

Aganon

**A STUDY OF WOMEN WORKERS IN WOMEN-DOMINATED MANUFACTURING
ESTABLISHMENTS IN METRO MANILA**

By

VIRGILIO C. AGANON AND MARIE E. AGANON

1 9 7 9

PN-163

**A STUDY OF WOMEN WORKERS IN WOMEN-DOMINATED MANUFACTURING
ESTABLISHMENTS IN METRO MANILA***

Virgilio C. Aganon and Marie E. Aganon

with the assistance of

**Julie Q. Casol, Ren E. Ofrenco, Ma. Virginia S. Aquilar,
Ma. Cristina M. Abaya and Lydia V. Angeles**

of

**Asian Labor Education Center
University of the Philippines System
Diliman, Quezon City
Metro Manila**

1979

*This study is part of the Women in Development (WID) Special Studies of the Institute of Philippine Culture, Ateneo de Manila University and is funded by the Philippine Institute for Development Studies and the Agency for International Development of the United States of America.

Best Available Document

PROJECT STAFF

Project Director : Virgilio C. Aganon

Assistant Project Director : Marie E. Aganon

Consultants : Manuel A. Dia
Jose C. Gatchalian, Jr.
Daisy B. Atienza

Bookkeeper and
Disbursing Officer : Procesa P. Elpa

Research Supervisors : Ma. Cristina F. Abaya
Ma. Virginia Sinay-Aguilar
Julio Q. Casal
Rene L. Ofreneo

Research Assistant : Lydia V. Angeles

Interviewers and Coders : Maria D. Flores
Luis M. Isais
Agnes S. Jimenez
Elizabeth J. Robles
Lorna A. Javillonar
Adolfo A. Patricio
Ester L. Tan

Secretarial Staff : Severa C. Clarin
Zenaida A. Custodio
Lourdes C. Jaquian
Estelita B. Pared
Teresita S. Villafuerte
Benito C. Pascua
Irene S. Santos

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	
I.	Introduction
II.	Design of the Study
III.	Company, Management and Union Profiles
IV.	Workers Profile
V.	On Dominance of Women
VI.	Male and Female Disparities
VII.	Contributions and Benefits
VIII.	Summary, Implications and Recommendations
	Bibliography
	Appendices
	A. Annotated Bibliography
	B. Interview Schedules (in separate binding)

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

An old saying goes: "Man's world, woman's place." It was held for centuries that a woman's place is in the home for the outside world is a man's territory. According to this ancient logic, the "world runs better" when the two sexes are confined to their designated spheres of influence. For many years women were confined to the four walls of the home, they served as the first "domestic servants" while men went outside to hunt for food or else out a living to provide for sustenance. For instance, women in Russia for a long time were the "proletariat" while the men were the "bourgeoisie" (Marx & Engels, 1955).

To this date, however, this dichotomy of roles has persisted despite the presence of leveling factors like education and training. Even with the break down of the traditional barriers against woman's participation in the labor force, the age-old concept of man's job versus woman's work remains in force in many societies. In the Philippines, this differentiation of roles still holds true not only at the home but also in the work place. There are industries which are women-dominated just as there are those reserved mainly for the males. For instance in August 1976, the females were more than the males in clerical occupation by 1.4 per cent; professional, technical and related occupations, by 21.2 per cent; sales occupations, 22.6 per cent and service, sports and related occupations, 28.2 per cent (NCSO, 1976).

In contrast, male workers outnumbered their female counterparts in administrative, executive and managerial positions, by 60.6 per cent:

farming, fishing, logging and related occupations, 52.0 per cent; mining, quarrying and related occupations, 95.2 per cent; transportation and communications, 95.4 per cent; crafts, production process and related occupations 20 per cent and in manual occupations, 91.4 per cent.

Aside from the traditional demarcation line drawn to segregate the men-women functions, the situation of women job seekers is further compounded by the seeming reluctance of employers to recruit women workers in the different industries for various personal reasons. While it is true that there are more employed women than in the past, female labor force participation in this country still lags far behind that of the men. As of August 1976, women employment accounted for just 36 per cent of the labor force. If we pin down the places where Filipino women are generally employed, we would note three industry groups which absorb 70 per cent of total women employment. These are agriculture, commerce and manufacturing. Moreover, women are the majority in occupations like domestic servants (86.5 per cent) and in personal services other than domestic (51.1 per cent). The data thus supports the suspicion of employer bias towards female employment in some sectors of the economy.

Not all employers, of course, close the doors to women labor force entrants. However, it has been found that in areas where both men and women hold similar jobs, there are marked differences in pay between male and female workers. For instance in the same reference period, the average weekly cash earnings of the males was ₱86.00 while that of the females was ₱66.00. In commerce which accounted for the highest in the total female employment statistics, males get ₱47.00 more than their female counterparts per week. Several factors

have been given to account for this pay differential. The Census data nevertheless does not exactly point out the root causes of this wage gap between the two sexes.

The use of statistics could be worthless unless we can draw implications from them and can translate them into meaningful action programs. Yet, we cannot generalize from mere census data. We have to go further than that. One not economist observed that "there appears to be a positive association between growth rates of real GNP per capita and the female participation rate." (Oshima 1973 p.26). So in countries where females participate more extensively in economic activities, the greater is the gross national product per capita. This has been observed to be true in countries with labor shortage like Hongkong, Singapore, Taiwan and South Korea. A rise in GNP per capita, of course, is not the only indicator of development. But if we look at the various aspects of development which has been categorized by our modern theoreticians (i.e., rise in living standards, health and nutrition status, education and the like), we would invariably see the hand of the woman in development efforts. Yet, only so much has been done for this moving force behind development.

Some developed capitalist societies are even making women suffer the detrimental effects of scientific and technological revolution. Under the name of industrialization and modernization, some methods of production are being reorganised in a way that is damaging to women workers, particularly in firms which for the most part employ women (Balakhovskaya et. al. 1975, p. 116).

Here, it is important to distinguish between capitalist and socialist countries. The writing of Balakhovakaya and associates sheds light on this aspect. Women in socialist countries are equal to men "in all spheres of the life of society." As Balakhovakaya and his group state:

"The policies of the socialist states are designed to see that conditions are created which allow women to combine their participation in production and in state and public life with their role as housewives and as upbringers of children."

In contrast, developed capitalist countries while juridically proclaiming the equality of man and woman, have not created the conditions to ensure complete equality and emancipation of women. The picture in the developing countries is even depressing for here lot of women are still struggling for political independence, participation in social production schemes raising their general educational and cultural level, improving their vocational training and in the upliftment of their working and living conditions.

One can see then the difference in status of the women in the three varying types of societies. While those in developed capitalist societies have to contend with the concomittant problems posed by industrialization and in the methods of production, women in the underdeveloped and the developing capitalist societies have to start with putting up a fight for their rights as citizens in their respective countries and for involvement in social production. In comparison, women in socialist countries seem to be better off since they enjoy total equality with the other sex in all spheres of life and in all aspects of society.

Women in socialist countries, of course, did not start with such an enviable position. In pre-revolution Russia, for instance, women had no right of suffrage. They were also oppressed and were not afforded access to education and employment opportunities as the men. But because the leaders believed that development efforts would be negated without the involvement of women, the issue of women's rights was resolved through a fundamental restructuring of the old Soviet Union society which was actively participated by the women themselves. This was particularly encouraged by the writings of Marx and Lenin (Marx and Lenin, 1955 p. 2321) which frowns on the economic oppression of women. To quote:

"The specific character of the economic oppression that weighs down the proletariat (the woman) stands out in all its sharpness only after all the special legal privileges of the capitalist class have been set aside and the complete juridical equality of both sexes is established."

Women in capitalist societies therefore find themselves overwhelmed by unequal conditions in society and in industry. Society has done very little to lighten the burden of women workers. As previously stated, we have on the one hand, low wages and poor working conditions, and on the other hand, employer bias against women labor entrants. To this, we can add another aspect, which is non-cognizance of the particular needs women have in the performance of their multiple roles as wives, as mothers and as themselves.

SEE PREVIOUS STUDIES:

The upsurge of the Women's Liberation Movement sparked a lot of interest on the status of women the world over. The acceleration

of woman involvement in the labor force likewise generated much interest on the conditions of women in society. Several explanations have been advanced for the labor force participation of women. Factors like education, age of children, income and occupational level of husband and labor-market variables are said to account for the growing rise in the labor force participation rates of women. Among these factors, education seems to be a primary factor, especially for women with no children under six and those with seventeen years or more of education (Reynolds, 1974, 29-30). This is indicated as the "wage effect" of higher education by two other economists (Bowen and Finnegan, 1969), who claim that more education opens the door to higher occupations with greater earning opportunities.

The "income effect" is also seen as a determinant factor: the higher the husband's income, the smaller the likelihood of the wife working. However, this explanation has sometimes been out-voted by the "substitution effect" which states that: the higher the wage levels, the greater the women's willingness to enter the labor force (Reynolds, 1974, p. 325).

Another aspect which enters into the picture is child care responsibilities. It is observed that such responsibilities do have a restraining effect when it comes to female labor force participation. Rates of participation is thus low when there is increased child-care responsibilities. However, the effect of added family income is stronger especially for those whose husband earnings are low.

The other half of the explanation for female labor force participation lies in the factors attributed to a reduction in work hours,

rapid mechanization of household operations, rise in income aspirations and also the upliftment of customary standards of living.

With regards to the issue of preferential treatment for certain sexes, the U.S. President's Commission on the Status of Woman found out that the employer's reasons for differential treatment varied considerably. The frequently stated reason for preferring to employ men over women was that non-wage costs for employing women were higher. Another reason is that the employment pattern of the younger women is "in and out of the labor force." Still another comment is that women's rate of sickness, absenteeism and turnover are relatively higher than that of men (Wortman, Jr., '9, 371-37). The marital status of some women is also seen as one more element in the high turnover rate for women workers, because women usually follow their husbands wherever their job dictates.

Women in the United States, as one study found out, are not victims of economic discrimination based on sex, but because of the probabilities of high turnover attributed to them. One paper thus suggests approaches which might lead to the elimination of sex-related pay disparities which include: (1) development of legal and institutional mechanisms to bind employees to pay or reduce costs associated with turnover, (2) passage of laws forcing employers to pay women same wages for men in identical jobs, and (3) requiring women to guarantee that they are not more likely to quit than are equally productive men (Manaka, 1971).

Looking further into the status of working women in the United States, we came across articles which indicated that half of all women in the ages 35-55 in that country are concentrated in lesser skilled,

lesser paid occupations such that their talents are underutilized in relation to their educational attainment (Keyserling, 1968, 1-6 and US Dept. of Labor, 1971, 21).

Preferential treatment does not stop at hiring practices. One book dwelt on wage differentials in the United States where earnings of women in recent years have been about half of those of men. However, the differential varies considerably from industry or occupation to another. While women's earnings compare favorably with men in construction, mining, transport, communication, public utilities and service industries, women's earnings are particularly low relative to men in manufacturing and retail-trade-industries which employ about two-thirds of all women workers (Bloom and Northrup, 1969, 250).

The common reason stated is that since many women work only part-time or prior to marriage, they do not gain seniority, acquire skills or obtain promotion to higher paying job. Custom also has much to do since women have been generally afforded jobs which pay less than those available to men. Explanation for equalizing differences like job attractiveness, opportunities for advancement offered by the job, hazards to life are also discussed (Bloom and Northrup, 1969).

In Canada, the same conditions prevail with regards to women. They are found in low-paid occupations even with educational levels similar to men, such that 1/3 are in clerical occupations, 1/5 in service, less than 1/5 in nursing and teaching professions, and 1/10 are productive workers. The rest are in sales, management,

agriculture and communications. Canadian women, however, enjoy the fruits of favourable legislation which US women do not. Some of these are prepaid hospital services (including diagnostic services), and job protection from dismissal on account of absence due to childbirth. An equal pay law was also passed to solve the pay gap between men and women workers (Gelber, 1974).

One study which is relevant with regards to the conditions of working women is that which surveyed the situations of women workers in the labor market, their working hours, and the types of services provided by organizations to assist them. In this study, the author observed the relationship between the use of women labor and the economic development of countries like the United States, United Kingdom, Germany and Japan. Despite this, however, one third of the working population (which is composed of women) are not "fully integrated" into the labor force. Those with family responsibilities felt this was especially true in their case. Certain measures were thus analyzed which could help coordinate both working and family aspects of women's lives to aid them in the fulfilment of work and family functions without such undue strain to themselves. Among the measures discussed are shorter work hours, synchronization of home and work spheres and other adaptations in the environment (Klein, 1965).

The more comprehensive work on the status of women in socialist countries was done by Balakhovskaya and associates in the book earlier mentioned. This compared the status of women in countries with socialist orientation vis-a-vis those in developed capitalist

countries and also those which are still developing. Women in socialist countries equally share opportunities and responsibilities with the men. Great pains have been taken to help integrate women in the society. "Favorable conditions are created for women to work outside the home to enable them to fully exercise their right to work which is guaranteed by the whole socio-economic system of socialist society."

One other article dwelt on women in the Soviet Union. This was written by Erh (oon-Tay (1977) in a Philippine journal. It indicated the fields where Russian women dominate which are: public health- 85%; training; and public catering- 74%; education- 72% and medicine- 72%. In addition, many women are also working as notaries, judges and advocates. The article likewise mentioned that labor legislation offers special privileges to women. For instance, there is a provision for a two-day rest after a five-day work in areas where women predominate as in textile production. There is also the provision for shorter work hours for women in extracting industries and underground construction and the provision which prohibit or restrict woman labor in heavy work.

"Women at Work in Bangladesh" became the object of a study by Mahmuda Islam which was carried out in Metropolitan Dacca, a city which has the greatest opportunities for gainful employment and the largest concentration of non-agricultural labour forces. The study focused on a profile analysis of working women in Dacca with regards to occupation, age, marital status, education, family income and salary. The author says that the growth of employment among women is not evenly distributed in society. The number of working women in

fact is not large for the great majority of Bangladesh women are still confined to the four walls of their homes and cannot even go out without veil and without male escort. Those ventured to get employment "are forced by unbearable economic pressures to seek out a job" and "are driven to accept low-paid occupations which also lack social recognition." The main grievance of these women is low pay. Nevertheless, majority are satisfied with their jobs for their work answers their desire for independence and for higher social status. However, they felt that their home is being neglected because of their work time (from 10 A.M. to 5 P.M.). Some even felt that their husbands are not as happy as they should be because wives cannot devote their full time to house work (MARJIDA Islam, 1973).

In the Philippines, some kind of discrimination and underutilization of woman-power exist because as a survey found out, women are concentrated in occupations not commensurate to their abilities. Moreover, women are generally paid low wages even if they are engaged in the same occupation (Guillergan, 1969). Women in the Philippines also suffer from employer bias. In another survey conducted among 58 companies in Manila (which include 21 general manufacturing firms), the following reasons for preferential hiring of male and female workers for certain types of positions were given (de Gracia, 1965):

* Males as machine operators-

- a) They are most mechanically inclined and could be trained to repair machines.
- b) They perform better under certain work requiring physical effort. They also could be made to work overtime &

- a) night or transferred from one shift to another.
- * In positions which requires decision-making-
 - a) Women are too easily influenced by their emotions to render objective decisions.
 - b) Women are not known to make up their minds readily and firmly.
 - c) They could depend more on men than women for help during emergencies.
- * Males as supervisors-
 - a) Males command more authority than females.
 - b) Most companies are aware that both sets of workers prefer working for a male boss.

No matter where we turn, we see women burdened with problems of inequality and ill treatment. Women with families are especially burdened as reported by a German research institute (The Sociological Research Institute of Goppingen University). They take on the double load of job and housekeeping. They suffer from many stresses namely, time pressure (31%), one sided physical strains (31%), permanent concentration (22%), environmental conditions (20%), heavy physical strains (14%), and sensory burdens (11%). Both physical and nerve strains are felt by 38% of the women to be intolerable in the long run. Although most women in Germany regard themselves discriminated against in comparison with men and despite the stresses they suffer from, the general satisfaction is relatively great as they prefer to work, rather than stay at home.

One organization which might prove helpful to women is the trade union which is supposed to be the vehicle for improving the workers' lot.

One study showed that trade unions do have a positive influence on the

raising of wages. In fact, in this study of trade unions in Britain and the position of women in the industrial wage structure, trade unions raise wages of both men and women who are covered by their collective bargaining agreements, and if anything, they raise the women's wages by slightly more (Nickell, 1977).

Summarizing the various findings of working women, one work listed the following as the reasons for the dominance of women in some professions like nursing, librarianship, social work and elementary school teaching: (a) these professions usually do not pay enough to attract men; (b) female-dominated professions have grown rapidly in this century (in the US); (c) the work activity in these fields is closely linked with aspects of the traditional female role (Grimm, 1978, 293-315). An explanation for the significantly less number of women in the professions as law, medicine and higher education was also presented as follows: (a) the emotional nature of women which is inappropriate for such professions; (b) the fear of sex- a typical behavior coupled with a motive of avoiding the costs involved in violating sex- role norms. Women see themselves as having to manage the role deviation if they choose male-dominated professions; and (c) responsibilities of women at home (Patterson and Engelberg, 1978 p. 266-292).

There are also sociological explanations given with regards to inequalities in the labor force. These are:

1. Functionalism:

- a. women are needed to take care of the family.
- b. women are less stable than men and more emotional.
- c. according to Gilder in "Sexual Suicide" (1975) if the

present inequalities between the sexes are changed, men will lose their responsibilities, will feel useless and will become sexual hedonists and parasites.

2. Exchange theory: the world of work does not offer working class women opportunities for "self-fulfillment and personal satisfaction" and the "cost" of staying home to care for the family is a small one compared to the reward.
3. Conflict theory: there is inequality between men and women concerning jobs because men are more powerful than women—physically, economically, and politically among others.

Bloom and Northrup (1969, 251-252) introduces another dimension in their discussion of "equalizing differences" among the sexes. Four aspects were discussed in this regard. First, not all occupations are equally attractive to workers. Hence, even if every worker had the freedom to choose the type of work he would perform, "we would expect that certain jobs which were less attractive would have to offer higher pay in order to attract workers, while positions in which working conditions were particularly satisfactory would be able to obtain workers at lower wages." This means that part of the differences in wage rates "represents a factor which equalizes the attractiveness of various occupations." The authors mention in this connection that women who work as domestics in houses get more than those who perform clerical tasks.

Another equalizing factor discussed is opportunity for advancement. Hence, it is claimed that the clerk in the head office of a large

company will be willing to start at a lower rate than a day laborer in the same office. The third factor explained is "hazard to life." Thus, persons in jobs where a high risk to life is involved receive a very high wage (e.g. pilots).

The last aspect discussed is expenses for training. Therefore, "the doctor expects a higher remuneration for his work than a carpenter because the expenses of his training is so much greater."

As if realizing however, the socio-cultural variables operating in other societies, Bloom and Northrup indicated that in actuality, most difference in wages "do not seem to be an equalizing factor." They stressed that often the reverse holds for in some societies, the most unattractive work often are given the poorest wage scheme.

THE STUDY

Albeit the numerous studies conducted concerning the lot of women in general and of working women in particular, few studies had been done in the Philippines regarding the status of working women. This study, therefore, focuses on women workers in women-dominated manufacturing establishments in the Metro-Manila area where women account for more than 50 per cent of total employment. Based on the five (5) digit industry code, women predominate in nineteen (19) industry groups (see table 1). These consists of, among others, biscuit, candy, cigar and cigarette factories and the manufacture of house furnishings.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study is concerned with the following problems:

1. Why are women dominant in the industries shown in Table 1?
2. How do women employees compare with men in these industries?

3. What contributions do they make and what benefits do they derive from these industries?

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The objectives of this study are:

1. To seek explanation for the dominance of women in some establishments;
2. To determine their status vis-a-vis men employees of similar positions; and
3. To determine the contributions they make and the benefits they derive from these establishments.

With regards to the first objective, this study will establish whether or not the dominance of women in some establishments is due to their inherent aptitude in the skills required in these industries, just plain availability, relatively cheaper labor cost, employer bias and the like.

Their status vis-a-vis men employees of similar positions will be ascertained through comparison of salaries, wages, privileges and opportunities.

Their contributions to the company will be indicated by the type of work they do, the kinds of decisions they make in the performance of their duties, their relative positions in the organization structure and the forms of worker cooperation they introduce in the company.

On the other hand, the benefits they derive from the company will be indicated by the income they receive, improvement in their levels of education, skills and health care and some measures of job satisfaction.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The importance of the study to women in development are the following:

1. Results of the study will point out the dominant factors affecting female dominance in certain industries which are operant under Philippine conditions. If it is found out that the most prevalent factor is employer bias, measures can be recommended to effect a change in the attitude of employers towards women workers. If on the other hand the reason is functional (i.e. that women perform better in certain types of jobs than men), then this has impact on the involvement of women workers in manpower training programs to improve their efficiency and productivity in their jobs. The latter would likewise have a bearing on the provision of job enrichment schemes or humanization of work schemes which will help women workers cope with the pressures of work in the factory as well as the demands of households and families.
2. Findings on the existence or non-existence of discrimination toward women and of the kind of labor standards women are subjected to indicate that more attention should be brought to the problem of working women to our law-makers and the proper enforcement authorities. This would also be brought to the attention of union leaders since the union is supposedly the vehicle for improving the worker's lot.
3. With regards to women's contributions to development, if it is found that the levels of productivity, skills and

competence in decision-making are the same for both sexes, then the proponents would be able to recommend that both men and women should belong to a same pay scale and also they should have equal access to training and advancement opportunities as well as equal chances for promotion.

III 1. HYPOTHESES

a. Pertaining to dominance of women:

- i. In the named industries, generally, the work requires good finger dexterity and good resistance to monotonous work.
- ii. Management and/or worker perceive that women are better endowed with these qualities than men, and
- iii. Decision making in these industries are made by women.

b. Pertaining to male-female disparities:

- i. There are no male-female disparities attributable solely to sex status, and
- ii. Male-female disparities are due to their different levels of education, training, skills and length of work.

c. Pertaining to contributions to and benefits from the industry:

- i. Women contribute to the industry the following:
 - * their human resources such as labor and skills
 - * their intelligence and decision-making capability and,
 - * the motivation and drive they possess to do their share.
- ii. As a consequence, they derive benefits such as economic and social well-being, security and sense of purpose, self-reliance and self-determination.
- iii. Differential levels of contribution derive differential

levels of benefits, i.e., women contributing labor and skills as well as intelligence and decision-making capability derive more benefits than other women who contribute only labor and skills.

TABLE I.1
WOMEN-DOMINATED LARGE MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, 1974

No.	Industry Code	Industry	% Female
1	32202	Custom Dressmaking Shops	91.3
2	32204	Women's Girls, & Babies Garment Factories	88.0
3	32126	Embroidery & Made-up Textile Goods	85.0
4	32132	Uniforms & Outerwear Knitting	82.4
5	31403	Manufacture of Chewing & Smoking Tobacco	81.9
6	31401	Cigar Factory	79.7
7	32203	Men's, Boys' Garment Factories	79.2
8	32119	Misc. Spinning & Weaving Mills NEC	74.6
9	33093	Manufacture of Umbrellas & Canes	71.8
10	31409	Misc. Processing of Tobacco Leaves NEC	71.5
11	32121	Manufacture of House Furnishing	67.7
12	31402	Cigarette Factory	64.0
13	31192	Candy Factory	60.9
14	31172	Biscuit Factory	59.7
15	32118	Manufacture of Narrow Fabrics	55.4
16	32142	Manufacture of Mats & Mattings	55.2
17	33521	Manufacture of Assembly of Radio & TV	54.9
18	32402	Manufacture of Slippers & Sandals	52.5
19	31404	Curing and Redrying Tobacco Leaves	50.9

Source: NCSO. Survey of Manufacturers, 1974

CHAPTER II

RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Sampling Design

Two stage sampling was planned. The first stage was to randomly select two establishments from each industry group identified in Table I.1. A responsible officer of the company was to be interviewed to gather information about the company and the management. For this purpose a Company Schedule (WID FORM 1) and Management Schedule (WID FORM 2) were to be utilized. In establishments where a labor union was present, a responsible officer of the union was to be interviewed. In this case a Union Schedule (WID FORM 4) was to be used.

The second stage was to randomly select 24 employees from each establishment, 12 from production-related activities and 12 from non-production-related activities. There were to be 6 female workers and 6 male workers from the production category as well as from the non-production category. For this purpose a Worker Schedule (WID FORM 3) was to be used.

B. The Implementation

Not all industries shown in Table I.1 were, however, represented in the study. Three were not included. Industry group 31409, miscellaneous processing of tobacco leaves not elsewhere classified and industry group 32142, manufacture of mats and mattings had no establishment in Metro Manila. The only two establishments in the manufacture of chewing and smoking tobacco refused to cooperate. (See Table II.1) Thus only 16 industry groups were represented. To make up for the lost of establishments two more establishments were added to underwear and outerwear knitting industry and one each

in biscuit and candy factory; manufacture of narrow fabrics; custom dressmaking shop; men's boy's garment factories; and women's, girls and babies garments factories. Thus a total of 37 establishments were finally included. Of these, 14 had unions.

The balanced distribution of respondents of 6 female workers and 6 male workers from both production and non-production categories from each establishment chosen was not completely followed. Many of the so called large establishments were in fact small such that the number of female and male workers do not reach six. This was offset by including a few more establishments as discussed earlier. A total of 399 workers were finally interviewed.

C. Definitions

1. Production worker - one who is actually engaged in the processing, fabricating, assembling, receiving, inspecting, handling and storage of products as well as those concerned with warehousing, packing, shipping, maintenance and repair.
2. Non-production worker - one who is not engaged in the above processes. It includes office and clerical staff, supervisory and professional staff, janitorial help and security employees.
3. More than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity-refers to the ability to use the fingers deftly and nimbly.
4. More than an ordinary amount of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks - mean that the endurance level of the individual is exceptionally high.
5. Hiring - the act of taking on an employee for a designated or stated period of time.

6. **Working Conditions** - characteristics of a worker's job environment
Example, hours of work, ventilation, temperature, lighting, restroom facilities, etc.
7. **Pay** - wage or salary
8. **Promotion** - the advancement of employees among the departments of a company or within a department in order to make the most efficient use of manpower as well as to increase morale.
9. **Training and Education Opportunities** - systematic instruction and programs of activities and learning for the purpose of acquiring skills for particular jobs.
10. **Firing and Other Disciplinary Measures** - to fire is to dismiss, expell or discharge an employee from his job. Other disciplinary measures may include loss of certain rights, loss of pay, etc.
11. **Work pace** - speed at which work is done
12. **Work Organization or Organizational Structure** - general framework through which work is organized, responsibilities established, lines of communication and directions determined and coordination of activities so established as to permit the particular organization to accomplish its purposes.
13. **Work Scheduling or Work Shift.** - work period which includes more than one set of workers. Example: day and night shifts, 6:00 - 3:00 shift.
14. **Shift** - a regularly scheduled period of work during the 24 hour day in a plant. (i.e. 2-10 p.m. shift; 10 p.m. to 6 a.m. shift, etc.)

- 23
15. **Flexible working hours** - refer to the changeability or moveability of work hours (i.e. worker's work shift is moved from 2-10 p.m. to 6 p.m. to 2 a.m. or worker has no fixed work schedule).
 16. **Work pace** - the time or period required to finish a certain task or (the fastness or slowness of the machine which does the job).
 17. **Consultation** - a procedure instituted to provide greater participation by employees organizations in the formulation and implementation.
 18. **Fringe benefits** - nonwage payments received by workers (e.g.) paid sick and vacation leave, paid holiday, pensions, etc, overtime pay, maternity, emergency leaves, union business leaves, etc.
 19. **Collective Bargaining Agreement** - a contract between a union and company or their representatives setting forth the terms and conditions of employment, usually for a specific period of time. The scope and coverage of the agreement will depend on the parties. Most agreements include sections dealing with the bargaining unit, union security, seniority, wages and hours, and other working conditions, such as vacation pay, grievance procedures and holidays.
 20. **Union Security Clauses** - provisions in CBAs which aim to protect the union against employers, non-union employees, and/or raids by competing unions.

21. Types of union security:

- a) open shop - agreement in which union membership is not a condition of employment or continued employment
- b) maintenance of membership - agreement whereby employees who voluntarily join the union must maintain their membership for the duration of the agreement as a condition of continued employment
- c) agency shop - union status agreed to by a company in which all employees in the bargaining unit must belong and pay dues to the bargaining agency, or pay a service charge to the unit, but need not join the union.
- d) union shop - union status agreed to by a company in which union membership is required as a condition of a continued employment after a trial period during which union membership is not required; a modified form of closed shop.
- e) modified union shop - union status in which the employees and the union have agreed that all present members of the union and those who join later must remain union members if they wish to retain their jobs, but that workers who did not belong to the union at the time of the original agreement are not compelled to join the union.
- f) closed shop - union status agreed to by a company in which union membership is required as a condition of initial and continued employment.

D. Data Processing and Analysis

The responses to all questions in the four schedules used were coded and transferred to IBM cards. From these, two sets of tables were generated. One set was a one way frequency table and the other set a cross tabulation of responses of selected items by industry, by type of employee, i.e., production and non-production, by sex. The differences of means or proportions of responses between female and male workers were tested for significance using χ^2 statistic as test criterion at 5 per cent level of significance. A difference that is significant meant that the disparities between the responses of female and male workers was big enough to warrant attention, such difference can not be accounted for wholly by random sampling. A not significant difference meant that the disparities between the responses of female and male workers could be wholly accounted for by random sampling.

TABLE II. 1

WOMEN-DOMINATED LARGE MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS

NO.	INDUSTRY CODE	INDUSTRY	NO. OF ESTABLISHMENTS	
			Metro Mls.	Phils.
1.	31172	Biscuit Factory	19	2
2.	31192	Candy Factory	37	49
3.	31401	Cigar Factory	6	7
4.	31402	Cigarette Factory	17	17
5.	31403	Manufacture of Chewing & Smoking Tobacco	2	6
6.	31404	Curing and Redrying Tobacco Leaves	5	11
7.	31409	Miscellaneous Processing of Tobacco Leaves Not Elsewhere Classified (NEC)	0	3
8.	32118	Manufacture of Broad Fabric	11	12
9.	32119	Miscellaneous Spinning & Weaving Mills, NEC	16	20
10.	32121	Manufacture of House Furnishings	11	23
11.	32126	Embroidery of Made-up Textile Goods	12	50
12.	32132	Underwear and Outwear Knitting Mills	58	68
13.	32142	Manufacture of Mats and Mattings	0	0
14.	32202	Custom Dressmaking Shops	35	65
15.	32203	Men's and Boys' Garment Factories	62	79
16.	32204	Women's, Girls' and Babies Garment Factories	62	135
17.	32402	Manufacture of Slippers and Sandals, Except Rubber and Plastics	29	55
18.	38321	Manufacture or Assembly of Radio and Television Receiving Sets	24	27
19.	39093	Manufacture of Umbrella and Canes	9	9
T O T A L			420	670

Source: NCSO. List of Large Manufacturing Establishments, 1975

CHAPTER III

COMPANY, MANAGEMENT, AND UNION PROFILES

Thirty-seven companies were included in the study. Thus, thirty seven company and management schedules were accomplished.

A. Company Profile

1. Statistics

a. Value of Annual Production

This 37 companies represented 16 industry groups and had a total workforce of 7,108 employees. Their total value of production ranged from less than ₱1,000 to at least ₱1,000,000. Ten companies or 27 per cent had at least ₱1,000,000 worth of production. Another nine companies or 24.3 per cent had a production worth ₱100,000-₱999,999. The rest are below ₱100,000 (Table III.1-III.2).

b. Paid-up capital

The typical company in this sample has more than ₱999,999 paid-up capital (29%). Sixteen per cent have ₱100,000 to ₱499,999 capital (Table III.3).

c. Capital Outlay for Machines/Equipment Used for Production

Twenty-four per cent of the firms in this sample have ₱1,000,000 and more capital outlay for machines and equipments. Next in number are those having ₱100,000 to ₱499,999 and ₱20,000 to ₱49,999 (11% each) (Table III.4).

d. Nationality of Owners

Most or 32% of the companies are Filipino-owned.

This is reflective of the Investment Priorities Plan of the government giving preference to corporations the voting stock of which is at least 60% owned and held by Philippine nationals. Five per cent are Spanish and 3%, Filipino-Chinese (Table III.5).

e. Ownership Set-up

A majority (59%) of the firms in this sample are corporations. About 30% are single proprietorship and only 5% are partnerships (Table III.6).

f. Type of Technology

Most or 49% of the companies are semi-mechanized. Next in number are those mechanized (16%). Those operated manually and those which are of the semi-skilled types make up a very small percentage (8%) (Table III.7).

g. Work Shifts

A majority of the firms have just one shift or schedule for the workers. Twenty-two per cent have three shifts and 11% have two shifts (Table III.8).

h. Presence of a Union in the Company

Only 14 or 38% of the firms have unions. A big majority (62%) of the firms do not have any. This corresponds with the prevailing percentage of organized workers in the country which is only about 10% (Table III.9).

2. FACILITIES

a. Absence of a Canteen

Sixty-four per cent of the company respondents have no

canteen. This is a sad fact about the conditions of the workers because they are not provided with even a source of a very basic need - food (Table III.10).

b. Presence or Absence of Transportation

Again, concerning the presence of a means of transportation for the workers, more than three-fourths have none. Only 24% provide their workers with this facility. (Table III.11).

c. Presence or Absence of a Nursery

Only one out of the 37 companies provides a nursery for the use of the workers' small children. This is not in keeping with the fact that all of the firms are women-dominated. It seems that women workers do not value this facility highly (Table III.12).

B. Management Profile

Thirty-seven management representatives were interviewed for the study to shed light on specific questions concerning length of operation of the company, products manufactured, production and non-production-related work, employee benefits provided by the company and union practices.

Of the 37 respondents 23 or 62.21% are involved in non-production matters, while 14 or 37% are involved in production matters. Those involved in non-production matters are personnel officers and general managers, while those involved in production matters are owners/managers, general managers, production managers, a plant manager, sales manager, industrial relation officer and a vice-president of the company.

1. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS (see Table III.12)

a. Sex

There are more male (21 or 56%) than females (16 or 43%) among the management representatives interviewed. This confirms the finding of an earlier study mentioned elsewhere in this report that employers prefer male to female workers in filling positions requiring the making of decisions. The reason cited is that women are easily overcome by their emotions to render objective decisions.

b. Civil Status and Age Level

There are more married (27 or 73%) than single (10 or 27%) management representatives interviewed. Majority of them are quite young as indicated by the fairly large number (20 or 54%) of respondents in the 21-35 age bracket. There are 17 or 46% respondents in the middle age and past middle age bracket. Only one respondent is past 70 years old.

c. Educational Level and Place of Birth

The level of education of majority of the respondents is high as shown by the table. Twenty-seven or 73% are college graduates, one respondent holds an MBA degree and the remaining nine respondents have a few years of college education. Their high level of education is helpful in assessing the credibility of their responses to the questionnaire for management representatives.

Majority of the respondents were born in Luzon as shown by

... (15 or 41%) and a

2. POSITION IN THE COMPANY

Thirty-six or 97% of the respondents occupy key management positions in the company. Most of the respondents are general managers and personnel officers. These are the management representatives most knowledgeable about company policies affecting their workers, the union and the overall work situation in the company (Table III.14).

3. LENGTH OF SERVICE IN THE COMPANY

The length of service of the respondent influences to a certain degree his grasp of overall company operations. The management representatives interviewed have served the company for a fairly long period considering that almost one-half (18 or 49%) have served the company from seven to 33 years. Among the 19 respondents in the 1-6 years bracket only one has served the company for a year (Table III.15).

4. PRODUCTS MANUFACTURED BY THE COMPANY

Finished textile products like ladies', men's and babies' wear, knitted wear and bed-sheets are produced by about one-half (15 or 41%) of the respondent companies. These products are for export as well for the local market. Biscuit and candies are produced by 5 or 14% of the respondent companies, while cigars and cigarettes are produced by only 4 or 11%. The rest of the companies manufacture assorted products for export as well as for the market: gloves, umbrellas, radio and stereo sets, semi-conductors, garters, shoelaces, leather belts, ladies shoes and handbags, dyed fabrics and embroidered dress materials. (Table III.16).

C. Union Profile

Among the 37 companies sampled for the study only 14 or 38% are unionized. Six or 43% of the 14 unionized companies are engaged in the manufacture of cigar and cigarettes and in fluecuring and redrying of tobacco. The remaining eight companies (57%) are textile and garment manufacturers. The aggregate membership of the 14 unions is 4,197 workers, 65% or 2,710 of which are concentrated in the cigar, cigarette and tobacco companies. The membership range of the tobacco unions is 300-700, while that of the textile and garment unions is 50-400. Membership wise, the six tobacco unions are large in membership compared to the unions among the textile and garment workers.

Key officials of the 14 unions in respondent establishments were interviewed to elicit information about their unions, reasons for their election to office, and their views toward women workers. Thirteen or 93% of these officials are production workers and only one or 7% is a non-production worker.

1. DISTRIBUTION OF UNIONS BY SIZE OF MEMBERSHIP

The table shows that the concentration of unions in terms of membership are in the 42-173 and 306-438 bracket. The unions in the 42-173 membership bracket are in the textile and garment companies. Four or 80% of the unions in the 306-437 membership bracket are in the tobacco, cigar and cigarette manufacturing establishments. Also those in the 570-701 membership bracket are in tobacco, cigar and cigarette unions (Table III.¹⁷ 15).

2. DISTRIBUTION OF UNIONS BY TYPE OF UNION SECURITY CLAUSE

Maintenance of membership security clause is the most favored clause among the respondent unions as seen in the table.

This may be explained by the fact that this type of union security does not put as much restriction on the hiring prerogative of management as in the union shop security clause, where the employer agrees to keep only union members in its payroll and may hire nonunion members provided they join the union within a specific period of time. Agency shop and union shop got equal rating from the unions and are less favored clauses compared to maintenance of membership clause. Open shop and closed shop are the least preferred union security clauses (Table III.17).

3. DISTRIBUTION OF UNIONS BY AFFILIATION

The table shows that the 14 unions are affiliated to seven labor federations. Five of these federations are affiliates of the lone trade union center in the Philippines, the Trade Union Congress of the Philippines (TUCP) and Kapisanan ng Manggagawang Pilipino (KMP). FOITUP has two affiliates, while NUTIP and NMB have one affiliate union each. The membership of FOITAF, NUTIP and NMB are mostly tobacco, cigar and cigarettes workers. PAFIU, whose membership is composed of textile workers, has two affiliate unions. TUPAS, who disaffiliated from the TUCP, has two affiliate unions, one of which is in the cigar making industry and the other in the textile industry. ALU and PSSIU have one affiliate union each, both of which are in the textile manufacturing industry. There is only one unaffiliated union whose membership is composed of garment workers (Table III.18).

4. DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENT UNION OFFICIAL BY POSITION IN THE UNION, YEAR ELECTED AND LENGTH OF INVOLVEMENT IN TRADE UNION WORK. (Table III.19)

20

a. Position in the Unions

One-half or 50% of the respondent union officials are presidents and 29% or 4 are secretaries. All 14 respondents hold responsible positions in the union as shown in the table. Owing to the key positions they occupy in the union, they are in the best position to speak about union involvement in the company as well as on matters affecting employee welfare.

b. Year Elected to Office

Eleven or 79% of the 14 respondents were elected as union officers between the years 1972 to the present. Only 3 or 21% were elected between 1964 and 1979. The data indicates that the respondents have been in office for a fairly long period of time thus, they are quite aware of company policies relating to workers, specifically union members as well as related union-management matters.

c. Length of Involvement in Trade Union Work

The data confirms what has been stated in the foregoing paragraph that the union officials have been involved in union work for a fairly long period of time. The table shows that 11 or 86% official have at least one to 12 years experience as trade unionists, the average length of involvement in trade union work being 7.1 years. Thus, there may be a very negligible amount of doubt on their minds about

their role as leaders and the corresponding responsibility their role entails.

5. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS (Table III.20)

a. Sex

Nine or 64% of the respondents are females. This is anticipated considering that the respondent establishments are women-dominated. The presence of five men among the respondents is no cause for surprise because Philippine Society still cling to the belief that men make better leaders, are stronger physically and emotionally and that they can face up to trying situations more confidently than women.

b. Age

The respondents are generally young as shown in the table. Nine or 64% belong to the 21-41 age range and only five or 35% belong to the 42-55 age range.

c. Place of Birth

Almost all the respondents were born in Luzon as shown in the table. Only one respondent was born in Mindanao. Metro Manila and the nearby provinces of Bulacan and Rizal are the birth places of almost 64% of the respondents. The remaining 36% were born in Central, Northern and Southern Luzon provinces of Pangasinan, Ilocos Sur, Batangas and Albay.

d. Level of Education

About a half or 43% of the respondents have had college education. The remaining 57% have had high school and

completed elementary school education. Generally, the level of education of the respondents is high.

e. Other Relevant Training

One-half or 50% of the respondents have had some kind of training in trade unionism as shown in the table. Thus, they are more conversant about trade union matters than an ordinary union member. Only one or 7% have had training unrelated to her present work in the tobacco firm. The remaining six or 43% have had no training whatsoever on trade union work or on skills related to their jobs.

6. REASON FOR BEING ELECTED/CHOSEN OFFICER OF THE UNION

The respondents came up with written varied responses to the question as shown in the table. Three or 21% simply said they were elected to the position by the members. A like number said "the members feel he can help them solve their problems." The rest of the responses are closely related to each other such as "the members elected me, besides, I am the founder of the Union," "because of the support of members; also because I might be able to help the members." Five respondents or 36% indicated by their responses that they were chosen as union officials because of their expertise, knowing how to handle financial matters, experience, educational background and, personal quality as "I am patient" (Table III. ²¹ 21).

7. RELEVANCE OF SEX TO BEING ELECTED UNION OFFICER

More than one-half or 57% said "yes" their being male/female has something to do with ^{their} election as union officers.

Five or 36% said "no" their being males/females had nothing to do with their election (Table III.24). The corresponding reasons for the "yes" responses and the "no" responses are summarized below:

* YES *

- Because in activities of this nature more women are involved. Also, there are more women than men workers in the company.
- Because I am a woman.
- Because I give good advice.
- I have confidence in myself.
- I am more careful in handling money matters.
- Because I have firm convictions.
- Most workers are women.
- Because the union is newly organized and the work requires staying late at night which is not convenient for women workers.

* NO *

- Because of my experience in the labor movement.
- The members feel I can be of help to them.
- I am active in union work.
- Because being a man, I am more courageous, although I feel the position can be filled by a woman.
- I don't think so.

TABLE III. 1NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS AND TOTAL
WORKFORCE BY INDUSTRY

INDUSTRY CODE	INDUSTRY	NO. OF ESTAB.	TOTAL WORKFORCE
01	31172 Biscuit Factory	2	240
02	31172 Candy Factory	3	61
03	31401 Cigar Factory	2	811
04	31402 Cigarette Factory	2	688
06	31404 Curing & Redring Tobacco Leaves	2	886
08	32113 Manufacturer of Narrow Fabrics	3	603
09	32119 Misc. Spinning & Weaving Mills NEC	2	1,179
10	32121 Manufacture of House Furnishing	1	38
11	32126 Embroidery & Made-up Textile Goods	2	296
12	32132 Underwear & Outerwear Knitting	4	294
14	32202 Custom Dressmaking Shop	3	97
15	32203 Men's, Boy's, Garment Factories	3	196
16	32204 Women's, Girls' and Babies' Garment Factories	3	125
17	32400 Manufacture of Slippers & Sandals	2	96
18	33321 Manufacture of Assembly of Radio and Television	2	1,411
19	33693 Manufacture of Umbrellas and Canes	1	87
T O T A L		37	7,108

TABLE III. 2
 VALUE OF ANNUAL PRODUCTION

VALUE \$	NO.	PERCENTAGE
less - 1,000	4	10.8
1,000 - 4,999	1	2.7
5,000 - 9,999	2	5.4
10,000 - 19,999	1	2.7
20,000 - 49,999	1	2.7
50,000 - 99,999	2	5.4
100,000 - 499,999	4	10.8
500,000 - 999,999	5	13.5
1,000,000 - and over	10	27.0
no response	7	18.9
TOTAL	37	100.0

TABLE III. 3
CAPITAL (as of 1978)

VALUE \$	NO.	PERCENTAGE
less - 1,000	3	8.1
1,000 - 4,999	0	0.0
5,000 - 9,999	0	0.0
10,000 - 19,999	2	5.4
20,000 - 49,999	1	2.7
50,000 - 99,999	3	8.1
100,000 - 499,999	6	16.2
500,000 - 999,999	1	0.0
1,000,000 and over	11	29.7
no response	10	27.0
T O T A L	37	100.0

TABLE III. 4
CAPITAL FOR MACHINES AND EQUIPMENT

VALUE /	NO.	PERCENTAGE
less - 1,000	2	5.4
1,000 - 4,999	1	2.7
5,000 - 9,999	2	5.4
10,000 - 19,999	2	5.4
20,000 - 49,999	4	10.8
50,000 - 99,999	2	5.4
100,000 - 499,999	4	10.8
500,000 - 999,999	0	0.0
1,000,000 - and over	9	24.3
no response	11	29.7
T O T A L	37	100.0

TABLE II.5
NATIONALITY OF OWNERS

NATIONALITY	NO.	PERCENTAGE
Filipino	12	32.4
Spanish	2	5.4
Multinational	1	2.7
Filipino - Chinese	1	2.7
Iranian - Filipino	0	0.0
no response	21	56.8
TOTAL	38	100.0

TABLE II.6
OWNERSHIP SET-UP

SET-UP	NO.	PERCENTAGE
Corporation	22	59.4
Single proprietorship	11	29.7
Partnership	2	5.4
nonresponse	2	5.4
TOTAL	37	100.0

TABLE III 7
TYPE OF TECHNOLOGY

TYPE	NO.	PERCENTAGE
Mechanized	6	16.2
Semi-mechanized	18	48.6
Manual	3	8.1
Semi-skilled	3	8.1
no response	7	18.9
TOTAL	37	100.0

TABLE III 8
WORK SHIFTS

SHIFTS	NO.	PERCENTAGE
One shifts	21	56.8
Two shifts	4	10.8
Three shifts	8	21.6
none/no response	4	10.8
TOTAL	37	100.0

TABLE III 9

PRESENCE OF A UNION IN THE COMPANY

RESPONSE	NO.	PERCENTAGE
YES	14	37.8
NO	23	62.2
TOTAL	37	100.0

TABLE III 10

PRESENCE OF A CANTEEN

RESPONSE	NO.	PERCENTAGE
YES	13	35.1
NO	24	64.9
TOTAL	37	100.0

TABLE III. 11

PRESENCE OF TRANSPORTATION

RESPONSE	NO.	PERCENTAGE
YES	9	24.3
NO	28	75.6
TOTAL	37	100.0

TABLE III. 12

PRESENCE OF NURSERY

RESPONSE	NO.	PERCENTAGE
YES	1	2.
NO	36	97.
TOTAL	37	100.0

246

TABLE II 13

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS

SEX	NO.	PER CENT
Total	37	100
Male	21	57
Female	16	43

AGE LEVEL	NO.	PER CENT
Total	37	103
21-29	7	19
30-38	13	35
39-47	7	19
48-56	7	19
57-65	3	8
66-74 1	0	0
75-83	1	3

CIVIL STATUS	NO.	PER CENT
Total	37	100
Single	10	27
Married	27	73

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	NO.	PER CENT
Total	37	102
Grade VI	1	3
1st Year High School	1	3
High School Graduate	1	3
1st Year College	1	3
3rd Year College	3	8
4th Year College	1	3
College Graduate	27	73
Graduate	1	3
Vocational Course	1	3

TABLE III. 13 CONT'D

PLACE OF BIRTH	NO.	PER CENT
Total	37	101
Luzon	15	41
Metro Manila	15	41
Visayas	3	8
China	4	11

TABLE III. 14

DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY
POSITION IN THE COMPANY

POSITION	NO.	PER CENT
Total	37	103
Genex/Manager	5	14
Vice-President	1	3
General Manager	10	27
Personnel Officer	11	30
Production Manager	4	11
Plant Manager	1	3
Sales Manager	1	3
Assistant Manager	1	3
Industrial Relations Officer	1	3
Administrative Assistant	1	3
Office Manager	1	3

TABLE III. 5DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS
BY LENGTH OF SERVICE
IN THE COMPANY

LENGTH OF SERVICE IN YEARS	NO.	PER CENT
Total	37	101
1 - 6	19	51
7 - 12	7	19
13 - 18	5	14
19 - 24	1	3
25 - 30	4	11
31 - 36	1	3

TABLE III. 6DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS
BY PRODUCTS MANUFACTURED

PRODUCTS	NO.	PER CENT
TOTAL	37	105
Finished textile: ladies', men's and babies wear, knitted wear, bedsheets	15	41
Lollipops, marshmallows, candies, biscuits, popcorn	5	14
Cigars & Cigarettes	4	11
Garters, shoelaces, thread & trimmings	2	5
Flue-cured tobacco	2	5
Ladies' sandals, shoes &		

TABLE 17.12 CONT'D

PRODUCTS	NO.	PER CENT
Handbags	2	5
Garter & leather belts	1	3
Embroidered cloth	1	3
Radio & Stereo Sets	1	3
Semi-conductors	1	3
Dyed Fabrics	1	3
Umbrellas	1	3
Gloves	1	3

Table III. 17

DISTRIBUTION OF UNIONS BY SIZE OF MEMBERSHIP

Size of Membership	N	%
TOTAL	14	100
42-173	5	36
174-305	2	14
306-437	5	36
438-569	-	-
570-701	2	14

Table III. 18

**DISTRIBUTION OF UNIONS
BY TYPE OF UNION SECURITY CLAUSE**

Type of Union Security Clause	No.	%
TOTAL	14	99
Maintenance of Membership	5	36
Union shop	2	14
Agency shop	2	14
Open shop	1	7
Close shop	1	7
No response	3	21

Table III. 9

DISTRIBUTION OF UNIONS BY AFFILIATION

Federation	No.	%
TOTAL	14	98
Associated Labor Union (ALU)	1	7
Federación Obrera de la Industria Tabacquera de Filipinas (FOITAF)	2	14
National Workers Brotherhood (NWB)	1	7
National Union of the Tobacco Industry in the Philippines (NUTIP)	1	7
Philippine Association of Free Labor Unions (PAFLU)	2	14
Philippine Social Security Labor Union (PSSLU)	1	7
Trade Unions of the Philippines and Allied Services (TUPAS)	2	14
Independent	1	7
No Information	3	21

Table III. 20

**DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENT UNION OFFICIALS BY POSITION
IN THE UNION YEAR ELECTED AND LENGTH OF INVOLVEMENT IN T.U. ACTIVITIES**

I. POSITION IN THE COMPANY

	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
TOTAL	14	100
President	7	50
Treasurer	1	7
Board Member	1	7
Secretary	4	29
Auditor	1	7

II. YEAR ELECTED TO OFFICE

	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
TOTAL	14	100
1964-1967	1	7
1968-1971	2	14
1972-1975	5	36
1976-1979	6	43

III. LENGTH OF INVOLVEMENT IN TRADE UNION WORK

	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
TOTAL	14	100
1-6 yrs.	7	50
7-12 yrs.	5	36
13-18 yrs.	1	7
19-24 yrs.	-	-
25-30 yrs.	1	7

Table III. 21

**DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENT
UNION OFFICIAL**

I. SEX	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
TOTAL	14	100
Male	5	36
Female	9	64
II. AGE	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
TOTAL	14	99
21-27	2	14
28-34	5	36
35-41	2	14
42-48	3	21
49-55	2	14
III. PLACE OF BIRTH	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
TOTAL	14	99
Metro Manila	6	43
Misal	1	7
Bulacan	2	14
Pangasinan	1	7
Iloos Sur	1	7
Batangas	1	7
Albay	1	7
Lanao del Norte	1	7
IV. LEVEL OF EDUCATION	<u>No.</u>	<u>%</u>
TOTAL	14	100
Elem. School Graduate	3	21
High School Level	1	7
High School Graduate	4	29
College Level	2	14
College Graduate	4	29

V. OTHER RELEVANT TRAINING	<u>No.</u>	<u>₹</u>
TOTAL	14	99
Workers Education	2	14
Collective Bargaining and Labor Relations, India	1	7
Family Planning	2	14
OTHER RELATED TRAINING	<u>No.</u>	<u>₹</u>
Leadership Course on T.U. Philosophy and Collective Bargaining Semi-Monthly Seminars Sponsored by ALU	1	7
Drummaking	1	7
None	6	43

Table III. 22

Question No. 9. WHY DO YOU THINK YOU WERE ELECTED/CHOSEN
OFFICER OF THE UNION?

Reasons	No.	%
-- the members elected me	14	98
-- the members elected me. Besides I am the founder of the union	1	7
-- because of the support of the members. Also because I might be able to help the members.	1	7
-- the members think I can help solve their problems.	3	21
-- I know how to manage financial matters.	1	7
-- the members feel I can handle the job	2	14
-- I am patient.	1	7
-- because of my educational background.	1	7
-- because of experience as a union official.	1	7

Table III. 23

Question No. 10. DO YOU THINK YOUR BEING MALE HAS SOMETHING TO DO WITH YOUR ELECTION AS UNION OFFICER?

Response	No.	%
Total	14	100
Yes	8	57
No	5	36
No Response	1	7

CHAPTER IV

WORKERS' PROFILE

A total of 399 workers were interviewed for this study. Three hundred and fifteen were female and 184 were male. Production workers comprised approximately two-thirds of the sample. Two hundred sixty-nine were production workers and 130 belonged to the non-production division (Table 4.1).

A number of workers in the companies from which the above sample was taken totalled 5,380. Three thousand five hundred twenty-one were females and one thousand eight hundred fifty-nine were male. Production workers comprised the bulk of the total number of workers. They numbered 5,054 while the non-production workers were only 327 (Table 4.2).

Age as of Last Birthday. The mean age of the worker respondents was 30. More than one-third (39%) of the respondents belonged to the 26-35 age group. An almost equal percentage (37%) were from the 16-25 group (Table 4.3).

Highest Grade Completed. More than one-third (39%) of the workers finished from one to four years of high school. Twenty per cent had one to four years of college and 19% finished from one to six years of elementary schooling (Table 4.4).

Civil Status. Majority (53%) of the workers were single. Forty-five per cent were married and only one per cent was widow (Table 4.5).

Spouse's Highest Completed Grade. Similarly the highest educational attainment of the respondents' spouses was high school (16%). Thirteen per cent finished elementary schooling (Table 4.6).

Number of Living Children. Twenty-eight per cent of the respondents had 0-3 children. A lower percentage, 9% had 4-6, and only one per cent had 7-9 children (Table 4.7).

Present Occupation of Respondents. Workers directly involved in production, namely: transport, equipment, machine operators, laborers, foremen and supervisors made up more than one-half (63%) of the workers interviewed. Clerical workers composed mostly of secretaries, clerks, typists, accounting clerks and time keepers ranked second in the hierarchy of occupational group represented. Professional, technical, sales, service, administrative and managerial employees constituted only 14.9% of the total number of production and non-production workers interviewed (Table 4.8).

Length of Service in the Company. A large majority (81%) of the workers interviewed have served the company for less than a year to 10 years. This is so because 19 or 56% of the respondent establishments have been in operation from one to 10 years. Sixty workers or 15% have worked in the company for 11 to 32 years. Only a few workers have served the company beyond 32 years.

The mean or average length of service of the 399 workers interviewed is 7.56 years. This is significant because the questions they were asked to answer require a fairly good grasp of the nature of their work situation which is acquired only after some years of service in the company (Table 4.9).

Frequency of Wage Payment. The most common frequencies of payment of workers' wages are weekly (141 or 35.34%) and monthly (140 or 35.09%). Eighty-four workers or 21% are paid on a daily basis, while the remaining 33 workers or 8% are paid either on an hourly or commission basis.

Weekly Income from the Company. The weekly income of majority of the workers (283 or 70.93%) were in the 0-125 pesos bracket. Only 116 or 28% of the workers receive a weekly income of more than ₱125.00.

The mean weekly income is ₱129.00. This is only four pesos higher than the highest weekly income received by majority of the workers (Table 4.10).

Weekly Family Income of Respondent. Weekly family income refers to the total income of all the earning members of the respondents' family. The lowest weekly income bracket of 0-312 pesos encompasses almost a hundred ^{per cent} / of the respondents as shown in the frequency distribution table 4.11. Only a small fraction, 28% or 111 workers had a total weekly family income of more than ₱312.00, At the time of the interview.

The figures speak candidly of how the workers are underpaid. Considering the increasing cost of living occasioned by oil price increases and other factors, one wonders how the workers manage to maintain their families and at the same time sustain a certain level of productivity (Table 4.11).

Number of Earning Members in the Family. A big majority (60%) of the workers only had two to three earning members in their families. Thirty-one per cent had only one or no other earning member. Here it can be seen that 91% of the workers are depended upon as the sole bread winners of their families (Table 4.12).

TABLE 4.1
WORKER RESPONDENTS BY SEX AND BY CATEGORY

SEX	PRODUCTION	NON-PRODUCTION	TOTAL
Female	142	73	315
Male	127	57	184
Total	269	130	399

TABLE 4.2 RANK AND FILE WORKERS BY SEX AND BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUP

Industry Code	Industry	Production			Non-Production			TOTAL			
		MALE	FEMALE	BOTH	MALE	FEMALE	BOTH	MALE	FEMALE	BOTH	
01	31172	Biscuit Factory	42	189	222	4	4	8	46	184	230
02	31192	Candy Factory	16	35	51	3	2	5	19	37	56
03	31401	Cigar Factory	43	547	590	35	24	59	78	572	650
04	31402	Cigarette Factory	251	412	663	4	5	9	255	417	672
05											
06	31404	Curing & Redrying Tobacco Leaves	326	493	819	29	10	39	355	503	858
07											
08	32118	Manufacturer of Narrow Fabrics	208	376	584	-	9	9	208	385	593
09	32119	Misc. Spinning & Weaving Mills N&C	496	510	1,006	60	51	111	556	561	1,117
10	32121	Manufacture of House Furnishing	3	30	33	-	2	2	3	32	35
11	32120	Embroidery & Make- Up Textile Goods	72	175	247	8	8	16	80	183	263
12	32132	Underwear & Outer- wear Knitting	94	167	261	5	14	19	99	161	260
13											
14	32202	Custom Dressmaking Shop	-	77	77	5	6	11	5	83	88
15	32203	Men's, Boy's Garment Factories	41	139	180	3	11	14	44	150	194
16	32204	Women's, Girl's & Babies' Garment Factories	7	100	107	-	12	12	7	112	119
17	32402	Manufacture of Slippers & Sandals	42	46	88	2	1	3	44	47	91
18	33321	Manufacturer or Assembly of Radio & TV	33	17	50	2	3	5	35	20	55
19	33093	Manufacturer of Umbrellas & Cases	24	52	76	3	2	5	25	55	80
	TOTAL		1,896	3,356	5,054	103	164	327	1,859	3,521	5,380

TABLE 4.3
AGE AS OF LAST BIRTHDAY

AGE	NO.	PERCENTAGE
16 - 25	149	37.34
26 - 35	156	39.10
36 - 45	58	14.54
46 - 57	27	6.77
58 and above	9	2.25
Total	399	100.00

TABLE 4.4
HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED

	NO.	PERCENTAGE
Elementary (Grades I-VI)	78	19.55
High School (1st-4th year)	159	39.85
College (1st-4th year)	80	20.05
Fifth Year College	5	1.25
College Degree	38	9.52
Masters	22	7.02
Vocational	11	2.76
Total	399	100.00

TABLE 4.5
CIVIL STATUS

	NO.	PERCENTAGE
Single	213	53.38
Married	178	44.61
Separated/Divorced	2	.50
Widow	5	1.25
No information	1	.25
Total	399	100.00

TABLE 4.6
SPOUSE'S HIGHEST COMPLETED GRADE

	NO.	PERCENTAGE
Elementary (Grade I-VI)	51	12.78
High School (1st-4th year)	64	16.04
College (1st-4th year)	17	4.26
College Degree	23	5.76
Masters	15	3.76
Vocational	7	1.75
Not applicable	222	55.64
Total	399	100.00

TABLE 4.7
NUMBER OF LIVING CHILDREN

	NO.	PERCENTAGE
0 - 3	113	28.32
4 - 6	37	9.27
7 - 9	5	1.25
not applicable	244	61.15
Total	399	100.00

TABLE 4.8
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY
OCCUPATIONAL GROUP

OCCUPATIONAL GROUP	NO.	PERCENTAGE
Production-Related Workers: transport, equipment, machine operators & laborews	252	63.16
Clerical & Related Works	89	22.31
Service Workers	37	9.26
Professional, Technical & Related Workers	13	3.25
Sales Worker	6	1.05
Administrators, Executive & Managerial Workers	2	.50
Total	399	99.98

TABLE 4.9
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENT WORKERS BY LENGTH OF
SERVICE IN THE COMPANY

YEARS	NO.	PERCENTAGE
0 - 10	324	81.2
11 - 21	50	12.5
22 - 32	10	2.5
33 - 43	6	1.5
44 - 54	1	.25
55 - 65	4	1.00
66 - 76	4	1.00
Total	399	99.95

TABLE 4.10
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY WEEKLY INCOME

WEEKLY INCOME IN PESOS	NO.	PERCENTAGE
0 - 125	283	70.93
126 - 251	101	24.96
252 - 377	9	2.25
378 - 503	1	.25
504 - 629	2	.5
630 - 755	1	.25
756 - 881	1	.25
882 - 1,007	1	.25
Total	399	99.64

TABLE 4.11
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY
TOTAL WEEKLY FAMILY INCOME

WEEKLY INCOME IN PESOS	NO.	PERCENTAGE
0 - 312	287	71.9
313 - 625	76	19.0
626 - 938	20	5.0
939 - 1,251	9	2.25
1,252 - 1,564	1	.25
1,565 - 1,877	1	.25
1,878 - 2,190	1	.00
2,191 - 2,503	2	.5
2,504 - 2,816	1	.5
2,817 - 3,129	1	.5
Total	399	100.05

TABLE 4.12
NUMBER OF EARNING MEMBERS
IN THE FAMILY

	NO.	PERCENTAGE
0 - 1	125	31.33
2 - 3	238	59.65
4 - 5	33	8.27
6 - 7	3	.75
Total	399	100.00

CHAPTER V

DOMINANCE OF WOMEN

The reasons for the dominance of women in the industries selected were hypothesized at the beginning of study to be associated with the nature of their work. In these industries, work requires good finger dexterity and good resistance to monotonous work. It is assumed that women are better endowed with these qualities than men. Moreover, decision-making in these industries are made by women.

The results of this study show that work in these industries does in fact require good finger dexterity and good resistance to monotonous work, especially in production-related activities. Majority of the workers, both men and women, claimed that women are better endowed with these qualities (see table V. 1). However, women have very little participation in decision making. The little participation that they have (which is discussed in Chapter VII) consists mostly of information giving or consultation.

A. WORKERS' VIEWS

1. About Their Particular Worka. Star-typing

Majority of the workers, 71 per cent of whom were women and 66 per cent were men, in production-related work said that the they were hired for their first job because of their sex. Among those whose first job is not their present job, 58 per cent of women workers and 60 per cent of men workers said that they were hired for their present jobs because of their sex.

In non-production related activities, 41 per cent of women and 54 per cent of men said that they were hired for their first

job because of their being women or men, respectively. Among those whose first job is not their present job, 26 per cent of female workers and 45 per cent of male workers claimed that they were hired for their present job because of their sex.

The tendency for the woman to say that they were hired because of their being a female is accounted for by the fact that their work, especially among production-related workers, requires good finger dexterity and good resistance to monotonous work, which will be discussed more lengthily in the following section. Among male workers who claimed that they were hired because of their being a male, their work involves tasks requiring strength like lifting weights and manual operation of heavy machineries.

b. Finger Dexterity

About 72 per cent of women workers and 55 per cent of men workers said that their work requires more than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity. Eighty-four per cent of the female workers and 29 per cent of male workers claimed that women are better endowed with this quality. In both items the proportion of female workers is significantly greater than that of men.

Among non-production related workers, 45 per cent of female workers and 42 per cent of male workers, affirmed that their work requires more than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity. The difference between the two sexes are not significant. About 69 per cent of the female workers and 26 per cent of male workers indicated that women are better endowed with this quality. Here the difference between the

two sexes is significantly different, i.e., there are definitely more female workers than male workers who said that women are better endowed with this quality.

c. Tolerance to Monotonous or Repetitive Tasks

Majority of production-related workers 89 per cent of female workers and 80 per cent of male workers reported that their work requires a more than an ordinary amount of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks. Also a 93 per cent of female workers and 51 per cent of male workers expressed that women are better endowed with this quality. In both cases, the favorable response of female workers is significantly greater than that of the men.

Among non-production related workers, 81 per cent of female workers and 79 per cent of male workers stated that their work requires a more than an ordinary amount of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks. However, a two-percentage point difference in their responses is not significant. About 92 per cent of the women and 44 per cent of the men declared that women are better endowed with this quality. Here the favorable response of the women is significantly greater than that of the men.

2. Production/Non-Production Related Work in General

a. Finger Dexterity

Production-related workers - - 88 per cent of female workers and 83 per cent of male workers equally viewed tasks in production-related work in general as requiring a more than an

ordinary quality of finger dexterity. A majority of them - 85 per cent of female workers and 68 per cent of male workers agreed that women are endowed with this quality. In this instance, the proportion of women claiming so is significantly greater than that of men.

Even among non-production related workers, majority of them, 68 per cent of women and 65 per cent of men, expressed that in general work in non-production related work require a more than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity. Moreover, a greater proportion of them 82 per cent of female workers and 71 per cent of male workers agreed that women are better endowed with this quality.

b. Tolerance to Monotonous or Repetitive Tasks

About 91 per cent of female and 85 per cent of male workers in production also viewed production-related work as requiring a more than an ordinary amount of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks. In addition, 94 per cent of female workers and 73 per cent of male workers agreed that women are better endowed with this quality. Here the proportion of women agreeing is significantly greater than that of men.

Likewise, a considerable number of them, 82 per cent of both female and male non-production related workers indicated that in work in non-production related work requires a more than an ordinary quality of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks. However, a relatively greater proportion of women, 93 per cent, claim that women are better endowed with this

quality, as compared to 66 per cent of men workers.

B. MANAGEMENT VIEW

1. Sex-Related Work

According to management respondents, there are specific work situations or conditions, which require women's finger dexterity and patience and which, therefore, call for female workers. These conditions exist in stereo-assembling; sewing, cutting, packing and embroideries; cigar making; operation of lighter machines like winding and push button machines; wrapping of biscuits, sealing, packing and counting; and thread changing, among others.

On the other hand, those which call for male workers involve tasks requiring handling of heavier machineries, repair and maintenance of machines; delivery and cleaning; operation of pressing machines which requires strength; driving and carpentry; feeding raw materials which involves lifting of heavy weights and others.

C. PRODUCTION/ NON-PRODUCTION RELATED WORK IN GENERAL

a. Finger Dexterity

Majority of management respondents -- 29 out of 37 or 78 per cent agreed that tasks of production-related workers require more than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity. In general, 73 per cent also agreed that women are better endowed with this quality. However, only 33 per cent of them claimed that tasks of non-production related workers require more than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity. Likewise, only 32 per cent of them said that women are better endowed with this quality.

b. Tolerance to Monotonous or Repetitive Tasks.

Thirty-one or 84 per cent of management respondents viewed tasks in production-related work as requiring a more than an ordinary quality of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks. About 78 per cent of them affirmed that women are better endowed with this quality. Also a majority of them, 57 per cent said that in general, tasks in non-production related work require more than an ordinary quality of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks and 51 per cent of them claimed that women are better endowed with this quality.

c. Union View

Thirteen out of fourteen or 93 per cent of union respondents opine that in general, tasks of production/non-production related workers require a more than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity. Nine or 64 per cent of them agreed that women are better endowed with this quality.

All of the union respondents stated that the tasks also require a more than an ordinary amount of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks. Ten or 71 per cent of them accepted that women are better endowed with this quality.

Table U.1

PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS, NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, Z-STATISTIC
BY ITEM, BY SEX, BY TYPE OF EMPLOYEE

ITEM	PRODUCTION				Z	NON-PRODUCTION				Z
	FEMALE		MALE			FEMALE		MALE		
	\bar{X}_1	N ₁	\bar{X}_2	N ₂		\bar{X}_1	N ₁	\bar{X}_2	N ₂	
A. DOMINANCE OF WOMEN										
Would you say you were hired for this first job because of sex? YES	0.711	142	0.661	127	0.884	0.411	73	0.536	56	-1.410
Would you say you were hired for this present job because of your sex? YES	0.579	76	0.596	89	-0.281	0.261	46	0.422	45	-1.619
Does your work require more than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity? YES	0.721	140	0.587	126	2.299	0.452	73	0.418	55	0.384
Are women better endowed with this quality? YES	0.842	120	0.294	85	7.944**	0.694	36	0.265	34	3.589**
Do your job require a more than an ordinary amount of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks? YES	0.894	142	0.803	127	2.094*	0.808	73	0.789	57	0.269
Are women better endowed with this quality? YES	0.926	135	0.514	111	8.581**	0.917	20	-0.435	46	5.410**

7
A

ITEM	PRODUCTION					NON-PRODUCTION				
	FEMALE		MALE		Z	FEMALE		MALE		Z
	\bar{X}_1	N ₁	\bar{X}_2	N ₂		\bar{X}_1	N ₁	\bar{X}_2	N ₂	
Do you have freedom of movement? YES	0.908	142	0.929	126	-0.625	0.986	73	0.982	57	0.186
F. WORK RELATED PROBLEMS										
Do you have difficulty with regards to your household chores because of your employment? YES	0.232	142	0.063	129	3.856**	0.164	73	0.053	57	1.970*
Do you have difficulty with regards to your family because of your employment? YES	0.141	142	0.126	127	0.361	0.064	73	0.035	57	0.539
Have you had any health prob- lems or physical complaints in the past year which you think are related to your work? YES	0.190	142	0.252	127	1.228	0.123	73	0.158	57	-0.575

75

NOTES: X = Proportion of respondents; N = No. of respondents

*, Significant at $\alpha = 0.05$; **, Significant at $\alpha = 0.01$

CHAPTER VI

MALE-FEMALE DISPARITIES

A null hypothesis of no male-female disparities attributable solely to sex status was assumed. The results of the study support this hypothesis (see Table VI.1).

A. Wages and Salaries

Eighty-five per cent of female workers and 83 per cent of male workers in production activities and 78 per cent of female workers and 85 per cent of male workers in non-production activities said that men/women in the same job as theirs have equal salaries as theirs. The differences in the responses between male and female workers in both production and non-production activities were not significant.

Less than a quarter of both males and females in both production and non-production activities agreed to the statement that their respective companies were like many industries where women generally receive relatively lower wages than men. Moreover, the differences in the responses between male and female workers in general were not significant.

B. Specific Company Practices or Policies

Nine items relating to company practices and policies were selected to determine whether or not the treatment of female workers relative to male workers in any of these items was equal. These were hiring, working conditions, pay, promotions, training and education opportunities, firing and other disciplinary measures, work pace, work organization, and work scheduling. In all of these

items, the proportion of female or male respondents claiming equal treatment between sexes ranged from 35 to 100 per cent. In addition, there were no significant differences between the female and male responses in both production and non-production categories.

C. Discrimination

Only 7 per cent of female workers and 11 per cent of male workers in the production category and 10 per cent of both female and male workers in the non-production category claimed that they had been discriminated against in one way or another. However, the difference in percentages between the two sexes was not significant.

Also only 3 per cent of female workers and 4 per cent of male workers in the production category and 5 per cent of female workers and 3 per cent of male workers in the non-production category said that they had been discriminated against because of their sex. Here the percentage point differences between the two sexes were also not significant.

D. Work Timing

Even with respect to items relating to work timing, e.g., work in shifts, fixed hours, control of work pace, and freedom of movement, no significant differences were found out between female and male workers.

Twenty-four per cent of female workers and 26 per cent of male workers worked in shifts in the production category. On the other hand, 8 per cent of female workers and 14 per cent of male workers worked in shifts in the non-production category.

Seventy-three per cent of female workers and 79 per cent of male workers in the production category have fixed hours. In the non-production category the scores are 90 per cent for the female and 93 per cent for the male.

With regards to control of work pace, 80 per cent of female workers and 79 per cent of male workers in production-related activities had control. In non-production related activities, 90 per cent of female and 93 per cent of male had control.

At least 90 per cent of males and females in both production and non-production categories had freedom of movement in their work.

3. Work-Related Problem

No significant differences exist between men and women with regard to having difficulty with regards to their respective families and having any health problem or physical complaints in the past year which they thought were related to their work.

Fourteen per cent of female workers and 13 per cent of male workers in the production category had had difficulty with regards to their families because of their employment. In the non-production category, the percentages were 6 per cent for female workers and 4 per cent for male workers.

About 19 per cent of female workers and 25 per cent of male workers in production-related activities had experienced a health problem or physical complaint in the past year which they thought were related to their work. In non-production related activities, the proportions were 12 per cent for female workers and 16 per cent for male workers.

There is, however, a significant difference between female and male workers in both production and non-production categories with regards to difficulty in household chores as a consequence of employment. Twenty-three per cent of female workers and only 6 per cent of male workers in the production category and 16 per cent of female workers and only 5 per cent of male workers in the non-production category had experienced this difficulty.

Table 11.1

PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS, NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, Z-STATISTIC
BY ITEM, BY SEX, BY TYPE OF EMPLOYEE

ITEM	PRODUCTION					NON-PRODUCTION				
	FEMALE		MALE		Z	FEMALE		MALE		Z
	X ₁	N ₁	X ₂	N ₂		X ₁	N ₁	X ₂	N ₂	
II. MALE-FEMALE DISPARITIES										
Would you say that men/women with the same job as yours have higher salaries?										
EQUAL	0.847	98	0.826	86	0.385	0.775	89	0.348	33	-0.789
MALE HIGHER SALARY	0.082	98	0.081	86	0.025	0.150	40	0.091	33	0.764
FEMALE HIGHER SALARY	0.071	98	0.093	86	1.436	0.075	40	0.061	33	0.238
D. Sex-Related Situations										
In many industries, women generally receive relatively lower wages than men. Do you think this is the case in this company? YES										
	0.197	137	0.139	122	1.241	0.127	71	0.211	57	1.276
Would you say that you are given equal treatment with men/women workers in this company with regards to the following?										
a. Hiring: 1 Equal	0.928	125	0.923	117	-0.063	0.852	61	0.944	54	1.611
2 Male	0.032	125	0.060	117	1.036	0.016	61	0.037	54	-0.705
3 Female	0.040	125	0.017	117	1.051	0.131	61	0.019	54	2.236*

* , Significant at $\alpha=0.05$

82

ITEM	PRODUCTION				z	NON-PRODUCTION				z
	FEMALE		MALE			FEMALE		MALE		
	\bar{x}_1	n_1	\bar{x}_2	n_2		\bar{x}_1	n_1	\bar{x}_2	n_2	
B. Working Conditions:										
1 Equal	0.960	124	0.923	117	0.572	0.951	61	0.885	51	1.282
2 Male treated better	0	124	0.043	117	-	0	61	0.077	52	-
3 Female treated better	0.040	124	0.034	117	-0.244	0.049	61	0.038	52	0.283
C. Pay:										
1 Equal	0.866	119	0.947	113	-2.160*	0.869	61	0.863	51	0.931
2 Male treated better	0.092	119	0.035	113	1.771	0.092	61	0.093	51	0.543
3 Female treated better	0.042	119	0.018	113	1.079	0	61	0.039	51	-
d. Promotions:										
1 Equal										
2 Male treated better	0.910	111	0.910	111	9	0.921	56	0.943	58	-0.839
3 Female treated better	0.036	111	0.063	111	0.932	0.089	56	0.038	53	1.512
	0.054	111	0.027	111	2.015	0	56	0.019	53	-
e. Training and Adv. Opportunity										
1 Equal	0.917	109	0.972	107	-1.735	0.927	55	0.885	52	0.748
2 Male treated better	0.018	109	0.009	107	0.563	0.054	55	0.077	52	-0.485
3 Female treated better	0.064	109	0.019	107	1.627	0.018	55	0.038	52	0.617
f. Firing and other measures										
1 Equal	0.956	114	0.948	115	-0.287	0.949	59	0.980	51	-0.865
2 Male treated better	0.017	114	0.009	115	0.534	0	59	0.020	51	-
3 Female treated better	0.026	114	0.043	115	-0.709	0.051	59	0	51	-
g. Work pace										
1 Equal	0.949	117	0.920	112	0.896	0.933	60	0.941	61	0.174
2 Male treated better	0.009	117	0.054	112	-1.963*	0.067	60	0.039	51	0.653
3 Female treated better	0.043	117	0.027	112	0.668	0	60	0.020	51	-

8

ITEM	PRODUCTION				Z	NON-PRODUCTION				Z
	FEMALE		MALE			FEMALE		MALE		
	X ₁	N ₁	X ₂	N ₂		X ₁	N ₁	X ₂	N ₂	
h. Work Organisation										
1 Equal	0.958	118	0.947	114	0.395	1.00	58	0.923	52	2.163*
2 Male treated better	0.008	118	0.026	114	-1.062	0	58	0.038	52	-
3 Female treated better	0.034	118	0.026	114	0.359	0	58	0.038	52	-
i. Work Scheduling										
1 Equal	0.983	119	0.947	114	1.524	0.934	61	0.944	54	-0.223
2 Male treated better	0	119	0.026	114	-	0.033	61	0.056	54	-0.606
3 Female treated better	0.017	119	0.026	114	0.481	0.033	61	0	54	-
Have there been instances when you were discriminated against in any way? YES	0.066	136	0.106	123	-1.153	0.097	72	0.105	57	-0.150
Have you been discriminated against because of your sex? YES	0.029	69	0.044	63	- .468	0.053	38	0.027	37	0.575
E. WORK TIMING										
Do you work in shifts? YES	0.239	142	0.260	127	- .431	0.082	73	0.140	57	-1.108
Do you have fixed hours? YES	0.732	142	0.767	127	-1.052	0.904	73	0.930	57	-0.528
Can you control your work pace? YES	0.796	142	0.787	127	0.018	0.877	73	0.877	57	0

0.72

ITEM	PRODUCTION					NON-PRODUCTION				
	FEMALE		MALE		Z	FEMALE		MALE		Z
	\bar{X}_1	N_1	\bar{X}_2	N_2		\bar{X}_1	N_1	\bar{X}_2	N_2	
In general do the tasks of production/non-production related workers require a more than an ordinary quality of finger dexterity? YES	0.319	140	0.827	127	1.202	0.635	73	0.649	67	0.433
Are women better endowed with this quality? YES	0.854	123	0.676	105	3.185**	0.826	46	0.714	42	1.151
Do they require a more than an ordinary amount of tolerance to monotonous or repetitive tasks? YES	0.907	140	0.849	126	1.452	0.819	72	0.825	57	0.119
Are women better endowed with this quality? YES	0.938	129	0.731	108	4.375**	0.930	57	0.660	50	3.512**

NOTES: \bar{X} = Proportion of respondents; N = No. of respondents

*, Significant at $\alpha=0.05$; **, Significant at $\alpha=0.01$

23

CHAPTER VII

CONTRIBUTIONS AND BENEFITS

Women were hypothesized to contribute their labor and skills, their intelligence and capacity for decision making as well as motivation and drive. In return they derive benefits such as economic and social well-being, security and sense of purpose, self-reliance and determination. In addition to differential levels of contributions derive differential levels of benefits.

The results of this study show that women do in fact contribute their labor and skills, their intelligence and capacity for decision-making as well as motivation and drive. In return, they derive economic and social well-being and security but not necessary a sense of purpose, self-reliance and self-determination (see Table VII.1).

A. CONTRIBUTIONS

1. Human Resources: Labor and Skills

Women in the establishments studied comprised 62 per cent of the total work force, 64 per cent of production workers and 49 per cent of non-production workers. They possess skills which enable them to perform tasks in sewing, finishing, knitting, weaving, assembly of stereo components among others.

2. Intelligence and Decision-Making

They comprised 31 per cent of top management and 47 per cent of middle management. Among the women interviewed majority of them (47-50 per cent) have no participation in matters and on promotions, firing and disciplinary measure, wage setting, fringe benefits, work pace, work organization,

work scheduling, company plans and program, product plans and financial aspects. They have meaningful participation only in the form of information giving and consultation in only two aspects: hiring and problems solving and some kind of participation-also through information giving and consultation in promotions, work pace and work scheduling.

Fifty-four per cent of women respondents in the production category and 81 per cent in non-production category participated in the hiring of employees through information giving and consultation. In problems solving it was 40 per cent of women respondents in the production category and 48 per cent of them in the non-production category was participated through information giving and consultation.

In issues like promotions, work pace and work scheduling 20-37 per cent women respondents indicated that their participation was in information giving or consultation.

Aspects like company plans/program, product plans and financial aspects were clearly a management domain.

3. Motivation and Drive

About 64 per cent of women workers in the production category and 59 per cent in the non-production category that they work about the same as most others. Nineteen per cent of them in production category and 23 per cent in the non-production category said that they work harder than others. Those who work less hard than others comprised 10 per cent of women workers in the production category and 13 per cent in the non-production category.

Among those who work harder than others, what motivated them was the fact that they had relatively bigger responsibility than others, the nature of their work is difficult like having to work in pace with the machines, or with the presence of foul smelling chemicals, and the expectation to receive more pay or get promoted.

About 25 per cent of them in the production category and 23 per cent in the non-production category encourage or inspire others to work harder. This they do by counselling them, recommending them for promotion or disciplinary action, setting deadlines and giving them opportunities to take over during the absence of other supervisors.

4. Other Contribution

In addition to, women according to 62 per cent of management respondent showed a better quality of work than men. Only 30 per cent of them indicated that men and women are about the same with regards to their quality of work. More of the management respondents, 49 per cent, believed that women showed better attitude towards work as compared to 5 per cent who believed otherwise. Moreover, a majority of them, at least 84 per cent accepted that women contribute to stability, peacefulness and discipline.

B. BENEFITS

1. Economic Well-Being

As indicated in the chapter on workers profile, they derive income from these industries. The average income per woman worker was F169 a week.

2. Cultural Well Being

About 46 per cent of women workers in the production category are studying in school. In the nonproduction category it is 42 per cent. Likewise majority of them were supporting somebody e. g. son/daughter and/or brother/sister in school.

About 44 per cent of them have had occasions to indulge in leisure or related activities such as family outing, picnics, movies, visiting and others. Also, according to 95 per cent of them, their companies had provided or subsidized culture-related activities like cultural presentations, piped-in music or picnics.

3. Security

A majority of them, 68 per cent of production workers and 58 per cent of nonproduction workers were temporary employees. Only 32 per cent of production workers and 42 per cent of nonproduction workers were permanent employees.

On the other hand, at most, 4 per cent of the women workers said their respective companies provided old-age security in addition to SSS benefits or child-care facilities for their children.

4. Medical Services

Majority of them indicated that their company had provided them medical services and about one-half of them have availed of these facilities.

5. Sense of Purpose, Self-Determination and Self-Reliance

A considerable proportion of some workers, 47 per cent of production workers and 64 per cent of nonproduction workers were

confident that with their own qualifications - talent, skill and experience - they would progress in the company.

However, a majority of them, 74 per cent of production workers and 81 per cent of nonproduction workers, probably would choose another company if they could begin working all over again. Only 6 per cent of production workers and 19 per cent of nonproduction workers would definitely choose another company.

TABLE III.1

PROPORTION OF RESPONDENTS, NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS, Z-STATISTIC
BY ITEM, BY SEX, BY TYPE OF EMPLOYEE

ITEM	PRODUCTION				Z	NON-PRODUCTION				Z
	FEMALE		MALE			FEMALE		MALE		
	\bar{X}_1	N_1	\bar{X}_2	N_2		\bar{X}_1	N_1	\bar{X}_2	N_2	
III CONTRIBUTIONS AND BENEFITS										
A. Contributions										
Do you participate in decision-making in their company? YES	0.197	142	0.283	427	-1.654	0.411	73	0.368	57	0.499
What is the nature of your participation in the following issues?										
a. Hiring:										
1. none	0.318	44	0.273	44	0.463	0.125	32	0.261	23	1.290
2. information giving	0.545	44	0.568	44	0.217	0.812	32	0.565	23	1.990 *
3. joint decision making with mgt.	0.136	44	0.159	44	0.304	0.062	32	0.174	23	1.315
b. Promotions:										
1. none	0.727	44	0.639	45	0.394	0.469	32	0.435	23	0.249
2. information giving	0.205	44	0.222	45	0.196	0.344	32	0.348	23	0.007
3. joint decision making with mgt.	0.068	44	0.085	45	0.367	0.188	32	0.217	23	0.164
c. Firing & other disc. measures										
1. none	0.750	44	0.609	46	1.439	0.576	32	0.261	23	2.333 *
2. information giving	0.205	44	0.304	46	1.083	0.303	33	0.652	23	2.584 **
3. joint decision making with mgt.	0.045	44	0.087	46	0.800	0.121	33	0.087	23	0.407

* Significant at $\alpha=0.05$ ** Significant at $\alpha=0.01$

219

ITEM	PRODUCTION				Z	NON-PRODUCTION				Z
	FEMALE		MALE			FEMALE		MALE		
	T ₁	T ₂	T ₁	T ₂		T ₁	T ₂	T ₁	T ₂	
d. Wage Setting										
1. none	0.886	44	0.773	44	1.414	0.625	32	0.478	23	1.429
2. information giving	0.068	44	0.155	44	-1.349	0.250	32	0.435	23	1.443
3. joint decision making with mgt.	0.045	44	0.063	44	0.465	0.125	32	0.087	23	0.446
e. Fringe Benefits										
1. none	0.841	44	0.841	44		0.688	32	0.455	22	1.693
2. information giving	0.136	44	0.114	44	0.314	0.250	32	0.500	22	1.888
3. joint decision making with mgt.	0.023	44	0.045	44	-0.572	0.063	32	0.045	22	0.286
f. Work Pace										
1. none	0.578	45	0.489	45	0.850	0.548	31	0.364	22	1.319
2. information giving	0.356	45	0.422	45	0.645	0.387	31	0.318	22	0.078
3. joint decision making with mgt.	0.067	45	0.089	45	0.391	0.065	31	0.318	22	2.416 *
g. Work organization										
1. none	0.591	44	0.545	44	0.438	0.581	31	.364	22	1.554
2. information giving	0.318	44	0.318	44	0.800	0.355	31	.409	22	0.398
3. joint decision making with mgt.	0.091	44	0.136	44	-0.670	0.065	31	.227	22	1.713
h. Work scheduling										
1. none	.522	46	0.590	44	0.625	0.531	32	0.391	23	0.813
2. information giving	.370	46	0.205	44	1.718	0.375	32	0.435	23	-0.590
3. joint decision making with mgt.	.109	46	0.205	44	-0.397	0.094	32	0.174	23	-0.877
i. Problem solving regarding work condition										
1. none	0.362	47	0.4	45	0.379	0.394	33	0.174	23	1.738
2. information giving	0.404	47	0.422	45	-0.176	0.485	33	0.565	23	-0.588
3. joint decision making with mgt.	0.234	47	0.178	45	0.405	0.121	33	0.261	23	-1.342

90

* Significant at $\alpha=0.05$

ITEM	F. H. H. H.				2	F. H. H. H.				2
	1	1	2	2		1	1	2	2	
a. Company plans/programs										
1. none	0.8	45	0.773	44	0.311	0.878	31	0.5	22	1.338
2. information giving	0.178	45	0.136	44	0.566	0.226	31	0.49	22	1.427
3. joint decision making with mt.	0.22	45	0.01	44	-0.448	0.377	31	0.01	22	0.774
b. Joint plans										
1. none	0.867	45	0.818	44	0.635	0.742	31	0.571	21	1.297
2. information giving	0.111	45	0.136	44	-0.358	0.194	31	0.333	21	1.142
3. joint decision making with mt.	0.02	45	0.045	44	-0.998	0.065	31	0.095	21	0.400
c. Financial aspects										
1. none	0.930	43	0.967	45	0.981	0.793	29	0.7	20	0.746
2. information giving	0.069	43	0.037	45	0.037	0.138	29	0.3	20	-1.357
3. joint decision making with mt.	0	43	0.067	45	-	0.069	29	0	20	-
d. Will you work harder, less hard, or about the same as other people doing your type of work in their work?										
1. much less hard than most others	0.73	140	0.31	126	0.511	0.35	73	0.13	57	-0.739
2. a little less hard than most others	0.121	140	0.127	126	-0.149	0.068	73	0.158	57	1.647
3. about the same as most others	0.543	140	0.63	126	0.674	0.539	73	0.456	57	1.514
4. a little harder than most others	0.179	140	0.193	126	-0.085	0.233	73	0.193	57	1.078
5. much harder than others	0.014	140	0.055	126	1.041	0.055	73	0.15	57	-1.065

91

ITEM	PRODUCTION				Z	NON-PRODUCTION				B
	FEMALE		MALE			FEMALE		MALE		
	X ₁	X ₂	X ₁	X ₂		X ₁	X ₂	X ₁	X ₂	
Has anyone in the company encouraged or inspired you to work harder? YES	0.246	57	0.240	54	0.074	0.231	39	0.241	29	-0.096
Do you encourage or inspire others to work harder? YES	0.246	57	0.241	54	0.061	0.231	39	0.241	29	-0.096
B. Benefits										
If you could begin working all over again, but in the same occupation as you're in now, how, likely would you be to choose this company as a place to work?										
1. Definitely would choose another company	0.057	141	0.096	125	-1.209	0.192	733	0.211	57	0.269
2. Probably would choose another company	0.943	141	0.904	125	1.209	0.808	73	0.789	57	0.269
3. Wouldn't care much whether it was the same company or another	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
4. Probably would choose the same company	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
5. Definitely would choose the same company	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Are you now in school? YES	0.458	142	0.425	127	0.542	0.425	73	0.456	57	0.355
Are you supporting anyone in school? YES	0.721	140	0.702	124	0.343	0.871	70	0.859	57	0.197
In the past year, have you had an opportunity to indulge in leisure or related activities such as: family outing, picnics, movies, visiting & other? YES	0.437	142	0.291	127	2.480*	0.452	73	0.474	57	0.251

92

ITEM	PRODUCTION				Z	NON-PRODUCTION				Z
	FEMALE		MALE			FEMALE		MALE		
	X ₁	N ₁	X ₂	N ₂		X ₁	N ₁	X ₂	N ₂	
Does your company provide or subsidize culture-related activities like cultural presentation, piped-in music, picnics? YES	0.955	135	0.976	123	0.903	0.945	73	0.964	56	0.502
Are you a _____ employee?										
1. permanent	0.316	139	0.341	123	0.434	0.420	69	0.333	54	0.986
2. temporary	0.683	139	0.659	123	0.413	0.579	69	0.667	54	0.996
3. casual										
Does the company provide old-age security in addition to SSS benefit? YES	0.014	142	0.008	123	0.467	0.041	73	0.053	57	-0.325
Does the company provide care facilities for the children of its workers? YES	0.014	142	.008	123	0.467	0.041	73	0.053	57	-0.325
Have you availed any of these facilities? YES	0.077	13	0.055	18	0.247	-	2	0.4	5	-
Does your company provide medical services for its workers? YES	0.761	142	0.811	127	-0.992	0.863	73	0.842	57	0.337
Have you availed of these services? YES	0.471	119	0.481	106	-0.153	0.544	68	0.54	50	-0.043
Have you had occasion to make use of these last year? YES	0.411	129	0.414	111	-0.048	0.377	69	0.315	54	0.716

93

ITEM	INDUCTION				Z	NON-INDUCTION				Z
	FEMALE		MALE			FEMALE		MALE		
	\bar{X}_1	N_1	\bar{X}_2	N_2		\bar{X}_1	N_1	\bar{X}_2	N_2	

Are you confident that with your own qualification- talent, skill and experience you would progress in the company?

0.470 134 0.52 125 -0.815 0.639 72 0.428 56 1.997

NOTES: \bar{X} = proportion of respondents; N = number of respondents

*, Significant at $\alpha=0.05$; **, Significant at $\alpha=0.01$

94

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

SUMMARY

The plight of women workers in Philippine society - a society which relatively gives great respect to its women members and yet has done very little for its women workers - provided impetus for the undertaking of this study. This study on women workers in women-dominated manufacturing establishments sought to find answers to the following questions:

- (1) Why do women workers predominate in some establishments in the Metro Manila area?
- (2) What is their status vis-a-vis men employees of similar positions; and
- (3) What contributions women make and the benefits they derive from their establishments.

The target of the study were the nineteen (19) industry groups which had been identified through the National Census and Statistics Office data as women-dominated concerns. However, these were not all typed since one industry group (miscellaneous processing of tobacco leaves not elsewhere classified) had no establishment in Metro Manila, while two establishments (manufacturing chewing and smoking tobacco) refused to cooperate. All in all, a total of 37 establishments were surveyed, 14 of which had unions. Out of these,

399 workers, 37 management representatives and 1 union official were interviewed (see Table IV.2 for the breakdown of worker respondents, Table III.13 for management and Table III.1 for union respondents).

The following are the general highlights of the study:

1. On the Existence of Women - the results of the study show that work in the selected industries does indeed require good finger dexterity and good resistance to monotonous work. This was proven true especially in production - related activities, and borne by the views of workers, managers and union officials interviewed, who believed that women are better endowed with such qualities than men. One's sex, therefore, had to do with one's being hired. Female workers were thus hired for work which required good finger dexterity and patience (e.g., stereo assembling, wrapping of biscuits and the like). Male workers on the other hand were hired for tasks which required handling of heavy machines, as well as operations which required strength.
2. On the Status of Women Vis-A-Vis Men Workers - it was found out that in general, there were no disparities between the two sexes in terms of salary, and work conditions. However, we have really no basis of concluding further since men and women perform different functions. Nevertheless, it was noted from the survey that salaries of both are generally confined to the

minima. While both sexes in fact stated that they had been discriminated against because of their sex, the figures were negligible. In fact, the percentage point differences between the two sexes were not significant.

With regards to work-related problems, there is also no significant difference between men and women on family and health-related aspects. This is not saying, however, that workers do not suffer the brunt of working in manufacturing concerns. In absolute terms male workers experience more health or physical problems than women in both non-production and production categories, perhaps because of the heavy work men perform. But women especially the piece-raters also suffer from muscle fatigue out of performing tasks which are repetitive and continuous for eight (8) hours a day.

There is, nevertheless, a significant difference between female and male workers in both production and non-production categories. This is pointed out in the areas of housekeeping where female workers find difficulty in their household chores as a result of their employment.

- 3. On Contributions and Benefits - women definitely contribute more to the labor productivity of their companies judging from their sheer number and since it is their skill and talent that keeps the manufacturing process going. It is thus lamentable that they have no meaningful participation in decision-making (i.e., in wage-

setting, fringe benefits, promotions, work organization and the like).

The only issues they were allowed to participate in are in the hiring of new workers and in problem-solving on a lesser scale (i.e., through more information giving and socialization). The other issues indicated were considered management domain (This finding bore out the results of an earlier study on Workers' Participation in Management in the Philippines which found out that a clear delineation of management versus worker functions exist and therefore, workers' participation in decision-making is almost nil especially in non-unionized firms. Aganon, et.al., 1979).

It is not surprising, therefore, to find out that women were not motivated or had the drive to work harder than others. A few of those who work harder said they were motivated to do so because they had relatively bigger responsibilities than others, or that to keep pace with the machines and above all, because they expected to receive more pay or get promoted. Another contribution is the quality of workput in by the women which management indicated as better than those of the men. The more significant contribution women make, however, is towards the stability, peacefulness and discipline in the work community. This was accented

by 84% of management people and forms part of their basis for employing women workers.

As to the benefits women derive from working the following were found:

- a. Relatively low economic benefits as women on the average get only ₱169.00 per week.
- b. Despite their income and their work schedule, a great number had time for leisure, continue their studies and had been able to support others in school. Companies it is good to note, provide subsidized culture-related activities like cultural presentations, piped-in music or picnics.
- c. On security matters, majority had no job security as they were only temporary in status. On the other hand, only a handful of workers (4%) indicated that there were provisions for their age-old security.
- d. Medical services were claimed to have been provided, but only a half of the workers availed of the medical facilities. Child-care facilities for children were provided by at most 4% of the companies (despite the provision of the law for such).

On Self-Reliance, Self-Determination and Sense of Purpose:

A considerable proportion were confident they would progress in the company with their own qualifications. However, it was noted that in general the companies do not give the workers opportunities for growth and advancement. Women workers therefore hardly identify with the company. Almost all probably would choose another company if given the chance but definitely some would opt for other companies. This is more or less an indication of some alienation from the company they work with which does not speak well of management.

IMPLICATIONS:

All these findings point out that women indeed possess the ideal qualities the employers are looking for. And yet the economic and social benefits they give these workers are confined to the minimum. In some cases, they did not even approximate what the law required of them.

In this matter, it is worthwhile looking into the reasons why employers are apathetic against their own workers who give life to their companies. Do they not see the long-run effects of their apathy on the productivity and profitability of their enterprises (not also to mention industrial peace)? This would of course indicate the need for further studies on the matter.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the survey findings, a three-pronged approach will be made that is, recommendations are directed: (a) towards the employers (b) towards the workers and workers organizations and (c) towards government agencies concerned with industrial relations.

A. On the part of the employers:

Two things have been proven in this survey. First, women workers do possess the functional qualifications and the temperament suited to certain kinds of jobs. Second, women workers (in industries where they predominate at least) contribute more to the productivity of the company than their male counterparts since they do the bulk of the work. It is but proper, therefore, to recommend the following:

- a. job enrichment schemes or humanization of work plans to reduce monotony and boredom suffered by workers. In some companies, this takes the form of workers participation in deciding matters which affect them such as in the organization of work.
- b. some forms of relaxation be given to counteract the effects of fatigue and physical exertion, especially for piece-rate workers. Some companies, for instance, let their workers stand up to perform exercises after a period of time. Some offer their workers recreational facilities through which they could "lose themselves in sweet relaxation."
- c. flexible work schedules for those with young children or old and disabled people to take care of.

Philippine society has entrusted to its able-people the care of these groups of people. This would reduce the tension of the worker caused by worrying about those left at home.

d. comparable fringe benefits to male and female workers.

For instance, paternity leaves might be granted to male workers (perhaps 2 or 3 days leave with pay) to enable them to take care of their wives and their newborn babies so that the man can also share in child care. Considering its effects on the family planning program, however, it is also recommended that paternity leaves be limited up to the fourth child only, which is the same limit set by the government for tax exemptions for children.

e. improved medical facilities and health care systems for workers.

As it is, medical facilities and personnel are immensely lacking. In some companies, only a small room equipped with headache medicines and antiseptics are provided. In a big company manned by over seven hundred people, for instance, a mere 9 feet by 6 feet space was designated as the emergency room, with only a bed and a small medicine cabinet as the facilities.

f. systematic job evaluation should be conducted. Here,

differences as to skills required, education and training needed, responsibility, effort and working conditions will be defined and given joint ratings. This could form the basis for pay or salary scales. Where no job evaluation exists, there is no measuring rod against which compensation structures can be constructed.

As such, employees performing different kinds of jobs would be receiving the same pay as was found in one company where a boss-woman was supposedly receiving the same rate as the persons she was supervising.

B. On the Part of the Workers/Workers' Organizations:

1. Workers should remain vigilant of their rights and responsibilities. In other words, they should not be afraid of bringing up their problems to the proper authorities. If not, management would always think that everything is smooth going.
2. Unions and other forms of workers' organization (i.e. informal groups, or cliques) can be marshalled to help improve the lot of the workers. Employers should not also take them for granted because through them, employers can foster the cooperation of the workers as these organizations can be instruments for productivity and discipline in the plant if properly utilized.
3. Unions should look more closely into the needs of women workers. As of now, very few unions are responsive to the problems of its women members because majority relegate them to the background. On the other hand, women should engage more actively in union affairs, fight for their rights and work for more benefits for themselves as well as for their brother workers.
4. Union education and research should be undertaken to encourage both male and female workers to participate more extensively in union affairs. Efforts should be

made to train leaders so that these leaders can perform their roles effectively.

C. On the Part of the Government:

1. Strict enforcement of labor laws especially on shift work. As it was found out by an International Labour Organization survey, shift work are detrimental to women workers and human and social costs of shift work heavily outweigh the advantages of shift work. It is recommended that women, especially those who are pregnant and those who have young children and old or disabled people to take care of, be spared the graveyard shift.
2. The government should encourage participation of women in manpower training programs in order to open more doors to them instead of relegating them to secondary or so-called "women"^{ly}. This would give women opportunities for self-improvement, advancement and growth.
3. Legislations permitting equal opportunities for both sexes to enter fields of their own choosing should be passed. As of now some schools practice discrimination against women in some courses. An equal educational opportunity law would take care of this. A re-examination of the working conditions, as well as the wages and fringe benefits afforded the women in the manufacturing and other industries should also be done. Special emphasis must be given the adherence to labor standards and safety of the workers.

4. On the basis of the "no work-no pay" rule governing workers in the work place, workers paid on piece-rate and daily basis are adversely affected by frequent brownouts in the Metro Manila area where majority of the manufacturing establishments are located. The government who owns MERALCO can help solve the workers problem by adopting measures to minimize or stop completely the occurrence of brownouts. This way the piece-rate and daily-paid workers, who get only a small percentage of their regular pay everytime a brownout occurs, will get the maximum remuneration due them for their day's labor.

The employer can help solve the problem of brownouts by installing devices which allow full utilization of sunlight to light their factories, hence supporting the energy conservation drive of the government. A device like white plastic roofing for factories which allows sunlight to light factories is being adopted by a few manufacturing establishments in Metro Manila.

CONCLUDING STATEMENT

Women everywhere have multiple roles and responsibilities to perform. In the performance of their functions, society expects a lot from them. If they neglect their children, they are blamed for the concomitant child problems like juvenile delinquency and maladjustment. Studies in fact lead to the conclusion that severe identity crises, anxiety and alienation syndromes in children are traceable to the kind of mothers they have. In the home, husbands expect women to be model wives, running the house efficiently as though they are running a business enterprise, and catering to their male needs. Otherwise they would be blamed for their mates infidelity and the break up of their homes.

At the workplace, the demands on women for efficiency are heavier since employers expect a quid pro quo arrangement labor productivity [§] In exchange for wages. There is no room for mistakes in this kind of setting. If not, the ^{law} of the supply and demand in the labor market will apply.

All of this point to one particular aspect, that is, non-cognizance of the peculiar needs of women. Society has done very little to lighten the working woman's burden—home-wise or office-wise. But the situation is not hopeless. Though it would take a long time to change institutionalized norms and values, a light shines through with the aid of researches such as this which focuses on women.

In the final analysis, however, it is the women themselves, through their organized strength and collective consciousness and with the solidarity of their brother workers, who can change the rules in the factory, at home and in the bigger society outside in favor of women's equality and freedom.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Balakhovskaya, L. G. et. al. Women Today. Edited by N. A. Kovalsky. Moscow: Progress Publishers, 1975.
- Bloom, Gordon F. and Herbert R. Northrup. Economics of Labor Relations. 6th ed. Illinois: Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1969.
- Bowen, W. and T. Aldrich Finnigan. The Economics of Labor Force Participation. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1969.
- Castillo, Gella T. The Filipino Woman as Manpower: Image and Empirical Reality. Laguna, Philippines: University of the Philippines, Los Baños, 1976. 263 p.
- Epstein, Cynthia Fuchs. Woman's Place: Options and Limits in Professional Careers. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973. 221 p.
- Glider, George. Sexual Suicide. New York: Bantam Books, 1975.
- Janezey, Elizabeth. Man's World Woman's Place: A Study in Social Mythology. Middlesex: Penguin Books, Ltd., 1977. 350 p.
- Javellana, Yolanda Q. ed. Woman and the Law. Quezon City: UP Law Center, 1975. 120 p.
- Klein, Viola. Woman Workers. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1965.
- Lloyd, Cynthia B. ed. Sex Discrimination and the Division of Labor. New York: Columbia University Press, 1975. 426 p.
- Mangahas, Mahar and Teresa Jayme Ho. Income and Labor Force Participation. Quezon City: IEDR, School of Economics, U. P., 1976. No. 3.
- Marx, Karl and Frederic K. Engels. Selected Works. Vol. II. Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House, 1955. 231-232.
- Mill, John Stuart. On the Subjection of Women. Greenwich: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1971. 127 p.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. The Role of Women in the Economy. Paris, 1975. 125 p.
- Reynolds, Lloyd G. Labor Economics and Labor Relations. New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1974.

Bibliography

Social Research Laboratory. Stereotype, Status and Satisfaction: The Filipina Among Filipinos. Quezon City, Philippines: University of the Philippines, 1977.

Stromberg, Ann and Shirley Harkess. eds. Working Theories and Facts in Perspective. California: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1976. 458 p.

U. S. Department of Labor. Underutilization of Women Workers. 1971.

Ward, Barbara E. ed. Women in New Asia. Paris: UNESCO, 1965. 529 p.

Articles, Reports and Papers

"Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers." Report VIII. ILO Conference, 60th Session, 1975. 40 p.

Gilber, Sylvia M. "Woman and Work in Canada: A Study of Legislation." Information. Canada: Department of Labor, 1974.

Gracia, Pablo de, Jr. "The Problem of Employment Among Women Office Workers." Philippine Journal of Public Administration. (April, 1965). 145-152.

Griffin, James W. "Women in Female-Dominated Professions." Working Women: Theories and Facts in Perspective. Edited by A. Stromberg and S. Harkess. California: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1978.

Institute of Social Studies. Policy Workshop on Women and Development with Special Reference to Rural Women. April 1-July 11, 1977. Report. 102 p.

Islam, Mahmuda. "Women at Work in Bangladesh." Women for Women. Bangladesh: University Press Ltd., 1975.

Jones, J. H. "Japanese Women and the Dual Track Employment System." Pacific Affairs. 49:589-605 (Winter 1976-1977)

Kryszewski, Mary Dublin. "Womanpower - An Underutilized Resource." Unemployment Resources Review. U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration. (February, 1978).

Mancke, R. B. "Lower Pay for Women: A Case of Economic Discrimination?" Industrial Relations. (10 Oct. 1971). 316-326.

Bibliography

- Morris, Monica B. "Inequalities in the Labor Force: Three Sociological Explanations." Working Women: Theories and Facts in Perspective. Edited by A. Stromberg and S. Harkess. California: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1978. 162-175.
- Nickall, S. J. "Trade Unions and the Position of Women in the Industrial Wage Structure." British Journal of Industrial Relations. XV: 2 (July, 1977) (192-210).
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. Employment of Women. Final Report of the Regional Trade Union Seminar held in Paris, 26-29 November 1968.
- Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development. The Role of Women in the Economy. Paris, 1975. 125 p.
- Oshima, Harry T. Economic Development Planning and the Role of Women. Paper read at the Regional Population Seminar for Trade Union Women held in Manila on October 14-27, 1973.
- Patterson, Michelle and Laurie Engalberg. "Women in Male-Dominated Professions." Working Women. Edited by A. Stromberg and S. Harkess. California: Mayfield Publishing Co., 1978. 266-292.
- Simmons, Adale, Ann Freeman, Margaret Dunkle and Francine Blarr. Exploitation from 9 to 5. Report of the Twentieth Century Trend Task Force on Women and Employment. London: Lexington Books, 1975. 200 p.
- Sison, P. S. "The Role of Women in Business and Industry." International Labor Review. (February, 1963). 118-132.
- Tay, Aline Ech-Soon. "The Status of Women in the Soviet Union." Philippine Law Journal. (April, 1977). 123-153.
- "Women at Work." Labor Research. 61 (March, 1972). 46-48.
- "Working Women Especially Burdened." DGB Report. (Trade Union Information from the Federal Republic of Germany) No. 14-4/1978E. p. 6.

Unpublished Thesis

- Guillergan, Perla J. "Patterns of Female Participation in the Labor Force in Mandaluyong and Quiapo-San Miguel." Unpublished M. A. Thesis. University of the Philippines School of Economics, 1969.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Balakhouskaya, L. G. Berezinaya, N. A. et al. Women Today. USSR:

Progress Publishers, 1975. 333 pages.

Originally written in Russian, this work presents a comparative account of the status of women in developed capitalist countries, developing nations and in socialist societies. The book covers problems facing womankind. It also features international institutions which are fighting for the solution of these problems.

The authors emphasized that there can be no radical change in the status of women nor can they be truly liberated under capitalism. They saw a direct link between the struggle against monopolies and the struggle for liberation and socio-economic rights, both of which are closely linked with the struggle for peace. They called, therefore, for solidarity among women of the world to guarantee the preservation of peace, which is an essential condition for the solution of vital social problems confronting women.

Castillo, Gelia T. The Filipino Woman as Manpower: Image and Empirical Reality. Laguna, Philippines: UP Los Baños, 1976, 263 pages.

The study deals with women's participation in the labor forces. It provides data on employment of urban and rural women as well as men according to occupation and industry groups. It also gives information on industry groups and occupation where females predominate. All these relevant information are presented to depict the picture of the Filipino woman. From the author's discussion of the Filipina as a member of the Filipino working wife, a child-bearer, a decision maker, a participant in politics, etc., the reader could get an image of the multiplicity of roles and realities faced by the Filipino woman--that creature who is sometimes "emancipated and liberated," sometimes "coy, retiring, and subservient."

Lipstein, Cynthia Fuchs. Women's Place: Options and Limits in Professional Careers. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1973. 221 pages.

Epstein theorized that American women underperform, underachieve, and underproduce. Why this is so and how it occurs is the focus of this book. For this, she used the sociological approach to identify the social factors that assign women to their place and keep them in their place.

Concerned with women's lack of participation in the prestigious occupational spheres traditionally reserved for men, the author looked into problems of participation that women encounter. She examined thus the ideals, images and ideology of women and women's roles, the socialization of women's roles as well as the structure of professions and how they affect women's participation. An insight is also given on the inside professional life of women in America and the changing cultural environment within which women have to adjust to.

Although countless sex-related problems pose obstacles to the professional participation of women in the labor force, the author noted that there are several situations which help minimize the effects of sex status. However, she indicated that chances are that women who enter professional life and remain in it either come from environments who have minimized the obstacles or ~~are~~ those who have the good fortune to possess personalities that refuse to recognize the obstacles as more than the rough spots of any normal life. Nevertheless, few women, as Epstein indicated, are graduates of this school of hard knocks.

"Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers." Report VIII.

ILO Conference, 60th Session, 1975, 40 page

This report gives a general picture of women in the labor force in the developed and underdeveloped countries of the world and touches on factors affecting the evolution of women's employment, vocational guidance and training, the search for equality of opportunity in employment and occupation, the right to maternity protection and family planning, and strengthening the social infrastructure as well as employment and family responsibilities.

A discussion of problems of women in the Third World is also included.

Gelber, Sylvia M. "Women and Work in Canada: A Study of Legislation."
Information. Canada Department of Labor.

This is an address delivered by Ms. Gelber, Director of the Women's Bureau of Canada to the 23rd Annual Conference held at the Industrial Relations Center at McGill University, Montreal, on April 3, 1974. She compared legislations affecting Canada women and their US counterparts. Legislations favorable to Canadian women that are not enjoyed by US women workers were discussed in this article. She also mentioned data on women's labor force participation, their educational levels and occupations.

Ms. Gelber concluded that while labor laws in her country provide some measure of regulation with respect to equal pay and discrimination, these have not achieved equal pay for women in practice. She also pointed out that there is a continuing and ever-increasing occupational segregation of the female labor force in low-paying occupations.

Institute of Social Studies. Policy Workshop on Women and Development:
With Special Reference to Rural Women. April 1 - July 31, 1977.
Report. 102 pages

This monograph incorporates the results of the discussions and country papers submitted by women coming from Bangladesh, Ghana, Peru, Chile, Somalia, Mexico, Sri Lanka and Jamaica. A lot of insights can be derived from the country experiences of these women, most of whom dwelt on the "sexual oppression" of women in the Third World. Some of these women clamor not only for equal participation in the affairs of society, but also for more humane treatment. The country papers tries to document all of this. For instance, a country paper reported that female circumcision is still practised in their country. Many women ^{also are} subjected to slavery and early marriages ^{and} some are ^{even} excluded from owning and disposing property.

Janeway, Elizabeth. Man's World, Woman's Place: A Study in

Social Mythology. Middlesex; Penguin Books Ltd., 1977 350 page.

How the myth concerning the division of the world by sexes evolved and how it operates is the subject of this book. As such, it re-examines ideas held about women and their role. For this, the author explored various societal beliefs in order to understand the dimensions involved in the dichotomy of man's world, woman's place. She assumes too that only myth-thinking expects take for granted and the attitudes they assume.

The book presents an accumulation of various writings, which give indications of the roles women play throughout the centuries -- roles which stem from societal beliefs about woman's place versus man's terrain. Pointed quotations were used by the author as starting point of every chapter to emphasize the point that the myth is all pervading. Nevertheless, the book also recognizes that there are developments which threaten to change the myth. But the author indicated that neither logic nor compulsion will eradicate the demarcation lines, between the sexes as the myth is ingrained in the feelings.

Javellana, Yolanda Q. (Ed.). Woman and the Law. (Quezon City: UP Law Center, 1975. 120 pages.

Incorporated in this monograph are lectures of notable women in Philippine society like Dr. Irene R. Cortes, Judge Lourdes P. San Diego, Director Florida Ruth Rosasco, Atty. Tecla San Andres Ziga, Dr. Liceria R. Soriano and Dr. Lourdes Sanvictores - - all delivered in a three-day Roundtable Conference on the topic, "Achieving for Women Full Equality Before the Law," held at the UP Law Center, Quezon City.

The topics include discussions on women's right under the 1973 constitution, women in the family law, protective legislation for women labor, and the present status of Filipino women in fields like politics government, education and business. Some of the lectures include useful statistics for purposes of documentation.

The papers presented are not limited to a statement of current conditions of the Filipinas. A historical analysis of Filipino women's participation in the different fields is also included plus a discussion on the Philippine culture, traditions and customs which affect women participation in society as well as the changing conditions and outlooks which led to some revisions in the law.

Jones, J. H. "Japanese Women and the Dual Track Employment System."

Pacific Affairs. 49: 589-606 (Winter 1976-1977)

Jones discusses the dual track employment system practiced in Japan. Based on the socially-determined roles set for men and women, the idea goes: man live by work; women live by marriage. The employment system reflects this. Thus, there is the wide discrepancy in wage scales for males and females in the various age groups. Promotions based on seniority are faster for men than women. Retirement pay is less for women. Men receive such benefits as housing and special emoluments which are denied to women workers.

These conditions exist in Japan even if the Japanese constitution provides equality of the sexes before the law and also despite the fact that Japan was a signatory of ILO convention No. 100 which called for equal remuneration. Jones opined that it is the vagueness of the laws on equality which allows for the interpretation by management in a manner suitable to company policies.

Keyserling, Mary Dublin. "Womempower - An Underutilized Resource,"

in Unemployment Insurance Review. US Department of Labor, Manpower
Administration. Feb. 1978. 6 pages.

Reasons are given about why half of all women between ages 35-55
are new labor force participants. But this article does not give any
explanation on why women are concentrated in less-skilled, less-paid
occupations such that their talents are under-utilized.

It nevertheless reports on the creation of state commissions on
the Status of Women in the US and the tasks these commissions accomplished
for women.

Lloyd, Cynthia B. (Ed.). Sex, Discrimination and the Division of Labor.

New York: Columbia University Press, 1975. 426 pages.

The collection of essays presented in this book depicts new directions in economic research on women. They were written in response to the need to explain the dynamics involved in the dramatic rise in female labor force participation. However, the book does not limit itself to this aspect. Consisting of five parts, it examined the various difficulties encountered by women workers such as unemployment, wage differentials, discrimination and occupational segregation. It also looks into the effects of some government policies on the economic position of women and the economics of women's liberation.

Mancke, R. B. "Lower Pay for Women: A Case of Economic Discrimination?"
Industrial Relations. 10 (Oct. 1971) pp. 316-326.

The paper debunks the widely-held beliefs in the US that women are simply victims of economic discrimination with respect to pay, because the main reason for this are sex-related physical limitations.

The author found out that most women neither earn the same wages nor hold the same jobs as equally productive men because employers believe that on the average, the turnover probability is much higher for women than it is for men. Three approaches were thus suggested which might lead to the elimination of sex-related pay disparities.

Mangahas, Mahar and Ho, Teressa Jayme. Income and Labor Force

Participation. Quezon City: IEDR, School of Economics, UP,
1970, no. 3.

The findings show that there is a general tendency for female labor force participation rate to go down. The authors explain that the main factor depressing this labor force participation rate is the increasing number of Filipinas going to school. Despite this decreasing trend, however, the female labor force has been steadily increasing due to growth in the population base.

This work also gives data on the incomes of women compared to men in various industries including some explanations for their wage differentials.

Mill, John Stuart. On the Subjection of Women. Greenwich: Fawcett Publications, Inc., 1971. 127 pages.

This book contains the complete text of the original edition of an essay Mill wrote more than a century ago. It was written 60 years before British women fully won the right to vote and 25 years before the Married Women's Property Act. Many of Mill's arguments are addressed towards the issues of enfranchisement and property rights. The book provides interesting insights on things like why women remain behind the men, even in pursuits which are open to both sexes, and also what benefits are to be expected from giving women the free use of their faculties.

Though conceived several decades ago, its ideas are timeless as they deal with matters which holds true even today. For instance, the author's images of bondage and slavery describing women's status in society still persist in most societies.

Nickell, S. J. "Trade Unions and the Position of Women in the Industrial Wage Structure." British Journal of Industrial Relations. 15: 2 (July 1977), pp. 192-210.

This article reports the results of an empirical study which examined the impact of unions on the wages of men and women. Nickell analyzed the incidence of fringe benefit schemes as well as the relationship between the collective bargaining structure and salient aspects of the labor market.

A number of wage regressions over a large cross-section of minimum list-heading industries is presented.

Findings indicate that unionization does increase female wages slightly more than the men's when they are covered by local or national collective bargaining agreements. Women are under-represented in high-wage industries so membership in a union with strong local bargaining power is their only hope in enhancing their positions and of raising their wages at the level of their male counterparts.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Developments. Employment of Women. Final Report of the Regional Trade Union Seminar held in Paris, 26th-29th November, 1963. 385 pages.

The purpose of the seminar was to provide trade union representatives with a clear picture of all aspects of the problems involved in the employment of women to help them in defending the interests of women. As such, the different dimensions of women's participation in employment were discussed. At the first part, the extent of women's employment by country and sector was tackled together with the role of women in modern society from sociological and economic viewpoints. Other papers discussed certain aspects of women employment, working conditions of women and social services designed to help women combine work and family responsibilities. Included here is a discussion on what role trade unionism has with regards to the employment of women.

Country reports of participants from Austria, Denmark, France, Ireland, Italy and Norway were likewise presented to get a clear picture of the status of working women in these countries.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development. The Role of Women in the Economy. Paris, 1975. 125 pages

The following report contains a synthesis of the response submitted to ten member countries (Australia, Belgium, Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Italy, Japan, Sweden and the US) to the OECD request for information on various aspects of women's development. It covers the following features: women's participation in the labor force, patterns of employment and unemployment, the differences in status and possibilities for advancement, including differences in pay, problems of family responsibilities and child care facilities, and the taxation, social security measures and legislation affecting women employment.

The book presents reliable statistics and useful data on the subject indicated above. It presents a comparative picture of various country situations on the status of women in the economy.

Oshima, Harry T, 1973. Economic Development, Planning and the Role of Women. Paper presented at the Asian Trade Union Women Seminar on Population and National Development, 14-27, October, 1973. Manila, Philippines.

Oshima reviewed briefly the nature and results of development planning in East and Southeast Asia. He concluded that as a whole, planning failed, mainly because of the development strategy adopted. He described the major problems that occurred as a result of the failures and the emerging labor-intensive strategy in Southeast Asia.

Women, he averred, can make various contributions to this new strategy. They have multiple roles to perform: as workers, they contribute to the growth of real GNP per capita; as child-rearers, they can help change social values; as the ones in charge of budgeting, marketing and other household business, they can study what is "rational" spending and saving patterns; etc.

Oshima stressed that women's role in national development is most important from the point of view of a labor-intensive strategy of development, especially in Southeast Asia. He thus encouraged women to consider the roles he outlined, and take part actively in community organizations which can make these labor-intensive schemes operate effectively, rather than to compete with men for jobs in the labor market.

Simons, Adale, Freedman, Anri, Dunkla, Margaret and Blarr, Francine.

Exploitation from 9 to 5. Report of the Twentieth Century

Front Task Force on Woman and Employment. London: Lexington
Books, 1975. 200 pages.

The treatise of this book is that women, no matter what their qualifications are, inevitably suffer from discrimination. They are channeled into low-status, low-paying jobs. They work in "female occupations" which are neither unionized nor protected by legislations. They have slim chances for top management jobs and they are denied the realization of their potentials.

This work thus describes how employers, unions and government agencies treat women workers. It also points out the crucial role education plays in developing sex-role concepts and in laying down the demarcation line between the sexes.

The members of the task force which undertook this report drew up guidelines for those in a position to end sex discrimination in the labor force.

Wison, P. S. "The Role of Women in Business and Industry." International Labor Review. (February, 1963), pp. 110-132.

The article summarizes the role of the Filipino woman from the Spanish period to the present. Briefly, it discusses legislations affecting women, literacy, vocational training and women in industry.

Other issues like wages and hours of work are also touched. In this regard, the author cited statistics to indicate that female workers generally are paid much lower than male workers.

Social Research Laboratory. Stereotypes, Status and Satisfaction: The
Filipina Among Filipinos. Quezon City, University of the Philippines,
1977.

This survey explores the status, social relations and stereotypes attached to Filipino women in carrying out their various roles. A series of four papers present the outcomes of this survey. One paper focuses on "Women in Marriage," discussing the multiple roles women play in the home. Another looks into "Women and Work" and explains why some women work while others do not. This also compares the work behavior of men and women. An article titled "Struggle for Prestige" examines factors determining women's occupational prestige. The last write-up dwells on "Personality, Stereotypes and Attitudes." Here, differences in cultural values between men and women are discussed. Socialization and early childhood experiences are cited as crucial in the formation of male-female roles.

Stromberg, Ann and Harkess, Shirley (Ed.). Working Theories and Facts in Perspective. California: Mayfield Publishing Company, 1978. 458 pages.

This is a collection of articles written by different social scientists from various universities in the US. Overall, the book emphasizes the differences between the work experiences of men and women: how their socialization and education prepare them for different work roles, how their life cycles and careers interact in distinct ways, and how their positions -and mobility in organizational hierarchies differ.

This accumulation of readings reflect the growing concern for a better understanding of the role of women in the labor force. It offers empirical data and analysis, critiques of previous theories and models, alternative theoretical bases and some projections about the future.

Economic, sociological and legal appraisals are made about women at work. Taken together, the articles here indicate that the work experiences of women and men differ. The editors concluded that it would be invalid to study men (as most studies did in the past) and then generalize on women by implication.

US Department of Labor. Underutilization of Women Workers. 1971,
25 pages.

The monograph answers questions as why women work. It discusses also the earning gaps between men and women workers as well as women's share in professional and technical work.

It reports that while it is true that women and men in the US have comparable educational attainments, starting salaries of women college graduates are lower than men. However, no reasons are given for this. Likewise women are said to have a declining share in professional and technical work. The article discloses that many women are underutilized in relation to their educational achievement, have high unemployment rates among their adults and have high poverty incidence among families headed by women.

Pani, Barbara E. (Ed.). Women in the New Asia. Paris, UNESCO, 1965.

529 pages.

The main focus of the book is on the changing social roles of men and women in South and Southeast Asia. It is a collection of studies which describe the impact of the new public status of women upon the private and domestic lives of both sexes in countries like Burma, Ceylon, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Pakistan, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Vietnam.

The book consists of three parts. An introductory essay by the editor starts with a discussion on understanding the social roles of women in South and Southeast Asia. Part II represents the main focus of the book personal accounts of women's experiences in the different countries mentioned. Sociological studies were appended to support the auto biographical narrations. The two approaches were presented in an effort to obtain true comparability. However, this proved difficult to attain due to the differences in training and outlook of the contributors of the articles. Nevertheless, the articles are informative as they presented true-to-life-experiences of women in different societies.

Part III presents a study of women's emancipation movements in Southern Asia and a demographic survey which discussed the prospects faced by an expanding population.

"Women at Work" Labour Research 61: p. 46-48 (March 1972)

The article provides data about British women at work. Like their counterparts in other countries, these women are victims of low pay, whether they be skilled or unskilled, compared to British men. The author explains that discrepancy exists because women undertake very little overtime work or shift work. Women are not allowed night work without the permission from the company. Moreover they have two jobs: to look after a home and a family, as well as being "gainfully employed."

"Working Women Especially Burdened." DGB Report. No. 14-4 1978.

(Trade Union Information from the Federal Republic of Germany)

page 6.

This reports the main findings by the Sociological Research Institute of Goppingen University on working women. The highlights are as follows:

1. More and more women are taking on the double load of job and housekeeping.
2. Job satisfaction depends on the degree of vocational qualifications.
3. A high degree of work satisfaction exists. Most women (73%) preferred working with attitudes varying with vocational status.
4. With regards to pay, 90% regarded themselves as discriminated against in comparison with men.
5. Main stresses named are: time pressure (31%), one-sided physical strains (31%), permanent concentration (22%), environmental conditions (20%), heavy physical strains (41%), sensory burdens (11%). Both physical and nerve strains were ~~felt to be~~ intolerable in the long run by 38% of the women.
6. Wage-earning women have the greatest household workloads.