



**International Labour Office
Policy Integration Department**

The Philippine labour market in the aftermath of another crisis

*Amelita King Dejardin**

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Overcoming the jobs crisis and shaping an inclusive recovery:

The Philippines in the aftermath of the global economic turmoil

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* The responsibility for opinions expressed in this paper rests solely with the author.

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Introduction

This Technical Note focuses on impacts of the global crisis on the Philippine labour market, and the policy challenges these represent. Section 1 points out that, to understand these impacts and challenges, it is important to bear in mind that these are shaped by the structural features of the Philippine labour market when the crisis struck, at the heels of the food and fuel crises. Section 2 argues that crises have visible and not so visible impacts. Aggregate numbers of employment and unemployment do not tell the full story. One must look beneath – at differences between population groups, and at qualitative changes in conditions of employment and their implications on inequalities and vulnerabilities in the national economy. Section 3 highlights the regional differences in labour market adjustments to the crisis. Finally, Section 4 draws out three policy challenges that need to be addressed if national policy actors are to craft a strategy for sustainable, job-rich recovery.

The labour force and employment macro data used in this paper were taken from the websites of the National Statistics Office (NSO) and the Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics (BLES). As regards the differentiated analysis of changes in employment, wages and earnings and household incomes, the NSO Public Use Files of Philippine LFS 2004, 2007, 2008 and 2009 (January and April rounds) and FIES 2003 and 2006 were analysed for this paper.

1. The labour market before the 2008 crises

The Philippine labour market has undergone many economic crises from the 1970s through the 1980s and 1990s, and stabilization and structural adjustment measures to deal with these crises (cycles of booms and busts, according to Lim and Montes 2000).¹ Regime changes and attempts at regime change between 1986 and 2007 have not provided a stable environment for steady economic and employment growth either.²

The labour market bears the marks of these crises – low job growth, decimation of manufacturing jobs, poor agricultural incomes, explosion of the Services sector and a huge informal economy, and the predominance of low-wage work. To understand the labour market today and how it is adjusting to the 2008 crisis (or crises - food, fuel, two devastating typhoons before the financial crisis), it is important to bear in mind the structural features of the Philippine labour market when the global crisis struck.

The Services sector had become the largest generator of jobs, and where ease of entry made it a ready refuge from unemployment and where non-tradeable, informal activities provide better shelter from economic downturns.³ Its share of employment expanded from 40 per cent in 1990 to 47 per cent in 2000 and 49 per cent in 2007. It was fuelled by growth in wholesale and retail trade, personal services (e.g. in private households), transport and other business services.⁴ Agriculture's share of employment

¹ Before 1980: the oil price shock, steep rise in world interest rates; 1981: internal financial crisis, massive private capital outflows, and stagnation; 1983: falling terms of trade, debt crisis, political instability; 1983-85: severe stabilisation measures, recession; 1986-89: internal political shock, debt restructuring, structural adjustment, deeper import liberalization; 1989-90: explosion of trade and current accounts deficits; 1990-92: stabilization; 1997-98: Asian financial crisis (Lim and Montes 2000; Lim and Montes 1997).

² Including: 1987 Honasan coup attempt; December 1989 attack on Malacañang; EDSA II in 2001 that unseated Pres. Estrada; EDSA III in 2001; 2006 declaration of State of Emergency; Manila Peninsula 2007.

³ Lim, J. 2000. The effects of the East Asian crisis on employment of women and men: The Philippine case. *World Development*, Vol. 28, No. 7, pp. 1285-306. Lim, J. and Montes, M. 2000. The structure of employment and structural adjustment in the Philippines, *The Journal of Development Studies*, Vol. 36, No. 4, pp. 149-81.

⁴ Call centres and business process outsourcing services have expanded rapidly in recent years, but numbers still comprise a tiny share of total employment.

had shrunk from 45 per cent in 1990 to 38 per cent of men's employment and 23 per cent of women's employment in 2007. Manufacturing had contracted significantly (10 per cent of total employment in 1996 to 9.1 per cent in 2007) and industry had stagnated (16 to 15 per cent). Over the years, men rapidly lost opportunities in agriculture, and shifted to construction, transport, storage and communications, trade and services. Manufacturing had stopped being the driver of women's employment as it was in the 1970s and 1980s; women's opportunities had become more concentrated in trade and services, and in domestic work in private households.

If the direct employment losses due to the current global crisis are relatively modest compared to other Asian countries, this is because the employment and export exposure of manufacturing is also smaller and narrowly concentrated, i.e. mainly in electronics.⁵ One might see this as a positive note, but its implications for remunerative employment are not.

Private establishments accounted for about three-fourths of wage employment; the public sector, about 15 per cent; and private households, about 10 per cent. But job growth in private establishments had been slower than public sector employment. Most of the private sector employment expansion between 2004 and 2007 occurred in private households (male workers increased by 56 per cent; women workers, by 26 per cent) and family-owned business – in other words, the informal economy. Men were increasingly taking up jobs in private households (indicated by slight decline in women/men ratio), although women still outnumbered men, six to one.

By the end of 2007, wage employment made up 52 per cent of total employment (up from 48 per cent in 1996).⁶ Own-account work made up the next biggest segment, 32 per cent; unpaid family work, 12 per cent; and employers, 4 per cent. The wage workforce was young: 56 per cent were 15-34 years old; only 22 per cent were more than 44 years old. In spite of the rapid expansion of women's wage work in the 1980s and 1990s, they comprised only 38 per cent of wage employees. Women wage workers were also likely to be younger than men.⁷ Only a fifth were college degree and post-graduate degree holders, and 42 per cent completed secondary education. Own-account workers were much older, 27 per cent were in the age group 35 years old and above; about 60 per cent were men; and less than 10 per cent completed college education, and a fourth did not finish primary school. Most unpaid family workers were women (55 per cent) and young (a fourth was 15-19 years old, and 40 per cent, 20-34 years old).

The occupational composition of employment was relatively diverse, covering administrative (11 per cent), professional (7 per cent), clerical (5 per cent), sales and services (20 per cent) and agricultural and industrial production occupations (56 per cent) as of October 2007. But at 2-digit level of occupational classification, employment was actually more narrowly clustered in a few occupations: farmers and plant growers, elementary occupations in agriculture, fishery and forestry, elementary occupations in sales and services, and general managers and managing proprietors, made up 50 per cent of total employment. In addition, since 2000, the share of elementary occupations, i.e. low- and unskilled jobs, had risen steadily.

Sex-segregation in industries and occupations cannot be ignored because it has shaped employment impacts of this and previous crises, in the Philippines as elsewhere. Farming and Construction are male-

⁵ This is argued by *Philippines Quarterly Update. Towards an Inclusive Recovery* November 2009. The World Bank Group in the Philippines. Electronics and semiconductors account for 60 per cent of the country's exports, but only a tiny portion of employment.

⁶ The share of wage workers of total employment fluctuated in the past. It was 51 per cent in 2001, 53 per cent in July 2003.

⁷ The share of wage employment declines with age, a trend that is much more pronounced among women, where the proportion of wage workers drops markedly after age 34 years. There are several possible explanations for this pattern: wage labour demand is mainly oriented to young women (e.g. the female profile of workforces of labour-intensive manufacturing exports); most wage jobs are not compatible with family responsibilities; discrimination against older women or women with children; and/or women move from wage labour to self-employment at a certain later stage when they get married, have a family or return to their natal village.

dominated. Both women and men are similarly present in trade, but women dominate retail trade while men dominate repair of vehicles and household goods. In manufacturing, women are concentrated in traditionally “feminine” labour-intensive export industries, e.g. electronics products, garments and processed food, while men are employed in a diverse range of products. In community, social and personal services, women dominate education, health and services in private households; men dominate land transport. Women have had a bigger share of professional occupations (largely teaching, health care), clerical work, and skilled sales jobs, while men have had a bigger share of skilled and unskilled agricultural occupations, and production and technical jobs (except in electronics and garments industries).

Women’s labour force participation rates, 48-50 per cent in 2006-2007, are in the middle range relative to other Asian countries. Men’s participation rates are traditionally much higher, 78-80 per cent in 2006-07. The LFPR gender gap increases with age.⁸ The youth, 15-19 and 20-24 years old, have progressively withdrawn from the labour market, consistent with rising enrolment in secondary and tertiary education. But their labour force participation rates tend to rise with economic downturns, as in 1997-98.

As regards unemployment, women’s rates had always been higher than men’s. But since the 1990s, men’s unemployment rates have risen more rapidly than women’s, such that, by 2000 the national gender gap had narrowed and by 2007, women’s national unemployment rates were lower than men’s.

2. In the aftermath of the 2008 crises

The aggregate view

What changes have occurred in the aftermath of the global crisis? In looking at the labour market trends in 2008 and 2009, one must bear in mind that three crises struck the Philippine economy in 2008. The food and fuel crisis during the first half of 2008 accelerated inflation and, though short-lived, were felt widely across the country. It pushed millions of Filipinos into poverty.⁹ The immediate effects of the global crisis took the form of losses in employment, wages and take-home earnings but hit only export-oriented manufacturing. But in spite of the limited direct transmission channels of the global crisis, it is projected to throw more than a million of Filipinos into poverty by 2010.¹⁰ Labour market indicators therefore give only part of the picture.

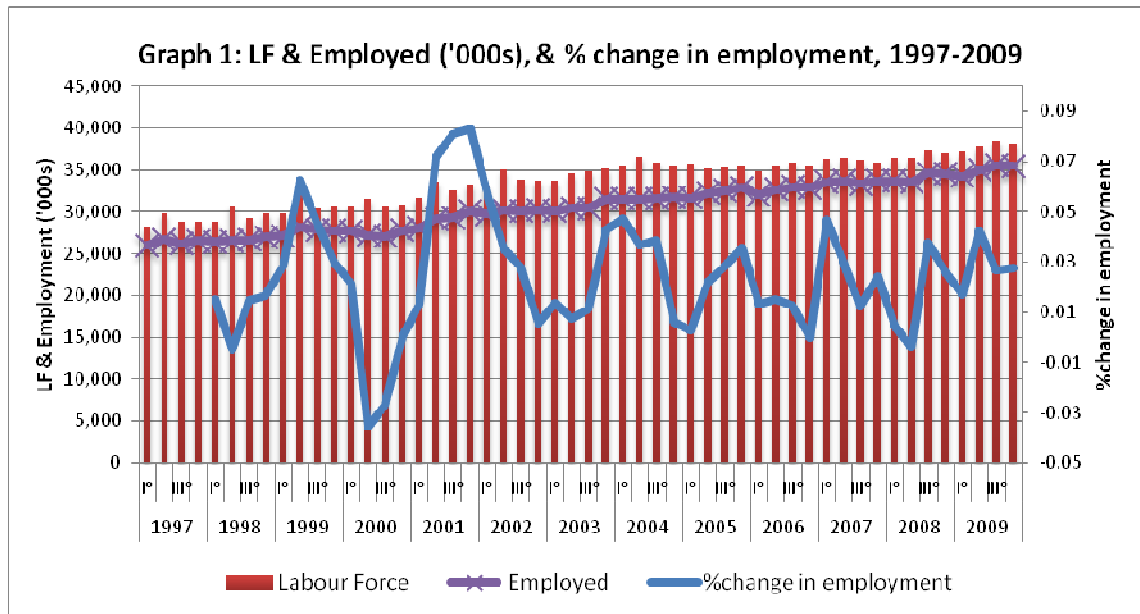
⁸ Women increase their labour force participation after 35 years old, i.e. when women are likely to have completed their childbearing phase and young children may be in school, and when the needs of a growing family demand the wife-mother to augment family income. In contrast, most men enter the labour market at a much younger age, 25 years old.

⁹ The World Bank Quarterly Update November 2008 estimated that the 2008 food and fuel crisis pushed 3 million Filipinos into poverty and widened the poverty gap and poverty severity. Cited in *Philippine Quarterly Update* November 2009. According to a study by H. Son, rising food prices easily push up poverty: a 10 per cent increase in food prices will create an additional 2.3 million poor people; a 10 per cent increase in nonfood prices will increase the poor by 1.7 million people, cited by Asian Development Bank, *Poverty in the Philippines. Causes, Constraints, and Opportunities*, ADB, Manila, 2009, p. 44.

¹⁰ The World Bank projects that the global recession would throw 1.4 million of Filipinos into poverty by 2010. *Philippine Quarterly Update* November 2009.

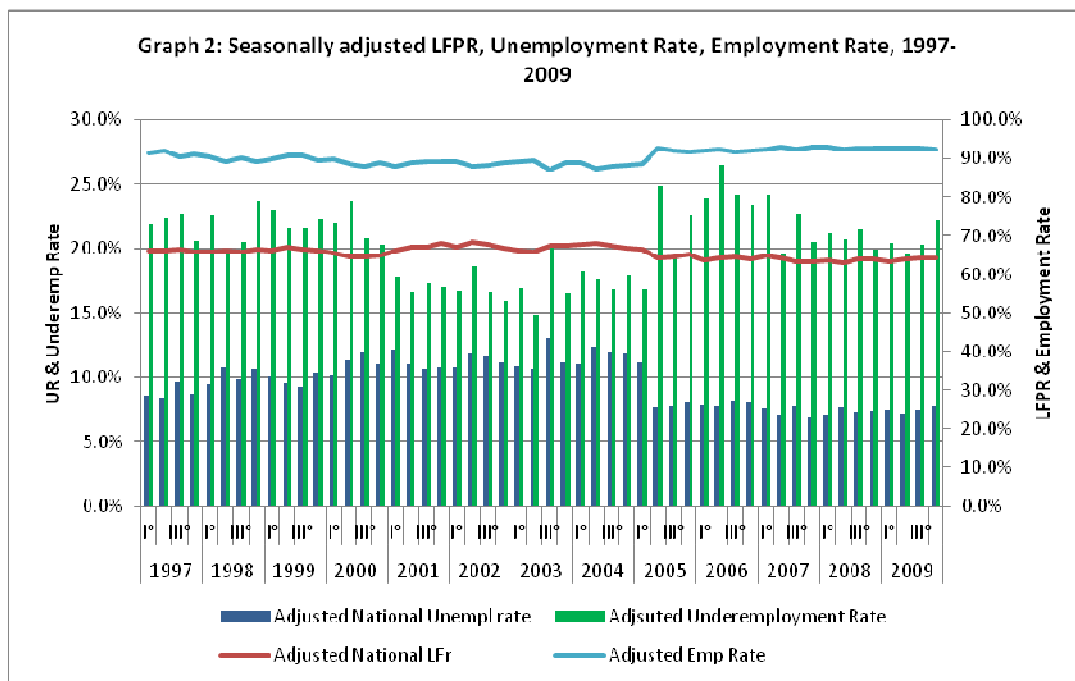
While labour force participation rates were on a downward trend between 2005 and early 2008, these were on an uptrend between 3rd Qtr 2008 and 2009.¹¹ The rising rates were driven by women (data up to 4th quarter 2009), as well as by the very young 15-19 years old and much older workers, 55-64 years old, and those with less than secondary education. In economic downturns when main breadwinners (often men) lose their jobs, families mobilize additional income-earners, most often women and very young members (perhaps pulled out of school) to compensate for the loss and to maintain living standards. This is called the “added-worker” effect.

Whereas unemployment rates were declining between 2006 and 2008, these began to rise in the 4th quarter 2008. Both men and women posted higher unemployment levels than before. Workers aged 20-24 years old, already suffering from very high unemployment levels, saw a worsening of their situation.

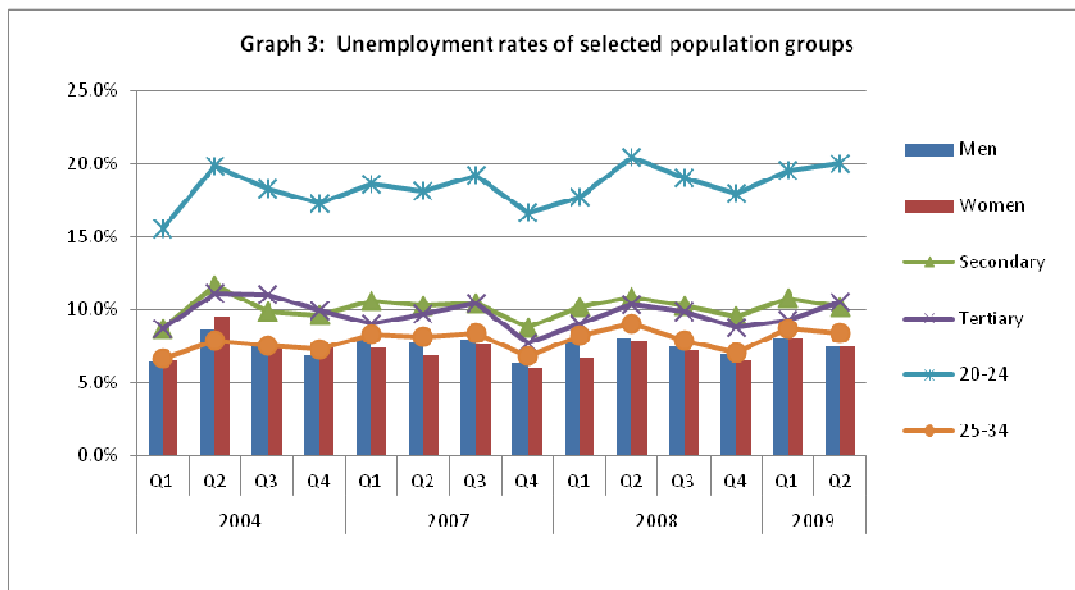


Source of data: National Statistics Office website, Labor Force Survey.

¹¹ Beginning with the 2nd round of the LFS in 2005, a new definition of unemployment was adopted which included the “availability criterion”. Published labour force participation and unemployment rates from this period onwards are not comparable with previous data. Therefore, the author focuses only on post-2005 data when comparing labour force and unemployment trends.



Source of data: National Statistics Office, Labor Force Survey.



Source of basic data: Public Use Files LFS microdatasets (unemployment definition includes availability criterion).

But, unemployment, while important, is not the main point of concern. An assessment of labour market consequences of economic crises in countries like the Philippines cannot rely on the unemployment indicator. It fails to take into account the fact that, in a context where social security coverage is low and patchy, and where unemployment insurance is non-existent, families, especially those who are not well-off, have no choice but to send out their members to earn a living.

As Graph 2 above shows, underemployment levels (i.e. the proportion of employed workers wanting additional working hours) have been rising significantly since 2005. People seeking work may not have

been available for work during the reference period (availability criterion for unemployment), but they did want work.¹²

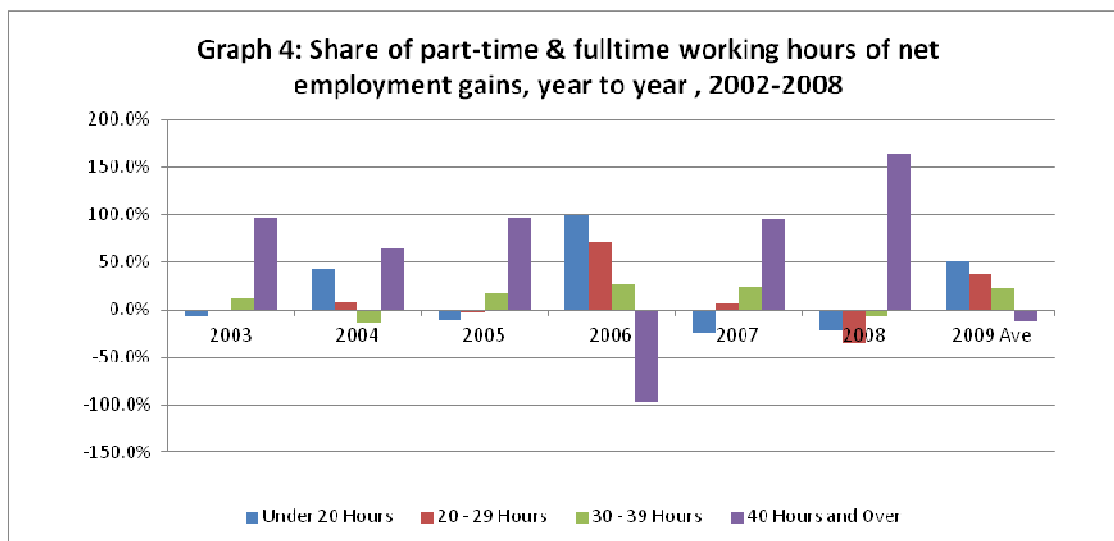
Net employment gains, yes; but largely part-time, intermittent work

Between 2007 and 2008, net employment gains consisted mainly of fulltime work, i.e. occupations of 40 hours or more per week. However, in the first half of 2009, the number of fulltime jobs dropped drastically vis-à-vis the 2008 level. The biggest loss was registered in April 2009, 0.9 million workers.¹³ Increases in fulltime jobs during the last half of 2009 were not enough to recover these losses. The loss in fulltime jobs or reduction in working hours means two disadvantages for the ordinary Filipino worker: a loss in take-home earnings and probably reduction in consumption unless alternatives could be found; and loss of acquired rights and benefits attached to tenure and contractual status.¹⁴

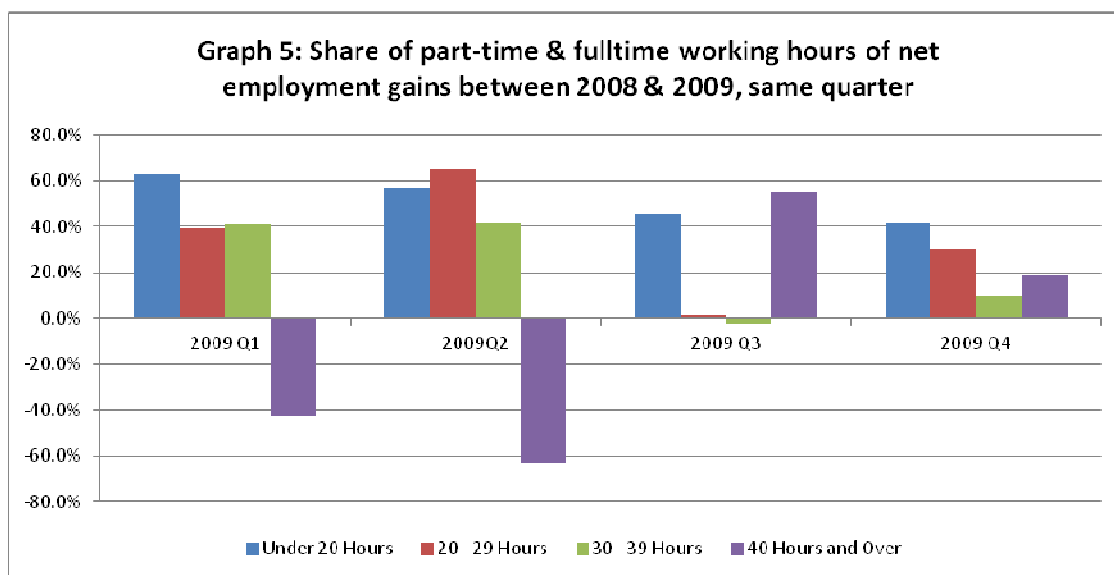
¹² The author calculated the difference between the unemployment rate without availability criterion and the unemployment rate with availability criterion. It is very interesting to note that the difference is almost always bigger among women than among men, indicating a gender-specific dimension to the issue of availability to work. Women are generally not immediately available for work, i.e. in the past reference week; one could speculate that women need more time to re-organize their work (childcare, housework) than do men!

¹³ The World Bank's rapid small scale survey of companies and their employees as well as several industry associations showed that the electronics industry, being labour-intensive, resorted mainly to labor-cost saving measures in January 2009 to cope with the crisis: dismissal of temporary staff, mandatory use of leave, reduction of workweek and production shifts without compensation, and as a last resort, layoffs of permanent staff. Smaller companies providing outsourced low-value services suffered more with revenue drops of 70-80 per cent year-on-year in the 1st quarter of 2009. The furniture and wood product export industry also suffered. Piece-rate workers, including informal workers, were the first to be affected; but eventually even skilled craftsmen and machine operators were forced to take leave. *Philippines Quarterly Update* November 2009, World Bank.

¹⁴ Focused group discussions with workers and field studies in the Philippines, as well as in other Asian countries, highlight the drastic drop in family incomes of workers (in some cases down to zero income) who had lost their jobs, forced to take leave without pay, or lost regular overtime work. See PIMA report on focused group discussions, unpublished report submitted to the ILO, 2009. Refer to six country case studies (China, Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam) reported in: Durano, M. and Samantha Hung, *Lessons not learned? Gender, employment and social protection in Asia's crisis-affected export sectors*, A paper prepared for "The impact of the global economic slowdown on poverty and sustainable development in Asia and the Pacific, 28-30 September 2009, Hanoi.



Source of basic data: National Statistics Office and Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics websites, Labor Force Survey.



Source of basic data: National Statistics Office and Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics websites, Labor Force Survey.

Employment gains in 2009 were largely part-time employment, i.e. working less than 20 hours or less than 40 hours per week. Whereas the proportion of part-time workers had gone down from 37 per cent of total employed at work in 2007 to 35.5 per cent in 2008, this proportion began to rise in January 2009 (26.9 per cent) and shot up to 42 per cent in April 2009, equivalent to 2.37 million workers more than the previous year. Preliminary figures for July 2009 and October 2009 put the corresponding proportions at 34 per cent and 37 per cent, respectively; fulltime jobs posted some recovery. The increase in part-time work might be partly blamed on shorter working arrangements that companies adopted to cope with fall in market/export demand, or on emergency employment programmes; but the huge numbers involved imply that many part-time workers had lost their fulltime jobs and/or were new entrants.

In view of the GDP decline, one could also argue that employment gains in 2009 were “distress employment” in low-income, low-productive activities.

Who were most affected by losses in fulltime jobs and increases in part-time work? Unfortunately, published LFS data for the last two quarters of 2009 are not disaggregated by sex, age or education. But

for the first two quarters of 2009, the LFS microdatasets allow this differentiation and identification of who were most affected.

The losses in fulltime work occurred alongside the fall in wage employment, private business sector employment and manufacturing employment. The negative consequences were therefore huge for relatively young and skilled, fairly educated workers, who comprised the bulk of the waged workforce.¹⁵ Workers, aged 20-34 years old, experienced the biggest change: up to the 4th quarter of 2008, 48-49 per cent of them were still working on standard workweeks, but this proportion dropped to 43-44 per cent in the 2nd quarter 2009; and part-time work rose from 30 per cent in 2008 2nd quarter to 36-37 per cent. Among high school graduates, fulltime work dropped (in 2008, 43 per cent were employed in standard workweeks and 28 per cent in long workweeks; by the 2nd quarter 2009, 39 per cent and 25 per cent, respectively); and part-time work increased from 29 per cent to 36 per cent.

In contrast, college degree holders had relatively stable working hours. They continued to have the largest proportion, 70 per cent, in standard 40-48-hour workweeks. Regular increases in part-time working hours recorded by the LFS April rounds could be explained by the high percentage of teaching professionals (17 per cent) and employees in the education sector (19-20 per cent) who work fewer hours during school summer vacation.

While very young workers, i.e. 15-19 years old, posted an increase in work of 20-40 hours, older workers, i.e. 55-64 years old, registered an increase mainly in work of less than 20 hours.

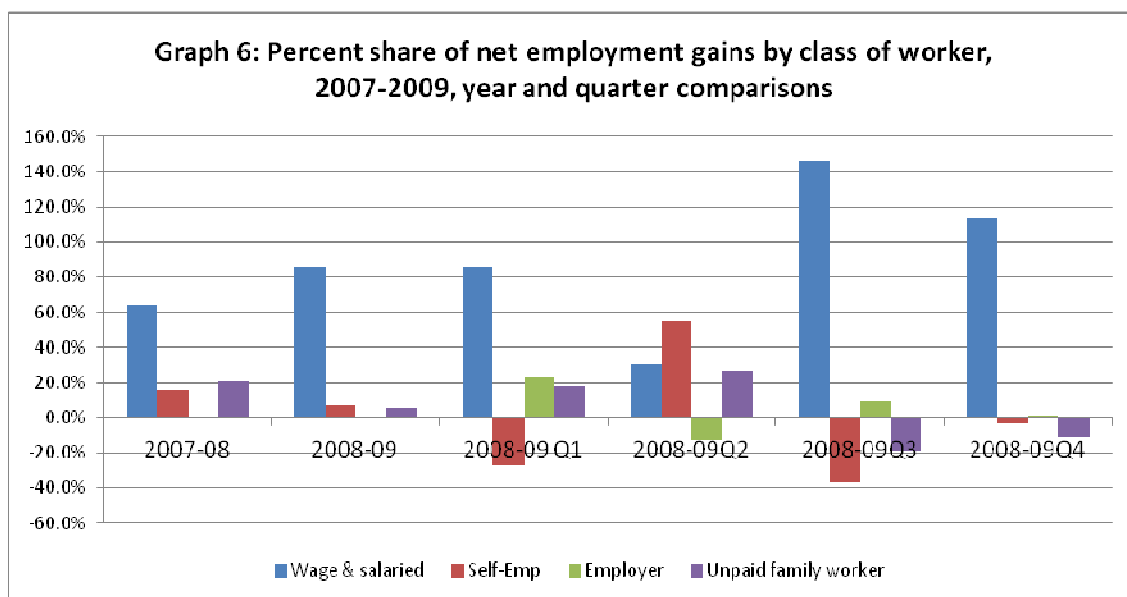
Both men and women witnessed an increase in part-time employment in 2009. Women had a bigger proportion of those who worked less than 20 hours, while men had a bigger proportion of those working 20-40 hours per week. On the flip side, losses in fulltime jobs occurred, both for those who worked on “standard workweeks” (i.e. 40-48 hours), as well as for those who worked “long workweeks” (i.e. more than 48 hours per week, presumably in overtime). The incidence of long workweeks among women is higher than among men, presumably due the female intensity of export manufacturing; so one could argue that women wage workers probably suffered heavier formal employment losses than men.

The Philippine labour market structure is such that the bulk of part-time employment is typically found among own-account and unpaid family workers: 70-75 per cent in the case of women, and 65-75 per cent among men for the period 2005-08.¹⁶ An increase in own-account and unpaid family workers therefore signals an expansion of intermittent, low-income occupations. In the 2nd Qtr 2009, the increase in part-time work was driven by self-employment (most of whom were women and very young workers 15-19 years old), but in the second half of 2009, the increase in part-time work was driven by wage employment.¹⁷ This explains why by the end of 2009, the share of wage employment of total employment had increased (from 51 per cent October 2007, 51.9 per cent October 2008 to 53.6 per cent October 2009), while the share of own-account work declined (from 32.3 per cent October 2007, 31.4 per cent October 2008 to 30.5 per cent October 2009). The rise in wage employment may be seen as a signal of the start of job recovery by the 4th Quarter of 2009. However, it is also important to look at the size of part-time work (which imply lower weekly earnings and less job security), and at declining real earnings. In addition, it is important to look at the sector where waged jobs are being generated. Private households generated more new wage jobs than the public sector in the last half of 2009, but household employees are among the lowest paid and least protected workers in the country.

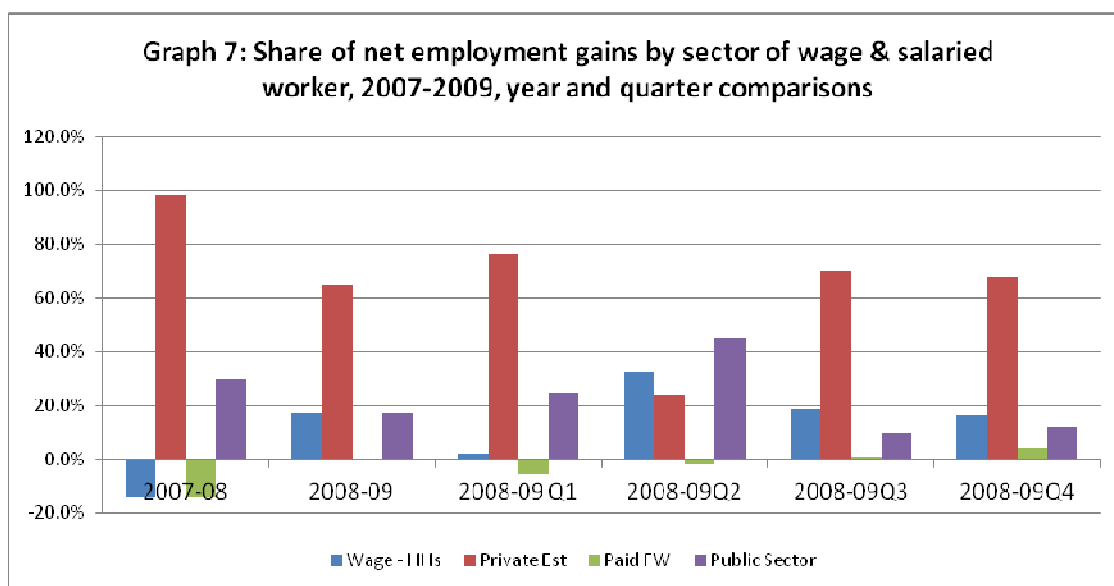
¹⁵ Note that 42 per cent of wage workers are high school graduates and 46 per cent are in 20-34 age range.

¹⁶ Men outnumber women among own-account workers (men/women ratio 1.95 in 2008), while women outnumber men among unpaid family workers (women/men ration 1.21 in 2008).

¹⁷ Bureau of Labor and Employment Statistics, Current Labor Statistics, January 2010.



Source of basic data: BLES, Current Labor Statistics, January 2010.



Source of basic data: BLES, Current Labor Statistics, January 2010.

Services continue to be shock absorber & refuge

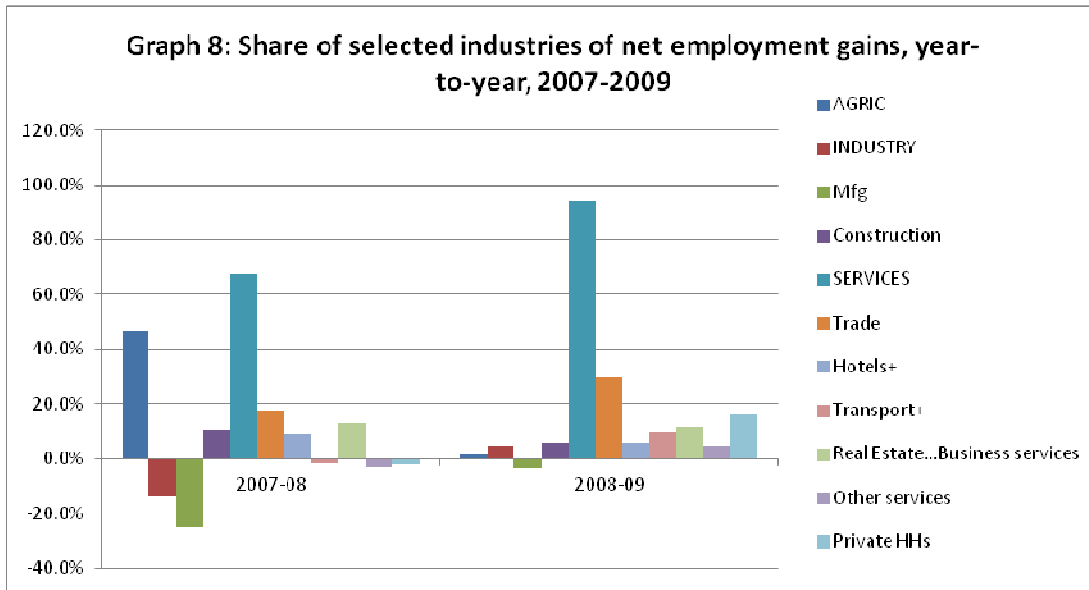
Sixty-eight per cent (68%) of net employment gains in 2008 and 94 per cent of net gains in 2009 occurred in the Services Sector, expanding further its share of total employment from 49.6 per cent in 2007 to 51.1 per cent in 2009. Within the sector, the biggest employment generator was wholesale and retail trade; and far second was real estate, renting and business activities (the booming business process outsourcing industry is probably classified here¹⁸) in 2008, and private households in 2009. As in past crises, services and sales have provided a “refuge” for losses and uncertainty in the production

¹⁸ For example, after-service call centres; but other outsourcing operations may be classified under financial intermediation as “auxiliary activities”. The BPO industry continued to hire as revenue grew by double digits. It accounted for only 1 per cent of total employment. *Philippines Quarterly Update* November 2009.

and formal sectors. The problem with this is that the trade and private households are among the least covered by labour and social protection.

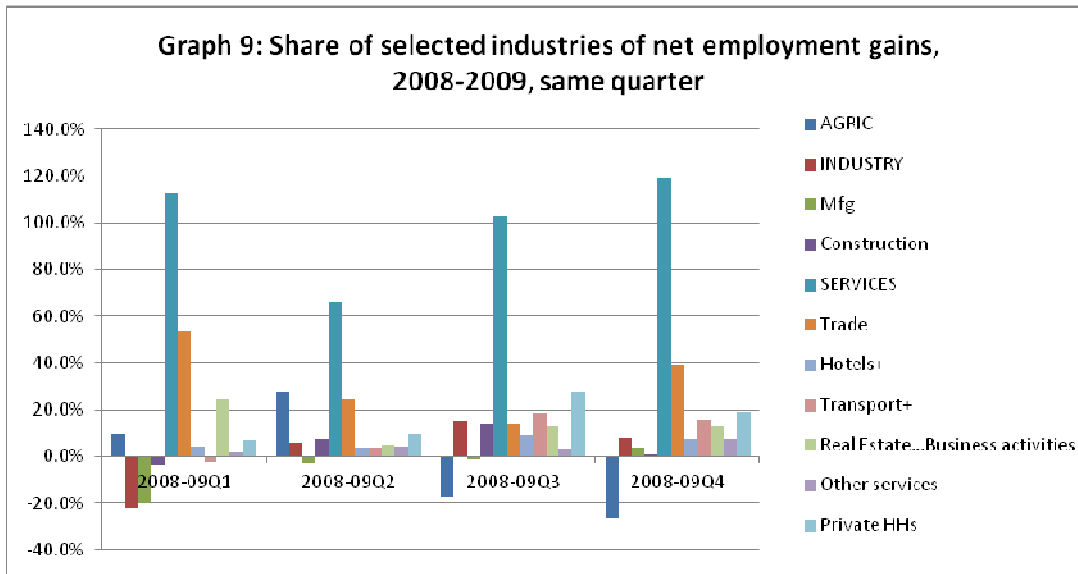
Manufacturing, whose share of total employment has been declining over the years, contracted further, from 9.8 per cent in 1st Quarter 2004, to 8.8 per cent in 1st Quarter 2008 and 8.3 per cent, same quarter 2009. Opportunities for relatively better paid jobs thus waned further.¹⁹ As stated previously, the largest losers of manufacturing jobs were secondary graduates, workers aged 20-34 years old, and women. Construction, a major job generator for men, and electricity, gas and water, a small but important source of relatively well-paid formal jobs for women and men, barely moved in 2009 after having expanded in 2008.

Agriculture barely expanded in 2009 after net gains in 2008, and its share of total employment declined from 31 per cent the 1st Quarter 2004, to 30.9 per cent; 1st Quarter 2008; and 30.5 per cent, 1st Quarter 2009.

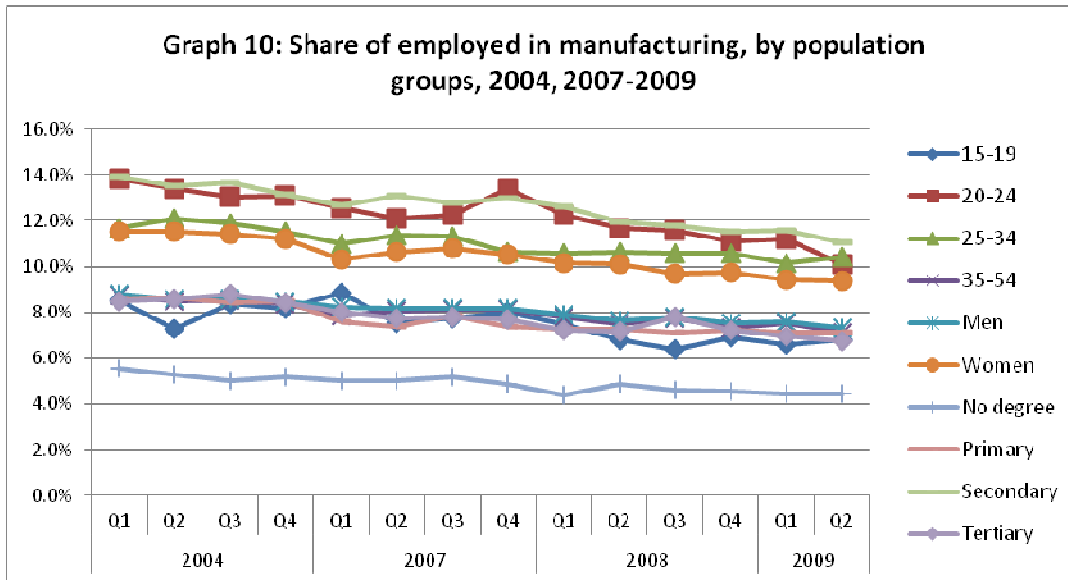


Source of basic data: BLES, Current Labor Statistics, January 2010.

¹⁹ Average hourly wages of skilled production workers such as machine operators and assemblers, stationary plant and related workers, and precision, handicraft, printing and related workers, are lower than average hourly rates of professionals but higher than average hourly wages of salespersons, farmers and elementary occupations. They offer opportunities for high school graduates. King Dejardin and Bigotta, “Pay inequality and the gendered nature of low-paid, precarious employment”, Draft, Policy Integration Department, ILO, Geneva, 2009.



Source of basic data: BLES, Current Labor Statistics, January 2010.



Source of basic data: LFS Microdatasets.

And sales, services and elementary occupations

With the expansion of services, stagnation of agriculture, and contraction of manufacturing, the occupational composition of employment further shifted to sales and services jobs and micro-businesses. This shift is reflected in: rising shares of general managers and managing proprietors (women, older workers of 35-54 and 55-64 years old, and secondary graduates); models, salespersons and demonstrators (mostly 15-19 and 20-24 years old, secondary graduates and women), customer services clerks (20-24 and 25-34 years old, women; with steepest increase among college graduates); and personal and protective service workers (mainly among older workers, 55-64 years old).

Elementary occupations (requiring few or no skills) in agriculture and industry also increased between 2008 and 2009. The bulk of these increases went to 15-19-year old workers with primary or secondary

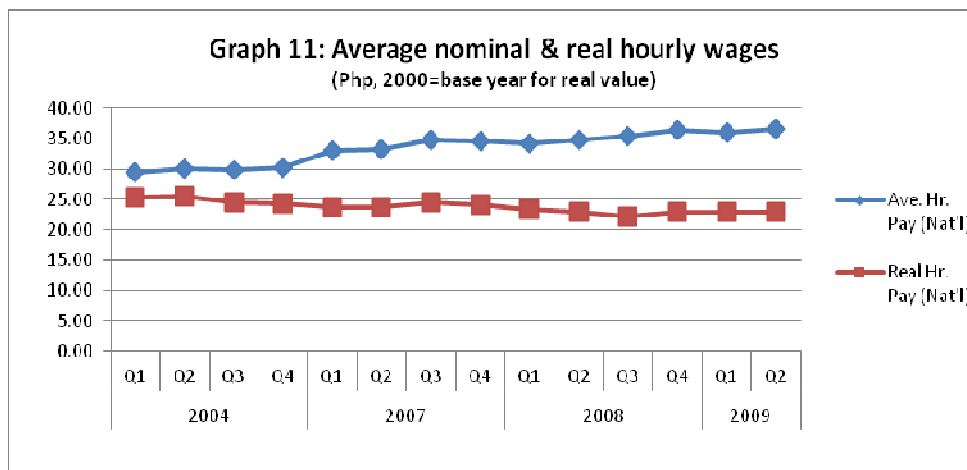
education.²⁰ The share of low-skilled jobs in services and sales declined slightly in 2009 relative to 2008, but continued to be an important primary occupation for workers aged 15-19 years, mostly female, and with primary and secondary education.

Appendix A tables present the comparative data for these occupations.

The expansion of sales, services, farming and elementary occupations has negative implications on wages. These occupations have the highest concentrations (30-50 per cent) of workers whose real hourly pay fell in the bottom quintile of the national hourly wage distribution in 2004, 2007 and 2008.²¹

Real wages & earnings down

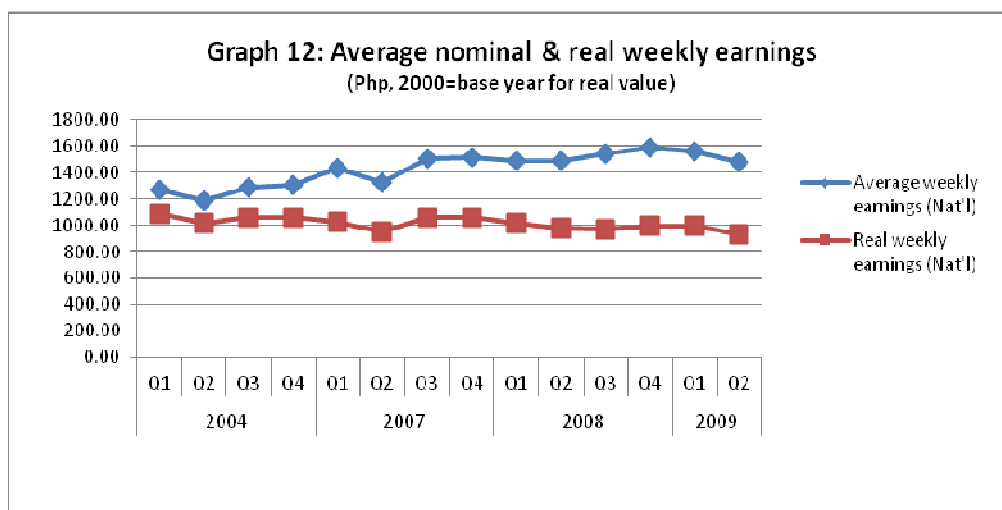
In spite of nominal improvement in average hourly wages, the real value of wages fell, beginning in the first quarter of 2008 when the food and fuel crisis struck. With the reduction in working hours and the rise in part-time, lower hourly wages mean deeper cuts in weekly earnings.



Source of basic data: LFS microdatasets.

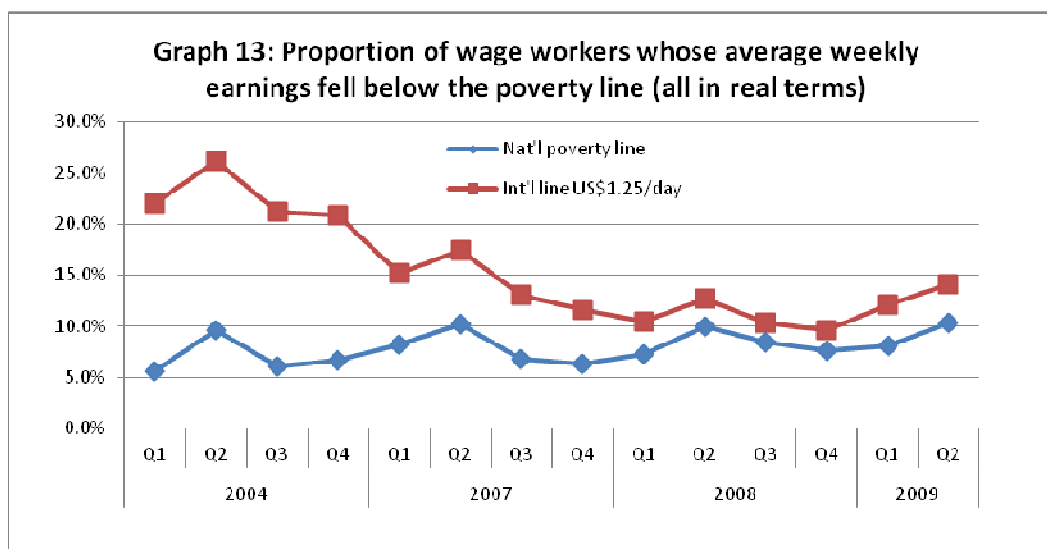
²⁰ 40 per cent of young 15-19 individuals, with primary and secondary education, were agricultural labourers. Most industrial labourers were young, male, with primary education or lower.

²¹ This is drawn from the study of King Dejardin and Bigotta, Draft, 2009, *ibid.*



Source of basic data: LFS microdatasets.

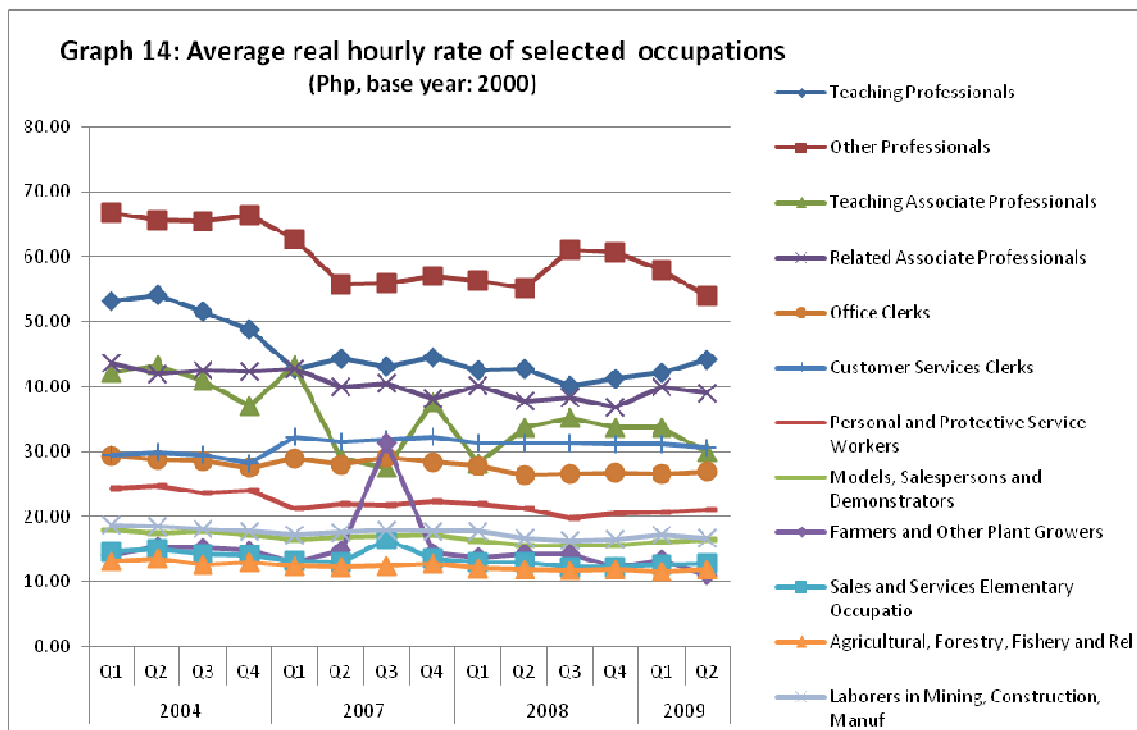
If one uses the national poverty thresholds and international poverty lines as yardsticks of progress, the situation may not be so bad: the proportion of workers whose average weekly earnings fell below these thresholds has been declining. However, one could also argue that there has been little improvement in working people's lives. Because real wages have been declining for many years, workers and their families need to work more hours and/or on more odd jobs in order to maintain the same living standards. In addition, certain groups of workers, based on occupation, sector, contractual status, gender and regional location, tend to receive much lower real hourly rates than the national average. Women have a greater proportion of wage workers whose real weekly earnings fall below the poverty thresholds (see Appendix C Tables).



Source of basic data: LFS microdatasets.

Graph 14 presents trends for selected occupations with relatively important shares of wage employment. Better-paid salaried workers, specifically teaching associate professionals, other professionals, other associate professionals and clerks, experienced, on average, the steepest decline. This trend is reflected in the fall of hourly wages among college graduates. But low-wage workers, i.e. labourers in elementary occupations, farmers, salespersons and personal and protective workers, and those who have completed secondary schooling, also suffered wage cuts.

As a result, the gap between the median wage and the lower limit of the 10th decile contracted, while inequality in the bottom half of the national wage distribution widened.²² These divergent trends are masked by relatively stable inequality indices of real hourly wages (Theil L indices: 0.27 2nd Quarter 2008 and 2nd Quarter 2009).



Source of basic data: LFS microdatasets.

Appendix B tables present average real hourly wages and weekly earnings by level of educational attainment, age group and gender.

Real wages have actually been falling for several years long before 2008.²³ The 2008 crises simply sustained this long-term decline.

The King Dejardin and Bigotta study shows that average real wages declined between 2004 and 2008 across the waged population - men and women, public and private sectors, regular and non-regular workers, fulltime and part-time workers, low-paid and high-paid employees (see table below). What is important to note from the table below is that mainly workers in precarious employment situations suffered the biggest drop in real hourly wages: part-time workers; short-term, casual, seasonal employees; and private household employees. Women's wages and earnings suffered more significantly than men's in 2004-07, but men's earnings took the major blow between 2007 and 2008.

²² Ratio of median wage to lowest decile (top limit) increased from 2.75 in 2nd Quarter 2008 to 2.85 in 2nd Quarter 2009; ratio of top decile (lower limit) to median wage decreased from 2.43 to 2.36 during the same period.

²³ Felipe, J. and Lanzona, Jr., L. "Unemployment, labor laws, and economic policies in the Philippines", in J. Felipe and R. Hasan (eds), *Labor markets in Asia. Issues and perspectives*, Hampshire and New York: Palgrave Macmillan, 2006, pp. 367-502. Nominal wage rate increased 800 per cent between 1980 and 2003, but real wage rate in 2003 was only 80 per cent of the 1980 level.

Categories of employed workers	Change in average real basic hourly pay					
	Increment % 2004-2007			Increment % 2007-2008		
	National	Men	Women	National	Men	Women
All wage workers	-2.9	-1.4	-5.2	-3.7	-4.3	-2.6
Public sector	-8.6	-5.5	-11.3	-6.5	-9.3	-3.9
Private sector	-1.1	-0.7	-2.2	-4.4	-5.0	-3.1
Private households	-1.4	-13.2	0.4	-11.7	-2.9	-13.4
Permanent/regular	-4.0	-1.7	-7.3	-4.9	-5.8	-3.8
Short-term/seasonal	-3.5	-2.7	-4.6	-7.8	-6.3	-10.6
Different employers	2.8	3.1	2.1	-7.0	-8.7	-2.6
Fulltime (FT)	-3.1	-1.5	-5.6	-3.9	-4.6	-2.9
Part-time (PT)	-5.9	-3.5	-9.9	-13.6	-13.6	-13.8
Permanent, FT	-2.9	-1.4	-5.0	-4.4	-5.1	-3.5
Permanent, PT	-9.1	-3.5	-17.1	-11.8	-13.6	-9.5
Short-term/seasonal, FT	-3.2	-0.9	-6.8	-4.2	-5.0	-2.6
Short-term/seasonal, PT	-2.6	-6.2	3.0	-15.9	-10.0	-25.0

Source: King Dejardin, A. and Bigotta, M., *Pay inequality and the gendered nature of low-paid, precarious employment*, Draft, Policy Integration Department, ILO, 2009. Authors' calculations using LFS microdatasets.

3. Regional highlights

The impact of the economic crisis on local labour markets is necessarily shaped by local economic and production structures. Because the immediate damage wrought by the global crisis fell on enterprises that were part of global supply chains and dependent on export markets, the immediate employment impact were evidently felt in regions where these enterprises were concentrated. But private transfers from urban workers to family and relatives in their home towns convey these impacts across regions, and job and wage losses dampen local consumption and investments across a wider space.

I have therefore distinguished regions that are predominantly industrial and non-agricultural, namely, the NCR, CALABARZON, Central Luzon and Central Visayas (because of Cebu) from those that are largely agricultural and rural, namely, Rest of Luzon, Rest of Visayas, ARMM and Rest of Mindanao.²⁴ In regions where agricultural and rural economies dominate, men's labour force participation rates are higher than the national male average and that of industrialised regions. Women's participation rates, which are influenced by many factors other than the production structure, are less clear-cut.²⁵ Their participation rates in the Rest of Mindanao and Rest of Visayas are slightly higher than the national female average and that of the industrialised regions, but their participation rates in ARMM and Central Luzon are much lower. Levels of labour force participation rates at regional level did not drastically change between 2007 and 2009, although some regions (except ARMM, and NCR) show a rise in men's and women's rates between the 3rd quarter of 2008 and 2nd quarter of 2009.

The relatively bigger increases in the number of unemployed women and men in CALABARZON, Central Visayas and NCR, between the 2nd quarter 2008 and first quarter 2009, reflect the regional specificity of the global financial crisis.

²⁴ This is admittedly not a precise classification. Regions classified as mainly agricultural have industrial and urban centres. Central Visayas and Central Luzon have agricultural, rural areas. But the LFS Public Use Files do not allow a finer regrouping of areas. For example, it is not possible to single out Cebu from Central Visayas. The LFS has also stopped using the rural/urban classification.

²⁵ Intra-household factors such as presence of very young children, relative strength of the male breadwinner/female homemaker concept, demands of housework and childcare; division of production tasks, and household income; and external factors such as access to schools, and availability of water and other physical infrastructure.

Manufacturing employment fell steeply in CALABARZON, among women and men (but especially more so among women), as well as in Central Visayas, NCR and Central Luzon. Looking at occupational composition, the decrease in employment shares occurred among:

- Precision, handicraft and printing workers and Other crafts and related workers (both are women-intensive) in CALABARZON, Central Visayas, NCR, and Central Luzon;
- Female machine operators and assemblers in CALABARZON and Central Visayas; and
- Male industrial labourers in NCR.

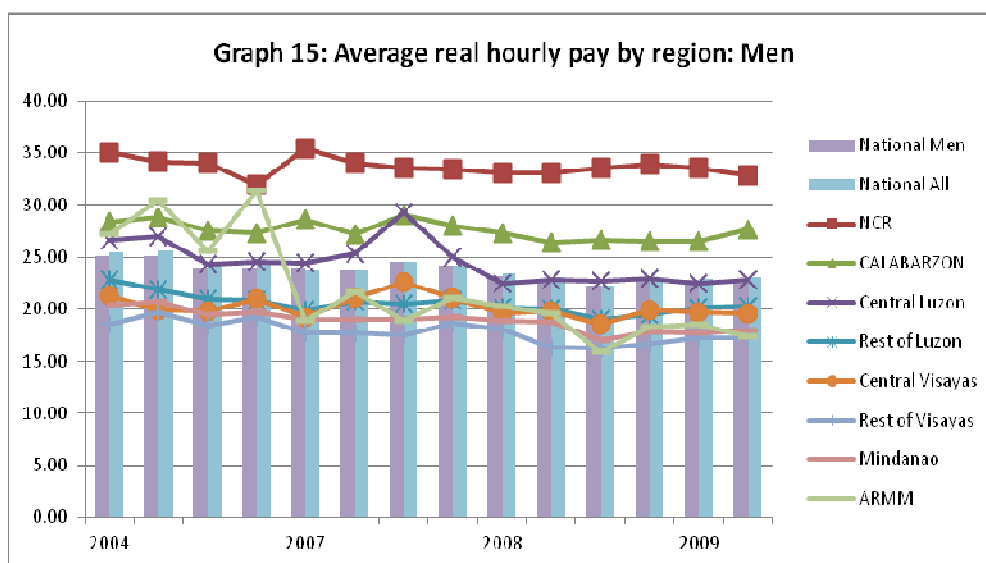
The Services sector absorbed much of the shock, but agriculture also became a refuge. Women in agricultural elementary occupations increased in CALABARZON and Central Visayas. Specifically, the occupations that posted a big increase in employment shares were:

- Personal and protective services occupations, especially among men in NCR and women in Central Luzon;
- Customer services clerks, particularly among women and men (the latter proportionately much less than women) in NCR, CALABARZON and Central Luzon; and
- Models, and salespersons among men and women.

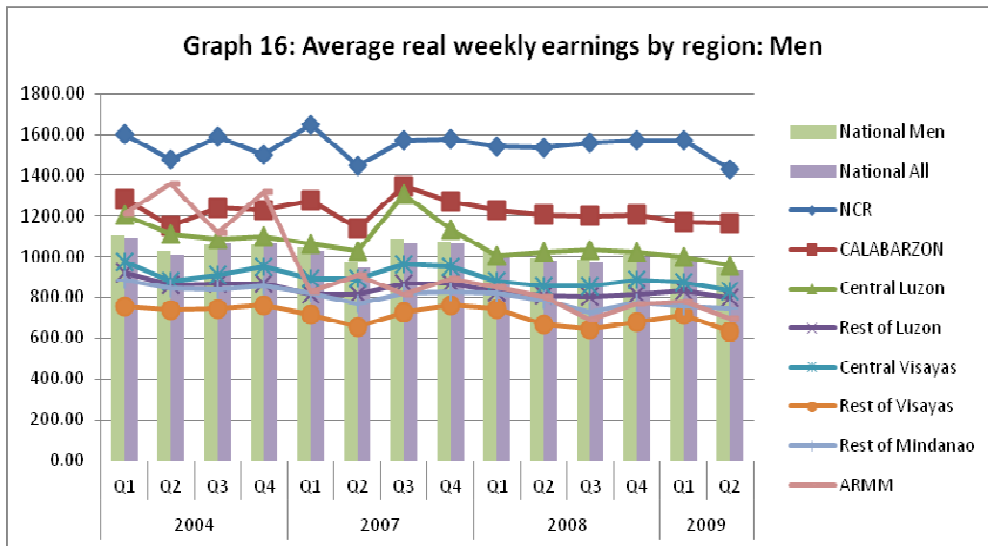
The other, mainly agricultural, regions did not undergo particularly remarkable sectoral and occupational shifts. The changes that did occur in these regions were in working hours and real wages.

Part-time work (less than 40 hours) rose in all regions, except ARMM where it remained at the same level. This confirms the long-term trend of rising underemployment. Intermittent part-time work of less than 20 hours increased among women, especially in CALABARZON, Central Visayas and Rest of Visayas; and among men, especially CALABARZON and Central Visayas.

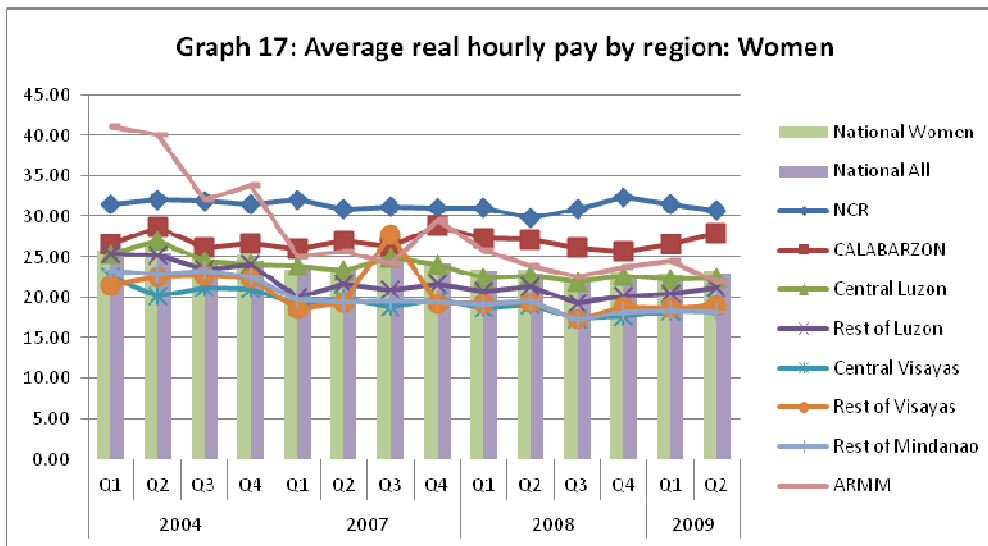
As regards wages and earnings, the wage advantage of NCR and CALABARZON is evident. Real hourly wages and earnings in these two regions, where wages are much higher than other regions to begin with, did not fall as low as it did in the other regions. But, real weekly earnings fell everywhere. Using the national poverty and international poverty thresholds as reference point, the Rest of Visayas, Rest of Mindanao and Rest of Luzon posted the highest percentages of waged and salaried workers whose real weekly earnings fell below the national and international poverty lines. See Appendix C Tables for regional comparisons.



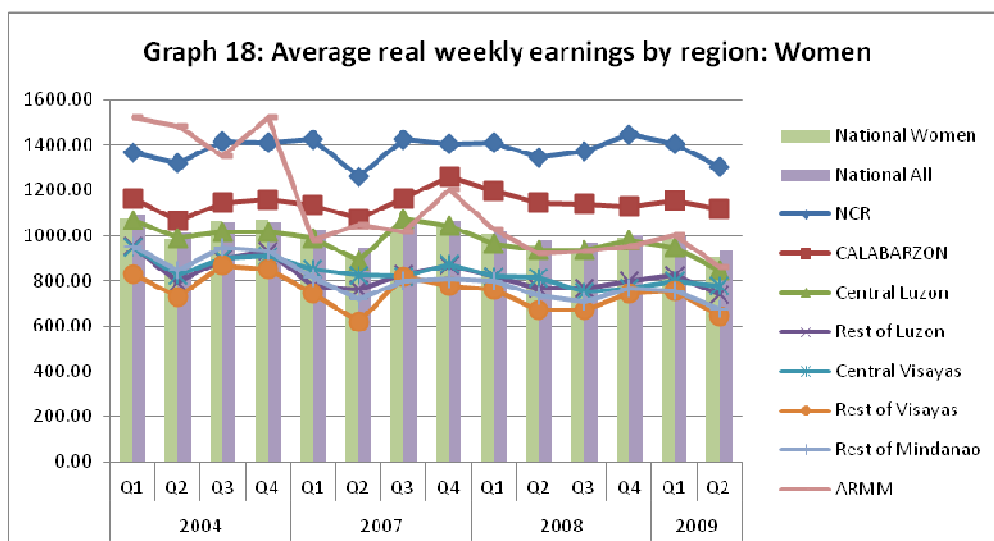
Source of basic data: LFS microdatasets.



Source of basic data: LFS microdatasets.



Source of basic data: LFS microdatasets.



Source of basic data: LFS microdatasets.

4. Issues and challenges

Crisis on top of poverty (the hidden crisis)

The latest poverty figures based on the 2006 FIES show an increase in poverty incidence over the 2003 level: 26.9 per cent of families (24.4 per cent in 2003), and 32.9 per cent of the population (30 per cent in 2003).²⁶ Poverty had already fallen between 2000 and 2003, so these recent statistics imply a reversal of progress made. With the current crisis, soon after the fuel and food crisis last year, past gains could be eroded further.²⁷ Food poverty also went up slightly from 10.2 per cent of families in 2003 to 11 per cent in 2006.

Because the poor are accustomed to engaging in day-to-day survival and to inadequate public services, hardships arising from the global crisis make little difference.²⁸ The fall in incomes is not as dramatic for them as it is for families of laid-off fulltime employees and overseas workers. The pain of the food and fuel crisis and the devastation wrought by typhoons and floods is more palpable. According to the Social Weather Stations household survey, self-rated poverty peaked at 59 per cent (estimated 10.6 families) in the 2nd quarter of 2008.²⁹

Yet, frequent economic shocks and long periods of economic slowdown could damage any productive capacity they have to make a living.

Poor and low-income households adopt three broad strategies to cope with income shocks: (i) minimization of expenditure by changing consumption pattern, cutting nonessential goods and cutting total household spending; (ii) protection of existing income by mobilizing additional labour and

²⁶ www.bles.dole.gov.ph [25 June 2009]. See also Asian Development Bank, *Poverty in the Philippines. Causes, Constraints and Opportunities*, ADB, Mandaluyong City, 2009.

²⁷ Refer back to poverty projections by the World Bank. Philippines Quarterly Update, November 2009.

²⁸ At the ILO-PIMA focused group discussions, many workers almost saw the banality of hardships, and were not even aware that the global crisis might have caused some of their troubles. PIMA unpublished report, 2009.

²⁹ Cited by ADB, 2009:17.

multiplying income-earners, diversifying income sources, and selling or pawning assets (home appliances, jewellery); and (iii) using existing household assets to generate nonmonetary resources and goods to maintain living standards, such as planting vegetables in their backyard, using more family labour to care for the sick or to do repairs on the house.³⁰

Households undertake strategies depending on their initial resources and the ability to transform these into income, food and other basic necessities.³¹ When their asset bases are depleted, or when they have “cashed-in” all available capital (e.g. labour, land, livestock), they will be extremely vulnerable and an upturn in economy may not be able to reverse this.

Labour is the primary asset of poor households. But even this asset is at risk. The proportion of families experiencing involuntary hunger at least once in the past 3 months was at record high (23.7 per cent) in the last quarter of 2008, and has been at double digits since June 2004.³² The additional labour that is mobilized is often women’s labour, but poor households also rely on children’s labour, which means cashing in future human capital. Women are excellent shock absorbers - they are willing to take up any job while maintaining the household and caring for the family, but this could be at the expense of their health and those of their children.³³

Poverty reduction remains the biggest challenge for the country, and calls for a revisit of the country’s policies and strategies for tackling poverty. Agricultural, rural regions continue to be severely disadvantaged, in spite of long-standing recognition that rural poverty is a priority development issue. The precariousness of economic activities and low-wage jobs, which low-income and poor families undertake, generate and perpetuate poverty. The creation of productive, remunerative and fairly stable employment is thus essential to sustainable poverty reduction. Social assistance programmes targeted to the poorest, the “indigent” and “most vulnerable”, while important, are not sufficient. The social safety net approach filters out many more who are poor and who are vulnerable to falling into poverty. Steps towards providing universal coverage of a basic level of social protection thus need to be considered.

What future for local employment?

The 2006 FIES provides the latest information on sources of household income. Entrepreneurial activities and non-agricultural waged and salaried employment are the main sources of household income across the country. The important distinction, however, is: the share of entrepreneurial income expands as one moves down the national income ladder, while the share of non-agricultural wage employment increases the higher the income of the family.

³⁰ Moser, C. and McIlwaine, C., *Household responses to poverty and vulnerability, Volume 3: Confronting crisis in Commonwealth, Metro Manila, The Philippines*, The World Bank, Washington D.C. 1997, identified these types of strategies. These same coping strategies have been well-documented by recent case studies of workers of export industries in Indonesia, China, Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand and Vietnam (Durano and Hung, 2009, *ibid.*); by the ILO-PIMA focused group discussions, PIMA unpublished report 2009.

³¹ Coping strategies are influenced by external factors, e.g. quality of social and economic infrastructure, stocks of social capital (informal and organized reciprocal networks, community organizations).

³² ADB, 2009, *ibid.*, p. 18. The 2008 hunger average was 18.5 per cent, higher than the 2007 average of 17.9 per cent. The proportion is highest in Mindanao, but also record high in the NCR, Visayas and Balance of Luzon.

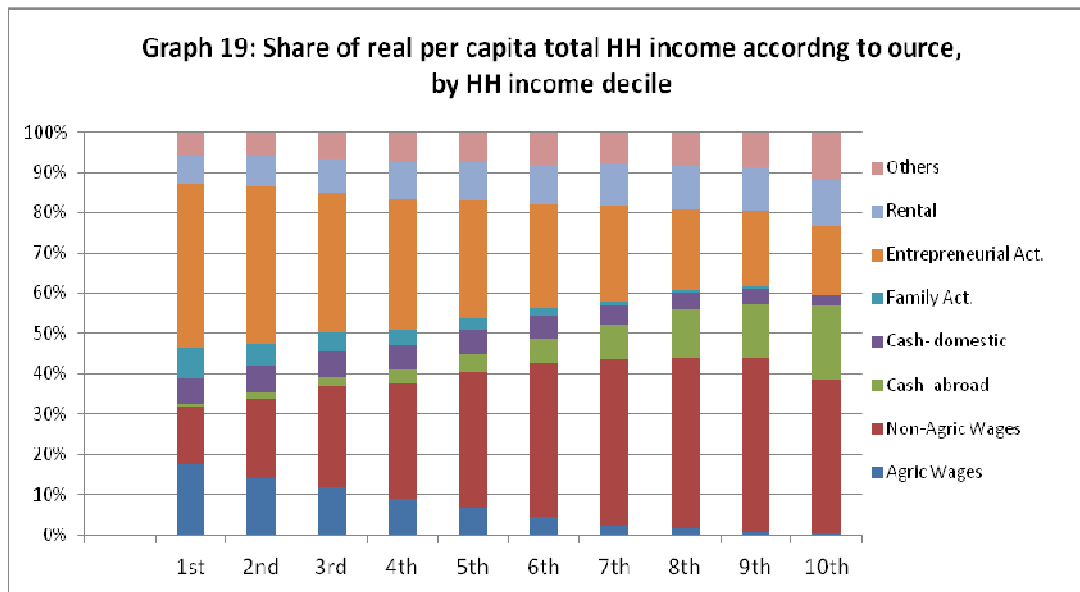
³³ During the 1997-98 crisis, women’s working hours increased, which was attributed to a shift in their occupations to services and trade and to multiple home-based subcontracting jobs. Lim, J.Y. 2000. “The effects of the East Asian crisis on the employment of women and men: The Philippine case”, in *World Development* Vol. 28, No. 7, pp. 1285-306. Illo, J. 1998. *The impact of the economic crisis on women workers in the Philippines: Social and gender dimensions*, Working paper prepared under the AIT/ILO Research Project on the Gender Impact of the Economic Crisis in Southeast and East Asia. Geneva, ILO.

The poorest households, i.e. those in the bottom quintile of the national income distribution, are heavily dependent on entrepreneurial activities (which account for 39-41 per cent of total per capita household income). Evidently, in this case, these are low-productive, low-income, subsistence activities in the informal economy. An economic crisis puts greater strain on micro businesses because of price instability, shrinking local demand, and increased competition from more workers entering the same informal businesses.³⁴

Agricultural wage employment is also important for poor households. The share of agricultural wage income increases in importance below the national median, and is highest in the bottom decile – a pattern that is consistent with the predominantly very low wages among agricultural labourers, farmers and fishers.

In direct contrast, wealthier households, i.e. those in the top quintile, have among the highest shares of non-agricultural wage income, and rely substantially on overseas remittances.

Overseas remittances play the biggest role in households belonging to the top decile. This role diminishes down the national income distribution to bare significance in the lowest two quintiles. On the other hand, remittances from domestic sources (including urban migrant workers) play an increasing role the lower the household income.



Source of basic data: 2006 FIES microdatasets.

³⁴ Horn, Z., *No cushion to fall back on : The impact of the global recession on women in the informal economies in four Asian countries*, A paper for the Conference on “The impact of the global economic slowdown on poverty and sustainable development in Asia and the Pacific, 28-30 September 2009, Hanoi. The World Bank small survey of companies in 2009 found out that the informal local garments, bags, footwear and electronics trade industry suffered sharply reduced sales especially in lower-price ranged products and non-necessities, *Philippines Quarterly Update* November 2009.

Decile of the real HH	Average real per capita HH income by source, by income decile, 2006								
	Total HH Income	Agric. Wages	Non-Agric Wages	Cash-Abroad	Cash-Domestic	Family Act.	Entrepreneurial Act.	Rental	Others
1st	5'547.1	972.4	788.2	43.3	357.8	413.8	2'253.3	402.4	315.9
2nd	8'372.4	1'188.3	1'651.2	107.2	557.9	478.6	3'254.5	643.0	491.7
3rd	10'871.1	1'307.4	2'722.7	240.0	677.3	503.6	3'784.2	905.4	730.5
4th	13'610.4	1'238.8	3'911.1	436.0	844.9	498.1	4'412.1	1'241.3	1'028.1
5th	16'988.2	1'118.9	5'730.4	789.6	1'017.1	467.7	4'983.5	1'586.6	1'294.4
6th	21'219.9	982.1	8'095.8	1'281.3	1'187.1	399.3	5'472.7	2'100.9	1'700.8
7th	27'275.4	673.4	11'201.7	2'307.3	1'300.2	322.6	6'491.5	2'809.5	2'169.2
8th	35'956.6	548.7	15'245.0	4'272.0	1'527.7	250.2	7'205.4	3'868.9	3'038.5
9th	51'920.8	361.2	22'453.8	7'046.3	1'880.0	188.2	9'892.2	5'535.0	4'564.1
10th	119'758.8	385.9	45'923.8	21'755.9	3'228.4	131.7	20'182.4	14'158.6	13'992.1

Source of basic data: 2006 FIES microdatasets.

H. Son's study of household incomes based on the 1997, 2000 and 2003 FIES draws the same findings.³⁵ Little has changed over the past decade. The major income source of poor households was entrepreneurial activities. Son also observed that, in aggregate terms, the national average share of wages (agricultural and non-agricultural) had been waning, from 46.1 per cent in 1997 to 44.8 per cent in 2003, while the share of overseas remittances rose from 9 per cent in 1997 to 12.7 per cent in 2003. Given the bias of overseas remittances and wages towards higher income families, one could assume that these trends have widened the inequality among families.

Only a small proportion of households (23.8 per cent of all households) benefits from overseas remittances, much smaller than those receiving cash from domestic sources (46.5 per cent, e.g. remittances from migrant workers, transfers and assistance from government). Relatively better-off households - better skilled and educated, with savings and assets - are able to transact in overseas job markets. In turn, overseas remittances generate further advantage and mobility.

Among the regions, families in Central Luzon, NCR and CALABARZON have been the biggest beneficiaries of overseas employment. The least are Mindanao and ARMM.

Remittances from domestic sources benefit Central Luzon, CALABARZON and the Rest of Visayas the most. ARMM, again, benefits the least.

With the exception of ARMM, at least half of households draw on non-agricultural wage income, the biggest proportion being in NCR (80 per cent), CALABARZON (72 per cent), Central Luzon (69 per cent) and Central Visayas (65 per cent). Entrepreneurial activities are important sources for all regions but much more so for the Rest of Luzon, Visayas, ARMM and Mindanao and CARAGA (70-91 per cent of households).

Income Source	Proportion of households drawing income from the following sources, 2006								
	Whole country	NCR	CALABARZON	CL	Rest Luzon	Rest Visayas	Central Vis.	Rest Mind.	ARMM
Cash from abroad	23.8%	28.3%	27.8%	33.8%	25.6%	21.2%	21.4%	15.7%	11.3%
Cash from domestic	46.5%	30.3%	57.3%	58.7%	48.4%	53.5%	46.8%	40.6%	19.1%
Entrep. Act	67.4%	38.9%	55.7%	57.3%	76.1%	75.6%	71.1%	74.9%	90.9%
Family Act	67.5%	3.4%	40.2%	59.4%	85.3%	86.6%	70.8%	84.4%	82.8%
Agric. Wage	23.9%	0.5%	11.0%	20.2%	32.5%	34.2%	15.5%	32.4%	7.3%
Non.Agric Wage	60.9%	80.2%	71.8%	68.9%	54.7%	56.0%	64.7%	54.3%	15.8%

Source of basic data: 2006 FIES microdatasets.

³⁵ Son, H. *Explaining Growth and Inequality in Factor Income: The Philippine Case*, ERD Working Paper Series No. 120, Asian Development Bank, Manila, 2008.

What is the future for local employment? Shrinking industrial and manufacturing wage employment, which provide relatively better wages and stability, the lack of job growth in many regions, high underemployment and falling real wages are important policy challenges. How these are addressed will shape the future of many low-income and poor families whose primary asset is their labour. The declining labour income share of GDP between 2000 and 2005, from 0.262 to 0.234, is not encouraging.³⁶ According to Canlas (2007), this is low compared to other middle-income countries in Asia, where labour income share is at least 0.50.³⁷

Overseas employment remittances have been the bright star. In spite of low and declining labour income share and falling real wages, consumption drove 70 per cent of GNP largely due to overseas remittances. One cannot deny the benefits of overseas employment to improvements in the living standards of individual families and particular communities where they live, not to mention the macroeconomic benefits to the country. However, an employment strategy that heavily relies on overseas job markets abandons – excludes - the majority (and poorer) of the working population, and will widen income and social inequalities.

Reducing income insecurity and vulnerability: is there a universal approach?

The First Quarter Social Weather Survey, fielded over February 20-23 2009, found high incidence of hunger (i.e. hungry but nothing to eat at least once in the past three months) among the unemployed: 25 per cent among families of those whose contracts were not renewed, 23 per cent among families of those who were laid off, 21 per cent among families of those who voluntarily left their job, and 19 per cent among families of those whose employers closed operation. It was especially severe (i.e. hunger occurred often or always in the past three months) among families of those who were laid off from their jobs (17 per cent).³⁸ Part of their vulnerability to job loss can be blamed on the absence of an institutionalized system of social protection for the unemployed, and on low, declining real earnings which prohibit savings. Regular workers are entitled to separation benefits, but non-payment of benefits is probably not uncommon.

While shorter workweeks, reduced production shifts and forced unpaid leaves might seem better than being laid off permanently, workers affected do suffer a sharp drop in take-home pay. No work, no pay.³⁹ Four population groups may have fallen in the cracks of the CLEEP programmes, which were put together to assist workers laid-off because of the global crisis: (i) displaced workers of establishments that did not report to DOLE; (ii) workers who were not permanently displaced but were obliged to take leave or work less hours without compensation; (iii) workers who were working but were poor or near

³⁶ Cited in Canlas, D. *Philippine Labor Market Outcomes and Scenarios: 2000-2015*, Technical Report, September 2007. Prepared for ILO Office in Manila. Data from National Statistical Coordination Board, *National Accounts of the Philippines*, May 2003 and June 2006.

³⁷ Canlas, D. *ibid.*

³⁸ SWS Media Release, 20 May 2009, www.sws.org.ph. [June 12, 2009] Survey was conducted using face-to-face interviews of 1200 adults in Metro Manila, the balance of Luzon, Visayas and Mindanao, sampling error margins of +-3% for national percentages. Area estimates weighted by National Statistics Office medium-population projections for 2009 to obtain national estimates.

³⁹ Landingin, R., "Overview. The hidden job crisis", *Newsbreak*, May/July 2009, pp. 7-11. The article gives accounts of concrete consequences on lives of economic zone workers who have been laid off temporarily or permanently.

poor; and (iv) informal and non-regular workers, workers in smaller business units and homeworkers, who were not entitled to separation and social security benefits.⁴⁰

Publicly funded social assistance programmes, such as conditional cash transfers and the Phil Health Indigent programme, are targeted to the poorest population. The weakness of such minimalist social safety nets is that they are unable to meet the casualties of economic shocks. They also leave out many who are just below the poverty line or are just above and could easily fall into poverty. The millions who are missed by social assistance programmes for the poor and by formal social insurance will have to continue diversifying and intensifying further the use of their labour (women, youth and children), and relying on help from extended family networks, local patrons and local leaders.

The challenge of extending universal social protection is undoubtedly a tough one. Relatively few countries have been able to achieve universal coverage of basic social security.⁴¹ Many countries in Asia rely on severance payment systems based on labour law as a means for providing workers with basic social security in the event of unemployment, but this is ineffective in times of economic crisis owing to mass bankruptcies. Thailand (in 2004) and Vietnam (under the 2009 Unemployment Insurance Law) have recently established an unemployment insurance system.⁴² Thailand is considered to be most successful in terms of health care and old-age pension provision. India's National Employment Guarantee Scheme fairly addresses well the problems of spatial poverty and social exclusion. It may be the time for the Philippines to take a broader and longer-term perspective of its current schemes, and choose the building blocks and instruments that would comprise an effective social protection package.

⁴⁰ Eligibility requirements include period of contributions, and premiums remitted by employers and employees. There are reports that workers who are supposed to be registered in the Social Security System may in fact be not; or employers may have lagged behind in remitting their premiums to the SSS. Based on LFS 2008-09, about a fifth of workers reported to be on short-term, casual or seasonal contractual status in their primary occupation. The LFS questionnaire defines "permanent" work to be one where the job is expected to run for at least a year or where the contract is indefinite.

⁴¹ ILO Sub-Regional Office for East Asia, *Mitigating the social impacts of crises in Asia*, June 2008.

⁴² ILO Sub-Regional Office for East Asia, 2008, *ibid.* Jones, N. and Holmes, R. *Gender and social protection in Asia: What does the crisis change?* Background paper for the Conference on "The impact of the global economic slowdown on poverty and sustainable development in Asia and the Pacific, 28-30 September 2009, Hanoi.

Appendices

Appendix A. Tables: Share of employed (disaggregated by age, sex and educational attainment) of selected occupational groups

	Share of employed - General managers & managing proprietors													
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
15-19	0.8%	1.1%	0.9%	1.1%	0.9%	1.0%	1.5%	1.2%	1.3%	1.1%	1.4%	1.2%	1.1%	1.1%
20-24	3.3%	3.5%	3.2%	2.9%	2.8%	2.8%	3.3%	2.7%	2.5%	3.2%	3.5%	2.8%	3.0%	3.5%
25-34	8.3%	9.0%	8.1%	7.6%	8.1%	7.9%	8.0%	7.1%	7.6%	8.6%	8.8%	8.0%	9.1%	8.7%
35-54	13.0%	13.3%	12.6%	11.8%	12.7%	12.6%	12.6%	12.1%	12.7%	14.3%	13.7%	13.4%	14.0%	14.4%
55-64	15.0%	15.1%	14.5%	13.5%	15.0%	15.0%	14.7%	14.3%	14.0%	16.6%	15.8%	15.5%	15.4%	16.8%
Men	6.2%	6.5%	5.9%	5.5%	5.9%	6.0%	6.1%	5.7%	6.1%	7.7%	7.2%	7.2%	7.8%	8.0%
Women	16.1%	16.2%	16.1%	15.0%	15.8%	15.2%	15.6%	14.8%	15.2%	16.0%	16.3%	14.9%	15.5%	15.7%
No degree	6.0%	6.0%	6.2%	5.0%	6.5%	5.9%	6.1%	5.3%	5.8%	6.7%	6.4%	5.9%	6.5%	6.4%
Primary	9.1%	9.2%	9.1%	8.1%	8.7%	8.4%	8.8%	8.0%	8.4%	9.8%	9.8%	8.8%	9.6%	9.8%
Secondary	12.2%	12.1%	11.8%	11.1%	11.9%	11.5%	11.9%	11.2%	11.6%	13.5%	13.3%	12.8%	13.3%	13.8%
Tertiary	11.8%	13.2%	11.3%	11.6%	11.3%	11.6%	11.3%	11.5%	11.6%	11.3%	11.1%	11.3%	11.7%	11.6%

	Share of employed - Farmers and other plant growers													
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
25-34	9.2%	9.2%	9.0%	9.9%	8.1%	7.7%	8.2%	9.1%	8.7%	7.8%	7.8%	8.1%	7.7%	7.8%
35-54	15.3%	15.3%	15.9%	16.5%	14.9%	14.9%	15.3%	16.2%	15.5%	14.8%	15.5%	16.0%	15.1%	14.8%
55-64	26.7%	26.6%	27.1%	27.8%	23.9%	24.3%	24.6%	26.4%	25.7%	25.4%	24.6%	25.3%	24.9%	24.5%
Men	19.1%	18.8%	19.6%	20.4%	17.9%	17.7%	18.5%	19.8%	19.0%	17.7%	18.4%	19.0%	18.5%	18.0%
Women	3.8%	3.4%	3.8%	4.2%	4.1%	3.7%	4.1%	3.6%	3.9%	3.7%	4.1%	3.8%	3.5%	3.6%
No degree	28.2%	28.3%	28.1%	30.4%	26.2%	27.1%	27.9%	30.1%	29.3%	27.4%	27.3%	28.3%	28.0%	28.1%
Primary	15.5%	15.4%	16.1%	16.8%	15.2%	14.8%	15.8%	16.7%	16.2%	15.3%	16.2%	16.5%	16.0%	15.5%
Secondary	7.0%	6.6%	7.5%	7.9%	7.1%	6.6%	7.0%	7.5%	7.4%	6.8%	7.4%	7.5%	7.2%	6.8%
Tertiary	2.4%	2.2%	2.2%	2.2%	2.0%	2.3%	2.5%	2.3%	2.0%	2.3%	2.2%	2.6%	2.2%	2.4%

	Share of employed - Agricultural labourers													
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
15-19	41.8%	44.0%	43.5%	44.7%	40.1%	43.6%	40.8%	42.6%	41.2%	46.3%	42.8%	43.3%	42.9%	45.1%
20-24	20.6%	21.8%	22.5%	23.8%	21.9%	22.4%	22.0%	23.3%	22.5%	24.6%	23.2%	24.3%	23.0%	24.8%
25-34	14.4%	13.6%	14.6%	14.9%	14.9%	14.4%	14.1%	15.5%	14.4%	15.8%	15.2%	15.4%	14.8%	15.3%
35-54	12.6%	12.2%	13.1%	13.1%	12.9%	12.2%	12.3%	12.4%	12.5%	13.4%	12.9%	13.3%	12.8%	12.9%
55-64	11.9%	11.7%	12.9%	13.0%	11.9%	12.0%	11.7%	12.1%	11.8%	12.6%	12.6%	12.4%	12.2%	12.3%
Men	16.8%	16.6%	17.4%	17.3%	17.5%	17.0%	16.8%	16.9%	16.7%	18.7%	17.7%	17.5%	17.1%	17.6%
Women	15.1%	16.3%	16.2%	17.3%	15.1%	16.5%	14.9%	16.6%	15.8%	16.8%	15.7%	17.2%	16.1%	17.5%
No degree	29.0%	29.8%	30.4%	29.8%	29.4%	29.6%	29.3%	30.0%	29.5%	32.4%	30.7%	31.8%	31.1%	31.9%
Primary	21.9%	21.9%	23.3%	24.0%	23.5%	23.7%	22.1%	24.2%	23.7%	25.6%	24.2%	24.7%	24.2%	25.1%
Secondary	9.3%	10.1%	9.7%	10.5%	10.0%	10.5%	10.0%	10.5%	10.1%	11.4%	10.6%	11.0%	10.3%	11.2%
Tertiary	1.5%	1.7%	1.4%	1.7%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	1.5%	1.2%	1.4%	1.4%	1.4%	1.3%	1.7%

	Share of employed - Industrial labourers													
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
15-19	6.7%	6.3%	6.9%	6.6%	7.4%	7.5%	6.4%	6.2%	7.2%	7.5%	7.6%	7.5%	7.4%	7.7%
20-24	8.0%	7.9%	7.9%	7.5%	8.0%	8.1%	7.8%	7.5%	7.3%	7.9%	8.2%	8.1%	8.0%	8.5%
25-34	5.2%	5.4%	5.5%	5.4%	5.4%	6.2%	5.9%	5.4%	5.2%	5.9%	5.8%	6.1%	5.7%	6.2%
35-54	2.8%	3.3%	3.1%	3.0%	3.2%	3.5%	3.5%	3.2%	3.3%	3.5%	3.4%	3.4%	3.2%	3.3%
Men	5.8%	6.1%	6.0%	5.7%	6.2%	6.7%	6.5%	5.9%	6.0%	6.3%	6.3%	6.4%	6.2%	6.4%
Women	1.7%	1.8%	1.8%	1.8%	1.9%	1.9%	1.6%	1.6%	1.7%	2.0%	1.9%	1.9%	1.8%	2.0%
No degree	3.5%	3.8%	3.7%	3.4%	4.0%	4.4%	4.2%	3.6%	3.7%	4.0%	4.1%	4.1%	4.3%	4.3%
Primary	5.4%	5.6%	5.5%	5.5%	5.6%	6.2%	6.0%	5.6%	5.6%	6.1%	5.9%	6.1%	5.9%	6.2%
Secondary	4.8%	5.2%	5.2%	5.0%	5.2%	5.5%	5.0%	5.0%	5.0%	5.3%	5.2%	5.4%	4.9%	5.3%
Tertiary	0.7%	0.8%	0.8%	0.7%	0.9%	0.8%	0.8%	0.7%	0.6%	0.7%	1.0%	0.7%	0.8%	0.7%

Share of employed - Models, salespersons, demonstrators															
	2004				2007				2008				2009		
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	
15-19	9.1%	10.4%	9.5%	9.2%	10.8%	11.1%	11.2%	10.5%	11.5%	12.4%	11.2%	12.3%	12.7%	13.1%	
20-24	9.3%	8.8%	9.3%	9.4%	9.6%	9.8%	9.6%	8.9%	9.8%	9.8%	9.8%	9.9%	10.9%	11.4%	
25-34	4.4%	4.4%	4.5%	4.7%	5.3%	5.6%	5.5%	5.3%	5.3%	5.6%	5.7%	5.7%	6.2%	5.7%	
35-54	2.6%	2.6%	2.6%	2.4%	2.8%	2.7%	2.8%	2.7%	2.6%	2.9%	3.0%	2.8%	3.0%	2.9%	
Men	2.8%	2.6%	2.7%	2.7%	3.0%	3.2%	2.8%	2.9%	2.9%	3.2%	3.2%	3.2%	3.4%	3.4%	
Women	6.9%	7.5%	7.3%	7.2%	7.7%	7.9%	8.1%	7.5%	7.7%	8.3%	8.0%	8.0%	8.5%	8.4%	
No degree	1.5%	1.4%	1.6%	1.3%	1.9%	1.6%	1.6%	1.2%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	1.6%	1.7%	1.5%	
Primary	3.4%	3.5%	3.2%	3.3%	3.6%	3.5%	3.6%	3.4%	3.5%	3.5%	3.7%	3.6%	3.7%	3.8%	
Secondary	6.9%	6.9%	7.1%	7.0%	7.6%	7.9%	7.7%	7.4%	7.6%	8.2%	8.0%	8.2%	8.7%	8.7%	
Tertiary	4.3%	4.3%	4.4%	4.8%	4.4%	4.9%	4.5%	4.5%	4.1%	4.8%	4.6%	4.2%	4.8%	4.6%	

Share of employed - Personal and protective services workers															
	2004				2007				2008				2009		
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	
15-19	5.5%	4.3%	4.5%	4.4%	4.7%	4.4%	4.5%	4.8%	4.3%	3.9%	4.6%	4.8%	4.6%	4.1%	
20-24	6.6%	6.1%	5.8%	5.5%	6.4%	6.1%	6.6%	6.2%	6.7%	6.8%	6.5%	6.6%	6.3%	6.1%	
25-34	5.6%	5.8%	5.4%	5.4%	5.8%	5.7%	5.7%	5.2%	5.9%	5.6%	6.1%	5.7%	6.0%	5.8%	
35-54	4.8%	4.8%	4.4%	4.6%	4.7%	4.7%	4.8%	4.6%	4.9%	4.8%	4.7%	4.8%	5.1%	4.9%	
55-64	2.6%	2.7%	2.6%	2.6%	2.9%	2.8%	3.0%	2.8%	3.1%	3.2%	3.2%	2.9%	3.4%	3.5%	
Men	4.8%	4.9%	4.5%	4.6%	4.7%	4.8%	4.8%	4.7%	4.9%	4.8%	4.9%	4.8%	5.1%	4.9%	
Women	5.2%	4.8%	4.6%	4.6%	5.2%	4.8%	5.2%	4.7%	5.1%	4.9%	5.1%	5.1%	5.2%	5.1%	
No degree	1.4%	1.5%	1.3%	1.4%	1.6%	1.5%	1.6%	1.3%	1.4%	1.2%	1.5%	1.4%	1.5%	1.4%	
Primary	3.7%	3.6%	3.1%	3.0%	3.5%	3.2%	3.4%	2.9%	3.2%	3.2%	3.4%	3.2%	3.5%	3.4%	
Secondary	8.2%	7.7%	7.6%	7.6%	7.8%	7.7%	7.7%	7.6%	8.1%	7.9%	7.7%	7.8%	8.2%	7.7%	
Tertiary	4.7%	5.0%	4.6%	4.7%	4.7%	5.1%	5.2%	4.9%	5.1%	4.9%	5.3%	5.2%	4.8%	5.1%	

Share of employed - Elementary occupations in sales & services														
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
15-19	18.9%	17.4%	18.4%	17.9%	19.4%	17.1%	18.3%	18.0%	17.7%	16.0%	18.1%	17.3%	17.5%	16.2%
20-24	12.4%	12.4%	11.8%	11.6%	11.8%	12.7%	11.2%	12.2%	11.5%	11.1%	12.1%	11.6%	11.7%	11.1%
25-34	9.6%	9.8%	9.3%	9.4%	9.8%	9.6%	9.8%	10.3%	10.0%	9.3%	9.5%	9.5%	9.6%	9.5%
35-54	10.4%	9.9%	10.4%	10.0%	11.1%	10.2%	10.7%	10.2%	10.8%	9.8%	10.8%	10.1%	10.4%	10.0%
55-64	9.1%	9.0%	8.7%	8.9%	10.1%	8.9%	9.5%	9.4%	9.3%	8.5%	9.6%	9.2%	9.1%	8.9%
Men	5.8%	6.1%	5.9%	5.8%	6.3%	6.0%	6.2%	6.3%	6.1%	5.7%	6.0%	5.9%	6.0%	5.9%
Women	18.9%	18.1%	18.1%	18.0%	18.9%	18.3%	18.2%	18.3%	18.5%	17.1%	18.6%	17.8%	17.9%	17.1%
No degree	8.9%	8.6%	8.8%	8.5%	9.7%	8.6%	9.0%	8.0%	8.8%	7.9%	8.9%	8.3%	8.5%	7.8%
Primary	13.7%	13.3%	12.9%	12.9%	14.1%	13.6%	13.4%	13.5%	13.4%	12.6%	13.1%	12.9%	13.3%	13.0%
Secondary	12.4%	12.5%	12.5%	12.2%	12.9%	12.3%	12.8%	13.2%	13.0%	11.9%	13.3%	12.7%	12.8%	12.2%
Tertiary	2.6%	2.5%	2.6%	2.5%	2.6%	2.8%	3.0%	2.4%	2.5%	2.5%	2.5%	2.1%	2.3%	2.4%

Share of employed - Customer service clerks														
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
15-19	0.5%	0.6%	0.7%	0.5%	0.8%	0.8%	0.7%	0.9%	0.8%	0.7%	0.9%	0.8%	1.0%	1.1%
20-24	2.5%	2.5%	2.9%	2.9%	4.0%	3.7%	3.8%	4.4%	4.5%	4.3%	4.2%	4.5%	4.4%	4.5%
25-34	1.9%	1.9%	2.0%	2.1%	2.8%	2.6%	3.0%	3.0%	3.1%	3.3%	3.1%	3.4%	3.4%	3.7%
35-54	1.2%	1.1%	1.3%	1.2%	1.4%	1.4%	1.4%	1.3%	1.4%	1.3%	1.3%	1.3%	1.5%	1.6%
55-64	0.8%	0.6%	0.7%	0.8%	1.0%	0.9%	0.9%	1.0%	1.0%	0.7%	0.9%	1.0%	1.1%	1.2%
Men	0.7%	0.8%	0.8%	0.9%	1.2%	1.1%	1.2%	1.2%	1.2%	1.2%	1.2%	1.3%	1.4%	1.5%
Women	2.5%	2.3%	2.7%	2.5%	3.1%	3.1%	3.0%	3.4%	3.5%	3.4%	3.2%	3.5%	3.5%	3.6%
Primary	0.4%	0.4%	0.5%	0.5%	0.6%	0.5%	0.5%	0.4%	0.5%	0.5%	0.6%	0.6%	0.6%	0.8%
Secondary	1.8%	1.6%	1.8%	1.8%	2.1%	2.0%	2.2%	2.1%	2.3%	2.2%	2.1%	2.3%	2.3%	2.6%
Tertiary	4.6%	4.7%	5.2%	5.0%	6.8%	6.5%	6.4%	7.4%	7.1%	7.3%	6.8%	7.3%	7.5%	7.2%

Appendix B. Tables: Average real hourly wages and weekly earnings

Average real hourly wages by population group, 2004, 2007-2009															
	2004				2007				2008				2009		
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	
15-19	13.74	13.74	12.76	12.45	11.61	11.39	11.69	11.85	11.90	10.98	10.72	10.61	10.63	10.92	
20-24	20.11	20.73	19.90	19.91	19.36	19.53	19.68	20.04	20.08	19.21	18.50	18.95	19.23	18.98	
25-34	25.69	26.12	25.27	24.92	24.30	24.58	25.98	24.91	23.98	23.75	23.40	23.79	23.91	23.96	
35-54	29.22	29.56	28.05	28.04	27.17	27.39	27.76	27.67	26.12	26.10	24.86	25.82	25.57	26.03	
55-64	33.68	31.23	30.99	30.78	30.67	30.03	29.51	29.87	29.65	28.59	26.60	29.54	29.35	27.75	
Men	25.12	25.07	23.99	23.85	23.83	23.76	24.52	24.16	23.20	22.74	22.21	22.79	22.77	22.86	
Women	25.90	26.45	25.59	25.43	23.52	23.78	24.66	24.32	23.53	23.44	22.25	23.08	23.07	23.34	
No degree	15.00	14.99	14.29	14.21	13.37	13.43	14.02	13.97	13.39	12.87	12.44	12.74	12.41	12.81	
Primary	17.33	17.45	16.91	16.86	15.32	15.43	17.95	15.83	15.26	14.97	14.32	14.65	14.65	14.74	
Secondary	23.08	23.03	21.88	21.99	21.18	21.20	22.26	21.36	20.73	20.07	19.52	19.86	20.01	20.41	
Tertiary	47.85	47.29	46.29	44.68	44.30	43.17	42.33	42.86	40.92	41.59	41.10	41.43	40.99	40.80	
National	25.42	25.59	24.60	24.44	23.70	23.76	24.58	24.22	23.33	23.02	22.22	22.91	22.89	23.05	

Average real weekly earnings by population group, 2004, 2007-2009															
	2004				2007				2008				2009		
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	
15-19	553.01	536.71	531.83	527.74	464.28	460.72	495.10	511.04	506.71	456.62	447.05	457.02	457.61	438.69	
20-24	899.54	845.15	879.64	895.74	867.90	826.48	889.07	907.15	908.82	866.49	823.85	850.16	859.70	812.33	
25-34	1134.72	1058.57	1116.81	1106.89	1085.06	1005.41	1129.37	1119.58	1069.83	1046.12	1047.62	1071.88	1063.18	999.15	
35-54	1249.08	1166.23	1201.72	1204.13	1164.03	1072.56	1203.23	1200.87	1126.13	1088.81	1081.02	1110.29	1096.03	1026.37	
55-64	1313.43	1119.50	1245.02	1242.44	1241.35	1082.39	1187.38	1218.40	1201.70	1105.60	1074.89	1195.25	1191.64	1063.51	
Men	1104.35	1028.39	1058.48	1054.94	1047.77	971.21	1089.66	1074.73	1025.75	993.82	985.99	1008.94	1001.91	947.92	
Women	1073.59	982.47	1066.12	1070.77	993.98	910.78	1023.41	1046.29	1006.80	957.48	943.79	987.23	982.69	906.01	
No degree	576.09	558.71	541.89	535.46	508.95	482.82	551.57	543.27	502.66	487.64	469.34	498.26	468.82	461.10	
Primary	712.43	676.61	706.70	700.66	626.61	602.10	693.81	665.45	633.99	614.42	597.01	609.58	603.59	579.70	
Secondary	1044.92	977.11	990.05	1007.45	960.22	906.48	1021.96	985.52	952.56	919.92	889.64	907.76	912.18	876.45	
Tertiary	2037.77	1836.32	1982.49	1917.16	1913.86	1701.07	1844.14	1851.31	1763.59	1762.46	1786.03	1791.25	1762.54	1637.79	
National	1092.64	1011.48	1061.39	1060.91	1025.83	947.94	1063.61	1063.31	1018.04	979.91	969.21	1000.26	994.10	931.67	

Appendix C. Tables: Proportion of wage and salaried employees whose real weekly earnings fell below poverty thresholds

Proportion of male wage employees whose real weekly earnings fell below the national poverty line														
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
NCR	1.5%	2.7%	0.9%	1.1%	2.2%	3.9%	2.1%	2.0%	2.1%	2.8%	1.7%	1.6%	2.4%	2.4%
CALABARZON	3.2%	5.6%	4.2%	3.8%	4.0%	5.1%	3.7%	2.2%	3.9%	3.4%	4.3%	3.2%	4.5%	4.7%
Central Luzon	1.8%	4.6%	2.4%	4.1%	5.3%	5.0%	3.8%	2.8%	3.5%	5.1%	3.0%	3.6%	3.8%	4.4%
Rest of Luzon	7.8%	12.2%	7.7%	9.2%	9.3%	10.3%	5.7%	7.9%	10.7%	11.1%	8.0%	9.1%	10.8%	11.2%
Central Visayas	2.9%	4.1%	3.1%	3.8%	5.5%	5.6%	6.1%	4.6%	4.6%	4.2%	5.8%	6.1%	4.4%	5.6%
Rest of Visayas	7.9%	10.8%	9.3%	10.8%	10.0%	12.3%	8.4%	7.4%	8.6%	12.3%	13.6%	11.4%	12.7%	18.0%
Rest of Mindanao	7.4%	10.7%	9.2%	9.0%	8.1%	12.5%	6.7%	8.1%	9.3%	11.5%	10.5%	9.0%	11.6%	11.0%
ARMM	2.2%	1.0%	1.2%	1.5%	11.4%	7.3%	8.6%	5.0%	4.3%	7.5%	10.8%	8.6%	2.1%	6.7%
National Men	5.1%	7.9%	5.7%	6.3%	6.4%	8.1%	5.2%	5.1%	6.3%	7.5%	6.8%	6.3%	7.4%	8.3%

Proportion of female wage employees whose real weekly earnings fell below the national poverty line														
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
NCR	0.6%	3.6%	1.0%	0.6%	4.8%	5.7%	3.6%	2.6%	2.4%	5.0%	4.2%	2.1%	2.8%	5.0%
CALABARZON	4.2%	8.8%	6.3%	4.9%	6.3%	7.5%	8.2%	5.8%	6.6%	8.3%	6.4%	6.6%	4.9%	8.7%
Central Luzon	4.1%	8.8%	3.9%	7.2%	9.2%	10.0%	5.1%	4.7%	5.6%	9.6%	6.8%	6.7%	6.0%	10.0%
Rest of Luzon	10.5%	21.6%	9.9%	10.6%	14.9%	17.0%	12.5%	11.0%	12.6%	19.6%	13.3%	12.7%	13.6%	18.5%
Central Visayas	3.9%	4.7%	2.9%	5.4%	9.7%	9.3%	8.7%	6.3%	6.3%	9.2%	11.0%	10.1%	7.4%	9.1%
Rest of Visayas	11.1%	19.1%	10.4%	13.8%	15.5%	23.3%	14.2%	13.1%	12.8%	22.2%	19.8%	16.0%	15.0%	22.0%
Rest of Mindanao	9.0%	16.4%	9.4%	9.3%	16.1%	22.0%	13.7%	14.0%	14.4%	23.1%	18.1%	14.9%	15.6%	21.1%
ARMM	4.7%	8.5%	2.4%	2.4%	16.5%	21.7%	14.6%	11.6%	12.7%	28.0%	17.0%	19.0%	10.7%	16.5%
National Women	6.5%	12.5%	6.7%	7.3%	10.7%	13.4%	9.3%	8.0%	8.6%	13.8%	11.0%	9.5%	9.2%	13.4%

Proportion of male wage employees whose real weekly earnings fell below US\$1.25/day														
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
NCR	2.7%	4.5%	2.2%	2.5%	2.2%	4.1%	2.1%	2.0%	1.8%	2.5%	1.3%	1.4%	2.4%	2.4%
CALABARZON	9.5%	14.9%	9.3%	8.9%	5.9%	6.8%	4.9%	3.2%	3.9%	3.6%	4.3%	3.2%	5.6%	5.8%
Central Luzon	10.2%	14.4%	10.4%	10.1%	7.6%	7.4%	5.0%	3.7%	4.2%	5.2%	3.0%	3.6%	4.9%	5.4%
Rest of Luzon	24.3%	30.1%	23.6%	25.0%	18.0%	18.5%	12.5%	13.7%	13.4%	14.4%	9.8%	10.8%	14.3%	15.1%
Central Visayas	15.0%	16.5%	14.7%	16.4%	12.3%	12.7%	13.1%	9.1%	8.4%	8.3%	8.4%	9.3%	9.2%	12.0%
Rest of Visayas	31.9%	36.9%	33.8%	32.9%	22.5%	26.6%	20.0%	17.7%	15.4%	17.0%	16.6%	14.3%	18.2%	24.9%
Rest of Mindanao	26.9%	30.4%	26.9%	26.5%	16.6%	22.8%	15.0%	16.1%	13.2%	14.5%	12.4%	11.1%	16.8%	15.4%
ARMM	13.6%	14.3%	10.3%	8.8%	14.6%	11.2%	13.3%	10.9%	5.3%	11.0%	10.8%	9.2%	4.8%	8.2%
National Men	17.8%	21.8%	17.7%	17.6%	12.1%	14.4%	10.2%	9.4%	8.6%	9.6%	7.9%	7.6%	10.3%	11.4%

Proportion of female wage employees whose real weekly earnings feel below US\$1.25/day														
	2004				2007				2008				2009	
	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4	Q1	Q2
NCR	2.8%	6.4%	3.4%	2.2%	5.0%	6.2%	3.6%	2.5%	2.0%	4.1%	2.9%	1.7%	2.7%	4.8%
CALABARZON	22.6%	26.1%	19.8%	17.3%	10.1%	10.6%	9.8%	7.1%	6.8%	8.5%	6.4%	6.6%	6.2%	10.1%
Central Luzon	21.6%	27.8%	20.2%	21.3%	13.4%	15.0%	8.2%	7.5%	6.3%	9.6%	6.8%	6.7%	8.2%	11.8%
Rest of Luzon	38.1%	48.3%	39.2%	36.9%	27.0%	28.7%	23.6%	18.3%	17.5%	25.3%	17.1%	15.6%	19.4%	24.3%
Central Visayas	29.0%	30.5%	31.2%	29.4%	26.0%	23.6%	23.2%	21.1%	17.3%	19.3%	18.2%	18.1%	20.9%	20.7%
Rest of Visayas	47.7%	50.4%	42.3%	44.0%	36.4%	43.9%	33.2%	31.8%	24.0%	31.3%	27.9%	23.9%	26.6%	32.7%
Rest of Mindanao	34.5%	42.9%	32.8%	33.1%	28.7%	34.8%	28.0%	26.3%	24.2%	30.3%	24.6%	22.2%	27.0%	29.5%
ARMM	16.7%	20.3%	19.8%	18.3%	25.4%	28.0%	19.6%	17.8%	13.7%	30.2%	17.8%	20.1%	14.8%	16.5%
National Women	28.7%	33.4%	27.0%	26.0%	19.7%	22.2%	17.5%	15.0%	13.1%	17.7%	14.0%	12.7%	14.8%	18.3%