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WOMEN AND MEN IN DEVELOPMENT:

FINDINGS FROM A PILOT STUDY

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The INSTITUTE OF PHILIPPINE CULTURE is a research organization that studies local problems of education and 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, which are characteristically Filipino.

It operates on the principle that these qualities, with their local and other variations, can be discovered through patient investigation carried out 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 great 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 164 research projects to date of which the present volume represents one of the activities generated by the 150th. This work involved a pilot survey undertaken to explore areas and test methodologies concerning participation of men and women in the development process. Commissioned by the Philippine Institute for Development Studies, the research aims to contribute to efforts directed at improving the present social accounting system. By pursuing this undertaking, the IPC fulfills its mandate of promoting a better understanding of Filipino lifeways, and using this knowledge to improve society, especially of its more disadvantaged sectors.

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FOREWORD

Conventional wisdom dispenses many misconceptions about women's place in Philippine society. One of these, probably drawn from the apocryphal Si Malakas at si Maganda, makes much ado about the equality between Filipino women and Filipino men. Filipino women, we are told, have as much say on domestic matters as men, can enter any profession she wishes to, can advance in that profession as swiftly as men, and can participate in community affairs with equal vigor as men do. In short, we also hear many say, there is no need for women's liberation in Philippine society.

Fortunately, sociologists make it their job to distinguish what can be (or ought to be) from what really is. There is, after all, a whale of a difference between what the Kalantiaw Code says and what is actually happening in our everyday lives. And sociologists, obeying the inner logic (some say, notoriety) of their discipline, always manage to come up with facts that dare to challenge conventional wisdom. You may call this an occupational hazard.

This study, designed and executed by sociologists, is no exception. It is an attempt to investigate how equal the participation of Filipino women and men are in various spheres of everyday life--the home, the market, and the community. And the results are revealing. In all spheres of life, Filipino women are more oppressed than men, and this oppression, if you wish to continue using the Marxist term, even appear to increase as communities urbanize. There is, as my wife always insists (and I believe her), a need for women's liberation in Philippine society.

The difficulties Filipino women meet begin at home where they bear the brunt of housework. Marriage increases women's time devoted to household tasks, but more important, hardly makes Filipino husbands share equally in these tasks. Women who find employment experience a

reduction in time spent for housework, and see the males of the house do more household chores, but still, the total production time remains higher for women than for men. It is the classic "double dose of work" syndrome: despite their jobs, women are still expected to put in as many hours of housework (child care included) as she can. What is worse, call it a double dose and a half, more Filipino women than Filipino men land in low-level, low-paying occupations which require longer hours of work, thus increasing their production time even more.

Even more revealing is the finding that modernization does not ease the women's burden. There is even an indication that the female burden increases in urban communities, even though urban men devote more time to housework than their rural brothers. Given these burdens, it is not surprising that women do not participate in community affairs or community organizations as much as men do. But since having a job or remaining single increases women's participation in community affairs, it is evident that keeping women trapped in the domestic chores, with little help from men, spell zero involvement in community affairs.

A paradox in the evolution of culture is how consistently man's (and woman's) technological advances seem to backfire. The anthropologist Marvin Harris has called such technological advances "labor-saving devices that increase work." In this case, we begin to see that the modernization process not only increases women's and men's total production times, it may also spell greater inequality between women and men. And women, sadly, become the poorer victims of this process. Thus, as the study suggests, we need to reduce, (if not entirely eliminate, I might add) the gap between women's work and men's work in domestic and economic activities. We also need to enrich our understanding of the forces which foster this segregation of roles, and to develop sensitive indicators to measure, over time, the degree of equality between Filipino men and Filipino women. The proper collection and use of time-allocation data, the study suggests, is a step in this direction.

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Elizabeth U. Eviota deserves the credit for preparing the study's research design; for defending the design, the proposal, and the budget in front of sponsoring agencies; for supervising the conduct of the study, and the entire project for that matter, since it began in September 1977 until October 1979; and for writing the preliminary report of the survey results. She was abroad at the time of this writing, and did not get a chance to see the final version of the report.

Virginia A. Miralao, IPC chief of operations and assistant professor of sociology, Ateneo de Manila University, prepared this final report, working tirelessly with her staff to meet the inevitable deadline. Her fine skills in quantitative analysis, her ability to draw pertinent conclusions from masses of data, and her familiarity with the critical issues facing Filipino women are evident throughout the report.

This study was conducted in three Philippine communities, each representing a particular level of development. We need to expand the number of sample sites, gather additional data, and broaden our appreciation of male-female inequalities in Philippine society. We need to find out whether the patterns we have observed in the three sample areas can be generalized to a larger, more diverse group of Filipino women and Filipino men. It is, therefore, heartening to know that the Philippine Institute for Development Studies (PIDS), the study's sponsor, intends to support a national survey of women's participation in development. PIDS' efforts to link the study findings with the work of the other components in this large Economic and Social Impact Analysis-Women in Development (ESIA-WID) project are also welcome. More research, we stress, means fewer misconceptions.

Ricardo G. Abad, Ph.D.
Director

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I. INTRODUCTION

There has emerged a consensus from among various studies and reviews of earlier development efforts that absolute economic growth does not ensure an equitable distribution of benefits. Recognized as filtering and skewing the benefits from development are existing economic and sexual stratification systems, leading the United Nations to write the advancement of low-income groups and women into its goals for the Second Development Decade. Scholars likewise have been prompted to disaggregate in their analysis the rich and the poor, and the male and female populations, in an attempt to understand how class and sex operate to stratify the opportunities and services ushered in by development.

Women in Development

A number of studies may be credited for focusing attention on the importance of women's role in development, and on the factors that inhibit their fuller integration in the process. The first of such studies include those indicating women to have played a major (and sometimes dominant) role in agricultural activities, as in crop production, and the processing and marketing of produce (among others, Boserup 1970; Germaine 1975; Ahuja 1979). That women continue to share in income-producing tasks at latter stages in the economic transition is indicated further by studies showing increasing trends in women's entry and participation in the labor force (Durand 1975; Boserup 1975). In both developed and developing countries, women's incomes from economic activities add substantially to men's paid earnings, enabling families and households to meet the requirements for daily living (UNICEF 1980; Hackenberg, Lutes, and Angeles 1980).

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Of importance to policy is the reciprocal association noted in demographic studies, between the reduction in women's childbearing/maternal functions and their ability to participate more fully in development.

Measuring Women's Participation in Development

Given the increase in international and national efforts to broaden women's participation in development, the need to develop a system of monitoring women's status has become apparent, partly for purposes of counteracting the noted tendency for socioeconomic progress to exacerbate gender inequalities. This study aims to contribute to this effort by attempting to establish how socioeconomic change may have differentially affected women and men in the Philippines, and by suggesting areas where systematic and quantifiable indicators of men's and women's roles may be developed. The present study thus is designed in the nature of pilot studies--to explore areas and test methodologies for the collection of data on male and female roles, and to assess the feasibility of using the attempted measures for the construction of indicators of women's and men's participation in development.

Following earlier conceptualizations, the study proceeds from the assumption that members of the population participate in the process of national development through their involvement in various institutions and spheres of activity, as in the maintenance of the home, in directly income-producing work, and in community activities. Participation in the various spheres of activity, however, is not equally open to the population, and it is generally admitted that cultural role prescriptions favor women's entry and participation in domestic activities, and males in nondomestic ones.

It has been argued that cultural norms that assign domestic functions to women place them in an inferior position to men, stunt their own growth, and inhibit the wider utilization of human resources for development. First, since participation in typically female domestic work is not accorded equal social value as participation in

other spheres, women's contribution to development via their involvement in the home (while admitted), has gone unrecognized formally or publicly. Second, the normative conception of women's role as mothers and wives obscures women's involvement in nondomestic activities, and consequently leads to the neglect of efforts to enhance women's involvement in extradomestic domains. Third and more important, the assignment of women to domestic functions limits their access to economic and social resources, inhibiting both their receipt of development benefits and their competence to participate in development efforts. Since inequality appears built into the system of sex role allocations, the assumption is that development, if it is to contribute to the attainment of greater equality, must also contribute to a reduction in the dichotomization of sex roles.

It is to be noted, however, that the extent of sex role dichotomization has differed across time periods, and varies between and among cultures. In the Philippines, related literature on kinship and family organization and on the status of women in society show women in earlier periods to have enjoyed relatively equal statuses with men in a wider field of activities (i.e., with respect to inheritance, authority within the family, participation in subsistence tasks, and in community and religious activities, see Fox 1961; Infante 1975); but for women's and men's roles to have become increasingly dichotomized into domestic and nondomestic domains in subsequent periods (Carroll 1970; Licuanan and Gonzalez 1976; Montiel and Hollnsteiner 1976). However, because conceptual and methodological issues surround the translation of (typically female) domestic activity into a measure of participation in development, most comparisons of male and female contributions to development are undertaken in areas of activity where there are readily quantifiable information. Gender comparisons in the domestic sphere on the other hand have focused more on the allocation of authority between husband and wife, and the decision-making patterns within the household (Porio, Lynch, and Hollnsteiner 1978; Martinez-Esquillo 1976; Mandez and Jocano 1974).

While suggestive of the nature of gender relations within the home, the findings from these studies are not as directly convertible to measures of participation as those indicated for instance, by wages from employment, or the skill or wage imputed from educational attainment. But even in areas where there are available quantitative data, as in education and employment, male and female comparisons are sometimes deemed inadequate. Enrollment rates for example may conceal differences in the content or fields of male and female schooling; employment rates, in turn, hide differences in the underutilization of male and female labor. Clearly, the problem of assessing accurately men's and women's participation in development is not easily resolved, although separate efforts may help identify more appropriate areas and methods of data collection and measurement.

The Research Plan

To investigate the participation or integration of the population in development, this study focuses on a comparison between women and men along a set of measures designed to capture (1) men's and women's roles as coursed through different institutional involvements, and (2) the flexibility or inflexibility of sex role assignments.

A first area attempted for comparison is men's and women's allocation of time to house and market work. This attempt is based on the assumption that the maintenance of households require both the conduct of domestic chores and market activities. Time-use data, then, are employed in the study to indicate simply how much work do women and men do in what activities, and not necessarily the returns to labor achieved by women and men. Because the returns to work are better estimated for economic and wage activities, it is felt that an attempt at this time to assess the returns or outputs from time use would again lead to rather inaccurate comparisons of the productivity of women's and men's time. Earlier methodologies for assessing the contribution of women's time in domestic and other work along such

undertaken in three types of communities approximating different stages in the change process. Further, within each type of community, comparisons are made between single and married men and women, and between working and nonworking women, for purposes of controlling the influence of marriage and employment status on the population's ability to seize emerging opportunities and contribute to development. The additional comparisons between and among male and female subgroups provide the study a wider base for assessing the extent to which socioeconomic change may have systematically favored the advancement of any one sex.

Sampling procedures and the study sites

To ensure the representation of the various subgroups of men and women, allocation of the predetermined sample size of some 1,400 respondents followed considerations for the community's developmental stage, and the sex, marital, and employment status of respondents. The actual sample size of 1,395 respondents is thus almost equally divided between females and males, and equally among the study sites (Table 1). Of the total sample, 399 are single and 996 are married, approximating roughly the proportions single and married among the adult population. Further, half of the single male and female, and 40 percent of the married female respondents are working. The general tendency for husbands to be working, however, did not make feasible the inclusion, in more equal numbers, of working and nonworking married males. The listing of adult household members previously undertaken in the communities and subclassified into sex, marital, and employment groups provided the sampling frame for the study, with the selection of actual survey respondents following simple random procedures within each subclassification.

Since area of residence is treated as the proxy measure for developmental stage, a brief description of the purposively selected study sites is appropriate at the outset. Used to represent the

Table 1. Distribution of respondents by community, and by sex and marital status

Community	Females		Males		Total
	Married*	Single†	Married‡	Single†	
Candelaria	166	66	166	67	465
Sta. Cruz	166	67	166	66	465
Sto. Niño	166	67	166	66	465
Total	498	200	498	199	1,395

*The number of married working women in the communities are: 31 in Candelaria, 85 in Sta. Cruz, and 81 in Sto. Niño.

†Respondents in these categories are about evenly split between working and nonworking in all three communities.

‡Only 13 married males (2 in Candelaria, 6 in Sta. Cruz, and 5 in Sto. Niño) are not working.

agricultural village population are respondents drawn from the residents of 15 barrio-barangays of Candelaria, Zambales; the transitional or semiurban group, those from two poblacion-barangays of Sta. Cruz, also in Zambales; and the urban population, those from Barangay Sto. Niño in Marikina. Data on community facilities and services lend some support to the assumed differences in the levels of complexity among the three communities. Sto. Niño, located within Metropolitan Manila, has the most number of schools and health facilities, and has available to its residents, electricity and a piped water system. While a relatively progressive market center of Zambales, Sta. Cruz has fewer schools and health facilities than Sto. Niño, and the use of electricity and piped water remains well below universal among the poblacion's households. As might be expected, Candelaria has even less of social services, although at the time of the study it may be of interest to note that the community had the greater number of government programs--including extension services of the Ministry of Agriculture, and

training and income-generating projects sponsored by the Ministry of Local Government and Community Development.

Data collection

Interviews with survey respondents took place in January to March 1979. In addition to the standard socioeconomic information on respondents and their households, the data collected in the interviews include those pertaining to the types of home and market activities engaged in by respondents; the amount of time they devoted to each type of domestic and economic activity; their membership and participation in community organizations and activities; and their awareness and use of health and other services within and outside of the communities. Also gathered to supplement behavioral data were attitudinal data on the perceptions on the role of women and levels of satisfaction with one's job, working conditions, and other aspects of one's life. Analyses of these data, organized along the areas of male and female comparisons mentioned earlier, are presented in the following sections of this report.

II. TIME-USE

This chapter presents the analysis performed on the individuals' use of time. Time-allocation data were gathered in the study through the use of a checklist of activities which included categories of housework and work directly productive of household incomes. In the interviews, respondents were asked to recall how many days in the past week they had engaged in each household and market activity, and then estimate the number of hours spent on these each day. Information on time spent on the various categories of work are presented here in terms of hours per week.

As indicated previously, time-use data are employed in the study to indicate women's and men's contributions to or participation in domestic and market activities required by the household. Time-allocation data are also used to analyze differences in the tasks assigned to men and women, and the extent to which the sexes share in domestic and market work. Discussed first are men's and women's participation in housework, followed by their participation in market and other income-generating tasks, a comparison of time-use patterns in traditional and nontraditional household arrangements, and finally by an assessment of the utility of time-use data as an indicator of women's and men's contributions to the household.

Participation in Housework

Tables 2 and 3 show time-allocation data obtained from the survey respondents on 10 categories of housework. The resulting number of cells from the multi-crossclassifications and the small number of cases in some cells make comparisons somewhat difficult but an attempt is made to undertake these, paying special attention to variations in gender tasks across marital groups and communities.

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First, the tables lend ready support to what is already known about women's participation in household activities, i.e., their involvement in a greater variety of housework, and the greater amount of time they spend on household activities taken singly or as a whole. Using both the proportions in the male and female samples engaged in a household activity, and the average amount of time spent on the activity, to determine sex segregation in household tasks, only the provision of water and fuel for the household emerge as distinctly male activities. All other activities from marketing and the preparation of food, the cleaning of the house, the washing and ironing of clothes to child care are women's work. On the whole, however, there are fewer household tasks that tend to be straightforwardly sex-typed (shown in italics in the tables for convenience), when comparisons are made between single female and male respondents. It is noted for instance, that while only 70 percent of the single male (as against 80 percent of single female) respondents in Candelaria assist in washing the dishes, they devote a half hour more to this activity than single women. Similarly in Sto. Niño, where there is not much difference in the percentages of single men and women attending to children, men are shown to devote one-and-a-half hours more to child care than women. The number of such "hazy" areas diminish in the comparison between husbands' and wives' housework, as the sex-typing of household tasks becomes clearly institutionalized with marriage.

The tables also reveal that the number of females engaged in specific tasks as cooking, washing the dishes, laundry, and other work generally decreases in the more modern communities of Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño, although the women who continue to perform these tasks in the latter communities devote more time to these than their rural Candelaria counterparts. The evidence points to some elaboration of female household activities in the more urbanized settings, arising most likely from an increase in household resources, and from newly acquired tastes for living and housekeeping. Notably becoming more intensive of the wives' time in the more urban communities are cooking

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Table 2. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent by single males and females on household activities by community (January-March 1979)

HH activity	Candelaria		Sta. Cruz		Sto. Niño	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Marketing	[illegible] (10)*	[illegible] (29)	[illegible] (15)	[illegible]+ (19)	3.1 (9)	[illegible] (27)
Cooking	[illegible] (29)	[illegible] (29)	3.9 (30)	[illegible] (31)	1.6 (35)	[illegible] (57)
Washing dishes	[illegible] (30)	[illegible] (51)	1.9 (29)	4.[illegible] (39)	2.1 (25)	4.4 (58)
Cleaning house/ yard	[illegible] (4[illegible])	[illegible] (5[illegible])	[illegible] (28)	[illegible] (15)	3.3 (34)	[illegible] (42)
Washing clothes	[illegible] (2[illegible])	[illegible] (27)	1.9 (25)	[illegible] (17)	[illegible] (27)	[illegible] (34)
Ironing clothes	[illegible] (1[illegible])	[illegible] (4[illegible])	3.[illegible] (17)	[illegible] (4[illegible])	2.4 (20)	[illegible] (38)
Fetching water	[illegible] (4[illegible])	[illegible] (31)	[illegible] (38)	4.3 (22)	4.4 (34)	7.1 (7)
Gathering/chopping firewood	[illegible] (1[illegible])	[illegible] (6)	[illegible] (10)	[illegible] (7)	0.5 (1)	2.1 (4)
Sewing/mending clothes	[illegible] (8)	[illegible] (20)	2.9 (2)	1.6 (13)	1.3 (6)	1.1 (12)
Child care	2.2 (5)	[illegible] (18)	10.[illegible] (2)	8.1 (8)	11.0 (7)	9.5 (10)
Total	14.[illegible] (6[illegible])	[illegible] (2[illegible])	10.[illegible] (5[illegible])	[illegible] (6[illegible])	11.4 (54)	22.9 (55)
NAP (not engaged in any household activity)	(2)	(1)	(13)	(11)	(12)	(12)
Total N	[illegible]	(66)	(66)	(67)	(66)	(67)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

+Figures in italics show sex-typed activity, i.e., the average number of hours given to the activity and number engaged in are higher for males or females.

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Table 3. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent by married males and females on household activities by community (January-March 1979)

HH activity	Candelaria		Sta. Cruz		Sto. Niño	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Marketing	[illegible]	*[illegible]*†	3.6	*4.1*	2.6	*5.1*
	(43)*	*([illegible])*	(48)	*(130)*	(64)	*(145)*
Cooking	[illegible]	[illegible]	5.0	*11.4*	5.0	*16.7*
	(107)	*([illegible])*	(87)	*(140)*	(67)	*(118)*
Washing dishes	[illegible]	[illegible]	2.4	*6.7*	2.4	*5.9*
	(73)	*([illegible])*	(46)	*(103)*	(54)	*(117)*
Cleaning house/ yard	[illegible]	[illegible]	3.2	*7.8*	3.2	*5.5*
	(81)	*(167)*	(70)	*(113)*	(70)	*(120)*
Washing clothes	[illegible]	[illegible]	3.2	*7.8*	3.5	*11.1*
	(23)	*([illegible])*	(36)	*(110)*	(27)	*(96)*
Ironing clothes	2.0	[illegible]	2.5	*2.8*	1.6	*3.6*
	(7)	*(87)*	(24)	*(78)*	(21)	*(86)*
Fetching water	3.6	2.4	3.9	4.4	5.7	3.1
	(121)	(80)	*(85)*	(50)	*(62)*	(65)
Gathering/chopping firewood	3.1	2.1	2.0	2.9	2.9	2.4
	(116)	(26)	*(44)*	(18)	*(9)*	(4)
Sewing/mending clothes	1.9	1.8	1.9	*2.1*	1.5	3.1
	(8)	*(131)*	(9)	*(88)*	(2)	*(92)*
Child care	[illegible]	*30.9*	16.2	*37.9*	12.4	*32.8*
	(75)	*(115)*	(80)	*(103)*	(94)	*(103)*
Total	14.7	50.9	21.3	56.0	19.2	55.7
	(156)	*([illegible])*	(112)	*(163)*	(134)	*(163)*
NAP (not engaged in any household activity)	(10)	(0)	(2[illegible])	(3)	(32)	(3)
Total N	(166)	(166)	(166)	(166)	(166)	(166)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

†Figures in italics show sex-typed activity, i.e., the average number of hours devoted to activity and number engaged in are higher

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(where urban Sto. Niño housewives devote double the time spent by rural Candelaria housewives), marketing, and the washing and ironing of clothes. Moreover, despite the fact that urban Sto. Niño wives have a child less on the average than the rural Candelaria wives (with four children; see Table A2 in the Appendix), they spend over 2 hours more at child care than the latter group. On the other hand, technological changes tend to render the male household tasks of fetching water, and gathering and chopping firewood less necessary, thus reducing the amount of time and the number of male individuals needed for these activities in the more urban communities.

Summary statistics derived from Tables 2 and 3 indicate the process of change to have different effects on sex and marital status groups. Compared to all other groups, socioeconomic change or urbanization tends to relieve unmarried males of housework. Table 4 shows decreases in both the average number of hours single males devote to housework and the proportion among them engaged in household activities in the more urban settings. Single male respondents in Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño devote 3-4 hours less to housework than the single males in rural Candelaria; and the proportion of single males performing housework drops from 93 percent in Candelaria to some 80 to 82 percent in transitional Sta. Cruz and urban Sto. Niño.

On the other hand, the change process appears to increase the unmarried women's participation in housework, specifically in terms of the amount of time they devote to this. Single women in the more modern communities allot, on the average, 4-5 hours more of their time to housework than their rural counterparts. And while the proportion of single women participating in housework declines from 97 percent in rural Candelaria to 89 percent and 92 percent in Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño, respectively, the decline is partly a statistical artifact brought about by the inclusion of maids in the female transitional and urban samples. Since the housework of the live-in maids is more appropriately the equivalent of their paid employment, they are excluded from among the housework participants shown in the table. Nonetheless,

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Table 4. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent on housework and percent of respondents engaged in household activity by sex, marital status, and community (January-March 1979)

Community	Single		Married	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
a. Average amount of time spent on housework				
Candelaria	14.4	18.5	14.7	50.8
Sta. Cruz	10.2	22.5	21.3	60.0
Sto. Niño	11.1	22.9	19.2	55.7
b. Percent engaged in housework				
Candelaria	92.5%	95.5%	93.0%	100.0%
Sta. Cruz	80.3	83.6	85.5	98.2
Sto. Niño	81.8	82.1	80.7	98.2

one notes that the proportion of single women engaged in housework remains generally higher than the figures for either single or married men within the same communities.

The impact of urbanization on the household participation of married men is not as clear-cut. On the one hand, the average number of hours husbands spend on housework increases in the more urban communities. At the same time, however, urbanization also reduces, somewhat effectively, the number of married males contributing to housework. The data thus suggest some considerable variation in married men's involvement in housework as communities modernize. On one extreme are husbands who completely drop out from housekeeping (14 percent in transitional Sta. Cruz and 19 percent in urban Sto. Niño), and on the other are husbands in these more modern communities who continue to engage in housework and in fact, increase their time-inputs to household activities. The figures show husband-respondents in Sto. Niño to devote 31 percent, and husbands in Sta. Cruz, 45 percent more time to housework than their rural Candelaria counterparts.

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It appears that prospective studies on husbands' involvement in household activities may do well to consider the class background and other characteristics of husbands that may differentiate between those who participate in housework and those who do not.

No marked changes in the married women's involvement in housework are noted across communities. Virtually all married women, regardless of the community's development stage, are shown to engage in housework. Already starting from a high level of time-inputs in the rural area (51 hours/week in Candelaria), the average number of hours wives devote to housework increases by another 9 percent (or 5 hours more) in the more developed communities. This slight proportional increase is consistent with the tendency, noted earlier, for housework to become more intensive of the wife's time in modern communities. It would seem, however, that the increase in the transitional and urban wives' housework time would have been greater, had not some husbands in these areas increased their own participation in housework. Moreover, the greater prevalence of extended households, and of families with domestic help in the more developed communities (40 percent in Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño as against 28 percent in rural Candelaria; Table A2) suggests the availability of other household members who can absorb, and relieve wives of, the additional time-demands imposed by modern housekeeping

Sharing of housework

Time-allocation data were also gathered for purposes of establishing the extent of female and male sharing in housework. Since women's average time-inputs to housework are higher than men's in all subgroups, women's household time was used as the base for computing men's proportional share of housework. One hundred percent indicates equal sharing of housework; the lower the percentage, the least sharing done by men. Two sets of results obtained from this computational procedure are shown in Table 5: Set A reflects results obtained when computations are restricted to males and females who participated in

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household tasks; Set B shows what happens when all males and females in the subsamples are included in the computations regardless of whether or not they participated in housework.

Most readily apparent from Table 5 is the greater equality in housekeeping among single male and female respondents--especially in rural Candelaria where single men put in to housework the equivalent of three-fourths the single women's time. As the popular household tasks assigned to single males (that of fetching water and gathering/chopping firewood) are dispensed with in the more urbanized communities, the single males' participation in housework is reduced to the equivalent of approximately half of single women's time-inputs to similar activities. The relatively more equal sharing of housework among single, than among married male and female respondents also appears consistent with the tendency noted earlier, for household tasks to be less sex-typed prior to women's and men's entry to marriage.

Among married respondents, married males generally put in less of the equivalent of wives' time to housework, producing marked inequalities in housework-sharing among married couple respondents. When computations of men's proportional share in housework is limited only to husbands (and correspondingly, the wives) engaged in household activity, husbands' shares tend to be higher, reaching over a third of wives' work in more urban Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño. When husbands not engaged in any housework are included in the computations however, the husband's share of housework drops to a third or less than a third of women's work. Further, men's proportional share in housekeeping remains relatively stationary (between 27 percent to 33 percent of women's work) across community types in the second set of computations.

Table 5 also shows, somewhat paradoxically, a more equal situation to obtain among single men and women in rural Candelaria (77.8 percent), but also for the most unequal situation to obtain in the same community once individuals get married (29 percent). This discontinuity in single and married male and female participation is not easily explained, although the data suggest that in rural households,

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Table 5. Time spent by men in household activities expressed as a proportion of time spent by women in similar activities by community and marital status (January-March 1979)

Community	Set A*		Set B†	
	Single	Married	Single	Married
Candelaria	77.8% (M=62; F=63)	29.0% (M=156; F=166)	75.3% (M=67; F=66)	27.3% (M=166; F=166)
Sta. Cruz	45.3 (M=53; F=56)	38.1 (M=142; F=163)	43.7 (M=66; F=67)	33.2 (M=166; F=166)
Sto. Niño	49.8 (M=54; F=55)	34.4 (M=134; F=163)	49.5 (M=67; F=66)	28.3 (M=166; F=166)

*Computations are limited to individuals engaged in household activities; corresponding numbers of males and females in parentheses.

†Computations include all individuals whether or not they participate in housework; corresponding numbers of males and females in parentheses.

husbands probably delegate some of their share of housework to sons or other single males of the household. Earlier comparisons showed single and married men in Candelaria to put in some 14.5 hours each to housework, whereas in the more urbanized communities, husbands put in substantially more time to housework (19 to 21 hours) than single men do (10 to 11 hours). Rural wives, then, are more likely to get household assistance from husbands and sons in relatively equal amounts. On the other hand, urban wives tend to be assisted in housework more by husbands (and daughters, and perhaps by extended kin or domestic help) than by sons, who probably are encouraged to enter higher education or formal employment.

Participation in Market Activities

Comparisons on the time allocation of women and men in economically gainful activity are limited by definition to the working individuals

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in the sample. As stated earlier, the sampling procedures made possible the inclusion in equal numbers of single working males and females in the three communities. However, because husbands in the study populations tended to be working and wives not, attempts at arriving at equal numbers of working married males and females did not work too well. Thus the proportion of working husbands in the sample reaches over 95 percent in all the communities; whereas the proportion of wives working is about 50 percent in Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño, and 19 percent in Candelaria. This unevenness in the proportions of working husbands and working wives may limit to a certain extent, the comparisons made among the married respondents. Also available from the survey, however, are data on the amount of time respondents spend on other income-producing activities near or around their homes. Analysis of time-use patterns in this type of economic activity is undertaken for all individuals involved in food- or income-augmenting work.

Participation in gainful employment

Data on the respondents' gainful employment indicate sex differences in occupations and in the amount of time devoted to market work. A disaggregation of the male and female occupations in the study (Table 6), again lend ready support to earlier findings regarding the predominance of females in sales and professional occupations, and of men in farming, in transport and communication, and in managerial occupations. As might be expected, however, there are differences in occupational types among the rural and urbanizing communities (see Tables A3 and A4). In rural Candelaria and transitional Sta. Cruz, most working males (whether single or married) are engaged in farming, while their counterparts in urban Sto. Niño are mostly craftsmen or production workers in Marikina's shoe industry. The participation of females in sales occupations is shown substantial in all three communities, although female participation (especially single female) in service occupations and in crafts and production increases noticeably in the more urban communities.

Table 6. Respondents by occupation and by sex and marital status (January-March 1979)

Occupation group	Males		Females	
	Single	Married	Single	Married
Professional, technical, and related workers	5.1% (5)*	5.4% (26)	25.0% (25)	14.1% (28)
Administrative, executive, and related workers	6.1 (6)	6.2 (30)	1.0 (1)	4.6 (9)
Clerical workers	3.0 (3)	3.1 (15)	13.0 (13)	3.0 (6)
Sales workers	9.1 (9)	9.3 (45)	17.0 (17)	41.9 (83)
Farmers, fishermen, and related workers	29.1 (29)	33.6 (163)	4.0 (4)	7.1 (14)
Transport and communication workers	10.1 (10)	10.7 (52)	-	-
Craftsmen and production process workers	20.2 (20)	20.8 (101)	16.0 (16)	22.2 (44)
Workers and laborers, n.e.c.	7.1 (7)	3.5 (17)	2.0 (2)	0.5 (1)
Service, sports, and recreation workers	10.1 (10)	7.4 (36)	22.0 (22)	6.6 (13)
Total	99.9% (99)	100.0% (485)	100.0% (100)	100.0% (198)
NAP (R is unemployed)	(100)	(13)	(100)	(300)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

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The average number of hours men and women devote to market work and the proportion of women's to men's market time are given in Table 7. On the whole, the data show single women to spend the most time in market work; single men, the least time. The disparity between single women's and single men's market time is most apparent in the more urban communities where unmarried women put in the equivalent of one and one-third the single men's time in the market. The longer work hours of the young urban women derive partly from the popularity of sales and service occupations among single girls. A considerable number of the single female respondents in Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño (30 percent and 35 percent, respectively) are storekeepers or market vendors, housemaids, cooks, or kitchen helpers. These women are employed in business establishments where work hours are variable, and where employers tend to prefer the services of unmarried women (see Palabrica-Costello and Costello 1979).

The market time-inputs of married men do not differ markedly among the communities, the 50-to-51-hour workweek of husbands in the Zambales communities increasing only by another 4 hours in Sto. Niño, Marikina. A 10-hour difference, however, is observed between the market time-inputs of rural working wives (42 hours) and transitional/urban working wives (52 hours), possibly reflecting less opportunities for gainful employment in the rural area, or a greater need for wives to engage in market work in the urbanizing communities. Consequently, the wives' share of market work is lowest in rural Candelaria, where working wives put in the equivalent of 83 percent of their male counterparts' time in the market. In transitional Sta. Cruz and urban Sto. Niño on the other hand, wives' market time roughly equals that of husbands, with the proportion of wives' time to husbands' time slightly higher in the transitional area (104 percent), and slightly lower in the urban area (95 percent). This relatively equal market participation of husbands and wives is obtained because the market-time comparisons shown in Table 7 are restricted to working wives and working husbands. Expectedly, however, when the greater number of

Table 7. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent by male and female respondents on market work, and proportion women's to men's market time by community and marital status (January-March 1979)

	Single		Married	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
a. No. of hours/week				
Candelaria	45.6 (33)*	50.5 (33)	50.6 (163)	42.2 (91)
Sta. Cruz	47.6 (33)	63.0 (34)	50.5 (158)	52.3 (86)
Sto. Niño	40.6 (33)	54.6 (33)	54.5 (161)	52.0 (78)
b. Women's time as a percent of men's time				
Candelaria	108.2%		83.3%	
Sta. Cruz	132.3%		103.7%	
Sto. Niño	134.6%		95.4%	

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of working individuals.

nonworking wives (300) and the few cases (13) of nonworking husbands in the sample are taken into account, the proportional share of wives' market work drops to 57 percent and 46 percent of husbands' work in Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño, and to only 16 percent in rural Candelaria. No similar changes in market time shares between single men and single women are expected because of the equal representation of market and nonmarket participants among single respondents.

Incomes from work

A reference is made here to the income respondents derive from paid employment since their income or wages provide a ready indication

of their returns from market work. Disaggregation of the respondents' average monthly income by occupational category and by sex and marital status (Table 8) shows males receiving consistently higher wages than females in all occupational categories. Results from similar disaggregations in each of the communities (see Tables A5 and A6) are generally consistent with this finding, except for a few cases in urban Sto. Niño, where working wives in professional occupations, and single women in production work receive higher wages on the average than their respective male counterparts. Although male and female incomes are disaggregated in the table by occupational category, it is generally admitted that broad occupational classifications still mark considerable differences in the nature of women's and men's market work. In the sales occupational category for instance, where substantial differences obtain in male and female earnings, males are usually in formal employment (i.e., company salesmen or insurance agents), and females in informal or self-employment. Rather than suggest outright sex-discrimination in wages therefore, differences in male and female earnings reflect the tendency for women to enter lower-level and lower-paying occupations, which in turn is a function of the sex-typing in jobs built into or derived from cultural sex role definitions.

When overall average monthly incomes are compared across subgroups, married men are shown to earn the highest incomes, followed by married women, single men, and finally by single women. Since married respondents are generally older than single respondents (see Table A1), their higher incomes may be attributed to their longer participation in the labor force compared to the young single respondents. It probably should be noted, however, that average incomes in all subgroups are low (₱306 to ₱469 per month), considering that, with the exception of urban single males (who put in the equivalent of a conventional full-time workweek), all other groups worked more than 40 hours per week. A comparison of the market time-inputs and the income levels of the employed respondents suggests a pattern of labor underutilization, where individuals devote long working hours to low productivity or

Table 8. Average monthly incomes of employed respondents by occupational category and by sex and marital status (January-March 1979)

Occupational category	Single		Married	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Professional	₱1,035.00 (5)*	₱ 491.00 (23)	₱ 777.42 (31)	₱ 705.13 (30)
Administrative	668.00 (5)	650.00 (1)	988.10 (31)	651.50 (10)
Clerical	567.80 (4)	416.60 (14)	854.81 (16)	541.60 (5)
Sales	367.80 (9)	275.60 (16)	573.41 (46)	370.16 (81)
Farmers	185.10 (27)	88.00 (4)	212.42 (164)	209.57 (14)
Transport/communication	375.40 (10)	-	538.06 (50)	-
Craftsmen	277.90 (21)	250.10 (16)	478.48 (94)	276.34 (44)
Workers/laborers	282.30 (7)	317.50 (2)	530.47 (17)	280.00 (1)
Service	216.90 (10)	141.50 (21)	478.15 (33)	287.83 (12)
All	₱ 335.00 (98)	₱ 306.50 (100)	₱ 471.00 (482)	₱ 402.00 (197)
NA/DK	(1)	-	(3)	(1)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

underpaid activities (Hauser 1973). More afflicted by this type of underemployment are rural respondents who are shown to earn less than their transitional or urban counterparts (see Tables A4 and A5) and women, who earn less than their male counterparts. Particularly afflicted, however, are single working women who spend even more time at market work than married men, but earn about a third less of the married men's incomes.

Participation in other productive activities

Like housework, the involvement of individuals in a number of activities, like the raising of food crops and animals in one's backyard, is not usually reported as economically gainful work, since these activities do not add directly to household cash incomes. If some income is achieved from these activities (as in small-scale vegetable/poultry/livestock raising for the market), incomes from these are either minimal or irregular that they are missed in systems of income accounts. Nonetheless, "production for consumption" activities are recognized to reduce household purchase requirements; and "small-scale" production for the market, to augment incomes from regular and paid employment.

The average amount of time spent on these activities and the number of individuals engaged in these are not shown to differ as much by sex and marital status, as by type of community (Table 9). Expectedly, the incidence of respondents engaging in these activities in the urban community is minimal, and the few cases appearing in urban Sto. Niño do not make for further meaningful gender comparisons. The number of individuals participating in this type of economic activity, however, increases noticeably in the Zambales communities, with the incidence of participation higher in all male-female categories for rural Candelaria (33 percent to 69 percent) than for transitional Sta. Cruz (30 percent to 45 percent). Most active in these productive activities are the husbands, and particularly the wives in Candelaria,

Table 9. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent on other productive activities by community, sex, and marital status (January-March 1979)

Community	Single		Married	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Candelaria	4.6 (45%)*	5.4 (33%)	6.9 (60%)	10.6 (69%)
Sta. Cruz	9.0 (38)	7.3 (30)	7.3 (45)	8.1 (57)
Sto. Niño	6.7 (6)	51.7 (1)	7.9 (5)	2.1 (6)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the percentage of individuals engaged in other productive work.

who are shown to devote 7 hours and 11 hours, respectively, to this kind of work. This finding is consistent with the greater insufficiency of household incomes found in the rural area, leading households to seek other means of augmenting these. The finding is also in accord with the reported high participation of women in economic activities in subsistence and peasant communities (Boserup 1970 and Ahuja 1979).

An examination of the types of other productive work respondents engage in also do not show peculiar sex-typing of other productive work. In the Marikina community, this work is limited to the raising of pigs. In the Zambales communities, both the raising of pigs and poultry are popular, and so is backyard vegetable gardening--made possible by the generally bigger home lots in the provinces and rural areas, and perhaps encouraged by more intensely pursued government piggery and other income-generating programs in these areas.

Time-Use Patterns

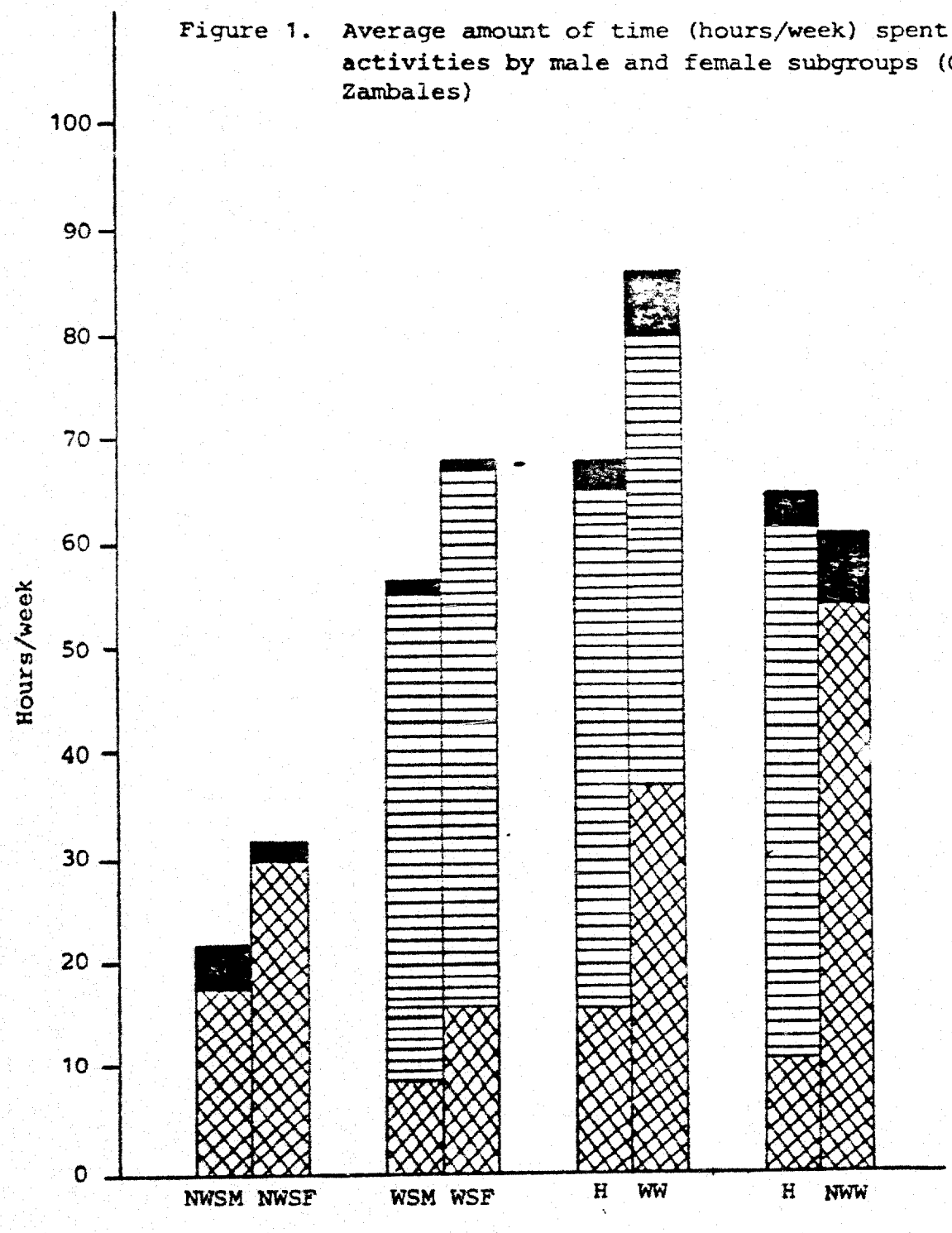
The absolute number of hours respondents devote to all the domestic and economic activity-requirements of the household are shown

in Figures 1-3 (for exact amounts of time, see Table A7). The figures do not add much more to what has already been said about time allocation among single respondents. Single women generally devote more hours to the combined domestic and economic needs of households, although fewer hours in domestic activities tend to be expected of single working respondents, whether female or male, than of their nonworking counterparts.

The figures are more instructive of the conditions of husbands and wives in traditional arrangements (i.e., where husbands engage in market work, and wives not), as against arrangements where both husband and wife engage in market work. In all three communities, employed or working wives devote considerably less time (16 to 25 hours less) to domestic activities than the traditional housewives. They also get relatively more assistance from their husbands in household activities than nonworking wives. Despite these, working wives in all communities end up with the highest amount of time-inputs to the combined activities of the household. In rural Candelaria, working wives spend 20 hours more per week at house, market, and other productive work than their husbands. Corresponding figures for transitional Sta. Cruz and urban Sto. Niño respectively show working wives to devote 30 and 23 hours more to the same activities than their husbands. In contrast, traditional arrangements show nonworking wives to spend about the same amount of time as their husbands do to activities needed by the household. In rural Candelaria and urban Sto. Niño, husbands' overall time-inputs exceeded slightly their nonworking wives' inputs by 4 hours, while in Sta. Cruz, nonworking wives' time surpassed slightly the husbands' by some 3 hours. The traditional arrangement then indicates a clearer trade-off in men's market work and women's housework--equal in time though different in domains.

Based on quantitative measures of men's and women's time-use, it may be argued (on relatively objective grounds), that women are disadvantaged in either traditional or nontraditional conjugal arrangements. Although involved in a wider field of activities, wives in nontraditional

Figure 1. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent on various activities by male and female subgroups (Candelaria, Zambales)

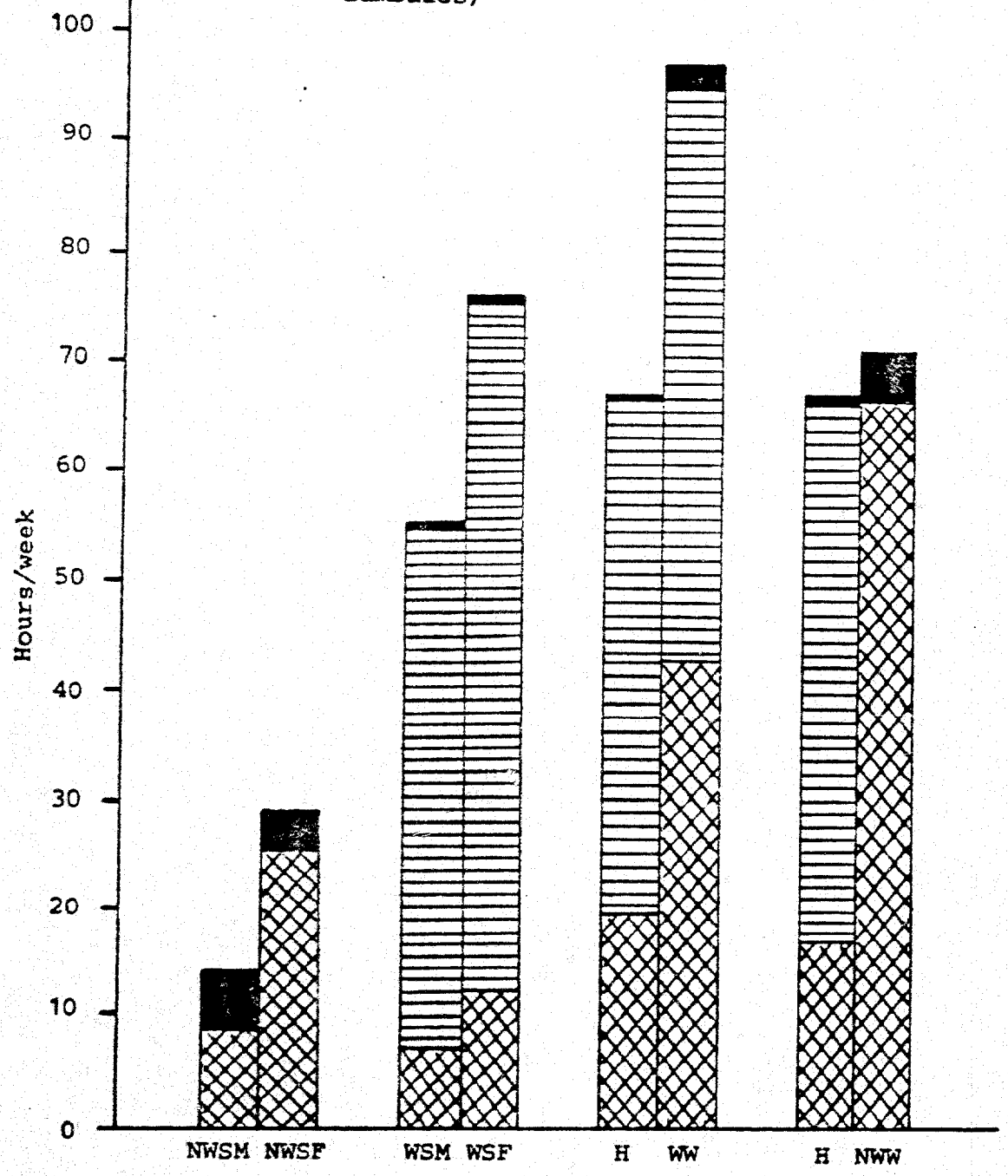


LEGEND:

NWSM - Nonworking single male
NWSF - Nonworking single female
WSM - Working single male
WSF - Working single female
H - Husband
WW - Working wife
NWW - Nonworking wife

- Household activities
- Market activities
- Other income activities

Figure 2. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent on various activities by male and female subgroups (Sta. Cruz, Zambales)

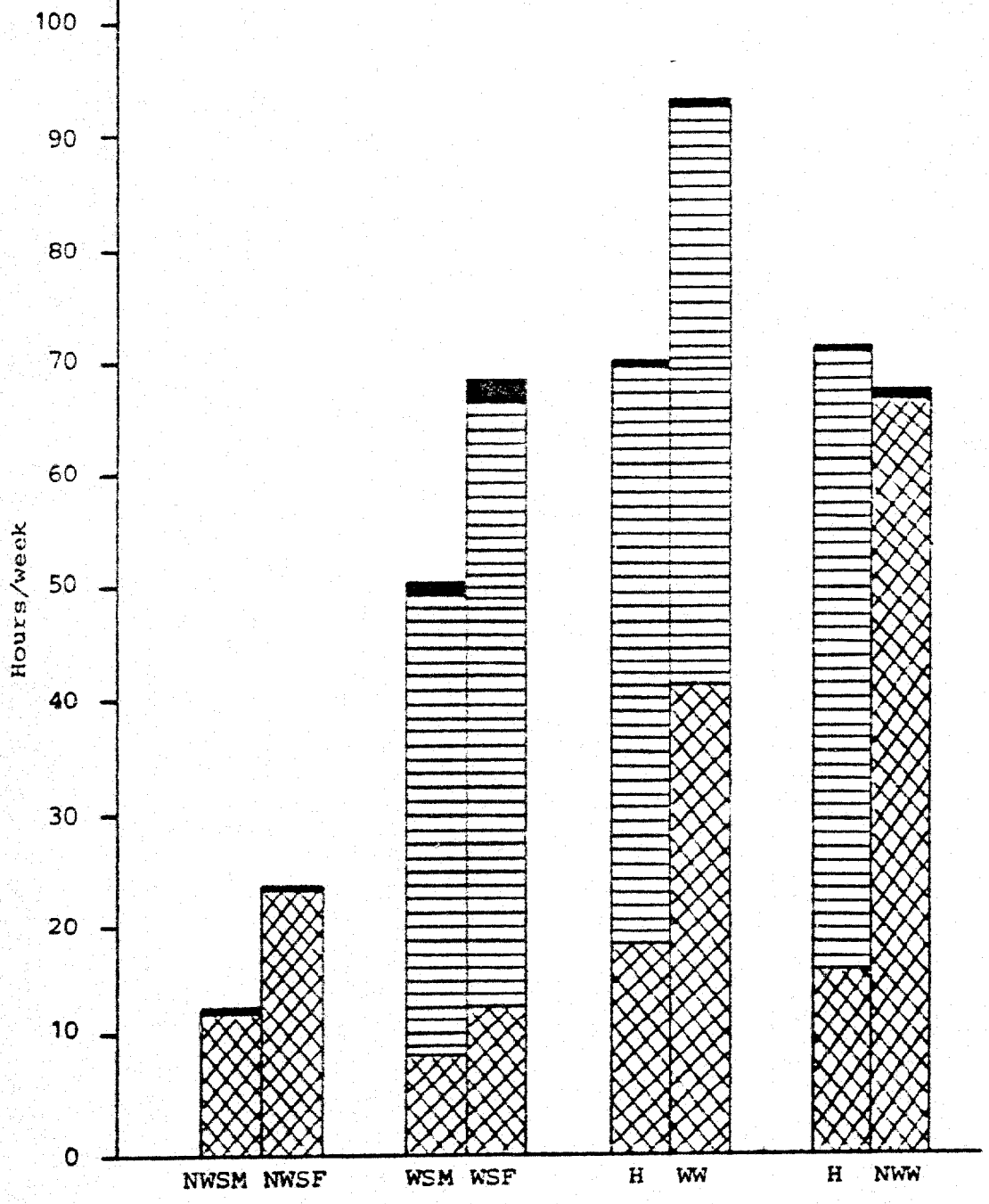


LEGEND:

NWSM - Nonworking single male
NWSF - Nonworking single female
WSM - Working single male
WSF - Working single female
H - Husband
WW - Working wife
NWW - Nonworking wife

- Household activities
- Market activities
- Other income activities

Figure 3. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent on various activities by male and female subgroups (Sto. Niño, Marikina)



LEGEND:

NWSM - Nonworking single male
NWSF - Nonworking single female
WSM - Working single male
WSF - Working single female
H - Husband
WW - Working wife
NWW - Nonworking wife

- Household activities
- Market activities
- Other income activities

arrangements carry most of the burden of household activity-requirements. On the other hand, while spared the double-dose of home and market work, wives in traditional arrangements perform roles that are much more narrowly defined, and they are excluded access to domains outside of the household. But it is not usually the case, that women (or men) view their own positions in these terms. Conjugal relationships are characterized more typically by cooperation between wives and husbands, who work within their respective roles or in other capacities in which they are able to contribute to the household. Studies on working women, for instance, indicate wives to view their market work as an extension of their wife/helpmate roles (Piepmeier and Adkins 1973; Licuanan and Gonzalez 1976), suggesting that working wives, perhaps, are unmindful of their and their husbands' unequal working hours. Whether or not a structure of inequality is perceived to underlie the traditional sexual division of labor, or the double burden of women's house and market work is dependent, thus, on prevailing sex-role ideologies or community norms (White and Hastuti 1980), and on women's and men's private preferences for traditional or nontraditional role assignments.

It is widely recognized that several methodological difficulties surround the study of sex-role (and other) preferences, including the tendency for individuals to state socially acceptable responses (i.e., influenced by prevailing sex-role norms), rather than their own personal values or preferences. There are available from the survey, however, some attitudinal data suggestive of women's preferences, and are presented here for whatever insights these may add to the analysis of women's conditions. For the unemployed wives, these data include their attitudes toward working wives, their desire to enter the labor force, their job preferences and their reasons for choosing a particular job. For the working wives, the data include, likewise, their attitudes toward women who work outside of the home, their desire for more hours of market work or for changing jobs, and their reasons for wanting to change occupations. Based on these data, one would expect that

nonworking wives who would like to enter paid employment are less content with the traditional housewife role than those who would not. Similarly, among working wives, those not desiring more hours of market work, and those desiring a change in jobs (probably to occupations requiring lighter tasks) may be those who feel more the burden of their long hours of work.

Nonworking wives' desires for employment

A majority of the nonworking wives in the three communities tend to favor women who work outside of the home and would like to be working themselves. But there are more housewives wanting a job for themselves (74 percent to 87 percent, see Table 10), than housewives expressing approval for working women (54 percent to 61 percent). The reason for this discrepancy is not ascertainable from the data, although one suspects that there are some housewives who would rather not work, except that the insufficiency of household incomes may prompt them to desire work.

When asked what jobs they would like to have if they were given the opportunity, most housewives reported wanting to enter sales, crafts or factory work. An examination of the detailed occupations which respondents desire suggests that housewives tailor their job aspirations to the employment opportunities in their area, and perhaps, to their own capacities. In rural Candelaria, housewives aspiring for sales occupations would like to engage in small-scale buy-and-sell operations of dry goods, or the chance to sell fish and vegetables in the market. Sta. Cruz poblacion housewives, on the other hand, desire to become sari-sari (variety) store owners or salesgirls; and in urban Sto. Niño, many of the housewives who desire factory work would like to land in various jobs related to the manufacture of shoes and bags. Because the profile of their job choices indicate housewives to aspire for relatively lower-level occupations, one would suspect that housewives are primarily interested in having the opportunity to earn money.

Table 10. Selected data on unemployed wives' views on women's and their own employment by community (January-March 1979)

	Candelaria	Sta. Cruz	Sto. Niño
a. Percent favoring/not favoring wives working outside of the home			
Favors women working	61% (82)*	54% (43)	56% (48)
Does not favor women working	39 (53)	45 (36)	40 (34)
DK/undecided	-	1 (1)	4 (3)
b. Percent desiring/not desiring a job			
Desires a job	74% (100)	76% (61)	87% (74)
Does not desire a job	26 (35)	24 (19)	13 (11)
c. Job preferred by nonworking wives			
White-collar (professional, administrative, supervisory, clerical)	5% (5)	12% (7)	16% (12)
Sales	29 (29)	52 (32)	12 (9)
Blue-collar (crafts, factory work)	34 (34)	26 (16)	64 (47)
Services	19 (19)	10 (6)	8 (6)

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Table 10 (cont'd.)

	Candelaria	Sta. Cruz	Sto. Niño
Farm	12% (12)	-	-
NA	1 (1)	-	-
Total	100% (100)	100% (61)	100% (74)
NAP (not desiring a job)	(35)	(19)	(11)
d. Reasons for job preference			
Acquire money/improve financial standing of family	14% (14)	18% (11)	34% (25)
Job in line with R's training/profession/ suits/fulfills R's interests	74 (74)	63 (38)	38 (28)
To gain knowledge/ experience	-	3 (2)	10 (7)
Avoid boredom/go places/ change of work	-	-	5 (4)
Job offers security of tenure/good working conditions/requires minimal working hours	11 (11)	16 (10)	12 (9)
None/NA	1 (1)	-	1 (1)
Total	100% (100)	100% (61)	100% (74)
NAP (not desiring a job)	(35)	(19)	(11)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Surprisingly, however, the financial remuneration attached to specific jobs does not emerge as the dominant reason behind women's choice of jobs. Of the housewives desiring work, only a third in Sto. Niño and less than a fifth in Sta. Cruz and Candelaria mention financial reasons for their job choices. A greater proportion of housewives in the three communities (48 percent to 74 percent) chose a particular job because this is in line with their training or with what they know, the job suits their interests, and gives them the chance to gain knowledge and experience, or avoid boredom. Still others (11 percent to 16 percent) chose jobs that were perceived to offer security of tenure and good working conditions or to require minimal working hours. Based on the housewives' responses then, it would appear that a substantial number may not exactly prefer a traditional housewife role. Most housewives would like to enter work. Many of them also probably recognize that they have other skills/capacities they would like to make use of, or other interests that they would like to pursue.

Working wives' desires for additional/ other employment

Of interest in the working wives' responses is the greater variation found across communities, although the area of comparisons may be limited by the fewer cases of working wives in rural Candelaria compared to the two other communities (see Table 11). Expectedly, there are more working than nonworking wives favoring women's entry in paid employment (62 percent to 81 percent); but the proportion of working wives not favoring women of their own kind (i.e., at work) is substantially higher in the more urban communities (33 percent to 38 percent) than in rural Candelaria (16 percent). In addition, whereas 63 percent of the rural working wives desire more hours of market work, about an equal proportion of the poblacion, and about three-fourths of the urban working wives want no additional hours of work. Since earlier time-use comparisons showed working wives in the more urban communities to devote longer hours at home and market work, the lower proportion of

Table 11. Selected data on employed wives' views on women's employment and their desires for additional/other employment by community (January-March 1979)

	Candelaria	Sta. Cruz	Sto. Niño
a. Percent favoring/not favoring wives working outside of the home			
Favors women working	81% (25)*	66% (57)	62% (50)
Does not favor women working	16 (5)	33 (28)	38 (31)
DK/undecided	3 (1)	1 (1)	-
b. Percent desiring/not desiring more work			
Desires more work	63% (19)	38% (31)	23% (19)
Does not desire more work	37 (11)	62 (51)	77 (62)
c. Percent desiring/not desiring a change in job			
Desires change in jobs	58% (18)	42% (36)	54% (44)
Does not desire a change in job	36 (11)	58 (50)	46 (37)
d. Type of job preferred by working wives			
White-collar (professional, administrative, supervisory, clerical)	23% (4)	31% (11)	34% (15)
Sales	22 (4)	39 (14)	34 (15)
Blue-collar (crafts, factory work)	23 (4)	17 (6)	27 (12)

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Table 11 (cont'd.)

	Candelaria	Sta. Cruz	Sto. Niño
Services	28% (5)	8% (3)	-
Farm	6 (1)	3 (1)	2 (1)
NA	-	-	2 (1)
Total	100% (18)	99% (36)	99% (44)
NAP (not desiring a job)	(13)	(50)	(37)
e. Reason for job preference			
Acquire money/improve financial standing	28% (5)	25% (9)	34% (15)
Practice profession/make use of training/fulfill interests (that's my line, principles)	61 (11)	39 (14)	30 (13)
Gain knowledge/gain experience	-	-	2 (1)
Avoid boredom/go places/ change work	-	3 (1)	4 (2)
Work offers security (tenure), involves less working conditions	11 (2)	33 (12)	30 (13)
Total	100% (18)	100% (36)	100% (44)
NAP (not desiring a job)	(13)	(50)	(37)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

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working wives desiring additional hours of work in Sta. Cruz and Sto. Niño may be consistent with their already high time-inputs in domestic and economic activities. On the other hand, the lower overall time-inputs of the Candelaria working wives may explain partly why a greater number of them desire more hours of work.

Over half of the working wives in Candelaria (53 percent) and Sto. Niño (54 percent) and 32 percent of those in Sta. Cruz would like to have a different occupation. Of those wanting to change jobs, about as many working wives aspire for white collar (23 percent to 34 percent) as those for sales occupations (22 percent to 39 percent, Table 11). Rural and transitional working wives claim preferring jobs that are more in line with their training and interests, while financial reasons are slightly more salient in the urban wives' choice of another job. In both the transitional and urban communities, however, about a third of the working wives desire other jobs that would offer better working conditions and security of tenure, or that would require less working hours. A variety of reasons may account for the working wives' desires to change employment. Among the reasons suggested by the data are the working wives' aspirations for more lucrative occupations and less exhausting work, perhaps in response to the already heavy time-demands imposed by their home and market activity.

Time-Use Data as Measures of Men's and Women's Roles

The foregoing analysis on the sexes' use of time reveal patterns that are generally in keeping with earlier findings regarding sex-role allocations. Time-use data appear to indicate effectively the sex-typing in domestic and economic activities, the sexual division of labor in traditional household arrangements, and the double-burden of work imposed on women once they actively engage in market work.

In addition, time-use data also provide a system for monitoring the possible impact of development on men's and women's roles. Findings

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worth mentioning in this regard include the tendency for modernization to elaborate on "female" household activities and to reduce the necessity of the typically "male" tasks in the household, and the tendency for the change process to increase disproportionately the single working women's time in the market compared to their single male counterparts.

More important, time-use data provide a system for monitoring the work shares and the participation of men and women in various fields of activities. Measured in terms of effort or time-inputs, the findings indicate men and women to expend the same time for the needs of the household (though in different domains) only in traditional arrangements, where men's market time equals women's housework time. In all other conditions, women's total production time tends to be higher than men's. Among nonworking single respondents, women contribute more to household activities than men. Among employed single respondents, women devote more time to either housework or market work than men; and among households where both men and women engage in market work, women spend more time at housework than men, and devote an equal time to market activity as men. The findings indicate the disproportional work shares of the sexes to stem largely from the unequal shares of men and women of housework. The findings also suggest that identifying work shares requires both a comparable measure of participation as time-use, and an analysis of time-use patterns among comparable male and female subgroups.

There still remains several conceptual and methodological issues surrounding the translation of time-use data as measures of women's and men's contributions to the household. For reasons mentioned in the first chapter, the study limits itself to a comparison of the time or effort men and women exert in activities, leaving aside questions surrounding the productivity of [illegible] spent in house, market, or other work. On the assumption that time-allocation data provide useful information on an aspect or a dimension of the sexes' contributions to the household, a review of some of the methodological issues in time allocation studies may be appropriate here.

Noted first are difficulties in assessing the accuracy of the amounts of time women and men devote to various work, owing to different time frames and methods of data collection employed in various studies. More typically, time allocation data are gathered through daily record keeping among a limited number of households rather than through interviews in larger-scale surveys. Such differences in data collection affect the absolute amounts of time women and men devote to activities and more critically, the estimations of the sexes' proportional shares of house and market work. The survey finding that men devote less time to the activity requirements of the household finds support in number of other studies (Illo 1977; King-Quizon 1976). But a verification of the study findings on the magnitudes of differences in male and female work shares, and of the directions of changes in men's and women's use of time (i.e., along rural-urban gradients) would require additional studies using comparable methodologies.

A review of the checklist of activities employed in other household time allocation studies also indicate sex biases in checklists to affect estimations of women's and men's use of time. Guino's (1980) analysis of time-allocation data in Central Luzon households, for instance, shows men to contribute more to household maintenance than women, perhaps because maintenance activities in his study included (in addition to gathering firewood) the provision for work animals, and house and equipment repairs that are typically undertaken by males. In contrast, no similar category of housework was included in the current study; nor was a category for "fishing/catching animals"--a category also included in Guino's "provision" activities. It appears that Guino's study, which found women overall to contribute 40 percent to the activities of the household and men 60 percent, may have employed a checklist biased toward male activity, while the present study may have employed one biased toward women's work.

Finally, other analyses, including Guino's and those that have been done on the Agro-Economic Survey of Indonesia (Wigna, Suryanata, and White 1980; White and Hastuti 1980) suggest the possibility of

employing time-allocation data to get at women's and men's participation in the wider community. Based on the assumption that households require not only the conduct of domestic and economic activities but also the maintenance of other interhousehold and community relations, checklists may well be expanded to cover items of this kind. Guino's time-use checklist, for example, contains a category for "community and social tasks for the benefit of the sitio, barrio or poblacion," and another, for exchange labor. The checklist of the Indonesian survey is even more detailed on the matter, including categories for communal labor, mutual aid, and attendance to public works, school and religious programs and activities. Time-allocation data, then, may provide information that can complement men's and women's membership in organizations, or other measures of their participation in community activities.

III. PARTICIPATION IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

The integration of the population in the development process is frequently examined in terms of people's ability to influence public or community affairs. Community organizations are seen as the more common vehicles through which individuals articulate their viewpoints and ensure that broader social and political decisions redound to their own benefit or interests. Such community organizations may consist of formal or informal structures that bear upon the day-to-day conditions of people's lives.

It is widely acknowledged that as in the economic sphere, men dominate the sphere of public or community activity. Men's designation as "head of the household" makes them automatically the household representative in social, political, and ceremonial activity. They are also shown to occupy most of national and local government positions, and to assume leadership in economic, sociocivic, and other types of local or community organizations.

Available studies in the Philippines consistently show women's limited participation and access to structures of public power. Suggesting women's insignificant influence in national affairs are Carroll's (1965) study on entrepreneurs, which found only five women out of 92 top corporate managers identified in the 1960s; and Makil's (1970; 1975) studies on national influentials, which showed only seven women out of the 170 influentials cited in 1970, and nine women out of the 140 influentials mentioned in 1975. At the local level, other studies (Licuanan and Gonzalez 1976; Gonzalez and Hollnsteiner 1976; Illo 1977) variously indicate less than a third or a third of women to be members of local community organizations. These studies also show women's membership to concentrate in informal neighborhood groups, and religious and sociocivic organizations associated with nutrition, beautification campaigns, and other similar concerns usually delegated to housewives.

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Table 12. Respondents reporting membership in at least one community organization by sex, marital, and employment status and by community (January-March 1979)

Respondent type	Candelaria	Sta. Cruz	Sto. Niño
Nonworking single males	41% (14/34)*	27% (9/33)	24% (8/33)
Working single males	42 (14/33)	30 (10/33)	18 (6/33)
Nonworking single females	58 (19/33)	36 (12/33)	26 (9/34)
Working single females	51 (17/33)	35 (12/34)	15 (5/33)
Working wives	45 (14/31)	37 (32/86)	33 (27/81)
Nonworking wives	39 (53/135)	10 (8/80)	18 (15/85)
Husbands (generally working)	46 (76/166)	46 (77/166)	35 (59/166)

*Actual number of members over number of individuals in the subsample.

communities (21 percent in Candelaria and 10 percent in Sta. Cruz) than in urban Sto. Niño (4 percent). Among married respondents, the Parents-Teachers' Association (PTA) generally claims more members among wives and husbands in rural Candelaria (23 percent of wives and 21 percent of husbands) than in more modern Sta. Cruz (7 percent wives; 10 percent husbands) and Sto. Niño (12 percent wives; 5 percent husbands).

When membership in the Kabataang Barangay is excluded in the analysis, the levels of organizational membership among single respondents drops substantially (Table 13). Differences in organizational membership between single male and single female respondents also do not

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Table 13. Respondents reporting membership in an organization other than the KB or the PTA by sex, marital status, and community (January-March 1979)

Respondent type	Candelaria	Sta. Cruz	Sto. Niño
Single males	17% (12/67)*	21% (14/66)	16% (11/66)
Single females	36 (24/66)	23 (16/67)	16 (11/67)
Wives	17 (29/166)	16 (26/166)	13 (22/166)
Husbands	21 (41/166)	35 (59/166)	30 (51/166)

*Actual number of members over number of individuals in the subsample.

appear significant except in rural Candelaria where there are twice as many single women joining organizations as single men. On the other hand, the exclusion of membership in Parents-Teachers' Associations reveals more interesting patterns for married respondents. Table 13 consistently shows a lower percentage of wives (than husbands) joining community organizations (other than the PTA) in the three communities. Differences in the number of wives and husbands joining organizations also become more marked in the transitional and urban communities, where more than twice as many husbands (than wives) are found members of associations. Based on this set of data, it would seem that both marriage and urbanization depress women's participation in more voluntary types of organizations.

Employment and Organization Membership

The data do not indicate market employment to exert any influence on the organizational membership of single respondents in the Zambales

communities (Table 12). This may be attributed partly to the greater tendency among the unemployed respondents (than among the employed) in these areas to join (or be enlisted in) the Kabataang Barangay. In urban Sto. Niño, where participation in this youth organization is minimal, employment is shown to depress slightly the single respondents' participation in local associations. Although the exclusion of Kabataang Barangay members may, as in earlier analysis, provide different results, the remaining number of cases in the study (after excluding KB members) are much too limited to allow further analysis on the effect of employment on the single respondents' inclinations to join organizations.

But the data on married respondents suggest patterns more in keeping with the expectation that participation in economic activity facilitates one's entry and participation in other extradomestic domains. Table 12 shows that regardless of community, the husband-respondents (who are generally working) are more likely to be members of community organizations than wives; and that employed wives are more likely to be members of organizations than unemployed wives.

An examination of the nature of organizations joined by respondents (Table 14) further shows husbands to engage in a greater variety of organizations than wives. While Parents-Teachers' Associations claim a substantial percentage of husband organization members (29 percent), more of them (31 percent) actually join other organizations related to their work (i.e., farmers' associations, cooperatives organized in their place of work, and labor unions, among others). A considerable percentage of them (14 percent) are also active in local government organizations as the Barangay Tanod and the Samahang Barangay.

Compared to husbands, there are more working wives who are members of the PTA (38 percent), although many of them also belong to religious associations (19 percent) and to other occupation/work-related organizations (16 percent). Occupation-related associations similarly claim the larger percentage of the organizational membership of single working respondents whether male (37 percent) or female (29 percent). Another

Table 14. Respondents by types of organizations joined and by sex, marital, and employment status (January-March 1979)

Organization type	Nonworking single male	Working single male	Nonworking single female	Working single female	Working wives	Nonworking wives	Husbands (generally working)
Occupation or work-related organizations (Samahang Nayon, other cooperatives, labor unions, market vendors, tricycle drivers association)	-	37% (11)*	-	29% (10)	16% (12)	4% (3)	31% (66)
Other government organizations (purok organization, Samahang Barangay, Barangay Tanod, Ladies Brigade)	3% (1)	3 (1)	-	3 (1)	10 (7)	12 (9)	14 (30)
Kabataang Barangay	55 (17)	23 (7)	50% (20)	9 (3)	-	-	1 (2)
Parents-Teachers' Association	-	-	-	-	38 (28)	55 (42)	29 (61)
Formal sociocivic organizations (Jaycees, 4H Clubs, Veterans' Legion and others)	3 (1)	7 (2)	10 (4)	12 (4)	1 (1)	12 (9)	5 (10)
Special women's organization (Mother's Club, Crafts Guilds, Balikatan sa Kaunlaran)	-	-	-	6 (2)	5 (4)	4 (3)	-
Alumni association and other school organizations	6 (2)	3 (1)	12 (5)	9 (3)	4 (3)	-	1 (3)

Table 14 (cont'd.)

Organization type	Nonworking single male	Working single male	Nonworking single female	Working single female	Working wives	Nonworking wives	Husbands (generally working)
Religious organizations	19% (6)	10% (3)	18% (7)	6% (2)	19% (14)	8% (6)	11% (24)
Neighborhood groups (Kapitbahayan, Damayan, basketball and other sports groups)	13 (4)	17 (5)	10 (4)	26 (9)	5 (4)	5 (4)	8 (16)
Total	99% (31)	100% (30)	100% (40)	100% (34)	98% (73)	100% (76)	100% (212)
NAP (nonorganization member)	(69)	(69)	(60)	(66)	(125)	(224)	(286)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

26 percent of the single working women respondents are active also in neighborhood groups, whereas another 23 percent of their male counterparts are members of the Kabataang Barangay.

In contrast, Table 14 shows one dominant organization in the organizational membership of nonworking respondents. Fifty-five percent of the single nonworking males and 50 percent of the nonworking females who join organizations are members of the Kabataang Barangay. Most of the unemployed married women who join organizations, on the other hand, join the local PTA (55 percent). These comparisons suggest that market employment affects one's membership in organizations and, consequently perhaps, also one's access to other resources in the community.

Sex-Typing in Community Organizations and Reasons for Joining Organizations

Alluded to in the earlier discussion is the tendency for women and men to join divergent types of organizations. A clearer picture of the sex-typing of community organizations emerges in Table 15. Of interest is the support the data offer to the segregation of women's domestic and men's economic roles. Close to a third of the female organization members belong to PTAs, suggesting some continuity in women's maternal functions and organizational membership. While work-related and religious associations also claim over a tenth each of female organization members, women's involvement in these associations derives from the membership of employed women in organizations of these kinds. One might expect special women's organizations, like the Mothers Club and the Balikatan sa Kaunlaran, to claim also a substantial number of female organization members. But it appears that these organizations may have been too few or too new to have attracted a following among the women respondents in the study sites.

In contrast, men's organization membership appears consistent with their economic or provider roles. Occupation or work-related associations claim the larger percentage (28 percent) of male members.

Table 15. Types of organization joined by female and male respondents (January March 1979)

Organization type	Female	Male
Occupation or work-related organizations (Samahang Nayon, other cooperatives, labor unions, market vendors, tricycle drivers associations)	11% (25)*	28% (77)
Other government organizations (purok organizations, Samahang Barangay, Barangay Tanod, Ladies Brigade)	8 (17)	12 (32)
Kabatang Barangay	10 (23)	10 (26)
Parents-Teachers' Association	31 (70)	22 (61)
Formal sociocivic organizations (Jaycees, 4H Clubs, Veterans' Legion, and others)	8 (18)	5 (13)
Special women's organization (Mother's Club, Crafts Guilds, Balikatan sa Kaunlaran)	4 (9)	-
Alumni association and other social organizations	5 (11)	2 (6)
Religious organizations	13 (29)	12 (33)
Neighborhood groups (Kapitbahayan, Damayan, basketball and other sports groups)	9 (21)	9 (25)
Total	99% (223)	100% (273)
NAP (nonorganization members)	(475)	(424)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

The PTA ranks second, claiming 22 percent of male membership; followed by local government or barangay and religious organizations with 12 percent each, of total male membership.

An examination of the primary reasons given by respondents for joining organizations also indicate differences in men's and women's motivations for joining organizations. On the whole, there are more females (55 percent) who view their membership in organizations as obligatory or automatic; whereas more males (60 percent) report relatively "active" or voluntary reasons for joining organizations, i.e., to help one another, to avail of the services (credit, training, equipment use) offered by the organization, to pursue religious and other interests, and for sociability (see Table A11).

Since compulsory or automatic membership may characterize membership in the Kabataang Barangay, the Parents-Teachers' Associations, and work-related organizations, the reasons for membership were crosstabulated with type of organization, in an attempt to establish the extent to which male and female respondents may feel passive about their membership in associations. Table 16 shows that voluntary membership is more common in organizations other than the Kabataang Barangay, the Parents-Teachers' Associations and those related to one's job. Among single respondents, however, membership in the Kabataang Barangay is not generally seen as compulsory but rather, as offering opportunities for socializing with others. Among married respondents membership in Parents-Teachers' Associations (which is dominated by women) is seen by about nine-tenths of members as compulsory or automatic. In contrast, only about four-tenths of the members of work-related associations, (which tend to be more male) report similar reasons, with most (57 percent) giving more voluntary reasons for joining these groups.

Table 16. Single and married respondents by types of organizations joined and by reasons for joining (January-March 1979)

Organization type	Reasons for joining: Compulsory/ automatic	Reasons for joining: Other reasons	Total
a. Single respondents			
Kabataang Barangay	38% (18)*	62% (29)	100% (47)
Work-related organizations	62 (13)	38 (8)	100 (21)
Other organizations	16 (11)	84 (56)	100 (67)
Total	31% (42)	69% (93)	100% (135)
b. Married respondents			
Parents-Teachers' Association	89% (116)	11% (15)	100% (131)
Work-related organizations	43 (33)	57 (44)	100 (77)
Other organizations	32 (46)	68 (100)	100 (146)
Total	55% (195)	45% (159)	100% (354)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Extent of Involvement in Organizations

To assess further differences in male-female participation in community organizations, respondents were asked their positions in the organizational hierarchy, and the frequency of their attendance in organizational meetings. The data on the proportion of women and men who are officers of associations or ordinary rank-and-file members do not show substantial differences between the sexes. There are slightly more males (53 percent) than females (47 percent) among the 138 organization members who report occupying a leadership position in organizations. When positions are crossclassified by sex and marital status, unmarried women are seen to be more active as officers of organizations compared to all other groups (Table 17). Whereas they constitute only 15 percent of total membership, they comprise 22 percent of organization officers. Married men also are numerous among the officers (44 percent) but their dominance may be attributed partly to their larger representation among organization members (43 percent).

Table 17. Distribution of officers and members among single males and females and among wives and husbands (January-March 1979)

Subgroups	Officer	Member only	Total organization members
Single males	9% (13)*	13% (48)	12% (61)
Single females	22 (31)	12 (43)	15 (74)
Wives	25 (34)	32 (115)	30 (149)
Husbands	44 (60)	43 (152)	43 (212)
Total	100% (138)	100% (358)	100% (496)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Community organization members are shown to attend organization meetings fairly regularly. A majority of the respondents in all subgroups claim they always attend the meetings of their associations. Perhaps because they have more time, however, single respondents, and particularly the single women, tend to be more active in this regard than married respondents. Four-fifths of the single women and about two-thirds of the single men are shown to always attend meetings, compared to 59 percent of wives and 62 percent of husbands. Further, more wives and husbands report never having attended a meeting compared to single respondents (Table 18). Since information on how frequently the local organizations hold meetings (and other activities) are not

Table 18. Respondents reporting organization membership by frequency of attending meetings and by sex and marital status (January-March 1979)

Attendance frequency	Single males	Single females	Married males	Married females
Never	2% (1)*	1% (1)	5% (10)	5% (8)
Sometimes/seldom	15 (9)	9 (7)	17 (37)	15 (22)
Most of the time	16 (10)	8 (6)	17 (37)	11 (17)
Always	65 (40)	80 (59)	59 (124)	62 (93)
Organization had no meetings yet	2 (1)	1 (1)	2 (4)	5 (8)
No answer	-	-	-	1 (1)
Total	100% (61)	99% (74)	100% (212)	99% (149)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

available from the survey, it should be noted that the data on respondents' frequency of attendance may not exactly be indicative of the active status or the functioning of the organizations in the communities.

In summarizing the results from the preceding analysis, mention should be made of the limitations in sample size which did not allow for a more systematic assessment of the influence of sex, marital status, employment, and community on individuals' participation in community activities. Emerging from the analysis however are a number of observations worth considering in future work.

First, the analysis suggests that sex, by itself, may not influence the respondents' membership and participation in community organizations. Neither ~~do~~ membership in local organizations nor leadership in these groups is found in the study to be overwhelmingly male. But because sex is a determinant of employment status, sex influences participation in organizations. Husbands (who generally are working) and working wives are shown to exhibit higher levels of organization membership than the unemployed wives, mainly because the employment of the first two subgroups facilitates their entry to work-related and other organizations. It is also mostly in this sense, that sex and employment appear to influence the gender-typing that occurs in community organizations. The organization membership of nonworking wives tends to be limited to Parents-Teachers' Associations, whereas husbands' and working wives' memberships are not as similarly constrained. Moreover, membership in Parents-Teachers' Associations tends to be viewed as compulsory or automatic, whereas membership in work-related and other organizations tends to be more voluntary. The data suggest that the provision of equal employment opportunities to both sexes may help ensure a more even and less sex-typed representation of men and women in community organizations and activities.

Sex also appears to interact with marital status in influencing participation in community organizations, with marriage not affecting men and women in the same direction. Among women, the unmarried are

more likely to be members of local organizations, to hold leadership positions, and to be more active in attending organization meetings than the married. This suggests that indeed, marital responsibilities may cut down on the time women have for engaging in other activities. Among men, single males tend to be less active in community organizations than married men. An explanation for this is not easily found, although the finding may suggest that less involvement and fewer responsibilities may be expected of single men. But once they get married, men's provider roles predispose them to join organizations; and their minimal involvement in domestic work may enable them to participate more extensively in community organizations and activities.

IV. AWARENESS AND USE OF HEALTH AND OTHER SERVICES

A final area of comparison are the individuals' knowledge and use of health and other community services. This analysis is intended to gauge their access to, and thus, the benefits that they might have received from development efforts. Since people's access to services is limited by those services available in their communities, the survey comparisons focus more on gender (rather than community) differences, in an attempt to find out whether certain services are systematically channelled to either women or men. Presented first are data on respondents' awareness and actual use of health facilities, followed by their awareness and use of the other services and facilities found in their communities.

Awareness and Use of Health Services

The data indicate no substantial differences in single and married men's and women's knowledge of community health services (Table 19). Over 90 percent of the males and females in the marital subgroups report knowing a health facility in their area. Over 90 percent of married men and women also report that they, or other members of their households, have availed themselves of the services offered by local health agencies and personnel. The percentages of single male and female respondents reporting similar use of a health facility are considerably lower (75 percent to 78 percent), reflecting most likely single respondents' lesser burden of health-care for children and other members of the household. Further examination of the data by community and employment status (see Tables A12 and A13) also reveals patterns consistent with the above findings. They suggest that neither community nor employment influences the incidence or levels of knowledge and use of health facilities.

Table 19. Respondents by awareness and use of community health services and by sex and marital status (January-March 1979)

Awareness/use	Single		Married		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
a. Awareness of health services in the community					
Aware	96% (191)*	94% (188)	95% (474)	96% (479)	95% (1332)
Not aware	4 (8)	6 (12)	5 (24)	4 (19)	5 (63)
Total	100% (199)	100% (200)	100% (498)	100% (498)	100% (1395)
b. Percent visiting health services					
Has been to facility	75% (143)	78% (146)	91% (429)	94% (448)	88% (1166)
Has never been to facility	25 (48)	22 (42)	9 (45)	6 (31)	12 (166)
Total	100% (191)	100% (188)	100% (474)	100% (479)	100% (1332)
c. Type of health service/ facility used by respondents					
Local hospital	50% (72)	34% (50)	35% (150)	28% (123)	34% (395)
Health Center (RHUs/ Bagong Lipunan Center)	29 (42)	30 (44)	38 (165)	50 (226)	41 (477)
Puericulture center	3 (4)	5 (7)	5 (21)	6 (25)	5 (57)
Family planning center	3 (3)	3 (4)	3 (11)	2 (10)	2 (28)

Table 19 (cont'd.)

Awareness/use	Single		Married		Total
	Male	Female	Male	Female	
Private clinic/ physicians	15% (22)	28% (41)	15% (63)	13% (60)	16% (186)
Hilot/herbolario	-	-	4 (19)	1 (4)	2 (23)
Total	100% (143)	100% (146)	100% (429)	100% (448)	100% (1166)
NAP (nonusers/not aware)	(56)	(54)	(69)	(50)	(229)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Of the health facilities used by respondent households, the most visited are the government's Rural Health Units in the Zambales communities, and the Bagong Lipunan Health Center in Sto. Niño, Marikina (41 percent). About a third of the respondents also report availing themselves of the services of the local government hospitals (one being available in each of the study sites) and a private hospital facility in Sta. Cruz, Zambales; while about 16 percent have gone to private clinics or physicians for their health needs. Much fewer respondents, however, have been to puericulture centers which cater primarily to maternal and child health (5 percent), family planning clinics (2 percent), and local hilot and herbolario healers (2 percent).

Awareness and Use of Other Community Services

Respondents who are aware of other types of community services are fewer than those who know of health services, although both levels of awareness and use of non-health services remain substantially high in all female and male subgroups. Between 87 percent to 94 percent of the respondents report knowing of other services and facilities in

their localities, and some 69 percent to 73 percent state that members of their households have actually made use of these (Table 20). A more detailed disaggregation of the data by community and employment status again show patterns in keeping with the above findings, but there is some indication that (regardless of sex or community) unemployed respondents are more likely to report availing themselves of other community services than the employed respondents (see Tables A14 and A15).

When asked what other community facilities have been of use to their households, about two-thirds of the respondents acknowledge the educational services of the local schools (i.e., in teaching reading and writing skills, particularly to children); with a few mentioning the assistance they receive from schools in caring for children. The incidence of respondent households availing of other noneducational services is minimal. Only 10 percent report obtaining credit from the rural and other banks, and from the Samahang Nayon-Masagana 99 program. Receipt of other types of assistance is even lower than this (5 percent or less), and appears associated with certain community projects or programs. The few respondents reporting access to improved fishing/farming techniques and livestock-raising for instance, tend to come from rural Candelaria; while those reporting benefits from sanitation-related services (i.e., garbage disposal and cleanliness drives) are from the Marikina community, and those attending training and skill formation programs, from transitional Sta. Cruz.

No differences are also noted between males and females who report benefiting from the school system or from other types of services (Table 19). The evidence further suggests that other than the health and school facilities in the communities (which are shown equally accessible to women and men), other development programs and efforts undertaken in the areas are too limited to enable an analysis of their impacts on the population, and much less of their separate impacts on male and female subgroups.

Table 20. Respondents by awareness and use of other community services and by sex and marital status (January-March 1979)

Awareness/use	Single		Married	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
a. Awareness of other community services				
Aware	94% (187)*	90% (181)	91% (454)	87% (433)
Not aware	6 (12)	10 (19)	9 (44)	13 (65)
Total	100% (199)	100% (200)	100% (498)	100% (498)
b. Percent availing of other community services				
Has availed of facility	71% (133)	73% (133)	69% (312)	71% (309)
Has not availed of facility	29 (54)	27 (48)	31 (142)	29 (124)
Total	100% (189)	100% (181)	100% (454)	100% (433)
c. Type of other community services used by respondents				
School/day care	66% (88)	74% (98)	64% (199)	68% (211)
Improved fishing/farming/ livestock techniques	6 (8)	4 (5)	6 (18)	3 (8)
Credit (Rural Bank, PNB, Masagana-99)	5 (7)	8 (10)	11 (33)	13 (39)
FP/nutrition program	1 (1)	-	2 (6)	2 (7)

Table 20 (cont'd.)

Awareness/use	Single		Married	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Sanitation (garbage disposal)/ cleanliness drives/toilet improvement	8% (10)	2% (3)	6% (20)	2% (6)
Legal/police/safety services	6 (8)	3 (4)	5 (15)	3 (10)
Training/skill development	2 (3)	8 (10)	3 (10)	7 (21)
Other social/welfare services	6 (8)	2 (3)	3 (11)	2 (5)
No data	-	-	-	1 (2)
Total	100% (133)	101% (133)	100% (312)	101% (309)
NAP (nonusers/not aware)	(66)	(67)	(186)	(189)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

The data do not effectively discriminate between women's and men's access to welfare services, owing partly to data limitations. The high levels of male and female use of services may be attributed to the fact that analysis was limited to responses derived from direct survey questions, which did not specify a time frame as to when respondent households made use of the welfare services. Moreover, the data on use of facilities reflect respondent household use and cannot therefore, reflect gender-specific use or access to services.

It must be mentioned, though, that follow up survey questions enable identification of the dates when households availed of services and of specific users; but the initial analysis does not suggest further work on sex differentials with the available data. At this

point, the more salient services already mentioned and utilized by respondents are health and education--areas where other available indicators (i.e., life expectancies and enrollment rates) do not reveal substantial gender differences. It would seem that in these areas, indicator construction should focus on the nature and quality of services reaching men and women, and not simply on the extent to which both sexes are exposed to health and educational facilities.

The experience with the survey questions also suggests that prospective work on the sexes' access to services may be more fruitful, if respondents were to respond to a checklist of development programs or activities undertaken in their areas. A checklist may help ensure the collection of more current data, and of data tied up to actively pursued development activities, rather than to basic (and fairly widespread) health and educational facilities, or to scattered and less consistently pursued development projects. The current findings indicate that general health and education measures are not discriminative of the sexes; and that data on scattered programs are not likely to yield sufficient cases for analysis. Moreover, if one were to assume that government and other development efforts may systematically favor one sex, mainly because planners and implementors define agricultural extension, credit, and certain other programs as men's business, and family planning and health and nutrition as women's, then it might be worthwhile in fact to focus checklists on activities that are likely to embody sex biases.

V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study sought to investigate women's and men's participation in the development process by attempting measurement and comparison of male and female involvements in domestic, economic, and public spheres of activity, and of their access to welfare services in the community. In the domestic and economic spheres, female and male roles or participation are compared in terms of the amount of time or effort they devote to house and market work. In the public or community sphere, the sexes are compared in terms of their membership and participation in community organizations; while their access to services are examined in terms of their awareness and use of existing health and other available community services.

The study findings indicate that in domestic activities, women bear the brunt of housework, regardless of marital and employment status and the developmental stage of communities. Expectedly however, marriage increases women's time in housework; but marriage increases housework time for only some of the men and never quite in commensurate amounts. Male and female housework shares within marriage then, are highly unequal, with husbands devoting on the average, only about a third of their wives' time in housework. The market employment of wives, on the other hand, reduces the time they spend at housework, and increases their husband's share of household activities. Thus, while the total time employed/working wives devote to house and market work far exceeds men's total production time, it is noted that within the domestic sphere at least, male and female work sharing ratios are somewhat improved: husbands of working wives are shown to devote closer to half (43 to 46 percent) of their wives' time to housework, compared to the fourth or the fifth (19 to 26 percent) that husbands of unemployed wives devote to housework. Finally, the developmental stage of communities does not appear to alter substantially

women's time to housework. There is some indication, however, that the change process or urbanization may increase the time required for typically female household tasks (i.e., cooking, laundry, child care), while reducing the amount of time required for typically male domestic activities (i.e., the provision of water and fuel for the household). Greater variation is found in the time husbands devote to housework as communities modernize. Husbands who participate in housework in the more modern communities tend to devote more time to this than their rural counterparts, but a considerable number of husbands in the more modern communities are also shown to drop out completely from housekeeping activities.

Comparisons of market time allocation data among working or employed respondents do not show men to contribute more to market activities than women. Among single respondents in fact, women are found to devote more time to market work than men, particularly in the more urban communities where single women tend to find jobs in lower-level occupations requiring longer hours of work. In these communities, the single women's share of market work exceeds that of their male counterparts by some 30 to 35 percent. Among married respondents, women's and men's time in the market are approximately equal, except in the rural area where wives spend considerably fewer hours at regular employment than men (about the equivalent of 4/5 of their husband's time in market activities). Moreover, no marked differences are shown in the sexes' involvements in other productive work, outside of their regular market employment. Here, community differences appear more salient, with respondents, male or female, in the provincial communities shown to be more actively engaged in backyard gardening, and poultry and livestock-raising than respondents from the metropolitan community.

Summing up men's and women's time-use in house and market work, it is noted that total production time is never quite equal among single males and females. Unmarried women are shown to consistently devote more time to either domestic or economic activity than single

men. Neither is total production time equal for married working women and their husbands. While they devote approximately equal time to market activities, the larger share of employed wives of housework results to unequal conditions, with husbands devoting the equivalent of between two-thirds to three-fourths of their wives' total production time. Only in traditional arrangements where wives stay home and men engage in market work are the sexes' total production time equal, although in unequally recognized spheres of activity.

In the public sphere, the more significant findings include those suggesting women's and men's unequal participation in community activities to derive from their unequal shares of employment opportunities. On account of their provider roles and thus, of their heavy involvement in market activity, men constitute the larger percentage of community organization membership; but when women work, they are shown likewise to increase substantially their membership in organizations. Moreover, when women work and remain unmarried at the same time, they are shown to become in fact, the most active participants in community organizations. The findings suggest that in the long run, efforts directed at reducing existing role segregation in domestic and economic activities may reduce the uneven representation of men and women in public or community-wide activities.

Access to development benefits as measured in terms of respondents' awareness and actual use of health and other community services are not shown to differ by sex. Outside of health and educational services that appear equally accessible to both sexes, the data suggest that few other development efforts have reached the study sites, making analysis on the sex biases that may be embodied in development programs not feasible at the present time.

The limitations in the data that were collected and used in each area of comparison were noted in the different sections of this report. Reviewing the results of the analyses that were done on the available data, it appears that further improvements on the methods of gathering time-use data may contribute to a systematic measurement of sexes'

contributions to the households, and of their roles in development. Time-use data offer a comparable measure of the efforts that men and women place in various fields of activities. In addition, time-use data provide quantifiable behavioral indicators of roles, enabling analyses of sex roles and gender relations closer to what may actually obtain in people's lives, and further away from the normative prescriptions and expectations imposed on men and women. No claims are made however that time-allocation is a sufficient measure of sex roles, although it would seem that time-allocation data provide a useful complement to other qualitative and attitudinal data on sex roles, and to studies focusing the distribution of authority and decision-making between women and men.

In addition to methodological improvements in the collection of time-use data, the study findings also point to areas where further work on, or with, time-allocation may be undertaken. Indicated in the study are the use of time-allocation studies for gathering information on men's and women's involvement in public activities, and the conduct of these for purposes of verifying the magnitudes of differences in the sexes' work-shares, possibly for identifying the determinants of female and male time-use patterns and relationships.

Appendix A

TABLES TO ACCOMPANY TEXT

Table A1. Selected characteristics of survey respondents by marital status, sex, and community (January-March 1979)

Characteristic/ community	Single		Married	
	Males (N=199)	Females (N=200)	Males (N=498)	Females (N=498)
Mean age				
Candelaria	22.6	24.2	39.9	36.9
Sta. Cruz	21.6	22.3	33.7	35.8
Sto. Niño	20.5	22.5	37.2	34.5
Overall	21.8	23.0	38.7	35.5
Mean educational attainment				
Candelaria	7.9	9.5	6.7	6.5
Sta. Cruz	9.0	8.6	8.6	7.6
Sto. Niño	9.5	8.4	8.4	7.5
Overall	8.8	9.2	7.9	7.2
Percent employed				
Candelaria	49.0 (33)*	50.0 (33)	99.7 (161)	19.0 (31)
Sta. Cruz	50.0 (33)	51.0 (33)	96.0 (160)	52.0 (86)
Sto. Niño	50.0 (33)	49.0 (33)	97.0 (161)	49.0 (81)
Overall	49.8	50.0	97.2	40.0

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A2. Selected characteristics of married respondents' households (January-March 1979)

Selected characteristics	Candelaria (166)	Sta. Cruz (166)	Sto. Niño (166)	Overall (498)
Average HH size	6.5	6.6	6.2	6.4
Average number of children	4.0	3.8	3.3	3.7
Household type				
Nuclear	72.0% (119)*	60.0% (99)	60.0% (100)	64.0% (318)
Extended	26.0 (43)	26.0 (43)	27.0 (44)	26.3 (130)
Nuclear/extended with domestic help	20.0 (4)	14.0 (24)	13.0 (22)	15.7 (50)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A3. Single employed respondents by occupation, sex, and community (January-March 1979)

Occupation group	Sto. Niño		Sta. Cruz		Candelaria	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Professional, technical, and related workers	9.1% (3)*	9.1% (3)	6.1% (2)	20.6% (7)	-	45.5% (15)
Administrative, executive, managerial, government administrator and related workers	9.1 (3)	3.0 (1)	9.1 (3)	-	-	-
Clerical workers	3.0 (1)	15.2 (5)	6.1 (2)	11.8 (4)	-	11.8 (4)
Sales workers	15.2 (5)	9.1 (3)	12.1 (4)	26.4 (9)	-	15.2 (5)
Farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers, and related workers	3.0 (1)	-	21.2 (7)	-	63.6 (21)	12.1 (4)
Transport and communication workers	3.0 (1)	-	18.1 (6)	-	9.1 (3)	-
Craftsmen and production process workers	45.5 (15)	36.4 (12)	6.1 (2)	5.9 (2)	9.1 (3)	6.1 (2)
Workers and laborers n.e.c.	12.1 (4)	6.1 (2)	-	-	9.1 (3)	-
Service, sports and recreation, and related workers	-	21.2 (7)	21.2 (7)	35.3 (12)	9.1 (3)	9.1 (3)
Total	100.0% (33)	100.0% (33)	100.0% (33)	100.0% (34)	100.0% (33)	99.8% (33)
NAP (R is unemployed/ is a student without a job	(33)	(34)	(33)	(33)	(34)	(33)

Table A1. Married respondents by occupation, sex, and community (January-March 1979)

Occupation group	Sto. Niño		Sta. Cruz		Candelaria	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Professional, technical, and related workers	6.8% (11)*	8.6% (7)	7.5% (12)	19.7% (17)	1.8% (3)	12.9% (4)
Administrative, executive, managerial, government administrator, and related workers	11.2 (18)	3.7 (3)	6.2 (10)	5.8 (5)	1.2 (2)	3.2 (1)
Clerical workers	4.9 (8)	2.5 (2)	2.5 (4)	3.5 (3)	1.8 (3)	3.2 (1)
Sales workers	13.0 (21)	30.9 (25)	13.8 (22)	52.3 (45)	1.2 (2)	41.9 (13)
Farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers, and related workers	0.6 (1)	1.2 (1)	23.1 (37)	4.6 (4)	76.2 (125)	29.0 (9)
Transport and communication workers	11.2 (18)	-	14.4 (23)	-	6.7 (11)	-
Craftsmen and production-process workers	40.4 (65)	4.2 (34)	16.3 (26)	9.3 (8)	6.1 (10)	6.4 (2)
Workers and laborers n.e.c.	3.7 (6)	1.2 (1)	5.0 (8)	-	1.8 (3)	-
Service, sports and recreation, and related workers	8.1 (13)	9.9 (8)	11.3 (18)	4.6 (4)	3.0 (5)	3.2 (1)
Total	99.9% (161)	100.0% (81)	100.1% (160)	99.8% (86)	99.8% (164)	99.8% (31)
NAP (R is unemployed)	(5)	(85)	(6)	(80)	(2)	(135)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A5. Average income (in pesos) from work of employed single respondents, by sex, occupation, and community (January-March 1979)

Occupation group	Sto. Niño		Sta. Cruz		Candelaria	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Professional, technical, and related workers	₱1345.67 (3)*	800.00 (2)	569.50 (2)	435.12 (8)	-	478.15 (13)
Administrative, executive, managerial, government administrator, and related workers	746.67 (3)	650.00 (1)	550.00 (2)	-	-	-
Clerical workers	780.00 (1)	40.67 (6)	497.00 (3)	488.75 (4)	-	359.50 (4)
Sales workers	436.00 (5)	270.00 (2)	282.50 (4)	205.56 (9)	-	404.00 (5)
Farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers, and related workers	-	-	318.17 (6)	-	147.05 (21)	88.00 (4)
Transport and communication workers	400.00 (1)	-	334.00 (6)	-	450.00 (3)	-
Craftsmen and production process workers	251.40 (15)	293.67 (12)	382.67 (3)	66.00 (2)	305.67 (3)	172.50 (2)
Workers and laborers n.e.c.	274.00 (4)	317.50 (2)	-	-	293.33 (3)	-
Service, sports and recreation, and related workers	-	142.50 (8)	204.28 (7)	81.82 (11)	246.33 (3)	285.60 (5)
Total	₱ 453.25 (32)	319.06 (33)	343.96 (33)	244.64 (34)	211.33 (33)	357.54 (33)
NA/DK	(1)					

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A6. Average income (in pesos) from work of employed married respondents by occupation, sex, and community (January-March 1979)

Occupation group	Sto. Niño		Sta. Cruz		Candelaria	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Professional, technical, and related workers	818.56 (16)*	1240.28 (7)	744.08 (12)	556.12 (17)	691.33 (3)	503.00 (6)
Administrative, executive, managerial, government administrator, and related workers	1252.37 (19)	1100.00 (3)	648.60 (10)	450.00 (5)	175.00 (2)	483.00 (2)
Clerical workers	997.44 (9)	640.00 (2)	558.50 (4)	476.00 (3)	822.00 (3)	-
Sales workers	678.64 (22)	657.84 (25)	506.04 (22)	266.13 (45)	157.00 (2)	141.91 (11)
Farmers, fishermen, hunters, loggers, and related workers	600.00 (1)	667.00 (1)	305.45 (37)	278.25 (4)	186.78 (126)	128.22 (9)
Transport and communication workers	688.00 (16)	-	521.91 (23)	-	353.12 (11)	-
Craftsmen, and production-process workers	486.60 (58)	288.94 (34)	484.54 (26)	246.38 (8)	415.60 (10)	182.00 (2)
Workers and laborers, N. E. C.	798.67 (6)	280.00 (1)	447.25 (8)	-	216.00 (3)	-
Service, sports and recreation workers, and related workers	656.64 (11)	357.14 (7)	394.67 (18)	193.50 (4)	363.00 (4)	180.00 (1)
Total	₱ 712.94 (158)	₱537.23 (80)	₱471.05 (160)	₱336.81 (86)	₱237.10 (164)	₱233.64 (31)
NA/DK	(3)	(1)				

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A7. Average amount of time (hours/week) spent by marital, sex, and employment subgroups on various categories of work by community (January-March 1979)

Community/Respondent type	Housework	Market work	Other productive work	Total
Candelaria				
Nonworking single M (34)*	17.66	0	3.29	20.95
Working single M (33)	8.65	46.64	0.82	56.11
Nonworking single F (33)	29.0	0	2.27	31.27
Working single F (33)	17.17	50.46	0.67	68.23
Married working F (31)	37.95	42.16	6.58	86.69
Husbands of working wives (31)	16.35	49.35	2.35	68.05
Married nonworking F (135)	53.71	0	7.16	60.87
Husbands of nonworking wives (135)	10.36	50.20	4.42	64.98
Sta. Cruz				
Nonworking single M (33)	9.08	0	5.42	14.50
Working single M (33)	7.09	47.64	1.36	56.09
Nonworking single F (33)	25.79	0	2.70	28.49
Working single F (34)	12.09	63.03	1.15	76.27
Married working F (86)	42.79	52.34	2.70	97.83
Husbands of working wives (86)	19.67	46.86	0.79	67.32
Married nonworking F (80)	67.96	0	2.86	70.82
Husbands of nonworking wives (80)	17.72	48.79	0.92	67.43
Sto. Niño				
Nonworking single M (33)	12.62	0	0.15	12.77
Working single M (33)	8.83	40.55	0.79	50.17
Nonworking single F (34)	23.96	0	0.03	23.99
Working single F (33)	12.32	54.58	1.70	68.60
Married working F (81)	41.91	50.11	0.54	92.56
Husbands of working wives (81)	18.17	51.17	0.37	69.71
Married nonworking F (85)	66.37	0	0.44	66.81
Husbands of nonworking wives (85)	16.17	54.32	0.24	70.73

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A8. Candelaria respondents by types of organizations joined and by sex, marital, and employment status (January-March 1979)

Organization type	Nonworking single males	Working single males	Nonworking single females	Working single females	Working wives	Nonworking wives	Husbands (generally working)
Occupation or work-related organizations (Samahang Nayon, cooperative, labor unions, market vendors' association, tricycle drivers' association and others)	-	21% (3)*	-	24% (4)	7% (1)	6% (3)	30% (23)
Other government organization (purok organization, Samahang Barangay, Barangay Tanod, Ladies Brigade)	-	-	-	-	14 (2)	13 (7)	9 (7)
Kabataang Barangay	79% (11)	36% (5)	58% (11)	6% (1)	-	-	-
Parents-Teachers' Association	-	-	-	-	50 (7)	58 (31)	46 (35)
Formal sociocivic organizations (Jaycees, 4-H Club, Veterans' Legion, and others)	-	14 (2)	16 (3)	6 (1)	-	15 (8)	4 (3)
Special women's organizations (mothers' club, crafts guilds, Balikatan sa Kaunlaran)	-	-	-	6 (1)	14 (2)	6 (3)	-
Alumni association and other school organizations	-	7 (1)	11 (2)	18 (3)	7 (1)	-	3 (2)

Table A8 (cont'd.)

Organization type	Nonworking single males	Working single males	Nonworking single females	Working single females	Working wives	Nonworking wives	Husbands (generally working)
Religious organizations	-	-	5% (1)	6% (1)	-	2% (1)	1% (1)
Neighborhood groups (Kapitbahayan, Damayan, Basketball and other sports group)	21% (3)	21% (3)	11 (2)	35 (6)	7% (1)	-	7% (5)
Total	100% (14)	99% (14)	101% (19)	101% (17)	99% (14)	100% (53)	100% (76)
NAP (nonorganization members)	(20)	(19)	(14)	(16)	(17)	(82)	(90)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A9. Sta. Cruz respondents by types of organizations joined and by sex, marital, and employment status (January-March 1979)

Organization type	Nonworking single males	Working single males	Nonworking single females	Working single females	Working wives	Nonworking wives	Husbands (generally working)
Occupation or work-related organizations (Samahang Nayon, cooperative, labor unions, market vendors' association, tricycle drivers' association and others)	-	60% (6)*	-	42% (5)	31% (10)	-	36% (28)
Other government organization (purok organization, Samahang Barangay, Barangay Tanod, Ladies Brigade)	11% (1)	10 (1)	-	8 (1)	3 (1)	25 (2)	14 (11)
Kabataang Barangay	56 (5)	-	58% (7)	8 (1)	-	-	-
Parents-Teachers' Association	-	-	-	-	28 (9)	38 (3)	23 (18)
Formal sociocivic organizations (Jaycees, 4-H Club, Veterans' Legion and others)	11 (1)	-	8 (1)	17 (2)	3 (1)	13 (1)	4 (3)
Special women's organizations (mothers' club, crafts guild, Balikatan sa Kaunlaran)	-	-	-	8 (1)	6 (2)	-	-

Table A9 (cont'd.)

Organization type	Nonworking single males	Working single males	Nonworking single females	Working single females	Working wives	Nonworking wives	Husbands (generally working)
Alumni association, and other school organizations	-	-	8% (1)	-	3% (1)	-	-
Religious organizations	22% (2)	20% (2)	25 (3)	8% (1)	25 (8)	25 (2)	21 (16)
Neighborhood groups (Kapitbahayan, Damayan, Basketball and other sports groups)	-	10 (1)	-	8 (1)	-	-	1 (1)
Total	100% (9)	100% (10)	99% (12)	99% (12)	99% (32)	101% (8)	99% (77)
NAP (nonorganization members)	(24)	(23)	(21)	(22)	(54)	(72)	(39)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A10. Sto. Niño respondents by types of organizations joined and by sex, marital, and employment status (January-March 1979)

Organization type	Nonworking single males	Working single males	Nonworking single females	Working single females	Working wives	Nonworking wives	Husbands (generally working)
Occupation or work-related organizations (Samahang Nayon, cooperative, labor unions, market vendors' association, tricycle drivers' association and others)	-	33% (2)*	-	20% (1)	4% (1)	-	25% (15)
Other government organization (purok organization, Samahang Barangay, Barangay Tanod, Ladies Brigade)	-	-	-	-	15 (4)	-	20 (12)
Kabataang Barangay	12% (1)	33 (2)	22% (2)	20 (1)	-	-	3 (2)
Parents-Teachers' Association	-	-	-	-	44 (12)	53% (8)	14 (8)
Formal sociocivic organizations (Jaycees, 4-H Club, Veterans' Legion and others)	-	-	-	20 (1)	-	-	7 (4)
Special women's organizations (mothers' club, crafts guild, Balikatan sa Kaunlaran)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

able A10 (cont'd.)

rganization type	Nonworking single males	Working single males	Nonworking single females	Working single females	Working wives	Nonworking wives	Husbands (generally working)
lumni association, and other school organizations	25% (2)	-	22% (2)	-	4% (1)	-	2% (1)
eligious organizations	50 (4)	17 (1)	33 (3)	-	22 (6)	20 (3)	12 (7)
eighborhood groups (Kapitbahayan, Damayan, basketball and other sports groups)	12 (1)	17 (1)	22 (2)	40 (2)	11 (3)	27 (4)	17 (10)
otal	99% (8)	100% (6)	99% (9)	100% (5)	100% (27)	100% (15)	100% (59)
AP (nonorganization members)	(25)	(27)	(25)	(28)	(54)	(70)	(107)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A12. Respondents by awareness and use of community health services and by community, sex, marital, and employment status (January-March 1979)

Community/Respondent type	Awareness			Use		
	Aware	Not aware	Total	Has used facility	Has not used	Total
Candelaria						
Nonworking single M	91% (31)*	9% (3)	100% (34)	68% (21)	32% (10)	100% (31)
Working single M	97 (32)	3 (1)	100 (33)	69 (22)	31 (10)	100 (32)
Nonworking single F	91 (30)	9 (3)	100 (33)	80 (24)	20 (6)	100 (30)
Working single F	100 (33)	-	100 (33)	73 (24)	27 (9)	100 (33)
Working wives	100 (31)	-	100 (31)	94 (29)	6 (2)	100 (31)
Nonworking wives	94 (127)	6 (8)	100 (135)	92 (117)	8 (10)	100 (127)
Husbands	93 (155)	7 (11)	100 (166)	89 (138)	11 (17)	100 (155)
Sta. Cruz						
Nonworking single M	100 (33)	-	100 (33)	85 (28)	15 (5)	100 (33)
Working single M	97 (32)	3 (1)	100 (33)	66 (21)	34 (11)	100 (32)
Nonworking single F	94 (31)	6 (2)	100 (33)	84 (26)	16 (5)	100 (31)
Working single F	97 (33)	3 (1)	100 (33)	73 (24)	27 (9)	100 (33)
Working wives	100 (86)	-	100 (86)	94 (81)	6 (5)	100 (86)
Nonworking wives	80 (80)	-	100 (80)	97 (78)	3 (2)	100 (80)
Husbands	96 (159)	4 (7)	100 (166)	92 (147)	8 (12)	100 (159)

Table A12 (cont'd.)

Community/Respondent type	Awareness			Use		
	Aware	Not aware	Total	Has used facility	Has not used	Total
Sto. Niño						
Nonworking single M	97% (32)	3% (1)	100% (33)	84% (27)	6% (5)	100% (32)
Working single M	91 (31)	6 (2)	100 (33)	77 (24)	23 (7)	100 (31)
Nonworking single F	91 (31)	9 (3)	100 (31)	77 (24)	23 (7)	100 (31)
Working single F	91 (30)	9 (3)	100 (33)	80 (24)	20 (6)	100 (30)
Working wives	95 (77)	5 (4)	100 (81)	90 (69)	10 (8)	100 (77)
Nonworking wives	92 (78)	8 (7)	100 (85)	95 (74)	5 (4)	100 (78)
Husbands	96 (160)	4 (6)	100 (166)	90 (144)	10 (16)	100 (160)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A13. Respondents by types of health facilities used and by community (January-March 1979)

Health facility	Candelaria	Sta. Cruz	Sto. Niño
Local hospital	32% (119)*	35% (140)	35% (136)
Health center (RHU's, Bagong Lipunan Center)	57 (213)	29 (118)	37 (146)
Pucriculture center	5 (19)	8 (32)	2 (6)
Family planning center	2 (6)	5 (21)	† (1)
Private clinic, physicians	2 (8)	22 (89)	23 (89)
Hilot, herbolario	2 (9)	† (1)	3 (13)
Total	100% (374)	99% (401)	100% (391)
NAP (nonusers, not aware)	(91)	(64)	(74)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

†Less than 1 percent.

Table A14. Respondents by awareness and use of other community services and by community, sex, marital, and employment status (January-March 1979)

Community/Respondent type	Awareness			Use		
	Aware	Not aware	Total	Has used facility	Has not used	Total
Candelaria						
Nonworking single M	97% (33)*	3% (1)	100% (33)	88% (29)	12% (4)	100% (33)
Working single M	88 (29)	12 (4)	100 (33)	86 (25)	14 (4)	100 (29)
Nonworking single F	88 (29)	12 (4)	100 (33)	90 (26)	10 (3)	100 (29)
Working single F	97 (32)	3 (1)	100 (33)	84 (27)	16 (5)	100 (32)
Working wives	94 (29)	6 (2)	100 (31)	66 (19)	34 (10)	100 (29)
Nonworking wives	93 (126)	7 (9)	100 (135)	76 (96)	24 (30)	100 (126)
Husbands	95 (157)	5 (9)	100 (166)	71 (112)	29 (45)	100 (157)
Sta. Cruz						
Nonworking single M	94 (31)	6 (2)	100 (33)	68 (21)	32 (10)	100 (31)
Working single M	100 (33)	-	100 (33)	58 (19)	42 (14)	100 (33)
Nonworking single F	97 (32)	3 (1)	100 (33)	78 (25)	22 (7)	100 (32)
Working single F	88 (30)	12 (4)	100 (34)	57 (17)	43 (13)	100 (30)
Working wives	91 (78)	9 (8)	100 (86)	73 (57)	27 (21)	100 (78)
Nonworking wives	87 (70)	13 (10)	100 (80)	79 (55)	21 (15)	100 (70)
Husbands	86 (143)	14 (23)	100 (166)	69 (99)	31 (44)	100 (143)

Table A14 (cont'd)

Community/Respondent type	Awareness			Use		
	Aware	Not aware	Total	Has used facility	Has not used	Total
Sto. Niño						
Nonworking single M	91% (30)	9% (3)	100% (33)	70% (21)	30% (9)	100% (30)
Working single M	94 (31)	6 (2)	100 (33)	58 (18)	42 (13)	100 (31)
Nonworking single F	88 (30)	12 (4)	100 (34)	67 (20)	33 (10)	100 (30)
Working single F	85 (28)	15 (5)	100 (33)	63 (17)	37 (10)	100 (27)
Working wives	78 (63)	22 (18)	100 (81)	62 (39)	38 (24)	100 (63)
Nonworking wives	78 (66)	22 (19)	100 (85)	65 (43)	35 (23)	100 (66)
Husbands	93 (154)	7 (12)	100 (166)	66 (101)	34 (53)	100 (154)

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Table A15. Respondents by types of other community services used by community (January-March 1979)

Other services	Candelaria	Sta. Cruz	Sto. Niño
School, Day care center	83% (276)*	56% (166)	60% (154)
Improved fishing, farming techniques, other income-generating	9 (30)	3 (9)	-
Health, family planning, nutrition	2 (6)	2 (5)	1 (3)
Credit (Rural Bank, PNB, Masagana 99, SN)	5 (16)	20 (58)	6 (16)
Law-enforcing, safety agencies	-	2 (6)	12 (31)
Sanitation (garbage disposal, toilet improvement)	-	-	15 (39)
Social services, others	1 (4)	4 (11)	4 (11)
Training, skill development	1 (2)	13 (38)	2 (4)
Total	101% (334)	100% (293)	100% (258)
None/NAP	(131)	(172)	207

*Figures in parentheses indicate the number of respondents.

Appendix B

PROJECT STAFF

Appendix B

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