuring degree of significance and agreement of response between respondent couples (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Selected item and subitem	Most frequent response (in percent)			Kendall tau coeffic.	sig. (n)
	Husband	Housewife	Hus-HW*		
1. Decision-making areas					
a. residence	Hus (49) Joint (45)	Joint (46) Hus (40)	Joint (29) Hus (27)	0.27	0.001 (241)
b. family investment	Joint (61) Hus (28)	Joint (58) Hus (25)	Joint (40) Hus (13)	0.29	0.001 (240)
c. family budget	Joint (41) Wife (38)	Wife (48) Joint (40)	Wife (27) Joint (23)	0.30	0.001 (241)
d. family recreation	Joint (60) Hus (30)	Joint (64) Hus (23)	Joint (35) Hus (9)	0.11	0.035 (238)
e. wife's community participation	Joint (40) Hus (38) Wife (21)	Joint (56) Hus (32) Wife (12)	Joint (28) Hus (15) Wife (4)	0.09	0.054 (248)
f. daughter's community participation	Joint (60) Hus (21) Wife (11)	Joint (61) Wife (19) Hus (14)	Joint (36) Wife (5) Hus (4)	0.14	0.019 (202)
g. husband's community participation	Hus (56) Joint (42)	Hus (46) Joint (44)	Hus (28) Joint (21)	0.10	0.057 (241)

*Husband-wife (Hus-HW) refer to the percentage of couples reporting the same answer.

Table B32 (cont'd)

Selected item and subitem	Most frequent response (in percent) Husband	Housewife	Hus-HW	Kendall tau coeffic.	sig. (n)
h. son's community participation	Joint (57) Hus (30) Child (12)	Joint (64) Hus (22) Child (11)	Joint (33) Hus (10) Child (4)	0.18	0.005 (208)
i. wife's working	Wife (35) Joint (33) Hus (31)	Wife (38) Joint (35) Hus (27)	Wife (20) Joint (16) Hus (13)	0.24	0.001 (199)
j. daughter's working	Joint (63) Child (14) Wife (8)	Joint (71) Wife (12) Child (9)	Joint (42) Child (4) Wife (33)	0.11	0.059 (183)
k. son's working	Joint (57) Hus (23) Child (18)	Joint (68) Child (16) Hus (12)	Joint (31) Child (6) Hus (5)	0.13	0.038 (188)
l. family size	Joint (58) None (21) Hus (19)	Joint (61) None (19) Hus (14)	Joint (41) None (10) Hus (3)	0.23	0.001 (239)
m. pregnancy interval	Joint (54) None (21) Hus (15)	Joint (56) None (21) Hus (13)	Joint (32) None (11) Hus (3)	0.15	0.005 (238)
n. children's friends	Child (54) Joint (32)	Child (54) Joint (31)	Child (36) Joint (12)	0.26	0.001 (234)

Table B32 (cont'd)

Selected item and subitem	Most frequent response (in percent) Husband	Housewife	Hus-HW	Kendall tau coeffic.	sig. (n)
o. children's course	Child (48) Joint (44)	Child (53) Joint (39)	Child (34) Joint (15)	0.34	0.001 (235)
p. children's school	Joint (59) Child (28)	Joint (56) Child (32)	Joint (30) Child (15)	0.23	0.001 (235)
q. son's discipline	Joint (56) Hus (41)	Joint (62) Hus (27)	Joint (41) Hus (20)	0.37	0.001 (216)
r. daughter's discipline	Joint (69) Wife (18) Hus (13)	Joint (64) Wife (32) Hus (5)	Joint (47) Wife (8) Hus (1)	0.09	0.087 (209)
2. Problem area	Occurrence of problem (percent)				
a. HH expenses	Never (30) R/ST (62)† Often (8)	Never (31) R/ST (60) Often (9)	Never (15) R/ST (28) Often (2)	0.36	0.001 (240)
b. absence from home	Never (54) R/ST (41) Often (5)	Never (53) R/ST (44) Often (3)	Never (37) R/ST (14) Often (-)	0.30	0.001 (239)
c. discipline of child	Never (55) R/ST (42) Often (2)	Never (44) R/ST (52) Often (4)	Never (32) R/ST (15) Often (-)	0.28	0.001 (240)

†Rarely or sometimes a problem.

Table B32 (cont'd)

Selected item and subitem	Most frequent response (in percent) Husband	Housewife	Hus-HW	Kendall tau coeffic.	sig. (n)
d. relations with in-laws	Never (62) R/ST (35) Often (3)	Never (62) R/ST (32) Often (6)	Never (45) R/ST (12) Often (1)	0.32	0.001 (239)
e. irritating personal habits	Never (54) R/ST (15) Often (1)	Never (45) R/ST (15) Often (2)	Never (34) R/ST (6) Often (-)	0.39	0.001 (241)
f. extra-marital relations of spouse	Never (84) R/ST (15) Often (1)	Never (79) R/ST (15) Often (2)	Never (71) R/ST (6) Often (-)	0.29	0.001 (241)
g. personal expenses	Never (64) R/ST (30) Often (5)	Never (60) R/ST (36) Often (4)	Never (47) R/ST (14) Often (1)	0.35	0.001 (241)
h. wife's working	Never (82) R/ST (16) Often (2)	Never (90) R/ST (19) Often (1)	Never (75) R/ST (8) Often (-)	0.62	0.001 (129)

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Table B33. Selected decision-making issues classified by major issue-groups, by principal or secondary decision-maker identified by wife-husband respondents, by community type (Bicol River Basin, Camarines Sur, November-December 1976)

Decision-making issue-group and group item	Decision-maker identified by at least 10 percent of couples agreeing on the identification in three community types*
1. Children issues (Factors 1 and 3)	
a. Friends	Children (P): Urban and rural (38%), semiurban (22%); Joint (P): semiurban (22%); Joint (S): Urban (14), rural (10).
b. Course	Children (P): Urban (62), semiurban (30), rural (29); Joint (S): Rural (18), semiurban (11).
c. School	Joint (P): Urban (18), semiurban (30), rural (32); Children (S): Urban (12), semiurban (11), rural (17).
d. Daughter's comm. participation	Joint (P): Urban (22), semiurban (37), rural (38); Wife (S): Semiurban (16); Husband (S): Urban (11).
e. Son's community participation	Child (S): Urban (17); Joint (P): Urban (21), semiurban (43), rural (34); Husband (S): Urban (10), rural (11).
f. Daughter's working	Joint (P): Urban (39), semiurban (38), rural (43); Child (S): Urban (13).

*The notations P and S which follow the identified decision-maker and enclosed in parentheses refer to principal pattern (P), and to secondary pattern (S). The principal pattern is that which a greater proportion of respondents in the areas report as usually practiced compared to other patterns.

Table B33 (cont'd)

Decision-making issue-group and group item	Decision-maker identified by at least 10 percent of couples agreeing on the identification in three community types
g. Son's working	Child (P): Urban (24%); Joint (P): Semiurban (21%), rural (34%); Child (S): Urban (20); Child (S): Semiurban (10).
2. Economic and domestic issues (Factors 4 and 5)	
a. Family investment	Joint (P): Urban (39), semiurban (41), rural (41). Husband (S): Urban (17), semiurban (11), rural (12).
b. Family budget	Wife (P): Urban (56), semiurban (37); Joint (P): rural (27); Joint (S): Urban (11), semiurban (11); Wife (S): rural (19).
c. Wife's working	Wife (P): Urban (18), rural (20); Joint (P): semiurban (26); Joint (S): Rural (16); Wife (S): Semiurban (22); Husband (S): Urban (11), rural (14).
d. Residence after marriage	Joint (P): Semiurban (26), rural (33); Husband (P): Urban (39); Husband (S): Semiurban (22), rural (25).
3. Family affairs (Factors 6 and 7)	
a. Family recreation	Joint (P): Urban (43), semiurban (33), rural (34); Husband (S): Semiurban (22).
b. Son's discipline	Joint (P): Urban (45), semiurban (46), rural (39); Husband (S); Urban (23), rural (21).
c. Daughter's discipline	Joint (P): Urban (57), semiurban (53), rural (44).

Table B33 (cont'd)

Decision-making issue-group and group item	Decision-maker identified by at least 10 percent of couples agreeing on the identification in three community types
d. Wife's community participation	Joint (P): Urban (20%), semiurban (26%), rural (29%); Wife (S): Urban (11); Husband (S): Urban (11), rural (17).
e. Husband's comm. participation	Husband (P): Urban (42), semiurban (22), rural (26); Joint (P): Semiurban (22); (S): rural (22).
4. Family planning (Factor 2)	
a. Family size	Joint (P): Urban (42), semiurban (44), rural (40); By chance (S): Urban and semiurban (11), rural (10).
b. Pregnancy interval	Joint (P): Urban (31), semiurban (23), rural (33); By chance (S): Urban and semiurban (19).

APPENDIX C

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