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**FILIPINO SETTLEMENT IN AUSTRALIA: GEO-  
GRAPHICAL PATTERNS AND PERSONAL  
ADJUSTMENT**

by

\* *Richard T. Jackson*

Filipino connections with Australia have existed for many centuries; 'Manila-men' were a major source of pearl-diving labour in the Torres Straits fisheries of the nineteenth century for example. Nevertheless, it is only since the mid-1960s that Filipinos have migrated in any numbers for permanent residence to Australia.

By the time of the 1981 Australian Census, there were still only 15,000 Filipino settlers. Migration policies, as well as historic ties, made the United States a far more well-known and popular destination for Filipino migrants, whilst Australia also offered very few opportunities for temporary, contract migration by Filipinos. Despite these facts, by 1986 the Philippines had become the fourth largest single source of new migrants to Australia behind the United Kingdom (14,710 new settlers in that year), New Zealand (13,280) and Vietnam (7,170). In 1986, there were 4,130 new migrants to Australia from the Philippines. So, despite a slow start, Australia is becoming a focus of considerable significance for Filipino migration.

This paper has the simple aims of (i) describing the geographic patterns of Filipino migrants' settlement in Australia as represented in the 1981 Census; (ii) examining changes in those patterns since 1981; and, (iii) reporting on the Filipino community's attempts to cope with a new physical and social environment. In this last aim, attention will be focused on the Filipino communities of central and northern Queensland.

**The distribution of Filipinos in Australia, 1981**

*Figure 1.* indicates one major feature of the geography of Filipino settlement in Australia as recorded in 1981: they were highly concentrated in the area of Sydney. Of the 15,400 Filipinos in Australia at that time, over 49% lived in Sydney which, by comparison, contains 20% of the total Australian population. If, as in *Table 1*, we compare the distribution of Filipino-born Australian residents with that of all Australian residents we find that it exhibits a concentration ratio of 33.9 (ie 33.9% of the RP-born population would have to be 'moved around' if its distribution was to exactly match the distribution of the population as a whole).

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**TABLE 1 RP-born and Australian population distribution, 1981**

Region	No RP-born	% RP-born total	% all population	difference
SYDNEY	7,606	49.3	19.7	+29.6
Rest of NSW	788	5.1	15.5	-10.4
MELBOURNE	3,146	20.4	17.7	+2.7
Rest of VIC	304	2.0	8.6	-6.6
BRISBANE	695	4.5	6.5	-2.0
Rest of QLD	709	4.6	9.2	-4.6
ADELAIDE	400	2.6	6.1	-3.5
Rest of SA	196	1.3	2.7	-1.4
PERTH	399	2.6	5.6	3.0
Rest of WA	448	2.9	3.1	-0.2
HOBART	56	0.4	0.9	-0.5
Rest of TAS	69	0.4	2.0	1.6
DARWIN	271	1.8	0.4	1.4
Rest of NT	62	0.6	0.4	+0.2
CANBERRA & ACT	253	1.6	1.5	+0.1
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>15,402</b>	<b>100.1</b>	<b>99.9</b>	<b>67.8</b>

$$\text{Concentration ratio} = \frac{d}{2} = 33.9$$

Whilst, as one might expect, the largest numbers of RP-born settlers are in the largest urban centres, there are variations when the ratios of RP-born to all Australians are calculated, as in *Table 2*:

**TABLE 2. Ratio of RP-born distribution to total Australian distribution, 1981**

DARWIN	4.5:1
SYDNEY	2.5:1
Rest of NT	1.5:1
MELBOURNE	1.2:1
CANBERRA/ACT	1.1:1
Rest of WA	0.9:1
BRISBANE	0.7:1
Rest of QLD	0.5:1
Rest of SA	0.5:1
PERTH	0.5:1
ADELAIDE	0.4:1
HOBART	0.4:1
Rest of NSW	0.3:1
Rest of VIC	0.2:1
Rest of TAS	0.2:1

From this, it can be seen that, in 1981, areas with disproportionately high numbers of

Filipinos were an apparently odd mixture of (a) the biggest, most cosmopolitan cities and (b) some of the more isolated parts of Australia.

It is of interest to note that whilst the concentration ratio for the RP-born was higher than the average ratio of the 35 other major ethnic groups represented in Australia in 1981 ( $x=28.3$ ), it was lower than several such groups. The Lebanese (54.5), Turks (48.6), Egyptians (47.0), Israelis (43.9), Cypriots (41.6), Greek (41.5), Maltese (39.6) and Sri Lankans (37.7) all had higher values, indicating a lesser degree of spatial integration. This was despite the fact that most of these communities have been established in Australia for much longer than the Filipinos and all, except Israel-born, were larger communities.

A second, and even more striking, feature of the RP-born community in Australia in 1981 was that it was predominantly female: over 10,000 of the 15,400 total were female, giving an overall sex ratio of 186 females per 100 males. If we break these totals down into broad age groups we find that this overall total

**TABLE 3. RP-born sex ratios by age groups, 1981**

Age Group (yrs)	Males %	Females %	F : 100 M
0-19	32.6	17.3	96
20-39	48.7	63.	241
>40	18.7	18.9	187
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>100.0</b>	<b>186</b>

(n = 5393)

(n = 10038)

underestimates the significance of this pattern since when the under-20's are allowed for, the sex ratio was over 220:100. This pattern is unique, in Australia, to Filipinos since, in general, migrant communities are predominantly male, at 92.9 females per 100 males; no other migrant community's sex ratio even approaches that of the RP-born.

Now, it is a well known fact, and a subject of some controversy in both Australia and the Philippines, that substantial numbers of Australian men (amongst those of other nationalities) have married Filipinas in recent years. The excess of Filipinas over Filipinos in Australia in 1981 was of the order 5000 and nearly all this excess was in groups of marriageable age. If we examine RP-born sex ratios state-by-state further clues emerge:

**Table 4 RP-born and other residents' sex ratios by state, 1981 (F:100 M)**

	NT	SA	QLD	TA	WA	ACT	VIC	NSW	AUSTRALIA
RP-born	368	326	324	313	219	209	173	162	186
Other residents	89	102	99	98	101	101	102	101	101

Taking these figures together with those of concentration, it seems reasonable to infer that:

(a) the practise of Australian males marrying Filipinas, by a variety of means of introduction, is now common throughout Australia, but

(b) it is especially important, proportional to total population, in the Northern Territory  
(c) 'migration-through-marriage' is not as important a factor in New South Wales and the Australian Capital Territory (Canberra) where the migration of wholly Filipino families appears to be much more common

(d) lastly, in Victoria where both the sex ratios of the RP-born and the concentration ratio are below the mean, family migration also appears more important, but the state does not appear to be attractive to RP-born migrants.

The importance of migration-by-marriage by Filipinas is a matter of considerable interest. It has attracted considerable media interest: such interest has almost exclusively focussed upon this activity's negative (especially moral) aspects. One implication of media coverage is that such migration is little more than an extension of the widely deplored tourism-for-sex for which the Philippines had, unfortunately, developed a reputation. Even though one should certainly not dismiss such allegations as without foundation, other factors should not be overlooked.

As Table 4 partly suggests, Australian population geography is one such, very important factor. In the Northern Territory the F:M sex ratio in 1981 was only 89:100 compared to 101:100 for Australia as a whole. It is entirely reasonable to assume that sex ratios similar to those of Northern Territory are also prevalent in neighbouring non-metropolitan areas of Western Australia, Queensland and South Australia. The economies of these areas are dominated by male-employing extractive industries and pastoralism. The mining workers are relatively well paid and highly mobile. These economic factors, taken together with the relative shortfall of females of marriageable age, may well help to at least explain the need for males in such areas to search elsewhere for wives.

Finally, in examining the 1981 data, we should note that generally the length of residence in Australia by the RP-born (mean = 5.2 years) correlates with the size of the group: the more established a group is, the bigger it is - as one might expect. Some caution should be exercised here, however, since the statistics only tell us where the settler was resident in 1981; they tell us nothing about mobility since original arrival. In fact, the largest average residence time is recorded by the small group of Filipinos in the capital, Canberra (7.1 years). Since Canberra is predominantly a city of public servants, since employment as a public servant requires citizenship, which in turn requires several years residence, then presumably the apparent relationship between length of residence and size of community is not necessarily meaningful.

#### Changes in Filipino distribution patterns 1981-86

Since 1981, Filipino settlement in Australia has increased rapidly. Between the June 1981 Census and December 1986, over 18,000 new settlers born in the Philippines have arrived. Although it is not known how many of these, or of those registered in 1981, may have departed again, it seems safe to assume that the Filipino community in Australia has doubled in size since 1981 and now exceeds 30,000, constituting 0.2% of the total population. This figure, of course, excludes offspring of RP-born parents born in Australia.

If anything, the phenomenon of migration-by-marriage by Filipinas appears to have grown ever more rapidly, since, of the new arrivals 1981-86, over 70% were female. In consequence, it is estimated that the sex ratio amongst the RP-born in Australia has risen from 186:100 to over 215:100. As can be seen from Table 5, Filipino migration, unlike that of other groups, has continued since 1974 to be dominated by females. Since 1981 this imbalance has increased.

The data dealing with the state in which new settlers actually settled are not broken down by sex in the inward migration figures; for this we will have to await the full publication of the 1986 Census results. Nevertheless, for Filipinos as a whole, since 1981 their geographical distribution has become less and less concentrated upon Sydney and more matched to the Australian population as a whole. In 1974, for example, the concentration ratio for newly-arriving Filipinos was 33; by 1979 the figure had fallen to

**TABLE 5 Sex ratios of migrants to Australia, 1974-1986**

YEAR	FILIPINOS		ALL OTHERS		FILIPINOS AS % ALL MIGRANTS
	Total No.	Sex Ratio (F:100 M)	Total No.	Sex Ratio (F:100 M)	
1974	770	166	120,550	96	0.6
1975	1,110	214	53,010	119	2.1
1976	1,130	190	57,190	109	2.0
1977	1,900	168	73,740	100	2.6
1978	1,200	177	67,220	98	1.8
1979	1,580	198	70,660	100	2.2
1980	2,590	220	91,910	93	2.8
1981	2,970	258	115,770	90	2.5
1982	3,090	283	104,080	91	2.9
1983	2,660	275	75,730	94	3.4
1984	2,950	246	70,160	102	4.0
1985	3,750	229	78,250	95	4.6
1974-85	25,680	227	978,310	97	2.6
1986	4,130	na	88,460	na	4.5

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics,  
*Australian Demographic Statistics*,  
September Quarter 1986

15.6, and to 12.9 by 1985. In short, the initial concentration of migrants on Sydney appears to have given way to a 'maturer' form of migration which is more closely matched to overall population distribution. For a further example, whilst NSW, including Sydney, with 35% of all Australians attracted 65% of all Filipino migrants in 1974, by 1985 this had fallen to 44%; conversely, whilst Queensland (16% of all Australians) attracted 6.5% of RP-born migrants in 1974, it took 16% by 1985.

This emerging pattern would neatly fit most theories of migration processes: an initial, concentrated 'beach-head' is followed by a more general dispersal once numbers begin to grow. However, we must remember that a major part of this migration is of Filipinas marrying Australian males, not of family migration. This element of total migrant flow appears to have increased since 1981. Whereas in 1981, Filipinas exceeded Filipinos by 5,000, it seems that by the end of 1986 the excess was in the region of 11,500. So, the 'fit' between RP-born migration to Australia and classic migration theories is a distinctly odd one. What really seems to have happened is that the practise of Australian males seeking Filipina brides has diffused throughout Australia to such a degree that, although its intensity varies according to regional sex ratios, migration-by-marriage increasingly matches the population distribution as a whole.

These patterns and their trend create some interesting consequences. By 1986, it is estimated that there might have been 10,000 RP-born males in Australia and roughly 22,000 RP-born females. Despite adverse reactions both in the Philippines and in Australia both formally, by tightening of both governments' regulations, and informally, through TV investigations and press articles, there is no evidence that migration-by-marriage is declining. As will be shown, this paper will suggest strongly that the reasons for this are simply because the image of this phenomenon, as portrayed in the media, is largely, if not entirely, incorrect. The phenomenon's growth is also so large that it appears useful research into its impact in the Philippines, at both macro- and micro-levels, could be undertaken.

Within Australia one may pinpoint several scales of such impact. At the personal level, the adjustments necessary on the part of individual Filipinos to Australian society are very great indeed. Cut off from family and friends, the adjustment to a new society is difficult for all migrants. But in this case, the process must be more difficult when we recall that many Filipino migrants settle, through marriage, in some of the remoter areas of Australia, areas which few native-born Australians care to inhabit.

Such geographical isolation is enhanced by other factors. A most distinctive characteristic of migration principally for marriage is that the migrant's choice of location is primarily pre-determined by the husband's residence. A long observed feature of migrant geography has been the spatial clustering of migrants into cultural ghettos in which the migrants' languages, newspapers, foods, religious practises, customs and many other aspects of the 'home' country's culture are preserved and fostered. This is largely absent in the present case, for the migrants are dispersed by the principal reasons for their migration; indeed, the migrant even takes on her husband's name - making life difficult for the researcher trying to take a random sample, amongst other things. The Filipino cultural ghetto, not surprisingly therefore, has rarely emerged in Australia.

But this in turn raises another question. The geographical clustering of the ghetto frequently performs a valuable service to its members. It acts as a security base for the new arrival; it can act as a transitional geographic and cultural base, a stepping-stone between the homeland and the new country. If it is absent, does not this place even greater stress on the individual migrant? Does it not mean that adjustments is even harder for the Filipino migrant than it is for those of other groups whose communities are geographically clustered and readily identifiable?

Finally, these specific features of the Filipino migrant community must be set within the overall Australian debate as to (a) the overall desirability of any level of international immigration, particularly in times of economic difficulty such as have faced Australia in recent years, and (b) if there is to be such further migration, from what regions of the world should it be encouraged? This debate has constantly recurred throughout Australia's brief history. In broad terms, it might be said that, first, there has always been a strong body of Australian public opinion (commencing with the Aboriginal inhabitants) opposed to any international migration, but that government policy has always favoured its continuance for a wide variety of reasons: and, second, that in recent years the lobby against migration from Asia has been disturbed by the arrival of reasonably large numbers of Vietnamese settlers (nearly 16,000 in 1985 and 1986) and has been bolstered by publicly expressed support even from academic quarters, most notably from the eminent Australian historian Geoffrey Blainey. As noted, despite such a lobby, Filipino migration to Australia has continued to increase. So we may conclude that official policy and practice is by no means as hostile as the public utterances of the anti-immigration lobby, which are frequently clearly racist, would suggest. Quite the reverse appears to be the case.

But official policy is of relatively little comfort to the individual Filipino migrant, male or female, who reads the arguments of the anti-immigration lobby in the press and is only too well aware of the fact that whilst a fellow migrant from, say, the United Kingdom, cannot be readily identified as such (unless he gives the game away by his accent), the Filipino is, through his physical appearance, self-evidently a migrant. To make matters worse, the Filipino is likely to be mistaken for a Vietnamese by the average Australian (just as the average Australian or Briton in the Philippines is likely to be mistaken, at first, for an American). Such mistakes by Australians are particularly galling for Filipinos as they, unlike most other Asian migrants, are usually fluent English-speakers, Christians and are often highly qualified, indeed frequently better educated than the average Australian.

In short, there is a strong case to be made that the Filipino, and especially the Filipina, migrant is faced with not only a new culture and society, some sections of which regard them with some hostility and others of which (including some of their fellow Filipinas) regard them as little better than opportunistic bar-girls, but is simultaneously faced with the difficulties of adjusting to the new, intimate personal relationship of marriage, and is bereft (in most cases) of the support offered to many other



migrants by the ghetto. The average Filipino migrant to Australia is almost certainly under enormous personal pressure, a pressure greater than that facing almost any other migrant group. How do they cope?

## The Filipinos of Coastal North and Central Queensland

### (a) Introductory

As noted earlier, there has been particularly rapid growth of Filipino migration into the state of Queensland since 1981. Most of this immigration-by-marriage. The overall population of the coastal areas of Central and North Queensland is approximately 600,000, who are concentrated in several small cities and towns (Gladstone 30,000, Rockhampton 60,000, Mackay 25,000, Townsville 100,000 and Cairns 55,000) which act as regional service centres; in smaller coal and mining communities; in agricultural service centres for sugar along the coast, pastoral activities inland and dairying, truckfarming inland of Cairns; and in scattered farmsteads. The climate of the area ranges from sub-tropical in the south to dry tropical around Townsville and humid tropical around Cairns.

Questionnaires were distributed to Filipino migrants now resident in the Gladstone, Townsville and Cairns/Far North Queensland areas. These areas in 1981 had overall sex ratios amongst all residents of 118.6 (males/100 females), 104.6 and 105.1 respectively; ie in all of them males exceeded females. It should be noted that the sample of interviewees was not entirely random, for several reasons. Firstly, because the only practical way of contacting interviewees was through local Filipino-Australian associations. Presumably these will not include all Filipinos, and those who are not associated with such organizations may have their own sub-set characteristics. Secondly, because the questionnaire was self-administered, only the views of those persons taking the trouble to fill it in are known; samples of this sort are always biased in favour of the more energetic, literate and concerned members of any community. Response rates were 39% for Gladstone, 40% for Cairns and region and 52% for Townsville.

### (b) Basic characteristics of the sample

TABLE 6 Population of the sample, July 1987

	Gladstone	Cairns Area	Townsville	Total
No of families	39	40	17	96
Total persons	125	126	48	299
of which:				
RP-born males	6	11	5	22
RP-born females	45	46	20	111
Mean family size	3.21	3.15	2.82	3.11
Family type:				
Non RP husband + RP wife	10	12	8	30
Non RP husband, RP wife + children	28	22	8	58
Single RP mother	1	3	1	5
Others	0	3	0	3

From the basic population characteristics shown in Table 6, these important points are immediately evident:

(i) the average resident family size is small, much closer to the Australian average of 2.8 than to the RP average of 5.6. Not only, therefore, have Filipina migrants left extended

family behind but they must adjust to living in a much smaller nuclear family.

(ii) in the whole sample only two Filipino male migrant heads of household were noted. Despite this, because several families include children of previous marriages, 17% of the RP-born population was male.

(iii) because of migration-by-marriage, which applies to over 80% of the sample, the RP-born only constitute 44% of the household population. In contrast to all other migrant groups to Australia the number of persons associated with Filipino migration, through direct family ties, is 125% greater than the number of migrants.

The questionnaire consisted of a series of 'closed' questions; a set of ten statements about which the interviewee was asked to express agreement (strong/weak), disagreement (strong/weak) or neutral opinions; and a completely open section for the interviewee to express opinions not covered, or not covered in detail, elsewhere in the questionnaire. By far the most common subject discussed by half the respondents for this last, entirely unprompted set of remarks was that of marriage. All such respondents showed a wide awareness not only of the problems of cross-cultural marriage (some with rueful hindsight) but also the public image (usually a negative one) which RP-Australian marriages have. Several complained of 'adverse publicity of Filipina-Australian marriage from the Australian media'. Many suggested that people taking such a step should be very careful, 'to be sure of the man they intend to marry'. Some went further, because 'some Filipinas are treated very badly, like slaves, here in Australia', and suggested that 'men here need to be properly educated ... as mostly they are too selfish, hard-headed and very WILD'. On the same lines; several would have agreed with one respondent, fully acquainted with Australian colloquialisms, who stated: 'In the Philippines it is only the Filipino brides that are screened whilst their counterparts, the Australian bridegrooms to be, are not subjected to any examination whatsoever. Many Australians coming to the Philippines are 'no-hopers', 'ratbags' and alcoholics. Some are even guilty of assaulting their previous wives. How about the government taking steps to not allow Australians without good moral character to contract marriage overseas?'

However, almost as many respondents were as or more critical of their fellow Filipinas as of Australian husbands: 'I know a few who think ... after a few months or years they'll break off their marriage and go back ...' or 'Some Filipinas are only using their husbands ... they come out here and live with their husbands just for a couple of months, then leave the husband and go on a Australian government supporting mothers' pension ... It makes me mad because they are abusing the system ...'.

TABLE 7 Age of spouses, 1987

	Filipina Migrants only			Total Average	Australian marriages as a whole
	Glandstone Area	Cairns	Townsville		
Average age (yrs):					
Non-RP Husband	46.1	50.1	46.0	47.6	46.4
RP Wife	34.6	36.7	38.5	36.1	43.1
Mean age difference	11.5	13.4	7.5	11.5	3.3
Age difference between partners of:					
>30 years	-	2	-	2	
21-30 years	3	10	1	14	
11-20 years	12	4	3	19	
6-10 years	14	6	6	26	
<6 years*	7	10	6	23	

\* Incl. 5 cases where wife is older than husband (by <6 years)

It might be argued, apparently logically, that the age difference between partners might be a contributing factor to marriage difficulties. As Table 7 shows the age gap, at 11.5 years, is very much greater than that for Australian marriages as a whole. However when this variable was correlated against respondents' answers to questions on general well being, security and happiness the values arrived at were statistically insignificant. For some the age gap is important: 'you're not married to that old, old man?' was a phrase one respondent hated most (she is 28, her husband 39), but in general it does not seem to be an important explanatory variable of success or failure in marriage. Even so, it has important implications. If migrants' life expectancies quickly conform with those of the Australian population as a whole, we can confidently expect fairly large numbers of Filipina widows to begin to appear in the next two decades in Australia.

Several respondents had very positive views: 'I find Australian husbands more loving, thoughtful and responsible than most Filipino husbands' or 'my marriage, to me, is the nicest thing that ever happened in my life' or, from a lady 29 years her husband's junior, 'marrying a different nationality takes a lot of guts - in my case, I am so thankful to God that I found the right person ...'.

In short, there clearly are many strains on such marriages. The manner in which spouses met cannot have helped; most partners (60%) met as pen pals, or whilst the husband was on holiday in the Philippines. The age difference between partners, on top of cultural differences, would not seem to assist in the achievement of a successful marriage. Certainly respondents themselves were most united in agreeing that RP-Australian marriages require more understanding than marriages between Filipinos or between Australians (see Table 13). Nevertheless, it would seem to be quite incorrect to conclude that the average RP-Australian marriage is excessively fraught with difficulty because the overwhelming majority of respondents (see Table 14) class themselves as happy or very happy overall. (What is meant by 'happy' is not necessarily relevant: it is the individual respondent's self-categorization.) To assess more precisely the success or failure of RP-Australian marriages relative to Australian marriage patterns as a whole certainly requires more research but it is clear that in Central and North Queensland, at least, the situation appears to be reasonably healthy despite what would seem to be the host of potentially negative factors facing such marriages.

**TABLE 8 Length of stay in Australia of spouses**

	Gladstone	Cairns Area	Townsville	Total
<b>Husbands:</b>				
Born in Australia (n)	25	20	11	56
Migrants number	11	12	5	28
length of stay (yrs)	21.5	27.8	15.4	21.6
<b>Wives:</b>				
number	36	33	17	86
length of stay (yrs)	4.5	5.6	4.6	4.9
age on arrival (yrs)	30.1	31.1	33.9	31.2

Table 8 suggests three things:

- (a) that, as shown in the national analysis, there has been a rapid increase in recent years of migration-by-marriage.
- (b) that since for Australia as a whole the proportion of overseas born on the total population was 20.9% at the 1981 census, and since non-Australian-born husbands of Filipinas account for exactly one-third of husbands in the sample, it may be that other non-RP born male migrants to Australia show a slightly greater tendency to marry

Filipinas than to marry Australian-born females.

(c) that the average Filipina on arrival is far from being immature (and, by implication, incapable of rational decision making).

This is related to another semi-myth of the Filipinas marrying Australian males: that they are poorly educated barmaids or 'hospitality' girls. Whilst it is certainly true that some such girls do find their way to Australia through marriage, one might query (a) what is necessarily wrong with that? and, more importantly, (b) is the average Filipina migrant really uneducated? *Table 9* suggest, very strongly indeed, that the answers to the second question is, definitely, no.

**TABLE 9 Highest level of completed education (spouse only) (numbers)**

	Gladstone		Cairns Area		Townsville		Total	
	Husband	Wife	Husband	Wife	Husband	Wife	Husband	Wife
University Degree	5	15	4	20	3	8	12	43
Other Post-Secondary	4	10	3	6	2	3	9	19
Secondary	17	9	17	6	8	5	42	20
Primary	10	2	7	0	3	1	20	3

Even if one takes a very chauvinistic view of the merits of an Australian vis-a-vis a Filipino education (one the present writer does not), *Table 9* leads to only one conclusion: the average Filipina migrant is much better educated than her Australian husband. Indeed the median Filipina migrant is a mature woman with a university degree! Presumably, this should be very much to Australia's benefit. What use is made of this highly qualified group of migrants?

**TABLE 10 Employment status of RP-born wives**

	Gladstone	Cairns Area*	Townsville	Total
Full-time employment	1	8	4	13
Part-time employment	-	1	-	1
Self-employed	-	4	-	4
Household duties only	36	18	12	66

\*1 unknown

*Table 10* suggests that very little use is made of the migrants' qualifications. In fact, the situation is worse than this: about half those employed, despite possessing post-secondary qualifications are in jobs for which they are clearly overqualified. After marriage, the inability of the migrant to obtain a job on a par with her qualifications is the major negative factor commented upon by respondents (see *Table 13*).

This in turn raises the question: do Filipinas feel they are discriminated against? *Table 13* shows, fairly clearly, that the majority (49 out of 90) felt this was not so, whilst 26 did think so; 15 were neutral or unsure. It would appear as if there is at least a suggestion of a degree of negative discrimination against Filipinos in employment; however the data presented here is not entirely conclusive.

### (c) Migrants' ties with the Philippines

How strong are migrants links with the Philippines? Since the average length of stay in Australia of these in the sample is only five years, it might be expected that links

remain strong. Most of the evidence from the survey bears out this expectation. There are several indirect indications of both the strength of the links as well as the reasons for them. Firstly, the nature of the sample itself, taken from migrants who have links with the local migrant association, would indicate a continuing interest in things Filipino. Secondly, most of the 103 children in the sample, 28 were born in the Philippines, almost all as a result of previous unions, and a few respondents noted that they still had children in the Philippines. On the negative side, however, in 84 of the households, English was the language reported as being the only one used in the household; in only eight households was Tagalog reported as being in partial use; and in two others Visayan languages were used.

Respondents were asked what they missed most about the Philippines. The great majority (77%) placed greatest emphasis on missing their families. A third reported missing Filipino food most of all; it is of interest to note that in both Townsville and Cairns small businesses have already been established by migrants to meet this need. Twenty three percent of respondents missed the warmth and hospitality of Filipino society whilst 10% specifically mentioned missing Christmas and fiestas. Mentioned by a few respondents was 'missing previous jobs', the range of entertainment available at home (60% respondents come from Manila) and shoe and clothes size. I suspect that many more would have mentioned the latter had they been reminded of it. However, there is a brighter side to the point; size 5 shoes or size 8 clothes, abnormally small in Australia, are consequently and frequently to be obtained in sales at bargain prices.

More directly, respondents were asked how often they had returned home since arrival and whether or not they supplied financial support to relatives or others back home. Fifty two respondents had made at least one such visit; of these a third had made more than one trip. Between them, the 96 households had made 93 trips, that is the average migrant had returned home once every five years. If this pattern of return is replicated at the same level throughout the 30,000 Filipinos presently in Australia, and if each *balikbayan*, is accompanied, on average, by one other member of their Australian household, it would result in 12,000 return journeys each year enough to justify one 747 flight per week to the Philippines.

Almost as many individuals (46%) reported sending regular financial assistance to the Philippines. Interestingly, the highest proportion of such assistance givers was in the Gladstone sub-sample (55%) in which, as noted earlier, only one RP-born adult out of the 39 in the sample was employed. Very few of these who did not report sending funds regularly stated that they sent nothing at all, so the following estimates are likely to be on the conservative side. On average each sender of funds remitted \$A630 (P8800) per year; this averages out across all households in the sample at \$A290 (P4060). Such a rate applied to the Filipino population of Australia as a whole would suggest an annual remittance in excess of \$A5 million (P70 million).

The correlation between those visiting the Philippines and those sending remittances was mildly positive (+0.27) but statistically insignificant.

#### (d) Reactions to Australia

Respondents were asked to volunteer the good and bad things about their experiences to date in Australia. Although there were variations in the three sub-samples' responses which reflected local conditions, the patterns of such volunteered answers were generally similar. Perhaps surprisingly, amongst the 'good' things Australia was seen to have offered, improved economic conditions, although chosen by more respondents than any other category, attracted fewer than a quarter of responses. This was only marginally more than those who specified the physical environment as the most attractive aspect of their new homeland. Amongst the Cairns-sub sample 'environment' easily outstripped all other favourable factors. By contrast, respondents from the much drier Townsville rarely mentioned environment but gave greater prominence to personal security and feelings of peace.

The 'factors' shown in Table II are, in fact, groups of volunteered comments. It is of interest to note that if individual members of these groups are considered the single most

**Table 11. *Reactions to Australia: 'goods' and 'bads'***

Factor	Good	Bad
Economic	24%	18%
Environmental	22%	5%
Social	20%	51%
Personal	20%	25%
Political	13%	-

important perceived 'good' was the good government of Australia.

On the 'bad' side, the single most important factor noted was the difficulty experienced in understanding Australians' accents and use of English (20% of respondents), followed by racial discrimination (17%) and, an economic factor, the difficulty experienced in obtaining a job (16%). A further 17% said they could not think of any bad aspect of Australia at all.

On balance, thereof, Australia's politics and environment came in for considerable praise and created almost no problems, as expressed in this voluntary question. Economic and personal 'goods' were more or less balanced against 'bads' whilst the main problem issues were social ones.

Whilst the above points arise from volunteered information from open-ended questions, they can be cross-checked against answers to more specific questions. One such specific question was: 'would you encourage other Filipinos to migrate to Australia?' It is possible that some respondents might answer 'yes' to this question even though they themselves have not experienced successful migration (perhaps those who miss their close relatives), but generally it might be expected that the answer to such a question could reflect on overall balance in the respondents' minds as to the 'pros' and 'contras' of their own experience.

**TABLE 12. *Would you encourage other Filipinos to migrate to Australia?***

	Gladstone	Cairns Area	Townsville	Total	%
No	4	6	3	13	25.5
Unsure	4	2	5	11	
Yes, of whom:					
Have not sponsored any such migrants	19	19	5	43	45.7
Have already sponsored such migrants	11	12	4	27	28.7
Nos. of such migrants sponsored	15	20	9	44	-

The result is fairly clear: three-quarters of the respondents would recommend migration to Australia and 40% of those have already successfully helped to sponsor at least one migrant. The ninety-five respondents (whose average length of stay is 5 years)

have sponsored 44 further migrants so far.

A second comparison with volunteered answers were provided by the response to 10 specific statements with which interviewees were asked to state whether they strongly agreed, agreed, were neutral, disagreed or disagreed strongly. If these responses are assigned +2, +1, 0, -1, and -2 'points' respectively, then the answers to the ten statements can be analysed, at least in a very simple way. In Table 13, the responses were ranked from most positive to negative:

**TABLE 13. Positive and negative aspects of migrants lives. *migrants lives***

Statement	Gladstone	Cairns Area	Townsville	Total
I feel more secure in Australia than in RP	+1.26	+0.93	+1.23	+1.13
Overall I am happy in Australia	+1.28	+0.88	+1.06	+1.08
I am financially better off in Australia than in RP	+1.36	+0.63	+0.88	+0.97
I find it easy to make Australian friends	+0.90	+1.10	+0.53	+0.92
People in Australia are helpful and friendly	+1.13	+0.80	+0.71	+0.92
I like the lifestyle in Australia	+0.90	+0.45	+0.71	+0.68
I have never been discriminated against as a Filipino	+0.54	+0.33	-0.06	+0.34
I do not intend to return to live in RP at some stage	+0.18	+0.05	-0.18	+0.06
I find it hard to get a job to suit my qualifications	-0.44	-0.35	-0.64	-0.44
Australian-Filipino marriages require more understanding than Aust-Aust, or RP-RP unions	-0.69	-1.10	-0.88	-0.89
Mean response	+0.64	+0.37	+0.34	+0.38

(NOTE: In this table, all statements are phrased to indicate positive or negative aspects of life in Australia. In the questionnaire some were phrased slightly differently.)

In general there was broad agreement between the three samples: the most difficult problem is marriage, followed by not being able to get a job which matches migrants' qualifications. The question which attracted by far the most number of 'neutral' responses were concerning any plan to return to RP to live; well over 50% of respondents entered an answer of 'neutral'. Given the average age gap between Australian husbands and RP-born wives, this seems a realistic form of reticence.

At the positive end of the scale it is interesting to note that financial well-being did not head the list; this position was occupied by the sense of increased security. It is also to note that stronger positive attitudes in the Gladstone sub-sample. There is no ready explanation of this difference.

From the responses to the ten statements listed in Table 13 it was also possible to arrive at scores for each individual respondent. In Table 14 there are shown: note that the range is from +20 (all answers strongly positive) to -20 (all strongly negative).

**TABLE 14. Individual's responses**

	Gladstone	Cairns Area	Townsville	Total	%
Very positive (>9)	11	8	4	23	24.0
Positive (5-9)	17	8	3	28	29.2
Mildly positive (1-4)	8	11	4	23	24.0
Neutral (0)	1	4	2	7	7.3
Mildly negative (-1 to -4)	1	6	2	9	9.4
Negative (-5 to -9)	0	3	2	5	5.2
Very negative (<-9)	1	0	0	1	1.0

Again the results point to the same general conclusion noted earlier: the majority of respondents have a strongly positive response to their experiences in Australia, and over 77% have a generally positive view.

### **Conclusion**

The Filipino community in Australia, though small, is growing quickly. Its geographical spread from Sydney/Melbourne to other parts of Australia has accelerated recently and appears to result not so much as a consequence of any expansion outwards from an initial 'colonised' niche, but more as a reflection of the diffusion of the practise of Australian males seeking out Filipina brides, for the Filipinos in Australia are an extremely unusual migrant group: one which is predominantly female. Consequently as the practise of marrying a Filipina spreads out from the metropoli, where sex ratios are fairly well balanced, to outlying areas, where males greatly outnumber females, so, *proportionately*, Filipinas are constituting an increasingly important segment of the community. The bulk of RP-born migrants are also unusual, in comparison to other migrant groups in Australia, because their place of residence in arrival is pre-determined by their husbands' pre-existing residence. This in turn means that (a) there are no identifiable Filipino 'ghettoes' ie geographical areas where Filipinos are clustered - which in turn throws greater importance on formal or informal organizations which act as foci for Filipino activities and ties - and (b) that the 'settling-in' process noticeable in many other migrant communities, whereby migrants enter the new country at one location and, through trial and error, eventually settle in another area, does not apply to most Filipino migrants.

In both Australia and the Philippines, 'migration-by-marriage' has been a cause of public debate and, frequently, has been condemned as an extension of foreign male sexploitation of Filipinas, on the one hand, and as devious means of obtaining entry to Australia, on the other. It seems to be a commonly held view that the great majority of Filipinas involved are low socio-economic status and that such marriages are likely to be unsuccessful. The data presented here, though it cannot be claimed to be either entirely representative or randomly selected, suggests that this stereotype is generally misleading. The modal Filipino migrant in north and central Queensland, as shown in the data, is a mature woman with post-secondary qualifications, she is unusually a decade younger than her Australian husband (who is not as well educated); she is usually unemployed in



Australia despite her qualifications, finds it difficult, at first, to understand Australian accents and ways of life, retains strong links with the Philippines (through either personal visits or remittances), misses Filipino food, and ranks improvement in personal security as (or more) highly as economic factors in evaluating her experiences in Australia. Finally, in general, the average migrant describes herself as relatively happy (more so in some places than in others) despite the fact that she recognises, what others emphasise: that the circumstances in which she has placed herself are far from being easy ones. Nevertheless, since the average length of stay in Australia, amongst the sample, is only five years, it must be recognized that the story of such Filipino migration to Australia is still unfolding.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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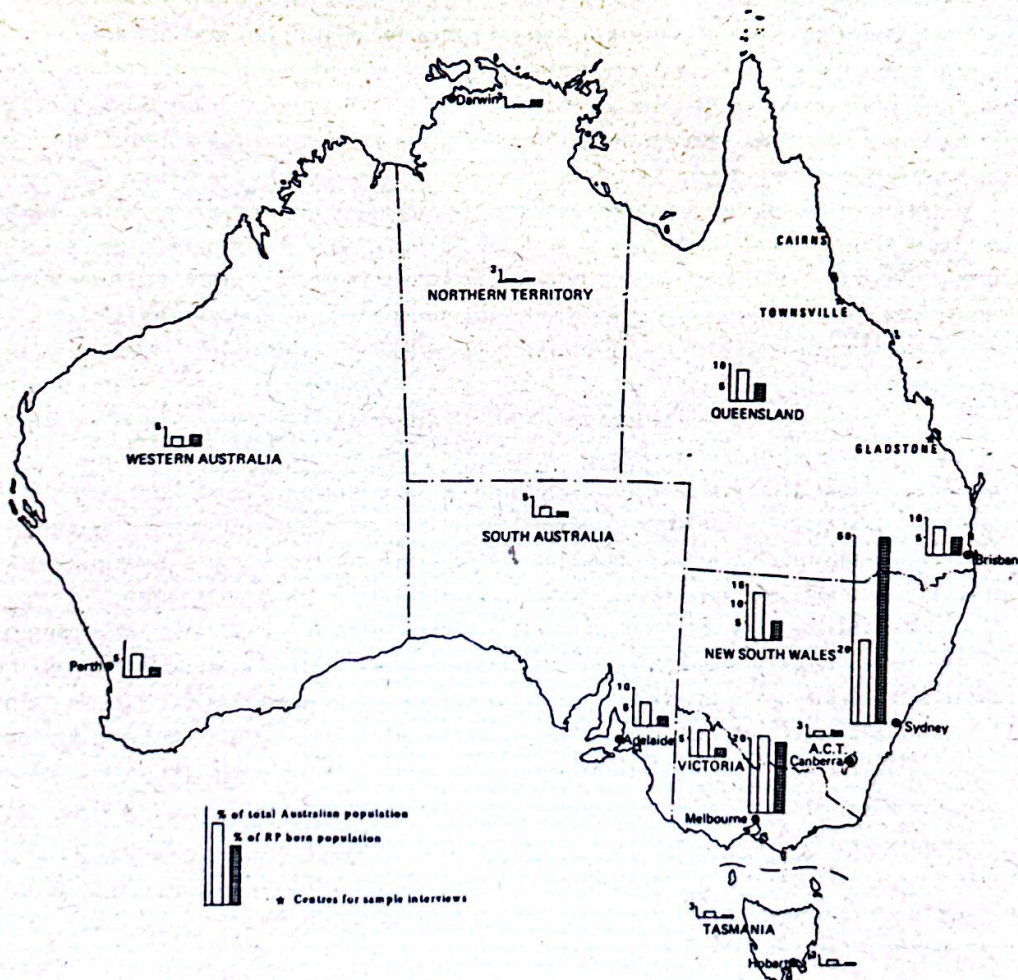


Figure 1. DISTRIBUTION OF RP-BORN, AUSTRALIA 1981

# CHARACTERIZATION AND UTILIZATION OF SALINE SOILS IN THE PHILIPPINES<sup>1</sup>

By  
M. R. Recel<sup>2</sup>

## INTRODUCTION

The Philippine Archipelago consist of more than 7,000 islands with a total land area of 30 million hectares. It stretches to more than a thousand kilometers between Taiwan in the north and Borneo in the south on the western rim of the Pacific. About 7.5 million hectares are cultivated to agricultural crops, 0.18 M hectares are fishponds, and 0.24 M hectares are marshes or swamplands. The area planted to rice varies from year to year from 3.0 to 3.5 M hectares depending on the availability of water and other limiting factors. One of the other factors is salinity which is greatly influenced by climatic changes.

Almost all saline soils in the country are coastal in nature, (*Fig. M-1*). Because of the extensive coastline of about 18,000 km. in the country, the coastal saline soils roughly sum up to as much as 400,000 hectares. Considering the limited land area of the Philippines, and the predicted food deficit of 1.4 to 1.7 M tons or 11-13 percent of consumption in 1990 (International Food Policy Research Institute, 1977), the saline soils offer a significant area as one of the resources to help solve food shortage.

Guerrero (1977) reported that saline soils in the country are scattered in the major groups of islands in Luzon (124,300 has), Visayas (173,200 has) and in Mindanao (103,300 has). About 27% of these areas are mangrove forests and 48% are developed into fishponds and salt making. The remaining 25% of coastal saline soils are croplands that are planted to various field crops, mainly rice during the rainy season and vegetables during the dry season.

## UTILIZATION OF SALINE SOILS

**THE MANGROVES** - The major portions of the mangrove forests are likely to be preserved as they are. However, the areas bordering the drylands are planted to certain species of palm trees and other economic crops. They can be suitably converted into fishponds if given financial support, should there be a need in the future.

**THE FISHPONDS** - Lands in coastal saline areas where the degree of salinity cannot be tolerated by any cultivated crops are developed into fishponds. These are located along the river banks that are relatively close to the sea coasts. The soils are dugged and deepened below sea level. They are enclosed with earth dikes and the water inside is controlled to the desired depth that is favorable for the growth of natural fish food. During the past three decades, fishpond expanded by 33% in area and fish production intensified by 2.9%. In 1981 milkfish production which constituted 90% of total fishpond production in the country was 170, 431 mt. The present national average production is 870 kg./ha./year. It could easily be increased to 2 t/ha./year.) if the recommended production inputs are properly and adequately applied (PCARRD, 1983).

1] Paper presented during the Regional Expert Consultation on Management of Saline/Sodic Soils of the FAO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific Region, Bangkok, Thailand on 25-29 August 1987.

2] Dr. Modesto R. Recel is Chief, Soil Research Div., Bureau of Soil and Water Management, D. A.

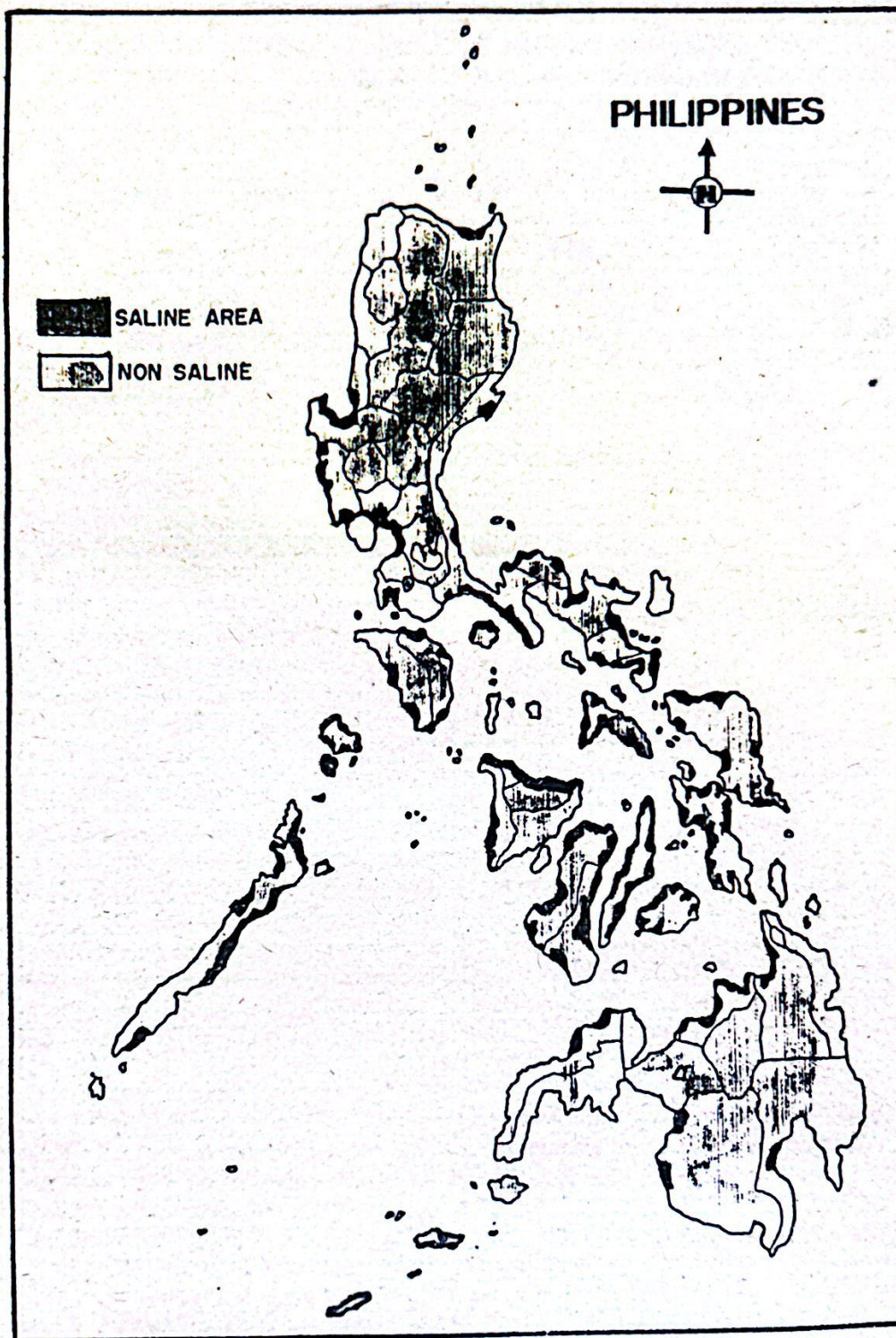


Fig. M-1. COASTAL SALINE SOILS IN THE PHILIPPINES

Some of the less productive fishponds that are located along coastline where they usually dry up during the hottest periods of the dry season are utilized for salt making. Here, the ground floor of the ponds are levelled and loosened by rake to hasten capillary rise of water that evaporates leaving a thick harvest of crystal NaCl. (table salt).

**THE SALINE CROPLANDS** - The saline croplands in the Philippines have been studied very intensively. They are planted to various crops during certain periods of the year. In general, all saline croplands are planted to rice during the rainy season. A second rice crop immediately after the rainy season is planted where irrigation water is available or where the soil is still wet enough to sustain a second crop of salt-tolerant varieties. Usually, flood-tolerant varieties are planted during the rainy season followed by early maturing salt-tolerant varieties in the dry season.

In Northwestern Luzon, saline croplands are successfully grown to vegetables such as onions, cabbages, cauliflowers, sweet peppers, etc. after a rice main crop.

In Mindanao, some of the saline croplands are grown to plantation crops such as cavendish banana or a multi-storey crop of coconut and cacao.

## HYDROLOGICAL CLASSIFICATION OF THE SALINE CROPLANDS

The saline croplands can be classified in terms of their hydrological characteristics (Garcia, 1981).

The Type 1 soils are those that have aquic moisture regimes, not excessively saline and can be grown to two crops of rice a year.

Type 2 soils are flooded with freshwater during the wet season but become saline during the dry season as a result of intrusion of brackish tide water.

Type 3 soils are saline during the wet season due to upwelling and seepage of brackish water.

Type 4 soils are saline throughout the year as a result of tide water intrusion.

The various types of saline soils can further be regrouped into three general classes in consideration of the mode of salt introduction into the soil such as (a) surficial salt intrusion wherein fresh tidal waves are flashed inland and trapped in depressions, (b) salt introduced from beneath the surface through seepage and upward movement through capillary rise of water, and (c) combination of the two above.

## RICE PRODUCTION IN THE SALINE CROPLANDS

Results of studies by IRRI in 1977 to 1980 in selected coastal saline soils showed promise as potential rice lands. Relatively high yield were obtained by planting flood-tolerant varieties in the wet season and early maturing salt-tolerant varieties in the dry season. This was demonstrated by an experiment conducted in Minalin, Pampanga (IRRI, 1980). Usually, the paddy fields in this area are not cultivated during the dry season due to the intrusion of saline river water. On the other hand, it is also severely flooded during the rainy season.

During the start of rains in May, the wet season crop was planted where the EC (electrical conductivity) was initially about 9 mmhos/cm. The EC gradually decreased to <4 mmhos/cm after successive heavy rains in the succeeding months. IR 42 which is relatively a tall variety was planted followed by a relatively tolerant strain such as IR 988454-3.

Another case of salinity problem is the occurrence of salt injury during the rainy season. This is illustrated by the experiment in Sabang, Camarines Sur. The site was located in the lower Bicol River Basin where there was an upward movement of saline ground water due to the buildup of hydrostatic pressure of water accumulating in the surrounding area. The EC ranged from 2 to 11 mmhos/cm. With the use of salt-tolerant variety (IR-98884-54-3C), the yield increased from 0.7 t/ha with a susceptible variety (MI-48) to 3.5 t/ha (Ikehashi, 1979) with a tolerant variety.

The third salinity site represented a very severe salinity condition brought in by the intrusion of salt water during the high tide that left behind considerable amounts of salts on the land. Here, no rice can tolerate the EC of 15 or more mmhos/cm. during the dry

season. The site is located in Agdangan, Quezon. Such saline areas are appropriately developed into fishponds.

The other characteristics of the three sites are shown in Table 1.

**Table 1. Chemical characteristics of the observation sites.**

~~(Table 1 to be inserted)~~

LOCATION	ph	EC (mmhos/cm)	O.M. %	YIELD (t/ha)	REMARKS
Minalin	5.8	9 to 1	2.7	1.4 - 6.5	Reduced salinity by rains
Sabang	7.4	2 to 11	3.2	0.7-3.6	Moderate salinity
Agdangan	5.9	≥ 15	5.9	-	Salt injury

Other studies (Quidez, et al., 1980) show the promising potential of coastline saline soils for rice where the yield increased from 0 to 6.5 t/ha under varying degrees of salinity by using salt-tolerant varieties and under local conditions, farmers can produce an average of 2 t/ha rice without costly inputs.

### CHARACTERISTICS OF THE OBSERVATION SITES OF SALINE CROPLANDS THAT ARE PLANTED TO VEGETABLES

**SUBEC SOIL** - This soil has shallow ground water table during the rainy season, thus, an aquic moisture regime. But during the dry season in January thru May, there occurs a capillary rise of water that eventually evaporates resulting to an accumulation of salts near or on the surface as evidenced by salt efflorescence on the surface that is common during the dry season. The EC from saturated paste was < 4 mmhos/cm in June thru December (*Fig. 1*), and went up from 4 to 10 mmhos/cm. in January thru May. On the other hand, the ESP (exchangeable sodium percentage) <15 in August thru January and increased to >15 in February thru July. It is sandy loam at the Ap horizon, sandy in the lower horizon and the permeability is very rapid (11 m/day).

The above characteristics placed the Subec soil in the great group of Halaquents in Soil Taxonomy.

The dominant cations were Na, Ca, and Mg, while the anions were Cl<sup>-</sup>, and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>=</sup>.

**CABITTAOGAN SOIL** - This soil has EC>4 mmhos/cm even during the rainy season and had ESP>15 throughout the year reaching as much as 90% in half or more of the soil to a depth of 50 cm that decreased with depth below 50 cm and a ground water table within 1 m of the surface sometimes in a year. This soil also belongs to the great group of Halaquents. Here, the only dominant cation is Na<sup>+</sup> reaching as much as 85 meq/l in February when the EC was maximum at almost 10 mmhos/cm. The dominant anions were Cl<sup>-</sup> and SO<sub>4</sub><sup>=</sup>, reaching as much as 72 meq/l and 22 meq/l, respectively, in February.

**TAMORONG SOIL** - This soil also belongs to the great group of Halaquents. The EC was <4 in April thru August and >4 in September thru March.

While the EC was < 4, the ESP was >15 throughout the year. The dominant cation was Na<sup>+</sup>, while the anion was Cl<sup>-</sup> with significant amounts of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>=</sup>.

**SALINITY MOVEMENT IN THE SOIL PROFILE** - Fig. 1 shows that EC in Subec was only >4 mmhos/cm during mid-dry season, while Cabittaogan and Tamorong were very saline at the start thru mid dry season. Here, the month of August falls mid-rainy season, January falls during the start of the dry season and March during the mid-dry season.

*Figures 2 and 3* show the distribution of ESP and SAR (sodium adsorption ratio) with season.

The EC distribution with depth also suggest that salt is introduced from beneath the

surface through seepage and upward movement thru capillary rise of water.

## VEGETABLE PRODUCTION IN SALINE CROPLANDS

Figure 4 shows the various cropping patterns being practiced by farmers. Selection of salt-tolerant crops is a better approach than reclaiming thru expensive salt detouchment and leaching process.

Here, underground water is pumped to irrigate the vegetable crops. Fortunately, the total soluble salts of the underground water which comes from inland is low (<600 ppm) although in areas that are immediately along the coastline sometimes draw brackish water during prolonged periods of irrigation but this does not seem to affect adversely the crop performance.

Here, farmers make furrows and plant at one side of the ridges.

Crops are least tolerant to salinity during their seedling stages. For this reason, farmers transplant their seedlings in December or earlier. Additionally, frequent application of small amounts of irrigation water, in order to dilute the salts in the soil solution, is usually employed at early seedling recovery.

The tendency of salts to accumulate near the seedling during the irrigation is greatest in single-row, flat-topped planting beds. Farmers use either double-row or single-row beds so that the salt accumulates into the center of the bed and leave the shoulder of the bed where the transplants are located to be relatively free of salt.

Another natural advantage of these soils is the moderate to rapid permeability due to the sandy subsoils. This facilitates the leaching of salts when irrigated but have high water retention capacity at the Ap horizon.

The crops planted are cabbages, cauliflowers, onions and sweet peppers. The crucifers are reported to be able to tolerate up to 3-5 mmhos/cm (Bernstein, 1959).

Cabbages are generally more solid than those produced from non-saline fields. Even cauliflower heads appear to be heavier than those from non-saline fields.

In fact the famous cabbage and cauliflower bowl of the country in the highlands having thermic temperature regime which for a long time monopolized production of these vegetables lost its title to the Ilocos Sur saline vegetable soils lately.

### CROPPING PATTERNS AND AVERAGE PRODUCTION OF SALINE SOILS IN ILOCOS SUR (1975-1980).

LOCATION	CROPPING PATTERNS	RANGE IN YIELD (t/ha)
SUBEC	Rice	2.5 - 4.0/ -
	Rice - Cabbage	-do /10 - 25
	Rice - Cauliflower	-do /4.5 - 8.0
	Rice - Onions	-do /8.5 - 20.0
Cabittaogan	Rice	2.5 - 4.0/ -
	Rice - Onions	-do /5.0 - 15.0
	Rice - Sweet Potato	-do /10 - 25
	Rice - Cabbage	-do /9 - 30
Tamorong	Rice	2.5 - 4.0/ -
	Rice - Cabbage	-do /10 - 30
	Rice - Cauliflower	-do /5 - 10
	Rice - Onions	-do /4 - 9

The wide range in variation of yields for the vegetable crops is associated to time planting, ability of the farmers to provide the production inputs, control of pests, and diseases and rainfall pattern.

Electrical Conductivity (EC)

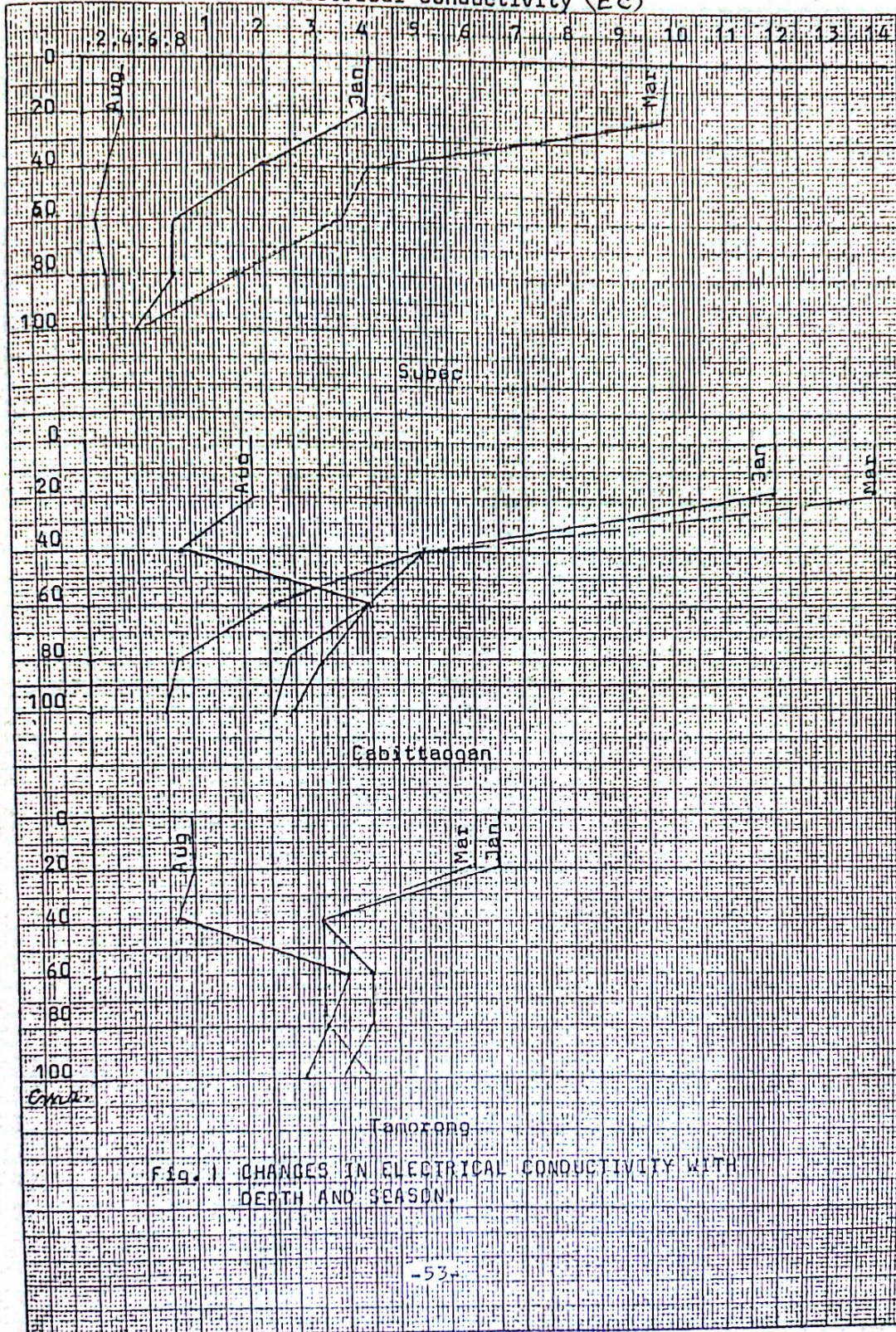
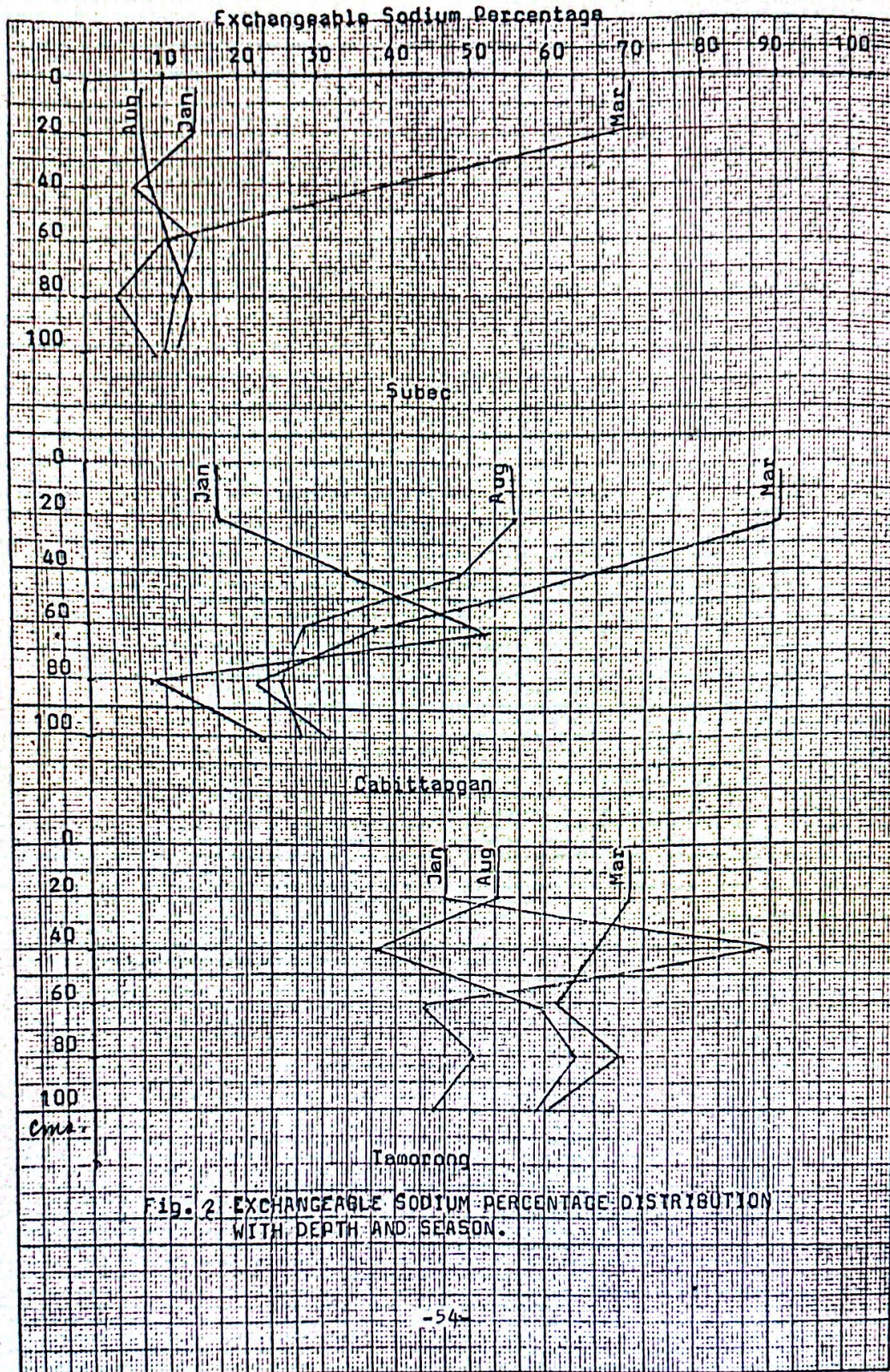


Fig. 1 CHANGES IN ELECTRICAL CONDUCTIVITY WITH DEPTH AND SEASON.





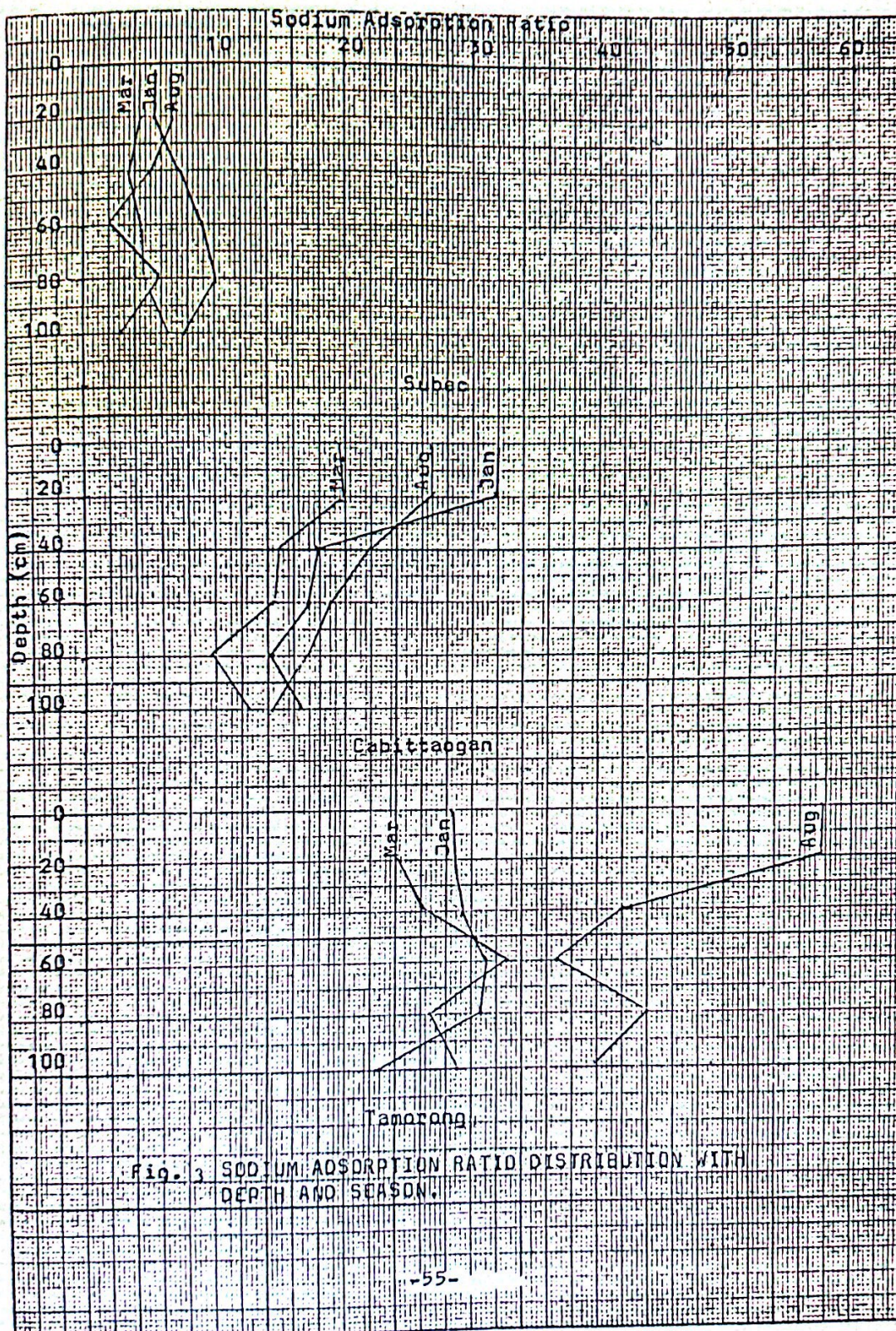


Fig. 3 SODIUM ADSORPTION RATIO DISTRIBUTION WITH DEPTH AND SEASON.

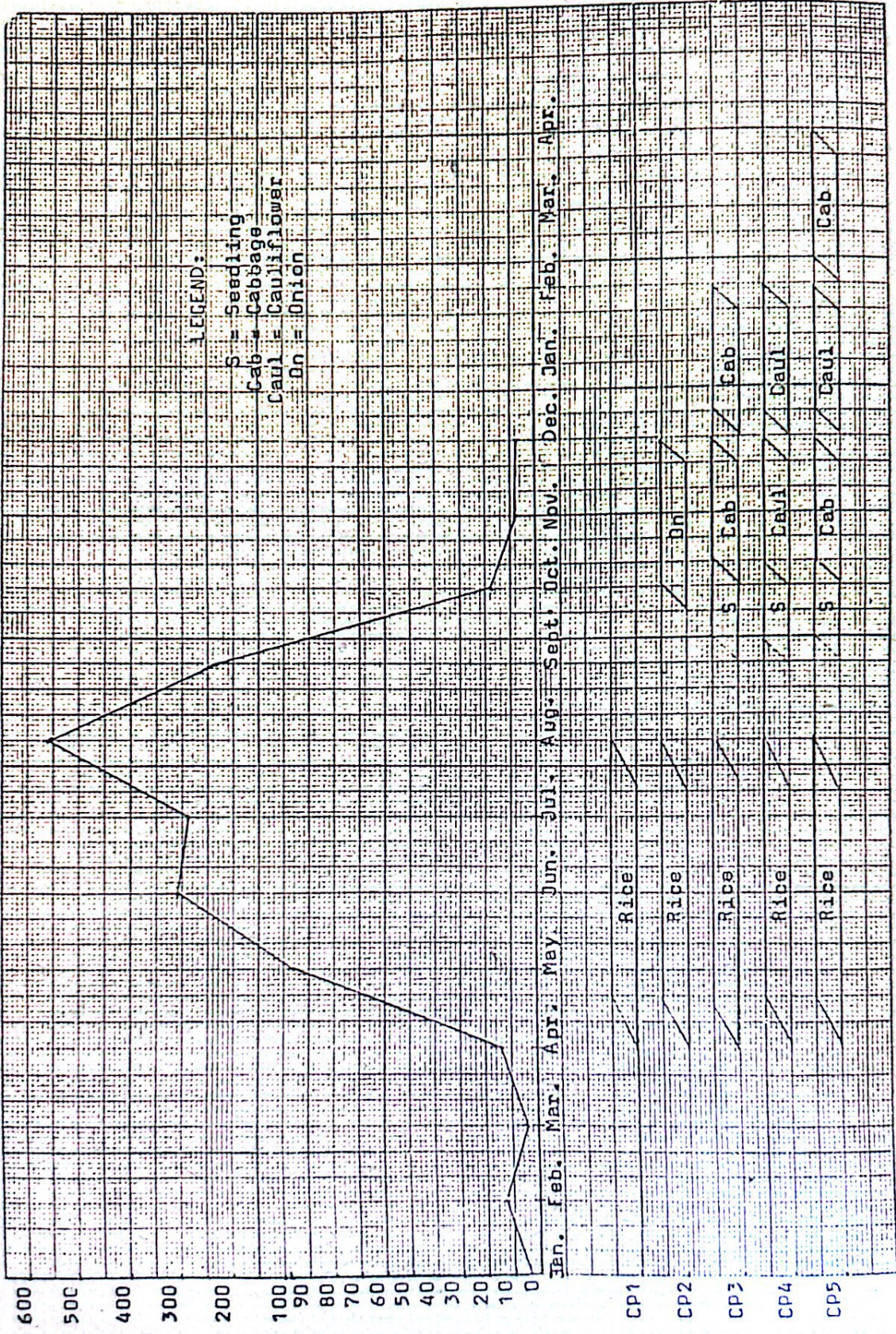


Fig. 4. CROPPING PATTERN IN HALAGUENTS IN WESTERN LUZON.

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# PUBLICATION TRENDS IN THE JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY 1902-1983

by  
Thomas Wai-kit Woo\*

## ABSTRACT:

*Publications characterize the professional activities for the promotion of a discipline. Study and analysis of articles appearing in the Journal of Geography, a major American geographical periodical, reveals significant trends regarding the philosophy, methods, approaches and educational aspects of American geography. Topics of physical geography have decreased sharply at the expense of human and quantitative geography. The rising number of geographic education articles reflects the unique nature of the Journal whereas articles on regional geography have been of secondary importance.*

In the United States, there exists the National Council for Geographic Education (NCGE) whose members are involved in research and education. The publications of these dedicated geographers for disseminating geographical knowledge characterize the changing emphasis and development of geographic education in this country. Their contributions of articles to the *Journal of Geography*, the official publication of the NCGE also reflect the internal growth of American professional geography through time.

The purpose of this article is to identify, analyze, and explain the evolution of American geography and geographic education by considering articles that appeared in the *Journal of Geography* from 1902 to 1983. The scope of discussion stresses on the changing publication patterns for various thematic geographic approaches, geographic educational philosophies, and teaching methods. The *Journal* is selected to be investigated because of three major reasons: It has been consecutively published in the field of educational geography since 1897; it has been acclaimed as the most scientific geographical periodical for disseminating significant geographical knowledge to teachers and students of all levels; and it is the only American geographical journal that majority of articles is contributed by school and college teachers; their classroom experience and insightful ideas on improving geographic education mirror the changing thoughts, interests of geographers and teachers from the turn of twentieth century to date.

From the founding of the *Journal of Geography* (which was known as the *Journal of School Geography* 1897-1901) to the end of 1982, there have been more than six thousand articles published. The contents of these articles vary from physical geography, human geography, and regional studies to geographic methods, philosophies, and geographic education per se. The research methodology for this article is done in five successive phases.

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First is to categorize and classify all the articles that appeared in the Journal from 1902 to 1982. Second is to calculate the total number of articles in percentages on five-year periods. Third is to construct tables and graphs for all the figures established at phases one and two. Fourth is to overview pertinent literature and research materials in order to study the changing publication patterns of various geography branches. Fifth is to analyze all assembled data for identifying publication trends, and to determine factors which have contributed to the development of American professional geography and academic geography.<sup>3</sup>

This article starts with a brief discussion of the total publication volume of the Journal. Then the article investigates the distinguished publication trends of systematic/topical geography including branches of physical, human/cultural geography, geographic methods and philosophies; studies with regional settings. A brief note on the nature of the nineteenth century American educational geography is followed by a comprehensive discussion of the academic geography. This article closes with a summary and a conclusion which are warranted to the author's research and analyses.<sup>4</sup>

### Total Publication Volume of the Journal of Geography

Apparently, the long-term influence of a professional organization or a journal cannot be estimated in terms of total membership or yearly published articles totals. Quality means more than quantity (Wright, 1967:558). The yearly article productivity rate of a journal, however, to a certain extent, might be a good indicator to examine the fluctuating professional activity. Although the publication peaks cannot tell definitely the factors whichever cause the rise or fall of article contributions, those peaks cannot reflect the internal growth of a discipline.

The most distinguished peak periods occurred in 1911-1918 and 1966-1971. During 1911 to 1918, more than 500 articles had been published. Content of these articles suggest that the sharp increase of publication volumes was at the expense of North American studies. Such "home geography" study and fieldwork observation were encouraged and emphasized by Richard E. Dodge, the founder of the Journal (Griffin, 1952-179). Also, the 1910s were years when philosophical and methodological concerns on geographic studies appeared significant. Further, challenges on the nature of geography as purely a physical or earth science generated another increase of article productions.

The 1966-1971 productivity peak, on the other hand, was contributed by the new breed of geographers whose attention on the geography curriculum reform provided plenty of publications that made geographic education articles statistically rank top among all articles. Overall, the changing productivity patterns could be explained by other combination of causes. Causes such as political, economic, social and technological developments offer new ideas for academic geographers to express their concerns in their articles.

### Topical/Systematic and Regional Classification

In spite of the fact that neither topical/systematic and regional geography nor physical and human/cultural geography form any true dichotomy (James, 1967: 19-21), for the sake of convenience, the author has separated his discussion into topical/systematic and regional sections.

Topical/Systematic geography, including physical geography, human/cultural geography, and geographic methods; attributes the largest share of total percentage of the Journal articles. Despite the fact that the Journal is devoted to geographic education, topical/systematic geography dominating the article content is highly noticeable (*Figure 1*). In contrast, regional geography remains secondary in importance regarding its percentage of articles being published in the Journal.

Within the study period (1902-1983), publication percentage of physical geographic methods articles demonstrated constant strength in the Journal (*Figures 2, 3, 4*). Aside

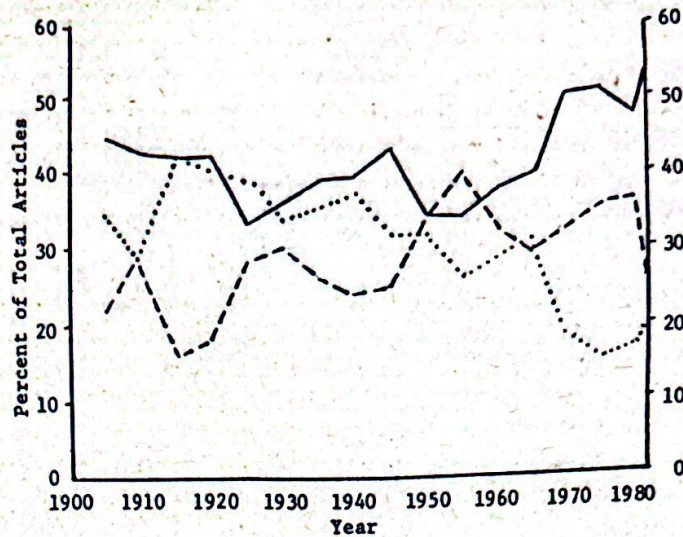


Fig. I. Publication Pattern of Topical Geography, Regional Geography, and Geographical Education Articles Published in the Journal of Geography 1902 - 1982

Note: Each Point on the plane represents total percent of articles appearing in previous five year period, except period before 1905 and after 1980.

Articles:

Topical Geography

Regional Geography

Geographic Education

•••••

Five Year Periods

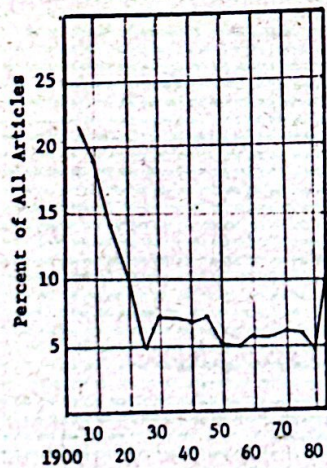


Fig. 2. Publication Pattern of Physical Geography Articles from 1902 to 1982.

Five Year Periods

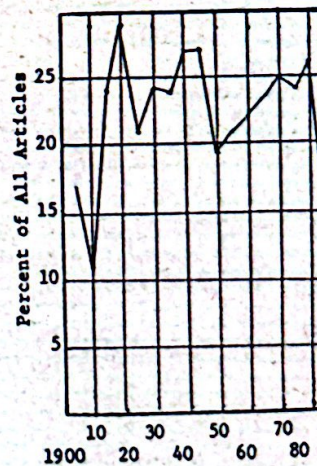


Fig. 3 Publication Pattern of Cultural/Human Geography Articles from 1902 to 1982.

from the demise of influence of a brilliant American physical geographer and prolific educator William Morris Davis, the overall decline of physical geography studies was caused by the rise of humanism within the geography of discipline. Cultural geographer such as Carl O. Sauer totally rejected environmental determinism. "Man is the latest

agent in fashioning of the (physical) landscape," insisted Sauer (1927:186). The publication percentages of various human/cultural geography fields shown in Figure 3 reflect the persistent professional interest in human/cultural topics.

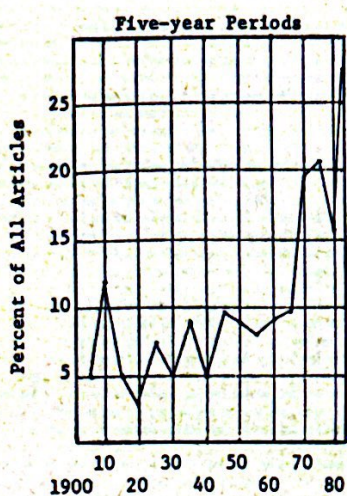


Fig. 4. Publication Pattern of Geographic Methods Articles from 1902 to 1982.

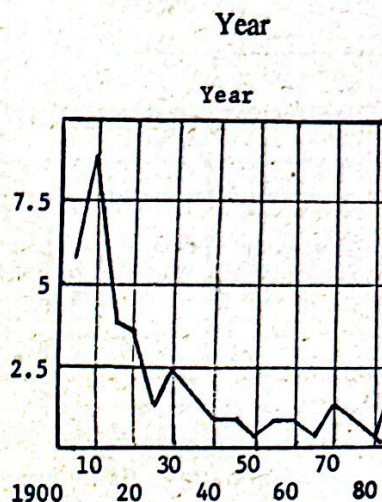


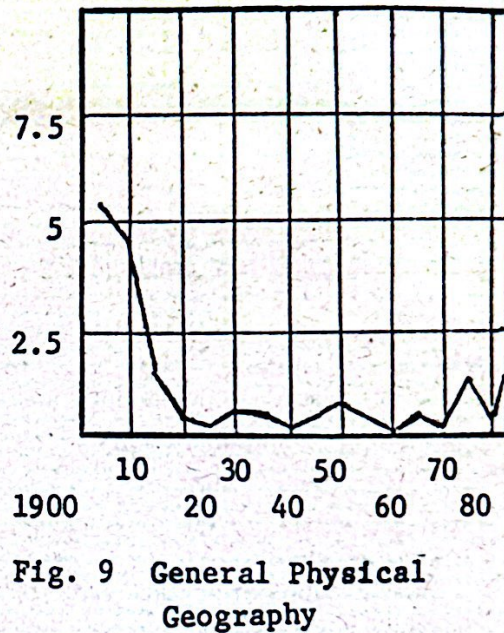
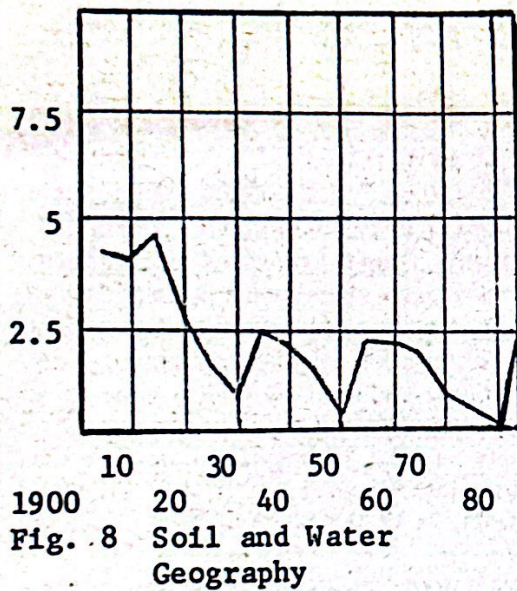
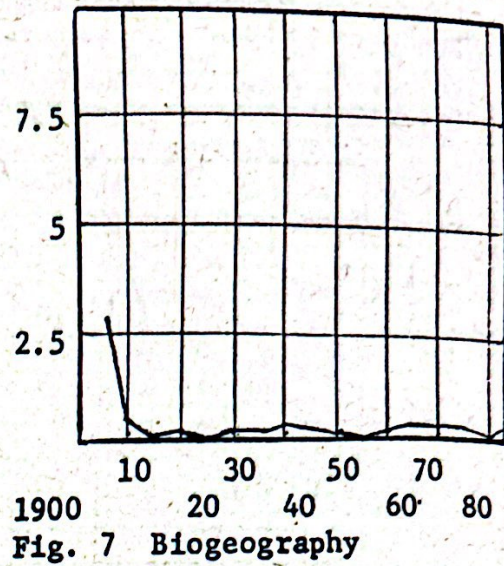
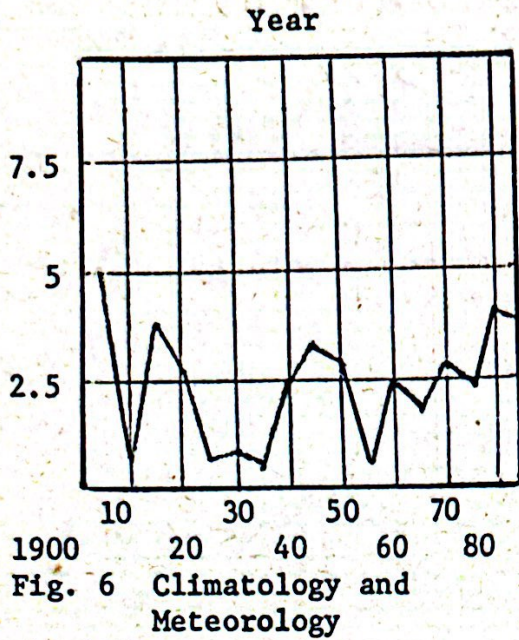
Fig. 5. Geomorphology

### PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY

In the early years of the twentieth century, physical geography, particularly geomorphology or landform study, was the cream among all branches of geography (Figures 2, 5). As shown by its high percent of articles, there seems no challenge to physical geography. Specifically, geomorphology articles received more attention than other biophysical studies before 1915. However, leading position of geomorphology was gradually replaced by climatology and meteorology and later by human geography (Figures 3, 5, 6). Geomorphology and physical geography in general, were boosted by William M. Davis, D. C. Chamberlain, and other physical geographers to upgrade the status of geography in the American school curriculum (Mayo, 1965:18-24). Although dominance of geomorphology no longer happened after 1920, slight interest in this field remained (Figure 5).

Diversification of physical geography has led to the creation of many derivatives. Among the blossomed fields include climatology, meteorology, biogeography, pedology, hydrology and so forth. Climatology and meteorology studies contributed no more than five percent of all articles throughout the study period, but they did not experience the same fate as that of geomorphology. Nevertheless, the increasing meteorological and climatological investigations have already affected the publication percentage of such articles appearing in the Journal. More and more theoretical models, quantitative analyses, and computerized programs have been used by the specialists of these two subjects to interpret regional, national, or global weather and climate. Other professional journals for these specialized studies provided outlets for publications. Hence, the author assumes that the amount of meteorology and climatology articles in the Journal will not increase substantially.

Biogeography, soil and water geography and studies with general earth-bound content altogether have accounted for less than eight percent of total articles (Figures 7, 8, 9). Facing the same situation as meteorologists and climatologists, scholars of these physical geography branches have been attracted to contribute their articles in other professional journals.



### Human /Cultural Geography

After the decline of physical geography in Mid-1910s, publication rate of human geography increased from eleven to twenty-six percent in 1910 and 1982 respectively. The one-time highest record of twenty-nine percent happened in 1915-1919 period (Figure 3). Unlike physical geography, there is no single field of human geography that dominates although agricultural geography for some time, statistically ranked top among all the human studies.

Figure 10 shows the publication total for agricultural geography suffers a gradual decline since 1935. Moreover, the contents of most agricultural geography articles appearing in the Journal were focused on foreign agricultural activities. This might indicate the effect of rapid industrialization and urbanization in the United States. This might as well reflect the growing interest of American geographers in international trade,



and agricultural development of the underdeveloped countries. Publication peaks of agricultural geography occurred in years after World War 1 and from 1930 to 1935 (Figure 10). Harold W. McCarthy (1954) suggested that agricultural studies were the first to attract attention of many professional geographers specializing on economic geography. He added that agricultural geographers helped a great deal in the development of regional concept and regional methodology. These contributions affected the publication of agricultural geography in the 1910s and 1920s. The economic depression in 1930s, however, provided a stimulus for research on improving the nations economy through better agricultural production. This reason possibly explains the peak of agricultural geography articles in the mid -1930s. Recent concerns on the worldwide food-population issues and problems attracted many professional geographers to increase article outputs on this subject, but the publication curve of Figure 10 does not indicate any increase in agricultural articles.

In early years of the twentieth century, access for regional and national economic statistics of urban and industrial development provided many opportunities for economic geographers to gain competence in some branches of economic geography. These branches include geography of agriculture, manufacturing, trade, industry, transportation, land utilization, mineral, resources, and energy. Illustrated in Figure 11, years during and after World War 1 denoted the vogue period of economic geography, energy and mineral studies. However, the author is surprised to see that these articles statistically did not increase afterwards. Nonetheless, the two World Wars were the most important events which had stimulated many economic studies with spatial contexts. Infact, nothing more influential than the Wars had awoken the Americans for geographical knowledge on the economic planning, and the awareness of interdependency of trade between the United States and other nations (Jones, 1959: 3-7).

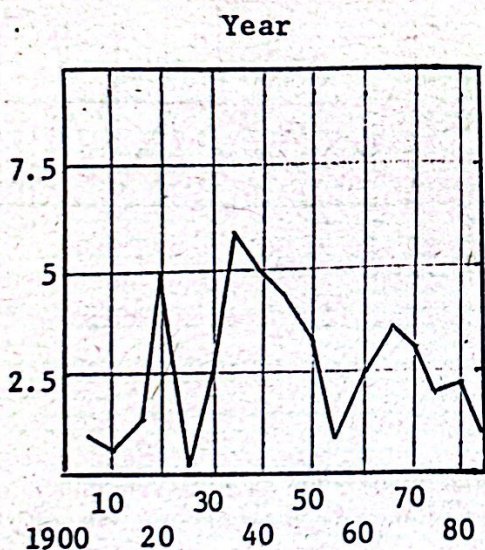


Fig. 10 Agricultural Geography.

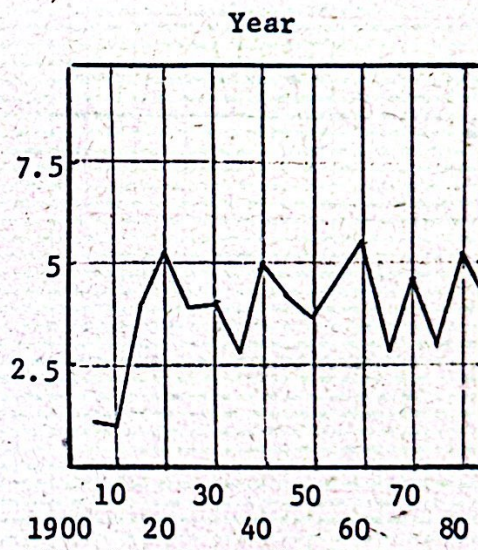


Fig. 11 Economic Geography, Resources, Energy.

The articles on industry, manufacturing geography accounted eight percent of all Journal articles, and since 1930 there was a continuing decline in production. This publication trend is considered by this author as an anomaly. It seems that the Economic Geography, a journal which was founded in 1925 by the Clark University and was intended to make it "useful and valuable to those engaged in the promotion of industries and trade . . . and to all who wished to have a part in the intelligent utilization of the world's resources " (Murphey, 1979:39) captured the literature of many economic geographers. The rise of other fields of human geography perhaps is another factor causing the low publication percentage of industrial and commercial geography (Figures 12, 13 ).

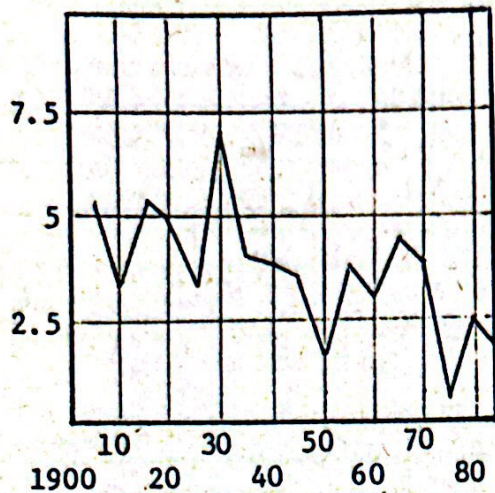


Fig. 12 Industry, Landuse, Manufacturing Geography.

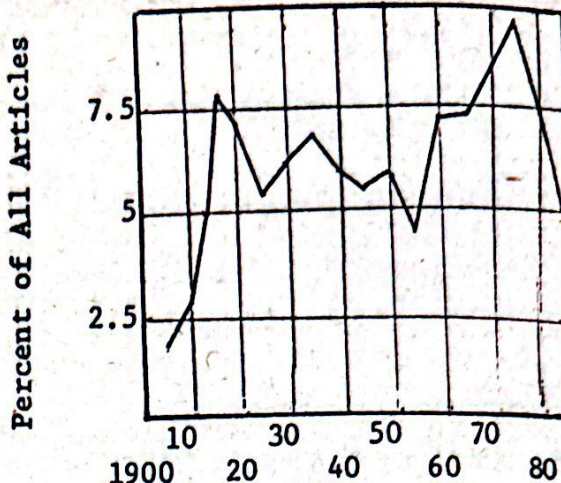


Fig. 13 Miscellaneous Human Geography.

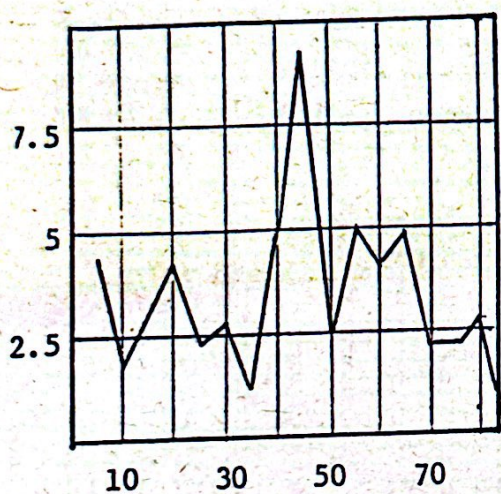


Fig. 14 Historical, Political, Military Geography.

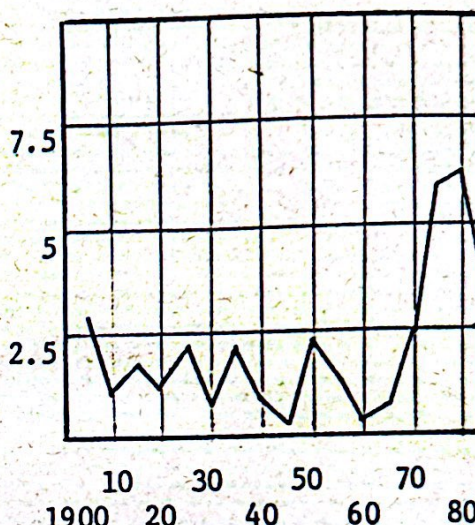


Fig. 15 General Human Geography.

Professional interests in geographical studies of medicine, population, recreation, settlement, transportation, and urban development have been maintained since 1910 (Figure 13). Overall, these fields contributed to an average of six to eight percent of all articles appearing in the Journal, and they never suffered any drastic setback. Rising national population, emphasis for college graduates to seek non-academic employments, increasing the needs of city and regional plannings, are few of the national trends which affected the emphases of geographical studies. In addition, the resurgence of applying geographic methods to solve practical problems beginning in 1960s highlighted human geography (Frazier, 1977: 44-45).

Except in the 1940-45 period, historical, political and military geography articles accounted for no more than five percent of the total Journal articles (Figure 14). The peak of 8.8 percent occurred during 1940-45 was clearly generated by the effect of the Second World War. However, the sharp decline of this group of articles is surprising because the impact of World War II was great regarding the employment opportunity it presented for professional geographers (Jones, 1959:4-5). The low percentage of historical, political and military geography articles throughout the rest of the study period

is a strong indication that interest in these fields has never been extensive among American professional geographers.

Articles with broad content of human geography are not categorized in one of the foregoing fields. General human geography represented less than three percent of all articles (*Figure 15*). Since 1965 to present, however, there seems more articles with content of more than one subject. The recent interest in applied geography may be the reason for a rise of the articles with general discussion on human geography.

### Geographic Methods and Philosophy

Every scientific discipline requires theories and philosophies to establish firm ground for factual knowledge, hence for manifolded applications. Geography, a discipline that is not limited by its definitions, has been undertaken by many ways of changes regarding its nature, philosophy, methodology, and applications. Although most articles published in the Journal were not highly philosophical nor theoretical, many articles touched upon the fundamental nature, scope, and methodology of both geography and geographic education.

Publication pattern of general methodological and philosophical articles (*Figure 16*) shows average of five percent of overall articles. This group of articles reached its peak of thirteen percent in the 1970-75 period. The significance of this articles, as a category, lies in the fact that geographers' ideas and teachers' first hand experience expressed in publications greatly affect the content of other categories. Development of American geography is made possible through the healthy revolution of geographical thinking, and the exchange of views about the diversity of the discipline. Leaders of American geography provide substantial articles on the nature, scope and prospect of geography. Advancement of scientific technology, on the other hand, generates debates among professional geographers on the changing role of geography in the real world.

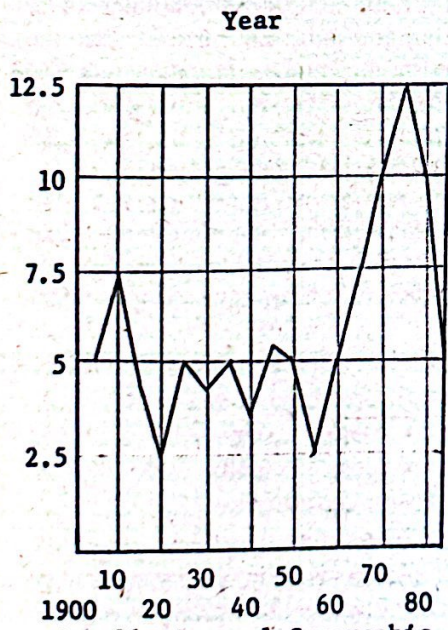


Fig. 16 General Geographic Methods and Philosophy.

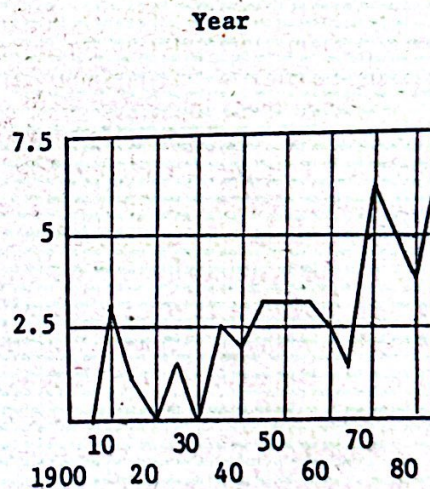


Fig. 17 Cartography.

Cartography is a moderately important category represented in the Journal. Unlike some geographical journal which either do not accept cartography and cartographic techniques articles, or simply place them in the notes section, the Journal values this special field of mathematical and artistic geography. Cartography articles accounted for five percent of all articles in the Journal during the 1960s and 1970s (*Figure 17*). This might be related to the professional responses to quantitative revolution of geography which started in the 1950s (Davies, 1972: 34-39). The popularity of cartography

continued to date. It reflects the continuing significance of digital analysis and automation, and computerization of map-making in the computer era of 1980s.

Air photograph interpretation and remote sensing imagery is another field of technical geography. These articles are poorly represented in the Journal until the 1970s (*Figure 18*). A Remote Sensing department established in 1979 till 1982 under the editorship of Benjaim F. Richason, Jr. obviously increased greatly the articles of air photo interpretation and remote sensing. In fact, the astonishing twenty-seven percent of all geographic methods articles occurring in the period of 1980-1982 is mainly at the expense of the marked increase of air photo interpretation and remote sensing articles (*Figures 4, 18*).

### Regional Geography

Geography exists mainly because of human's desire and curiosity to know about the diversity of the earth's surface. Recognition of the differing and distinctive character of the earth's surface is a real differentiation (Hartshorne, 1959: 12-21). It is generally recognized that regional study is the core of the geography discipline (Fenneman, 1919:2-6), however, articles with regional settings are of secondary importance. Moreover, there were less amount of articles discussing regional concepts or regional methods than those focusing upon specific world regions or individual countries.

In the early twentieth century, topical/systematic studies dominated the American geography. Not until after World War I regional geography gained strength in the United States (*Figure 1*). Several factors for the flourish of regional studies are identified as follows: First, many college and university geography programs began stressing on regional geography in 1920s. Second, geographers with wartime service overseas in 1910s provided new materials in articles with regional emphasis. Third, increasing commercial or economic ties and trades with foreign countries sparked new interests of American geographers in foreign lands. Fourth, changing political currents after the worldwide military conflicts offered new information for geographers to conduct studies with spatial context. Finally, new breed of geographers were not only critical on environmental determinism for investigating geographical phenomena, but they also practised using new analytical, theoretical-deductive methods in regional geography.

Despite these immediate effects, the publication curves of *Figure 1* indicate that percentage of regionally classified articles rarely surpassed that of topical/systematic articles. This trend, however, must not be interpreted that regional geography was unimportant in America. It is possible that too many publications on regional geography would overshadow the objectives of the Journal.

International issues may be regarded as a temporary cause for short period rise of certain groups of regional geography articles. Overall speaking, studies with North American settings dominated the regionally classified articles. Since 1920 to 1983, however, percentage of the North American articles declined gradually. The drop of percentage for overall regional geography articles is also obvious (*Figure 1*).

Traditionally, American geographers consider the study of local or home geography to be more important than that of other regions. This reason may explain the percentage of North American articles that have never been exceeded by any other group of regional studies. The fact is that American geographers are familiar with their local and national environment. Furthermore, there is sufficient literature and resources on which to base research; thus the dominance of American geography in the Journal is expected (*Figure 19*). Decreasing percentage of North American studies is definitely caused by the increasing interest in foreign regions. Factors such as better communication and transportation facilities, and institutional finance support for foreign fieldworks encouraged many American geographers to extend their professional interest outside North America.

Studying European regions or nations is of second ranking in their importance to the American geographers because of the economic, political, social, and historical connections between North America and Europe. Articles devoted to Europe or European

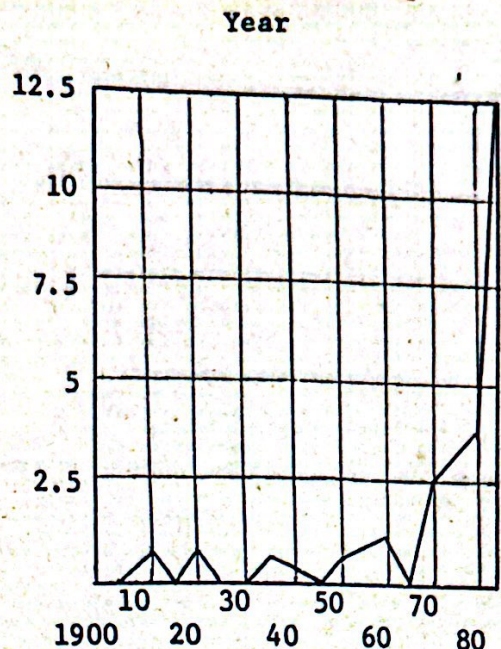


Fig. 18 Air Photo Interpretation and Others.

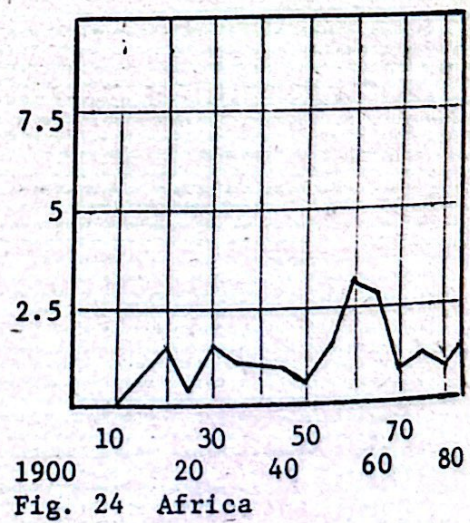
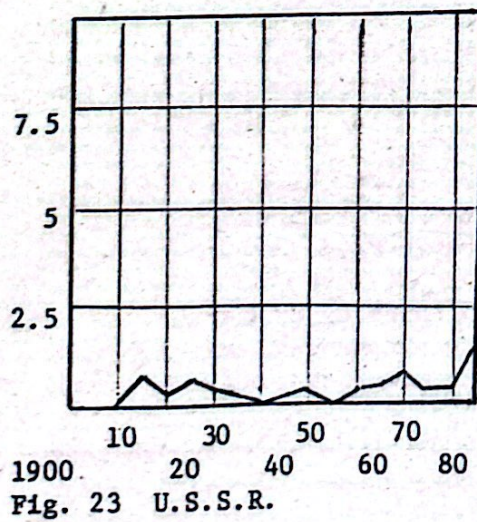
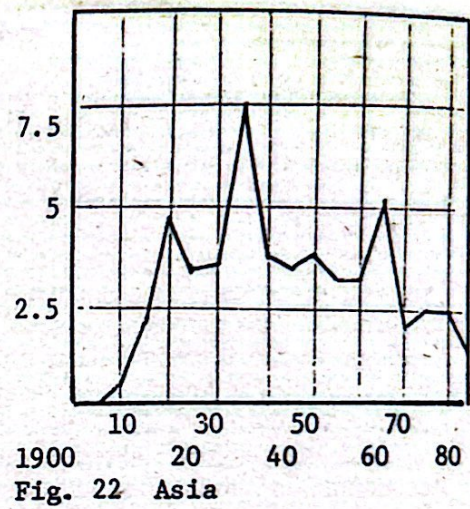
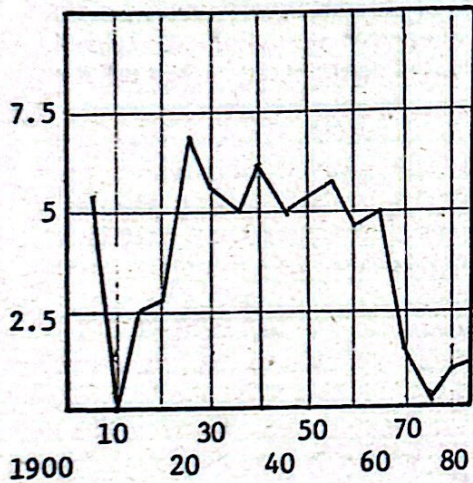
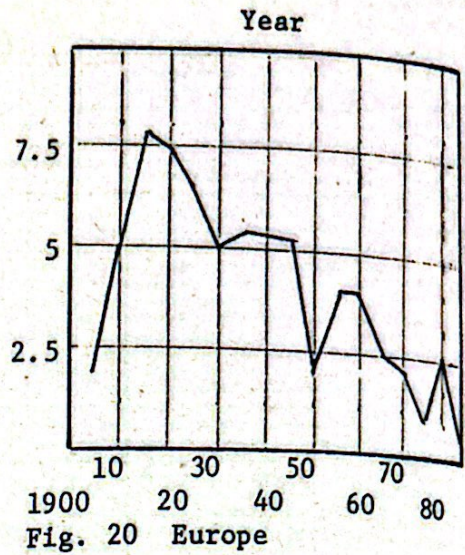
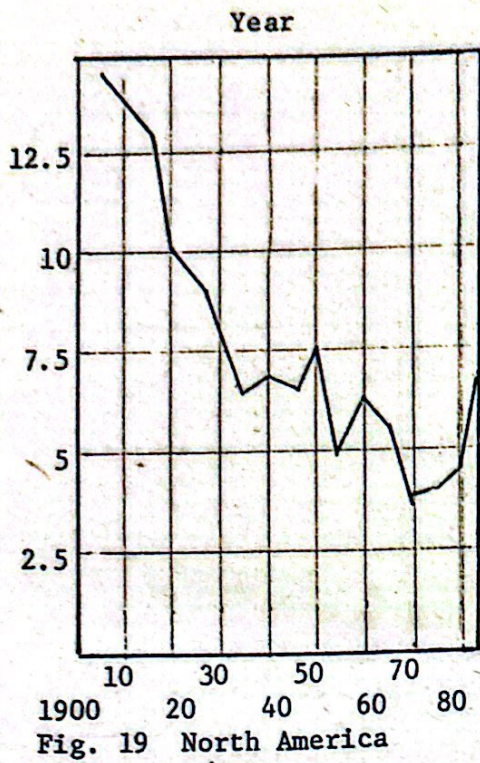
regions reached the peaks of eight percent of all articles in 1910-1915, and over nine percent in 1935-1945 (*Figure 20*). This publication pattern is concurrent with the periods when international disputes occurred in Europe. The low percentage of European studies, particularly after 1960, can best be explained by the shift of geographers' interest in Latin America and Asia.

Geographically, Latin America is the nearest region to the United States. *Figure 21* shows that articles written on Latin American regions shared an average of six percent of all articles. This percentage is relatively high compared with articles of non-American settings. It reflects the importance of Latin America to the geographers whose researchers play vital role for Americans to understand the geography of their neighboring continent and regions.

Asia is a geographical region with the greatest diversity of physical, cultural, social, economic, and political systems on the earth's surface. Articles on Asia have been predominantly focused on China and Japan, and to a lesser extent, India and Southeast Asia. Geographically Asia, rather than Latin America is much further away from North America. *Figure 22* shows that American geographers' interest in Asia was comparable to that of Latin America. In 1930-35 and 1960-65, Asia geography articles exceeded seven percent of the total Journal articles, but such percentage was not maintained after 1965. Perhaps, great geographical distance and linguistic barriers posed restrictions on American geographers wishing to conduct extensive and comprehensive research of Asian regions. This is particularly true in the case of studying China, that could be a vast source for geographical literature.

The Soviet Union has occupied little attention or study by American geographers. Data from *Figure 23* show that throughout the study period (1902 to 1983), an average of not more than two percent of all Journal articles was devoted to Soviet geography. In some periods, there was no article written on the largest country of the world. The political influence of Soviet Union may be well known to many people, but its geographical importance in the "shrinking world" has been somewhat neglected by the professionals. There could have been plenty of geographical publications on various geographical aspects of the Soviet Union.

African geography was also unimportant with respect to its publication percentage (*Figure 24*). Unlike such European countries as Great Britain, France, and Germany whose colonial influence or control in Africa provided massive opportunity for their geographers to conduct research, American geographers had little financial support for



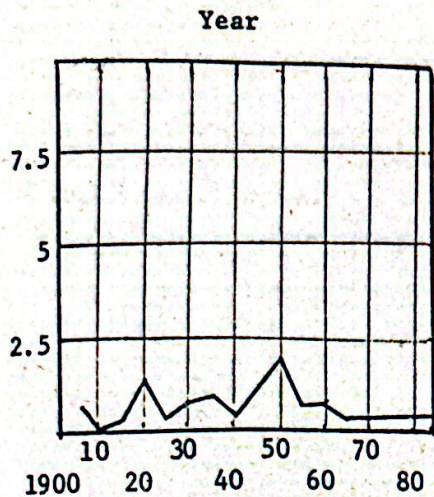


Fig. 25 Australia and Oceania.

Percent of All Articles

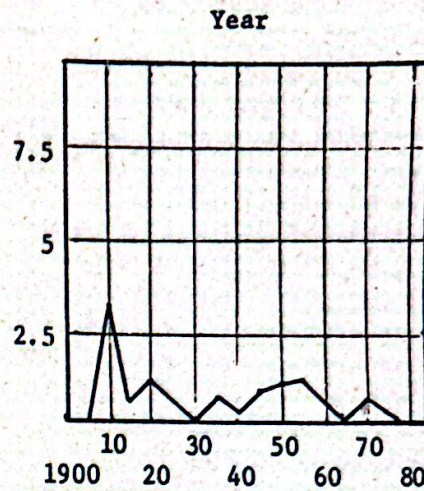


Fig. 26 Other Regions.

geographical research in Africa. Many American geographers also had little academic background to write on Africa. Slight increase of African studies occurred in the 1960s (Figure 24), but this was mainly stimulated by the independence of many African countries.

Very little Journal articles devoted to geographical investigations of Australia, the Pacific islands (Oceania), and regions with arid, polar, and tropical characteristics. Figures 25 and 26 show that these studies had never been well-presented in the Journal. Articles on the explorations, travels and discoveries in polar and tropical areas contributed more than three percent of all articles in the early years of the twentieth century, but such interest diminished rapidly after 1910. (Figure 26).

A 1979 survey of the NCGE individual members indicated that regional geography was one of the most interesting subjects to the readers of the Journal. Also, the members indicated significant interest in seeing more "special issues" on regional geography than in articles pertaining to other themes (Goodman, 1979). Based on these responses, the editors of the Journal may accept more articles with regional settings, hence that may affect the overall publication pattern in the coming years.

### American Geographic Education

There has been strong relationship between the development of American professional geography and that of educational geography. During the past 150 years, the history of the American geographic education demonstrates that the development of geography curriculum in the United States is closely related to the internal growth of professional geography. As a journal supposedly devoted to interested teachers and students, and published to promote effective geography teaching at all levels of instruction, the Journal of Geography is important regarding its role of identifying the changing concerns of American geographic education.

Geographic education articles appeared in the *Journal* consisting many types of material. Facets range from essays about personal classroom experience on teaching geography to stimulating articles of new findings or research projects with practical, creative, innovative and thought provoking suggestions and ideas. Topics of these articles are diversified as well. Topics included teaching concepts or philosophies, teaching or learning aids, techniques or strategies, lesson units, and curriculum development, all of which are oriented to the teachers' needs and for the improvement of geographic education in America.

An overview of the development of school geography suggests that this subject was identified in several phases of emphasis. In fact, in 1967 Randall C. Anderson commented, "Geography has undergone more changes in content and methodology, not to speak of esteem among educators, than any other area of social sciences." Before the 1850s, geography in school curriculum was no more than a descriptive study although geography teaching via using Johann Pestalozzi's observational fieldwork method had been introduced in the United States in 1820s (Kennermer, 1955:26). In mid-1850s, the use of Arnold Guyot's physical geography textbook in American schools helped in promoting the status of geography as a physical science. Despite the condition of poor geographic instructions caused by inadequate teacher training and less intellectual challenges to the students, "the evolution . . . from the vague, brief descriptions of the early geographies to the intricate, detailed explanations of the physical environment shows substantial growth in relation to both scope and content (of geography)". (Stowers, 1962: 46)

In the 1890's, school geography was further revitalized through the tireless effort of such educators as William M. Davis and Richard E. Dodge, and their colleagues considered the newly founded Journal of School Geography, Davis, Dodge, (1897) to be an essential outlet for revolutionizing school geography and improving the image of geography in school curriculum.

In general, the high percentage of articles with geographic education content is an ample proof of the Journal nature (*Figure 1*). The average publication total on geographic education articles is about twenty-nine percent. There was no dramatic decline of percentage in total educational studies published in the Journal although the statistic of 1910-1914 might be explained as to have receded in response to the rising importance of regional studies. Criticisms on and withdrawal of support for physical geography occurred in the 1920s. This laid ground for more regional studies and human geography of which the geography status was changed to be a social science. Regaining interests in commercial or economic geography, and the dissatisfaction of neglecting man's role in the study of the physical world are two major factors for this change of emphasis. The result of these changes is reflected in the increased publications of economic or commercial geography, and regional geography during 1920s (*Figures 12 , 13*). In contrast, physical geography articles decreased continuously in its publication frequency as shown in *Figure 2*.

By 1930s, school geography faced the danger of being fused with history to become the social studies during the social studies movement. Fortunately, geography remained as an independent discipline as Americans realized the need of learning world geography after their involvement in World War II (Mayo, 1965:94-111). The highest production of geographic education articles was reached during 1950 to 1954. This peak accounted for forty percent of all Journal articles. Whether or not this zenith was caused by the stimulus of the public awareness for being geographically literate, international issues certainly had impact on geographic education in this country.

During the 1950s and 1960s, development of science and technology enhanced geography's role as a social science. On the other hand, the High School Geography Project (1960-1970) might have kept geography alive in the American school curriculum. Considered by the American educational geographers as a landmark of geographic education, the Project was also recognized equally influential in many other countries (Gunn, 1972:19-35). Summarized by Clyde F. Kohn,

. . . the High School Geography Project attempts to replace expository teaching strategies with inquiry-oriented approaches to learning. The project relies upon the collection and observation of pertinent data, the formulation and verification of hypothesis, and the development of concepts and generalizations that characterize the frontiers of geographical research of the 1960s (Kohn, 1970: 218).

Articles commenting on the Project accounted for an average of more than thirty percent of all articles appearing in the Journal from 1960 to 1974 (*Figure 1*). This period was established as a major revival for the professional interest in geographic education. It



is also clear that since the advocacy of geography as a science into the school curriculum during the Davisian era, the 1960s and 1970s were the years which have proved the significance of the Journal. The future of geographic educational studies represented in the Journal is encouraging. With the establishment of a new "Teacher's Notebook" section in 1983, more innovative, and scholastic articles to the practitioners could be expected in the coming years.

### Conclusion

Numerical tables for the articles published in the Journal of Geography are not direct factual pictures to explain the developments of American geography and geographic education. Interpretation must take place. A study of the last eighty-seven years of articles appearing in the Journal reveals several significant trends regarding the philosophies, concepts, methods, approaches and educational aspects of American geography. Changes of emphasis made ways to form "new" geographies in replacing or revising "old" ones. There are two kinds of factors affecting the article contents. First, national or international issues that affect geographers to become more productive in response to local or global events. Second, changes of professional interest usually occurred whenever one generation of geographers is superseded by another. The diminishing effect of physical geographers, and the subsequent rise of human geography and regional geography are two outstanding examples.

The unique nature of many Journal articles effectively provides evidence in showing the philosophical, and methodological changes of American geographic education. Contributors to the Journal realized that scientific approaches are needed in accomplishing different objectives to investigate various spatial phenomena. The rising number of geographic education articles not only suggests the continuing and growing enthusiasm among geography teachers and professional geographers to revitalize geography in school curriculum, but also reflects the success of the Journal to promote effective geography teaching via more exchanges of ideas in publications.

The author does not regard this article as anything more than a stimulus to a study of contemporary American geography and geographic education. Perhaps, this article has provided a framework for further specialized investigations, if so, it has accomplished the author's goal.

TABLE 1  
EDITORS OF THE JOURNAL OF GEOGRAPHY 1897-1983

Year	
1897-1902	Richard E. Dodge ( <i>Journal of School Geography</i> , five volumes)
1900-1902	Edward M. Lehnerts ( <i>Bulletin of the American Bureau of Geography</i> , two volumes )
1902	Richard E. Dodge (combination of above two Edward M. Lehnerts journal )
	J. Paul Goode.
1903-1904	Richard E. Dodge Edward M. Lehnerts
1905-1910	Richard E. Dodge
1910-1918	Ray H. Whitbeck
1919-1920	Isaiah Bowman
1920-1950	George J. Miller
1950-1965	Thomas F. Barton
1966-1970	Herbert H. Gross
1971-1974	Harm J. deBlij
1975-1982	Ronald E. Nelson
1983 -	Anthony R. de Souza

Source: Information has been drawn mainly from Lorrin Kennamer, Jr., "The National Council for Geographic Education: Purpose and Perspective," *Journal of Geography*, 67 (May, 1968), pp. 288-292.

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## NOTES

1. A reference index entitled *Snipe's Index to the Journal of Geography, Issues One through 1970* was used and partially modified by the author in categorizing, classifying, and compiling all the *Journal* articles published from 1902 to 1970.
2. A number of articles which have been classified in both topical and regional categories ("double-entry" articles) should be noted when interpretation of publication trends takes place.
3. Similar methodology was employed by James R. McDonald to investigate the changing nature of the *Annales de Geographie*. McDonald's research findings appeared in the article entitled "Publication Trends in a Major French Geographical Journal", *Annals of the Association of American Geographers* 55 (Mar., 1965): 125-39.
4. This article is solely a personal observation and hence does not imply the endorsement of the editors or officials of the National Council for Geographic Education.

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# Philippine Geographical Society Section

REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES  
CONGRESS  
Metro Manila  
FIRST REGULAR SESSION  
Senate Bill No. \_\_\_\_\_

Introduced by \_\_\_\_\_

## AN ACT RESTORING THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY AS A SEPARATE SUBJECT IN THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled:

Section 1. This Act shall be known as the Act Restoring the Teaching of Geography as a Separate Subject in Philippine Schools.

Section 2. Effective within two academic years following the approval of this Act:

(a) The teaching of Philippine Geography shall be compulsory in the elementary grades in all schools and it shall be taught as a separate subject.

(b) The teaching of World Geography shall be compulsory in the secondary level in all schools and it shall be taught as a distinct separate subject.

Sec. 3. The Secretary of Education, Culture and Sports shall cause the preparation and publication of suitable textbooks in Philippine Geography and World Geography by Filipino authors, writers, and publishers.

Sec. 4. This Act shall take effect upon its approval.

Approved \_\_\_\_\_

### RESOLUTION TO RESTORE THE TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY AS A SEPARATE SUBJECT

WHEREAS, the 1987 Constitution expressly mandated that all educational institutions shall inculcate patriotism and nationalism or love of country to the youth who are the hopes of the fatherland;

WHEREAS, to inculcate love of country it is necessary that the pupils and students be taught about the land, the people, the resources, and patrimony of the country. In short the students should know the geography of the Philippines;

WHEREAS, next to the 3R's, geography is rated the most important subject in citizenship training as it gives to the pupils and students an overview of social studies, nature study, and the environment where they live;

WHEREAS, with the advance of science and technology, the Philippines is brought closer to other countries of the world and as a member of the family nations, it is imperative that the students should study World Geography to know the ways of life and culture of the other peoples of the earth as a means to promote world peace and understanding among men;

WHEREAS, at the present time, Philippine Geography and World Geography are not taught as separate subjects but are integrated with the broad area of Social Studies so much so that we graduate students who are illiterate in geography. They do not even know the provinces, capitals, cities, and resources of their country and much less of the land and people of the other nations on earth; and

WHEREAS, in order to correct this undesirable situation, it is necessary that Philippine Geography be taught as a separate and required subject in the elementary grades and World Geography be taught as a separate and required subject in the high schools.

NOW THEREFORE, in view of the foregoing premises, the Philippine Geographical Society in meeting assembled held on 28 October 1987, unanimously resolved and hereby resolves to petition the Department of Education, Culture and Sports, to restore the teaching of Philippine Geography as a separate and required subject in all schools in the secondary level.

RESOLVED further, that a copy of this Resolution be submitted to the Honorable Secretary of Education, Culture, and Sports; for her information and favorable consideration.

IN WITNESS HEREOF, we have signed this Resolution this 28th day of October 1987 at Metro Manila.

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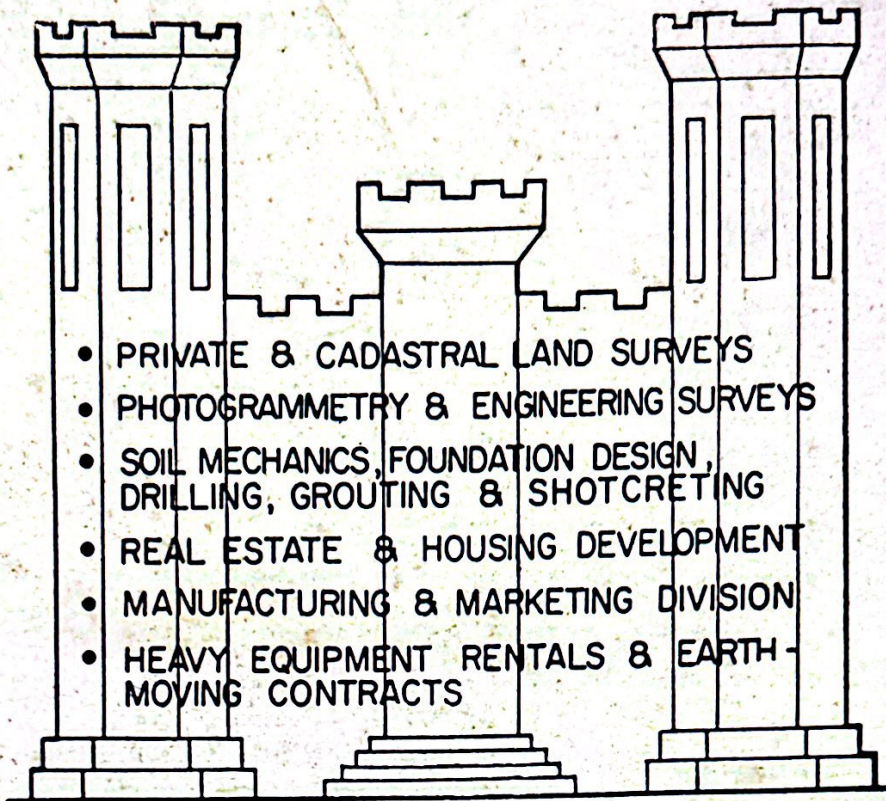
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