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Profiling Platform Workers in the Philippines: Evidence from the Jobs and Skills Survey

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Abstract: Non-traditional platform work has grown rapidly in the Philippines amid technological change and longstanding labor-market constraints. Using nationally representative data from the 2025 Jobs and Skills Survey (JSS), this study provides a detailed profile of workers engaged in these emerging forms of employment. The JSS captures worker characteristics, motivations, task content, digital engagement, job quality, social protection access, and workplace conditions.

Results show that platform workers are disproportionately young, urban, and highly educated, with strong geographic concentration in NCR and major urban corridors. Motivations reveal a coexistence of opportunity and vulnerability: flexibility and autonomy attract many workers—especially women and home-based freelancers—while drivers and delivery workers often enter due to limited job alternatives. Platform work exhibits lower Routine Task Intensity and strong digital complementarity but also substantial overskilling, indicating persistent skill underutilization.

Despite high job satisfaction, platform workers—particularly those in delivery, driving, and outside-home services—face significantly lower access to employer-provided pension, health insurance, and separation benefits, even after controlling for worker and firm characteristics. These findings underscore the heterogeneity of non-traditional work and highlight the need for balanced policy responses that expand worker protection without constraining the flexibility and innovation that make these jobs attractive for many Filipinos.

Keywords: platform work; non-traditional employment; skills; tasks; employment benefits; digital technology; Philippines
JEL Codes: J22, J24, J46, J81

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1. Introduction

The Philippine labor market has undergone substantial shifts over the past two decades, driven by technological change, evolving worker preferences, and persistent structural constraints. These forces have contributed to the rapid rise of non-traditional forms of work, including gig and platform-based labor, short-term contracting, part-time arrangements, home-based work, and online freelancing. While such arrangements create new avenues for flexibility, income diversification, and labor-force participation, they also raise concerns regarding job quality, employment security, access to social protection, and emerging inequities in labor-market outcomes. These issues are central to the Philippine Development Plan (PDP) 2023–2028, which calls for ensuring inclusive labor markets and strengthening adaptive and universal social protection systems in light of changing work environments.

This study responds directly to those PDP priorities by providing empirical evidence on the scale, characteristics, and working conditions of Filipinos engaged in non-traditional platform-mediated work. Drawing on the nationally representative Jobs and Skills Survey (JSS)—administered as a rider to the Labor Force Survey (LFS)—the study offers the most comprehensive dataset to date on task content, skills use, digital engagement, employment arrangements, and workplace conditions. The JSS enables systematic comparisons between traditional and non-traditional workers and supplies the precise diagnostic evidence required to inform the PDP's objectives of promoting decent work, reducing labor-market segmentation, and designing targeted policies for vulnerable workers.

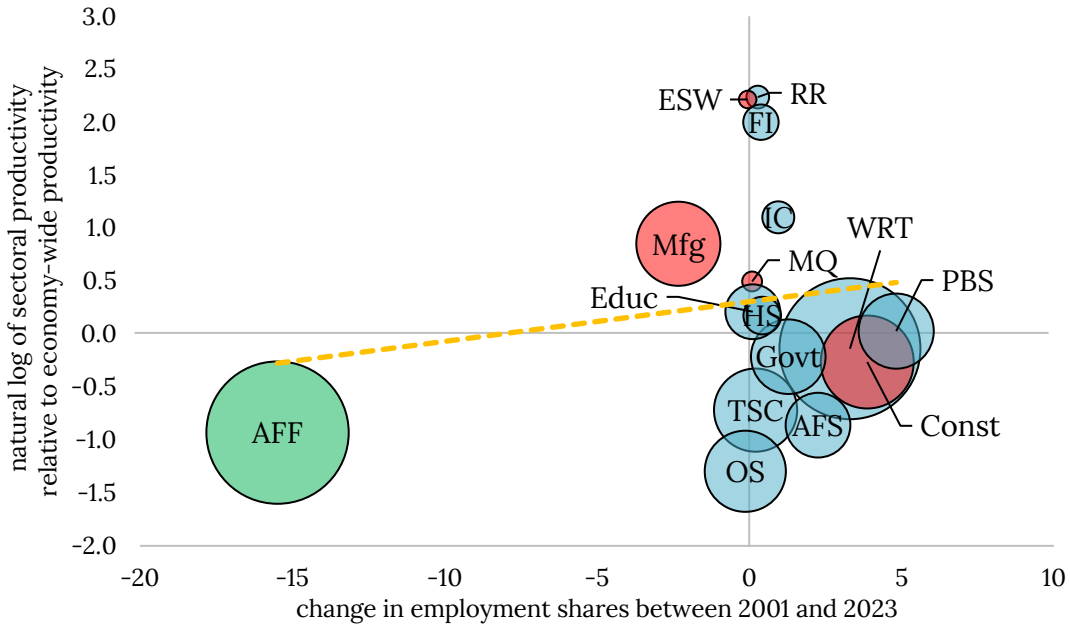
The rise of non-traditional work[1] must also be viewed within the context of the Philippines' long-standing structural transformation challenges. Over recent decades, the share of Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing (AFF) in output and employment has declined sharply. Yet unlike the classical development trajectory—where labor reallocates from agriculture into higher-productivity manufacturing—the Philippines has not undergone sustained industrial expansion. Instead, labor has moved predominantly into services, much of which comprises low-productivity and informal segments. This phenomenon of premature deindustrialization limits the economy's

[1] In this paper, non-traditional work is defined as platform-mediated labor in which workers use online or app-based platforms to perform paid tasks or services, encompassing both remote digital work and location-based gig activities.

ability to generate stable, high-quality employment (Jandoc et al., 2026; Esguerra and Jandoc 2023; Williamson and de Dios 2014; Fabella 2013).

Figure 1 illustrates this structural dynamic by plotting sectoral labor productivity against changes in employment shares from 2001 to 2023. AFF experienced a dramatic employment decline of over 15 percentage points, yet manufacturing—though more productive than the economy-wide average—absorbed little to none of this displaced labor. Instead, most workers moved into low-productivity services such as wholesale and retail trade (WRT), transportation and storage (TSC), accommodation and food services (AFS), and other services (OS). Higher-productivity services such as finance, real estate, information and communication, and professional services expanded only modestly and remained too skill-intensive to absorb large numbers of transitioning workers. This employment pattern has reinforced the reliance on flexible and non-traditional jobs as workers search for new income sources amid limited formal opportunities.

Figure 1. Correlation between sectoral productivity and change in employment shares(change in employment shares in percent; 2001-2023)



MQ = Mining and quarrying; **Mfg** = Manufacturing; **ESW** = Public utilities; **Const** = Construction; **WRT** = Wholesale and retail trade; **TSC** = Transportation and storage; **AFS** = Accommodation and food service activities; **IC** = Information and communication; **FI** = Financial and insurance activities; **RR** = Real estate and ownership of dwellings; **PBS** = Professional and business services; **Govt** = Government; **Educ** = Education; **HS** = Human health and social work activities; **OS** = Other services

Source: Jandoc et al. (2026)

These structural conditions intersect with technological change to further accelerate the expansion of non-traditional work. Digital platforms have lowered entry barriers and enabled workers to monetize time and effort in new ways. However, the potential for digital work to deliver high-value, productivity-enhancing opportunities remains uneven, constrained by skills mismatches, unequal access to digital infrastructure, and limited training opportunities. These challenges are emphasized in the PDP's agenda for workforce upskilling and digital inclusion.

The growth of non-traditional work also highlights persistent gaps in the country's social protection system, which remains anchored in standard employer–employee relationships (Esguerra 2019). Many gig and freelance workers operate without written contracts, paid leave, social insurance, or unemployment protection, leaving them vulnerable to income shocks and job instability. The JSS provides granular evidence on these protection gaps, as well as variations in workplace amenities, worker satisfaction, and occupational health and safety risks. Such evidence is essential for implementing the PDP's commitment to broaden social protection coverage and develop portable, flexible mechanisms that can accommodate diverse forms of employment.

In light of these structural and institutional challenges, this study contributes to both academic and policy discourse in several ways. First, it provides the most detailed, nationally representative profile of Filipino workers engaged in non-traditional work. Second, it analyzes key dimensions—including (i) scale and profile of workers; (ii) motivations and drivers; (iii) task content and skills; (iv) job quality and conditions; and (v) workplace amenities and job satisfaction and well-being—to generate a systematic evidence base for understanding traditional and non-traditional labor-market heterogeneity. Finally, by situating empirical findings within the broader context of structural transformation and the reform priorities outlined in the PDP 2023–2028, the study aims to inform a more inclusive, forward-looking policy agenda. Its insights can support the design of responsive labor regulations, improved digital labor governance, and portable social protection systems that ensure all workers, regardless of employment arrangement, can secure decent, productive, and protected work.

2. Literature on non-traditional work in the Philippines

Earlier studies highlight the wide range of estimates of gig and platform work in the Philippines, reflecting differences in definitions and measurement approaches.

Using platform registry and industry data, Ofreneo (2018) estimates that the number of Filipino online freelancers ranges from about 250,000 to 1.5 million workers.. Using a broader definition based on the Philippine Labor Force Survey, estimates by Esquivias, et al. (2021) suggest that about 22 percent of employed persons—or roughly 9.9 million workers—may be engaged in gig or short-term work, of whom around 1.7 million (about 4 percent of total employment) perform work through digital labor platforms or mobile applications. The ASEAN Secretariat [2023] reports that around 398,648 of employed Filipinos are "web-based crowd workers" in 2022.

The Philippine literature on non-traditional and platform-based work provides a consistent picture of who participates in these work arrangements, why they do so, what tasks they perform, and the conditions under which they work. Online freelancers and remote gig workers are typically young, relatively well-educated, urban, and English-proficient, often with BPO or corporate experience that allows movement between BPO jobs, freelancing, and impact sourcing (Beerepoot & Oprins 2021; Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Baje 2021; Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020a; Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020b). Rural freelancers exist but remain a minority, largely women with stronger skills and connectivity (Peña & Yao 2022). Location-based workers—especially delivery riders and drivers—are predominantly male, in their 20s–40s, and rely on gig work either as a primary livelihood or significant income supplement (Maglunsod 2025; Caboverde & Flaminiano 2025; Gianan 2023). Online marketplace sellers are micro-entrepreneurs, many of them women combining selling with domestic work, with national survey data showing clear gender gaps in participation and earnings (Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Dacuycuy 2022). Despite these insights, the Philippines still lacks robust national estimates of platform work; existing surveys misclassify or miss platform labor and multi-job holding (Esguerra 2019).

Motivations reflect both push and pull factors. Push factors include underemployment, low or stagnant wages, long commutes, and limited local opportunities outside major cities (Caboverde & Flaminiano 2025; Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Baje 2021; Tudy 2021). Pull factors include flexibility, autonomy, work-from-home possibilities, and access to global clients offering higher nominal pay (Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Baje 2021; Peña & Yao 2022; Soriano & Panaligan 2019; Wood et al. 2018). For rural women, the appeal lies in combining paid work with care responsibilities (Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020a; Peña & Yao 2022). Location-based gigs attract workers through low entry barriers and perceived earning potential with schedule control (Gianan 2023). Platform work is frequently combined with other income sources and shaped by household-level decisions, with women more

concentrated in home-based digital work and online selling (Caboverde & Flaminiano 2025; Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Baje 2021; Tudy 2021).

The nature of tasks varies across segments. Online freelancing, impact sourcing, and crowdwork span low-skill data entry and microwork to higher-skill programming, design, and marketing (Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020a; Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020b; Graham et al. 2017). Many tasks mirror BPO work, reflecting strong labor-pool overlap (Beerepoot & Oprins 2021; Soriano & Panaligan 2019). Intermediaries—such as coaches and "skill-makers"—train workers on platform navigation and specialized skills, commercializing digital aspirations (Soriano & Panaligan 2019; Soriano & Cabalquinto 2019). Delivery and ride-hailing work involves navigation, customer interaction, and cash handling under algorithmic dispatch and rating systems (Gianan 2023; Vu 2025). Online sellers operate as micro-entrepreneurs, performing product sourcing, listing, marketing, and fulfillment (Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Dacuycuy 2022; Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020a; Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020b).

Job quality is marked by precarity. Earnings are volatile due to opaque algorithms and demand fluctuations (Maglunsod 2025; Caboverde & Flaminiano 2025; Gonzales & Campos 2025; Wood et al. 2018; Graham et al. 2017). Hours are long or irregular—night work for online freelancers and extended shifts for riders meeting incentive thresholds (Beerepoot & Oprins 2021; Tudy 2021; Wood et al. 2018). Most platform workers are classified as independent contractors, excluding them from minimum wages, paid leave, and employer SSS/PhilHealth/Pag-IBIG contributions (Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Baje 2021). Voluntary self-employed enrolment is low and irregular among gig workers (Serafica & Oren 2022; Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020b). Online sellers typically earn modest incomes, with negative selection patterns among entrants (Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Baje 2022). Delivery riders often earn less than expected once expenses are deducted (Gianan 2023).

Workplace and occupational safety and health (OSH) conditions vary. Riders face risks of accidents, weather exposure, and crime, often without comprehensive insurance (Gianan 2023; Vu 2025). Online workers experience ergonomic issues, long screen time, blurred work boundaries, and connectivity-related stress (Beerepoot & Oprins 2021; Tintiangko & Soriano 2019; Hanbal & Palaoag 2025). Psychological harms in content moderation remain under-studied (Wood et al. 2018; Graham et al. 2017).

Despite risks, many workers report high satisfaction with flexibility, autonomy, and reduced commuting (Beerepoot & Oprins 2021; Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020a; Peña & Yao 2022; Tudy 2021; Hanbal & Palaoag 2025). Women value the ability to combine paid and domestic work (Peña & Yao 2022; Bayudan-Dacuycuy & Dacuycuy 2022). Yet stress from income instability and deactivation risk remains widespread (Maglunsod 2025; Caboverde & Flaminiano 2025; Gonzales & Campos 2025; Wood et al 2018).

Policy literature highlights gaps in labor classification and social protection. A central challenge is the classification of platform workers as independent contractors rather than employees, which often excludes them from employment-based social insurance programs such as pensions, unemployment insurance, and occupational injury benefits (ILO, ISSA, & OECD 2023). This is the case in the Philippines where labor laws concerning this employee–contractor binary poorly fits platform work, systematically excluding workers from protections (Esguerra 2019). Social insurance systems remain tied to standard employment and have low uptake among gig workers (Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020a; Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020b; Esguerra 2019). Empirical evidence suggests that coverage gaps remain substantial; globally, only about 41 percent of online platform workers report having health insurance and around 20 percent have access to pension protection (ILO 2021, Table 4.5). Similarly, survey data across multiple digital labor platforms indicate that a majority of workers rely on voluntary contributions or private arrangements because platforms typically do not provide employer-linked benefits. In response, several countries have introduced regulatory and policy innovations aimed at extending social protection to gig workers. In the European Union, the proposed Platform Work Directive seeks to address worker misclassification and strengthen algorithmic transparency and labor protections (European Commission 2021). The United Kingdom has adopted an intermediate "worker" employment classification, which entitles certain platform workers to minimum wage and holiday pay protections. This classification, however, limits rights to protection against unfair dismissal and redundancy pay (De Stefano 2016).

Regulatory responses to platform work across ASEAN remain uneven, reflecting differences in labor market institutions and policy priorities. Some countries have taken more interventionist approaches (Duc 2026). In Thailand, court decisions have in certain cases recognized platform workers as employees under the Social Security Act, enabling access to statutory benefits. Malaysia has similarly attempted to extend protection through the Self-Employment Social Security Scheme

(SKSPS) administered by SOCSO, a voluntary and state-subsidized program designed to cover gig workers outside traditional employment arrangements. By contrast, policy responses in countries such as Indonesia and the Philippines have largely relied on voluntary and platform-mediated solutions. Digital platforms commonly partner with private insurers to offer limited accident or health coverage, but these arrangements are fragmented, non-portable, and provide only partial protection. Although the Philippine Social Security System allows gig workers to enroll as voluntary self-employed contributors, participation remains limited due to contribution costs and low awareness. At the regional level, ASEAN has initiated dialogue on the implications of digital labor markets, yet binding standards on social protection for platform workers remain absent. As a result, policymakers face the challenge of addressing coverage gaps while coordinating responses across diverse national systems and avoiding a downward convergence in labor protections (Duc 2026).

Despite a growing body of research on non-traditional and platform-based work in the Philippines, several important gaps remain. Much of the existing literature relies on small-scale surveys, qualitative case studies, or platform-specific samples that limit generalizability and hinder systematic comparison across worker types. As a result, there is still no nationally representative evidence on the scale, demographic profile, and regional distribution of platform-mediated work, nor on how these workers compare with traditional workers across multiple dimensions of job quality. Moreover, prior studies tend to focus on specific segments—such as online freelancers, delivery riders, or rural women—without integrating digital, location-based, and hybrid forms of platform work within a single analytical framework. Evidence on task content, skill utilization, and exposure to routine or automatable tasks remains especially sparse in the Philippine context. In addition, while concerns about precarity and social protection are well documented, few studies are able to disentangle whether observed deficits in benefits and working conditions reflect platform work per se or differences in worker, occupation, and firm characteristics. Finally, existing research provides limited insight into the coexistence of opportunity-driven and necessity-driven participation in platform work, and how these motivations vary across worker types. This study addresses these gaps by using nationally representative data from the Jobs and Skills Survey to provide a unified, task-based, and policy-relevant analysis of non-traditional work, linking participation, motivations, skills, job quality, and social protection within a single empirical framework.

3. Data and Methodology

3.1 Data

The Jobs and Skills Survey is a nationwide survey developed through a collaborative pilot initiative between the Philippine Statistics Authority (PSA) and the Asian Development Bank (ADB), which integrated a dedicated jobs and skills module into the Labor Force Survey (LFS). The JSS uses a standardized methodology, with data items asked in the Philippines consistent with those used in similar surveys in other countries like Georgia and Bhutan, ensuring uniformity and comparability of data.

The JSS aims to provide critical information to support the development of policies that improve employment opportunities and address the job-skills mismatch in the country. It enhances the understanding of both national and regional labor markets. Key data collected includes: (i) job tasks and skills usage; (ii) employment working conditions, including remote work arrangements and (iii) adaptability to new technologies.

The 2025 JSS is implemented as a "rider" survey to the March 2025 round of the LFS. The LFS is a comprehensive household survey that gathers data on the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of household members, and is the major source for employment, unemployment, and underemployment statistics. Respondents in the JSS consist of working-age individuals who either (i) are currently employed—defined as having worked at least one hour, having a job, or owning a business during the reference period—or (ii) are not currently working but held a job within the previous two years. The survey provides core demographic and employment variables, including age, sex, education, occupation, industry, class of worker, and multiple-jobholding. These allow profiling of workers across traditional, informal, and platform-based arrangements.

A key contribution of the JSS is its detailed measurement of *non-traditional work arrangements*, collected in Section D of the questionnaire. In this study, non-traditional work is defined as employment in which workers perform tasks or provide services that are mediated through online or digital platforms, outside standard, continuous employer–employee relationships. Operationally, a worker is classified as engaged in non-traditional work if they report having used an online platform in their primary and/or secondary job within the past two years to carry out paid tasks or services.

The JSS identifies four broad categories of such platform-mediated work: (i) home-based digital work, including online freelancing or remote services performed for clients through websites; (ii) outside-home services arranged via platforms, such as cleaning, repairs, or customer-based services matched through apps or websites; (iii) ride-hailing and passenger transport, where workers provide transport services using platform-based applications; and (iv) delivery and task-based services, including food delivery, shopping, and logistics coordinated through digital platforms. This definition encompasses both location-independent digital work and location-based gig work and is based on actual platform use rather than employment status, contract type, or frequency of engagement. In Section D, respondents also report motivations for entering platform work, enabling analysis of push–pull factors.

The JSS also contains a rich set of task and skills variables. It records the frequency of cognitive, interpersonal, and manual activities, such as problem-solving, numeracy, public interaction, and physical labor. Questions on computer use, software proficiency, coding, and digital tools enable construction of indices for digital engagement and automation exposure. Workers also report whether their skills are below, matched to, or exceed job requirements, providing measures of skill mismatch.

Comprehensive job quality and employment-condition variables include the presence of written or verbal contracts, access to paid leave, employer SSS/PhilHealth contributions, health insurance, and unemployment benefits. The survey also gathers information on work schedules, overtime, flexibility, and determinants of working hours.

Finally, the JSS collects data on workplace amenities and safety, such as access to water, toilets, shade, ventilation, and perceived safety, as well as the primary work location (home, worksite, customer site, outdoor, mobile). These indicators allow examination of occupational health risks across job types.

3.2 Methodology

The empirical strategy combines descriptive statistics and regression techniques to analyze patterns of participation in non-traditional work and differences in job quality, social protection, and well-being. The analysis begins with weighted descriptive statistics, using JSS-provided survey weights to generate nationally representative estimates. Cross-tabulations are employed to show the prevalence of

each type of non-traditional work across demographic groups (age, sex, education), employment categories, and industries. Mean differences in job quality indicators—such as written contracts, paid leave, employer-provided benefits, and workplace amenities—are examined between traditional and non-traditional workers. For each comparison, two-sample t-tests are conducted to evaluate whether observed differences are statistically significant, allowing the descriptive patterns to be interpreted with greater rigor.

To complement the descriptive analysis, several econometric models are estimated. First, to identify the determinants of participation in non-traditional work, a logit model is used. The model relates the probability of engaging in non-traditional work to demographic factors (age, sex, education, marital status), and job characteristics such as occupation, and industry. This specification provides insights into the structural and individual factors that influence workers' entry into gig and platform work.

Next, logistic regressions estimate the determinants of social protection coverage, focusing on whether workers have access to paid leave, SSS/PhilHealth contributions, employer-provided health insurance, and unemployment benefits. The key explanatory variables include work type, with worker characteristics, firm size, ownership, occupation and industry serving as controls. We also perform logistic regressions to examine job satisfaction and perceived workplace safety. These models evaluate how work type shape workers' subjective evaluations of job quality.

4. Results

Table 1 presents a descriptive profile of workers in the JSS using survey weights, highlighting demographic composition, sectoral distribution, occupation groups, and employment arrangements. Employed Filipinos are predominantly males (57.3 percent) and live in urban areas (57.7 percent). Nearly half of workers (46.1 percent) have completed secondary education, and a substantial 31.5 percent have attained higher education. Only a small share report pre-primary or primary schooling (0.5 and 17.5 percent, respectively). The employed workforce is largely composed of individuals in their prime working years (25–54), who make up 73.7 percent of workers. Youth constitute 12.8 percent, and seniors (55 and above) account for 13.5 percent.

Industry patterns show continued concentration in services. Wholesale and retail trade is the largest sector at 20.9 percent, consistent with the country's service-led structural transformation. Agriculture, forestry, and fishing remain significant employers at 18.1 percent, though their share has declined nationally over time. Construction (9.1 percent), accommodation and food services (7.3 percent), and transportation and storage (7.5 percent) also absorb substantial labor. Manufacturing represents only 8 percent of employment, highlighting constraints in industrial absorption.

Over half (52.5 percent) of Filipinos work for private establishments, while 9.3 percent are employed in government. Self-employed workers represent a sizable 24.7 percent, reflecting the persistent role of informal and entrepreneurial activities. Employers comprise a small share (1.9 percent), and unpaid family workers account for 6.4 percent of the workforce.

Occupational composition mirrors the country's service-oriented structure. Elementary occupations (26.6 percent) and service and sales workers (25.5 percent) together make up more than half of total employment. Skilled agricultural workers represent 9.1 percent, while clerical support, plant/machine operators, and craft workers each account for roughly 7–9 percent. High-skill occupations—professionals (5.9 percent), technicians (4.8 percent), and managers (3.3 percent)—constitute a smaller but notable segment.

Employment is heavily concentrated in regions with large urban and industrial centers. The National Capital Region accounts for the largest share (15 percent), closely followed by CALABARZON (Region IV-A) (14.8 percent), Central Visayas (10.6 percent) and Central Luzon (10.3 percent). The adjoining regions of NCR, CALABARZON and Region III form the country's main economic corridor, hosting major manufacturing zones, business-process outsourcing hubs, large industrial parks, and dense service-sector activity. Their combined share—nearly 40 percent of all workers—highlights the strong spatial concentration of employment in Luzon's urban belt.

Employed Filipinos work an average of 41.4 hours per week, reflecting a predominantly full-time workforce shaped by the concentration of employment in services, construction, transport, and other sectors where hours are often extended or irregular.

Table 1. Characteristics of workers

Sex		**Education**	
Male	57.3	Pre-primary	0.5
		Primary	17.5
Industry		Secondary	46.1
Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing	18.1	Post-Secondary	4.3
Mining and Quarrying	0.4	Higher	31.5
Manufacturing	8.0		
Utilities	0.5	**Urbanity**	
Construction	9.1	Urban	57.7
Wholesale and Retail Trade; Repair	20.9		
Transporation and Storage	7.5	**Age Group**	
Accommodation and Food Service	7.3	Youth (15-24)	12.8
Information and Communication	1.0	Prime Working Age (25-54)	73.7
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	2.0	Senior (55 to 64)	12.6
Professional, Scientific, Technical	0.3	65 and above	0.8
Administrative and Support Service	6.0		
Public Administration	5.8	**Class of Worker**	
Education	4.0	Worked for private household	4.8
Health and Social Work	1.4	Worked for private establishment	52.5
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	1.2	Worked for government	9.3
Other Service Activities	6.8	Self-employed	24.7
		Employer	1.9
Region		Worked with pay on family business	0.4
Region I (Ilocos Region)	5.1	Worked without pay on family business	6.4
Region II (Cagayan Valley)	3.0		
Region III (Central Luzon)	10.3	**Occupation**	
Region IV-A (CALABARZON)	14.8	Armed Forces Occupations	0.1
Region V (Bicol Region)	4.3	Managers	3.3
Region VI (Western Visayas)	4.2	Professionals	5.9
Region VII (Central Visayas)	10.6	Technicians and Associate Professionals	4.8
Region VIII (Eastern Visayas)	4.3	Clerical Support Workers	8.3
Region IX (Zamboanga Peninsula)	4.2	Service and Sales Workers	25.5
Region X (Northern Mindanao)	4.6	Skilled Agricultural, Forestry and Fish	9.1
Region XI (Davao Region)	5.5	Craft and Related Trades Workers	7.4
Region XII (SOCCSKSARGEN)	4.6	Plant and Machine Operators and Assem	9.0
National Capital Region (NCR)	15.0	Elementary Occupations	26.6
Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR)	1.8		
Region XIII (Caraga)	2.8	**Number of hours worked**	41.4
MIMAROPA Region	2.9		
BARMM	2.3		

Note: All proportions are computed using JSS provided survey weights.

4.1 Scale and Profile of Platform Workers

Table 2 provides a detailed profile of workers who used online platforms and illustrates how this subgroup differs from the broader labor force summarized in Table 1. Only 8.2 percent of workers report having used online platforms, indicating

that platform-mediated work—whether digital or location-based—remains a relatively small share of national employment. However, the absolute number of platform workers (nearly 4.1 million) is larger than recent estimates for the Philippines (e.g. around 400,000 crowdworkers as documented in ASEAN Secretariat [2023]) or for the region (e.g., between 0.3 to 1.7% of the total workforce in Indonesia in 2019 as documented in Permana et al. 2022). Notably, however, platform work is not merely peripheral for most participants: 84.5 percent of platform users report that platform work is their sole job, underscoring that for the majority, platform engagement represents a primary livelihood rather than a marginal secondary activity. Consistent with this, platform workers report an average of 42.6 hours worked in the past week, comparable to full-time employment and slightly above the national average.

Types of platform activities vary widely. Over half of platform users engage in home-based digital work (51.9 percent) and outside-home services such as cleaning and repairs (55.6 percent), highlighting the broad applicability of platform intermediation beyond purely online labor. Location-based gig work is also substantial, with 21.1 percent engaged in passenger driving and 36.6 percent in delivery services, indicating meaningful participation in transport- and logistics-oriented platform work.

Demographically, platform workers differ markedly from the national workforce. Platform users are majority female, with only 44.4 percent male, in contrast to the national workforce where males comprise 57.3 percent. Platform workers are also significantly more urban: 74.0 percent reside in urban areas, compared to 57.7 percent nationally, underscoring the importance of connectivity, market density, and digital infrastructure. Educational attainment is substantially higher among platform users. Nearly 70 percent possess higher education, more than double the national average, while only 2.7 percent have primary education or less. Age profiles show strong concentration in the prime working ages (25–54) at 82.3 percent, with relatively low participation among older workers. The extremely low participation among those 65 and above suggests that platform work does not appear to function as a significant supplementary income source for retirees, but is instead primarily undertaken by individuals in their main working years.

The regional distribution of platform workers diverges sharply from overall employment patterns. The most striking feature is the extreme concentration in the National Capital Region, which accounts for 31.0 percent of all platform workers—

more than twice its share in national employment. Platform participation is also elevated in CALABARZON (11.7 percent), Central Visayas (10.9 percent), and Davao Region (7.5 percent), while agriculturally oriented or less connected regions—such as Eastern Visayas, CAR, Caraga, and BARMM—show minimal participation.

Overall, the evidence points to platform workers as a distinct, urban, highly educated, and predominantly prime-age segment of the labor force, for whom platform work frequently constitutes full-time and primary employment, rather than supplementary income.

Table 2. Online platform use and worker characteristics

Utilized online platform			
Yes	8.2		
Of those who used online platforms			
Platform work is the sole job	84.5		
Number of hours worked in the past week	42.6		
Engaged in (see note):		**Region**	
Work at home	51.9	Region I (Ilocos Region)	2.24
Work outside home (e,g, cleaning, repairs)	55.6	Region II (Cagayan Valley)	2.04
Driving passengers	21.1	Region III (Central Luzon)	6.76
Delivery	36.6	Region IV-A (CALABARZON)	11.73
		Region V (Bicol Region)	2.02
Age Group		Region VI (Western Visayas)	5.42
Youth (15-24)	11.3	Region VII (Central Visayas)	10.87
Prime Working Age (25-54)	82.3	Region VIII (Eastern Visayas)	1.11
Senior (55 to 64)	6.2	Region IX (Zamboanga Peninsula)	3.65
65 and above	0.2	Region X (Northern Mindanao)	5.8
		Region XI (Davao Region)	7.51
Urbanity		Region XII (SOCCSKSARGEN)	3.68
Urban	74.0	National Capital Region (NCR)	31.03
Sex		Cordillera Administrative Region (CAR)	1.26
Male	44.4	Region XIII (Caraga)	1.19
		MIMAROPA Region	2.71
Education		BARMM	0.96
Pre-primary	0.1		
Primary	2.7		
Secondary	21.1		
Post-Secondary	6.3		
Higher	69.7		

Note: Workers can engage in multiple platform types.

The results in Table 3 reinforce and refine the demographic patterns observed in Table 2 by distinguishing between daily and occasional platform users. Platform-engaged workers are consistently younger than non-users: daily users average 35.9

years and occasional users 38.0 years, both significantly below the 41.0 years observed among those who have never used online platforms. Educational differences are particularly pronounced. While Table 2 showed that nearly 70 percent of platform users have higher education, Table 3 reveals that college graduates account for 61 percent of daily users and 74 percent of occasional users, compared with only 27 percent among non-users. Urban residence follows a similar pattern. Nearly 79 percent of daily platform users and 69 percent of occasional users reside in urban areas, substantially higher than the 51 percent observed among non-users.

Differences in gender composition reveal a notable asymmetry across intensity of use. Daily platform users closely resemble non-users in terms of gender, with males accounting for about 60 percent of both groups. In contrast, occasional platform users are predominantly female, with only 44 percent male. This suggests that women may be more likely to engage in intermittent and flexible forms of platform work, particularly home-based digital tasks or part-time online services that can be combined with caregiving or household responsibilities.

Finally, hours worked vary systematically with platform intensity. Daily platform users report significantly longer working hours (46.1 hours per week) than both non-users (41.2 hours) and occasional users (41.3 hours). This indicates that frequent platform engagement is associated with more intensive labor supply, consistent with earlier evidence that platform work often serves as a primary and full-time livelihood for daily users, while remaining more supplementary for occasional participants.

Table 3. Test of means for characteristics of workers with different engagements levels of online platform usage

	Worked using an online platform?		
	Never worked	Worked everyday	Worked sometimes
Age	40.99	35.86*	38.03*
College graduate	0.27	0.61*	0.74*
Urban areas	0.51	0.79*	0.69*
Males	0.61	0.60	0.44*
Hours worked	41.18	46.09*	41.27

Note: An asterisk denotes significance at the 1% level compared to "Never worked using an online platform"

Table 4 compares the occupational distribution of platform workers with that of all workers and non-platform workers, revealing substantial differences in the kinds

of jobs performed within and outside the platform economy. Platform work is significantly concentrated in higher-skill, white-collar occupations. Notably, 20 percent of platform workers are professionals, compared with only 5.9 percent in the overall workforce and 4.6 percent among non-platform workers. Similarly, managers (8.5 percent) and clerical support workers (21 percent) are far more common among platform workers than among non-platform workers (2.9 percent and 7.2 percent, respectively).

At the same time, platform work also includes mid-skill technical and transport-related roles: technicians and associates account for 7.7 percent of platform workers (vs. 4.6 percent among non-users), and plant and machine operators remain present at 7.5 percent.

In contrast, platform workers are largely absent from the most routine, low-skill, and manual occupations. Only 8.1 percent fall under elementary occupations—far below the 26.6 percent in the total workforce. Likewise, very few platform workers are in agriculture (0.8 percent), craft trades (3.1 percent), or plant operations.

Table 4. Platform work by type of occupation

	All workers	Platform workers	Non-platform workers
Armed Forces	0.1	0.2	0.1
Managers	3.3	8.5	2.9
Professionals	5.9	20.0	4.6
Technicians and Associates	4.8	7.7	4.6
Clerical Support Work	8.3	21.0	7.2
Service and Sales Workers	25.5	23.0	25.7
Skilled Agricultural Workers	9.1	0.8	9.9
Craft and Related Trades	7.4	3.1	7.7
Plant and Machine Operators	9.0	7.5	9.1
Elementary Occupations	26.6	8.1	28.2

Table 5 compares the major industry distribution of platform workers with that of all workers and non-platform workers. Platform workers are heavily concentrated

in service industries requiring digital engagement, client intermediation, or mobility. The most notable overrepresentation appears in Administrative and Support Services, where 16.9 percent of platform workers are employed—more than triple the share among non-platform workers (5.0 percent). This reflects the prevalence of virtual assistants, business-support freelancers, and online administrative service providers in the platform economy.

Similarly, Information and Communication (7.3 percent) and Finance, Insurance, and Real Estate (7.0 percent) account for disproportionately large shares of platform workers relative to non-platform workers (0.5 percent and 1.6 percent, respectively). These sectors align with online freelancing, digital content creation, remote business services, and financial back-office tasks.

Platform workers are also more likely to be in Education (11.9 percent) compared with the general workforce (4.0 percent), reflecting growth in online tutoring, digital training, and remote instructional support. Transport-related industries show strong platform activity: 12.4 percent of platform workers are in Transportation and Storage, substantially higher than the national share of 7.5 percent. This aligns with the expansion of ride-hailing and delivery platform jobs.

In contrast, platform workers are notably underrepresented in agriculture and manual industries. Only 2.1 percent of platform workers come from Agriculture, Forestry, and Fishing, compared with 18.1 percent nationally and 19.5 percent among non-platform workers. Similar underrepresentation occurs in Construction (1.8 percent) and Manufacturing (4.3 percent), sectors where platform intermediation is less viable and digital access is limited. Platform work also appears limited in Other Service Activities (1.4 percent) and Accommodation and Food Services (5.7 percent), sectors where traditional face-to-face interactions still dominate.

Table 5. Platform work by type of major industry group

	All workers	Platform workers	Non-platform workers
Agriculture, Forestry	18.1	2.1	19.5
Mining and Quarrying	0.4	0.5	0.4
Manufacturing	8.0	4.3	8.3
Utilities	0.5	0.4	0.5
Construction	9.1	1.8	9.8
Wholesale and Retail	20.9	20.4	20.9
Transportation and Storage	7.5	12.4	7.0
Accommodation and Food Services	7.3	5.7	7.4
Information and Communication	1.0	7.3	0.5
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	2.0	7.0	1.6
Professional, Scientific, Technical	0.3	0.8	0.3
Administrative and Support Service	6.0	16.9	5.0
Public Administration	5.8	5.2	5.8
Education	4.0	11.9	3.3
Health and Social Work	1.4	1.8	1.4
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	1.2	0.2	1.2
Other Service Activities	6.8	1.4	7.3

Table 6 presents the results of a logit regression estimating the likelihood of engaging in platform work as a function of demographic, occupational, and industry characteristics. Demographic factors show significant associations with platform participation. Age has a small but statistically significant negative effect (–0.02, p=0.01), indicating that younger workers are more likely to engage in platform work. Women are significantly more likely than men to participate (0.36, p=0.01), consistent with descriptive evidence showing strong female representation in home-based and online freelance work. Living in urban areas also increases the probability of platform engagement (0.33, p=0.03), reflecting the importance of connectivity, market density, and digital infrastructure.

Education does not show statistically significant differences across categories, although point estimates suggest a mild positive association for post-secondary and higher education groups. This aligns with the earlier finding that platform workers are disproportionately educated, but the lack of statistical significance implies that once occupation and industry are controlled for, education per se does not independently predict platform participation.

Occupation is one of the strongest predictors. Relative to managers (the omitted category), most occupations have significantly lower odds of platform work. Service and sales workers (–0.93, $p<0.01$), skilled agricultural workers (–1.62, $p=0.03$), craft workers (–1.06, $p<0.01$), plant and machine operators (–1.29, $p<0.01$), and elementary occupations (–1.28, $p<0.01$) are substantially less likely to engage in platform jobs. Only the armed forces and professionals show no meaningful difference. These results suggest that platform work tends to cluster in specific task-oriented or digital-intensive occupations rather than in routine or manual work.

Industry effects are large and highly significant for sectors closely linked to platform intermediation. Workers in information and communication (2.84, $p<0.01$), transportation and storage (2.05, $p<0.01$), administrative and support services (1.77, $p<0.01$), and finance/real estate (1.76, $p=0.01$) are far more likely to be platform workers. Positive but marginally significant effects also appear in wholesale and retail (1.04, $p=0.07$) and education (1.10, $p=0.08$). Mining and quarrying shows a large coefficient (2.04) but with limited interpretability due to small sample sizes. These patterns confirm that platform work is concentrated in digitally enabled, service-oriented, or mobility-based industries.

Firm size does not significantly predict platform participation. The negative but insignificant coefficient for large firms implies that platform workers are not systematically concentrated in firms of a particular size, consistent with the heterogeneity of platform arrangements.

Table 6. Logistic regression of platform work

	Coefficient	P-value
Age	-0.02	0.01
Female	0.36	0.01
Urban areas	0.33	0.03
Education		
Primary	-0.95	0.19
Secondary	-0.42	0.51
Post-Secondary	0.57	0.41
Higher	0.52	0.42
Occupation		
Armed Forces	0.05	0.95
Professionals	-0.10	0.77
Technicians and Associates	-0.76	0.02
Clerical Support Work	-0.65	0.03
Service and Sales Workers	-0.93	0.00
Skilled Agricultural Workers	-1.62	0.03
Craft and Related Trades	-1.06	0.00
Plant and Machine Operators	-1.29	0.00
Elementary Occupations	-1.28	0.00
Industry		
Mining and Quarrying	2.04	0.04
Manufacturing	0.55	0.37
Utilities	0.75	0.43
Construction	-0.01	0.99
Wholesale and Retail	1.04	0.07
Transportation and Storage	2.05	0.00
Accommodation and Food Services	0.69	0.27
Information and Communication	2.84	0.00
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	1.76	0.01
Professional, Scientific, Technical	0.66	0.50
Administrative and Support Service	1.77	0.00
Public Administration	0.55	0.34
Education	1.10	0.08
Health and Social Work	0.37	0.59
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	-1.17	0.18
Other Service Activities	-0.19	0.76
Employed in Large Firm	-0.24	0.27
Constant	-2.40	0.01
Number of observations	9,244	

Note: The specification uses JSS-provided survey weights

4.2 Motivations Behind Platform Work

Table 7 summarizes the motivations of platform workers and reveals important differences across gender, age, education, urbanity, and intensity of platform engagement. Across all groups, platform work is primarily opportunity-driven, but the strength of each motivation varies by worker type.

The most common motivations are flexibility and ease of starting work. Flexibility is cited by 88.9 percent of all platform workers, with even higher shares among women (91.7 percent), prime-age workers (90.5 percent), college graduates (90.0 percent), and especially those working every day (92.6 percent). This underscores that daily platform users—often in transport, delivery, or high-frequency freelancing—value the ability to self-manage their schedules. Similarly, the ease of starting a job resonates across groups (79.6 percent overall) but is especially high among women (83.7 percent) and college graduates (81.7 percent).

Economic motivations also vary. The desire to earn extra money is strong across groups (73.2 percent) but is most pronounced among everyday users (79.6 percent), suggesting higher financial dependence on platform earnings among those who work frequently. Occasional users appear more opportunity-driven, while heavy users appear more income-driven.

Differences are more striking when examining necessity-driven motives. Although only 12.8 percent overall report "lack of other satisfactory income sources," the share is lower among women (7.8 percent) and higher among urban workers (11.3 percent). A similarly small share—8.5 percent—report that they "could not find any other job." However, this rises to 10.2 percent among everyday users, nearly double the 6.9 percent among college graduates. This suggests that while most workers choose platform work for flexibility, a subset of heavy platform users may be pushed into daily platform work due to limited alternatives.

Autonomy motivations also differ: independence from supervision is more important to college graduates (36.6 percent) but less so to everyday workers (27.5 percent), suggesting that daily users are less driven by autonomy and more by economic need or task availability.

Finally, motivations linked to household income shocks are rare overall (2.8 percent) but slightly higher among urban workers (2.8 percent) and everyday users (2.5 percent), indicating modest but present counter-cyclical participation.

Table 7. Percent of platform workers reporting motivating factors, by characteristic

	All platform workers	Female	Prime-age	College	Urban	Working everyday
The possibility to start a job easily	79.6	83.7	80.3	81.7	79.1	77.3
Flexibility of time and place of work	88.9	91.7	90.5	90.0	88.7	92.6
Desire to earn extra money	73.2	71.3	74.8	70.2	74.2	79.6
The sense of independence from supervision	32.2	32.9	33.0	36.6	32.5	27.5
Lack of other satisfactory sources of income	12.8	7.8	11.6	10.7	11.3	9.6
Could not find any other job	8.5	8.3	7.3	6.9	9.4	10.2
The loss of household income	2.8	1.6	1.9	1.6	2.8	2.5

Table 8 highlights the diverse motivations behind participation in online platform work, disaggregated by four types of platform workers: work-from-home workers, outside-home service providers, ride-hailing drivers, and delivery workers. While flexibility and ease of entry are the dominant motivations across all groups, the relative strength of each motive differs significantly by type of work.

Flexibility of time and place is the most widely cited motivation overall (88.9 percent), with the highest shares among work-from-home workers (90.7 percent) and outside-home service providers (89.4 percent). Ride-hailing drivers (86.0 percent) and delivery workers (85.9 percent) also value flexibility, though slightly less—likely due to the more demand-driven and time-sensitive nature of transport and delivery tasks.

The possibility of starting a job easily is particularly salient for work-from-home workers (84.2 percent), underscoring the low financial and logistical barriers to entering digital freelancing or home-based platform work. Delivery workers report the lowest share (76.1 percent), reflecting higher upfront requirements such as vehicle ownership and operational expenses.

Economic motivations also show variation. The desire to earn extra money is strong across all groups (73.2 percent overall), but peaks among outside-home workers (75.1 percent), who may rely more on irregular platform tasks to supplement income. Work-from-home workers report the lowest share (69.8 percent), suggesting a mix of intrinsic and lifestyle-related motivations.

The most notable differences emerge in necessity-driven motivations. Ride-hailing drivers and delivery workers report much higher shares for lack of other satisfactory income sources (18.1 and 17.7 percent) and inability to find another job (12.6 and 11.8 percent). These are roughly double the corresponding shares among work-from-home workers (9.3 and 6.4 percent). This pattern suggests that transport and delivery workers are more likely to enter platform work due to limited alternatives, rather than purely by choice.

Motivations tied to household income loss remain low across all groups but are slightly higher among drivers and delivery workers (both 3.3 percent), indicating mild counter-cyclical participation.

Table 8. Percent of platform workers reporting motivating factors, by type of platform worker

	All platform workers	Work from Home	Work Outside Home	Driving passengers	Delivery
The possibility to start a job easily	79.6	84.2	79.0	79.1	76.1
Flexibility of time and place of work	88.9	90.7	89.4	86.0	85.9
Desire to earn extra money	73.2	69.8	75.1	72.7	73.0
The sense of independence from supervision	32.2	34.7	31.6	28.2	31.7
Lack of other satisfactory sources of income	12.8	9.3	12.1	18.1	17.7
Could not find any other job	8.5	6.4	8.4	12.6	11.8
The loss of household income	2.8	1.9	1.8	3.3	3.3

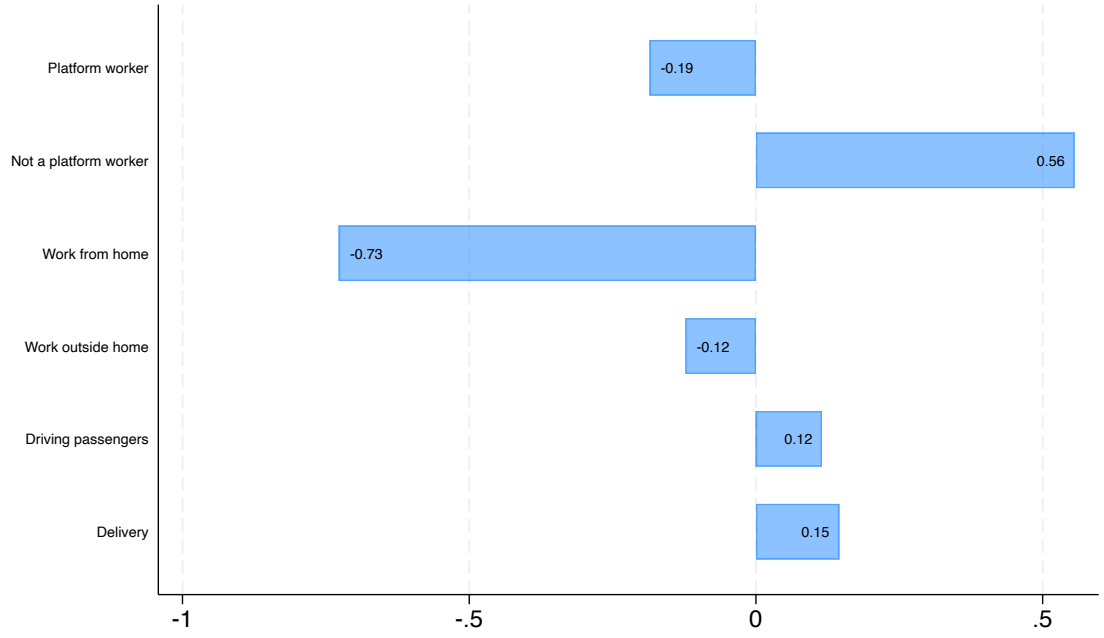
4.3 Nature of Work and Skills Use

To quantify the task content of jobs in the Philippines, we construct a Routine Task Intensity (RTI) index following the task-based framework in the automation and labor-demand literature (Autor and Dorn 2009; Goos et al. 2014). RTI measures the extent to which a worker's job relies on routine, codifiable tasks—those that follow explicit rules and are therefore more susceptible to automation—relative to non-routine analytical, non-routine interpersonal, and non-routine manual tasks. Using detailed task information from Section B of the JSS, we first convert selected items into binary indicators and standardize them using pre-specified means and standard deviations.

These indicators are grouped into four task composites representing key dimensions of work: (i) non-routine manual tasks, captured by the frequency of physical labor (B14); (ii) non-routine cognitive interpersonal tasks, captured by supervising others (B1) and public speaking (B2); (iii) routine cognitive tasks, captured by following fixed task sequences (B4), filling in forms (B10), and the reverse-coded measure of infrequent public presentation (B2); and (iv) non-routine cognitive analytical tasks, captured by complex problem solving (B3), reading informational or scholarly materials (B6, B7), and writing computer code (B13).

After rescaling the composites to ensure comparability, RTI is computed as the log difference between routine cognitive tasks and the average of non-routine cognitive tasks, and subsequently standardized. Higher RTI values indicate jobs with a larger share of routine, programmable tasks—such as clerical, administrative, and certain production roles—while lower RTI values reflect work that is more analytical, interpersonal, or physically adaptable, and therefore less automatable.

Figure 2. Mean Standardized RTI by Platform Worker Type



Note: Weighted by JSS-provided survey weights

Figure 2 presents the mean standardized Routine Task Intensity (RTI) for platform and non-platform workers, with positive values indicating more routine, repetitive tasks and negative values reflecting non-routine, skill-intensive work.

Non-platform workers have the highest RTI (+0.56), suggesting that traditional jobs—many in clerical, sales, and elementary occupations—tend to involve more standardized, repetitive tasks. In contrast, platform workers overall have a lower RTI (–0.19), indicating that platform-mediated work is generally less routine than conventional employment.

Differences across platform worker types are substantial. Work-from-home platform workers exhibit the lowest RTI (–0.73), consistent with the cognitively intensive, varied tasks performed by freelancers, virtual assistants, and other online digital workers.

Workers performing services outside the home also show a slightly negative RTI (–0.12), reflecting the diverse, non-standard tasks involved in household services and repairs. By contrast, platform drivers (+0.12) and delivery workers (+0.15) have positive RTI values, indicating more routinized workflows driven by algorithmic dispatching, repetitive routing, and standardized task sequences.

Table 9. Potential mismatch of skills to the current job

	Overskilled	Matched	Underskilled
Worked using a platform?			
Worked everyday	22.5	69.7	7.8
Worked sometimes	16.7	72.9	10.5
Never worked	14.8	72.9	12.3
Platform worker type			
Work from Home	20.8	73.8	5.4
Work Outside Home	17.9	73.6	8.5
Driving passengers	25.4	64.6	10.0
Delivery	23.0	66.4	10.6

Table 9 examines whether workers perceive themselves as *overskilled*, *matched*, or *underskilled* for their current job. Platform workers—especially daily users—are more likely to report being overskilled relative to non-platform workers. Among those who work via platforms every day, 22.5 percent feel overskilled, compared with 14.8 percent among non-users. Occasional platform users fall in between at 16.7 percent.

This suggests that platform jobs may not fully utilize the skills of more educated or experienced workers, consistent with earlier findings that platform users are disproportionately college graduates.

Despite these differences, overall skill matching is high across all groups, with 69–73 percent reporting that their skills match their job requirements. However, the share of underskilled workers is lowest among daily platform users (7.8 percent) and highest among non-platform workers (12.3 percent). This reflects both the lower complexity of many platform tasks and the self-selection of more skilled individuals into platform work.

Differences sharpen when examining platform worker types. Work-from-home platform workers, many of whom engage in digital freelancing or online services, show high skill matches (73.8 percent) and low underskilling (5.4 percent), but a relatively elevated overskilling rate (20.8 percent). This suggests some degree of skill underutilization despite job–skill alignment. Workers performing services outside the home also report high matching (73.6 percent) and moderate overskilling (17.9 percent). Passenger drivers and delivery workers exhibit the highest overskilling rates (25.4 percent and 23.0 percent, respectively) and comparatively low matching, indicating that many workers in transport-oriented platform jobs possess education or competencies beyond those required for these more routinized, app-structured tasks.[2]

[2] As a robustness check, we estimate a multinomial logit model of skill mismatch, conditioning on a comprehensive set of worker, job, and firm characteristics, including age, sex, educational attainment, urban residence, occupation, industry, and key employer attributes (firm size, ownership structure, exporter status, and online sales activity). The results indicate that working from home is associated with a significantly higher relative likelihood of being overskilled rather than underskilled, consistent with potential skill underutilization among home-based workers. In contrast, no statistically significant associations are found for other platform-based work arrangements. The results are available upon request.

Table 10. Potential mismatch of skills to the current job, by skill type and worker type

	Not a platform worker			Platform workers		
	Overskilled	Matched	Underskilled	Overskilled	Matched	Underskilled
Computer of software skills	26.4	52.3	21.3	42.6	48.3	9.2
Skills in operating machinery/equipment	16.8	55.9	27.4	32.8	52.4	14.7
Project management or organizational sk	18.3	56.5	25.2	29.4	55.4	15.2
Team-workin or leadership skills	18.9	62.1	19.0	31.2	55.5	13.3
Skills in handling customers/clients, etc	25.1	65.6	9.4	40.4	53.1	6.5
Communication and presentation skills	22.0	61.6	16.3	38.5	51.5	10.1
Foreign language skills	14.1	49.8	36.1	30.6	52.2	17.2
Reading and writing/composition skills	19.4	63.0	17.6	38.4	50.0	11.6
Skills involving numbers	19.8	68.6	11.6	34.8	54.2	11.0
Physical or manual skills	24.4	66.7	8.9	29.7	55.8	14.6

Table 10 provides a more detailed view of skill mismatch by comparing platform and non-platform workers across ten distinct skill domains. The results reveal a consistent pattern: platform workers report substantially higher levels of overskilling and lower levels of underskilling across nearly all skill types, suggesting that platform jobs—particularly digital and transport-oriented tasks—make limited use of workers' full skill sets.

Across digital and cognitive skills, platform workers exhibit markedly higher overskilling rates. For computer or software skills, 42.6 percent of platform workers feel overskilled, compared to 26.4 percent of non-platform workers. Similarly elevated overskilling among platform workers appears in communication and presentation skills (38.5 vs. 22.0 percent), reading/writing skills (38.4 vs. 19.4 percent), and numeracy (34.8 vs. 19.8 percent). These gaps reflect the earlier finding that platform workers—especially freelancers and remote workers—are disproportionately college educated, resulting in skill underutilization when tasks involve routine digital work, micro-tasks, or app-driven service delivery.

Underskilling is generally lower among platform workers. For software skills, underskilling falls from 21.3 percent among non-users to just 9.2 percent among platform workers. This pattern holds across project management, customer-handling, communication, numeracy, and literacy skills, suggesting that platform workers typically possess adequate or more-than-adequate skills for their tasks.

A similar pattern emerges in physical or manual skills, where platform workers again show higher overskilling (29.7 percent vs. 24.4 percent) but also higher

underskilling (14.6 percent vs. 8.9 percent). This polarization likely reflects the mix of home-based digital workers (who may be overskilled) and delivery/transport workers (who may require physical stamina or navigation skills beyond their prior training).

Finally, foreign language skills show one of the largest gaps: platform workers are more than twice as likely to feel overskilled (30.6 vs. 14.1 percent), highlighting that many platform jobs do not fully leverage workers' linguistic abilities, despite these being common among freelancers and digital service providers.

These results suggest a consistent pattern of skill underutilization among platform workers, particularly in digital, communication, and cognitive domains. Non-platform workers, by contrast, exhibit higher levels of underskilling, suggesting that traditional employment settings may struggle more with skills gaps, while platform work attracts or requires workers with skill sets that exceed job demands.

Table 11. Skill upgrading and digital complementarity to current job, by worker type (percent)

	Belief that digital technology will do part of job at least to some extent	Belief that worker needs to acquire new skills due to digitalization at least to some extent	Underwent training for software/application	Underwent training for computerized machinery
Worked using a platform?				
Worked everyday	68.9	66.5	58.5	43.3
Worked sometimes	65.3	65.8	68.2	53.1
Never worked	22.3	23.3	19.2	14.0
Platform worker type				
Work from Home	78.9	78.2	83.7	67.1
Work Outside Home	64.0	63.6	60.0	44.8
Driving passengers	61.8	61.8	64.5	51.2
Delivery	61.0	60.4	61.7	46.4

Table 11 examines workers' perceptions of digitalization and their actual participation in upskilling or digital training. Platform workers perceive far greater digital complementarity in their jobs. Nearly 69 percent of daily platform workers and 65 percent of occasional users believe that digital technology will perform part of their job "at least to some extent," compared with only 22 percent of non-platform workers. A similar pattern appears in the belief that new skills are needed due to digitalization. About two-thirds of platform workers anticipate needing new skills (66–66 percent), far above the 23 percent of non-platform workers who feel the same.

Training behavior reinforces these perceptions. Platform workers are dramatically more likely to undergo software or application training, with 58.5 percent of daily users and 68.2 percent of occasional users reporting participation—compared with only 19.2 percent of non-platform workers. A similar gap exists for training in computerized machinery, where platform workers (43–53 percent) far exceed non-platform workers (14 percent).

Differences sharpen when examining platform worker types. Work-from-home platform workers show the highest rates across all indicators: 79 percent expect digitalization to alter their job, 78 percent anticipate needing new skills, and 83.7 percent have undergone software/app training. Transportation and delivery workers also report high training and digitalization awareness (60–65 percent), consistent with their heavy reliance on navigation apps, algorithmic dispatching, and platform-managed workflows. Outside-home service workers fall slightly lower but still far above non-platform workers.

Since platform workers are at the forefront of digital complementarity, they exhibit far greater technological awareness, stronger demand for upskilling, and much higher actual participation in digital training than traditional workers. These findings suggest that platform work may serve as an entry point into more technology-intensive forms of employment. However, the results also highlights the ongoing need for accessible, scalable digital-skills upgrading programs through special training and/or formal education.

4.4 Employment Conditions and Social Protection Coverage

There is a heterogeneity of benefit coverage across the Philippine labor market. Table 12 shows employers that are foreign-owned, exporting, engaged in online sales, or medium-to-large in size consistently exhibit the highest levels of formal benefits. In these firms, more than 90 percent of workers have written contracts and over 80 percent receive employer contributions to pension and health insurance. Separation benefits follow a similar pattern: foreign firms (62.9 percent) and exporters (68.0 percent) provide markedly higher coverage than locally owned (26.6 percent) or non-exporting firms (26.6 percent). By contrast, locally owned, non-exporting, and micro or small firms show substantially lower benefit provision across all categories. Only 38–42 percent of their workers have written contracts and employer pension contributions remain below 41 percent. Separation benefits are particularly limited in these firms, with coverage rates around 24–27 percent.

Differences also arise between workers grouped by their engagement with platform work. Those who never used platforms exhibit relatively low benefit coverage, including separation benefits (27.8 percent). In contrast, occasional platform workers display the highest levels of coverage across all indicators: 81 percent have written contracts, over two-thirds receive employer pension or health contributions, and 53.6 percent report access to separation benefits. Daily platform users also show higher coverage than non-users, though somewhat lower than occasional users.

Variation is also evident within the platform workforce. Home-based platform workers report the strongest access to benefits, including 57.4 percent receiving separation benefits. Workers performing outside-home services also show relatively high benefit coverage. In contrast, drivers and delivery workers report substantially lower rates of separation benefits (40.1 and 44.3 percent), along with lower access to written contracts and employer contributions.

Table 12. Percent of workers reporting presence of benefit, by employer characteristic and worker type

	With written contract	With paid annual leave	Worker contributes to pension	Employer contributes to pension	Employer contributes to health insurance	Unemployment subsidy/ termination benefits
Employer characteristic						
Locally owned	40.7	22.5	38.6	40.4	40.1	26.6
Majority foreign	90.4	63.3	81.4	85.6	84.8	62.9
Non-exporter	41.7	23.6	27.2	39.9	39.6	26.6
Exporter	89.2	61.8	78.8	88.4	88.9	68.0
With no online sales	42.8	24.8	28.2	41.7	41.4	27.7
With online sales	82.2	53.9	67.1	77.7	78.5	62.1
Micro and Small (less than 100 employees)	38.3	22.8	26.7	35.1	35.8	24.5
Medium and Large firms (100 or more employees)	89.1	63.6	84.1	87.5	88.1	65.0
Worked using a platform?						
Worked everyday	78.2	55.8	54.1	58.2	64.5	44.9
Worked sometimes	81.0	60.4	60.5	67.7	70.6	53.6
Never worked	42.6	25.1	30.5	40.4	40.8	27.8
Platform worker type						
Work from Home	87.9	68.9	70.4	71.5	77.1	57.4
Work Outside Home	80.5	64.5	55.1	61.5	68.0	50.5
Driving passengers	65.5	42.5	55.7	62.1	61.9	40.1
Delivery	72.4	53.4	54.4	62.0	62.7	44.3

Table 13 presents logit regression estimates examining the association between platform work and access to various employment benefits, conditional on a comprehensive set of controls including age, sex, education, urban residence, occupation, industry, and key employer characteristics (firm size, ownership, exporter status, and online sales activity). Across most benefit indicators, platform workers exhibit significantly lower odds of receiving employer-provided pension contributions, health insurance, and separation benefits. The coefficient for "platform worker vs. non-platform" is large and negative for pension contributions (–1.33), employer health insurance (–0.95), and unemployment/termination benefits (–0.81), all statistically significant at conventional levels.

Disaggregating by platform worker type, work-from-home platform workers, despite being more educated and often linked to administrative and professional occupations, still show significantly lower odds of receiving employer pension contributions (–1.30) and health insurance (–0.76). They also exhibit reduced access to separation benefits (–0.70). Outside-home platform workers show similar disadvantages in pension and health insurance coverage, though the reduction in separation benefits is not statistically significant.

In contrast, transport-oriented platform workers—drivers and delivery workers—display a more mixed pattern. For drivers, coefficient estimates for pension contributions and health insurance are not statistically significant, indicating that some drivers (e.g. those under the boundary system) may establish alternative arrangements with their employers regarding pension contributions. However, drivers report significantly lower odds of paid annual leave (–0.73). Delivery workers, meanwhile, show significantly lower access to employer pension (–0.84) and health insurance (–0.91).

Across all platform worker categories, the regressions reveal no consistent differences in access to written contracts, with coefficients close to zero and statistically insignificant. This suggests that formalization through contracts does not necessarily translate into substantive benefit coverage for platform workers.

These results indicate that platform workers—particularly those engaged in home-based, delivery, and outside-home service work—face systematically lower access to core employment benefits, even after controlling for detailed worker and firm characteristics. These findings reinforce concerns about the limited social protection coverage available to platform workers and highlight the need for policy

interventions that address gaps in pension, health insurance, and separation benefits for workers in emerging forms of employment.

Table 13. Logit regressions of employment benefits and worker type

	With written contract	With paid annual leave	Employer contributes to pension	Employer contributes to health insurance	Unemployment subsidy/ termination benefits
Platform worker vs non-platform	-0.04	-0.35	-1.33***	-0.95***	-0.81***
Work from home vs non-platform	0.14	-0.30	-1.30***	-0.76*	-0.70*
Work outside home vs non-platform	-0.02	0.18	-1.24***	-0.73**	-0.49
Driving passengers vs. non-platform	0.22	-0.73**	-0.20	0.34	-0.45
Delivery vs. non-platform	-0.20	-0.22	-0.84**	-0.91**	-0.52

Note: Each cell is a separate logit regression. Each regression is controlled by age, sex, urbanity, education, occupation, industry, employer firm size, employer exporter status, employer ownership, and employer presence of online sales. The full specification is given in Appendix Tables 1-5. Asterisks denote *** p-value<0.01, ** p-value<0.05, and * p-value<0.10.

4.5 Workplace Amenities, Health, and Job Satisfaction

Table 14 compares access to workplace amenities and self-reported job satisfaction across different levels of platform engagement and types of platform workers. The results indicate that platform workers—particularly those who engage occasionally or work from home—generally report better access to amenities and similar or slightly higher levels of job satisfaction than workers who never use platforms.

Across the full sample, workers who use platforms sometimes exhibit the highest access to essential amenities. For instance, 95.3 percent report access to safe drinking water and 97.0 percent to shade, well above the 85.5 percent and 87.5 percent reported by non-platform workers. They also enjoy superior access to indoor amenities such as electric fans (89.0 percent) and air conditioning (65.8 percent), compared to lower rates among non-platform workers (64.8 percent and 35.7 percent, respectively). Daily platform users also report higher amenity access than non-users, though slightly below occasional users.

Considerable variation emerges across types of platform work. Home-based workers consistently report the highest amenity access—over 96 percent for drinking water and shade, and 76.7 percent for air conditioning—reflecting the nature of remote, indoor digital work. Outside-home service workers also fare relatively well,

particularly in sanitation and ventilation. In contrast, drivers and delivery workers have more limited access to indoor amenities such as air conditioning (56.8 and 58.2 percent) and electric fans (68.6 and 83.1 percent), consistent with the mobile and outdoor nature of their work environments. Nevertheless, universal amenities such as rest, toilet, and water breaks show relatively high and uniform coverage across all groups.

Patterns in perceived safety and job satisfaction are broadly positive across all categories. Occasional platform users report the highest perceived safety of the work environment (96.2 percent). Home-based and outside-home workers also report high safety ratings, while drivers and delivery workers—whose work settings involve road risks—report slightly lower but still high safety levels (92.5 and 92.1 percent). Job satisfaction is similarly high across groups: more than 90 percent in every category report being satisfied with their working conditions, and nearly all respondents—platform and non-platform alike—indicate that their job fits their personal commitments.

These results suggests that workers engaged in platform work benefit from stronger access to workplace amenities and maintain high levels of safety and job satisfaction. By contrast, transport and delivery workers, while generally satisfied, experience noticeably more constrained physical work environments.

Table 14. Access to workplace amenities and job satisfaction, by worker type

	Frequency of platform work			Type of platform worker			
	Worked everyday	Worked sometimes	Never worked	Work from Home	Work Outside Home	Driving passengers	Delivery
Workplace amenities:							
Safe drinking water	89.2	95.3	85.5	96.7	92.7	88.1	94.1
Shade	88.4	97.0	87.5	96.0	93.7	88.5	91.5
Separate toilets	54.7	68.4	45.0	75.5	54.1	61.0	60.0
Electric fan	78.8	89.0	64.8	89.2	84.7	68.6	83.1
Air conditioning	66.5	65.8	35.7	76.7	63.0	56.8	58.2
Good ventilation	91.7	91.7	84.9	94.4	91.0	85.8	90.3
Rest breaks	96.0	97.8	95.5	96.4	98.0	95.4	94.8
Toilet breaks	99.0	99.2	97.4	99.1	99.7	99.3	98.6
Water breaks	99.2	99.9	98.7	99.4	99.9	100.0	100.0
Safety and job satisfaction							
Safe environment	92.6	96.2	93.6	97.6	97.1	92.5	92.1
Work fits my commitments	98.3	98.3	98.7	98.2	99.2	99.8	97.6
Satisfied with working conditions	94.2	97.2	96.3	95.1	96.0	90.7	95.7

Table 15 examines whether platform work is associated with differences in job satisfaction and perceived workplace safety after controlling for age, sex, education, urbanity, occupation, industry, and employer characteristics. The results suggest that, once these factors are accounted for, platform worker status is not strongly associated of either job satisfaction or perceived safety, and the direction of effects varies by platform worker type.

For the overall comparison between platform and non-platform workers, the estimated coefficients are small and statistically insignificant for both satisfaction with the work environment (–0.01) and working in a safe environment (–0.58). This shows that, conditional on worker and firm characteristics, platform work per se does not systematically reduce or enhance perceptions of job satisfaction or safety. The results indicate that differences in work environment satisfaction and perceived safety across worker types are largely explained by underlying job and employer characteristics rather than platform work status itself. While descriptive statistics show substantial variation across platform activities, these controlled estimates suggest that platform work does not inherently confer advantages or disadvantages in these dimensions when comparing workers with similar observable characteristics.

Table 15. Logit regressions of work environment and worker type

	Satisfied with work environment	Works in a safe environment
Platform worker vs non-platform	-0.01	-0.58
Work from home vs non-platform	-0.17	-0.46
Work outside home vs non-platform	1.42	-0.17
Driving passengers vs. non-platform	1.77	0.03
Delivery vs. non-platform	0.21	-0.23

Note: Each cell is a separate logit regression. Each regression is controlled by age, sex, urbanity, education, occupation, industry, employer firm size, employer exporter status, employer ownership, and employer presence of online sales.
Asterisks denote *** p-value<0.01, ** p-value<0.05, and * p-value<0.10.

5. Discussion

The results of the preceding section reinforce and significantly extend existing findings on the structure, drivers, and conditions of non-traditional work in the Philippines using nationally representative evidence. Consistent with the literature, platform workers in the JSS emerge as a distinct segment of the labor force—more urban, more educated, and younger than traditional workers—reflecting patterns documented by Beerepoot and Oprins (2021), Bayudan-Dacuycuy and Baje (2021), and Peña and Yao (2022). The strong concentration of platform workers in NCR and CALABARZON aligns with prior findings on the geography of digital labor markets, where connectivity, client density, and service-sector clustering shape participation.[3]

The motivations reported by workers also parallel and nuance earlier studies. The dominance of flexibility and ease of entry echoes Caboverde and Flaminiano (2025) and Wood et al. (2018), who document that autonomy and schedule control are central to both digital and location-based gig work. At the same time, the JSS reveals that necessity-driven motives remain salient among drivers and delivery workers—consistent with Gianan (2023) and Tudy (2021)—suggesting that transport-oriented platform work absorbs workers facing limited wage-employment options. The coexistence of opportunity- and necessity-driven motivations underscores the heterogeneity of Philippine platform work and cautions against treating these workers as a monolithic group.

The JSS also provides the clearest national evidence to date on the task content of platform jobs. The finding that platform work has a substantially lower Routine Task Intensity (RTI) than traditional jobs aligns with global research on the task-based nature of digital labor. Yet the differentiation across platform segments—highly non-routine digital tasks for home-based freelancers versus more routinized, algorithmically driven tasks for delivery and driving supports Philippine evidence from Maglunsod (2025) and Soriano and Panaligan (2019) on the structured, app-mediated routines of location-based gigs. These findings also help explain the high incidence of overskilling among platform workers: college-educated freelancers and riders alike report that their formal qualifications exceed job requirements, consistent with earlier claims of latent skill underutilization in online freelancing (Bayudan-Dacuycuy et al. 2020a).

[3] The 2024 National ICT Household Survey (NICTHS) shows that the two regions NCR and CALABARZON account for 32 percent of all internet users in the Philippines.

In terms of social protection, the JSS confirms longstanding concerns in the literature that platform work is weakly integrated into formal labor institutions. Even after controlling for worker and firm characteristics, platform workers—especially those engaged in home-based, delivery, and outside-home service work—exhibit systematically lower odds of receiving employer-provided pension, health insurance, and separation benefits. This pattern mirrors findings by Esguerra (2019) and Serafica and Oren (2022) that Philippine social insurance systems remain deeply anchored in standard employment relationships and poorly suited for platform workers categorized as independent contractors.

Finally, workplace amenity and satisfaction patterns indicate that platform workers—particularly occasional users and home-based workers—report better access to amenities and similar levels of satisfaction relative to comparable workers. However, drivers and delivery workers continue to face constraints associated with mobile and outdoor work, reflecting risks identified by Gianan (2023) and Vu (2025). These results suggest that while platform work offers valued flexibility, its quality and safety remain uneven across segments.

6. Conclusion

This study provides the first nationally representative evidence on the characteristics, motivations, and working conditions of non-traditional platform workers in the Philippines. The findings show that platform workers form a young, urban, and highly educated segment of the labor force, concentrated in regions with dense digital ecosystems. These demographic and spatial patterns reveal both emerging opportunities in the digital economy and persistent inequalities in access to such opportunities.

A central finding is the coexistence of opportunity and vulnerability in platform work. Flexibility, autonomy, and ease of entry make platform work attractive—particularly for women, prime-age workers, and home-based freelancers—demonstrating its value as a complementary or alternative livelihood. However, transport and delivery workers often enter platform work due to limited employment alternatives, facing more routinized tasks, greater exposure to physical risks, and weaker access to benefits. This duality underscores the heterogeneous nature of platform work and the need to consider differentiated policy responses.

Despite high job satisfaction and strong digital engagement, platform workers face persistent deficits in formal benefits and social protection coverage, even after accounting for worker and firm characteristics. These gaps reflect broader institutional rigidities that continue to tie protections to traditional employer–employee relationships.

Taken together, the evidence shows that platform work in the Philippines is no longer marginal: it is concentrated among prime-age, educated, and urban workers and often serves as a primary source of income. Yet persistent gaps in employer-provided pension, health insurance, and separation benefits—particularly among delivery and service-based platform workers—highlight the need to modernize labor regulation. Clarifying when platform workers should be treated as employees, and when they are genuinely independent, would ensure that basic labor standards and social insurance obligations apply more consistently. Strengthening digital labor governance is equally important, including clearer rules on transparency in app-based pricing, task allocation, and deactivation practices, as well as monitoring potential anti-competitive behavior embedded in platform algorithms. Recent reforms from other countries such as Malaysia's Gig Workers Act of 2025 illustrate how legislation can require platform registration of workers, shared responsibility for social protection contributions, standardized digital earnings records, and accessible dispute-resolution systems while preserving flexibility. For the Philippines, combining clearer classification rules, stronger oversight of algorithmic management, and more portable and easier-to-access social protection mechanisms would align innovation in the platform economy with a more inclusive and forward-looking labor market agenda.

These results highlight several promising directions for future research, each with clear policy relevance. Longitudinal studies and specialized datasets (such as merging the JSS with the Family Income and Expenditure Survey) that track earnings volatility, income shocks, and transitions across job types would provide stronger evidence for designing portable, contribution-based social protection systems suited to irregular work patterns. Platform- and firm-level data on algorithmic management, pricing structures, and cost-sharing arrangements could inform regulation that promotes transparency and fair competition without stifling innovation. Further research on gendered participation, regional digital divides, and patterns of skill utilization would support more targeted interventions for vulnerable groups. There is also a need to develop a more detailed typology of platform workers by synthesizing motivations for participation, skill requirements, and task content

to guide differentiated policy responses. Beyond platform workers themselves, future studies should examine downstream industries generated by platform expansion—such as logistics hubs, warehousing, and sorting centers linked to online shopping platforms—to assess how platform-driven demand reshapes employment arrangements, labor standards, and social protection coverage in related sectors. Such research would contribute to designing policies that protect vulnerable workers while sustaining the innovative and flexible features that make non-traditional work an increasingly important component of the Philippine labor market.

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Appendix Table 1. Logit regressions of written contracts and worker type

Dependent variable: With written contract	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)	
	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value
Platform worker vs non-platform	-0.04	0.91								
Work from home vs non-platform			0.14	0.73						
Work outside home vs non-platform					-0.02	0.95				
Driving passengers vs. non-platform							0.22	0.73		
Delivery vs. non-platform									-0.20	0.69
Age	0.01	0.05	-0.01	0.05	-0.01	0.05	-0.01	0.05	-0.01	0.05
Female	-0.23	0.21	-0.23	0.21	-0.23	0.21	-0.23	0.20	-0.23	0.21
Urban areas	0.51	0.00	0.51	0.00	0.51	0.00	0.51	0.00	0.51	0.00
Education										
Primary	-1.40	0.00	-1.40	0.00	-1.40	0.00	-1.40	0.00	-1.40	0.00
Secondary	-0.90	0.00	-0.90	0.00	-0.90	0.00	-0.90	0.00	-0.90	0.00
Post-Secondary	-0.23	0.44	-0.24	0.43	-0.23	0.44	-0.24	0.42	-0.22	0.46
Higher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Occupation										
Professionals	-0.37	0.61	-0.39	0.59	-0.37	0.61	-0.38	0.60	-0.37	0.61
Technicians and Associates	-0.81	0.26	-0.80	0.25	-0.81	0.26	-0.80	0.25	-0.82	0.24
Clerical Support Work	-0.85	0.22	-0.84	0.22	-0.85	0.23	-0.84	0.22	-0.86	0.21
Service and Sales Workers	-2.18	0.00	-2.17	0.00	-2.18	0.00	-2.17	0.00	-2.19	0.00
Skilled Agricultural Workers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Craft and Related Trades	-2.84	0.00	-2.82	0.00	-2.84	0.00	-2.83	0.00	-2.84	0.00
Plant and Machine Operators	-2.46	0.00	-2.44	0.00	-2.46	0.00	-2.45	0.00	-2.47	0.00
Elementary Occupations	-3.06	0.00	-3.05	0.00	-3.06	0.00	-3.05	0.00	-3.06	0.00
Industry										
Mining and Quarrying	0.79	0.16	0.77	0.17	0.78	0.16	0.79	0.16	0.79	0.16
Manufacturing	0.60	0.05	0.60	0.05	0.60	0.05	0.61	0.05	0.60	0.05
Utilities	1.83	0.01	1.82	0.01	1.83	0.01	1.82	0.01	1.83	0.01
Construction	-0.07	0.78	-0.07	0.78	-0.07	0.78	-0.07	0.79	-0.07	0.79
Wholesale and Retail	0.90	0.00	0.90	0.00	0.90	0.00	0.90	0.00	0.90	0.00
Transportation and Storage	0.28	0.50	0.28	0.51	0.28	0.51	0.27	0.52	0.30	0.47
Accommodation and Food Services	0.56	0.10	0.56	0.10	0.56	0.10	0.56	0.10	0.57	0.10
Information and Communication	1.39	0.07	1.35	0.08	1.38	0.07	1.38	0.07	1.39	0.07
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	1.41	0.01	1.40	0.01	1.40	0.01	1.40	0.01	1.41	0.01
Professional, Scientific, Technical	0.63	0.55	0.63	0.55	0.63	0.55	0.63	0.55	0.64	0.54
Administrative and Support Service	2.74	0.00	2.74	0.00	2.74	0.00	2.74	0.00	2.75	0.00
Public Administration	-0.39	0.75	-0.39	0.75	-0.39	0.75	-0.39	0.76	-0.39	0.75
Education	2.80	0.00	2.78	0.00	2.79	0.00	2.80	0.00	2.79	0.00
Health and Social Work	0.59	0.29	0.60	0.28	0.59	0.29	0.60	0.29	0.61	0.28
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	-1.30	0.12	-1.28	0.12	-1.30	0.12	-1.29	0.12	-1.29	0.12
Other Service Activities	-0.85	0.09	-0.85	0.09	-0.85	0.09	-0.85	0.09	-0.85	0.09
Employed in Large Firm	2.05	0.00	2.04	0.00	2.04	0.00	2.04	0.00	2.06	0.00
Employer is an Exporter	1.60	0.00	1.60	0.00	1.60	0.00	1.60	0.00	1.60	0.00
Employer engaged in online sales	0.71	0.01	0.70	0.00	0.71	0.00	0.70	0.01	0.73	0.00
Ownership structure of employer										
Some foreign ownership	0.47	0.14	0.46	0.14	0.47	0.14	0.47	0.14	0.47	0.14
Majority foreign ownership	1.19	0.00	1.19	0.00	1.19	0.00	1.19	0.00	1.20	0.00
Constant	1.77	0.02	1.75	0.02	1.77	0.02	1.76	0.01	1.77	0.01
Number of observations	3,879		3,879		3,879		3,879		3,879	

Appendix Table 2. Logit regressions of paid annual leave and worker type

Dependent variable: With paid annual leave	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)	
	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value
Platform worker vs non-platform	-0.35	0.17								
Work from home vs non-platform			-0.30	0.40						
Work outside home vs non-platform					0.19	0.55				
Driving passengers vs. non-platform							-0.73	0.05		
Delivery vs. non-platform									-0.22	0.47
Age	0.01	0.30	0.01	0.29	0.01	0.29	0.01	0.27	0.01	0.28
Female	0.07	0.71	0.06	0.73	0.05	0.79	0.05	0.79	0.05	0.79
Urban areas	0.53	0.00	0.53	0.00	0.55	0.00	0.55	0.00	0.54	0.00
Education										
Primary	-2.51	0.00	-2.48	0.00	-2.46	0.00	-2.48	0.00	-2.48	0.00
Secondary	-1.00	0.00	-0.98	0.00	-0.96	0.00	-0.98	0.00	-0.98	0.00
Post-Secondary	-0.43	0.26	-0.42	0.27	-0.43	0.26	-0.41	0.28	-0.42	0.27
Higher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Occupation										
Professionals	-0.71	0.23	-0.66	0.26	-0.69	0.24	-0.73	0.21	-0.72	0.23
Technicians and Associates	-1.74	0.00	-1.69	0.00	-1.66	0.00	-1.75	0.00	-1.71	0.00
Clerical Support Work	-1.98	0.00	-1.92	0.00	-1.90	0.00	-1.99	0.00	-1.96	0.00
Service and Sales Workers	-2.60	0.00	-2.54	0.00	-2.49	0.00	-2.57	0.00	-2.54	0.00
Skilled Agricultural Workers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Craft and Related Trades	-3.49	0.00	-3.46	0.00	-3.43	0.00	-3.48	0.00	-3.47	0.00
Plant and Machine Operators	-3.02	0.00	-2.97	0.00	-2.93	0.00	-3.01	0.00	-2.98	0.00
Elementary Occupations	-3.05	0.00	-3.01	0.00	-2.97	0.00	-3.04	0.00	-3.00	0.00
Industry										
Mining and Quarrying	1.60	0.01	1.59	0.01	1.54	0.01	1.53	0.01	1.54	0.01
Manufacturing	1.16	0.00	1.16	0.00	1.16	0.00	1.16	0.00	1.16	0.00
Utilities	2.07	0.00	2.07	0.00	2.06	0.00	2.08	0.00	2.07	0.00
Construction	-0.34	0.29	-0.34	0.29	-0.34	0.29	-0.35	0.28	-0.34	0.29
Wholesale and Retail	0.63	0.09	0.62	0.10	0.61	0.10	0.61	0.10	0.62	0.10
Transportation and Storage	0.68	0.10	0.63	0.13	0.62	0.13	0.66	0.11	0.66	0.11
Accommodation and Food Services	0.26	0.53	0.25	0.56	0.25	0.55	0.25	0.55	0.27	0.52
Information and Communication	1.21	0.06	1.17	0.07	0.99	0.11	1.05	0.09	1.09	0.08
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	1.12	0.02	1.07	0.02	1.04	0.03	1.10	0.02	1.08	0.02
Professional, Scientific, Technical	2.13	0.02	2.14	0.02	2.13	0.03	2.14	0.02	2.15	0.02
Administrative and Support Service	1.46	0.00	1.43	0.00	1.38	0.00	1.42	0.00	1.41	0.00
Public Administration	-1.72	0.28	-1.69	0.28	-1.65	0.29	-1.71	0.28	-1.68	0.28
Education	0.25	0.69	0.24	0.70	0.17	0.80	0.20	0.77	0.19	0.78
Health and Social Work	1.45	0.00	1.43	0.00	1.46	0.00	1.45	0.00	1.47	0.00
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	-0.40	0.64	-0.40	0.64	-0.38	0.66	-0.38	0.65	-0.37	0.66
Other Service Activities	-1.39	0.04	-1.41	0.04	-1.41	0.04	-1.41	0.04	-1.39	0.04
Employed in Large Firm	0.70	0.01	0.70	0.01	0.72	0.01	0.70	0.01	0.71	0.01
Employer is an Exporter	0.84	0.00	0.84	0.00	0.83	0.00	0.84	0.00	0.84	0.00
Employer engaged in online sales	0.30	0.18	0.25	0.24	0.21	0.35	0.25	0.26	0.25	0.27
Ownership structure of employer										
Some foreign ownership	0.46	0.08	0.46	0.08	0.42	0.12	0.43	0.11	0.44	0.10
Majority foreign ownership	0.36	0.21	0.38	0.19	0.36	0.20	0.38	0.19	0.37	0.20
Constant	0.57	0.34	0.51	0.39	0.45	0.45	0.52	0.37	0.50	0.40
Number of observations	3,866		3,866		3,866		3,866		3,866	

Appendix Table 3. Logit regressions of employer pension contribution and worker type

Dependent variable: Employer conributes to pensions	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)	
	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value
Platform worker vs non-platform	-1.34	0.00								
Work from home vs non-platform			-1.30	0.00						
Work outside home vs non-platform					-1.24	0.00				
Driving passengers vs. non-platform							-0.20	0.64		
Delivery vs. non-platform									-0.84	0.03
Age	0.00	0.48	0.00	0.56	0.00	0.63	0.00	0.63	0.00	0.61
Female	-0.31	0.08	-0.32	0.07	-0.34	0.05	-0.36	0.04	-0.37	0.04
Urban areas	0.52	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.52	0.00	0.53	0.00	0.54	0.00
Education										
Primary	-1.72	0.00	-1.65	0.00	-1.69	0.00	-1.63	0.00	-1.65	0.00
Secondary	-1.00	0.00	-0.94	0.00	-0.97	0.00	-0.91	0.00	-0.93	0.00
Post-Secondary	0.13	0.66	0.13	0.66	0.08	0.77	0.09	0.75	0.14	0.63
Higher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Occupation										
Professionals	-0.88	0.22	-0.61	0.45	-1.07	0.13	-0.84	0.29	-0.88	0.28
Technicians and Associates	-1.32	0.05	-1.06	0.18	-1.33	0.04	-1.02	0.18	-1.13	0.15
Clerical Support Work	-1.61	0.01	-1.28	0.09	-1.61	0.01	-1.31	0.07	-1.41	0.06
Service and Sales Workers	-2.09	0.00	-1.81	0.01	-2.02	0.00	-1.68	0.01	-1.76	0.01
Skilled Agricultural Workers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Craft and Related Trades	-2.75	0.00	-2.50	0.00	-2.71	0.00	-2.40	0.00	-2.47	0.00
Plant and Machine Operators	-2.44	0.00	-2.13	0.02	-2.38	0.00	-2.01	0.02	-2.11	0.02
Elementary Occupations	-3.01	0.00	-2.74	0.00	-2.97	0.00	-2.63	0.00	-2.68	0.00
Industry										
Mining and Quarrying	1.53	0.02	1.50	0.02	1.30	0.03	1.31	0.03	1.33	0.03
Manufacturing	1.16	0.00	1.16	0.00	1.16	0.00	1.18	0.00	1.19	0.00
Utilities	1.88	0.01	1.88	0.01	1.89	0.01	1.88	0.01	1.89	0.01
Construction	-0.10	0.67	-0.11	0.65	-0.11	0.66	-0.11	0.64	-0.11	0.67
Wholesale and Retail	1.28	0.00	1.25	0.00	1.27	0.00	1.26	0.00	1.28	0.00
Transportation and Storage	0.70	0.08	0.52	0.21	0.59	0.15	0.54	0.19	0.64	0.12
Accommodation and Food Services	1.08	0.00	1.03	0.00	1.03	0.00	1.04	0.00	1.10	0.00
Information and Communication	0.51	0.43	0.48	0.45	0.41	0.52	0.00	1.00	0.13	0.84
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	1.72	0.00	1.54	0.00	1.65	0.00	1.52	0.00	1.58	0.00
Professional, Scientific, Technical	2.66	0.01	2.68	0.01	2.77	0.00	2.64	0.01	2.74	0.01
Administrative and Support Service	2.07	0.00	2.01	0.00	1.98	0.00	1.87	0.00	1.92	0.00
Public Administration	-1.06	0.34	-0.92	0.40	-1.03	0.35	-0.87	0.41	-0.89	0.41
Education	1.86	0.01	1.86	0.00	1.62	0.02	1.57	0.02	1.58	0.02
Health and Social Work	1.44	0.01	1.31	0.01	1.41	0.01	1.46	0.00	1.56	0.00
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	-1.02	0.22	-1.01	0.21	-0.94	0.24	-0.88	0.27	-0.85	0.29
Other Service Activities	-0.61	0.27	-0.66	0.22	-0.59	0.27	-0.62	0.25	-0.59	0.27
Employed in Large Firm	2.06	0.00	1.95	0.00	1.95	0.00	1.98	0.00	2.02	0.00
Employer is an Exporter	1.73	0.00	1.74	0.00	1.77	0.00	1.70	0.00	1.72	0.00
Employer engaged in online sales	0.37	0.13	0.19	0.42	0.20	0.43	0.11	0.66	0.19	0.45
Ownership structure of employer										
Some foreign ownership	-0.21	0.44	-0.21	0.45	-0.24	0.41	-0.33	0.29	-0.30	0.33
Majority foreign ownership	0.65	0.02	0.69	0.02	0.68	0.02	0.64	0.03	0.66	0.02
Constant	1.51	0.02	1.19	0.10	1.42	0.02	1.04	0.13	1.10	0.12
Number of observations	3,882		3,882		3,882		3,882		3,882	

Appendix Table 4. Logit regressions of employer health insurance contribution and worker type

Dependent variable: Employer conributes to health insurance	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)	
	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value
Platform worker vs non-platform	-0.95	0.00								
Work from home vs non-platform			-0.77	0.06						
Work outside home vs non-platform					-0.74	0.03				
Driving passengers vs. non-platform							-0.35	0.42		
Delivery vs. non-platform									-0.91	0.02
Age	0.00	0.59	0.00	0.66	0.00	0.71	0.00	0.70	0.00	0.68
Female	-0.14	0.43	-0.15	0.37	-0.16	0.34	-0.18	0.30	-0.18	0.28
Urban areas	0.49	0.00	0.48	0.00	0.49	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.51	0.00
Education										
Primary	-1.76	0.00	-1.71	0.00	-1.73	0.00	-1.70	0.00	-1.72	0.00
Secondary	-1.07	0.00	-1.02	0.00	-1.04	0.00	-1.01	0.00	-1.03	0.00
Post-Secondary	-0.03	0.92	-0.04	0.89	-0.06	0.83	-0.06	0.84	-0.01	0.96
Higher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Occupation										
Professionals	-0.95	0.17	-0.80	0.29	-1.05	0.13	-0.94	0.22	-0.99	0.21
Technicians and Associates	-1.31	0.05	-1.13	0.13	-1.27	0.06	-1.12	0.13	-1.24	0.11
Clerical Support Work	-0.99	0.12	-0.78	0.28	-0.95	0.14	-0.81	0.25	-0.92	0.21
Service and Sales Workers	-1.84	0.00	-1.64	0.02	-1.75	0.00	-1.59	0.02	-1.68	0.02
Skilled Agricultural Workers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Craft and Related Trades	-2.52	0.00	-2.34	0.00	-2.44	0.00	-2.29	0.00	-2.38	0.00
Plant and Machine Operators	-2.26	0.00	-2.04	0.01	-2.17	0.00	-1.99	0.01	-2.10	0.01
Elementary Occupations	-2.72	0.00	-2.54	0.00	-2.65	0.00	-2.49	0.00	-2.55	0.00
Industry										
Mining and Quarrying	1.45	0.02	1.40	0.02	1.30	0.03	1.30	0.03	1.32	0.03
Manufacturing	1.23	0.00	1.24	0.00	1.24	0.00	1.25	0.00	1.25	0.00
Utilities	1.87	0.01	1.87	0.01	1.87	0.01	1.87	0.01	1.88	0.00
Construction	0.09	0.71	0.09	0.72	0.09	0.72	0.08	0.74	0.09	0.71
Wholesale and Retail	1.22	0.00	1.20	0.00	1.21	0.00	1.20	0.00	1.23	0.00
Transportation and Storage	0.79	0.04	0.66	0.11	0.70	0.08	0.68	0.10	0.78	0.06
Accommodation and Food Services	0.89	0.01	0.86	0.01	0.86	0.01	0.87	0.01	0.93	0.01
Information and Communication	0.53	0.42	0.44	0.49	0.40	0.51	0.15	0.81	0.29	0.65
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	1.53	0.00	1.40	0.00	1.45	0.00	1.39	0.00	1.46	0.00
Professional, Scientific, Technical	2.31	0.01	2.33	0.01	2.37	0.01	2.31	0.02	2.41	0.01
Administrative and Support Service	2.08	0.00	2.02	0.00	2.00	0.00	1.95	0.00	2.01	0.00
Public Administration	0.47	0.67	0.55	0.63	0.48	0.65	0.55	0.62	0.53	0.64
Education	1.90	0.01	1.85	0.01	1.72	0.02	1.69	0.02	1.70	0.02
Health and Social Work	1.88	0.00	1.80	0.00	1.85	0.00	1.87	0.00	1.98	0.00
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	-0.89	0.25	-0.88	0.25	-0.84	0.27	-0.81	0.28	-0.77	0.31
Other Service Activities	-0.38	0.46	-0.41	0.41	-0.37	0.46	-0.40	0.43	-0.36	0.47
Employed in Large Firm	1.96	0.00	1.90	0.00	1.90	0.00	1.91	0.00	1.96	0.00
Employer is an Exporter	1.76	0.00	1.77	0.00	1.78	0.00	1.76	0.00	1.77	0.00
Employer engaged in online sales	0.37	0.13	0.23	0.33	0.24	0.34	0.19	0.43	0.28	0.27
Ownership structure of employer										
Some foreign ownership	-0.19	0.50	-0.21	0.48	-0.22	0.46	-0.27	0.38	-0.24	0.42
Majority foreign ownership	0.51	0.09	0.54	0.08	0.53	0.08	0.51	0.09	0.54	0.08
Constant	1.15	0.06	0.93	0.18	1.04	0.09	0.86	0.20	0.93	0.18
Number of observations	3,886		3,886		3,886		3,886		3,886	

Appendix Table 5. Logit regressions of unemployment subsidy/termination benefits and worker type

Dependent variable: Unemployment subsidy/termination benefits	(1)		(2)		(3)		(4)		(5)	
	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value	Coefficient	P-value
Platform worker vs non-platform	-0.82	0.01								
Work from home vs non-platform			-0.70	0.07						
Work outside home vs non-platform					-0.50	0.12				
Driving passengers vs. non-platform							-0.45	0.30		
Delivery vs. non-platform									-0.53	0.12
Age	0.00	0.89	0.00	0.95	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.98	0.00	0.94
Female	-0.11	0.52	-0.12	0.49	-0.13	0.44	-0.15	0.39	-0.15	0.38
Urban areas	0.66	0.00	0.66	0.00	0.67	0.00	0.70	0.00	0.69	0.00
Education										
Primary	-1.77	0.00	-1.72	0.00	-1.73	0.00	-1.71	0.00	-1.72	0.00
Secondary	-0.75	0.00	-0.70	0.00	-0.71	0.00	-0.69	0.00	-0.70	0.00
Post-Secondary	0.17	0.53	0.19	0.49	0.15	0.60	0.17	0.53	0.19	0.49
Higher	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Occupation										
Professionals	-0.27	0.67	-0.13	0.85	-0.30	0.63	-0.25	0.70	-0.28	0.68
Technicians and Associates	-1.13	0.03	-0.96	0.08	-1.03	0.05	-0.97	0.07	-1.02	0.07
Clerical Support Work	-0.68	0.16	-0.50	0.33	-0.60	0.22	-0.54	0.29	-0.59	0.26
Service and Sales Workers	-1.61	0.00	-1.43	0.00	-1.47	0.00	-1.38	0.00	-1.43	0.00
Skilled Agricultural Workers	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Craft and Related Trades	-2.49	0.00	-2.34	0.00	-2.39	0.00	-2.31	0.00	-2.35	0.00
Plant and Machine Operators	-1.45	0.01	-1.28	0.03	-1.34	0.01	-1.26	0.03	-1.30	0.02
Elementary Occupations	-2.18	0.00	-2.02	0.00	-2.08	0.00	-2.00	0.00	-2.01	0.00
Industry										
Mining and Quarrying	1.34	0.03	1.32	0.03	1.21	0.03	1.22	0.03	1.22	0.03
Manufacturing	1.25	0.00	1.25	0.00	1.25	0.00	1.26	0.00	1.26	0.00
Utilities	1.55	0.02	1.56	0.01	1.56	0.01	1.57	0.01	1.57	0.01
Construction	-0.40	0.19	-0.39	0.20	-0.39	0.20	-0.40	0.20	-0.39	0.20
Wholesale and Retail	0.85	0.01	0.82	0.01	0.83	0.01	0.81	0.02	0.84	0.01
Transportation and Storage	0.24	0.56	0.13	0.76	0.15	0.71	0.14	0.73	0.20	0.64
Accommodation and Food Services	0.66	0.07	0.63	0.09	0.63	0.09	0.64	0.09	0.68	0.07
Information and Communication	1.32	0.04	1.28	0.04	1.17	0.06	1.02	0.12	1.11	0.08
Finance, Insurance, Real Estate	1.28	0.00	1.18	0.01	1.21	0.00	1.20	0.01	1.22	0.00
Professional, Scientific, Technical	3.06	0.00	3.11	0.00	3.10	0.00	3.10	0.00	3.13	0.00
Administrative and Support Service	1.58	0.00	1.52	0.00	1.49	0.00	1.46	0.00	1.49	0.00
Public Administration	-1.04	0.41	-0.96	0.44	-1.01	0.41	-0.95	0.44	-0.95	0.44
Education	1.29	0.03	1.28	0.03	1.14	0.06	1.14	0.06	1.14	0.06
Health and Social Work	0.79	0.17	0.76	0.19	0.81	0.15	0.83	0.14	0.88	0.12
Arts, Entertainment, Recreation	-0.81	0.36	-0.80	0.36	-0.77	0.38	-0.75	0.39	-0.73	0.41
Other Service Activities	-0.31	0.58	-0.35	0.53	-0.32	0.57	-0.34	0.54	-0.31	0.57
Employed in Large Firm	0.75	0.01	0.74	0.01	0.74	0.01	0.77	0.00	0.77	0.00
Employer is an Exporter	0.77	0.01	0.77	0.01	0.79	0.00	0.77	0.01	0.78	0.01
Employer engaged in online sales	0.46	0.08	0.36	0.15	0.34	0.19	0.31	0.22	0.34	0.19
Ownership structure of employer										
Some foreign ownership	0.30	0.31	0.28	0.34	0.26	0.38	0.21	0.47	0.23	0.44
Majority foreign ownership	-0.02	0.94	0.02	0.95	-0.01	0.98	-0.01	0.97	-0.02	0.95
Constant	-0.09	0.86	-0.30	0.59	-0.26	0.64	-0.35	0.53	-0.32	0.58
Number of observations	3,795		3,795		3,795		3,795		3,795	