

CHAPTER IV

MOBILITY PATTERNS AMONG MARANAO CHILDREN

1. Occupational Mobility

This section analyzes the mobility patterns among the children respondents using their parents' current occupation as the comparative base. First, the father's current occupation is compared with the current occupation of the children (the respondents). Any upward or downward movement of the respondents can be detected by comparing the proportion of cases among the fathers and respondents having the same occupation.

Second, an analysis is also made on the career mobility of the respondents. This is necessary to determine the nature of the mobility of the respondents horizontally.

a. Vertical Mobility. Out of the 277 occupations listed in the NDS Scale which was used as part of the research instrument, only 115 occupations were found to be applicable to the respondents of this study (see Appendix).

A detailed presentation of the occupational distribution of the respondents and their parents is found in the appendix. It may be noted from the table that only 4 among the fathers and 43 of the children were reported as having no particular occupation at the time of the interview. Among this cohort, it seems that downward mobility is indicated. However, this trend appears to be temporary in nature because the children are still scouting for jobs.

• On the whole, however, the rest show an upward mobility. For example, within the top 10 occupational ranks (surgeons to electrical/mechanical engineers), 7 children showed an upward movement. Only 2 moved downward from the rank of the father, while one case had zero mobility.

The next 20 occupations also showed more cases of upward mobility of children (9 occupational ranks in the mobility index) and only 1 occupational rank with zero mobility. The more pronounced upward

movements of children were seen in the occupations of headship in a government bureau (20 cases), the regulatory offices of government (9 cases), economists and statisticians (9 cases), lawyers (5 cases), and workers in notaries and other legal occupations (5 cases).

One cannot escape the observation that in the top occupational hierarchy, headship in a government office is the usual destination of children. This could be a reflection of the affirmative or positive action that the government of the Philippines has taken to give Muslims better opportunities especially in appointing a Muslim to an office over a Christian aspirant. This is a privilege given to Muslims as part of the corrective policy of the government toward this minority group in Mindanao according to Lacar (1987). It could also be gleaned from the table that there is an indication of more Maranao children entering the white collar and salaried positions than their fathers. Entrance of children to white collar jobs had been noted by Kerchoff et al. (1985) in both Great Britain and United States. It appears that the same mobility phenomenon is shown among the Muslim minority in the Philippines.

The next top 30 occupations showed more upward movements. Among children, nine (9) occupational ranks in the mobility index were in this category. Occupationally, the mobility destinations appear to be teaching (45), civil engineering (15), engineering aides (13), accounting clerks (12), construction directors (8), and agricultural scientists (7). What is interesting to note here is that aside from the white collar destination of Maranao children, teaching seems to be one of the most attractive occupations.

Elementary teachers and teachers in the other fields showed an increase in the children's cohort. Attraction to teaching could be a result of the current upgrading of teachers' salary as well as the attempt of the government to restore the prestige of the teaching profession.

For the next 40 occupations, the respondents also showed more upward trend than downward (8 upward vs. 2 downward in the mobility index) with bookkeeping and inspectors in communications as the occupations with more prevalent upward cases.

Proceeding further to the next 50 occupations (army service to police service), the table suggests that all children moved upward with reference to their fathers' occupations in the mobility index. Comparatively, the brackets containing the 21st to 30th occupations and 41st to 50th occupations showed more or less similar frequency distribution on children's job (105 vs. 116, respectively). In these ranks, the occupational distribution is rather dense if one is to compare the same with the top 10

occupations. Because these jobs are not the typical occupational origins of the fathers, the children tend to move toward these occupational destinations.

Moving further to the 41st to the 50th occupations, it may be noted that clerical jobs (whether office clerks or typists) are the prevalent positions occupied by the children. Service occupations like charitable workers, police and army services come next with 31 cases.

The 51st to 70th occupations in the occupational hierarchy showed 13 occupational ranks with upward mobility. Children who are upwardly mobile are those of service occupations with 28 cases, clerical and office workers (11 cases), and skilled workers (7 cases). The downwardly mobile ones are children of skilled parents.

Upward mobility trend is still evident among those occupations ranked 71st to 80th (7 upward vs. 3 downward). Of these upwardly mobile children, business management and trading account for some 63 cases. Inheriting occupations seems a notable pattern in the mobility of children in that 63 children had the same occupation as their fathers.

The 100th to 114th occupations showed a different pattern of distribution. There are more downwardly mobile children (8), as against upward (5), and with 2 cases of occupational ranks with zero mobility. Aside from this reverse mobility trend, the occupational distribution of the fathers tends to concentrate in this occupational bracket which constitutes 272 cases. Another visible pattern is the concentration of occupational inheritance in street and sidewalk business. There is also a diminishing proportion of children whose fathers are in farming or in fishing. These trends confirm the common observation that Maranaos are becoming more visible in business occupations. The explanations offered by Abrahamson (1980) about the occupational inheritance and ethnic segregation in urban areas is the early occupational training of children whose parents are engaged in a particular occupational pursuit like business and trading. The purpose of early training is to allow the children to learn the trade as early as possible in order to maintain the urban location of a particular ethnic or racial group in as much as children are likely to follow the occupation of parents.

Abrahamson's explanation seems to operate among the Maranaos in Iligan City. During the data gathering stage of this research, it was observed that a good number of market or street vendors in Iligan are usually related by consanguinity. There are even cases where a three-generation household occupies certain stalls in the old Iligan City Public Market.

On the other hand, the diminishing trend of children engaged in farming and fishing could be due to their inability to pursue these occupations in the city. Since the children are usually migrants whose parents are traditional farmers and fishermen in their hometowns, it is impossible for them to engage in the same occupations since Iligan is a non-fishing and non-farming community. This is also the reason why they are likely to take support services occupation like business, service, or clerical jobs which are in demand in an urban setting.

On the whole, the overall mobility trend for the children is upward. This observation is supported by the mean occupational prestige ranks of fathers and children. Fathers have a mean prestige score of 28.55, whereas children have an average of 38.84. With reference to fathers' prestige scores, the children are upwardly mobile by around 10 occupational prestige scores.

The gamma and tau statistics also support the above observations. The computed value of gamma is $-.592$ which indicates that higher occupational ranks of the children are inversely associated with lower occupational ranks among fathers. The same is supported by the tau value of $-.583$, which means that the children are upwardly mobile.

Moreover, the total occupational ranks in the mobility index with upwardly mobile children comprise 82. These are the high occupational ranks not occupied by parents but are occupied by the children. This means that there are 82th high occupational ranks into which children have moved up. In contrast, there are 24 lower occupational ranks not previously occupied by fathers but are now occupied by children. The status-quo respondents (those with zero mobility) occupy nine occupational ranks in the mobility index.

The presence of both upward and downward mobility trend has been suggested in Blau and Duncan's (1967) and Bacol's (1971) findings concerning male intergenerational mobility. Moreover, the observation that the respondents tend to concentrate more in professional, technical, clerical and service or salaried occupations than their fathers is similar with Duncan's (1964) study on the occupational mobility in the U.S.

The diminishing trend in farm and fishing occupations among the children suggests an outflow from these jobs to the higher occupational destinations. This observation is also evident in Voth's (1969) study in Dumaguete where more upward movements are found among farm groups. Oliver and Glick (1982) also indicated that despite the downward mobility of the American Blacks, mobility from farm occupations to higher occupational categories is evident.

Table 3 summarizes the discussions above by compressing the occupational prestige scores of fathers and children into intervals after which the percentages are extracted. The data reveal the same observations as those cited earlier. For instance, more than half of the fathers (68.41%) are found in the lower occupational categories, while 35.12% are observed among the children. Inversely, fathers who occupy the upper job classifications only comprise 9.86% versus 43.13% for the children. All these observations further support the upward mobility trend of the Maranao children.

The vertical mobility of children by sex shows that 16.25% of males belong to the top 20 occupations while 12.64% are observed among the females. The prevalent occupational location of men is headship in the government office while the females are noted as librarians and holders of high positions in the government service.

Moreover, there is a trend of more females to be concentrated in the next 30 occupations (5% males vs. 12.1% females). Teaching seems to be the most common occupation of Maranao females.

Considering the top 50 occupations, the males constitute 38.33% of the distribution while the females have 41.37%. This means that more females are represented in the top 50 occupational bracket as against the males with a difference of 3.04%.

The succeeding 50th to 100th occupational bracket indicates that 54.17% are occupied by males and 43.11% are filled by females. These distributions are mostly male-dominated occupations like military and police service, driver, messenger and other related occupations. In this bracket, business seems to be the prevalent occupation of females.

On the whole, the vertical mobility trends of males and females do not differ. Males have, on the average, 40.97 prestige score while females have 39.20.

Table 3. Comparative Analysis of the Percentage Distribution of the Fathers' and Childrens' Occupations

N = 414

Prestige Score Interval	Father %	Children %
12 - 25	68.47	35.12
25.5 - 37.5	16.25	13.86
37.6 - 49.5	5.42	7.89
49.6 - 61.5	4.19	24.42
61.6 - 93.4	5.67	18.71
Total	100.00	100.00

Legend:

93.4 = highest occupational prestige score

12.0 = lowest occupational prestige score

b. Horizontal Mobility

The benchmark for determining the career or horizontal mobility of Maranao children is their first job. The following discussion focuses on the changes or stability of the respondents' occupational history.

Table 4 presents a detailed analysis of respondents' horizontal mobility. Out of 277 occupations listed in the NDS Scale, only 96 jobs are applicable to the children's cohort. Of these cases, there are 31 children who did not report any job before (first job) and only 12 are indicated at the present. Of the first top 10 occupations, 6 show upward movement in the mobility index and 4 downward. The upward movers comprise 30 cases, the downward movers, 7. Substantial upward leap is observed in the headship of government bureaus. Professional and technical jobs come next with 7 cases.

The succeeding 10 occupations also showed 20 cases of upwardly mobile respondents, 9 downwardly mobile cases and 10 cases of stayers (no mobility). Professional and technical workers have more upward movers, whereas downward movers are more in technical jobs and stayers are usually clerical jobs. It is also notable that in the first top 20

occupations, the occupational distribution for first job is sparse as against that for the current jobs. This is suggestive of an upward mobility among respondents.

The next 21st to 30th occupations showed a striking difference of stayers (7 cases), downward movers (13 cases) and 24 cases of upward movers. However, the downward (-) and upward (+) movers indicated in the mobility index may also mean a movement from within the same occupational categories or to a lower or upper job levels. What is interesting to note is the reversal in the trend of the increase of elementary teachers and the decrease of teachers of other classifications. The teachers of other classifications are usually the Madrasah teachers (Arabic teachers). The contrasting proportion between elementary and Madrasah teachers for the first jobs and the current jobs is reflective of the government's lack of concern for this educational institution of the Muslims. As expressed by the respondents, the Iligan City government only gives an allowance of P200.00 a month for every Madrasah teacher. Such government neglect of the educational needs of the Muslims had already been pointed out by Lacar (1987). The same author discloses the socio-political implications of such a situation.

It must be pointed out that in the last five years there have been tremendous changes in the salary structure and fringe benefits of public school teachers which have attracted more individuals to this profession. On the contrary, the salary of the Madrasah teachers remains extremely low according to a study by Boransing, Magdalena and Lacar, (1987).

Going through the next 31st to 50th occupations reveal a combination of respondents who are stayers and movers with reference to the respondents' first job. Using the current job as a comparative base, the highly mobile groups are clerical and service occupations.

As gleaned from the data, the succeeding intermediate occupations (those that are neither found at the top of the occupational hierarchy nor at the bottom) show intermittent cases of stayers and movers.

In contrast, the bottom end of the occupational hierarchy indicates that there is an increase of sidewalk and street vendors from children's first to current jobs. This is probably because a larger proportion of children started their careers in an occupation whose background gives them common social roots, hence they are less likely to leave later for other occupations.

There is also an increase of housekeepers from 35 to 44 in the first and current job, respectively.

Another notable observation is the decrease of children engaged in fishing and farming. Fishermen decrease from 13 to 3 (first to current job), farmers from 12 to 2.

On the whole, the career mobility of the respondents suggested more movement (movers) than stability (stayers). This is based on the mean occupational prestige scores of 37.60 in the respondents' first job and 40.08 in the current job, which means that there is an upward career mobility of children in their occupational history.

One explanation that could be offered is the changes in the occupational structure brought about by industrialization and urbanization in Iligan City. This seems to have given the respondents an option whether to stay in a job of their origin or engage themselves in other occupational pursuits different from their parents'. Another factor to consider is the role of migration. Migration detaches the individual from the influence of his previous community. The community in which a man is raised, just as the race or ethnic group into which he is born, defines an ascriptive base that limits his adult occupational chances. Migration, however, partly removes those restrictions on achievement by enabling a man to take advantage of opportunities not available in his original community.

Table 4. Description Analysis of Horizontal Mobility of Respondents

Occupations	Prestige Score	R's N (First) Job	R's N (Current) Job	Mobility Index
None	0	31	12	-
Surgeons, general practice	93.4	2	1	-
Language specialists & and other professional occupation, NEC	87.9	0	1	+
Judges and justices	72.7	0	1	+
Chemical and industrial engineers				
Architects	74.4	0	2	+
Accountants/auditors	73.4	1	0	-
College presidents, deans, professors & instructors	72.8	2	0	-
Electrical and mechanical engineers	72.4	2	1	-
Appraisers and adjusters	71.8	0	2	+
Heads, departments, bureaus & offices, NEC	71.6	0	20	+
Physicians and surgeons, NEC	71.4	0	3	+
Lawyers	71.3	2	3	+
Economists, actuaries & statisticians	68.7	2	5	+
Other professional engineers, NEC	67.5	1	1	0

Legend:

 $\bar{X} = 37.60$ $\bar{X} = 40.08$

+ = Upward mobility

0 = No mobility

- = Downward mobility

NEC = Not elsewhere classified

Occupations	Prestige Score	R's N (First Job)	R's N (Current Job)	Mobility Index
Notaries & other workers in legal occupations, NEC	66.5	1	4	+
Other administrative and regulatory officers, govt.	65.6	5	4	-
Librarians and archivists	64.6	0	4	+
Engineering technicians & aides	66.3	8	5	-
Agronomists and other agricul- scientists	63.5	7	0	-
Public relation officers	62.2	1	2	+
Credit investigators	62.2	1	1	+
Accounting clerks	61.6	6	6	0
Teachers, elementary	61.5	6	13	+
Teachers, NEC	61.2	18	8	-
Civil engineers	60.7	12	13	+
Directors, managers & working proprietors (const.)	60.5	6	2	-
Inspectors, traffic controllers and dispatchers (comm)	60.4	2	4	+
Bookkeepers	60.3	2	3	+
Dieticians and nutritionists	60	0	2	+
Travelling salesmen, agents	57.7	0	1	+
Draftsmen and cartographers	57	1	1	0
Psychologists & personnel specialists	56.7	0	1	+
Authors, journalists and related workers	56.7	1	1	0
Office workers, administrative assistants	56.1	1	1	0

Occupations	Prestige Score	R'S N (First Job)	R's N (Current Job)	Mobility Index
Directors, managers and working proprietors (service industries)	55.9	2	2	0
Officers, armed forces	55.4	2	5	+
Forest rangers	54.9	2	3	+
Stenographers	54.6	2	4	+
Directors, managers and working proprietors, NEC	53.6	3	3	0
Office clerks	53	36	25	-
Charitable and social welfare workers	52.5	12	0	-
Secretaries	51.7	3	14	+
Rolling mill operators, metal	51.2	1	1	0
Typists	49.4	6	5	-
Policemen and police officers, public	49.3	3	2	-
Enlisted men, armed forces	48.2	3	4	+
Laboratory and research technicians	47.0	1	3	+
Musicians and music teachers	46.4	7	0	-
Directors, managers and working proprietors, mining	45.7	0	1	+
Bill collectors	42.7	4	2	-
Elected officials govt.	41.2	0	2	+
Metal making and treating workers, NEC	41.2	3	0	-
Mechanics- repairmen	40.7	2	1	-
Messengers	40.6	2	4	+

Occupations	Prestige Score	R'S N (First Job)	R's N (Current Job)	Mobility Index
Fitters-assemblers and machine erectors	40.6	1	3	+
Special police, security guards, private	37.4	6	0	-
Firemen and related workers	36.5	2	1	-
Guards & watchmen, public, NEC	34.9	2	2	0
Shop assistants and related workers, NEC	34.6	2	0	-
Watch and clock repairers	34.6	1	1	0
Prison guards	34	1	1	0
News vendors	33.7	1	0	-
Blacksmith, hammersmith and forgemen	33.4	0	1	+
Sewers and embroiderers in factories	32.3	0	1	+
Traders	32.3	18	21	+
Footwear repairers	32	0	5	+
Machine tool operators	31.8	0	1	+
Photographers	31.4	1	0	-
Working proprietors, retail trade	31.2	6	8	+
Loggers	31	0	3	+
Janitors and related jobs	30.7	3	0	-
Mail carriers	30.6	1	3	+
Drivers of jeepneys	29.8	3	4	+
Crane and hoist operators	29.7	2	2	0
Tobacco preparers	28.4	0	1	+
Sand and gravel workers	26.6	2	0	-
Cooks	26.5	3	0	-

Occupations	Prestige Score	R'S N (First) Job	R's N (Current) Job	Mobility Index
Dressmakers	25.5	3	2	-
Stone cutters	25.5	1	1	0
Gatherers of forest products	25	0	2	+
Painters, NEC	24.9	0	1	+
Brick, tile makers	24.8	1	1	0
Earth moving equipment operators	24.7	1	0	-
Bricklayers, masons	24.4	1	1	0
Plumbers	23.8	3	4	+
Street & side-walk vendors	23.7	64	79	+
Wood workers, NEC	23.2	0	3	+
Housekeepers	22.8	38	44	+
Fishermen, deep sea	22.4	3	0	-
Maids	22.2	1	0	-
Farmers, fruit and coconut	20.2	0	5	+
Fishermen, NEC	20.1	13	3	-
Farmers, crop	18.7	12	2	-
Basket weavers	17.4	1	1	0
Rugs, carpet makers	12.4	3	2	-

2. Educational Mobility

This portion focuses on the analysis of the educational mobility patterns among the respondents with reference to their fathers' educational attainment. To ascertain any mobility, the educational ranks of fathers and children are compared. Any downward or upward mobility is indicated by a decrease or increase, respectively, in the frequency distribution by educational ranks. Upward educational mobility is indicated by a positive (+) index and downward movement is marked by a negative (-) index. If the frequency distribution of the N of both cohorts are the same, the index is 0.

After tabular comparison, a statistical test to determine the association of the educational ranks of both cohorts was done. For this purpose, the tau, and gamma computations were used.

Comparison of Fathers' and Respondents' Education

To find out whether the respondents differ from their fathers with regard to their educational attainment, the data are presented in Table 5. Careful perusal of the table reveals that the proportion of children who have higher educational attainment is relatively larger than those of their fathers. As shown, 157 (37.20%) fathers do not have any schooling at all. Among the children only 35 (8.45%) did not have schooling. There is a decrease by fourfold of illiterate children against their fathers, showing clearly an upward movement. There are 166 (40.1%) fathers with only elementary education. Fewer (58 or 14.01%) children are in this cohort. Again, there is a three-fold decrease of children who are barely educated in relation to their fathers.

A sudden change can be observed as one goes through the frequency distribution of the upper educational categories. In contrast to their fathers, there is an increase in the proportion of children whose educational attainment ranged from high school to post graduate. In fact, there is a quantum leap in the education of respondents as suggested by the proportion of children with college education compared to the fathers. Among the fathers, only 4.83% have graduated from college. In contrast, 41.06% of children finished college.

A careful examination of children who finished college shows that, in general, there is a substantial and impressive educational mobility among the children. For instance, among the fathers, the proportion of those who have some high school education and those who finished college consisted only of 22.69%. In contrast, 77.54% of the children have some high school education and some have finished college education.

This observation is supported by the tau and gamma statistics. Tau and gamma computations also showed a value of -.878 and -.879 respectively. This means that the lower the education of the father the higher the education of children and vice versa. These findings are similar with those of Smith and Cheung (1986). The result of their study showed the declining effects of the family on years of schooling in the Philippines which they attribute to an increase in meritocratic considerations and modernization.

These findings have far-ranging implications on the Maranao society

especially as they have bearing on attitudinal change toward educational opportunities. The high proportion of fathers who do not have schooling or those who are barely literate is a reflection of the general resistance and suspicion among the Muslims regarding the educational system of the Christian majority in the past. Muslims viewed education as a tool for de-Islamization and de-tribalization, and as an instrument for their religious conversion as reported by Lacar (1987). The high proportion of children who are highly educated is a manifestation of the new and emerging awareness among the Muslims in general or Maranao in particular, regarding the social, economic and political benefits of education.

Table 5. Percent Distribution of Educational Ranks of Fathers and Their Children (DECS)

Educational Level	Rank	Father's %	Children's %	Mobility Index
None	0	37.20	8.45	+
Some elementary	1	27.78	8.94	+
Elementary graduate	2	12.32	5.07	+
High school level	3	3.62	7.97	+
HS graduate	4	6.52	9.42	+
College level	5	3.14	13.29	+
College graduate	6	4.83	41.06	+
Post graduate	7	2.66	3.62	+
No information		1.93	2.18	
Total		100.00	100.00	

Legend

+ = Upward
 - = Downward
 0 = No mobility
 tau = -.87822
 gamma = -.87982
 p < .05

	Father	Children	Difference
Elem.	77.3	- 22.46	= 54.84
College	10.63	- 57.97	= -47.35

3. Income Mobility

This section analyzes the pattern of income mobility between the respondents and their fathers using the same framework of analysis used in the educational and occupational mobility in the previous discussions. This section has two major emphases. The first emphasis is on the patterns of income mobility among the respondents and their parents. The second is an analysis of income with other variables.

Table 6 presents comparative data on the father's and children's income levels. As shown, those who did not report any income comprise 8 cases (1.93%) for the fathers and 30 (7.25%) cases for the children. Relative to their fathers, the increased proportion of children with no income implies downward mobility. This trend, however, may be considered temporary since the children are yet in their employment search. Furthermore, the fathers who have an income of P1,000 and less are 157 cases (37.92%) while, 51 (12.32%) of their children are found in the same bracket.

Although there seems to be a downward income mobility, one can observe that among children who reported having income, a higher percentage of them earn more than their fathers do in all brackets (starting with the income bracket of P3,001 and above). In fact, the mobility index showed all positive signs as the income distribution increases with the exclusion to those who did not report any income where the mobility index could either be positive or a question mark. This is probably because the 30 cases of children who did not have any income are students looking for job, therefore, not necessarily down-movers.

A more incisive way of looking at the differences of the income of both cohorts is to separately analyze the percentages of fathers and children whose income is P3,000 and below and those cases above it. The percentage of fathers whose income is P3,000 and below is 71.01% as against 52.42% children who fall in the same bracket. On the other hand, fathers who earned P 3,001 and above constitute 27.06% as against 46.86% in the same category among children. This means that the fathers are heavily represented in the lower income brackets, whereas among children, the concentration is in the higher income levels. The mean income of the children ($\bar{X} = P3,210.26$) is more than their father's ($\bar{X} = P2,414.08$).

The Chi-Square of 4.66 allows us to accept the hypothesis that a significant relationship exists between the fathers' and children's income at 95% probability level.

Moreover, both the computed tau (-.724) and gamma values (-.722) strongly support that there is an inverse association between the income of the fathers and their children. The negative signs indicate that the higher the children's income the lower is the father's.

Table 6. Comparative Data on Current Income Levels of Fathers and Children

N = 414

Income Level	Rank	Fathers %	Childrens %	Mobility Index
None	0	1.93	7.25	+
1,000 - below	1	37.92	12.32	+
1,001 - 3,000	2	31.16	32.85	+
3,001 - 5,000	3	14.49	31.16	+
5,001 - 7,000	4	4.11	5.56	+
7,001 - 9,000	5	1.93	2.17	+
9,001 - 11,000	6	2.66	3.86	+
11,001 - up	7	3.87	4.11	+
NA		1.93	.72	
Total		100.00	100.00	

$\bar{X}=2414.08$

$\bar{X}=3210.86$

tau = -.724

gamma = -.722

$X^2 = 4.66$

df = 1

tabular value = 3.84; $p < .05$

To find out the trend of the income distribution of the respondents' first job and current job using a cross tabulation analysis, Table 7 presents the data. The figures in Table 7 reveal that of the 64 respondents who did not have any monthly income in their first job, 20 cases (66.67%) still do not have any income presently, 10 (19.61%) currently received an income of P1,000 and below, 18 (13.24%) are now receiving an income between P1,001 to P3,000, 12 others (9.38%) get between P3,001 to P5,000, and the other 4 (9.10%) are receiving P7,001 and above. The most dominant pattern in the horizontal distribution is that of respondents who received an income of P1,000 and below in their first job which comprise 169 cases. Of this number, 8 (26.67%) do not have any recent income, 33 (64.71%) get around P1,000 and less monthly, 57 (41.91%) receive between P1,001 to P3,000, 47 (36.72%) have an income of P3,001 to P5,000 and the rest are receiving above P5,000.

It is likewise interesting to observe from the table that around 49 respondents received P3,001 to P5,000 income a month and are comparably able to maintain, if not improve, their present income.

In general, the cases that are found above the diagonal cells (intersection of income categories) suggest an upward mobility and those below, downward mobility. The Chi-Square value of 35.75 suggests that a significant relationship exists between the respondents' income at their first and current job. The data show that the higher the income of the respondents in their first job, the higher also is their current income. Moreover, the data suggest that aside from earning more than their parents, children have substantially increased their income in their current job compared with their income in the first job.

**Table 7. Respondents' Income at First Job
Versus Current Income**

N = 414*

Income at First Job	Current Income					
	None %	1000 below %	1001-3000 %	3001-5000 %	5001-7000 %	7000 up %
None	66.67	19.61	13.24	9.37		9.1
1000 below	26.67	64.70	41.91	36.72	34.78	36.36
1001 - 3000	3.33	11.77	39.70	37.50	43.48	27.27
3001 - 5000	3.33	3.92	2.94	10.16	8.69	6.82
5001 - 7000			.74	3.13	4.35	2.27
7001 - 9000			1.47		4.35	2.27
9001 - 11000				.78	4.35	4.54
11001 up				.78		4.54
NA				1.56		6.82
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	99.00**
Number	30	51	136	128	23	44

$X^2 = 35.75$; D.F. = 1; tabular value = 3.84; $p < .05$

* = 2 cases with no information

** = rounding error

The birth factor of the respondent's present income is also analyzed (see table 8). Despite the difference in figures representing the birth cohorts of the eldest, middle and youngest children, the data indicate that there is not much difference in the income received by these three groups. The bulk of the respondents fall between this income ranges of P1,001 to P3,000 and P3,001 to P5,000. If the frequencies of both ranges are combined, the marginal frequency column total to 264 cases of which 81 are eldest, 137 are middle-borns, and 46 are youngest. Correspondingly, the row signifies the income proportion per birth order. The data show that more youngest and middle-born children have income within the range of the mean and a little above it. The pattern is for eldest children to earn more. However, Chi-Square test indicates that no significant relationship

exists between income and birth order cohort. This means that, although occupationally and educationally job varies with birth order, income does not covary.

Tables 9 and 10 present the other sources of income of the fathers and the amount they received in each. The results indicate that only 17% reported as having earned from other sources, 83% have none.

Of those whose fathers reported as having other income sources, business and farming are common.

**Table 8. Respondents' Birth Order
Versus Present Income**

N = 414*

Birth Order	Income					
	None %	1000 below %	1001-3000 %	3001-5000 %	5001-7000 %	7000 up %
Eldest	46.67	18.00	33.33	27.90	52.17	44.44
Middle	33.33	64.00	48.89	55.00	47.83	44.44
Youngest	20.00	18.00	17.78	17.10		11.11
Total	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	99.99**
Number	30	50	135	129	23	45

$X^2 = 1.6$; d.f. = 1; tabular value = 5.991

$p > .05$, n.s.

* = 2 cases with no information

** = rounding error

Table 9. Other Sources of Income of Respondents' Fathers

	Frequency	%
None	343	83.00
Business	17	4.10
Properties	10	2.42
Farming	15	3.60
Fishing	2	.48
Pension	5	1.20
Multiple responses	16	3.80
Others: (carpentry, land share, etc.)	6	1.40
Total	414	100.00

Table 10. Fathers' Income Derived From Other Sources

	Frequency	%
None	347	83.82
P 1,000 and below	12	2.90
P 1,001 - 3,000	21	5.07
P 3,001 - 5,000	15	3.63
P 5,001 - 7,000	5	1.21
P 7,001 - 9,000	1	.24
P 9,001 - 11,000	6	1.45
P11,001 - 13,000	2	.48
P13,001 - 15,000	1	.24
P15,001 - up	2	.48
NA*	2	.48
Total	414	100.00

Mean: 566.80

* NA means "not applicable"

Tables 11 and 12 present the respondents' other sources of income and the amount received from each. A little over 15% reported that they had other sources of income, with business and farming as prevalent answers.

Table 11. Respondents' Other Sources of Income

	Frequency	%
None	349	84.30
Business	26	6.28
Properties	8	1.93
Farming	18	4.35
Fishing	0	0
Pension	1	.24
Multiple Response	11	2.66
NA*	1	.24
Total	414	100.00

Table 12. Respondents' Income Derived From Other Sources

	Frequency	%
None	345	83.33
P 1,000 and below	13	3.14
P 1,001 - 3,000	26	6.28
P 3,001 - 5,000	8	1.93
P 5,001 - 7,000	7	1.70
P 7,001 - 9,000	2	.48
P 9,001 - 11,000	4	.97
P11,001 - 13,000	5	1.21
P13,001 - up	2	.48
NA*	2	.48
Total	414	100.00

Mean: 604.68

* NA means "not applicable"