

2. The Badjaw as an Outcast group: This could be a study in intergroup relations which could be conveniently undertaken at Tubig Sallang and Tungkalang. These are two small communities of Samal Gimba and Badjaw which are closely interacting with each other but are culturally distinct and separate.

3. Religious acculturation studies to determine the extent of Islamic influence on Badjaw beliefs.

By way of concluding this exploratory report, the following observation might be made: The Badjaw of Sulu today function in the area as a distinct cultu-

ral group only in so far as they remain boatdwelling nomads. The transition to sedentary life in landhouses is inevitable. There are communities that have already made the transition quite successfully and smoothly by a process of natural social development. An interesting question, from the practical point of view would be whether this transition could be made abruptly by artificial means with the same smoothness and success; for the Badjaw identify nomadism with their very way of life and as sedentaries they would be altogether unable to compete with the socio-economic system of the larger sedentary society.

Occupation Evaluation in the Philippines

DR. GELIA T. CASTILLO

*College of Agriculture
University of the Philippines
Laguna*

Introduction

Social status refers to position in the social structure. Each status consists not only of "norm-prescribed privileges and obligations but also of the comparative esteem and disesteem in which these social places are held."¹ Within a particular society, social positions are evaluated, ranked, and arranged in a hierarchy of socially superior or inferior ranks and a society which displays this system of inequalities is said to be stratified.

An occupation is a position in the social structure and as such it confers status in its own right. As a position in the social structure it is subject to the process of evaluation and ranking within the social structure. Differential evalua-

tion of occupations or what is known as occupational stratification is associated with differential life chances for people in different occupations.

Among sociologists there is considerable agreement that occupational stratification is an important area of sociological investigation. Occupation is considered as one of the best indicators of social status for it combines in a single measure economic status and educational background.² Centers sums up this position in his statement that "occupation is the most satisfactory single index of stratification."³ Furthermore, to a large extent, a person's way of living is determined by his occupation.

² Joseph Kahl and James Davis, "A Comparison of Indexes of Socio-Economic Status," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 20, No. 2, April, 1955, pp. 317-3125.

³ Richard Centers, *The Psychology of Social Classes* (Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1949), pp. 206-219.

¹ E. T. Hiller, *Social Relations and Structure: A Study in Principles of Sociology* (Harper and Brothers, New York, 1947), p. 330.

The Problem

The purpose of this study is to investigate four related aspects of occupational evaluation in the Philippines, namely: (1) nature of the occupational hierarchy which results from subjective evaluations, (2) interrelationships of variables associated with differential evaluation of occupations, (3) comparative rankings made by subjects from different occupational backgrounds; and (4) cross-cultural comparisons of occupational rankings.

Method Used

The questionnaire used in this study was administered to 476 senior students from six high schools in the Philippines; namely, Araullo High School, Jose Abad Santos High School, University of the Philippines High School, Pedro Guevarra Memorial High School, Pagsanjan Academy, and Baybay National Agricultural and Vocational School. The students were asked to rate twenty-five occupations according to the prestige, income, and functional importance which they think the occupations have in our society. The occupations were then ranked in prestige, income, and functional importance according to the value of the weighted mean ratings. Low values of weighted means indicate high ranks in the occupational hierarchy. To have an indication of the subjects' inclination toward different occupations, they were asked to check the occupations which they might consider taking, if these occupations were available to them. Kendall's rank correlation (τ) and partial rank correlation coefficients were computed to test relationships between different variables.

Analysis of Findings

1. *Nature of the Occupational Hierarchy.*

In general, the occupational hierarchy rates professions and other white-collar occupations higher than blue-collar occupations, (Table 1). However, farm owner is ranked higher than elementary school teacher and other white-collar office work. High prestige is assigned to the professions which require a high degree of training and formal education, e.g. doctor, college professor, lawyer, priest, corporation executive, and nurse. There are also some indications that occupations which exercise some amount of control over the other people's behavior are ranked higher than the occupations which might be under their control. For example, doctor is ranked above nurse; corporation executive is ranked above private secretary, office worker, skilled and unskilled factory workers; farm owner is placed above farm laborer; and labor union leader is also rated above factory workers. Occupations involving manual labor such as those of a factory worker, carpenter, farm laborer, and occupations which contain elements of "service" rendered directly to customers are located in the lower third of the hierarchy. Sales clerks, beauticians, and storekeeper belong to this latter category.

The occupational prestige and income rankings correspond to each other very closely. However, there are discrepancies in the prestige and income ranks of priest or minister, 4 and 8; soldier, 8 and 20; movie artist, 11 and 2; policeman, 14 and 18; private secretary, 15 and 10; and small factory owner, 17 and 12.5.

Occupations which carry ceremonial titles like *Attorney, Doctor, Reverend Father, Professor, Miss, Mister or Mrs.* (teacher) are ranked higher in prestige than in income, (Table 1). E. T. Hiller in his "Characteristics of Vocational Statuses" suggested that greater prestige

Table 1
Occupational Inclination, Prestige, and Income Ranks of Twenty-Five Occupations Rated by Filipino High School Seniors.

Occupation	Prestige		Income		Occupation	Inclination
	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean	Rank	Number Inclined to Take the Occupation
Doctor	1	1.45	1	1.52	1	255
College professor	2	1.83	4	1.90	3	197
Lawyer	3	1.85	5	1.94	10	132
Priest or minister	4	1.90	8	2.55	23.5	50
Corporation executive	5	2.04	3	1.78	1	166
Nurse	6	2.19	6	2.43	6	168
Author	7	2.25	7	2.51	13	115
Soldier	8	2.67	20	3.26	8	138
Farm owner	9	2.72	9	2.62	9	134
Elementary School teacher	10	2.73	12.5	2.96	11	128
Movie artist	11	2.82	2	1.66	15	111
Labor Union leader	12	2.85	14.5	2.97	23.5	50
Government Clerk	13	2.87	11	2.86	4	183
Policeman	14	2.91	18	3.18	19.5	79
Private secretary	15	2.93	10	2.80	5	172
Office worker	16	3.00	16	3.02	2	215
Small factory owner	17	3.07	12.5	2.96	17	90
Skilled factory worker	18	3.15	14.5	2.97	19.5	79
Department store sales clerk	19	3.19	17	3.17	12	120
Farm laborer	20.5	3.43	22	3.58	22	55
Beautician	20.5	3.43	19	3.21	14	114
Small store sales clerk	22	3.55	24	3.69	18	85
Storekeeper	23	3.72	21	3.57	16	95
Carpenter	24	3.72	23	3.68	21	57
Unskilled factory worker	25	4.15	25	4.11	25	34

is attached to those positions which supplied occasions for ceremonialism. Titles which accompany certain occupational statuses provide such ceremonialism and therefore one would expect higher prestige than income attached to them, since these ceremonialisms serve as part payment for the functions which they perform.⁴ The occupations which carry ceremonial titles are

doctor, lawyer, college professor, priest or minister, and school teacher. "Miss", or "Mrs." refers to the English title of respect always attached to a teacher. Other people are usually addressed politely, with the title of respect expressed in the local dialect. The use of the English title to address the teacher seems to represent special deference to his or her position.

⁴E. T. Hiller, op. cit.

2. *Interrelationships of Variables Associated with Differential Evaluation of Occupations.*

It is interesting to examine occupational inclination in relation to prestige and income, for it brings out certain patterns of attraction toward particular occupations which have been considered typical of Filipinos. Antonio Isidro in his *Philippine Educational System* described this situation aptly in these words: "To our people, no matter how poor and humble, the desire for a profession—to be a doctor, a lawyer or an engineer was irresistible. The sons of the poor and the middle classes would rather be clerks and employees in the government or commercial firms than be farmers, blacksmiths, carpenters, or plumbers."⁵

Table 1 lends support to the preceding claims of distorted emphasis on the professions and white-collar work. On the basis of the number of subjects who are inclined to take the occupation, doctor ranks first; office worker, second; college professor, third; government clerk, fourth; soldier, eighth; farm owner, ninth; lawyer, tenth; and elementary school teacher, eleventh.

There is reason to believe that the high degree of attraction to some of the above occupations is not prompted by the scarcity of personnel to fill these positions. The Philippine Census of 1958 enumerated 18,408 lawyers (the highest number of professionals), 14,348 doctors, and 13,309 nurses. The oversupply of teachers is even more pronounced. In 1951, 25,632 took the Civil Service Competitive examinations for teachers. Only 12,473 qualified and of these, only 51 per cent (6,436) were appointed as teachers. In 1952-53 there were about 26,000 education graduates

for whom there were only a few thousand jobs. An estimate of the annual number of teachers who leave the service is placed at about 4,585. This figure represents the number of teachers needed to replace vacated positions, but the number of teachers looking for jobs is about six times more.⁶

The situation with respect to clerical, office, and related workers is not too different from that of teachers. The 1956 *Philippine Statistical Surveys of Households* listed clerical and office workers as the occupational grouping which registered the highest unemployment rate (11.7%) among the experienced labor force.⁷ On January 2, 1960 the *Manila Times* announced that there were 74,000 who were going to take the general clerical civil service entrance examination. This would probably mean more unemployed clerical and office workers.

In connection with the often repeated criticism that farming is regarded as degrading work in the Philippines, this study seems to indicate otherwise. Farm owner is ranked ninth in prestige, income, and occupational inclination and third, in functional importance. If there are not more people willing to engage in farming, perhaps the explanation has to be sought elsewhere, but probably not in its lack of prestige or lack of emphasis on its importance. Even in Tiryakian's study which used Filipino adult subjects, farmer was ranked eleventh in a list of 30 occupations.⁸

⁶*Handbook of the Philippines*, Vol. II. Human Relations Area Files, Inc., New Haven, Connecticut, HRAF-16, Chicago 5, pp. 745-750.

⁷*Philippine Statistical Survey of Households* Series No. 1, Vol. I *Labor Force* (published by the NEC, Bureau of the Census and Statistics, Manila, January, 1957) p. 6.

⁸Edward A. Tiryakian, "The Prestige Evaluation of Occupations in an Underdeveloped Country: The Philippines," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 63, No. 4, January, 1958, pp. 390-399.

⁵Antonio Isidro, *Philippine Educational System* (Manila: Bookman, Inc., 1949), p. 16.

In another study of the subjective factors of the occupational structure in the Philippines, Tiryakian reported that the parents' occupational aspiration rested even more emphatically on the professions, and only a very small percentage of respondents desired for themselves or for their children, agricultural

inclination. Controlled analysis indicates that prestige accounts for the low relationship between functional importance and income. Prestige also partly explains the correlation between functional importance and occupational inclination. Furthermore, prestige explains practically all of the relationship be-

Table 2
Zero-Order Rank Correlation and Partial Rank Correlation Coefficients Among Four Different Variables

	Zero-Order Rank Correlation (Tau)	Control Variables	Partial Rank Correlation Coefficients
Functional importance and prestige	0.61	Income	0.60
Functional importance and income	0.24 N.S.	Prestige	-0.18
Functional importance and occupational inclination	0.48	Prestige	0.20
Functional importance and occupation inclination	0.48	Income	0.43
Occupational inclination and income	0.39	Prestige	0.08
Occupational inclination and income	0.39	Functional Importance	0.32
Occupational inclination and prestige	0.58	Income	0.47
Occupational inclination and prestige	0.58	Functional Importance	0.41
Prestige and income	0.58	Functional Importance	0.56

occupations. Furthermore, three times as many white-collar workers are very satisfied with their occupation and three times as many blue-collar workers indicate being either dissatisfied or very dissatisfied.⁹ Since parents and other adults exert considerable influence on children, it is not surprising that our adolescents hold similar occupational orientations.

Table 2 shows the rank correlations between occupational prestige, income, functional importance, and occupational

tween occupational inclination and income. This study indicates that the prestige of an occupation has a greater influence than its perceived income or importance to the functioning of society in drawing more students towards certain occupations.

3. *Comparative Rankings Made by Subjects from Different Occupational Backgrounds*

Occupational rankings made by students from the University of the Philippines High School and those made by students from the Baybay National Agricultural and Vocational School have a high positive relationship but certain peculiarities need to be examined (Table

⁹Edward A. Tiryakian, "Occupational Satisfaction and Aspiration in an Underdeveloped Country: The Philippines," *Economic Development and Cultural Change*, Vol. VII, No. 4, July, 1959, pp. 431-444.

Table 3

Prestige Rank of Twenty-Five Occupations Rated by U.P. High School and Baybay National Agricultural and Vocational School Seniors.

Occupation	University of the Philippines		Baybay Agricultural School	
	Rank	Mean	Rank	Mean
Doctor	1	1.52	2	1.33
Nurse	2	1.59	5	1.96
Corporation executive	3	2.00	8	2.56
Priest or minister	4	2.02	3	1.80
Lawyer	5.5	2.09	1	1.06
Author	5.5	2.09	6	2.14
College professor	7	2.16	4	1.86
Beautician	8	2.49	22	3.61
Soldier	9	2.58	14	2.94
Farm owner	10	2.70	13	2.88
Elementary School Teacher	11.5	2.80	7	2.53
Movie artist	11.5	2.80	9	2.65
Labor union leader	13	2.86	10	2.75
Small factory owner	14	3.00	15.5	3.00
Private secretary	15	3.07	15.5	3.00
Policeman	16.5	3.09	19	3.29
Skilled factory worker	16.5	3.09	17	3.22
Government clerk	18	3.14	11	2.78
Office worker	19	3.18	12	2.86
Dept. stores sales clerk	20	3.32	18	3.24
Farm laborer	21.5	3.56	21	3.57
Storekeeper	21.5	3.56	23	3.80
Small store sales clerk	23	3.73	20	3.56
Carpenter	24	3.74	24.5	4.00
Unskilled factory worker	25	4.18	24.5	4.00

3). These two groups were compared because they come from different occupational and educational backgrounds. Ninety-three per cent of the subjects from the U.P. High School come from professional and other white-collar backgrounds as indicated by their fathers' occupations. Seventy-six per cent of the subjects from the Baybay Agricultural School come from farming and blue-collar backgrounds. The former group also has higher educational status as indicated by the education of both parents. More than 90 per cent of their parents are high school and college graduates. In the latter group only 21 per cent of the fathers and 8 per cent of the mothers

have high school and college education.

If occupational bias had influenced the ratings, one would expect agricultural students to rank farming and blue-collar occupations more favorably than the U.P. High students. An examination of Table 2 reveals certain reverse tendencies. The following occupations were ranked higher by the agricultural students: lawyer, college professor, elementary school teacher, government clerk, and office worker. Of the students in the six high schools included in the study, only the agricultural school students ranked lawyer number one in prestige. The U.P. High students ranked farm owner, beautician, and soldier more favorably than

Table 4
Prestige Rank of Twenty-Three Occupation Rated by
Filipino, American, and Japanese High School Seniors

Occupation	Philippine American Japanese			Philippine American Japanese		
	Rank	Rank	Rank	Mean Rating	Mean Rating	Mean Rating
Doctor	1	1	2	1.45	1.22	1.69
College professor	2	4	1	1.83	1.59	1.51
Lawyer	3	2	3	1.85	1.37	1.81
Priest or minister	4	3	13	1.90	1.46	2.97
Corporation executive	5	5	4	2.04	1.64	1.86
Nurse	6	9	12	2.19	2.25	2.81
Author	7	6	5	2.25	2.02	2.23
Soldier	8	13	19	2.67	2.71	3.37
Farm owner	9	16	21	2.72	3.06	3.49
Elementary school teacher	10	10	7	2.73	2.40	2.61
Movie artist	11	7	16	2.82	2.19	3.19
Labor union leader	12	8	6	2.85	2.20	2.48
Government clerk	13	14	11	2.87	2.74	2.79
Policeman	14	12	8	2.91	2.63	2.63
Private secretary	15	11	10	2.93	2.53	2.72
Office worker	16	18	14	3.00	3.11	3.04
Small factory owner	17	15	9	3.07	2.82	2.65
Dept. store sales clerk	18	21	17	3.19	3.55	3.23
Farm laborer	19.5	23	23	3.43	3.81	3.99
Beautician	19.5	19	15	3.43	3.19	3.15
Small store sales clerk	21	22	22	3.66	3.78	3.67
Storekeeper	22	20	18	3.72	3.34	3.24
Carpenter	23	17	20	3.74	3.07	3.78

Correlation between Philippine and American prestige ranks
 Tau = 0.72 Z = 4.80 Level of significance .00003
 Correlation between Philippine and Japanese prestige ranks
 Tau = 0.53 Z = 3.53 Level of significance .0002
 Correlation between Philippine and Japanese prestige ranks
 Tau = 0.64 Z = 4.26 Level of significance .00003

the agricultural students. Again Dr. Isidro's observations find support in the white-collar orientation of children from farming and blue-collar backgrounds.

4. *Cross-Cultural Comparisons of Occupational Rankings.*

Occupational rankings in the Philippines and those found in Japan and the United States evidence a high degree of general agreement but some marked cross-cultural differences in the prestige rankings of some occupations can be

observed (Table 4). The list of occupations used in these three studies is practically identical and the subjects are all high school seniors.¹⁰

The prestige assigned to the college professor by these three groups of students is rather interesting. The Japanese ranked it first; Filipinos ranked it second; but the Americans put it as fourth. If high prestige accorded to the

¹⁰Charles E. Ramsey and Robert J. Smith, "Japanese and American Perceptions of Occupations" *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 65, No. 5, March 1960, pp. 475-482.

college professor is an indication of the value placed on higher education, the American subjects seem to put less emphasis on it than the two Oriental groups. In all other studies of occupational prestige which have included college professor and physician, the latter has always been ranked higher except in the studies done in Japan, Germany, Switzerland, and Poland where college professor has been ranked higher.¹¹

Priest or minister is ranked thirteenth by the Japanese, fourth by the Filipinos and third by the Americans. This seems contradictory to what might be expected from Davis' and Moore's theory that "in an extremely advanced society built on scientific technology, the priesthood tends to lose status because sacred traditions and supernaturalism drop into the background." However, they also added that, "no society has become so completely secularized as to liquidate entirely the belief in transcendental ends and supernatural entities."¹² On the basis of this theory, one would expect priest or minister to be ranked lower by Americans than by either the Filipinos or the Japanese, if American society could be characterized as extremely advanced and built on scientific technology.

¹¹Kunio Odaka and Shigeki Nishihira, "Social Stratification and Mobility in the Six Large Cities of Japan," *Transactions of the Second World Congress of Sociology*, International Sociological Association, Vol. II, 1953, pp. 414-431; K. M. Bolte and G. Mackenroth, "Bericht Über das Vorschungsvorhaben Wandlungen der deutschen Sozialstruktur (Am Beispiel Schleswig-Holstein)," *Transactions of the Third World Congress of Sociology*, Vol. II, 1954, pp. 91-102; Wermund, Macdonagh, "Relative Professional Status as Perceived by American and Swiss University Students," *Social Forces*, Vol. 38, No. 1, October, 1959, pp. 65-69; Adam Sarapata and Wlodzimierz Wesolowski, "The Evaluation of Occupations by Warsaw Inhabitants," *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. 66, No. 6, May 1961, pp. 581-591.

¹²Kingsley Davis and Wilbert Moore, "Some Principles of Social Stratification," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 10, No. 2, April 1945, pp. 242-249.

Nurse was ranked sixth by the Filipinos, ninth by the Americans, and twelfth by the Japanese. One possible explanation for the higher prestige rank accorded to the nurse by Filipinos is the fact that in recent years nursing has been elevated to a university level. A graduate nurse can have a Bachelor of Science degree which puts her on the same academic level as other college graduates. The Philippines is one country in the world where this has been done. Furthermore, Filipino nurses have very good opportunities to study and work in the United States and to many Filipinos this is almost the fulfillment of a dream. In terms of the prestige assigned to the nurse, its perceived income, functional importance, the number of subjects attracted to the profession, nursing occupies a high status in our society. This evidence does not support Dr. Jose Samson's observation that "nursing in our country is one of the most deprecated professions." He suggested that "the possible reason for this may be traced to the common tendency to think of it as a kind of servant's job."¹³ Other evidence which contradicts this notion could be found in Tiryakian's study in which midwife was ranked twelfth in a list of 30 occupations. Midwife was placed higher than office clerk in terms of prestige. If nurse were included in this list, one would expect a higher prestige ranking assigned to it than midwife.

Another interesting cross-cultural comparison can be seen in the case of soldier's rank in prestige. Filipino subjects ranked it eighth. Americans ranked it thirteenth and the Japanese ranked it nineteenth. The experiences of the Second World War and the peace

¹³Jose A. Samson, "Nursing is a Great Art But It Can Also Be an Exasperating Profession," *Manila Daily Bulletin*, October 27, 1961.

and order problems which the Philippines has faced every now and then after the war are probably reflected here. The low prestige and functional importance rank of the Japanese soldier is perhaps a product of anti-militarism which characterized the post-war development of Japan. Smith and Ramsey in a report on "Attitudes of Japanese High School Seniors Toward the Military" mention continued public pressure against revision of Article 9 of the Japanese Constitution known as the "anti-war article and the emphasis of the press on the vicissitudes of the Self-Defense Force. When the Japanese boys were asked what occupation they actually plan to follow when they leave school, not one of the 240 boys chose any occupation which could be even loosely classed as military personnel.¹⁴

The prestige ranking of farm owner has special significance because of the common belief that "the Filipino farmer does not enjoy the same confidence and prestige as his American counterpart." Ersando in his article in *Philippine Agricultural and Industrial Life* says "the word *Farmer* holds respect and high esteem in any American society. An American farmer, therefore is one of the most respected and honored citizens in the United States. It is an honor to be a farmer in that land of milk and honey."¹⁵ Contrary to this prevalent notion, farm owner is ranked higher by the Filipino subjects than by the American and Japanese subjects. The prestige ranks are 9, 16, and 21 respectively. The Americans ranked private secretary, policeman,

soldier and government clerk higher than farm owner. Farm laborer is likewise ranked higher by Filipinos than by the Japanese and Americans. From the point of view of functional emphasis, this ranking of the farm owner is to be expected, because the Philippines is a predominantly agricultural country as compared to the United States and Japan. Wilkinson reports that the percentage of males in non-agricultural employment in the United States is 91.5; in Japan, 59.8 and in the Philippines, 36.4. He also indicated that the percentage of the total population which is defined as urban is 64.0 in the United States; 53.5 in Japan and 24.1 in the Philippines.¹⁶

Small factory owner was ranked higher by the Japanese than by Americans and Filipinos. Perhaps this is due to the unique position which the small factory owner occupies in Japanese society. Of Japan's industrial establishments, 79.5% had less than 10 employees.¹⁷ Union leader was also ranked higher by the Japanese than by either the Americans or the Filipinos.

Movie artists seem to enjoy higher prestige in the United States than in the Philippines and Japan. Perhaps the admiration for Filipino movie artists' talent, income, and looks is somewhat ambivalent. Probably the subjects evaluated their prestige both "on" and "off" the screen. That this kind of ambivalence exists seems plausible because the movie artists' prestige rating has a high degree of variability. It has the highest standard deviation value in the occupational prestige hierarchy.

Cross-cultural discrepancies in the occupational income rankings occurred in

¹⁴Robert J. Smith and Charles E. Ramsey, "Attitudes of Japanese High School Seniors Toward the Military," (To be published in *Public Opinion Quarterly*).

¹⁵Paulino Ersando, "Agriculture—The Nation's Backbone," *Agricultural and Industrial Life*, Vol. 22, March, 1960, pp. 12-34.

¹⁶Thomas Wilkinson, "Urban Structure and Industrialization," *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 25, June, 1960, pp. 356-363.

¹⁷*Ibid.*

practically the same occupations in which differences in prestige can be observed. In one occupation, movie artist, all three groups agreed in their rankings. All of them ranked movie artist second in income. As far as functional importance is concerned, four occupations exhibit discrepancies in ranking from one culture to another. The Japanese ranked soldier and priest or minister lower in functional importance than the Americans and Filipinos and they ranked labor union leader and beautician higher than either the American or Filipino Subjects.

In all of the cross-cultural comparisons in prestige, income, and functional importance ratings, the magnitude of the rank correlation coefficients between ratings by the Filipino and American students are always higher than the correlation between American and Japanese ratings (Table 4). Perhaps this can be explained in terms of the contacts the Philippines has had with the United States and the extent to which the country has been Americanized.

Summary

Findings in this study of occupational evaluation in the Philippines indicate the following:

1. In general, the subjects ranked the professions and other white-collar occupations higher than blue-collar occupations. Those occupations which carry ceremonial titles are ranked higher in prestige than in income.

2. Occupational inclination leaned more towards the professions and other white-collar occupations. An examination of the interrelationships between four variables—occupational prestige, income, functional importance, and occupational inclination shows that prestige has a greater influence on occupational inclination than either perceived income, or importance of the occupation to the functioning of society.

3. Students from professional and white-collar backgrounds and those from farming and blue-collar backgrounds have considerable agreement in their occupational ratings. However, the white-collar orientations of the latter group are evident in their evaluations of certain occupations.

4. Occupational evaluations of Filipino students correspond to those of American and Japanese students but there are cross-cultural discrepancies in some occupations which need to be examined further in the light of the particular socio-cultural settings in which they are found.

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Organizing Chairman: Chester L. Hunt, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo; Fulbright Professor of Sociology at Silliman University, Dumaguete City, Philippines

Co-Chairman: Rudolf Rahmann, S.V.D., Chairman of the Department of Anthropology, University of San Carlos, Cebu City, Philippines

Secretary: Wilhelm Flieger, S.V.D., Professor of Sociology, University of San Carlos

Participants and papers

MILTON BARNETT, University of Wisconsin and the Council on Economic and Cultural Affairs, Inc., "Social Implications of Chinese Gambling."

GLEN H. FISHER, American Embassy, Manila, "Social and Cultural Change in Economic Development."

MARY R. HOLLNSTEINER, Ateneo de Manila Institute of Philippine Culture, "The Alliance System in Municipal Politics."

LUCILA J. LAGAMON, Xavier University, Cagayan de Oro City, "Some Relations Between the Visayan Language and Cultural Patterns in Misamis Oriental."

FRANK LYNCH, S.J., Ateneo de Manila Institute of Philippine Culture, "The Lowland Philippine Alliance System."

SAMSON LUCERO, University of Southern Philippines, Cebu City, "The State of Social Work in Cebu City."

- MARCELINO N. MACEDA, University of San Carlos, Cebu City, "Acculturation Problems of the Negritos of the Central Philippines."
- THOMAS R. MCHALE, Johns Hopkins University, "Social Aspects of Economic Development."
- FRANCIS C. MADIGAN, S.J., Xavier University, Cagayan de Oro City, "Some Demographic Trends in Cagayan de Oro City."
- TIMOTEO ORACION, Silliman University, Dumaguete City, "Social Aspects of Kaingin [swidden farming]."
- AGATON P. PAL, Silliman University, Dumaguete City, "Demographic Facts and National Policy."
- RUDOLF RAHMANN, S.V.D., University of San Carlos, Cebu City, "Folktale and Folk Life."
- MAMITUA SABER, University of Mindanao, Marawi City, "Muslim Social Organization and Community Development."
- RUBEN SANTOS-CUYUGAN, University of the Philippines, Diliman, Rizal, "Community Development Research."
- RUFINO DE LOS SANTOS, Dan Salam Junior College, Marawi City, "Muslim Social Values and Education."

Background of the Conference

Although the Philippine Sociological Society was founded in 1953 as a national organization for sociologists, anthropologists, and allied social scientists, its membership and its activities have been Manila-centered to date. This is due in part to the distribution of these professionals within the Philippines, but in recent years the growing number of sociologists and anthropologists residing in the central and southern islands has made it advisable that a special effort be made to extend the services of the Society to them. Hence when Dr. Chester L. Hunt, Fulbright professor of sociology at Silliman University, broached plans for a conference to be held at Cebu City, the Philippine Sociological Society sought funds from the Asia Foundation for the dual purpose of promoting the gathering itself and of explor-

ing ways in which the participants might form a more permanent professional organization.

Accomplishments

The organizational goal of the Conference was achieved in a business meeting chaired by Mary R. Hollnsteiner, President 1962-63 of the Philippine Sociological Society. By a near-unanimous vote of the 90 delegates in attendance it was decided that, rather than form another and distinct society, the social scientists of the central and southern Philippines would join with the Philippine Sociological Society. Whether they would join as individuals or as a regional chapter was not decided, however; the decision was left in the hands of the Continuation Committee appointed to make arrangements for next year's Visayan-Mindanao Sociological Conference.

This year's Conference opened the morning of May 30 with addresses of welcome from the Rev. Wilhelm Flienger, S.V.D., secretary of the Conference, the Very Rev. Harold W. Rigney, S.V.D., Rector of the host university, and the Hon. Francisco E. F. Remontigue, Governor of the Province of Cebu.

In five sessions distributed over two days 15 papers were read and discussed, the subject matter being principally research and problems in the southern and central Philippines. Beyond this there was considerable attention to cultural, social, and economic change throughout the nation. The discussions made clear that knowledge of the various Philippine cultural-linguistic groups is uneven and deficient even among social science teachers and practitioners, a fact which may account in part for frequent failures in

programs of change involving these groups. Recurrent suggestions from experienced field workers centered around the need for education, and the desirability of intensified ethnographic activity. Interdisciplinary cooperation was also seen as a primary need.

This Conference, the first of its kind to be held in the area, served to bring many social scientists, teachers, and social workers together for the first time. The exchange of ideas that took place gave rise to new plans for research and teaching. When further organization has been completed and the participants and others have been united with colleagues from Luzon through the Philippine Sociological Society, there is good reason to believe that both research and teaching in social science will be notably improved.

Social and Cultural Change in Economic Development

GLEN H. FISHER

United States Embassy, Manila

I. The Sociologist looks at Economic Development

An examination of the topics to be considered in this conference reveals that we are concerned here primarily with *applied* Sociology as we attempt to relate sociological knowledge and insight to current problems in education, minority groups, community development, and national economic growth. This paper has been conceived in the same general vein. It does not pretend to present new knowledge or the results of new research, nor does it pretend to set forth new sociological theory. Rather, in the sense of applied science,

it is the writer's intention to take a sociological look at what has ordinarily been considered a problem in economics, namely, *the process of economic development*.

We usually discuss economic development in such terms as increased productivity, gross national product, rate of savings and capital formation, increased employment, higher standards of living, etc. Practically, we look for the situation where a loan for a new industry, an improved transportation network, or new power resources will set off a new round of increased productivity. In countries where economic development is in its