PN-AAY-167
ISN-51980

WOMEN, WORK FORCE PARTICIPATION AND UNDERUTILIZATION

Women in Development Special Studies 2

Final report submitted to the
Philippine Institute for Development Studies
through the Institute of Philippine Culture,
Ateneo de Manila University

(Revised September 1981)

Imelda Zosa-Feranil

Population Institute
University of the Philippines

This volume represents the final report of one of seven Special Studies undertaken for the Women in Development (WID) component of the Economic and Social Impact Analysis/Women in Development (ESIA/WID) Project sponsored through the Philippine Institute for Development Studies by the National Economic and Development Authority and the United States Agency for International Development. The Institute of Philippine Culture (IPC) of the Ateneo de Manila University manages the WID Component which includes sponsoring selected researchers in undertaking studies of women. The reports in this WID Special Studies series are the following:

1.	A Study of Women Workers in Women-Dominated Manufacturing Establishments in Metro Manila	Virgilio C. Aganon Marie E. Aganon
2.	Women, Work Force Participation and Underutilization	Imelda Z. Feranil
3.	Migration and Social Mobility: A Study of Single, Female Migrants in Three Cities of Southern Mindanao	Beverly Hackenberg
4.	The Effect of Marriage, Childbearing and Migration on the Labor Force Participation of Women	Jennifer Lauby
5.	Indicators of the Perceived Effectiveness of Low-Income Women's Organizations	Cristina Montiel
6.	Low-Skilled Working Women in Cagayan de Oro: A Comparative Study of Domestic, "Small-Scale" and Industrial Employment	Marilou Palabrica-Costello Michael A. Costello
7.	Women in Agriculture: A Social Accounting of Female Workshare	Emmanuel S. Santiago

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Valuable suggestions for revising the draft were given by Dr. Mercedes B. Concepcion, Dean of the Population Institute; Dr. Rosalinda Tidalgo and Prof. Ruperto Alonzo of the School of Economics of the University of the Philippines. The author is also grateful to Professor Lita J. Domingo who designed the UPPI questionnaire and who provided encouragement to continue what she started. In addition, members of the UPPI staff should be cited, especially Ms. Cecilia Ruiz for her technical and planning assistance during the entire project, Ms. Arlene Marcelino and Rogelio Abueg Jr. for programming services, the entire secretarial pool for typing the final report, and Mrs. Celeste A. Obligacion for the administrative support.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
LIST OF TABLES		iii
PART I.	THE FRAMEWORK FOR MEASUREMENT OF PARTICIPATION AND UNDERUTILIZATION	
	Introduction	1
	Significance of the Study	2
	Review of Related Literature on Concepts and Measurement	3
	Dimensions of Underutilization to be Explored	14
	Description of the Sample and Basic Limitations	17
	The UPPI Experiment on Work Force Data	21
	Methodology	25
	Selected Indicators	30
PART II.	PARTICIPATION	
	A. The Work Force	32
	Definition	32
	Participation Data and Their Limitations	35
	Levels of Work Force Participation	37
	A Note on Non-Participation	41
	Differentials in Participation	45
	Summary	55
	B. The Unemployed	56
	Definition	56
	Unemployment Data and Their Limitations	56
	Levels of Unemployment	57
	Differentials in Unemployment	58
	Summary	65
PART III.	UNDERUTILIZATION	
	A. Underutilization by Hours of Work	66
	Definition	66
	Data on Hours Input and Limitations	66
	Levels of Underutilization by Hours	69
	Demographic Differentials	72
	B. Invisible Underutilization Using Hours of Work as Criterion	75
	Definition	75
	Levels of Invisible Underutilization	75
	Demographic Differentials	76

Page

C. Underutilization by Educational Levels or Training 80
Description of Measurement Used 80
Data and Limitations 82
Education and Training Backgrounds 84
1. The Visibly Underutilized 84
2. The Invisibly Underutilized 86
Summary 87

D. Socio-economic Backgrounds of the Underutilized 89
Household Characteristics 89
1. The Unemployed 92
2. The Visibly Underutilized 92
3. The Invisibly Underutilized 93
Earnings 94
Summary 103

PART IV. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS
Summary 104
Policy and Program Recommendations..... 107
Recommendations on Measurement 113
Recommendations for Indicators on Underutilization 118

APPENDIX
BIBLIOGRAPHY

LIST OF TABLES IN TEXT

Number		Page
1	Percentage Distribution of Sample Population By Sex, Locale and Selected Characteristics	20
2	Work Force Participation Using the UPPI Approach, Population 10 Years and Over By Sex, February 1975	37
3	Estimation of Labor Force Participation, Population 10 Years and Over By Sex, February 1975 (NCSC data)	38
4	Distribution of Working Population By Sex and Category	39
5	Percentage Distribution of the Work Force By Main Activity (Row %)	40
6	Population Not In Work Force By Activity	42
7	Percentage of the Population not in the Work Force By Sex, Locale and Relationship to the Household Head	43
8	Household Population 10 Years Old and Over By Employment Status, Sex and Urban-Rural Location (NCSC data)	44
9	Percentage Distribution of Work Force Members By Selected Socio-Demographic Characteristics	46
10	Percentage Distribution of the Labor Force By Age, Sex and Locale	47
11	Participation Rates Across Different Groups	49
12	Labor Force Participation Rates By Educational Attainment, Sex and Locale	54
13	Employment Status of Work Force	58
14	Unemployment Rates Across Selected Socio-economic Groups, By Sex and Locale	59
15	Unemployment Rates For Selected Groups from the NCSC February 1975 Survey	61
16	Percentage Distribution of Working Population By Sex, Hours of Work and Locale	70
17	Population Working Less Than Full Time and Wanting Additional Work	70
18	Percentage Working Less Than Full-Time and Wanting Additional Work, By Demographic Groups	73
19	Population Working Full-Time and Wanting Additional Work	75
20	Percentage of Full-Time Workers Desiring Additional Work By Demographic Groups	77
21	Percentage Working Less Than Full-Time and Wanting Additional Work By Education and Training	85
22	Percentage Full-Time Workers Desiring Additional Work, By Broad Education and Training Categories	86

Number | Page

Percentage Distribution of Underutilized By Locale, Sex, Type of Underutilization and Selected Household Characteristics 91

24 Percentage Distribution of Earnings Per Week By Sex and Locale 96

25 Percentage Distribution of Workers By Hours of Work, Sex, Locale and Earnings Per Week 98

26 Percentage Distribution of Underutilized By Sex, Locale, Type of Underutilization By Hours and Earnings Per Week 100

27 Percentage of Workers in Specific Work Force Groups Not Desiring More Work, By Hours of Work and Earnings Per Week 102

PART I. THE FRAMEWORK FOR MEASUREMENT OF PARTICIPATION AND UNDERUTILIZATION

Introduction

This study focuses principally on the extent of underutilization of females who participate in the work force. The first part starts with various conceptual frameworks involved in the measurement of work force participation and underutilization. It then centers on a definition of work which is broader than what conventional approaches give. This broader conceptualization of work is then used to ascertain who the women workers are and what is the setting in which they work. Part three examines different dimensions of underutilization within the broader conceptual framework adopted by attempting to answer the following questions: Who are the underutilized women workers? What forms of female labor underutilization exist? What basic factors condition underutilization? The last part discusses policy recommendations, especially the implications of such underutilization for the family, the community and the nation. It also provides recommendations for the country's statistical system, especially with respect to labor statistics and concepts.

Best Available Document

Significance of the Study

The problem of labor underutilization has been pointed out as one of the more important issues to be tackled in the government's development program (ILO, 1974; Philippines - NEDA, 1977; NMYC, 1977). The President's foreword to the Five Year Development Plan sums up this involvement:

> "The Plan embodies our concerted attack on the problems of mass poverty, unemployment and underemployment and social justice. It carries with it the political will to resolve these problems as well as the commitment to the objectives, policies, and measures which are set forth in response to these problems."

Thus, it is imperative that a better understanding be reached and measurement of the components of such underutilization be undertaken.

Furthermore, with increasing emphasis on the integration of women in the development process, it becomes necessary to examine the contribution, actual and potential, that women can render to the development process through their economic activity.

As this study aims to cover more closely female work force participation and underutilization, it makes use of a more refined experimental approach to work force measurement.[1] Indices derived from the experimental approach are correspondingly used to shed light on the components of underutilization as the study covers women of different classes and groups. With the insights gained, corresponding action programs can be developed and possibly prioritized. The impact of such programs can be evaluated on the basis of several indicators to be recommended in this study.

Review of Related Literature on Concepts and Measurements of Underutilization

The measurement of labor utilization uses as main reference point data on participation in the work force. Work force statistics throughout the world are derived from either the "usual occupation" approach or the "labor force" concept. The former classifies as work force members all those reporting a gainful occupation during a census or survey. This approach emerged when industrialized countries first made efforts to measure the economically active population. The definition was used throughout the world for well over a century (Jaffe & Stewart, 1951). It can be noted in its primitive form in the 1903 and 1918 Censuses of the Philippines while a more defined form can be seen in the 1939 and 1948 Censuses. What mainly distinguishes this concept is a lack of a definite time referrent and information on current employment status

(i.e. who is currently employed or unemployed, who is entering the labor force for the first time, etc).

Attempts to remedy these data deficiencies emerged in the United States during the depression years (Jaffe and Stewart, 1951). As developed, the "labor force" is composed of those employed and unemployed during a specified period, or more specifically, those

(a) working for pay or profit or without pay in a farm or family enterprise (the employed)
(b) not working but wanting and looking for work (the unemployed).

With use of a reference period (usually the week preceding the interview) in the labor force approach, information on current activity can be obtained.[1] Considering that the latter innovation provides for the measurement of such key issues as unemployment, a number of countries adopted the labor force approach, a Western innovation.[2] Universal adoption[3] in turn led to having the labor force concept labelled as the "standard" or the "current" approach.

According to tabulations obtained by the "labor force" approach, about one-third of the Philippine population are labor force members. Female workers themselves compose about one-third of the total Philippine work force and about the same proportion of the entire female population ten years old and above (NCSO, 1971-1975, Mijares and Ordinario, 1973; Domingo and Zosa, 1975; and Castillo, 1976). However, a 1975 study of selected Philippine

---

1 Please see Appendix A for the sequence of questions used in standard labor force surveys.

2 The labor force approach, entailing innovations in procedures and measurements, were introduced in the 1940 Census of the United States, with the resulting figures officially called "labor force statistics" (Jaffe and Stewart, 1951).

3 The ILO and the UN formally recommended the labor force approach for use in all population censuses carried out in or around 1970 (Standing, 1974; UN, 1969).

provinces which elaborated on the standard labor force concept by administering a varied enumeration technique revealed much higher female work force participation (Domingo, 1975).

To a certain extent, many of the problems encountered in the use of the standard labor force approach lie in its coverage of the marginal work force participants or its use in traditional or agricultural settings (Jaffe and Stewart, 1951; Standing, 1976; UN, 1968 and 1976). As defined, the labor force approach is based on a clear behavioral distinction between being economically active or inactive. In societies where organization of work and specialization of activities are still not at an advanced stage, productive activities may not always be distinguishable from non-work or leisure activities. This may even be more pronounced for certain members of the population, like the very young, the elderly or women. For example, how does one classify the young son of a farmer who helps his father by grazing the carabao everytime he returns from school, a fisherman's wife mending nets or a family in handicrafts making? The example can extend even to a non-rural setting wherein a woman does some typing jobs for her husband who is a lawyer or a businessman.

Thus, the family or the home is the center of economic activity in most less-developed societies like the Philippines, and a person may very likely occupy dual roles or labor force statuses (e.g. housekeeping and working at the same time). Questions on how long or how much a person has to work to qualify for inclusion as a work force member are very difficult to answer (UN, 1971). The 1960 Philippine Census of Population, for example, classified students who worked for 20 hours or more during

reference week as economically active. Blacker (1978) emphasized that the problem of categorizing who is in the labor force or not may even be more crucial in the case of women in agricultural economics.

Another problem with the labor force approach lies in its coverage of the unemployed, i.e. those not working but wanting and seeking employment. The underlying notion here is availability or willingness to be employed, yet willingness is rather difficult to measure as it involves a host of psychological as well as socio-economic considerations. Unemployment seems easiest to pinpoint in the case of a person who previously had a job, yet difficult to delineate in the case of those who are entering the labor force for the first time or among women who have not worked for some time (UN, 1971). To a certain extent, the phrase "looking for work" is some qualification on the issue of willingness, although Standing (1976) argues that even the phrase is ambiguous as a measurement of labor supply considering that it fails to give reference to the nature, duration or acceptable income for such work.

Another criticism of the standard approach is that it fails to adequately measure and qualify the underemployment situation which is considered more widespread in developing countries (Turnham, 1971). Existing Philippine labor force statistics do contain some information on the underemployed or those at work yet wanting additional work

(NCSO Labor Force Series). Using the additional criterion of 40 hours or more as constituting full-time employment during survey week, underemployed persons are divided into those visibly underemployed if they are part-time workers and invisibly underemployed if they are full-time workers (ILO, 1959).

Data from the National Census and Statistics Office (NCSO) February 1975 labor force series[4] showed that about one out of every ten labor force members wanted additional employment. In contrast to underemployed males among whom invisible underemployment appeared to be more pronounced, most underemployed females were those working on a part-time basis (dela Paz, et.al., 1978).

The standard labor force approach offers some means of measuring the extent of unemployment among the underemployed by counting the total number of hours that part time workers wanting additional work (or those visibly underemployed) worked short of the full-time norm, usually a 40 hour employment per week standard (Mijares and Tidalgo, 1971).[5] However, Mijares and Tidalgo warn readers that their measure of full-time equivalent unemployment fails to capture the element of unemployment among full-time workers wanting additional work (or those labelled invisibly underemployed").

---

[4] This particular series is used for comparison because the UPPI work force survey was also conducted around this time.

[5] Sta. Romana also proposes availability of this indicator in the DAP set of recommendations (See Mangahas, 1976).

Dissatisfaction with the labor force approach has led to the emergence of techniques viewed as more refined or realistic measurements of labor utilization. One of the more well known counter-approaches was developed by Myrdal (1968) based on the South Asian experience. Myrdal pointed out that the level of actual labor utilization can be expressed as the product of participation, duration and efficiency or:

$$\frac{\text{output}}{\text{labor force}} = \frac{\text{working members}}{\text{labor force}} \times \frac{\text{man hours}}{\text{working members}} \times \frac{\text{output}}{\text{man hours}}$$

Participation refers to that portion of the labor force "normally" performing some work, while duration relates to the participants' work in terms of given reference periods. Moreover, he asserted that the labor force approach is preoccupied only with the first ratio and even in a biased manner, whereas all three are needed to understand labor utilization. Myrdal especially emphasizes labor efficiency, the qualitative dimension, dependent on health, training and education and attitudinal characteristics of workers which in turn are determined by ecological, social-psychological, cultural, and technological factors. "Despite the perplexities confronting empirical measurement of the important variables involved in the utilization of labor, this approach is a clear and marked advance over the conceptual system underlying the great mass of official statistics...At base, the labor utilization approach requires behavioral studies founded in observations of the raw realities" (pp. 1026-1027).

Myrdal has in turn been criticized for his attitude towards other attempts to measure labor underutilization, especially in his outright rejection of "unemployment" and "underemployment" measures, and yet not providing guidelines on how his alternative index should be measured empirically (Ely, 1970; Standing, 1976). It is also apparent that basic conceptual problems facing other approaches will also be faced by Myrdal's schema, as for example, who constitute the "active" or "normally" working members of a population. Despite such criticisms, however, one apparent value of Myrdal's approach is its emphasis on closer observation of actual behaviour as a more realistic approach to the study of labor utilization.

Most efforts on underutilization, however, involved use of the labor force concept but recommend enhancement of the questionnaire, the enumeration system or making use of other data in combination with standard labor force categories and variables. Time-use surveys promise great potentials as a means of gathering information on the actual behavior or activities of the population. Standing (1976) outlines the value of time-use surveys especially as they make no a priori judgement about what constitutes being economically active. The data generated can also be used in determining labor-use especially for persons of multiple labor force statuses or occupations. Some application of time-use surveys in the Philippine context was done in the province of Laguna[6] in analysis along a theory on the allocation of time advanced by Becker(1965). The application of Becker's theory in labor force measurement and analysis was

---

[6] Refer to Boulier, 1977 for one of the various reports from the Laguna survey.

simplified by Bowen and Finegan (1969) to entail ignoring momentarily the "either-in-or-out" nature of the labor force concept and focusing instead on the total time of each household member as being allocable between labor force participation and other activities (e.g. housekeeping, childrearing,leisure) in finely divisible (time) units, with the household determining under which activity such time should be spent.

Some of the drawbacks associated with time-use surveys lie in data collection and processing considering their inherent detail. It can prove extremely useful especially in studies of selected communities (Szalai, 1971) yet may be difficult to administer when broader coverage is entailed. Nevertheless, Standing (1976) emphasizes their potential especially as supplement to labor surveys, as they "represent a logical extension of the essentially behavioral labor force approach".

Ono (1973) proposed a flow accounting approach based on a time disposition questionnaire. According to Ono, the measurement of labor utilization can be considered essentially as an analysis of the use of available and potentially available labor "energy" time flow; each person a carrier of human capital. This approach was called the "Manila approach" but entails mainly an improvement of the ongoing NCSO household surveys on labor force. Ono, however, cautions that his proposal is still exploratory and in need of further operationalization, field testing and refinement.

Other than changing the enumeration technique, Oshima (1976) proposes increasing the frequency of gathering labor force statistics. Oshima emphasizes that in Asian countries, employment arrangements are predominantly short-term (on a daily, weekly or

monthly basis) and "affected by seasonality, irregularity, instability and intermittency." However, the labor force concept refers only to a person's employment situation the week before enumeration. Oshima stresses that one week cannot be representative of a whole year for most Asian workers. Even quarterly surveys were considered inadequate, considering that they give only a picture of 4 out of 52 weeks. If these labor force surveys were held monthly, or once in two months, a reliable (employment and utilization) picture representing the year may be obtained[7]. (p. 5).

Hauser (1972 and 1973) proposed a framework which distinguishes different types of underutilization -- by unemployment, by insufficient hours of work, by inadequate income level, by mismatched occupation and education. The methodology involved is a step-by-step tabulation scheme wherein the unemployed are first isolated before focus is made on the employed. Next to be isolated are persons working less than full-time and wanting additional work or those underutilized by hours of work. The remaining population are then tabulated by income (or a proxy thereof). Persons below an income cut-off are then considered as underutilized by productivity. The remaining are subsequently matched in terms of education and occupation to ascertain those underutilized by mismatch. Only the remainder are considered utilized adequately.

---

[7] Similar suggestions were given by Bogue (1969).

The Hauser proposal is based mainly on standard labor force data in combination with additional socio-economic variables and has been tried in a number of developing countries (Domingo, 1974; Fong, 1972; Hauser, 1974; Huat and Khoo, 1976; Moir et.al., 1977) as well as in the United States (Sullivan, 1975). Domingo's Philippine experiment, however, was constrained by the quality of data especially those for females as only the underutilization by hours of work was covered. Income data for half of the female respondents in the 1968 National Demographic Survey consisted of "zero" or "no response" entries (Domingo, 1974). A follow-up study, however, pointed out that underutilization by hours of work tended to be concentrated among young wives, rural women and other young adults while mismatched education and occupation was noted especially among the very young especially with their tendency to have relatively high educational attainments and particularly significant among women in the urban sector (Smith and Domingo, 1976).[8]

Problems arise with the application of the Hauser scheme because of its implied prioritization of levels of underutilization for policy as well as the actual operationalization of his indicators of underutilization. Nevertheless, the Hauser approach offers some directions on measurable components of underutilization which will be useful in our assessment of women's participation in the work force.

---

[8] The survey's coding scheme did not allow for the allocation of personal incomes to persons other than husbands and wives.

Krishna (1973) stresses that work constitutes a durable source of income especially for the propertyless.[9] Emphasizing time, willingness, income distribution and productivity as criteria, Krishna suggests categorizing as unemployed or underemployed those who are either:

1. gainfully occupied for a number of hours/days less than some normal or optimal hours/days defined as "full-employment" hours/days [the time criterion];
2. willing to do more work than what they are presently performing: persons may either be actively looking for more work or be available for more work given certain conditions and terms [the willingness criterion];
3. earning incomes less than some desirable minimum [the income criterion]; or
4. removable from present employment in the sense that their contributions to output are less than some normal level of productivity; their removal in turn would not reduce output if the productivity of the remaining workers is normalized with minor changes in technique and/or organization [the productivity criterion].

---

[9]Also used as main guideline by Sta. Romana (1976) for his economic well-being indicators on employment. See also Mangahas, 1976.

Krishna's categories also build on the standard labor force approach data and are very similar to many of Hauser's components of underutilization except for the latter's emphasis on the need to match education with occupation. Moreover, Hauser assumes some correspondence between income and productivity especially in the case of very low incomed marginal workers in developing countries. Classification of workers at the bottom of an income distribution as underutilized by productivity mainly entails "that the combination of human and other resources involved in the work performed is inadequate" (Hauser, 1973). On the other hand, Krishna's scheme attempts to further decompose components of underutilization by focusing not only on desirable income levels but also on marginal contributions to output and productivity.

To sum up, the preceding schemes provide the various directions for the measurement of underutilization. Yet, despite their obvious policy and program implications, the measurement and analysis of underutilization have received only scant attention in the Philippines.

Dimensions of Underutilization to be Explored

This study departs from standard approaches in measuring the work force and adopts a definition of work based on ethnographic sketches of work in the Philippine context (Domingo, 1975; Jocano, 1976). Using such a definition, work force participation of women is expected to be actually higher than estimates derived by standard approaches. It is expected that participation will also vary across social groups like age, sex, marital status or relationship to household head as shown in several studies on the Philippines (Castillo, 1976; Domingo, 1974; [illegible], 1976; Zosa, 1977).

Underlying the exercise is the notion that the standard approach seems to understate participation in the work force given its implicit assumption of centrality of a market, whereas home-oriented arrangements and activities predominate in a society like the Philippines. Conventional approaches will then tend to miss out or underestimate the participation of certain types of persons who are not primarily work force members, including the very young, the elderly, and certain categories of females.

Since participation data constitute the reference base for the measurement of underutilization, the standard approaches will tend to depict inadequately various dimensions of utilization. The new definition adopted in this paper is taken as a step to capture more realistically the underutilization situation -- who are underutilized, what type of underutilization may exist, or what specific groups or areas are affected.

In addition to measuring work force participation, the following dimensions of underutilization are especially focused on in the study:

1. Unemployment

It can be hypothesized that unemployment levels in the country may actually be higher than figures provided by conventional approaches. It is also quite probable that standard approaches fail specifically to capture the desire of certain portions of the population to have some form of employment. Unemployment levels for women may even emerge to be much higher than the levels for males.

2. Underutilization by hours of work

In like fashion, improvements in the measurement of the work force can lead to describing more realistically those who need additional

employment especially in terms of the workhours they render. One of the issues investigated in this study is the tendency for women workers to work less than may be considered normal workhours and to determine how prevalent among such women is the desire for additional employment.

3. Underutilization in terms of educational background

Education is given special emphasis in this study given the pivotal role of education in manpower development. This is actually a core issue in labor utilization. It is also the concern of the study that the possibility of women workers tending to be more underutilized in terms of their educational backgrounds as compared to male workers be explored.

4. Underutilization in the context of socio-economic backgrounds

Another dimension of underutilization that is explored in this paper is the socio-economic profile of the underutilized person. What does the person earn? From what type of household does the individual come from? It is hypothesized in the study that the underutilized come from disadvantaged households or socio-economic groups and that the situation is more pressing with respect to women.

Description of the Sample and Basic Limitations

As stated above, the study of female work force participation has been mainly hampered by the availability of data. Information for this study comes from a special survey on "A New Approach to the Measurement of the Work Force" conducted by the University of the Philippines Population Institute in February 1975[10]. This was an exploratory survey aimed at deriving empirical measurements of the important variables involved in work force participation and underutilization.

A random sample of 500 households was drawn from previously selected Philippine provinces namely: Manila, Rizal, Cavite, Batangas, Laguna, Ilocos Norte, Albay and Cebu[11]. A total of 2,237 persons belonging to the age ten years and over were interviewed. One third (33.7%) were urban residents while the rest (66.3%) were rural residents. Manila respondents totaled 292 (13%) in addition to 586 (26.2%) coming from other Tagalog provinces. The Ilocanos constituted one fifth (20.6%) of the total, the Bicolanos slightly more (21%) and the Visayans less than one-fifth (Domingo, 1975).

As described, the sample contains some bias and limitations. First, it is constrained by the limited choice of study provinces. As stated above, choice of study provinces was guided by the results of Jocano's

---

[10] The UPPI project was undertaken with funding from the Population Council.

[11] The criterion used for selection of study provinces was the availability of a set of work-related concepts drawn during an earlier study by Jocano (1976). This ethnographic work actually constituted the first phase of the UPPI project entitled "A New Approach to the Measurement of the Work Force" (Domingo, 1975). The two phases of the exploratory project are explained more fully in the next section.

ethnographic sketches, hence limited only to areas he studied where the majority speak Tagalog, Cebuano-Visayan, Ilocano or Bicol.

Moreover, respondents from the city of Manila amounted to over ten per cent of the total sample while their proportion to the total Philippine population was less than four per cent (3.5%) in the May 1975 census. The sample from Manila and the other Tagalog provinces amounted to over 39 per cent of the total sample while the 1975 Census showed these areas to have a combined population of only 12.4 per cent of the national figure.

In addition, "urban" in the study refers to city population only. This limited urban definition and the mix of study provinces, especially with Manila and four Tagalog provinces including Rizal constituting a large group in the sample, should be taken as qualifications in interpretation of findings.

Despite these considerations, the exploratory survey offers a rich source of information for work force participation and underutilization studies (see Appendix B for the major items the survey offers). However, a major limitation of the study is the sample size. It would have been ideal to look at how participation and utilization varies across important characteristics and combinations of variables (e.g. detailed age breakdown, educational categories, etc.) but such were done only where sample size permitted.

Females constituted slightly over half (50.9%) of the sample population belonging to the ages ten and above. The urban sample contained a larger proportion of females (54.2% compared to only 45.8% for males) while the rural sample had a nearly even sex ratio although slightly in favor of males. This pattern resembles to some extent those shown in the 1975 Philippine census as well as in the recent quarterly labor force surveys.

The distributions of the sample by sex and locale across selected socio-economic characteristics are shown on Table 1. It should be noted that given the above-mentioned sample constraints and the apparent "urban" slant, the data on Table 1 and most of the remaining tables in the [illegible] are presented in terms of their urban-rural distributions.

Age-breakdowns of the sample population ten years old and over show that slightly over half of males and females in both urban and rural areas were between the ages 10-29. Around one-fourth were in their thirties or forties while those over 50 years numbered 15 per cent or more. Urban women can be noted as being concentrated in the younger age groups while rural women stood out as they registered the lowest proportions in the ages 10-29 but the largest proportion in the oldest age group. Similar distributions also prevailed in the May 1975 Census of Population (NCSO, 1978) although the census data revealed very little difference in the proportions [illegible] in the ages 10-19 for rural and urban women. It is quite likely that the rural sample for this study was slightly concentrated towards the older ages than distributions emerging from the 1975 census count.

The distribution regarding relationship to household head follows national patterns shown by the 1973 National Demographic Survey: in contrast to males, female household heads consituted only a small proportion;

Table 1. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SAMPLE POPULATION BY SEX, LOCALE AND SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS[a]

Characteristics	MALE		FEMALE		BOTH SEXES	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
n Cases	356	741	421	718	777	1459
Age (Years)	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
10-19	31.2	34.8	35.6	30.8	33.5	32.8
20-29	22.2	23.2	23.8	22.1	23.0	22.7
30-39	15.2	13.5	14.3	15.6	14.7	14.5
40-49	12.4	9.9	11.4	11.6	11.8	10.7
50+	18.5	18.5	15.0	19.9	16.6	19.2
No info.	*.6*	*.1*	.0	.0	*.3*	*.1*
Relationship to Household Head	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head	39.9	41.2	*3.6*	6.0	20.2	23.9
Spouse	b/	*.1*	31.4	41.2	17.0	20.3
Children	43.0	46.2	43.0	38.6	43.0	42.5
Others	17.1	12.4	22.1	14.2	19.8	13.5
Marital Status	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Never-married	50.3	51.3	53.4	44.8	52.0	48.1
Ever-married	49.7	48.7	46.6	55.1	47.0	51.7
Currently married	48.0	46.3	42.8	49.0	45.2	47.6
Widowed/divorced or separated	*1.7*	*2.4*	*3.8*	6.1	2.8	4.3
Education	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No schooling	3.7	8.1	4.8	11.8	4.2	9.9
Elementary 1-7	39.6	53.6	40.9	57.9	40.3	55.7
High School 1-4	32.9	29.8	32.8	20.6	32.8	25.3
College 1+	22.8	7.9	20.6	9.3	21.6	8.6
No info.	1.1	.5	1.0	.3	1.0	.4
Training	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No training	79.2	84.9	81.7	82.0	80.3	83.5
With training	19.7	14.8	18.3	17.7	18.9	16.2
No info.	1.1	.3	.0	.3	.5	.3

a/ Items in italics refer to cases less than 20.

b/ Zero entries.

most were either spouses or in the "children" category. This was a pattern that prevailed for both locales.

Never-married women belonging to the ages ten and above formed the largest proportion in urban areas, which was expected considering the youthful age distribution. At the other extreme, currently married women predominate in rural areas. This pattern resembles what Smith (1974) showed from the 1973 National Demographic Survey: urban areas have a substantial proportion of never married women in contrast to rural areas where currently married women constitute slightly over 60 per cent of rural women 15 years old and above.

Urbanites had a slight advantage in education with the males exhibiting higher levels than females. Urban females, however, were more educated than rural males, while rural females occupied the lowest position in the hierarchy.[12] Even with respect to training, urbanites had a slight advantage although it should be noted that only between 15-20 per cent of the population availed of some form of training (usually in the technical or vocational field) as of February 1975.

The UPPI Experiment on Work Force Data

This UPPI study uses a data set obtained from a different technique of enumerating the work force. While standard procedures entail asking directly the sample population their usual occupation (as in the "gainful worker" approach) or main activity, the performance of "any work at all", the possession of or desire for any job or business, etc. (as in the "labor force" approach questions

[12] See also NCSO (then BCS) October 1965 labor force series.

shown in Appendix A), the UPPI work force survey did not confine itself to the terms and questions of the standard approaches. The rationale was based on the results of an ethnographic study on "work" conducted earlier (Jocano, 1976).

The work force survey actually formed part of a two-phased UPPI research on work in the Philippine context. Since a lot of dissatisfaction had been expressed over the current practice of merely translating questionnaires obtained from foreign labor agencies or studies and using such questionnaires to gather information on local working behavior, the first phase involved basic ethnographic data on the Filipino's concept of work (Concepcion, 1974; Jocano, 1976). Jocano's ethnographic study, in turn, provided inputs to a follow-up survey (Domingo, 1975), the data set of which is used in this paper.

Jocano's sketches outline a number of meanings in words like "work", "trabaho" or "job", to the Filipino. For example, "job" was perceived by some survey informants "in a rather vague and uncertain manner" (Jocano, 1976: p. 14). Many informants from a housing complex settled by government employees and white collar workers associated "trabaho" -- the term for "work" commonly used in Philippine surveys with office work. Yet informants also generally categorized the word as activity where one does not necessarily get material compensation. "Trabaho" to Cubao vendors who reside in the same market stalls where they ply their trade "refers to general work ... /which may be/ limited in scope .../to entail/ work done inside the house". On

the other hand, residents of a Bulacan sitio (Malanggan, barrio Bulihan of Malolos, Bulacan) gave the manual labor definition.

A very interesting section comes from the Bulacan case study:

> "Related to hanapbuhay and trabaho are occupation and job. Occupation is defined as tiyak na gawaing pinagkakakitaan ng salapi (regular work where one earns money) like paggasaka (harvesting) and pagtuturo (teaching). Occupation is an activity that is remunerated, it is a means of livelihood. Job is referred to as trabaho and gawaing pinagkakakitaan ng salapi (money-earning activity)... The informants' concept of job or occupation is more of the manual and skilled type of money-earning activity." (Jocano, 1976: p. 116; items in parentheses are as in the original).

A number of ambiguities tend to arise in the use of terms like those mentioned above. Occupation has a definite label as a money-earning activity. The labor force definition conceptually includes unpaid family workers -- mostly women -- who in the context of the foregoing tend to be omitted or underenumerated.

The UPPI semi-structured survey used the labor force approach only as background. The enumeration technique employed in this UPPI survey varied from usual procedures of work force estimation in that it (a) did not superimpose the terms usually used in such standard approaches; (b) used more "funnel" questions to distinguish workers from non-workers,[13] and (c) provided a certain degree of flexibility

---

[13] Please see Appendix B for the UPPI questionnaire.

in categorisation as to who are working. The latter was done using not only the more common criterion "mainly working" but also the performance of some form of productive activity, including direct help to household members who were mainly working, or income-generating activities done even during leisure hours.

From a review of the questionnaire administered to the 500 sample households, one can note that the UPPI technique provides many parameters similar to the standard approaches. These statistics are then used to construct indicators on participation and under-utilisation.

Methodology

To provide a complete picture and for comparative purposes, males are usually analyzed together with the data for females. This approach was needed to determine whether utilization-related problems are found in the population as a whole or whether they are confined to women only.

Because of the apparent urban slant of the sample and the possibility that urban-rural differences in enumeration procedures and biases prevail,[14] detailed cross-tabulations using locals as primary control are used throughout this study. Some caution, however, is given in interpretation of results considering the sample size of the exploratory survey. To qualify findings, percentages involving numerators or cases numbering less than 20 are italicized. Despite such data constraints, attempts were made to cover as many population sub-groups as possible to illustrate usefulness of recommended indicators and tabulations.

These cross-tabulations focusing on sex and locals are made only for selected socio-economic demographic characteristics, namely age, relationship to household head, marital status, education and training.[15] Since the tables shown control only for a few variables at a time, and not all (or a combination of more) variables at the same time, the cross-tabulations contain possible biases and additional caution should be used in interpreting results.

The analysis uses mainly percentages or rates obtained from the detailed cross-tabulations. Rates, however, could sometimes be misleading

---

[14] See for example Concepcion, 1974 and UN, 1968.

[15] These characteristics are usually the ones used in most labor force studies.

especially when they refer to broad populations that contain sub-groups that vary considerably. For example, a difference in the percentages constituting the work force between two areas could arise as a result of differences in population composition. It is very likely that Area A has a large proportion of persons belonging to the young adult ages while area B has a slightly older population. Demographers sometimes use standardization techniques aimed at estimating the effects of variations in population composition upon the dimensions of a rate (Jaffe, 1951; Shryock and Siegel, 1971; UN, 1968). One of the most ideal applications of standardization in labor force analysis is the use of age-standardized rates (UN, 1968) computed for different population sub-groups. Such a method would have been very useful for this study. Unfortunately, however, the limited sample size constrained construction of age-standardized rates. What are presented here are only unadjusted percentages and rates.

The rather small sample, especially affected when various controls were used, constrained application of tests of significance.[16] This study is mainly descriptive, being concerned with what might likely emerge as levels or patterns of participation and underutilization if improvements in operationalization of concepts or measurement of labor statistics were attempted. For the most part, this study is exploratory, and the percentages or rates derived are illustrative. It is hoped that the issues raised here would lead to further refinements of existing approaches to work force measurement.

Unless otherwise specified, all the data used in the derivation of indicators for this paper come from the February 1975 UPPI work force survey.

---

[16] Carver (1978) presents a case against statistical significance testing and recommends instead a return to exhaustive data examination and replication of researches to evaluate results.

Attempts are also made to compare the data from this survey with the NCSO quarterly labor force survey of households undertaken also in February 1975.

The analytical scheme is as follows:

1. Scheme for measuring participation

The population above the lower age limit used for work force inclusion (usually 10 or 15 years of age) should be grouped into those who are members or non-members of the work force. The official age cut-off for labor force participation in the country is 15 years (Labor Code, 1976), although the February 1975 NCSO data contains mostly information for those age 10 and over. This study also uses data for those 10 years old and above.

Determination of membership in the work force was derived by a detailed tabulation process following closely the UPPI framework (see Figure 1 below) and loosely the standard ILO and NCSO procedures. Information on usual, main, daily, and weekend activities as well as those done last week and last month were examined to determine who in the household furnishes the supply of labor for the production of goods and services. To complete the population profile, those not in the work force are described along their main activities (e.g. housekeeping, studying,etc.).

2. Scheme for determining unemployment

This portion focuses on the "unemployed". In standard approaches the work force is usually divided into those "employed" and "unemployed". According to international standards (ILO, 1959), persons above a given age who did not report any economic activity yet seeking work fall under the unemployed category. Hauser's utilization scheme usually starts with those who are unutilized by virtue of their being unemployed, before focu-

sing on those actually working to determine underutilization.

To ascertain differentials i unemployment rates, the unemployed are described according to selected socio-economic characteristics. The basic controls used are locale and sex, with the discussion concentrating on variations in levels of unemployment between men and women belonging to given social groups.

3. Scheme for exploring dimensions of underutilization

This section focuses on these reporting actual work at the time of the survey. Two components of underutilization are examined: underutilization by hours of work and by education/training. The former is defined as those who, during a given period, worked less than the "normal" work hours and desired more work. Work hours were based on responses to two questions: how a person spends an ordinary day/week (see table of activities by time block in Table C1 of Appendix B) and a respondent's response to a direct question on actual time spent performing an economic activity. Attempts were made to provide a reasonable summation of the number of workhours rendered by persons with multiple economic activities.

A 40-hour per week standard was used for all workers but a female "norm" amounting to around 35 hours per week was also examined to determined "underutilization by hours". To highlight the underutilization problem even more, those working more than the normal work hours but seeking work are then scrutinized. These persons constitute those invisibly underutilized using hours of work as criterion.

Once the contribution of women workers in terms of hours was ascertained, education and training were then considered. The ideal utilization framework for this portion of the study is Hauser's education-occupation matching. Unfortunately, operationalizing Hauser's framework proved a problem. In lieu of such a framework, this study presents broad educational and training backgrounds of those desiring more work.

4. Scheme for describing the underutilized population

In this portion of the study, work force members were then looked at in terms of their socio-economic standings. The main items investigated here were household profiles and characteristics of those desiring more work. The selected household data used were walling construction materials, number of rooms, source of lighting, radio ownership and toilet facilities.

In addition, the data on average weekly earnings of workers, especially those desiring more work, are presented. One major focus under this section is the possibility of a pronounced sex differential with respect to money earnings derived from work.

To highlight and suggest specific groups in the population that need to be special "targets" for policy and action, those considered underutilized by virtue of unemployment or their desire for more work are examined more closely in terms of the type of households they belong to or their average weekly earnings.

To sum up, the selected indicators of participation and underutilization are:[a]

Items of Data	Socio-economic classification	Indicators.
	A. The economically active population	
Number of work force members	Mainly sex and locale, also age, relationship to household head, marital status, highest levels of education and training.	Work force participation rate of the population or for specific groups (or % of population in WF)
	B. Employment status	Percentage distribution of work force by main activity
Number of unemployed work force members	Mainly sex and locale, also age, relationship to household head, marital status, highest levels of education and training.	Unemployment rate of the work force or for specific groups (or % of WF who are employed)
		Average age of unemployed
	C. Underutilization	
1. Number of workhours rendered by workers	Sex and locale (urban-rural)	Percentage distribution of workers by hours of work
		Average workhours by sex
2. Less than full time workers desiring more work	Mainly sex and locale (urban-rural) with education and training, also age, relationship to household head, and marital status.	Visible underemployment rate of the total work force or for specific groups (or % of WF visibly under-employed)
3. Full time workers desiring more work	Mainly sex and locale (urban-rural) with education and training, also age, relationship to household head, and marital status.	Invisible underemployment rate of the total work force or for specific groups (or % of WF invisibly under-employed)
4. Household backgrounds of workers desiring more work	Sex and locale (urban-rural)	Percentage of underemployed work force by hours and by selected household characteristics

Items of Data	Socio-economic classifications	Indicators
5. Average weekly earnings	Sex and locale	Percentage distribution of workers by average earnings Percentage distribution of underemployed work force by hours and by average earnings Percentage distribution of work force not desiring more work by hours and average earnings
	D. The Inactive	
Numbers not in work force by category of inactivity	Sex and locale	Percentage of population in different categories of inactivity

[a] This format is derived from a 1975 U.N. publication, Towards a System of Social and Demographic Statistics. Explanations of the indicators used in this study, the relevant data items and socio-economic classifications are given separately in the introductory portions of the sub-sections where they are used.

Part II. PARTICIPATION

A. The Work Force

Definition

The economically active population, or the work force, includes all individuals who furnish the supply of labor for the production of goods and services (UN, 1968). This concept of "supply" embraces not only those who are at work or with a job or business but also those who desire and are seeking employment. In keeping with such a definition and the discussion on criticisms of the basic labor force approach, the scheme on Figure 1 was devised based on the results of Jocano's study and those of the UPPI survey.[17]

Comrpising the work force are persons who were

a. working, including those (1) mainly working, (2) not mainly working but doing some work regularly, (3) not mainly working but extending direct help to workers in the household, and (4) not mainly working but performing some gainful activity (even during leisure time) and deriving monetary benefit from such activities.

b. not working but looking for work.

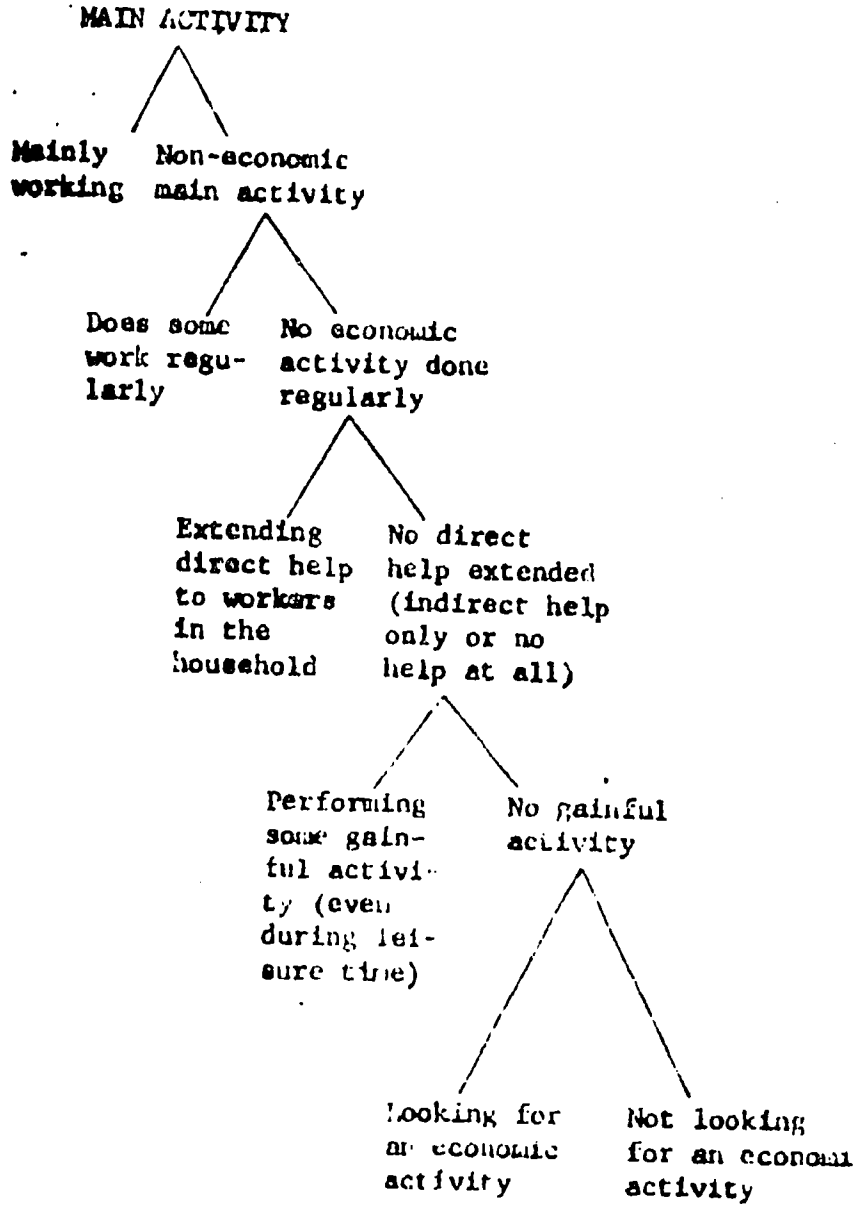
Considered as not in the work force are persons who did not belong to the above categories: they do not do any work at all and have no desire for employment.

It can be seen that this framework categorises as "working" not only those who are mainly working or doing work regularly but

---

17 This framework for delineation of the work force was developed especially for the UPPI-POPCOUNCIL project, "A New Approach to the Measurement of the Work Force" (forthcoming monograph, Work, Vol. II).

FIGURE 1: THE UPPI FRAMEWORK FOR DELINEATION OF THE WORK FORCE[a]



---

[a] This framework is based on the Labor Force Approach and Jocano's findings. It also represents the questionnaire sequence. Please see text for explanation.

also those who do casual work including persons extending help to household workers or performing some productive activities during leisure time. This latter group is actually an approximation of internationally recommended (ILO, 1959) status/class of worker categories -- self-employed and unpaid family workers -- which present measurement problems in less develop countries.

If one compares this study's operational measurement of the work force with the country's standard procedure of measuring the labor force (NCSO, 1956-1977), one can note that both start with persons who are mainly working. The standard procedure then continues to determine if persons who were not mainly working "Did ... any work at all last week, not counting housekeeping and other work around the house?" (Appendix A). In contrast, the UPPI survey attempted to operationalize further the above stated follow-up question by describing ways wherein economic activities may have been performed: some work done regularly even if the person is not mainly working (UPPI category 2), direct assistance to household workers (category 3), and income-generating activity done during leisure hours (category 4).[18]

In reality, some overlap exists between the UPPI category (2) and the last two categories of "working". The latter two were included in the series of questions used to determine participation to insure that unpaid family workers and those who do some gainful economic activity are not omitted. These categories, therefore should be treated more as part of a "grid system" of questions to determine participation, rather than as analytical, mutually exclusive categories.

---

[18] It should be noted that the standard procedure uses a definite time reference of one week before enumeration, in contrast to the UPPI survey which attempted to use two reference dates: the week and month prior to the survey. Please refer to discussion in the next section.

This framework was used for the study as it was thought to "capture" more clearly the extent of participation of marginal work force participants, especially women. Moreover, the structure of economic activities in less developed communities where family and economic activities are so clearly interwoven justifies the use of schemes that involve household linkages.

Participation Data and Their Limitations.

Unlike the standard approach where the question on activity refers to the week preceding enumeration, the UPPI approach involved asking a person's usual daily and weekend activities and followed this up with questions on whether such was the way he spent the preceding week and month.[19] Other probing questions on the existence of economic activities were also used to determine who are work force members.

The time reference presents a number of problems. An examination of the data revealed that a number of respondents and/or interviewers failed to specify clearly when economic activities were undertaken as in entries like "it depends on whether there are orders," despite stating that such were usual activities done even during the past week and month. Other problems involved casual or intermittent workers, as some only stated that such economic activities were done often, at any time or regularly once a week or month or some similar vague time reference. It should be noted that the UPPI survey failed to ask those included in the work force because they help directly household workers or perform income generating activities when such work was done. Inferences were only made from the respondents answers to the questions on how often the economic activity was performed. Attempts were

---

[19] Boulier (1977) also made use of the past month as reference period in his study of household economic activity in Laguna.

made to include only those signifying that such work was done regularly, although errors were very likely introduced here. (The major discussion on this can be found in Part III).

The time reference issue leads to the problem of "seasonality" of certain economic activities. It is quite likely that the framing of questions introduces some bias such that those with seasonal occupations or economic activities not falling within the reference period (e.g., those doing some work but not during the reference month) are also included in the work force count.

Levels of Work Force Participation

The work force participation rate or the per cent economically active is computed by:

$$\frac{\text{Work Force above an age cut-off}}{\text{Population above the age cut-off}} \times 100\%$$

Table 2 presents the work force status of the population ten years of age and over. Two things are immediately noted. First, the data suggests that a large proportion of the population perform economic activities. Compared to existing NCSO estimates (see Table 3), the level of participation derived using the UPPI approach is very high for both males and females for 1975. Secondly, females exhibit participation levels approaching the male level and even twice that noted for females in standard estimates.

Table 2. WORK FORCE PARTICIPATION USING THE UPPI APPROACH, POPULATION 10 YEARS AND OVER BY SEX, FEBRUARY 1975[a]

ACTIVITY	SEX					
	Both Sexes		Males		Females	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Total 10+	2,162	100.0	1,037	100.0	1,125	100.0
Work force 10+	1,738	80.4	883	85.1	855	76.0
Non-work force 10+	424	19.6	154	14.9	270	24.0

a/ Excludes data for "not stated".

Source: UPPI Survey.

Table 3. ESTIMATION OF LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION, POPULATION 10 YEARS AND OVER BY SEX, FEBRUARY 1975

Participation	Both Sexes	Males	Females
Per cent in Labor Force	49.3	67.9	31.3
% Employed	96.4	94.5	94.3
% Unemployed	3.6	3.5	4.0
Per cent not in Labor Force	50.7	32.1	68.7

Source: NCSO, NSSH Bulletin Series No.45.

It is apprent that the use of more 'sorter' questions in special micro-surveys reveals greater participation than what is usually obtained with the standard labor force approach. Some of the differences can be attributed to the inclusion of additional questions on "direct help" or gainful activity done even during leisure hours. It should be noted that these categories combined constituted over 9 per cent of the female work force and only about four per cent for males.[20] These contributions, however are relatively small compared to the relatively larger proportion classified as working either mainly or at least regularly (see Table 4). Sex differentials can be noted for those working mainly or regularly. Two-thirds of male work force members were mainly working compared to only one-fourth doing some work regularly. The difference is not as marked for females, with a very large proportion (39%) doing some work regularly compared to 44 per cent who were mainly working.

[20] The discussion on unemployment rates (see next section) describes further some of the sources of the differences in participation rates between the NCSO and NPPI estimates.

Best Available Document

Table 4. DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING POPULATION BY SEX AND CATEGORY

Work Force Category	Both Sexes		Males		Females	
	N	As % of Work Force	N	%	N	%
Work Force	1738	100.0	883	100.0	855	100.0
Mainly working	971	55.9	598	67.7	373	43.6
Doing some work regularly	550	31.6	216	24.5	334	39.0
Extending direct help	101	5.8	34	3.8	67	7.8
Doing some gainful activity even during leisure time	15	.9	4	.5	11	1.3
Looking for an economic activity	101	5.8	31	3.5	70	8.2

Source: UPPI Survey.

Other differences in estimates can be attributed to the UPPI usage of "last month". Compared to the "last week" reference period of the labor force approach, the reference date in the UPPI survey is not only longer but may have also included more seasonal workers than could be captured in a narrower time frame.[21]

Table 5 elaborates on the main activities of work force members. Among males, only 68 per cent were mainly workers. A majority of the remaining were mainly students. Even when one considers those actually

[21] It would have been ideal to provide an estimate of the effect such seasonal workers had on the participation rates shown here. Unfortunately, however, such data breakdown is not available.

Table 5. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE WORK FORCE BY MAIN ACTIVITY
(Row %)

Sex and Work Force Category	N cases (row)	Main Activity: Mainly working	House-keeping	Study-ing	Retired	Home	NI
Males	883	68.0	5.0	21.2	.6	5.3	.1
Working mainly, doing some work regularly, extending help to other household workers, doing some work during leisure hours	852	70.4	4.2	20.3	.6	4.5	.1
Unemployed	31	a/	29.0	41.9	b/	29.0	b/
Females	855	43.7	39.3	16.5	b/	.4	b/
Working mainly, doing some work regularly, extending help to other household workers, doing some work during leisure hours	785	47.6	36.2	15.8	b/	.2	b/
Unemployed	70	a/	72.9	24.3	b/	2.9	b/

a/ Not applicable.

b/ Zero entries.

Source: UPPI Survey.

working either mainly or regularly, student workers were a substantial proportion.

The data for females was even more revealing. Of the total females actually working, less than half were mainly workers. Slightly

over 36 per cent were primarily housekeepers while 16 per cent were students.

The unemployed among males were drawn from those who were mainly studying or those keeping house or doing nothing. Females not at work but seeking employment were mostly housekeepers (72.9%) but nearly one-fourth were students. The backgrounds of the unemployed will be covered at length in the latter half of Part II.

A Note on Non-Participation

Some mention should be made on those not in the work force. Studying and housekeeping were the main activities of non-work force members (Table 6). Patterns also resemble closely what was observed in the preceding section on work force members other than those mainly working. Nearly two-thirds of inactive males were students compared to 44.8 per cent among females. Keeping house was a predominant activity for females with a little less than half registered in such activity compared to only 12.3 per cent for males. The remainder, amounting to nearly one-fourth of male non-workers, were mostly enumerated as doing "nothing" or already retired in contrast to much lower proportions for females.

What is notable was the large proportion enumerated as "doing nothing" especially for males. It is quite likely that aside from respondents who actually answered "nothing" or "no activity", interviewers or coders may have used these same entries for those with

Table 6. POPULATION NOT IN WORK FORCE BY ACTIVITY

Activity	Both Sexes		Males		Females	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Housekeeping	148	34.9	19	12.3	129	47.8
Studying	220	51.9	99	64.3	121	44.8
Retired	13	3.1	9	5.8	4	1.5
Doing nothing	43	10.1	27	17.5	16	5.9
Total	424	100.0	154	100.0	270	100.0

Source: UPPI Survey.

incomplete information.[22] It is also possible that subjective judgements of field workers or coders regarding these two categories favored males more considering that the other categories of inactivity tend to be linked either to a traditional sex role ("housekeeping" is mainly for women) or a definite inactive state like retirement.

Table 7 reflects further the differentials between the sexes in terms of non-participation in the work force. Relatively greater proportions of females than males can be noted as non-workers even if one considers an urban or a rural environment.

The UPPI data, however, also suggests that the percentage of non-workers in each sex is relatively greater for urban areas. The NCSO February 1975 labor force survey of households gives a similar pattern

[22] This is in addition to those for which no information whatsoever could be obtained as these persons (10 years of age and over) were absent or unavailable for interview.

Table 7. Percentage of the Population not in the Work Force by Sex, Locale and Relationship to the Household Head

Locale and Sex	Relationship to Household Head				
	Total	Head	Spouse	Children	Others
Urban					
Both Sexes	25.0	10.3	23.5	30.1	30.6
Males	18.5	9.2	a/	25.8	21.6
Females	30.4	20.0	23.5	33.7	37.1
Rural					
Both Sexes	16.5	5.6	10.9	23.8	29.8
Males	13.0	3.8	a/	18.6	23.9
Females	20.0	18.6	11.0	24.7	35.5
Total					
Both Sexes	19.4	7.0	14.8	24.4	30.1
Males	14.8	5.4	a/	20.8	23.0
Females	23.7	19.0	14.9	28.2	36.2

a/ Zero entries

Source: UPPI Survey.

for males (Table 8). Only the data for females vary, as the labor force surveys (NCSO,1968-1977) usually show that the proportion of non-workers among rural females is usually higher. The NCSO February 1975 survey, for example, gives a figure of 71.1 per cent non-work force members for rural females compared to 64.5 per cent for urban women.

These comparisons illustrate further the results of the UPPI's attempts to improve the measurement of participation. The rural-urban pattern for females in the UPPI survey is to be expected as more work force participants were included in the count and this consequently depressed the computed percentage of non-workers.

Table 8. Household Population 10 Years Old and Over by Employment Status, Sex and Urban-Rural Location

Work Force Status	Both Sexes	Males	Females
Total			
In the Labor force	49.3	67.9	31.3
Not in the Labor Force	50.7	32.1	68.7
Urban			
In the Labor Force	46.8	60.0	35.5
Not in the Labor Force	53.2	40.0	64.5
Rural			
In the Labor Force	50.6	71.5	28.9
Not in the Labor Force	49.4	28.5	71.1

Source: NCSO NSSH Bulletin, February 1975.

Differentials in Participation by Selected Socio-Demographic Characteristics

Socio-demographic composition in the work force (as measured in the UPPI survey) is shown in Table 9. Generally speaking, the work force enumerated in February 1975 was young, with over half within the ages 10-29 and around 30 per cent in their thirties or forties. This young age distribution and the substantial proportions in their thirties or forties somewhat reflect the young and pyramidal age structure of the Philippine population.

The NCSO data for the same period varies in the sense that those in their prime working ages, or 25-44 years of age, constitute the bulk of the labor force (Table 10). This is especially the case for males considering the actual number involved and that the percentages comprised by urban and rural females in the ages 10-24 and 25-44 are not as widely apart. Prime aged males also comprised the majority of the labor force in the Philippines (NCSO, 1956 to date) as well as in most less developed countries (UN-ESCAP, 1976, Yearbook of Labor Statistics, 1977). It should be pointed out that this group tends to be traditional work force participants, being mostly breadwinners, hence easiest to enumerate. What is not often apparent is the participation of those who are not primarily workers, as in the case of those expected to be studying, in retirement due to old age or performing mainly housekeeping chores.

Composition in the work force with respect to relationship to head were closely linked to sex: the UPPI data for both locales (Table 9) showed that household heads were mostly males while spouses of heads mostly females. Similar distributions for males can also be inferred from the NCSO labor force surveys especially for 1975.[23]

---

[23] The NCSO labor force data is available only for "heads" and "non-heads" of households (NCSO, February 1975).

Table 9. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORK FORCE MEMBERS BY SELECTED SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS
(Column % Distribution)[a]

Characteristics	Males		Females		Both Sexes	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
(n cases)	269	613	289	556	558	1179
Age	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
10 - 19	25.3	29.8	28.4	23.5	26.9	28.2
20 - 29	24.1	25.4	26.0	24.9	25.1	25.2
30 - 39	17.1	15.3	18.0	17.1	17.6	16.2
40 - 49	15.6	10.8	13.8	12.5	14.7	11.6
50 - 59	10.4	8.8	8.6	8.1	9.5	8.5
60+	7.4	9.8	5.2	10.8	6.3	10.3
Relationship to Head	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Head	44.4	46.0	4.4	6.3	24.2	27.1
Spouse	b/	.2	37.0	46.5	18.7	22.3
Children	40.7	42.9	42.5	36.5	41.6	39.9
Others	14.9	10.9	16.1	10.7	15.5	10.8
Marital Status	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Single	44.2	46.6	48.6	41.7	46.5	44.3
Ever-married	55.8	53.4	51.4	58.3	53.5	55.7
Currently married	54.7	51.8	47.9	52.5	51.2	53.6
Widowed, divorced, separated	1.1	1.8	3.5	4.8	2.4	3.1
Education	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No Schooling	2.2	7.5	3.6	10.6	2.7	9.0
Elementary	37.3	53.5	39.9	58.9	38.6	56.1
High School	37.3	30.9	32.9	19.8	35.0	25.3
College+	23.1	8.0	24.1	10.6	23.7	9.2
Training	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No training	77.2	84.5	78.9	81.0	78.1	82.8
With training	22.8	15.6	21.1	19.0	21.9	17.2

a/ Items in italics refer to numerators numbering less than 20.

b/ Zero entries.

Source: UPPI Survey.

The distribution of male work force members regarding marital status resembled closely the data from NCSO labor force survey: over half of male workers in urban as well as rural areas were ever-married. The UPPI data for females varied substantially as such showed that ever-married female workers in each locale constitute a majority in contrast to NCSO labor force data where such a pattern prevailed only for rural women. Never-married female workers usually form a large bulk of the urban female work force (NCSO February 1975 survey).

Female as well as male workers in the UPPI survey were concentrated in the two middle education categories. Rural females appeared to occupy the lowest end of the hierarchy: over 10 per cent had no schooling while nearly 60 per cent were in the "elementary" category. However, the proportion of rural females with some college education exceeded that of rural males. These distributions by sex resemble closely those of the NCSO for October 1965 (then BCS, Survey of Households Bulletin Series No. 19). The only difference is that the 1965 data is characterised by large proportions of the male and female rural workers with no schooling for exceeding even the share of those with some college education.

Table 10. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE LABOR FORCE BY AGE, SEX AND LOCALE

Characteristics	Males		Females		Both Sexes	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
n cases (in thousands)	2,702	6,999	1,874	2,712	4,575	9,711
Age	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
10-24	25.0	33.6	40.3	34.5	31.3	33.9
25-44	48.8	41.7	42.9	39.1	46.4	41.0
45-64	23.2	21.2	15.1	23.0	19.9	21.7
65+	3.0	3.5	1.6	3.4	2.4	3.4

Source: NCSO February 1975 Labor Force Survey.

Having some training was also a characteristic found to prevail more among urban dwellers in the UPPI sample. Findings to some extent reflect differential access as most educational establishments and training centers tend to be urban-based.

Participation rates for these specific socio-demographic groups are seen on Table 11. The following are the highlights:

1. Locale

Although participation rates in the UPPI study are higher than those derived from standard estimates, the pattern by sex and locale tended to follow existing findings using labor force data (ESCAP, 1976; Zosa, 1977). On the whole, rural residents exhibited participation rates higher than those of urbanites. Males also exhibited higher rates than females regardless of the setting where participation takes place.

The only other difference that can be noted was the tendency for rural females to be more economically active than females in urban areas. This finding also runs contrary to those found in the Labor Force surveys where the February 1975 figure for rural females is only 28.9 per cent compared to 35.5 for urban females. However, it is quite likely that given the family arrangements surrounding performance of economic activities especially in rural areas, more probing needs to be done (in a manner similar to the UPPI survey) to ascertain participation.[24]

---

[24] Rural labor force data for females usually tend to be low and at times suspect. See Concepcion (1974) for some discussion on its usability especially in the Philippine context.

Table 11. PARTICIPATION RATES ACROSS DIFFERENT GROUPS: UPPI SURVEY, FEBRUARY 1975[a]

Characteristics	Males		Females		Both Sexes	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
	(Per Cent)					
TOTAL	80.8	87.0	70.3	80.2	75.0	83.6
Age (Years)						
10 - 19	64.2	73.5	55.0	68.5	58.8	71.2
20 - 29	89.0	95.9	78.9	90.4	83.3	93.7
30 - 39	93.9	98.9	91.2	89.8	92.4	94.1
40 - 49	97.6	97.1	83.3	87.6	90.1	91.9
50 - 59	84.8	94.7	65.8	85.2	74.6	90.1
60+	69.0	81.1	*62.5*	69.3	66.0	74.7
Relationship to Household Head						
Head	90.8	96.2	*80.0*	81.4	89.7	94.4
Spouse	b/	*100.0*	76.5	89.0	76.5	89.1
Children	74.2	81.4	66.3	75.3	69.9	78.6
Others	78.4	76.1	62.9	64.5	69.4	70.2
Marital Status						
Single	69.8	78.7	63.8	74.4	66.4	76.7
Ever-married	92.0	95.9	77.4	84.8	84.1	90.0
Education						
No Schooling	*54.6*	80.7	*50.0*	71.4	51.7	75.2
Elementary (1-7)	74.6	85.8	67.9	81.2	70.9	83.4
High School (1-4)	90.1	89.6	69.1	76.7	78.5	84.3
College (1+)	81.6	90.7	81.2	92.3	81.4	91.6
Training						
No training	77.8	86.4	68.3	78.9	72.5	82.8
With training	92.4	89.6	79.2	85.6	85.3	87.4

a/ Items in italics refer to cases numbering less than 20

b/ None belonged to category in the sample

Source: UPPI Survey.

2. Age

Table 11 presents age-sex specific work force participation rates by locale. As in the total, high levels prevailed across the ages.

Participation by age for both males and females as gleaned from the UPPI survey tended to follow a definite pattern: relatively low participation in the younger ages, high levels of participation in the middle age groups where a peak emerges, followed by a gradual decline. This pattern is universal for males regardless of the level of urbanization (UN, 1962; 1968 and 1975). It was noted for Philippine males using 1960 and 1970 data on detailed age-specific labor force participation rates (Zosa, 1977; UNFPA-NCSO, 1977).[25]

These same sources, however, will attest to a lack of a defined pattern for females. Use of detailed age breakdowns often revealed relatively low levels especially at the twenties yet notable increases towards the forties,[26] a pattern oftentimes linked to the role of childbearing. Unfortunately, data from this survey did not permit very detailed age distributions and some of the more important relationships may be clouded here.[27] What can only be emphasized from the UPPI study is that age-specific levels for females in both rural and urban areas are much higher than those derived using the standard approach For

---

[25] Refer to labor force data from the 1960 and 1970 Philippine Censuses of Population and Housing (BCS, 1965 and NCSO 1974).

[26] Findings from the 1960 and 1970 censuses show such patterns for females (NCSO, 1974 and Zosa, 1977).

[27] The same problem could be noted in the NCSO labor force surveys considering that broad age groupings are used.

example, the NCSO February 1975 survey has peak figures hardly exceeding 40 per cent for rural females or 50 per cent for urban women.

The data revealed two other noteworthy items aside from the rather high levels of participation:

a) Participation of young and elderly rural residents tended to be very high. The gradient for the extreme age groups (10-19 and 60+) is very consistent; the highest levels are registered by rural males, followed first by rural females, then by urban males while urban females displayed the lowest participation rates (although the rates for urban females were still higher compared to those obtained from standard labor force enumeration procedures). The depressing effect of urbanization-related variables like education or schooling, organization of economic activities easing early entry into and delayed exit from the work force, etc. may be the primary factors that could explain lower participation among urban residents belonging to the extreme age groups. The "urban" effect appears significant considering that low levels of participation for the young and the elderly prevailed consistently for urban residents and levels registered by urban males for ages 10-19 and over 60 were even lower than those computed for rural females. The sex differential emerged only within each locale.

b) The peak age of participation varied. Rural female residents experienced earlier peaks than other types of residents while urban males occupied the other end of the continuum.

3. Relationship to Head

Heads and their spouses exhibited rather high participation rates although males showed the higher levels. Females in rural areas, however, showed an interesting pattern as female spouses registered higher levels of activity than female heads.[28] This latter finding is contrary to expectations. It is quite likely that results reflect sampling variations. It is also possible that findings imply certain economic socio-cultural arrangements in households headed by females (e.g. economic support for widows given by her working children, her original family or husband's relations). This is an area of research where very little is known.

Participation in both urban and rural areas tended to diminish as one went down the household "hierarchy" and out of the frame of the nuclear family. However, the sex differential -- males registering higher rates in each category than females -- prevailed in each locale.

4. Marital Status

In accordance with culturally defined roles, married men tended to be more economically active than never married males. While this

---

[28] Unfortunately, comparable figures for females are not available from existing NCSO publications.

is to be expected of males, what was rather unexpected and contrary to existing findings using the standard approach (e.g., Zosa, 1977) was that this held also for females in both urban and rural areas.

This finding followed the pattern above on relationship to head considering that married women are either heads or mostly spouses of household heads. The burden of economic activity appeared to fall more heavily on married individuals than those never married. This burden tended to prevail regardless of where one resided, although rural ever-married women tended to have higher levels of participation than their urban counterparts.

5. Education

Overall, labor force participation was directly related to educational attainment. This finding was especially true for urban women and rural men. Urban males and rural females varied somewhat as the former showed a direct relationship up to the high school level but a sudden drop in the highest category. The latter were characterized by higher participation among those with some elementary education compared to those with high school or no schooling background.

In contrast, the pattern suggested by an earlier labor force survey providing participation rates for specific education categories (October 1965) is some U-shaped curve wherein those with no schooling and with college education register higher levels of participation than those in the middle categories. This can be said of males from both locales as well as of rural women (Table 12).

6. Training

Like education, training was an important impetus to be economically active. This was noted for males and females residing in urban and rural communities. Training, however, appeared to be a minor inducement for urban females to be economically active.

As a reminder, it should be stressed here that while a large proportion of the population have experienced at least some formal schooling, only a mere handful have availed of vocational or technical training schemes.

Table 12. LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES BY EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT, SEX AND LOCALE

Education Categories	Males		Females		Both Sexes	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
No Schooling	72.3	84.6	35.1	46.1	48.1	63.3
Elementary Grades	60.2	73.7	35.1	32.1	46.4	53.1
High School	67.2	62.8	33.3	24.7	50.9	46.8
College and above	77.3	73.5	55.8	48.9	67.[illegible]	60.9

SOURCE: NCSO (formerly BCS Survey of Households)
Labor Force Bulletin, October 1965.

Summary

Three major items are noted here:

1. The data suggest that a large portion of the population are actually economically active.
2. Rural males and females tend to exhibit greater levels of economic activity than urban counterparts. This is the pattern even when age, marital status (using broad categories), relationship to head (except for "others" among rural males), education or training are controlled.
3. Participation of males is higher than for females. Nevertheless, females in their married state especially as spouses or heads show noticeable tendency to be economically active.

Table 13. EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WORK FORCE

Status	Both Sexes		Males		Females	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Work Force 10+	1738	100.0	883	100.0	855	100.0
Unemployed	101	5.8	31	3.5	70	8.2
Employed	1637	94.2	852	96.5	785	91.8

SOURCE: UPPI Survey.

However, a comparison of the two sources reveal that figures for males are exactly the same and what stands out as the big difference is the female unemployment rate derived from the UPPI survey which did not impose the NCSO requirement of fulltime employment. As stated above, the October 1968 modification of the definition of unemployment may affect females more adversely.

The table shows that over eight per cent of the female work force were looking for work. While some of the differences between results here and in other surveys can be accounted for by difference in coverage (discussed above), the high unemployment rates for females suggested by the UPPI data need to be looked into more closely.

Differentials in Unemployment

Table 14 contains unemployment rates for selected work force subgroups. Caution, however, should be made in interpretation of results especially as one goes to sub-groups considering the small sample sizes per category (refer to a number of italicized unemployment rates on Table 14).

Table 14. UNEMPLOYMENT RATES ACROSS SELECTED SOCIO-ECONOMIC GROUPS, BY SEX AND LOCALE[a/]
(February 1975)

ITEMS	MALE		FEMALE		BOTH SEXES	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
	(Per Cent)					
TOTAL	4.5	3.7	12.8	5.8	8.8	4.4
Age						
10 - 19	5.9	5.5	19.5	7.3	13.3	6.3
20 - 29	7.7	5.1	16.0	9.0	12.1	7.4
30 - 39	2.2	1.1	5.8	5.2	4.1	3.1
40 - 49	2.4	b/	12.5	1.4	7.3	0.7
50+	2.1	b/	2.5	1.7	2.3	0.9
Relationship to Household Head						
Head	0.8	b/	16.7	4.7	2.3	0.5
Spouse	b/	b/	7.9	3.5	7.9	3.4
Children	6.4	5.7	17.2	5.9	12.0	5.8
Others	10.0	6.0	15.1	16.7	12.5	11.0
Marital Status						
Never married	7.6	6.3	15.1	7.6	11.7	6.9
Ever married	2.0	0.3	4.7	4.3	6.4	2.5
Education						
No schooling	b/	2.2	b/	1.7	b/	1.9
Elementary	7.0	1.5	17.0	9.2	8.4	2.7
High School	7.0	3.3	13.0	10.7	9.8	8.0
College 1+	6.4	4.1	11.5	10.0	9.2	7.3
Training						
No training	2.4	2.2	14.9	5.2	9.0	3.5
With training	11.5	4.2	4.9	8.3	8.2	6.4

a/ Items in italics refer to numerators numbering less than 20.

b/ Zero entries.

Source: UPPI Survey

1. Locale

The data by locale reveals the tendency for rural areas to have much lower unemployment rates than urban areas. This pattern consistently emerges if one compares the urban-rural levels for each sex and can also be noted from the NCSO figures for the same month (Table 15). This is to be expected considering the informal structure and arrangement of economic activities in rural areas and the high absorptive capacity of rural-based occupations, especially those which are farm-related.

Nevertheless, unemployment rates for females stood out as rather high in the UPPI study. Urban women who were looking for work constituted nearly 13 per cent of the urban female work force compared to about half of this level registered for rural women or to much lower levels for males. These unemployment rates for females are also higher than the figures registered by the NCSO labor force survey (Table 15).

2. Age

The computed mean ages of the unemployed in the UPPI study show young average ages for both males and females (23.5 years for males compared to 24.9 for females). However, while the highest unemployment rates were found among the young, the sex differential in levels was very conspicuous. High unemployment rates for females in urban and rural areas persisted even when one goes to specific age groups. Unemployment was most pronounced among young urban women with nearly one out of every five looking for work in February 1975. The urban unemployment problem may have been very much highlighted especially for this group since the urban definition here is more restricted as it refers to cities only. Nevertheless, even the

Table 15. UNEMPLOYMENT RATES FOR SELECTED GROUPS FROM THE NCSO FEBRUARY 1975 SURVEY[a]

ITEMS	MALE		FEMALE		BOTH SEXES	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
TOTAL	7.5	1.9	5.1	3.2	6.5	2.3
Age						
10-24	17.4	3.3	9.1	6.8	12.5	4.3
25-44	4.6	1.	3.3	1.4	4.1	1.0
45-64	3.5	.5	2.1	1.1	3.1	.7
65+	1.3	.4	0.7	1.1	2.7	.0
Relationship to Household Head						
Head	3.2	.7	2.4	1.3	3.1	.7
Non-head	14.3	3.8	5.4	3.4	8.7	3.0
Marital Status						
Never married	15.8	3.9	6.9	6.3	11.0	4.6
Ever married	3.7	.8	3.1	1.5	3.4	1.1

[a] Derived from selected tables on employment status from the NCSO February 1975 Labor Force Survey. Figures may vary from the actual NCSO data as a result of rounding.

NCSO figures for the same month show that young urban women tend to have the highest unemployment rates although the latter data source suggest that young urban males were similarly affected by high unemployment rates.

Age-specific urban unemployment rates for females seemed to proceed along the reproductive cycle; high in the youngest age group, declining to a low in the thirties and rising again in the forties. The pattern was different among rural females as it rose only in the twenties. It should be noted that both the NCSO and UPPI data sets show somewhat similar age patterns by locale for females.

3. Relationship to Head

The high unemployment rates among urban females compared to rural females or to males in the UPPI survey was pervasive even when relationship to head is taken into account. Urban females who were either heads of their households or found in the last 2 household "hierarchy" categories registered rates over 15 per cent. Urban wives, constituting a substantial number in such areas, also exhibited high unemployment rates although such were lower than those of other urban females. It is quite likely that the household structure prevailing in urban areas may not always free wives for active participation or job-seeking.

Relatively lower proportions seeking work can be noted for rural females except for those in the "others" category. This pattern also shows that while a substantial proportion of rural women may be actively involved in economic activities, lower proportions were actually seeking work compared to urban counterparts.

4. Marital Status

As a rule, those who have never been married -- regardless of sex or locale -- have much higher unemployment rates than those ever-married. This can be seen from the NCSO and UPPI surveys. The differential is very pronounced for urban women in the UPPI sample, with a level of 15.1 per cent for the unmarried compared to less than five per cent for those ever married.

The results may show a demographic effect considering that a majority of single individuals are young, many of whom are new entrants to the work force. It is also quite likely that married work force members are constrained to accept any form of work while those never married, having lesser responsibilities regarding family support, can opt to do some more job-seeking.

5. Education[29]

The sex differential in unemployment becomes highlighted once more when educational attainment is controlled. The largest proportions looking for work belonged to urban women, with elementary graders (1 - VII) registering the highest unemployment rate (14.9%) and the pattern declining only slightly as educational level increases (11.0 for those in the college 1+ category).

Rural women with some or completed elementary education had rather low proportions unemployed. However, high unemployment rates were noted for rural women with some high school or college education. This pattern also held for men of both locales with high schoolers having the largest proportions unemployed. Results manifest once more that medium and high-level manpower in the Philippines tend to have high unemployment

---

[29] No comparable statistics on education or training are available from the NCSO publication on the February 1976 labor force survey.

rates (Mijares and Tidalgo, 1971; Raymundo, 1972).

6. Training

As shown above, males of both locales and rural females with some technical or vocational training registered relatively higher participation rates than those with no training. The data show that relatively large proportions among these persons -- especially urban males and rural females -- were unemployed during the survey.

Urban women with some training, though registering low participation rates, were relatively better off compared to other females. Unemployment rates, however, were extremely high for female urban residents without any training.

Summary

1. High unemployment rates could be noted for urban areas and for females. Urban women need to be singled out, especially the young, the never married and the untrained, or even those with some elementary education or higher. Even controlling for relationship to head, unemployment rates persisted especially for urban females other than spouses of the head.

2. Unemployment was high for rural women in their twenties, in the "others" category of relationship to head, among those with some high school or college education or some training.

3. Unemployment among men was not as pervasive but it affected more the young, the never-married, the trained and better educated especially in urban areas.

Part III. UNDERUTILIZATION

The scheme used for this study entails that the work force should first be delineated to provide the overall framework. This was done in the preceding section which was then followed by an examination of the "unemployed." Only afterwards are the "employed" focused on to determine underutilization.

The UPPI survey provides a rich source of data on participation and utilization of workers in the Philippine context. In a way, the exploratory survey aimed at enumerating and describing more closely those types of workers where marginality and underutilization tend to occur.

A. Underutilization by Hours of Work

Definition

Considered as inadequately utilized by hours of work are those who worked less than the "normal" work hours but who sought more work (Hauser, 1974). This concept of underutilization is the same as the NCSO category of "visibly underemployed" comprising less than full-time workers reported as wanting additional work (see Explanatory Texts of NSSH Bulletins).

Data on Hours Input and Limitations

The questions on how respondents spent an ordinary day, weekends, etc., entailed logging in of responses in tables where

Levels of Underutilization by Hours

The percentage of underutilization by hours input is obtained by:

$$\frac{\text{Persons working less than the normal working hours and desiring more work}}{\text{Work Force}} \times 100\%$$

The definition of "normal" fulltime working hours proved a problem. Mijares and Tidalgo (1971), for example, recognized the "arbitrariness" involved especially as government workers have a 40-hour weekly work schedule compared to 45-hour average per week for non-government employees. Experimentations on the Hauser approach applied to Philippine data (Domingo, 1973) used the 40-hour per week norm, but Domingo's study was confined to male respondents only. The possibility of a different female norm emerged in the UPPI survey especially as a number of female workers reported either shorter or very indefinite work hours (Table 16). Experimentation was done on a "norm" using average work hours for those reporting a definite time. Average work hours for males was 47.1 while that for females was 35.6. The computed mean figure for females proved a problem as this average falls under "hours of work" category 30-39 which registered the lowest proportion among female workers (Table 16). The distribution, however, showed that the largest proportion of workers for both locales and sexes worked 40 hours or more. This is very similar to the results from the NCSO quarterly labor force survey held in February 1975 where four out of every five employed males and two-thirds of all employed females worked 40 hours or more during survey week. The 40-hours per week norm was eventually used as standard for the underutilization analysis.

Previous Page Blank
Best Available Document

Table 16. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKING POPULATION BY SEX, HOURS OF WORK AND LOCALE

Locale and Sex	Total		Hours of Work					
	N Cases	%	1-9	10-19	20-29	30-39	40+	Indef.
Urban	471	100.0	14.0	11.0	11.0	6.2	54.4	3.4
Males	242	100.0	12.0	8.3	8.7	5.8	61.2	4.1
Females	229	100.0	16.1	14.0	13.5	6.6	47.2	3.0
Rural	1046	100.0	14.5	13.5	10.4	8.5	51.1	1.9
Males	571	100.0	12.4	10.2	8.4	7.0	60.9	1.0
Females	475	100.0	17.5	1[illegible].8	12.8	10.3	39.4	2.9

Source: UPPI Survey.

Table 17. POPULATION WORKING LESS THAN FULL TIME AND WANTING ADDITIONAL WORK[a]

Locale	Both Sexes			Males			Females		
	(n)	% of WF	% of LFTW	(n)	% of WF	% of LFTW	(n)	% of WF	% of LFTW
Total	461	26.9	63.5	199	22.[illegible]	62.8	262	31.5	64.1
Urban	145	26.8	67.4	63	23.5	67.0	82	30.0	67.[illegible]
Rural	316	27.0	61.8	136	22.2	61.0	180	32.2	6[illegible].5

[a] WF = Work force; LFTW = less than full time workers

Source: UPPI Survey.

Table 17 shows that slightly over one-fourth of the work force in both urban and rural areas worked less than full time and wanted more work. The sex differential, however, was rather pronounced as this involved greater numbers and proportions of the female work force. The UPPI data also shows that the situation appeared most pronounced among rural women with nearly two-thirds of their work force visibly underemployed. Similar observations can be made on the percentages visibly underemployed from the NCSO labor force survey conducted in February 1975. This sex differential varies from an earlier observation of Mijares and Tidalgo (1971) that visible underemployment is more prevalent among men. It is quite possible that this is a newly emerging pattern as evidenced from the quarterly force series.

Tables 16 and 17 also show the problem of underutilization in another dimension. Allowing for a portion working indefinite hours, those working less than full time for both sexes amounted to about forty per cent in urban areas and over fifty per cent in rural areas. Over 60 per cent of these less than full time workers, regardless of sex or locale, expressed desire for additional employment. The shorter work hours was not voluntary on the part of most individuals but due more to job scarcity (Mijares and Tidalgo, 1971).

Compared to levels noted in various country experiments on the Hauser approach and Philippine data (Domingo, 1974; Mijares and Ordinario, 1973; NCSO, 1975), the visible underemployment levels noted here are very much higher. The NCSO figures for February 1975 amount to only around five per cent for males in urban and rural areas, four per cent for urban females and a higher 6.4 per cent for rural women. This was expected as the enumeration

technique of the UPPI survey aimed at covering more closely marginal work force participants.

Demographic Differentials in Underutilization by Hours of Work

Table 18 shows proportions underutilized by hours across specific demographic groups. In addition to higher underutilization rates than those obtained from existing statistics, the following are the findings:

1. Age[30]

Underutilization by hours for males tended to follow an inverse pattern as age increased, although males in the oldest age groups for both rural and urban areas registered large proportions visibly underemployed. A different pattern emerged for females. Underutilization rates for women in the younger ages are initially at levels lower than those for males in their corresponding areas of enumeration. Thereafter, the levels for females exceed those for males. Women in their thirties or forties registered the highest proportions working less than full time but wanting more work among all population groups in the UPPI sample.

2. Relationship to Head

Following the pattern on age distribution, children in both urban and rural households appeared to be the main group among males who registered the highest proportions underutilized by hours. Underutilization by hours tended to have wider spread among women: it was especially high for urban

[30] The published tabulations of the NCSO February 1975 labor force survey does not provide breakdowns by age for those visibly underemployed.

Table 18. PERCENTAGE WORKING LESS THAN FULL-TIME AND WANTING ADDITIONAL WORK, BY DEMOGRAPHIC GROUPS[a]

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS	MALE		FEMALE		BOTH SEXES	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Age						
10 - 19	30.9	37.2	17.1	25.0	23.3	32.1
20 - 29	20.9	18.6	25.3	29.8	22.9	22.9
30 - 39	15.2	11.7	36.5	45.4	26.5	26.8
40 - 49	13.7	7.8	34.5	31.0	24.4	19.7
50+	18.3	14.7	27.8	22.4	22.7	18.4
Relationship to Head						
Head	16.0	11.4	41.7	43.9	18.3	12.5
Spouse	b/	b/	35.6	37.3	35.6	37.2
Children	31.2	31.6	17.2	27.0	24.0	29.5
Others	10.0	22.4	34.1	18.5	22.6	29.5
Marital Status						
Single	29.7	31.9	18.7	23.0	23.7	27.9
Ever-married	14.8	11.9	34.0	35.7	24.3	23.3

a/ Percentage underutilized by hours$_i$ = $\frac{\text{Persons working less than the normal working hours and desiring work}_i}{\text{Work Force}_i} \cdot 100$

b/ Zero entries.

Source: UPPI Survey.

and rural wives, and also for urban heads, rural children and even those in the last group, the underutilization by hours derived here for wives are higher compared to those obtained by Smith and Domingo (1976) on labor force data from the May [illegible] quarterly survey.

3. Marital Status[31]

The data for marital status supports what has been noted above. Never married males, usually found in the younger ages and among children of heads, registered larger proportions visibly underutilized. In contrast, visible underemployment was very high among ever-married females. These patterns were the same for both urban and rural areas.

---

[31] The published tabulations of the NCSO February 1975 labor force survey does not provide breakdowns by marital status for those visibly underemployed.

Best Available Document

B. Invisible Underutilization Using Hours of Work as Criterion

Definition

Invisible underutilization by work hours or invisible underemployment is a construct applied to full time workers desiring more work. Operationally, it embraces those working 40 hours or more per week and who are either looking for or wanting an additional economic activity. This is also based on the same data set and questions used in determining those visibly underutilized and are subject to similar limitations.

Levels of Invisible Underutilization

Invisible underutilization by hours of work is computed by:

$$\frac{\text{Full-time workers desiring more work}}{\text{Work Force}} \times 100\%$$

Tables 19 and 20 show that the proportions visibly and invisibly underutilized by hours in the UPPI survey tended to be about the same for the total population. It appears, however, that visible underutilization by hours affected relatively more females than males. In direct contrast, invisible underutilization comprised a larger proportion

Table 19. POPULATION WORKING FULL-TIME AND WANTING ADDITIONAL WORK[a]

Locale	Both Sexes			Males			Females		
	n	% of WF	% of FTW	n	% of WF	% of FTW	n	% of WF	% of FTW
Total	424	30.2	66.2	343	38.7	69.2	181	21.2	61.4
Urban	177	31.7	69.1	104	38.9	70.3	73	25.3	67.3
Rural	347	29.4	64.9	239	38.3	68.7	108	19.1	57.3

[a]WF = Work force
FTW = Full time workers

Source: UPPI Survey.

among males. Male full-time workers seeking additional work amounted to about 38 per cent of the work force in each locale compared to around 19-25 per cent for female workers, with urban women registering the higher rates. Visible underutilization levels showed the opposite pattern as females registered rates around 30 per cent while the estimated rates for males hovered around 22 per cent.

Like the levels for visible underutilization, the percentages invisibly underutilized obtained from the UPPI survey are much higher than those obtained from the NCSO labor force survey in February 1975. The percentages invisibly underemployed from the latter amounted to 6.3 and 2.[illegible] per cent for urban males and females respectively, while the rural rates were 4.9 and 2.8 for males and females respectively. Despite the difference in levels between the two surveys, the pattern of higher percentages invisibly underutilized among males compared to females can also be noted in the NCSO survey.

Demographic Differentials in Invisible Underutilization[32]

The distribution of workers invisibly underutilized by hours across specific demographic groups is shown in Table 20.

Age

The levels by age and sex also give greater proportions of male full-time workers seeking additional work. In addition, the male pattern by age tended to be low in the extreme ages and to peak in the thirties.

---

[32] The published tabulations of the NCSO February 1975 labor force survey do not provide detailed information on invisible underemployment rates.

Table 20. PERCENTAGE OF FULL-TIME WORKERS DESIRING ADDITIONAL WORK BY DEMOGRAPHIC GROUPS[a]

Selected Characteristics	Male		Female		Both Sexes	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Age						
10 - 19	16.2	14.8	13.4	10.7	14.7	12.9
20 - 29	46.2	50.0	42.7	23.4	44.3	37.4
30 - 39	63.0	61.7	34.6	22.7	48.0	41.9
40 - 49	45.2	60.6	15.3	29.6	30.5	44.5
50+	31.2	30.2	15.0	13.0	23.9	22.9
Relationship to Head						
Head	45.4	53.6	8.5	14.3	42.0	49.2
Spouse	b/	b/	18.8	19.2	18.8	19.2
Children	25.7	25.5	30.2	20.1	28.0	23.1
Others	55.0	31.3	40.9	20.0	47.6	25.0
Marital Status						
Single	24.6	25.3	30.2	20.4	27.6	23.1
Ever-married	50.3	51.1	21.1	18.3	35.8	34.7

a/ Percentage Invisibly Underutilized $_i$ = $\frac{\text{Full-time workers desiring additional work}_i}{\text{Work Force}_i} \times 100$

b/ Zero entries

Source: UPPI Survey.

Invisible underutilization appeared to be highest for males in the prime productive ages (age group 20-49).

Not only did females manifest lower proportions invisibly underutilized by hours of work, their patterns by age and locale also varied. The age pattern of invisible underutilization among urban females resembled those for males except that relatively high levels were concentrated in a narrower range (age grouping 20-39) with a peak in the twenties. Two out of every five females workers aged 20-29 in urban areas were noted as invisibly underemployed in the UPPI survey.

In contrast, rural females exhibit the lowest proportions seeking additional economic activity among full-time workers. While the rates follow the pattern of low participation in the extreme ages and relatively higher rates in the middle age groups, the proportions varied only slightly among the middle age groups with a very low peak at ages 40-49. Nevertheless, the specific rates for females here are much higher than the 2-3 per cent invisibly underemployed given by the NCSO February 1975 Labor Force Survey.

Relationship to Head

Relative to other groups in the UPPI survey, the lowest proportions desiring more work among full time workers are noted among female heads (especially for urban areas). However, the largest proportions seeking more work in the various female work force can be found among urban residents other than heads or wives. The pattern for female heads and wives is expected given their other roles and responsibilities in the household. Rural women other than female heads show nearly equal invisible underutilization rates of around 20 per cent.

In contrast, male heads in urban and rural areas registered very high proportions invisibly underutilized by hours. Other male household members working full time also show high propensity to seek or want more work.

Marital Status

The need to seek an additional economic activity is especially manifest among ever-married male fulltime workers, as about 50 per cent wanted more work during survey date. In contrast, the proportions of full time workers desiring additional work amounted to about one-fifth among ever-married females in both locales. Those never-married of both sexes and locale registered rates within the range of 20-30 per cent.

C. Underutilization by Educational Levels or Training

Description of measurement used

Harbison and Myers (1964) pointed out that utilization of accumulated human capital is a major development problem. Information on utilization of existing human resources, however, is rather limited. Even its measurement is a problem. Initially, this study started with Hauser's underutilization scheme as the main guideline. Such scheme entails matching education and occupation to determine a type of underutilization wherein workers are in occupations not commensurate to their level of training. While theoretically sound, operationalization is a problem. Researchers experimenting on the Hauser approach in Indonesia opted to leave off the mismatch category (Redmana, et.al., 1977). Philippine researchers (Domingo, 1974; Smith and Domingo, 1976) were forced to use mean educational level (years of schooling) within an occupational category as standard. These researchers, however, issued a warning on the arbitrariness of their scheme.

Attempts were made for this present study to arrive at some form of guideline for matching education/training and occupation. Outright matching could be made only for very specific high-level occupations that usually need licensing, hence for a very small group (Sullivan, 1975). Another attempt involved going back to the Domingo-Smith use of mean years of schooling cross-classified by a rating scale of occupations. However, rating scales of occupations usually use education as a main criterion (Bacol, 1971; Pullum, 1971) and circularity results when matching is made. Mean years of schooling

was also criticized as being too relative; changes in educational distributions can easily affect estimations of averages.

An examination of the distribution of highest grade attained (transformed into "normal" schooling years, e.g. Grades VI-VII were coded "06", Fourth Year High School as "10") for broad and specific occupational categories other than the "Professional and Upper Technical" group revealed very diverse educational backgrounds. The distributions under specific categories of "Sales Workers" for example showed that while certain workers had only some years of elementary education, others had completed high school or even some years of college. "Legal assistants and notaries" included a mixture of those with only an elementary education as well as those who had completed college. Similar distributions were noted for the other occupations as well. Educational attainments prevailing within occupation groups were at times so widely spread that the computed mean years of schooling fell on values for which only a handful of cases were found.

Since such distributions are mainly a result of current labor market conditions along with very varied labor practices and standards, the problem of creating some guideline to determine mismatch remained unsolved. Rather than study mismatch, we resorted back to existing measurements -- visible and invisible underemployment by hours of work -- and looked more closely at educational and training backgrounds. Interrelated reasons are advanced for this. First, available studies have used educational attainment data with unemployment statistics and can be used as basis for comparison (e.g., Mijares and

Tidalgo, 1971; Hijares and Ordinario, 1973). Conceptually, desire or availability for more work should be one of the main criteria for underutilization measurement (Krishna, 1973; Hijares and Tidalgo, 1971). This also makes the measure approximate a parallel to "unemployment" which includes only those desiring participation in the work force. The reader is also reminded that "desiring more work" in this study includes not only those looking for additional work but also wanting but not seeking work.

The use of underutilization by workhours by different educational attainment to measure extent of underutilization by educational level, however, needs to be strongly qualified. There can be other reasons for underutilization by workhours that have nothing to do with mismatch between education and occupation.

Data and Limitations

The main data used in this section are highest educational attainment and whether persons have had some form of training. Both are used as indicators of "skills".

Educational attainment data was obtained by using the standard question "What is the highest grade you have attained?" Responses were subsequently coded into a scheme wherein approximation of the level was made for those attaining a high school education or less (e.g., code "00" for those with no schooling or "10" for fourth year high school) while attempts were made to provide some form of detail on field of specialization for those with college degrees or higher. Unfortunately, those in this latter category constituted a rather

small proportion of the sample. Those belonging to this category were combined with those who have attained some years of college (but undergraduates) to form a category large enough for use in the analysis.

In addition to formal education, another indicator of "skills" is training. "The accumulation of human capital may start with formal education but it does not end there. It is a continuous, life time process, and the knowledge and skills acquired during employment are often as valuable as those acquired in school" (Harbison and Myers, 1964). The International Commission on the Development of Education has also stressed the value of non-formal education schemes or organized learning-centered activities outside the established formal system intended to serve identifiable clientele and objectives (UNESCO, 1972).

The data attempting to measure training was rather vague. The main question asked was whether the person had participated in any training or seminar. Despite the apparent broadness of the question, only a very small proportion of the sample had undertaken some form of training. Such limited cases resulted in very broad analytical categories (agriculture, dressmaking/cosmetology, cottage industry/NACIDA, mechanical/technical, etc.). The data, moreover, was not always clear as to training content [33] or whether these were attained prior to or during employment.

In addition, respondents were asked how they learned to perform the economic activity(ies) they reported. Difficulties were encountered as responses like "experience," "taught by my father," "I just observed what they did," "I grew up in a place where everybody was doing this"

---

[33]For example, it was not easy to distinguish between entries like "dressmaking" and "cottage industry."

were given. These were not always distinguishable from responses like "One does not have to study for this," "Hindi na pinag-aaralan."

An ordered categorization of training proved extremely difficult and the final variable used here is simply whether the person had undertaken training or not.

Education and Training Backgrounds

Educational attainment and training have been discussed above in relation to the unemployed. To recapitulate, those with some high school or college education -- what we labelled medium and high level manpower -- tend to have very high unemployment rates. This was especially the case for women in both urban and rural areas. Even work force members of both sexes who have undertaken some training tended to have high unemployment rates. Urban females with training background, however, tended to be better off (Table 14 above).

What is the picture among the underemployed by hours of work? How does the population, especially women, fare?

1. The Visibly Underutilized by Workhours

Table 21 looks at the distribution of the visibly underutilized by broad categories of education and training. High visible underutilization rates persist for women in urban and rural areas even when educational attainment is controlled. Urban females with no schooling have the highest percentage visibly underemployed (33.3 per cent). Urban women with some elementary or high school education registered slightly lower levels. Women with some years of college had the lowest percentage visibly underemployed among urban women, although the level is higher than the levels for males in various education categories. The underutilization level for urban females with some or completed college education was twice that of urban males in the highest education category, who in turn registered the lowest proportion visibly underemployed for all education groups.

Compared to their female urban counterparts, rural females showed relatively lower proportions underutilized as over 23 per cent were noted among those with no schooling. Rural females with some years of schooling, however, registered levels ranging between 29-32 per cent, with those having some college background registering 30 per cent. It should also be pointed out that like their rural female counterparts, relatively high visible underutilization rates were registered for rural males with some high school or college education. It is quite likely that rural areas may not provide adequate economic opportunities for a number of medium- and high-level manpower, and that such affects both males and females, although there is some evidence here that rural females are at a slight disadvantage (Table 21). One area of research that needs to be looked into is the extent to which underutilization in rural areas may account for labor out-migration, especially female-selective migration.

The pattern of visible underutilization is not very clear when training is considered. Rural females and urban males showed higher proportions seeking additional work among those with no training. Urban females, however, were very conspicuous with 41.0 per cent of their trained work force emerging as visibly underemployed.

Table 21. PERCENTAGE WORKING LESS THAN FULL-TIME AND WANTING ADDITIONAL WORK BY EDUCATION AND TRAINING[a]

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS	MALE		FEMALE		BOTH SEXES	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Education						
No Schooling	[b]	*13.0*	*33.3*	*23.3*	20.0	18.9
Elementary (1-7)	28.0	20.0	25.4	32.1	26.6	25.9
High School (1-4)	22.0	24.9	28.7	28.6	25.3	26.2
College (1+)	*11.3*	*26.5*	*24.6*	*30.0*	18.3	28.4
Training						
No Training	23.2	20.9	22.4	30.9	22.8	25.6
With Training	14.8	23.2	41.0	27.1	27.9	25.2

a/ Items in italics refer to rates where numerators numbered less than 20.

b/ Zero entries.

Source: UPPI Survey.

2. The Invisibly Underutilized

Table 22 provides some insights on the extent of invisible underutilization in broad education/training categories. It is very clear that invisible underutilization is most pronounced for the more skilled among females. Around 32 per cent or more of the female work force having some training or college education were full-time workers seeking more work, although it appears that urban females were more severly affected. Lower proportions invisibly underemployed were noted among female workers in the middle education categories although those having no schooling or training in both types of areas tended to have the lowest proportions invisibly underutilized.

Given the higher levels, invisible underutilization was more pervasive among males. Like females, substantial proportions sought more work among those with training. However, no defined pattern can be seen for males when educational attainment is controlled. A U-shaped distribution can be noted among urban males while the reverse is true for rural men.

What is alarming is that like their female counterparts, high under-utilization rates can also be noted for males with high school or college education. This is true especially for urban males but can also be said of rural men.

Table 22. PERCENTAGE FULL-TIME WORKERS DESIRING ADDITIONAL WORK, BY BROAD EDUCATION AND TRAINING CATEGORIES[a]

SELECTED CHARACTERISTICS	MALE		FEMALE		BOTH SEXES	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Education						
No Schooling	*50.6*	*23.9*	*11.1*	*10.0*	*26.7*	*16.0*
Elementary (1-7)	27.0	41.9	18.4	19.5	22.4	30.6
High School (1-4)	40.0	39.7	21.3	*16.1*	30.9	30.9
College (1+)	54.8	*30.6*	44.9	31.7	49.6	31.2
Training						
No Training	33.3	37.3	23.2	16.6	28.0	27.6
With Training	55.7	46.3	32.8	29.9	44.3	37.6

[a]Items in italics refer to rates where numerators numbered less than 20.

SOURCE: UPPI Survey.

Summary:

It appears that underutilization - whether in terms of unemployment, visible or invisible underemployment - was rather high for educated and trained segments of the population. It should be noted that these high rates of underutilization among the more qualified affects both males and females wherever they reside. Unemployment and visible underutilization, however, tends to affect more educated or trained females more, while invisible underutilization appears to affect the more qualified for both sexes.

On one hand, it is quite likely that social psychological factors prevail strongly: it is the educated or trained - having higher levels of expectations - who tend to step forward to be available for economic participation or additional employment in societies where jobs and opportunities are scarce.

However, given their relatively higher levels of knowledge or skills, we would ordinarily expect a pattern wherein their underutilization levels would not be as high. Findings are clearly an indication that what the Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education observed nearly a decade ago is still true today: there is a need to restructure Philippine education to make it fit or match more closely development requirements. Similar directions could also be made for training programs: unique areal manpower needs have to be ascertained so that corresponding training schemes could be designed to ensure adequate utilization.

The sex differential should also not be neglected. Women are clearly a disadvantaged group especially when u n e m p l o y m e n t a n d

Best Available Document

underutilization are considered. It is very possible that these relative levels of underutilization of workers by sex suggest that government actions aimed at job generation may not have always benefited women.

D. Socio-economic Backgrounds of the Underutilized

This section focuses more closely on the characteristics of the underutilized: the households to which they belong and earnings obtained from work force participation.

Household characteristics

The last hypothesis in this study refers to the types of households in which underutilized women are found. Categories of under utilization -- those unemployed, visibly or invisibly underutilized by hours -- were crosstabulated with selected household characteristics: walling materials (as index of the strength of housing construction), number of rooms, source of lighting, radio ownership and toilet facilities. These or similar household-level indicators have usually been used in areal studies on development. Smith (1979) identified most of these variables as factors closely related to modernization in the Philippine context. Medalla and Tabbada (197[illegible]) also selected similar measures to indicate provision of basic needs, "aspects of physical environment that tend to be enhanced by higher and more equitably distributed incomes": the availability of services like electricity or sanitation facilities, proportion of occupied dwelling units of strong construction and an overcrowding gauge of 1.5 or less persons per room.[34]

---

[34] Density would have been a better measure than what is done in this paper. However, the UPPI survey was made on persons 10 years of age and over and does not contain consistency checks on those below the age coverage.

Aside from areal level indicators, others used the household as level of analysis and designed composite socio-economic status (SES) scores at the household level. Smith applied SES scores to 1973 National Demographic Survey sample household, although he advised caution in the interpretation of results inasmuch as his scale was more of an experimental approach. Use of a composite SES index at the household level is also being done for the research consortium "Area Fertility Study" directed mainly by Concepcion, Flieger, Madigan, et.al. (1976 to date). Composite indexing, however, is still at a development stage. Smith and Madigan's scales also make use of data not available from the work force survey (like income bracket). Thus, the weighting system used in their scales cannot be applied in this case.

Table 23 shows the distribution of the underutilized across selected household characteristics and proportions they constitute in specific work force groups. Categories of variables characterizing the household are mostly qualitatively ranked: very light housing construction to very strong, one room to over 5, none or unsanitary toilet facilities to the flush system.

Findings show that the bulk of the underutilized by area and sex are not always from households of "low" socio-economic level. Many of them also come from "middle" groups or higher (see results on radio ownership, for instance) and were most likely to be households containing underutilized high-level manpower. This general pattern held even going across specific types of underutilization.

Table 23. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF UNDERUTILIZED BY LOCALE, SEX, TYPE OF UNDERUTILIZATION AND SELECTED HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS[a]

Household Characteristics	Unemployed				Visibly Underutilized				Invisibly Underutilized			
	Males		Females		Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Walling Materials												
Sawali/Nipa	b/	5.3	3.4	6.1	[illegible]	19.2	6.6	21.0	11.5	21.0	6.8	21.3
Wood	70.0	73.7	34.9	54.5	[illegible]	50.0	44.7	43.9	46.2	50.0	45.5	42.6
Hollow blocks	[illegible]	21.0	29.7	39.4	47.4	30.8	48.7	35.1	42.3	29.0	50.7	36.[illegible]
Number of Rooms												
1 - 2	41.7	36.8	48.8	6.1	38.8	24.6	34.7	31.6	46.2	33.6	50.7	22.2
3 - 4	[illegible]	52.6	51.4	72.7	35.7	53.8	46.7	53.2	38.5	49.2	[illegible]	52.8
5+	[illegible]	[illegible]	b/	[illegible]	35.7	21.5	[illegible]	15.2	[illegible]	17.2	[illegible]	1.9
Source of Lighting												
Non electric	[illegible]	[illegible]	35.1	65.7	24.5	50.8	[illegible]	50.0	26.0	65.1	[illegible]	61.1
Electric	[illegible]	36.3	64.9	[illegible]	75.4	49.2	70.9	50.2	74.0	34.9	67.7	38.9
Radio Ownership												
HH has no radio	[illegible]	26.3	10.3	18.8	[illegible]	20.8	34.5	28.1	19.2	27.7	[illegible]	22.2
HH has radio	66.6	73.7	89.2	81.2	96.3	79.2	65.5	71.9	80.8	72.3	89.0	77.8
Toilet Facilities												
Open pit, surface or none	45.4	52.6	30.8	41.9	23.8	40.4	23.7	46.7	25.0	49.2	39.2	47.[illegible]
Antipolo or pail type	18.2	42.1	38.9	51.6	26.3	40.2	40.8	50.9	34.6	40.3	31.5	48.1
Flush	36.4	5.3	30.6	6.4	43.9	2.3	35.5	2.4	40.4	2.5	45.3	4.7

a/ Items in italics refer to numerators numbering less than 20 cases

b/ Zero entries

Source: UPPI Survey

1. The unemployed

Urban women who were not working but looking for work were very likely to come from dwelling units having wooden walls, 3-4 rooms, radios and toilets of the antipolo or pail type. Urban women should be especially mentioned as nearly 13 per cent of the urban female work force were unemployed at survey date (refer to Table 14 above). While many belonged to households of the type described above, most of the other unemployed urban women were those living in houses with nipa or sawali walls, containing 1-2 rooms only, no electric lighting and the poorest of toilet facilities.

Somewhat similar distributions could also be noted for rural women and men, in general, although their proportions in the work force were not as high as those among urban females.

2. The visibly underutilized

Findings (refer to Table 17) showed that visible underutilization affected females much more than males. Levels for females in urban and rural areas, however, varied only slightly with the same pattern noted also for males. Among all these groups, rural females registered the highest proportions working less than full-time and wanting more work.

The general pattern of socio-economic characteristics for the unemployed stated above is also true for rural women. Large proportions of the visibly underutilized (between 40-54%) were usually found in middle-of-the-range categories (wood for walling materials, 3-4 for number of rooms or antipolo or pail type toilet facilities).

However, substantial proportions (ranging between one-fifth to even 60%) could also be noted among those belonging to the lowest of household level indices, especially lighting system, toilet facilities and number of rooms.

This pattern also holds for rural males as well as for urbanites. The rural female pattern was most similar for rural males while urban residents of both sexes varied slightly as visible underutilization involved more proportions among those coming from households relatively "better-off".

3. The invisibly underutilized

In contrast to unemployment and visible underemployment which were female-dominated, invisible underutilization appeared to be more the province of men. The types of households to which invisibly underutilized urban males belong tended to be better off as some of basic facilities were available although these were usually dwelling units with a minimum number of rooms. Rural males appear extremely disadvantaged as most of them come from households belonging to the lowest (or lower) of the categories. Rural females emerge as similarly affected although one should remember that the proportions invisibly underutilized among them are much lower than the levels from males.

What could partly account for the general pattern above is that areal distributions of the underutilized also reflect characteristics of control variable "locale". Underutilized workers living in urban areas were very likely to come from a higher category of the selected household-level indicators while substantial proportions of underutilized rural residents usually come from the lower level categories.

In a way, the "higher" categories were expected urban features while the "lower" tended to be typical of rural areas. Actual distributions, however, are not as clear cut and the sample contains a "mix" of characteristics -- rural dwelling units with urban facilities and urban households residing in dwellings made of bawali or nipa. While the main slant is towards expected areal features, one should note that usually, larger proportions of the underutilized were noted among middle-of-the-range categories given the country's level of urbanization and development.

Moreover, one should also take account of substantial proportions of unemployed urban women belonging to very disadvantaged households, visibly and invisibly underutilized rural women and men against the background of a minimum or even the absence of amenities or facilities. Medalla and Tabbada's qualification that household characteristics like housing adequacy or availability of electricity or toilet facilities represent basic needs are especially meaningful here.

Earnings

The last characteristic being examined is monetary benefits obtained from work: whether the underutilized are mainly those obtaining low earnings. Data from the survey was obtained by asking the questions "What benefits do you get from this activity?" If quantifiable, "how much do you get doing this activity?" This way of open-ended questioning was aimed more at obtaining the range of benefits derived from performance of economic activities rather than measurement of earnings. When responses were coded and tabulated, the data

showed some respondents failing to report usual earnings. In addition, other respondents reported that they do not receive anything being unpaid family workers. A number cited that they merely help other workers, usually the head, hence are sharers or are already included in monetary remunerations obtained by the head. These were responses especially noted among wives and older sons. Still others reported that earnings and sources varied, hence indefinite, with not even approximated amounts given. Where earnings were given in kind, approximations were made when possible. For some respondents, however, information was extremely vague (e.g. in kind payment like free food for service done very irregularly).

Moreover, aggregations of earnings had to be made in the case of persons reporting multiple economic activities.[35] Some persons reported earnings in certain activities but were not definite about the other economic activities. For a number, therefore, earnings data were underreported or underestimated.

Despite the limitation of data, information on usual earnings provide some insights on the work force. Table 24 contains a distribution of earnings reported by urban and rural workers of both sexes. It should be noted that very broad categories are used to eliminate some of the underenumeration in the data. These categories were con-

---

[35] Careful screening had to be made with respect to persons with multiple economic activities especially when these economic activities were actually mere components of one or two occupations only.

structed around ₱50-99 cash earnings per week, using as reference point for comparison purposes an approximation of the average wage levels in 1975.[30]

In general, only a very small segment of workers obtained earnings above the reference range: nearly one out of four urban males (23%), slightly over 11 per cent among rural males, a lower 8.3 per cent among urban females and lowest (4.7%) for rural females. Following this order, it even appears that most urban females were less well paid than males residing in rural areas.

Table 24. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF EARNINGS PER WEEK BY SEX AND LOCALE[a]

Average Earnings per week	MALES		FEMALES	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
None or Indefinite[b]	24.2	30.6	27.4	23.3
<₱ 25	15.8	24.0	32.6	51.1
₱ 25 - 49	10.4	17.0	11.3	13.7
₱ 50 - 99	26.7	17.2	20.4	7.4
₱100 -149	11.3	7.5	5.7	3.2
₱150+	11.7	3.7	2.6	1.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
n Cases	240	571	230	476

[a] Excludes "no information".

[b] Includes unpaid family workers, those reporting very indefinite earnings or even helping mainly the head and stating that they are sharers with what head gets.

Source: UPPI Survey.

[30] The NCSO Labor Force Survey conducted in February 1975 reported average cash earnings of wage and salary workers amounting to ₱51 per week.

Best Available Document

Rural females were most disadvantaged even when one goes to just two ranges below the reference earning level considering that over half were enumerated as obtaining less than ₱25 per week. Even assuming some amount of understatement, the next higher category still represents meagre earnings.

Actually, a large proportion of urban females (about 32.6 %) was also found in the less than ₱25 weekly earnings bracket. The percentage noted for rural males was much lower while the lowest proportion earning lower than ₱25 belonged to urban males.

The category "non or indefinite" is included in the table as it constitutes substantial proportions among workers of the different sexes and locale. Close to a fourth of all earners belonged to this category, with rural males registering the highest (30.6%) and urban females following closely with 27.4 per cent.

In addition to sex, Table 25 suggests that working less than what constitutes normal workhours appears to be associated with having low earnings or being an unpaid family worker. Regardless of residence, between 75-85 per cent of males and females who worked less than 40 hours per week were either earning less than ₱25, or receiving indefinite or no cash renumerations for their labor during the period.

The pattern for those who worked 40 hours or more per week varies. Urban males stood out distinctly as nearly 72 per cent in the workhours category earned ₱50 or more per week. All the others registered much smaller proportions in the same earnings bracket. Rural females should be given special attention considering that while two out of every five

Table 15. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF WORKERS BY HOURS OF WORK, SEX, LOCALE AND EARNINGS PER WEEK[a]

Earnings Per Week	Working <40 Hours Per Week				Working 40 Hours or More Per Week			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Unpaid or Indefinite[b]	44.6	45.9	37.4	30.3	9.0	19.9	14.0	10.3
<₱25	33.7	39.7	38.2	55.4	6.9	14.7	28.0	47.3
₱25-49	7.2	5.7	10.4	12.0	12.4	24.6	11.2	15.8
₱50-99	1.2	4.3	10.4	1.5	41.4	25.2	32.7	15.8
₱100+	13.2	4.3	3.5	.8	30.3	15.5	14.0	10.9
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[a]Items in italics refer to numerators numbering less than 20.

[b]Includes those reporting no definite earnings although they share in what the head earns.

Source: UPPI Survey

were full time workers, nearly half of such workers received only less than $25 a week.

Given these distributions, we would then expect that those seeking more work will tend to come from lowly paid groups. To some extent, this can be said of those working less than full time and seeking more work for both males and females regardless of residence (Table 26). The largest proportions were usually among those earning less than $25 per week, with rural dwellers especially females the most severely affected. The pattern can also be said of urban females although to a lesser degree.

In contrast, the earnings data on the invisibly underutilized show varied patterns. Urban males can be singled out, as the largest proportions underutilized among them are found in the two highest earnings categories yet very low proportions in the unpaid or lowly paid category. This is to be expected considering that a large proportion of urban males receive higher earnings than the other groups. Rural male full-time workers desiring more work come from middle earnings groups. The distribution of earnings in Table 24 shows that the lowly paid constituted substantial proportions not only in the rural male work force but also among urban males. Yet the pattern on Table 26 for full-time urban males suggest that those who are unpaid or lowly paid do not really show a great propensity to seek additional work. One possible explanation is that specific types of work may set some physiological limit. Lower paid males tend to be those engaged in manual type occupations. Given the more formal work arrangements in urban areas, physiological constraints might deter the lowly paid from seeking more work in contrast to those in non-manual employment.

Table 26. PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF UNDERUTILIZED BY SEX, LOCALE, TYPE OF UNDERUTILIZATION BY HOURS AND EARNINGS PER WEEK[a]

Earnings Per Week	Visibly Underutilized				Invisibly Underutilized			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Unpaid or Indefinite[b]	36.8	38.5	31.6	31.0	*9.8*	20.5	*8.2*	[illegible]
< ₱25	35.1	45.4	40.[illegible]	54.4	*6.9*	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
₱25 - 49	*10.5*	*7.7*	*11.8*	12.3	*9.8*	21.4	*22.3*	[illegible]
₱50 - 99	*1.8*	*3.8*	*11.9*	*1.8*	43.1	27.3	35.3	17.1
₱100+	*15.8*	*4.5*	*3.9*	*.5*	[illegible]	14.3	*15.1*	[illegible]
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

a/ Items in italics refer to numerators numbering less than 20.

b/ Includes those reporting no definite earnings although they share in what the head earns.

Source: [illegible] Survey.

Patterns found among females show various things. Relatively large proportions of invisibly underutilized females were receiving less than ₱25 per week (Table 26). Rural females should be focused on once more, considering that nearly half of invisibly underutilized rural females come from this lowest category of cash earnings.

However, very few female full-time workers who sought more work were on an unpaid or indefinite earning arrangement. One question that these findings raise is how about those who were not wanting more work? How do they fare? Table 27 shows that they fare no better, with many of them receiving very little earnings. When the data is combined with those on Table 25, one suggestion emerging is that while some workers receive non-cash, very little or indefinite earnings, the situation has some "voluntariness" to it.

For some workers it is quite likely that such arrangements are desirable given other household activities. Work may merge so well with other domestic chores. This is the mostly likely situation for most females considering that they occupy mainly secondary worker status (in the sense of males being primarily bread winners).[37] Other members of the population may still be occupied with their studies and cannot accommodate any additional job.

---

[37]Domingo (1975) cites that some husbands did not state that their spouses were earning, although spouses themselves stated that they were earning a living.

Table 27. PERCENTAGE OF WORKERS IN SPECIFIC WORK FORCE GROUPS NOT DESIRING MORE WORK, BY HOURS OF WORK AND EARNINGS PER WEEK[a]

Average Earnings Per Week	Working <40 Hours per Week				Working 40 Hours or more per Week			
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural
Unpaid or Indefinite	*61.5*	58.2	*48.7*	50.6	6.8	*28.3*	*26.5*	[illegible]
<₦25	*30.5*	30.4	*33.3*	50.1	6.0	[illegible]	[illegible]	48.7
₦25 - 49	b/	*2.5*	*7.7*	*11.2*	*15.1*	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
₦50 - 99	b/	*5.1*	*7.7*	[illegible]	*38.6*	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
₦100+	*7.7*	*5.6*	*2.5*	[illegible]	*23.5*	*17.3*	[illegible]	[illegible]
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

a/ Items in italics refer to numerators numbering less than 20

b/ Zero entries

Source: UPPI Survey.

Data on earnings also represent only one aspect of remuneration from work. Remunerations in kind were not well covered or measured in the survey. In addition, the data on weekly earnings are treated here on an individual basis while earnings - both cash and non cash - should also be taken as a family variable. It is quite possible that relative distributions will change if family or household earnings were used.

Earnings constitute only one source of the various income sources. The various underutilization schemes discussed earlier (especially those of Hauser, 1973; Myrdal, 1968; Krishna, 1973) have implicitly emphasized the need to look more closely at income components and total income. Such under utilization frameworks also pinpoint to the need to look at income less than some desirable minimum (Krishna, 1973), or below an official poverty line. The treatment in this study has been very limited as only distributions across broad categories are made.

Summary:

The data suggests that underutilization is pervasive as it affects persons coming from households of varied socio-economic backgrounds or from different average earnings categories. However, special mention should be made of male and female rural residents considering that a sizeable proportion of the visibly and invisibly underutilized among them belong to households with only the minimum or even the absence of services and facilities. Rural females should be especially cited, considering that they were the lowest paid and that a large proportion of those underutilized (visibly and invisibly) among them come from the lowly paid.

Part IV. SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

This exploratory study based on a February 1975 UPPI survey uses a different approach of measuring the work force. The results show that participation in economic activities is actually higher than those obtained from conventional approaches. Accompanying high participation rates are high unemployment and underemployment rates which appear to affect various population groups.

The more salient findings include those on:

1. Participation Rates

   a. Not only males but females as well show great propensity to be labor force members. The UPPI results, for example, show that over 85 per cent of males and 76 per cent of all females 10 years old and above are either working, doing some work or not working but seeking employment. This is very different from the February 1975 labor force survey of the NCSO where participation rates for males and females were 68 and 31.3 per cent, respectively.

   b. Despite the high levels of participation for both sexes, males generally show higher participation rates. Nevertheless, married females especially rural heads or wives of heads showed a very great propensity to participate in the labor force, their levels of economic activity even exceeding those for young males.

   c. Male and female rural residents are more economically active compared to urban dwellers. Higher rates for rural residents also persisted even when age or other socio-economic characteristics like marital status, education or training were controlled.

2. Unemployment Rates

Unemployment rates in the UPPI study were higher than NCSO Labor force survey findings. These were highest especially for females (12.8% and 5.8% for urban and rural females, respectively, compared to corresponding NCSO figures of 5.1% and 3.2%). Urban women stood out, especially the young (ages 10-29), the unmarried or the untrained among them, in addition to the more educated (those with some high school education or higher).

3. Workhours

Over half of all males in urban and rural areas worked 40 hours or more compared to only slightly shorter work hours for females (47.2 and 39.4 for urban and rural females respectively).

4. Underutilization

Full-time workers desiring more work were considered invisibly underutilized while those wanting more work among less than full time workers belonged to the visibly underemployed.

a. Visible underemployment was rather high for both sexes with over one-fourth of the work force working less than full-time and wanting more work. Females in urban and rural locales, however, were more severely affected, especially those in their thirties or forties, those ever-married, wives of household heads and specifically urban heads of household.

b. In contrast, invisible underemployment affected males more especially those in their prime ages or who were heads of

hours [illegible]. While the levels for females were not as [illegible] as [illegible] males, the percentage seeking more work [illegible] female full-time workers in the [illegible] survey are much higher than those derived from the labor force surveys. Women in their twenties or thirties, household members other than heads and spouses, and the never-married especially urban residents registered rather high invisible underemployment rates.

5. Educational and training backgrounds of those desiring more work:

Underemployment rates across various education/training groups varied considerably. Urban women with no schooling appeared the most severely affected by visible underemployment. Underemployment can also be said to be rather high for educated and trained segments of the population. Considering the levels registered among less than full time workers and compared to males, visible underutilization tended to affect the educated or trained among females, but most especially rural females. Invisible underutilization, however, appears very high for the more qualified among males and females regardless of area of residence.

6. Socio-economic backgrounds of the underutilized

a. Underutilization, being very pervasive, affected people coming from different socio-economic groups. Nevertheless, some groups stood out: mainly unemployed urban women, visibly underemployed rural women and invisibly underemployed rural students came from very disadvantaged households, houses [illegible]

nipa or swali walls, with 1-2 rooms only, no lighting and the poorest sanitation facilities.

b. When cash earnings were considered, very few people earned more than ₦50 per week, with males generally earning more than females. Most urban males received more than rural males, while rural females were the least paid. Visibly underemployed males and females in all areas, but especially rural females, tended to come from the unpaid or lowly paid. With the exception of urban males, the bulk of the invisibly underutilized tended to come from the lowest paid groups (receiving cash earnings less than ₦25 per week). Again, rural females stood out as the most disadvantaged.

POLICY AND PROGRAM RECOMMENDATIONS WITH SPECIAL EMPHASIS ON WOMEN IN DEVELOPMENT

It has often been stated that one way to increase the participation of women in development is increasing their participation in economic activities. Findings from this study show that actually most women are work force participants. However, many of them are underutilized. For some women, even a basic concern like having work or a job is not fulfilled as employment opportunities are not available. High unemployment is especially true for urban women and most crucial to urban females coming from very disadvantaged households.

Despite the large proportion of women reporting economic activities, their participation usually exists in the form of doing some work regularly, merging economic activities with other household chores or even leisure

activities, or extending direct help to other workers in the household. As expected, their actual workhours are usually shorter and many seek additional work. This is true for women found in both urban and rural areas.

In addition to the phenomena of rather high work force participation, high unemployment and underemployment, the Philippines is anticipated to face about half a million new workers every year for the remainder of the twentieth century (NCSO, 1976; Zosa, 1977). Hence, one policy direction calls for the support of policies and programs aimed at reducing the potential supply of work force entrants (Brown, 1970; Concepcion, 1977).

Another policy direction involves skills formation and upliftment for potential new entrants to the labor force, the unemployed, and those already working. Some basic questions are raised here. Is there easy access to skills training or do programs favor certain populations over others? This study for example showed that married rural females show even greater propensity to join the labor force than young males. Considering the risk involved, married rural women constitute an important clientele for manpower development.

What are the guidelines used in selection of training sites or clientele? Are training programs especially technical and vocational types as implemented by different agencies patterned after real and clientele needs? What directions can training programs for young, single, untrained urban women take considering their very high unemployment rates?

In another dimension, there is also the case of underutilization among more educated sectors of society. Observations on the unemployed in the 1960s prompted members of the Presidential Commission to Survey

Best Available Document

Philippine Education (PCSPE, 1969) to state that an oversupply of graduates exist. Moreover, findings in this study show that there is "unemployment" even among graduates or the more educated who are already employed.

The pyramidal structure of needed manpower skills suggest careful screening as to who should have a certain level or type of education, and what specific field one should be in. The PCSPE recommended policy directions for restructuring Philippine education included accreditation of schools to improve standards of higher education and selective admission, presently imposed through the National College Entrance Examinations (see Leo Plaug, 1972; Lee, 1977). Along the very selective admission requirements are grants or loans extended to deserving students as well as democratization of admissions for those belonging to low income brackets as practised by the University of the Philippines very recently.

The other thrusts involve the designing and strengthening of formal and non-formal technical training supportive of the government's development thrusts. This has been mainly directed towards middle-level manpower. The points raised on training programs above are also very noteworthy here.

Most measures that have been suggested above, however, are prospective in nature. The case of those educated but presently unemployed or underemployed is only one nagging problem. Limited or inadequate job opportunities affect everyone, the better educated are no exception.

Employment generation, however, is a major problem. On one hand, creation of more jobs especially for the large proportions of women noted in this study places great demands on scarce government resources.

On the other hand, there is also the issue of "competition". Males have to "compete" with men for jobs. Males are cast in the role

of breadwinner traditionally and also constitute a traditional source of labor supply, and even those among them who work more than the standard work hours want additional economic activities. There is, however, very little evidence or research on preference for male employees and discrimination against women. Nevertheless, given traditional roles and other activities of the sexes, males have an advantage as unemployment rates in this survey show.

Recognising the twin problems of unemployment and underemployment, the Five Year Development Plan stresses human resource development and labor intensive policies and strategies alongside its emphasis on rural mobilization, establishment of alternative growth centers, regional dispersal of services and industries, etc. (see also ILO, 1975).

One of the basic needs at present is an adequate resource and labor information system. Does strong linkage exist between the Ministry of Labor's Bureau of Employment Services (being the unit responsible for information on the labor market) and private industries? Are people in rural well informed of employment opportunities -- whether for wages or for self-employment -- in their own communities? What are the more effective means of disseminating labor market information? Considering that the wage sector can absorb only a portion of the sizeable number unemployed or needing additional jobs, what other resources can individuals avail of? What local-level resources and support can be counted on for entrepreneurial or self-employment ventures?

Entrepreneurship and cooperative undertakings are some of the options available to workers especially in societies where jobs are scarce. [illegible]

vative actions have to be designed given limited resources. For example, special schemes need to be designed for most female workers especially rural women among whom participation is often disguised, given their other roles in the home. Another major consideration involving especially married women considering their high levels of participation and visible underemployment is the issue of family welfare. Innovative schemes need not uproot women from the domestic setting on a full-time basis and take women away from homemaking and childrearing duties (Concepcion, 1977; Dixon, 1976).

To avoid additional strains on the government's part, existing programs can be harnessed and integrated. There are a number that can be tapped like the government-sponsored self employment assistance scheme of the Ministry of Social Services and Development, the National Manpower and Youth Center training programs, the Ministry of Human Settlements - BLISS supportive livelihood program and the rural thrust of Bureau of Agricultural Extension workers. Private volunteer groups have also emerged with their own training and livelihood programs.

For example, the Self Employennt Assistance Program of the MSSD should reach as many of the unemployed or underemployed that belong to disadvantaged households, given that its target clientele are the lowest income brackets. In another manner, BLISS supportive livelihood programs can be tapped for helping the substantial proportion of unemployed and underemployed urban women. Such agencies can then act as lead agencies in the formation of cooperatives or in leading entrepreneurial ventures.

The Philippine case could be a package so designed that rural or urban cooperatives be formed wherein skills training could be one of the initial undertakings.

Skills training could be designed along unique areal resources and needs utilizing for example training modules of the NMYC or the Technology Resource Center.[38] Regional thrusts of the Philippine Development Plans, for example, include tapping traditional cottage industry activities[39] which could be redesigned along the cooperative endeavors proposed.

The study suggests that compared to other population groups, most of the underutilized coming from rural areas tended to belong to very disadvantaged households. Moreover, conditions tend to be worse for urban women with no schooling and rural women. These groups constitute top priority for cooperative thrusts.

The setting for these cooperative undertakings could be local offices or rural centers of the various agencies mentioned although some of the actual production may take place at home. Home-based industries or part-time employment may also provide some form of alternative to most married women considering their roles in the households and family welfare in general.

Given the potential numbers to be benefited and project feasibility, initial financing and support could come from loans provided by rural banks and other local financing institutions or through barangay livelihood programs of the Ministry of Human Settlements. Production and marketing could also be supervised through these cooperatives to help ensure increase earnings among the bulk of unpaid or lowly paid rural residents.

---

[38] Boserup (1971), for example, stressed that agricultural extension workers train not only men but also women in agricultural technology considering family-based working arrangements in rural households.

[39] It should also be recommended that such training include family planning due to the possible positive effect of variables associated with job compatibility on fertility (see Concepcion, 1974; Feranil and de Guzman, 1978; Weller, 1977).

Recommendations on Measurement

This paper argues for improvement in the methodology of work force enumeration and measurement. As mentioned above, standard labor force questions only served as background for the UPPI survey as its main aim was covering more closely the economic participation of population groups who tend to be missed out if conventional approaches were used. Economic activity was ascertained more closely with the use of more sorter questions on relating activities done on an ordinary day per unit time. It should be noted that while the UPPI enumeration procedure varies from the standard procedure employed by the NCSO in their labor force surveys, the UPPI procedure builds on the standard approach. The UPPI methodology operationalizes in what instances economic activity may be performed by those who are not mainly or regularly working (e.g. as direct help to other household workers or gainful activity done even during leisure hours). In contrast, the standard approach merely inquires of those not mainly working if they performed any work at all.

It should also be noted that the UPPI Survey was only a pilot undertaking. Being exploratory, the study did not apply statistical tests to the rather small cases obtained in crosstabulations. It is hoped instead that some of the survey questions used in the UPPI study be given serious consideration and improved through actual replications or testing in the field. Moreover, an enumeration measurement based on the UPPI approach which can be used for wider coverage in the Philippine setting remains to be devised.

Another important issue deals with the basic question on how much work should one render to be counted as a work force member in Philippine labor statistics. What has been used by some countries is a minimum hours

Best Available Document

of work cut-off for inclusion in the labor force[40] although other countries have their own innovations.[41] Previously, a cut-off of 10 hours worked per week in the case of working students was used in the 1960 Census of Population in the Philippines[42]. In contrast, the census conducted in 1970 and the current labor force surveys do not specify a minimum hour of work cut-off. This study did not also use a cut-off although it should be noted that the UPPI survey contains rather substantial information and some cut-offs could be imposed. This was not done, however, as the original intention was to determine the extent of participation across various population groups, especially women.

More recently, there have been changes in work force measurement in the Philippines. A modified "gainful occupation approach" (using one year as reference period) started in the 1975 Integrated Census of Population classifies a person as "... working most of the year if he worked for at least 10 hours a week for not less than 26 weeks, or half of the year." Then another innovation was introduced in the NCSO's Integrated Survey of Households which started in the third quarter of 1976 [illegible] from former labor force surveys. The primary changes [illegible] labor force surveys involved the following:

---

[40] For example, the United States used 15 hours of work or more as cut-off in the 1960 census (Bowen and Finegan, 1969).

[41] Blacker (1978) referred to a recent survey in Fiji wherein tending more than ten chickens, for example, constituted an economic activity but if less than ten chickens were involved, the activity becomes a household duty.

[42] Please refer to the 1960 Census Enumerator's Manual.

(a) the shift from a reference period of "one week before enumeration" in the original labor force approach to the "past quarter" referring to three months coinciding with the calendar quarter.

(b) categorizing as work "... any activity done during the reference quarter in relation to minor activities in home gardening, raising of crops, fruits, hogs, etc. fishing for home consumption and manufacturing for own use... However, during the reference quarter, there must be some harvest in the case of home gardening, raising of crops, fruits and nuts and gathering of wild vegetables; animals disposed of (sold, consumed, bartered or given away) or some catch in fishing in order that these activities will be considered work. These activities were considered work inasmuch as earnings were derived from them". (refer to the Explanatory Text, Integrated Survey of Households, 1976 to date).

Despite these changes, some of the basic problems with respect to labor measurement remain. The important question of how much work should one render to be counted in the work force is still to be clearly answered by various existing approaches and procedures in the Philippines today. The question is most crucial in the case of women who tend to perform other household duties, the young or the elderly who occupy dual or multiple roles linked closely with the life cycle. It will crop up in the case of economic activities centered on the household, wherein various family members may be involved in varied degrees. Such problems can even be expected to be more pronounced in rural areas.

The issue becomes especially meaningful with more recent innovations relating to the reference period. The shift from one week to a quarter of a year will affect measurements on the size of the work force and employed members considering that the longer the time period, the greater will be the proportionate representation of persons who work irregularly, intermittently or seasonally (UN, 1968). The point is especially relevant in the case of women workers.

Considering the complexities of labor force measurement, various approaches or experimentations including the UPPI's constitute part of the long and probably unending process of developing improved tools for measuring economic activity and employment status.[43] Two mutually related factors - the economic structure of the society and the purposes to be served by the data -- determine who should be included in such a measurement (Jaffe and Stewart, 1961). The President's foreword to the Five Year Development Plan (quoted in Part I above) describes very clearly the social purpose to be served by work force measurement: the monitoring of information and changes on unemployment and underemployment especially in relation to other concerns like poverty and social justice.

Another related issue raises the question on a realistic age cut-off on participation data. If we use age 15, what about those in the younger ages who do some work? Using age 15 as cut-off is reflective of the Labor Code's provision on minimum employable age. Yet, the same Labor Code provision recognizes that some children render economic activity to help

---

[43] Refer also to William Selzer's reply to Blacker's critique in the June 1978 issue of the Population Bulletin of the United Nations Economic Commission for Western Asia.

their parents, although such should not disadvantage a child's attendance in school. Although unavailable in more recent labor force bulletins, statistics on economic activities of the young would be valuable for social policy.

The unemployed constitute another measurement problem. Do we only look at those not at work or out of work and looking for full-time employment as in the old labor force approach? The Integrated Survey of Households has also redefined the unemployed to include those wanting "work most of the time/each week or on a continuing basis anytime during the past quarter and looking for work anytime during that quarter". The new definition introduces operational problems brought about by a long reference period and the need to determine one's constant availability for employment. Most existing approaches also fail to take note of a large number desiring casual or part time work for a few days in the week which should be reflected in existing statistics. Omissions along the line will tend to cloud the availability of women for some employment.

Blaug's 1972 statement can still describe the current state of the art very aptly:

> If we define "employment" as working at least one day in the reference week, we get a large definition of "labor force" and therefore a small definition of "unemployment". If instead we define "employment" as working at least 30 hours a week, we get a small definition of "labor force" but a large definition of "unemployment". In that sense, a country can make its unemployment rate anything it likes by suitably defining the "labor force" as the denominator of the rate.

The measurement of underutilization poses substantial data demands. In this study, unemployment and underemployment are measured mainly by desire for work, the latter using hours of work as additional criterion.

If resources allow, more questions need to be asked in labor force surveys, in addition to those asked in the standard surveys or in the UPPI questionnaire. What type of (additional) work is the person looking for? What type of arrangements with respect to earnings, time or status does he desire or envision? What steps has he taken to look for (additional) work? It is clear from this study that special problems crop up when women are focused on, especially when other activities usually performed by women are considered.

Directions on the measurement of underutilization also pinpoint the need to improve measurements of income as well as those on educational and job skill requirements. This study made use of what was available in the survey although some of the ideal data, for example, are guidelines on how to quantify non-cash earnings or an index of occupation-education mismatch. The former is especially envisioned to give more light on the contributions of women.

Recommendations for Indicators on Underutilization

The indicators used in this study and finalized on the next pages are recommended for future analysis of participation and underutilization of both male and female workers. In addition, however, the following should be considered in order that work force statistics will be extremely useful to policy makers and planners.

a. The inclusion of more socio-economic classifications that will provide information on specific population groups. This study, while very much limited by the small sample size, suggests that certain types of underutilization

affect specific types of people. This recommendation has relevance to statistical offices providing labor statistics in that they can make their presently available information more meaningful if their statistics relate to urban/rural or regional populations or specific socio-economic groups.

b. Information on work desires and preferences of the unemployed and the underemployed, including data on type of work wanted or sought, time preferences i.e., definite part-time or full-time arrangements, desired earnings, status or class.

c. Better measurement of income to assess more closely the underutilization problem. Some attempt should also be made to arrive at guidelines on minimum desirable incomes.

Items of Data	Recommended Socio-economic classification	Indicators[a]
	A. The economically active population	
Number of work force members	Sex, region, locale, age, relationship to head, marital status, highest educational attainment, and training.	Work force participation rate for various group (under column 2) Percentage distribution of work force by main activity
	B. Employment status	
Number of unemployed Type of work sought preference for time, income	a. Sex, region, locale, age, relationship to head, marital status, highest educational attainment, and training.	Unemployment rate, by category (under column 2) Average age of unemployed, by category (under column 2)
	b. Classification for type of occupation sought, preferred time, preferred income from work.	
	C. Underutilization	
1. Number of workhours rendered by workers 2. Less than full time workers desiring more work 3. Full time workers desiring more work	a. Sex, locale and other socio-economic characteristics at individual level	Percentage distribution of workers by hours of work Average workhours by sex
	b. Household characteristics	Visible underutilization rate by category (under column 2) Invisible underutilization rate by category (under column 2)

Items of Data	Recommended Socio-economic classification	Indicators[a]
4. Household backgrounds of workers desiring more work	c. Classification for type of additional work sought, preferred time, preferred income from work, preferred status.	Percentage of work force under-utilized by hours, by category (under column 2)
5. Average earnings	a. Sex and locale and other socio-economic characteristics at individual level	Percentage distribution of workers by earnings
6. Guideline on minimum desirable income	b. Earnings data	Percentage distribution of work force under-utilized by hours by category (under column 2)
	c. Income data at individual and household level	Percentage distribution of work force not desiring more work by category (under column 2)
	D. The Inactive	
Numbers not in work force by category of inactivity	Sex, locale and other socio-economic characteristics at individual level.	Percentage of population in different categories of inactivity

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE SEQUENCE USED IN STANDARD LABOR FORCE ENUMERATIONS

Q1. What was he doing most of the time last week?

SKIP to Q3

1 Working for pay or for profit or without pay on family or farm enterprise.
2 Keeping own house.
3 Going to school
4 Doing something else or nothing.

(Specify) _____

Q2 Did he do any work at all last week not counting housekeeping and other work around the house?

1 Yes
2 No (Skip to Q4)

Q3 How many hours did he work last week?

(No. of hours) (Skip to Q9)

Q4 Even though he did not work, did he have a job or business last week?

1 Yes (Skip to Q9)
2 No

Q5 If he had no job or business, did he want work last week?

1 Yes
2 No (Skip to Next Block)

Q6 If he wanted work, did he look for work last week?

1 Yes (Skip to Q8)
2 No (Skip to Q7)

Q7 Why was he not looking for work last week?

1 Keeping own house
2 Going to school
3 Retired
4 Disabled or suffering from permanent illness
5 Believes no work available
6 Temporarily ill

} Skip to Next Block

_____
(Specify)

Q8 Since he was 10 years old, has he ever worked for at least 2 consecutive weeks full time?

1 Yes 2 No

(Skip to Next Block)

What was his occupation?
(For example: farmer, farm worker, secretary, elementary school teacher, etc.)

_____
(Specify)

Code

Q9 In what class of worker did he belong?

1 Working for private employer for wage, salary, commission, tips, etc.
2 Working for government or government-owned or controlled corporation.
3 In own business, farm, profession or trade for profit or fees, without paid employees.
4. Employer in own business, farm, profession or trade for profit or fee (without one or more paid employees).
5 Without pay on family farm or enterprises.

Q10 In what kind of business or industry did he work? (For example, abaca farm, life insurance

_____ (Specify) _____

There are _____ supplements
Province:
City/Municipality:
Poblacion/Barrio:

APPENDIX 3
Population Institute
University of the Philippines System

Questionnaire:

NEW APPROACH TO THE MEASUREMENT OF WORK FORCE

BLOCK A IDENTIFICATION

1 Unique Household Number ..... _____

2 Area Code ..... _____

3 Region Number ..... _____

4 Sample Household Number ..... _____

INFORMATION ABOUT THE INTERVIEW

5 Name and Address of Respondent

_____ _____ _____
Family Name First Name Maiden Name

_____
Complete Address

6 Date of Interview: _____

7 Name of Interviewer: _____

8 Language of Interview: _____

9 Spot-Checking: Name: _____ Date: _____

CALL RECORD

10

Call	Date	Item	Result of Call	Date & Time of Next Appt.
1				
2				
3				

BLOCK B: HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE

B1 Ilan po ang inyong kasambahay? _____persons

B2 May mga kasambahay po ba kayo na pansamantalang hindi rito naninirahan? _____absent

(FOR ALL PEOPLE LIVING IN THE HOUSEHOLD, INCLUDING THOSE TEMPORARILY ABSENT, ASK B3-B10 AND RECORD RESPONSES IN HOUSEHOLD RECORD FORM. BEGIN WITH HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD, HIS SPOUSE, THEIR UNMARRIED CHILDREN, THEN ASK MARRIED CHILDREN, ETC.)

B3 Ano po ang kanyang buong pangalan?

B4 Siya po ba ay bisita sa bahay na ito?
_____ Yes ... CROSS OUT NAME FROM HOUSEHOLD RECORD
_____ No ... CONTINUE TO NEXT PERSON

B5 Ano po ang kanyang kaugnayan sa padre de pamilya?

(ENTER RELATIONSHIP OF EACH PERSON TO HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD. THE RELATIONSHIP MUST ALWAYS BE STATED FROM THE POINT OF VIEW OF THE HOUSEHOLD HEAD)

B6 (ENTER HUSBAND-WIFE AND PARENT-CHILD RELATIONS FOR EACH FAMILY IN HOUSEHOLD. FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS MUST BE STATED FROM POINT OF VIEW OF HUSBAND OR IF HE IS DEAD OR NOT LIVING IN HOUSEHOLD FROM THAT OF WIFE. INDICATE THE RELATIONSHIP OF EACH FAMILY MEMBER TO FATHER (OR MOTHER) WHO WILL BE IDENTIFIED BY LINE NUMBERS).

(A HOUSEHOLD MEMBER NOT BELONGING TO ANY OTHER FAMILY IN THE HOUSEHOLD SHOULD BE TREATED AS THE HEAD OF A SEPARATE FAMILY.)

B7 (IF NOT OBVIOUS, ASK) Ang tao po bang ito ay lalaki o babae?

B8 Kailan po siya ipinanganak?

(IF R CANNOT GIVE MONTH AND YEAR OF BIRTH, ASK B9)

B9 Ilang taon na po siya nitong kanyang huling kaarawan?

B10 Siya po ba ay hindi pa nag-aasawa, may asawa na ngayon, balo, diborsiyado, o hiwalay sa asawa?
S - Never married
M - Married
Wd - Widowed
Sep/D - (Separated/ Divorced)

B11 Kayo po ba ay nakapag-aral?
_____ Yes ... CONTINUE
_____ No .... SKIP TO B13

B12 Ano po ang pinakamataas na antas ng pag-aaral na inyong natapos?

B13 Mayroon ba kayong ibang pagsasanay na nasalihan?
_____ Yes
_____ No

(READ NAMES OF HOUSEHOLD RECORD FORM AND CHECK FOR MEMBERS WHO MIGHT HAVE BEEN OMITTED IN LISTING AND ASK B14)

B14 Mayroon po ba kayong kasambahay na pansamantalang wala dito ngayon at hindi naisama sa listahan ng mga pangalang naibigay na?
___Yes ... ENTER NAMES IN B3
___No .... CONTINUE

126

HOUSEHOLD RECORD

Line No.	Name (B3)	Relation to HH Head (B5)	Family Relationship (B6)	Sex (B7)	Date of Birth (B8)	Age (Completed Years) (B9)	Marital Status (B10)	Education	
								Formal (B11)	Training (B12)
1									
2									
3									
4									
5									
6									
7									
8									
9									
10									
11									
12									
13									
14									
15									
16									
17									
18									
19									
20									
21									
22									
23									

BLOCK C: ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

(POPULATION TO BE COVERED, ALL PERSONS 10 YEARS OLD AND OVER IN THE HOUSEHOLD)

(OBTAIN THE NAME OF THE PERSON FROM PAGE 2 AND ENTER BELOW)

Unique Household Number: .... ________

Name of Respondent: ....______________________

C1 Paano po ninyo pinalilipas ang isang pangkaraniwang araw, mula sa inyong paggising hanggang sa inyong pagtulog?

(RECORD RESPONSE IN TABLE C.1)

Table C.1
(DAILY ACTIVITY)

Time	Eco. Acty.		Activity
	X	No.	

115

C2 Sa ganitong paraan d po ba ninyo pinalilipas ang inyong araw kung Sabado at Linggo?

_____ Yes ... SKIP TO C4
_____ No .... CONTINUE

C3 Ano po ang kaibahan?

(RECORD RESPONSE IN TABLE C.2)

Table C.2
(WEEK END ACTIVITY)

Time	Eco. Acty.		Activity
	X	No.	

C4 Sa ganitong paraan din po ba ninyo pinalilipas ang mga araw ninyo noong nakaraang linggo? Nakaraang buwan?

___ Yes ... SKIP TO C6
___ No .... CONTINUE

C5 Ano po ang kaibahan?

(RECORD RESPONSE IN TABLE C.3)

Table C.3
(LAST WEEK, LAST MONTH ACTIVITY)

Time	Eco. Acty.		Activity
	X	No.	

(IF R HAS ONLY ONE WELL-DEFINED ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, ASK QUESTIONS C6-C17; IF MORE THAN ONE ACTIVITY ASK QUESTIONS C6-C16 FOR EACH ITEM MARKED 'X' IN TABLES C.1 - C.3, THEN GO TO C20 AND RECORD RESPONSES IN TABLE C.4)

(IF R DOES NOT HAVE A WELL-DEFINED ECONOMIC ACTIVITY GO TO C17)

C6 Saan kayo nag _____ ?

C7 Ano itong pinagtratrabahuan ninyo?

(IF ACTIVITY MENTIONED IS NOT CLEAR, ASK C8)

C8 Anong uri ng gawain ang inagawa ninyo doon/diyan?

C9 Kayo po ba ay nag _____ para sa sarili o para sa ibang tao?

___ For Self .... SKIP TO C11
___ For Others .. CONTINUE

C10 Kaanu ano po ninyo sila?

(IF FINISHED PRODUCT RESULTS FROM ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, CONTINUE; IF NONE, SKIP TO C13)

C11 Ang produkto po ba ng inyong pag _____ ay para sa sarili ninyo o sa inyong pamilya o para sa ibang tao?

___ For Self
___ For Family } .. SKIP TO C13
___ For other ... CONTINUE

C12 Kaanu-ano po niyo sila?

C13 Ilang ora po ang ginugugol ninyo sa pag _____ sa loob ng isang araw? Sa isang linggo?

C14 Ano po ang nagiging pakinabang ninyo sa gawaing ito?

(IF QUANTIFIABLE, ASK C15)

C15 Mga magkano po ang halaga nito?

(NOTE TIME REFERENCE USED)

C16 Paano po ninyo natutuhan ang pag _____ ?

C17 Mayroon ba kayong pinagkakakitaang makakaragdag sa inyong kinabuhay?

IF R HAS AT LEAST ONE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

___ There is ... CONTINUE
___ None ..... SKIP TO C19b

IF R HAS NO ECONOMIC ACTIVITY

___ There is ... CONTINUE
___ None ..... SKIP TO C20

C18 Ano po kaya?

(GO BACK TO PAGE 7, AND ASK QUESTIONS C5-C16 THEN GO TO C19a)

(CHECK TO SEE C.1 - C.3.)

(IF R HAS MORE THAN ONE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, ASK C19a)

C19a Alin sa mga kabuhayang nabanggit ninyo ang itinituring ninyong hanapbuhay? Bakit?

(IF R HAS ONLY ONE ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, ASK C19b)

C19b Ito po ba ay itinituring ninyong hanapbuhay? Bakit?

C20 Mayroon ba kayong nakahanapbuhay dito sa inyong pamayanan?

___ Yes .... CONTINUE
___ None ... SKIP TO C22

C21 Sino po sila? Ano po ang kanilang hanapbuhay?

C22 Mayroon ba kayong naiwan kay na tulong sa inyo na naghahanapbuhay sa inyong pamilya na maaring ma-asan sa kanilang gawain?

___ Yes .... CONTINUE
___ None ... SKIP TO C25

C23 Ano po kaya?

C24 Gaano po kadalas ninyo pinagawa ito?

C25 Maaring sakop sa ating pangkaraniwang gawain, mayroon pa kayong ibang bagay na ginagawa na pampalipas-oras, hindi po ba? Iyon po bang tinatawag na kutingting.

___ R Agrees .... CONTINUE
___ R Disagrees . SKIP TO C32

(PAUSE AND WAIT FOR COMMENT)

C26 Ano-ano ksaan po ang mga ginagawa ninyo?

C27 Kailan po ninyo ginagawa ito?

127

Table C.4

Activity No.	Place of Activity (C6,C7)	Activity C1,C2,C3, C8)	Work For Whom (C9,C10)	Product Use (C11,C12)	Time (C13)		Benefit (C14)	Amount (C15)
					Hr/d	Hr/Wk		

Activity No	How skill learned (C16)	Considered Means of Livelihood (Reason)		
		Single Activity (19b)	Multiple Activities (19a)	
			(Activity)	

C28 Gaano po kadalas ninyo ginagawa ito?

C29 Napapakinabangan po ba ninyo ito?
____ Yes ... CONTINUE
____ No .... SKIP TO C31

C30 Sa anong paraan?

C31 Paano po ninyo natutuhan ang pag _____ ?

(THEN GO TO C33)

C32 Bakit po ninyo nasabi iyon?

C33 Mayroon ba kayong iba pang kakayahang maaari ninyong mapakinabangan?
____ Yes ... CONTINUE
____ No .... SKIP TO C37

C34 Ano po iyon?

C35 Paano po ninyo natutuhan ito?

C36 Ito ba'y nagamit na ninyo noong nakaraan?
____ Yes
____ No

C37 Sa kasalukuyan, naghahanap ba kayo ng ibang magagawa na maaring makaragdag sa inyong kabuhayan?
____ Yes ... CONTINUE
____ No .... SKIP TO C40

C38 Anong uri ng gawain po ang inyong hinahanap?

(IF R HAS NOT PREVIOUSLY REPORTED ANY ECONOMIC ACTIVITY, SKIP TO BLOCK D)

C39 Kung sakaling kayo'y mag _____ na, iiwanan ba ninyo ang ginagawa ninyo o hindi? Bakit?
____ Yes
____ No

_____
verbatim

(SKIP TO BLOCK D)

C40 Bakit ho?

C41 Kahit na hindi kayo kasalukuyang naghahanap ng ibang magagawa, nais ba ninyong magkaroon ng karagdagang gawain? Bakit?
____ Yes
____ No

_____
verbatim

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Area Fertility Survey. "Methods of Rating Socio-Economic Status by Weighted Average Scores on the Basis of Indicators," Documentation Notes of the Project headed by M.B. Concepcion, W. Flieger and F. Madigan, 1976 to date.

Bacol, Melinda. "Inter-generational Occupational Mobility in the Philippines," Philippine Sociological Review, Vol. 19:3-4, July and October 1971.

Becker, Gary. "A Theory of the Allocation of Time," Economic Journal, September 1965.

Blacker, J.G.C. "A Critique of the International Definitions of Economic Activity and Employment Status and Their Applicability in Population Censuses in Africa and the Middle East," Population Bulletin of the United Nations Economic Commission for Western Asia, No. 14, June 1978.

Blaug, Mark. "Educated Unemployment in Asia: A Contrast Between India and the Philippines," Philippine Economic Journal, Vol. XI:1, First Semester 1972.

Bogue, Donald. Principles of Demography, Chapter 9, Wiley and Sons, Inc., New York, 1969.

Boserup, Ester. Woman's Role in Economic Development. George Allen and Unwin, Ltd., London, 1970.

Boulier, Brian. "Children and Household Economic Activity in Laguna, Philippines," Journal of Philippine Development, Vol. IV:2, National Economic Development Authority, 1977.

Bowen, William and T. Aldrich Finegan. The Economics of Labor Force Participation, Princeton, New Jersey, Princeton University Press, 1969.

Brown, Lester. Seeds of Change: The Green Revolution and Development in the 1970's. USAID, 1970.

Bureau of Census and Statistics. Censo de las Islas Filipinas Tornado Bajo la Direccion la Commission Filipina en 1903, Washington, 4 Vols. (1905).

Bureau of the Census and Statistics. The BCS Survey of Households Bulletin, Series No. 19, Labor Force including Educational Attainment Data, October 1965.

Carver, Ronald P. "The Case Against Statistical Significance Testing," Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 48 No. 3, August 1978.

Castillo, Celia. The Filipino Women as Manpower: The Image and the Empirical Reality, Council for Asian Manpower Studies, University of the Philippines Los Banos, Laguna, Philippines, 1976.

Census Office. Census of the Philippine Legislature in the Year 1918, Manila, Bureau of Printing (1920-21).

Concepcion, Mercedes. "Study of New Approach to the Measurement of the Work Force," paper presented at the Organization of Demographic Associates Manila Conference, 18-22 December, 1972.

_____. "Female Labour Force Participation and Fertility," International Labour Review, Vol. 103: 5-6, May-June 1974.

_____. "Alternative Population Futures," UPPI project report for the Population, Resources and Environment, the Philippine Future (PREPF), September 1977.

Concepcion, Mercedes B. "Role of Women in Integrated National Economic and Demographic Development," discussant's remarks at the Plenary Session III on Long Term Strategies for Economic and Demographic Development, International Union for the Scientific Study of Population Conference on "Economic and Demographic Change: Issues for the 1980's," Helsinki, Finland, 28 August-1 September 1978.

Domingo, Lita. "Measurement of Labor Underutilization Among Filipino Male Household Heads: An Application of the Hauser Methodology," M.A. Thesis, Population Institute, University of the Philippines (UPPI), 1974.

_____. "A New Approach to the Measurement of the Work Force," preliminary report submitted to the Population Council, 1975.

_____ and I. Zosa. "Cross-sectional Analysis of National Sample Survey of Households, May 1974" Population, Resources, Environment and the Philippine Future (PREPF) Research Note No. 37, UPPI Research Note Series, 1975.

Dixon, Ruth. "The Roles of Rural Women: Female Seclusion, Economic Production, and Reproduction Choice," Population and Development, the Search for Selective Interventions, R. Ridker (ed.), Resources for the Future Publications, Johns Hopkins University Press, 1976.

Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UN). Population of the Philippines, Country Monograph Series No.5, Bangkok, Thailand, 1973.

Ely, J.E. "Some Comments on the Treatment of the Problems of the Inadequate Statistics of South Asian Countries in Asian Drama by G. Myrdal," Journal of Economic Literature, Vol. 8, March 1970.

Fong, Pang Eng. "An Analysis of Labour Utilization in Singapore," paper presented at ODA Conference, 18-22 December, 1972.

Harbison, F. and C. Myers. Education, Manpower and Economic Growth: Strategies of Human Resources Development, McGraw Hill Series in International Development, 1974.

Hauser, Philip M. "Population Change and Development in Manpower, Labor Force, Employment and Income," UN ECAFE Seminar on Population Aspects of Social Development, 1972.

_____. "The Measurement of Labor Utilization," East West Population Institute paper, 1973.

_____. "The Measurement of Labor Utilization," Malayan Economic Review, 19:1, April 1974.

Huat, K.T. and Khoo, K. K. "The Pattern of Labour Utilization in Peninsular Malaysia," paper presented at the Seminar on Labor sponsored by Council for Asian Manpower Studies and Organization of Demographic Associates, Makati, June 1976.

International Labor Office. The International Standardization of Labor Statistics, Geneva, 1959.

_____. Sharing in Development, A Program of Employment, Equity and Growth for the Philippines, Geneva, 1974.

_____. Year Book of Labor Statistics, 1935-36 to date.

Jaffe, A.J. Handbook of Statistical Methods for Demographers, Washington, 1951.

_____ and C. Stewart. Manpower Resources and Utilization, New York, John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1951.

Jocano, F.L. Work, Vol. I, Community Studies, First report of UPPI study, Manila, 1976.

Krishna, Raj. "Unemployment in India", Economic and Political Weekly, March 3, 1973.

Labor Code of the Philippines, ed. by F. D. Pinpin, Fourth Revised Edition, Cacho Hermanos, Rizal, 1976.

Mangahas, Mahar (ed.) Measuring Philippine Development. Development Academy of the Philippines, 1976.

Medalla, Felipe and Reynaldo Tabbada. "The Physical Environment: Welfare Indicators," in Measuring Philippine Development, a report of the Social Indicators Project, edited by Mahar Mangahas, Development Academy of the Philippines, 1976.

Mijares, T., and R. Tidalgo. "Labour Absorption in the Philippines," paper presented at the Conference on Manpower Problems in East and Southeast Asia, 1971.

_____ and Ordinario. "Labor Absorption in the Philippines and the Reliability of Employment Data," paper presented at the Workshop on Manpower and Human Resources (see also PE No. 23, Vol. XII), 1973.

Myrdal, Gunnar, Asian Drama, especially Vol. II, New York, Pantheon Press, 1968.

National Economic and Development Authority, Long Term and Five Year (1978-82) Development Plans, summary, 1977.

National Manpower and Youth Council. National Manpower Plan 1977-82, draft chapters 1-3, 1977.

National Census and Statistics Office. Integrated Survey of Households Bulletin, report on the Labor Force, 1976 to date.

_____. National Sample Survey of Households Bulletin, formerly the Bureau of the Census and Statistics Survey of Households Bulletin, Manila (1971-1975).

_____. "Labor Force Projections by Age and Sex for the Philippines," UNFPA-NCSO Monograph Series No. 6, 1977.

_____. 1975 Integrated Census of the Population and Its Economic Activities, Manila, 1978.

Ono, Mitsuo. A Feasible Method for Collecting Labor Utilization and Economic Data in Southeast Asian Countries. Social and Economic Statistics Administration, US Bureau of the Census, July 1973.

Oshima, Harry. "Labor Absorption in East and Southeast Asia: Summary, Perspective, Prospects," Philippine Economic Journal, No.30, 1976.

Paz, D. dela, E.A. de Guzman, A.E. Perez and I.Z. Feranil. "Some Aspects of the Philippine Population Problem," paper prepared for the International Conference on Population Problems and National Development, Seoul, Korea, November, 1978.

Presidential Commission to Survey Philippine Education (PCSPE), Education for National Development, Makati, 1970.

Pullum, Thomas W. "The Development of An Ordinal Ranking of Occupations," unpublished Technical Note NDS-4, UPPI, 1971.

Raymundo, Corazon. "The Characteristics of, and Extent of Unemployment Among, the Philippine High Level Manpower", unpublished M.A. Thesis, Population Institute, University of the Philippines, 1972.

Redmana, H., Moir and Dalivo. "Labor Force and Labor Utilization in Selected Areas in Java: Results of an Experimental Survey," Vol. I, Monograph Series, National Institute of Economic and Social Research, Indonesia Institute of Sciences, LEKNAS-LIPI, 1977.

Sta. Romana, Leonardo. "Indicators of Economic Well-being," in Measuring Philippine Development, a report of the Social Indicators Project edited by Mahar Mangahas, Development Academy of the Philippines, 1976.

Shryock, H., J. Siegel, et. al., The Methods and Materials of Demography, Washington, 1971.

Smith, Peter C. Areal Differentiation and the Urbanization Process in Lowland Luzon, unpublished doctoral dissertation, Department of Sociology, University of Chicago, 1970.

_____. "Distribution of Population by Age, Sex and Marital Status, May 1973: Urban-Rural and Regional Patterns" Research Note No. 19, UPPI Research Note Series, 1974.

_____ and L. Domingo. "The Social Structure of the Underutilization of Labor in the Philippines: An Application of Hauser's Labor Utilization Framework," The Philippine Review of Business and Economics, Vol. XIV: 2, December, 1977.

Standing, Guy. "Concepts of Labour Force Participation and Underutilization," Population and Employment, Working Paper No. 40, World Employment Programme, ILO, Geneva 1976.

Sullivan, Teresa. "Marginal Workers, Marginal Jobs: Underutilization in the United States Labor Force," Dissertation, University of Chicago, 1975.

Szalai, A. (ed.) The Use of Time (quoted in Standing, 1976), 1971.

Tan, Edita and Bee Bee Uy. "The Outcomes of Schooling in the Philippines and Their Determinants," PREPF Technical paper University of the Philippines School of Economics, 1977.

Turnham, David. The Employment Problem in LDCs, OECD Development Centre Studies Employment Series, No. 1, Paris, 1971.

United Nations. Demographic Aspects of Manpower: Sex and Age Patterns of Participation in Economic Activities, Population Studies No. 33, New York, 1962.

_____. Methods of Analyzing Census Data on Economic Activities of the Population, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Studies, No. 48, 1968.

United Nations. Principles and Recommendations for the 1970 Population Censuses, 1969.

_____. Methods of Projecting the Economically Active Population, Manual V, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Studies No. 46, New York, 1971.

_____. Towards a System of Social and Demographic Statistics, Department of Economic and Social Affairs. Studies in Methods, Series 5, No.18, New York, 1975.

_____. Population Aspects of Manpower and Development: A Regional Overview, Asian Population Studies, Series No. 35, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, 1976.

UNESCO. International Commission on the Development of Education, Learning to Be: The World of Education Today and Tomorrow, 1972.

United Nations Fund for Population Activities-NCSO Population Research Project. "Labour Force Projections by Age and Sex for the Philippines, 1970-2000, "Monography No.6, Manila 1977.

Zosa, Imelda. "A Perspective of the Philippine Labor Force Today and in the Year 2000," UPPI-PREPF Workshop, Population Center Foundation, Makati, April, 1977.

140