

DISCRIMINATION AGAINST WOMEN AND EMPLOYMENT POLICIES*

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PART ONE

I. INTRODUCTORY

A. Definition of Terms

1. *Discrimination*, generally speaking, is a failure to treat all equally.¹ The UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women defines discrimination against women as:

...any distinction, exclusion or restriction made on the basis of sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field.²

2. *Employment policy* here refers to a course of action selected from alternatives and in the light of given condition to guide decisions governing relations arising from work for which compensation is paid.

Employment policy may be that of the government or the private sector. Government employment policy regulates employment not only in the government service but also in the private sector."

Employment policies as part of positive law may be found in the constitution, in statutes, and in subordinate implementing legislation promulgated by executive and administrative authorities. Employment policies adopted by private individuals, corporations or other forms of organization for their guidance are subject to laws governing employment. The frame of reference of this inquiry limits it to employment policies as they affect women.

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¹ Black's Law Dictionary, (Rev. Fourth ed. 1968).

² A/34/830 and A/34/L.61. The Convention which was signed by 86 states and ratified by 23, among the latter being the Philippines, went into effect on 3 September 1981, the required ratification of twenty states having been attained.

B. Status of Women and Employment Policies

Status of women is said to be the conjunction of positions a woman occupies at any one point in time, as a worker, student, wife, mother, church member, political worker or whatever, and of the rights and duties she is expected to exercise in her active role as occupant of these positions.³ Although it is determined by a combination of many factors law defines the rights, duties, capacities and incapacities of women. No inquiry into employment policies affecting them can be dissociated from the law and other factors determinative of their status.

The different treatment of women in the employment field whether in their prejudice can be traced to a people's culture as well as to positive law. It may happen that the policy clearly enunciated by explicit provisions of the constitution or statutory enactment meet obstacles in implementation because of practices rooted in tradition. A realization of this will make it easier to appreciate the subject under inquiry.

A quick look at women in pre-colonial Philippines, through centuries of colonial rule to the present would disclose factors which influence employment policies affecting them.

Pre-colonial women enjoyed a position equal to men, but laws imposed under foreign rule relegated them to a subordinate position. Thus, the Spanish Civil Code which was extended to the Philippines in 1889 and except for some few changes, remained in force until its revision in 1949, gave the husband substantial power over the person and the property of his wife. The law on the rights and obligations of the spouses was both protective and effectively restrictive on the wife. By explicit provision the husband had the duty to protect the wife and the latter the legal duty to obey him.⁴ As a rule she had to follow wherever he established his residence.⁵ He administered the conjugal property;⁶ represented his wife who could not without his permission appear in any judicial proceeding in person or by attorney except in specified cases.⁷ Until the law was amended, the restrictions extended to her right to alienate her paraphernal property and to enter into contracts.⁸

Notwithstanding these inhibitions, married women in the Philippines enjoy a degree of autonomy, which the laws do not accord them. For example, they keep the family purse and freely engage in business. This was true even before changes in the law removed the more restrictive limita-

³ Sipila, Study of the Interrelationship of the Status of Women and Family Planning, U.N. Commission on the Status of Women, E/CN. 6/575, 27 November 1973.

⁴ CIVIL CODE, art. 57.

⁵ CIVIL CODE, art. 58.

⁶ CIVIL CODE, art. 59.

⁷ CIVIL CODE, art. 60.

⁸ CIVIL CODE, art. 61.

tions imposed on them. Traditions and practices rooted in history have surmounted legal restrictions.

However, prospective employers could ill afford to disregard the family obligations and legal disabilities of married women applying for employment. Some employers went so far as to adopt the policy of employing only single women and imposing as condition for employment that marriage would automatically terminate it.⁹ Societal attitudes also come into play.

Employment policies affecting women adopted as positive law during the American administration evince protectiveness and paternalism.^{9a} However, they did not escape challenge arising from the dominant social theory of the time. Thus, the constitutionality of an act of the Philippine Legislature regulating the employment of women and children and providing for maternity leave with pay was questioned in *People v. Pomar*.¹⁰ The Supreme Court declared the maternity leave provision unconstitutional for impairing the obligation of contract.

II. POSITIVE LAW AND EMPLOYMENT POLICIES

The 1953 constitution not only explicitly declared that the promotion of social justice to insure the well-being and economic security of all the people shall be the concern of the state¹¹ but also provided:

The state shall afford protection to labor, especially to working women and minors, and shall regulate the relations between landowner and tenant, and between labor and capital in industry and in agriculture. The state may provide for compulsory arbitration.¹²

These provisions precluded constitutional objections against labor and social legislation which from the Commonwealth period onwards progressively regulated the employment of women and children. Maternity leave with pay in both public and private employment was provided,¹³ special requirements like providing seats, nurseries were imposed¹⁴ and a Women and Minors Bureau was established in the Department of Labor.¹⁵

But these protective legislation had counter-productive effects. Employers become wary of recruiting women because of the added expenses entailed and adopted policies which worked to their disadvantage. Some firms employed unmarried women and imposed the condition that marriage would automatically terminate employment. *Yuseco v. Simmons*¹⁶ was the first

⁹ Discussed *infra*.

^{9a} Act No. 3071 (1923).

¹⁰ 46 Phil. 440 (1924).

¹¹ CONST. (1973), art. II, sec. 5.

¹² CONST. (1973), art. XIV, sec. 5.

¹³ Com. Act No. 647, 1941 as amended.

¹⁴ Rep. Act No. 679 (1952).

¹⁵ Rep. Act No. 2714 (1960).

¹⁶ 97 Phil. 847 (1955).

case challenging the validity of one such agreement on the issue of discrimination based on sex. But on a technicality the Supreme Court withheld relief.

The restriction was not confined to the private sector. Those in the Women's Auxiliary Corps labored under the same disadvantage. Under the law: "Any unmarried and without dependent female citizen of the Philippines, between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five years, able-bodied, free of disease, of good moral character and habits and who is a high school graduate may be enlisted in the Women's Auxiliary Corps for a term of three years"¹⁷ . . . and a proviso states: "upon contracting marriage, they shall be automatically separated or discharged from the service."¹⁸

Through the constant agitation of women leaders with the support of male legislators some of the more onerous discriminatory provisions of the Civil Code affecting women were removed or modified. Thus important breakthrough was the law giving women the management and control of their own paraphernal property.¹⁹ The 1949 revision of the Civil Code removed other restrictions, but not entirely, for the present Code still gives the husband the power to veto her practice of a profession or conduct of a trade or business provided he can demonstrate to the court that he has good reason for so objecting and that he can support his family in the style to which it is accustomed.²⁰ The discriminatory legal provisions referred to in this paper affect the status and have substantial bearing on women's employment.

The 1973 Constitution incorporates provisions which fundamentally affect employment policies. The social justice provision has been expanded²¹ and more detailed provisions on employment are made:

The state shall afford protection to labor, *promote full employment and equality in employment, ensure equal work opportunities regardless of sex, race or creed*, and regulate the relations between workers and employers. The state shall assure the rights of workers to self-organization, collective bargaining, security of tenure, and just and humane conditions of work. The State may provide for compulsory arbitration.²²

¹⁷ Rep. Act No. 3835, (1963), sec. 3.

¹⁸ Rep. Act No. 3835, sec. 5. This was subsequently amended by Presidential Decree No. 1043 (1976) liberalizing the rule on marriage, by providing that "any commission officer or enlisted woman who contracts marriage while in active service shall be automatically separated from the service, unless she has, at the time of said marriage, already completed at least five (5) years of continuous active military service in the AFP." The decree then extends the maternity leave benefits of female employees in government to those who satisfy the above conditions and also provides that those members of the Women's Auxiliary Corps whose membership in the WAC had been previously terminated on account of marriage could, subject to the same condition of five years completed service, be called to active duty.

¹⁹ Act No. 3922 (1932).

²⁰ CIVIL CODE, art. 117.

²¹ CONST. (1973), art. II, sec. 6 and sec. 7.

²² CONST. (1973), art. II, sec. 9.

The difference between the employment policies relative to women in the foregoing provision and that of the 1935 constitution is noteworthy. While the earlier basic law followed the protective and paternalistic approach, classifying women with minors for special treatment, the 1973 provision enunciates the egalitarian view, eschewing discrimination based on sex.

To implement the policies thus announced Presidential Decree No. 442 known as the Labor Code of the Philippines was promulgated in 1974.²³ Under it, however, women continue to be classified with minors as pertaining to special groups of employees²⁴ for whom special provisions are made as to nightwork, certain facilities required, e.g., seats, separate toilet rooms and lavatories, nurseries in the workplace²⁵ and as to whom regulations may be issued determining appropriate minimum age and other standards for retirement or termination in special occupation such as those of flight attendants and the like.^{25a} It will be noted that this paragraph by inadvertence or design is involved in the provision on "Facilities for Women." In this way its implications for discriminating against women can easily be overlooked.

At the same time, the labor Code prohibits discrimination against women, outlaws stipulations against marriage and enumerates unlawful acts of employers.

ART. 135. *Discrimination prohibited.* No employer shall discriminate against any woman with respect to terms and conditions of employment on account of her sex. Equal remuneration shall be paid to both men and women for work of equal value.

ART. 136. *Stipulation against marriage.* It shall be unlawful for an employer to require as a condition of employment or for continuation of employment that a woman employee shall not get married, or stipulate expressly or tacitly that upon getting married a woman employee shall be deemed resigned or separated, or to actually dismiss, discharge, discriminate or otherwise prejudice a woman employee merely by reason of her marriage.

ART. 137. *Prohibited acts.*— (a) It shall be unlawful for any employer:

(a) To deny any woman employee the benefits provided for in this Chapter or to discharge any woman employed by him for the purpose of preventing her from enjoying any of the benefits provided under this Code;

(2) To discharge such woman on account of her pregnancy, or while on leave or in confinement due to her pregnancy; or

(3) To discharge or refuse the admission of such woman upon returning to her work for fear that she may again be pregnant.

For purposes of labor and social legislation the group of women "suffered or permitted to work, with or without compensation, in any night

²³ This has been amended many times.

²⁴ Book III, Title III.

²⁵ LABOR CODE, Art. 132 (a)-(c).

^{25a} LABOR CODE, Art. 132 (d).

club, cocktail lounge clinic, bar or similar establishment, under the effective control or supervision of the employer for a substantial period of time as determined by the Secretary of Labor" is considered as an employee of such establishment for purposes of labor and social legislation.²⁶

The application of these provisions to specific cases is contributing in no small way in the hard and long struggle to obtain for women equality of treatment in employment.

The landmark decision was rendered by the Secretary (Minister) of Labor in the case of *Zialcita v. Philippine Air Lines, Inc.*²⁷ where a flight stewardess sued the PAL for discharging her because she had gotten married. The airlines policy was the flight attendants must be single, and that their employment would be automatically terminated in the event they subsequently married.

The Secretary of Labor, assuming direct jurisdiction over the case decided in favor of the complainant and found that the company rule contravened the constitution and the Labor Code. (The decision has population and family planning undertones.) To justify the rule, the respondent company had contended that pregnancy was an inevitable consequence of marriage and that service would be adversely affected. The Secretary of Labor totally rejected the claim:

The position of respondent company is based on a tradition-bound but factually inaccurate assumption. Clearly, to get married does not necessarily mean to get pregnant. On the other hand, getting married or remaining single is not a guarantee against pregnancy. One can get pregnant without being married; in the same way, one can get married without getting pregnant.

In fact, in this age of family planning, a married flight attendant should have even, if not better chances of not getting pregnant than an unmarried one, if she so desires. . . .

Therefore, the fear of respondent company that its flight attendants will get pregnant upon getting married with all its implications need not have any basis. This fear, though commendable, is a product of a tradition-based imagination.

According to the Secretary, if married flight attendants become inefficient, a valid basis for dismissal would then be available. However, no award for back wages was made in this case. The Secretary indicated that the complainant was not entirely faultless, since neither she nor her union protested against the regulation when she joined the company, and the company had enforced the policy in good faith for many years. Nevertheless, this case represents a major gain in women's rights, and the complainant appealed the back wages issue.

²⁶ This is the "hospitality girls" provision, Art. 138 of the Labor Code, Applied in *Ocenar et als. v. Amihan Night Club*, NLRC Case No. LR-IV, 853-74, March 3, 1976.

²⁷ Case No. RO4-5-3-3399-76, May 27, 1976.

Still pending final determination are cases filed by female flight attendants against the PAL challenging a retirement plan incorporated in the CBA agreement between the company and the union (PASAP) pegging the retirement age of female attendants at 30 as against the male attendants at 40.²⁸

The observance of International Women's Year, and the conference in Mexico City in 1975 with the subsequent UN declaration of 1975-1985 as International Women's Decade drew the attention of people and governments to women's issues.

In preparation for the Mexico Conference the National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW) was established as the national mechanism "to review, evaluate and recommend measures, including priorities to ensure the full integration of women for economic, social, and cultural development at national, regional and international levels and to ensure further equality between men and women."²⁹ Besides being charged with preparing the Philippine program for implementation for the 1975 International Women's Year Conference which was later continued for the Women's Decade, the NCRFW is given *inter alia* advisory function in the formulation of policies and implementing programs on increase contribution by women in national development.

The Philippines is party to international conventions and agreements affecting the status of women as well as employment policies. The latest of these is the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women which binds parties to the Convention not only to avoid acts discriminatory to women and to eliminate all forms of discrimination but also to adopt temporary special measures aimed at accelerating *de facto* equality between men and women.³⁰

By Letter of Instruction No. 974³¹ addressed to all ministries, offices, agencies, instrumentalities, local governments and government-owned and controlled corporations, President Marcos directed these offices: (1) to take affirmative steps to implement the constitutional, treaty, and statutory mandates for the promotion, regardless of sex, of equality in employment, equal work opportunities, and equal pay for work of equal value; (2) to afford women opportunity to participate in planning, policy and decision-making; and (3) to eliminate in government or private enterprises subject to the office's jurisdiction or with which they deal or transact any business, practices which contrary to the provisions of the Constitution, laws and international conventions and other agreements entered into by the Philippines, discriminate against women where no reasonable bases for classification on the basis of sex exists. The LOI reaches out to private employment under item 3.

²⁸ Laurel et als. v. Philippine Airlines, Inc., NLRC Case No. 330, April 4, 1977.

²⁹ Preamble, Pres. Decree No. 633 (1975).

³⁰ *Supra*, note 2, Art. 2 and 4.

³¹ Issued on January 5, 1980.

Periodic reports to the Office of the President are required and the NCRFW has been given the function of monitoring compliance with the LOI.

For adequate treatment of the subject under discussion it is not enough to present the law and jurisprudence on discrimination against women and employment policies or to deal only with its theoretical aspects. It is as important if not more so to determine in the face of the announced state policies and in Philippine international commitments, the actuality of women in employment. For this purpose the NCRFW research staff put together data gathered through its monitoring activities under LOI 974, obtained statistics from offices of government like the Civil Service Commission, the Ministry of Labor in addition to those of NCSO and commissioned an exploratory research on the private sector. The results are summed up in what follows with tables and other materials appended.

PART TWO

I. THE NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT PICTURE

A. Labor Force: Government and Private

Data from the 1978 fourth quarter survey of the National Census and Statistics Office estimated the total working age population (15 years and over) at 27.169 million. More than half of this number were in the labor force. Females comprised 50.51% of total working age population but only 37% of those in the labor force. They constituted 36% of the total employed and 62% of the unemployed. Of the 9.806 million enumerated non-labor force members, three fourth were females.

HOUSEHOLD POPULATION 15 YEARS AND OVER BY EMPLOYMENT STATUS, BY SEX, URBAN AND RURAL, (IN THOUSANDS)
FOURTH QUARTER 1978

Employment Status	Both Sexes	1978		%F
		Male	Female	
PHILIPPINES	27,169	13,444	13,724	50.51
In the Labor Force	17,362	10,939	6,423	36.99
Employed	16,668	10,677	5,991	35.94
Unemployed	694	262	432	62.25
Not in the Labor Force	9,806	2,505	7,301	74.45
URBAN	9,518	4,510	5,007	52.61
In the Labor Force	5,509	3,217	2,293	41.62
Employed	5,185	3,065	2,121	40.91
Unemployed	324	152	172	53.09
Not in the Labor Force	4,008	1,293	2,715	67.74
RURAL	17,651	8,934	8,717	49.39
In the Labor Force	11,853	7,722	4,136	34.89
Employed	11,483	7,612	3,871	33.71
Unemployed	370	110	265	71.62
Not in the Labor Force	5,798	1,212	4,586	79.10

SOURCE: National Census and Statistics Office.

Some changes in the representation of female vis-a-vis the males occurred between the above figure and those of 1975. In 1975, females represented only 34.1% of those in the labor force and 33.8% of the total employed. While the unemployed females formed 62% of the total in 1978, they figured only 41% in 1975.

Urban-Rural

Urban-rural data indicated a better employment picture of the urban female compared to her rural counterpart. Survey figures show that in 1978, 52.6% of the urban population 15 years and above were females. They constituted 42% of those in labor force, 41% of the employed and 53% of the unemployed. Only about 68% of the urban non-LF members were females. The rural figures reveal that females accounted for 35% of the LF members, 34% of the employed, 72% of the unemployed, and 79% of non-LF members.

Differences in the male and female employment status were evident in the 1978 survey. Of the total female population 15 years and over, only 47% were in the labor force. Of those in the labor force, 93.3% were economically active while 6.7% were not working. Comparative male figures indicate that more than 80% of the total male working age group were in the LF; 97.6% of those in the LF were working and only 2.4% were not working. Higher unemployment rates were observed for both males and females in the urban areas.

EMPLOYMENT STATUS	MALE	FEMALE
PHILIPPINES	100.00	100.00
In the Labor Force	81.37	46.8
Employed	97.6	93.3
Unemployed	2.4	6.7
Not in the Labor Force	18.63	53.2
URBAN	33.55	36.5
In the Labor Force	71.23	45.8
Employed	95.27	92.5
Unemployed	4.72	7.5
Not in the Labor Force	28.67	54.2
RURAL	66.45	63.5
In the Labor Force	86.43	47.4
Employed	98.6	92.6
Unemployed	1.4	6.4
Not in the Labor Force	13.57	52.6

B. Class of Worker and Industry Type

The total economically-active population was estimated at 16.668 million in 1978. The wage and salary workers represented 40.9% own

account workers, 38.8% and unpaid family workers, 20%. Majority (78%) of wage and salary workers worked for private companies while only 20% were government employees. Of the own account workers which were placed at about 6.642 million, 92% were self employed. Majority of employed persons were in agricultural and service types of industry.

Females constituted 35.94% of employed persons in 1978. They represented 36% of wage and salary workers, 25.9% of own account workers and 54.94% of unpaid family workers. Some 42.76% of female wage and salary workers were government employees while 34.35% worked for private companies. High percentages of females worked in service and agricultural industries. They were also observed to constitute a majority among self-employed in the industrial and service sectors (Table 2).

C. Distribution by Occupation Groups

Across all occupational groups, females in both urban and rural areas predominate in professional, technical and related work (61.86%); service (57.52%) and sales work (51.0%). Compared to males, they were seldom found in administrative, executive and managerial class of work. While it is true that females were a majority in the professional and technical areas, many were also engaged in service-related work, especially in the urban areas.

Percent Distribution of Female Wage and Salary Workers in Different Occupational Groups

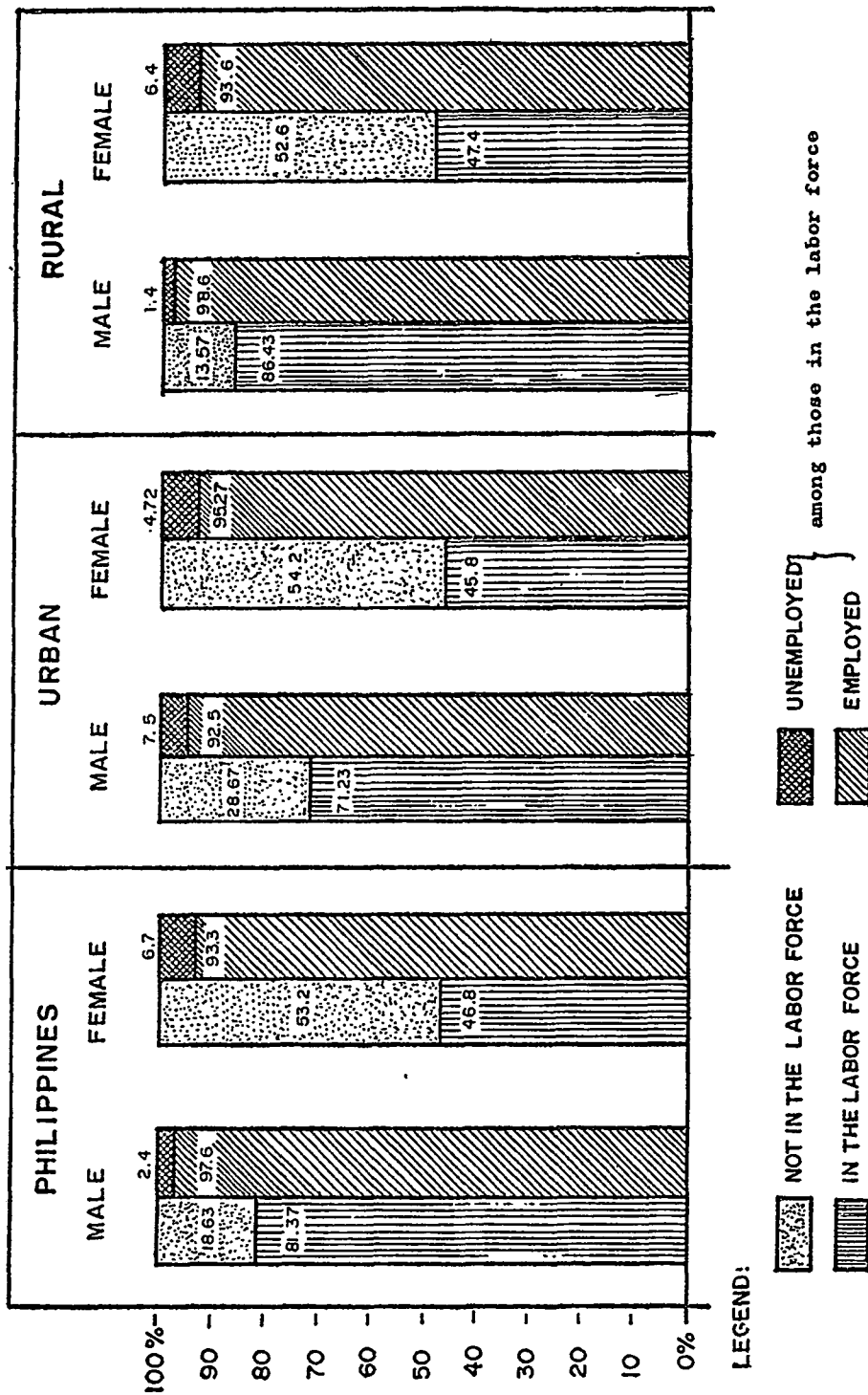
	<i>Urban</i>	<i>Rural</i>	<i>Philippines</i>
Professional, Technical and related workers	24.57	20.14	22.53
Administrative, executive and managerial workers	1.06	.18	.65
Clerical workers	15.75	5.86	11.21
Sales workers	7.31	6.12	6.76
Agricultural, animal husbandry and forestry workers, fishermen and hunters	2.18	30.17	15.04
Service workers	32.03	17.92	25.55
Production, transport and related workers	16.8	19.52	18.05
Occupation not adequately defined	.30	.09	.20
TOTAL	100.00	100.00	100.00

D. Household Headship

Less than one half of all wage and salary workers in 1978 were household heads and more than 90% of this number were males. Both household heads and non-heads were usually found in agricultural industries. Females comprised 6.26% of household heads. The big number of female household heads were in professional, technical and related work, service, sales

COMPARISON OF MALE & FEMALE EMPLOYMENT STATUS

(Population 15 years and over, 1978 fourth quarter)

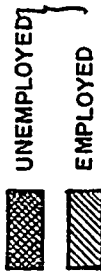


LEGEND:



NOT IN THE LABOR FORCE

IN THE LABOR FORCE



UNEMPLOYED
among those in the labor force

EMPLOYED

and clerical work and seldom in administrative, executive and managerial jobs. (Table 4)

E. Educational Attainment

Majority of employed persons in 1978 attained elementary education while 15% went to college. Among the college-educated, 55% were males. Comparing the distribution of both males and females by educational attainment, however, indicate a higher proportion of female workers with college education (0.128 vs. 0.184) as the figures below indicate:

Percent Distribution of Employed Persons by Educational Attainment

<i>Level</i>	<i>Both Sexes</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
No Grade Completed	6.8	6.4	7.4
Elementary	53.1	53.5	52.2
High School	24.6	26.6	21.2
College	14.8	12.8	18.4
Not Reported	.7	.7	.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

These figures are substantiated by reports from the MEC on tertiary enrollment which indicated increasing proportions of females enrolled in college and thus preparing them for professional and technical or vocational employment.

Percent Female in Tertiary Enrollment SY 1977-1978

<i>Major Field of Study</i>	
College of Education	54.23%
Food & Nutrition	98.88%
Medical Science	86.51%
Chemistry	77.99%
Teacher Education	77.63%
Commerce & Business Administration	66.71%
Liberal Arts & Sciences	62.72%
Agriculture	47.17%
Music and Fine Arts	27.51%
Engineering & Technology	14.09%
Law & Foreign Service	9.37%
Maritime Education	0.91%
Graduate Education	63.99%
Post-Graduate Education	64.69%
Technical/Vocational	50.53%
All Courses	54.06%

Table 5 describes educational qualifications of employed persons in different occupational groups. For both sexes, more than 50% obtained elementary education. These workers, together with those with high school education, were concentrated in agriculture, animal husbandry and related

work. Professionals, technical and related workers and clerical workers were mostly college-educated.

F. *Earnings*

The average quarterly earnings of employed persons during the last quarter of 1978 was P999 or an average of P333 a month. Males averaged P399.33 a month, while the females averaged P215.00. This means that for every peso earned by the male worker, the female gets 54 centavos. The median class is between P500.00 to P999.00. This means that more than half of the total population earned about P750.00 during the quarter. The median class of males falls within the same range as the total population while the median class of females falls one step below, that is P250.00 to P499.00.

Highest average earnings of male and female workers were found in the administrative, executive and managerial types of work, where the male workers averaged P1,644.00 and the female workers averaged P1,296.00 monthly. The lowest earnings are the agricultural, animal husbandry, and forestry workers, fishermen and hunters. The figures were P307.70 for males and P67.00 for females monthly.

Differences in the earnings of female-male workers were greater in agricultural, service and sales work. For every peso earned by a male in agricultural areas, the female gets 22 centavos. And for every peso earnings of the male service and sales workers, the corresponding earnings of the female in the same types of work is 41 and 46 centavos, respectively. In clerical and related types of work, the ratio is higher. The female gets 25 centavos for every male peso. In administrative, executive and managerial work, the ratio is P1.00 is to 79 centavos.

In other areas, e.g., professional, technical and related work, production and transport, the ratio is roughly P1.00 is to 50 centavos with the female workers getting the lesser share. (Table 6)

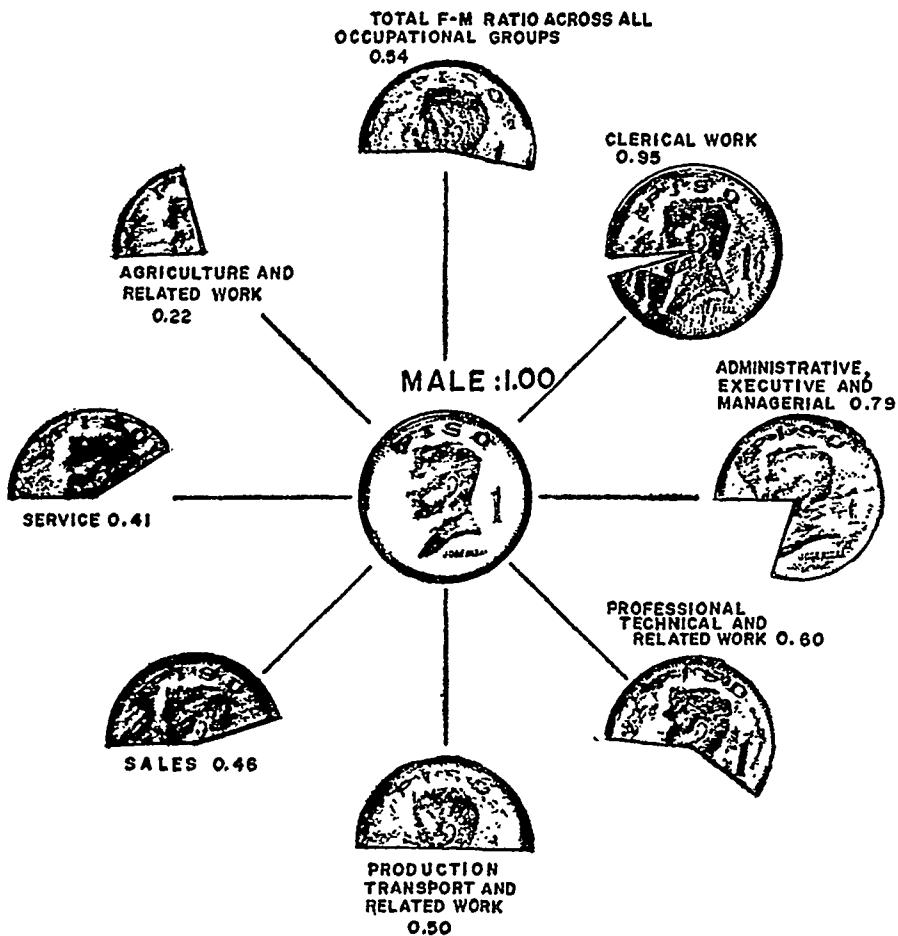
II. GOVERNMENT SECTOR

A. *The Civil Service*

Data from the annual report of government personnel compiled by the Civil Service Commission from 3,283 offices estimated about 1,064,621 government employees in 1979. This represented seven areas of government service: the national government, government owned or controlled corporations, state colleges and universities, schools, provinces, cities and municipalities.

Of the total personnel, 887,220 (83%) were in the career service while 177,401 (71%) held non-career positions. Females comprised

AVERAGE FEMALE-MALE INCOME RATIO BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUP*



* The broken peso coins represent the counterpart earning of a female worker for every peso earned by a male worker, the whole peso in the center.

45.26% of all employees in the civil service; 48.92% in the career service and 26.98% in the non-career service.

1. The Career Service

Positions in the career service are grouped into three major levels:

1) The first level includes clerical, trades, crafts, and custodial service positions which involves non-professional or sub-professional work in a non-supervisory or supervisory capacity requiring less than 4 years of collegiate studies;

2) The second level includes professional, technical and scientific positions which involve professional or scientific work in non-supervisory or supervisory capacity requiring at least 4 years of college work up to Division chief level;

3) The third level covers positions in the career executive service.

The percent distribution of personnel in the career service is as follows:

	Both Sexes	Male	Female
First level	37.85%	48.65%	26.56%
Second level	60.75%	49.29%	72.96%
Third level	1.4%	2.06%	.72%

Female employees in the career service occupied 34% of first level positions, 58.56 of second level and 25% third level positions. The ratio of female to male employees in the third level is 1.3.

In the second level females occupied majority of teaching positions while the males were mostly in non-teaching positions.

Among the female teachers, 86% were in the elementary. Female teachers who occupied administrative positions averaged about 4% in both elementary and secondary levels.

2. Employment Status

Status of appointment in the career service is classified into permanent, temporary and provisional. Employees with permanent appointments in 1979 numbered 689,235 or 77.68% of all career service personnel. Those with temporary appointment represented 15.5% while those with provisional appointment represented 6.8%. The percentage of female by status of appointment is as follows:

Status	%
Permanent	49.4
Temporary	34.3
Provisional	74.8
Total	45.3

The pattern of female representation in the different levels of the career service is similar among permanent, provisional and temporary employees.

Of the 9,017 division chiefs in 1981, females represented 25%. They have the highest proportion among the youngest age group (less than 30 years old) and the lowest among the oldest age group (56-64). The computed median age is 42.99 years, 5 years younger than the male's 47.7 years.

III. THE PRIVATE SECTOR — Metro Manila*

A. *Employment Report*

Employment reports of private establishments in Metro Manila submitted to the Ministry of Labor during the second quarter of 1981 estimated the total employed personnel at about 275,563 from the 2,890 establishments covered. Female employees represented 35% of the total. Majority (53%) of the workers were from the manufacturing sector. Many were also from financing insurance, real estate & business services (15%) and from wholesale and retail (12%). The manufacturing sector was 41% female. Wholesale and retail, financing and related services and community, social and personal services had roughly 34 to 35 percent female employees.

The percent female among currently employed, newly hired and separated workers in private establishments in Metro Manila during the first and second quarters of 1981 is found in Table 9.

B. *Analysis of Termination Clearance Reports Filed at the MOLE National Capitol Region*

Termination clearance reports filed by private establishments in Metro Manila with the Ministry of Labor and Employment National Capital Regional Office were studied, using a sample of the 1981 first, second and third quarter report.** A total of 682 companies reported 6,194 termination cases within the months of February, May and August, 1981.

Information obtained from the reports centered on sex and age distribution of affected personnel, their occupational group, reasons for their termination, length of service and civil status.

The total number of personnel covered by the termination clearance reports included 3,648 males and 2,546 females with majority coming from

* Time and resource constraints limited this inquiry into employment in the private sector to available data in Metro Manila.

** Because of the bulk of the termination cases reported, sampling was done using the mid-month of the first, second and third quarters of 1981 as the primary sampling unit and one day each week as the ultimate sampling unit, equivalent to 12 sampling days (3 months x 4 days). A complete enumeration was made of cases filed within the days included in the sample. Predetermined days were Tuesday for the first; Wednesday for the second, Thursday for the third; and Friday for the fourth week. If any of the day's report was missing, Monday was substituted.

the manufacturing sector. The distribution of both sexes by age group, civil status and length of service follows:

<i>Age Group</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
16-25	915	478
26-35	739	310
36-45	185	40
46-55	69	11
56-65	24	1
66 +	3	—
Not Stated	1,713	1,706
Total	3,648	2,546
<i>Civil Status</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Single	828	595
Ever Married	874	249
Not Stated	1,946	1,702
Total	3,648	2,546
<i>Length of Service</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
Below 1 year	1,125	875
1-5 years	1,754	781
6-10 years	337	207
11 + years	174	61
Not Stated	759	622
Total	3,648	2,546

On reasons for action taken against affected personnel, Table 10 reveals interesting information on male-female work performance. It is apparent that actions taken against male workers are caused by action or misbehavior on their part. For example, about 80% of those suspended or laid off because of violation of company rules and regulations and 73% of those suspended or laid-off because of absenteeism and tardiness were males. During economic crisis, however, employers appear to consider the females as first among those due for separation or lay off. Note that an average of 60% of those separated or laid off during severe economic losses, retrenchment and partial shutdown were females.

C. Analysis of Complaint Cases Filed by Women Workers in Metro Manila

In 1979, the Bureau of Women and Minors conducted a study on cases filed by women workers with the Docket Section of the National Capital Region Office of the Ministry of Labor. A total of 318 complaint sheets involving 1,131 workers were processed.

Findings indicate that a majority of the complainants (72%) were women workers. Complaints mostly came from women in the manufacturing section (35%) and community, social and personal services sector

(31%, who are daily wage earners (85%) and affiliated with unions (60%).

The majority of complaints filed by women workers were wage related. These included violation of Presidential Decrees No. 525 (Making Mandatory Payment of Emergency Allowance under LOI 174), 928 (Amended by P.D. 1389 adjusting existing statutory minimum wage), 851 (Requiring all employers to pay their employees a 13-month pay), 1123 (Increasing cost of living allowance based on PD 525), 1634 (Providing for additional mandatory emergency living allowance for wage earners) non-payment of overtime work, legal holiday, indemnity, service incentive leave, commission, etc. Also outstanding were cases of illegal dismissal or lay-off.

PART THREE

A STUDY ON WOMEN IN THE LABOR FORCE IN METRO MANILA

An exploratory study was conducted among a sample of working women in Metro Manila in order to ascertain their working conditions, living situation, as well as perception of their role, with the end in view of finding out if there is discrimination against them in the labor force and if there is, its nature and extent.

The study focused on women employed as sales workers, professional/technical workers, and clerical workers since approximately three-fifths of the female labor force of Metro Manila are engaged in these occupations. The sample of respondents was limited to 105 employees of 23 of the top 1000 corporations. The actual distribution of women workers interviewed is as follows: 34 sales workers, 30 professional/technical workers, and 41 clerical workers.

A majority of the women were interviewed outside their respective places of work in order to minimize the influence of their employer on the workers' responses to the interview questions. In a few cases, the employer/supervisors did not mind having the interviews conducted at the workplace even during the official hours of work.

Profile of Women Workers

The typical female *sales worker* is single, between 25-44 years old, a college undergraduate. On the other hand, the typical *professional/technical worker* is married, also between 25-44 years old, and a college graduate. The typical female *clerical worker* may be single or married, between 25-44 years old, also a college graduate..

Four out of every ten women workers in these occupations are natives of Metro Manila. Among the migrants, from 55% to 77% have at least five years residence in Manila.

Status of Women as Income Earners

Female clerical workers are mostly secondary income earners (69%). Sales workers are equally distributed among secondary income earners (52%) and those who are self-supporting or the sole or main breadwinners of their family (48%). Professional/technical workers are mostly self-supporting or the sole or main breadwinners of their family (67%) rather than just secondary income earners.

*Status of Women as Income Earners
Among, Sales, Professional/Technical and Clerical Workers*

<i>Status</i>	<i>Sales %</i>	<i>Professional Technical %</i>	<i>Clerical %</i>
Self-supporting	9	33	7
Sole breadwinner	18	7	5
Main breadwinner	20	27	7
Equally supporting			12
Sub-total	47	67	31
Secondary income earner	53	33	69
TOTAL	100	100	100

Among the secondary income earners, the professional/technical group can contribute the most to the total family income, that is, from one-third to one-half of total family income. Both sales workers and clerical workers can contribute from at least 20% to 50% of the total family income.

*Contribution of Female Secondary Income Earners
to Total Family Income*

<i>Per Cent Contribution</i>	<i>Sales %</i>	<i>Professional Technical %</i>	<i>Clerical %</i>
5% — 9%			
10% — 20 %	35		18
21% — 30%	6		30
31% — 40%	18	30	41
41% — 50%	18	70	4
51% +	23		7
TOTAL	100	100	100

The findings of the survey confirm that the husband's income is not sufficient to provide for the family. However, women's perception of themselves as secondary income earners rather than co-partners with their spouse in those cases where they in fact both contribute to the finances of the family is worthy of note.

Time Allocation

Sales workers report the longest working hours (almost 10 hours per day) representing almost 40% of the regular day. Clerical workers report the shortest working hours (8 hours 22 minutes), representing less than 30% of the regular day. Professional/technical workers report long working hours (almost 9 hours), representing almost 35% of the regular day.

Although no group of workers seem to be losing sleep or relaxation because of work, homework is definitely sacrificed as a result of working outside the house. Clerical workers (who work the shortest hours relative to the 2 other groups) devote more hours to housework (7 hours 17 minutes or 25.6% of the regular day). Professional/technical workers who work almost 9 hours do housework for about 5 hours, or 20% of the day. And, salesworkers who work almost 10 hours are able to devote the least time to housework—4 hours or 16.4% of their day.

Travel time constitutes 4.7% of the day for salesworkers (who spend about 1 hour to and from work); 5.3% for clerical workers (who spend travel time of 1 hour 30 minutes); and 7.7% of professional/technical workers time (almost 2 hours of travel time).

Time estimates of 7 out of 10 women workers indicate a full day. Time allocation of the three occupational groups is summarized here.

*Time Use Data
Among Sales, Professional/Technical and Clerical Workers*

	Sales			Professional/ Technical			Clerical		
	Average Time		Per Cent	Average Time		Per Cent	Average Time		Per Cent
Housework and Marketing	4 hrs. 4 min		16.4	5 hrs. 9 min		20.0	7 hrs. 17 min		25.6
Travel to/from work	1 hr. 7 min		4.7	1 hr. 58 min		7.7	1 hr. 30 min		5.3
Sleep and relaxa- tion	9 hrs. 38 min		39.0	9 hrs. 42 min		37.7	11 hrs. 18 min		39.7
work	9 hrs. 52 min		39.9	8 hrs. 54 min		34.6	8 hrs. 22 min		29.4
TOTAL based on average	24 hrs. 41 min		100.0	25 hrs. 43 min		100.0	28 hrs. 27 min		100.0

Areas of Discrimination Against Women at Work

Women generally perceive the treatment of men and women at work as equal. However, in the areas of training opportunities, promotion, and lay-offs, there are indications of discrimination against women.

Fourteen respondents (13%) claimed that *training opportunities* for male and female workers are unequal. The reasons or explanations given hint at discrimination against women (though this is not necessarily limited to company policies or procedures but may include the attitude of the women respondents themselves in terms of stereotyping of roles of men and women. Examples of responses are:

- more men/only men receive training
- males need more training, depending on their work
- often, it is the man who receive the opportunity for training
- mostly, men are in top management; that's why there are more men sent as representatives to training seminars
- managerial; men; clerical, women

In the area of promotions, 26 respondents (25%) claimed that there is a difference between male and female workers. Differences cited that hint at discrimination against women are the following:

- men are promoted in a shorter time
- more men are promoted because top management is comprised mainly of men
- males make better salesmen
- males are usually considered for the decision-making positions
- males can afford to give greater output than females
- females have a higher percentage of absences for reasons of family need
- subordinates are males only; therefore, company requires males for supervisory position
- more males for managerial positions
- female manager did not handle the position satisfactorily

In the sales field, six respondents (18% of 34) claimed that more women are promoted, explaining that they deserve to be promoted because they are more hard-working, come to work on-time, are more responsible, and can assume supervisory positions.

Lay-offs are apparently a common occurrence and the workers reported an unequal male-female ratio in the employees terminated. However, workers' estimates in this regard are fuzzy, and conclusions must await more objective data.

A discussion of company policies with the women workers pointed to two areas of possible discrimination against women—*retirement policies* which retire females five years earlier than men (for instance, 55 or 60 years for females, and 60 to 65 years for males) and *recruitment practices*.

Some 13 of the 23 companies represented in the survey had some policy, mostly unwritten, that discriminates against married women. Single applicants are given preference in these companies. Once employed, however, particularly for those employees with regular/permanent status, marriage generally become one's own business. The exceptions are: three companies where employees married to each other must work in separate departments; and one company where husband and wife cannot work in the same company.

Why Women Want to Remain in the Labor Force

Eight out of every ten women who are now working in sales, clerical, or professional/technical fields want to remain in the labor force: they want to keep on working even under the fortunate circumstance of having a husband who can fully support the family financially.

The reasons for wanting to continue to work are varied; these may be classified as economic (for both present and future needs), self-fulfillment, desire for independence, boredom, and other aspirations. The occupational groupings represented in the survey manifest different mental sets judging from the emphasis they place on reasons for wanting to work.

Sales workers' reasons are largely economic. Many of them cannot to cope with the present economic conditions. A significant number of respondents in this occupational group repeatedly associated boredom with staying at home. The need to feel independent of the husband is not very pronounced but is nevertheless mentioned in terms of the need to have one's own money for personal needs.

Among *professional/technical* workers, the economic need is also felt. Respondents are ever conscious of spiralling prices of commodities, and see the need for the wife to help in family economics. The need to feel productive in the sense of "generating money"; rather than merely being "reproductive" is also expressed. Among this group of workers, selfdevelopment is highly emphasized. Respondents do not want the educational attainment and talents of the wife wasted by not working. For this group, too, shared responsibility in providing for the education of the children is seen as important.

Respondents belonging to the *clerical workers'* group expressed the needs for the wife to work in more graphic terms: they are insecure about the stability of the husband's job; men are not always strong—they may

get sick and die; therefore, there must be someone in the family to fall back on.

Respondents in this group also expressed the need for "improvement" (not to waste their education, skills and ability, although the term 'career' never came up), but more especially, the need to "prove" themselves. Work means being "always on the go" and "socializing", i.e., meeting other people (which is their concept of knowledge and development).

The most remarkable opinions characterizing the respondents from the clerical field are those expressing the need to be independent of the husband: to have her "own money" for her own "personal needs" and "personal desires" which are basically associated with beauty and good grooming.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Putting together the three parts of this inquiry, the following emerge:

1. The constitutional policy on employment is to accord women equality of treatment. The Labor Code as implementing legislation spelling out the details prohibits and penalizes sex-based discrimination, but at the same time makes special provisions on women. International commitments reinforce the policy against discrimination on the basis of sex.
2. The constitutional and legal guarantees of equality of treatment have been invoked in cases involving discrimination based on sex. The MOLE applies them, but there are issues yet to be finally resolved.
3. The NCRFW has been constituted as the mechanism for monitoring compliance with constitutional, statutory and treaty obligations to eliminate all forms of discrimination against women.
4. However, the actual situation of women in the employment field suggests that there is a long way to go before women achieve equal treatment, specifically at the recruitment, promotion and termination stages.
5. In spite of the fact that the female component of the population comes from to about 50% and women make up 50.51% of the fifteen years and above who are eligible for membership in the labor force, they constitute only 35.9% of the total employed population. The major portion (62.2%) of the unemployed are women; and among those classified as persons *not in the labor force are housewives* together with other persons not working and not look-

ing for work. However, it is a matter of public knowledge that *housewives* work and researches show that the time they put in everyday exceeds the eight hours of usual outside employment.

6. The data gathered in the National Capital Region (NCR) show that in cases of economic losses, retrenchment or partial shutdown, women are the first in the redundancy lists.
7. Employers and women themselves, by and large consider their employment as secondary, even if they contribute equally to the family income or are its principal source. These attitudes on women can have significant effect on their recruitment, training opportunities, promotions and lay-offs.
8. The stereotyping of male-female jobs influences employment policies and practices which not even high educational attainment has succeeded in overcoming.
9. Women occupy the lower employment ranks in both the public and private sectors and women in the same occupational groups as men on the average receive lower compensation.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

1. There still remains in the law vestiges of discrimination which adversely affect women in employment. Every effort needs to be made to expunge these provisions from the statute books.
2. The constitution, legislation and binding international commitments guarantee equality of treatment to woman. However, between the letter of the law and its implementation is a gap that can only be bridged if there is effective machinery to ensure affirmative action and adequate relief. LOI No. 974 is a good beginning. It reminds the offices concerned of the requirements of the law (constitutional, statutory, and international binding agreements) to ensure equality of treatment of women in employment and directs them to take affirmative steps toward compliance. A monitoring agency has been designed. But the experience of countries like the United Kingdom, Norway, Sweden and the United States demonstrates that not only should affirmative action be required but an efficient machinery to grant relief needs to be instituted. It is recommended that institutions like the British Equal Opportunities Commission, the Equality Ombudsman of Sweden and Norway, the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunities Commission be examined and a counterpart be set up in the Philippines so that employment opportunities between men and women can be effectively implemented.
3. There is need for reliable data concerning women in the labor force and further research is indicated on its manifold aspects.

It is recommended that, to start with, record keeping should include a breakdown into male/female categories, and that priority be given to formulation a workable basis for giving economic value to the unpaid work done by women in the home who make it possible for others to hold outside jobs.

4. The recruitment and migration of women for employment abroad are not included in this study, not because this aspect of employment policies and discrimination against women is not important. On the contrary, because of its importance it deserves a separate and more thorough treatment.
5. Women are only beginning to become aware of discrimination against them and to invoke the law and policies assuring them equality of treatment. It is recommended that steps be taken to fully acquaint them of their legal rights and the remedies available. Additionally provisions for legal assistance should be made on their behalf.

Table 2
NUMBER OF EMPLOYED PERSONS BY CLASS OF WORKERS,
TYPE OF INDUSTRY AND SEX

Type of Industry & Sex	Total	Wage and Salary Workers Total	Private	Own Family Enterprise	Own Government	Total Account Workers	Self-Employed	Employed	Unpaid Family Workers	Not Reported
PHILIPPINES-Both Sexes	16,668	6,816	5,354	122	1,340	6,462	5,947	515	3,358	32
Male	10,667	4,362	3,515	79	767	4,788	4,375	418	1,513	15
Female	5,991	2,454	1,839	43	573	1,674	1,572	102	1,845	18
% F	35.94	36.00	34.35	35.25	42.76	25.90	26.43	19.80	54.94	56.25
AGRICULTURAL-Both Sexes	8,702	1,451	1,369	54	28	4,386	4,088	297	2,861	4
Male	6,393	1,079	1,011	43	25	3,928	3,666	262	1,384	3
Female	2,309	373	358	11	3	458	423	35	1,477	1
% F	26.53	25.70	26.15	20.37	10.71	10.44	10.35	11.78	51.62	25.00
INDUSTRIAL-Both Sexes	2,518	1,810	1,713	28	69	562	474	88	140	6
Male	1,583	1,325	1,248	16	61	222	155	68	32	4
Female	935	486	465	13	8	339	319	21	108	1
% F	37.13	26.85	27.14	46.43	11.59	60.32	67.30	23.86	77.14	16.67
SERVICES-Both Sexes	5,394	3,523	2,244	40	1,239	1,505	1,377	128	355	12
Male	2,667	1,936	1,236	21	679	631	549	82	96	4
Female	2,727	1,586	1,007	19	560	874	828	46	259	8
% F	50.56	45.02	44.87	47.50	45.20	58.07	60.13	35.94	72.96	66.67
NOT REPORTED-Both Sexes	54	32	28	—	3	9	8	2	3	10
Male	33	22	20	—	2	7	5	8	1	3
Female	21	10	8	—	1	2	2	—	2	7
% F	38.89	31.25	28.57	—	33.33	22.22	25.00	—	66.67	70.00

Table 4

WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS, BY MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP
WHETHER HEAD OF HOUSEHOLD OR NON HEAD AND SEX
4TH QUARTER 1978

MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP	BOTH SEXES				MALE				FEMALE				% FEMALE	
	Total	Head	Non Head	Total	Total	Head	Non Head	Total	Total	Head	Non Head	Total	Head	Non Head
PHILIPPINES	6,816	2,813	4,003	4,362	2,637	1,725	2,454	176	2,278	36.00%	6.26%	56.91%		
Professional, Technical and Related Workers	894	296	598	341	248	93	553	48	505	61.86%	16.22%	84.45%		
Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	103	74	34	91	71	20	16	2	14	14.81%	2.07%	41.18%		
Clerical Workers	655	268	388	380	251	129	276	17	259	42.14%	6.34%	66.75%		
Sales Workers	326	100	226	160	91	70	166	10	156	50.92%	10.00%	69.03%		
Service Worker	1,090	286	804	462	253	209	627	33	595	57.52%	11.54%	74.00%		
Agricultural, Animal Husbandry and Forestry Workers, Fisherman & Hunters	1,402	585	817	1,033	540	493	369	45	323	26.32%	7.69%	39.53%		
Production & Related Workers, Transport Equipment Operators & Laborers	2,316	1,194	1,123	1,873	1,172	701	443	22	421	19.13%	1.84%	37.49%		
Occupation not Adequately Defined	25	11	14	20	11	9	5	—	5	20.00%	—	35.71%		

¹ Source: National Census and Statistics Office.

Table 5
NUMBER OF EMPLOYED PERSONS BY HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED
AND SEX, 4TH QUARTER, 1978¹ (In thousands)

	Total		No Grade Completed		Elementary		High School		College		Not Reported	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
PHILIPPINES-ALL INDUSTRIES	10,677	5,991	689	443	5,714	3,130	2,836	1,268	1,368	1,105	71	46
Professional, Technical Related Workers	377	575	1	3	11	13	39	14	317	530	10	15
Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	144	28	—	—	17	4	26	3	99	21	2	1
Clerical & Related Workers	385	280	—	—	35	5	129	29	211	240	9	4
Sales Workers	607	1,152	19	55	227	599	217	344	138	147	5	7
Service Workers	520	751	7	36	146	437	233	228	130	48	4	3
Agricultural, Animal Husbandry and Forestry Workers, Fishermen and Hunters	6,355	2,310	607	265	4,261	1,617	1,247	360	207	58	32	10
Production and Related Workers												
Transport Equipments Operators and Laborers	2,266	881	55	82	1,009	447	939	290	255	57	7	5
Occupation not Adequately Defined and Forestry	24	13	—	1	7	18	7	358	10	5	—	—

¹ Source: National Census and Statistics Office

Table 6
Number of Employed Persons by Total Earnings, By Major Occupation Group and Sex, Fourth Quarter, 1978 (In Thousands)

MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP		No	Under P250 to P499	P500 to P999	P1,000/ P2,499	P2,500/ P4,999	P5,000/ P9,999	P10,000 & over	Not Reported	Average Earning (P)	Ratio F/M
SEX	Total Earnings	P250	P499	P999	P2,499	P4,999	P9,999	& over	Reported	Earning (P)	
PHILIPPINES											
TOTAL	16,668	3,013	1,906	2,283	3,892	4,442	805	262	65	999	
Male	10,677	1,307	561	1,332	2,900	3,330	672	223	52	1,198	.54
Female	5,991	1,706	1,044	951	992	1,112	133	39	13	645	.54
Professional, Technical and											
Related Workers	952	5	18	15	68	674	136	30	5	2,192	.60
Male	377	5	6	17	24	211	100	25	3	2,869	
Female	575	3	12	9	45	463	36	5	2	1,715	
Administrative, Executive &											
Managerial Workers	1,172	3	65	4	8	60	38	38	46	4,761	.79
Male	1,144	2	5	4	36	1,448	30	35	143	4,932	
Female	28	1	—	—	2	11	8	4	3	3,888	
Clerical & Related Workers											
Male	665	2	11	21	147	402	67	14	1	1,620	.95
Female	385	1	5	11	67	229	47	4	1	1,654	
Sales Workers	280	2	6	9	60	574	20	10	1	1,573	.46
Male	1,759	289	161	329	475	339	111	38	16	1,114	
Female	607	74	30	59	166	107	76	25	10	1,715	
Service Workers	1,152	215	131	271	310	172	35	13	6	798	
Male	1,271	50	246	342	246	338	39	9	1	1,831	.41
Female	520	14	40	57	108	267	27	8	1	1,280	
	751	36	207	285	138	71	12	1	1	521	

Table 6 (continued)

MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP SEX	No		Under		P500 to		P500 to		P5,000/		P10,000		Not Average Ration Reported Earning F/M (P)
	Total	Earnings	P250	P499	P250 to	P499	P500 to	P999	P2,499	P2,500/	P4,999	P5,000/	
Agricultural, Animal Husbandry & Forestry Workers, Fishermen and Hunters	8,665	2,522	1,083	1,200	2,006	1,423	306	109	16	—	—	730	.22
	6,355	1,179	658	974	1,770	1,363	289	105	15	—	—	923	
	2,310	1,342	425	226	235	60	17	4	1	—	—	201	
Production & Related Workers, Transport Equipment Operators & Laborers	3,147	133	381	370	933	1,189	107	23	10	—	—	1,050	.50
	2,266	33	119	218	731	1,034	101	22	9	—	—	1,219	
	881	100	263	152	202	156	6	2	1	—	—	616	
Occupation Not Adequately Defined	37	7	1	1	9	17	2	—	—	—	—	1,035	.51
	24	1	—	1	8	12	2	—	—	—	—	1,256	
	13	7	1	—	1	5	—	—	—	—	—	636	

SOURCE: National Census and Statistics Office

Table.7

**PERCENT FEMALE AMONG CAREER AND NON-CAREER
SERVICE EMPLOYEES
(As of December 31, 1979)**

<i>EMPLOYMENT BY CATEGORY AND LEVEL</i>	<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>	<i>Both Sexes</i>	<i>% Female</i>
PHILIPPINES, TOTAL	582,749	481,872	1,064,621	45.26
1-Career Service	453,210	434,010	887,220	48.92
A. First Level	220,508	115,273	335,781	34.33
B. Second Level	223,386	315,632	539,018	58.56
1. Non-teachers	156,712	102,016	258,728	39.43
2. Teachers	66,674	213,616	280,290	76.23
a. Elementary Level	55,113	183,134	238,247	76.87
1. Classroom	47,847	176,103	223,950	78.63
2. Administrative	7,266	7,031	14,297	49.18
b. Secondary Level	11,561	30,482	42,043	72.50
1. Classroom	10,085	28,985	39,070	74.19
2. Administrative	1,476	1,497	2,973	50.35
C. Third Level	9,316	3,105	12,421	25.00
11-Non-Career Service	129,539	47,862	177,401	26.98
A. Regular	31,932	12,418	44,350	28.00
B. Casual	82,705	29,058	111,763	26.00
C. Contractual	14,902	6,386	21,288	30.00

Source: Civil Service Commission

Table 8

**COMPARATIVE DISTRIBUTION OF MALE AND FEMALE CIVIL SERVANTS
IN DIFFERENT EMPLOYMENT CATEGORIES
TOTAL EMPLOYEES**

<i>PHILIPPINES</i>	<i>MALE</i>	<i>% *</i>	<i>FEMALE</i>	<i>% *</i>	<i>BOTH SEXES</i>	<i>% *</i>
	582,749	100.00	481,872	100.00	1,064,621	100.00
CAREER SERVICE	453,210	77.77	434,010	100.00	887,220	100.00
FIRST LEVEL **	220,508	48.65	115,273	26.56	335,781	37.85
SECOND LEVEL **	223,386	49.29	316,632	72.72	539,018	60.75
THIRD LEVEL **	9,316	2.06	3,105	.72	12,421	1.4
NON-CAREER	129,539	22.23	47,862	9.93	177,401	16.66

* Career service + % non-career service = PHILIPPINES = 100%

* First Level + % second level + % third level = CAREER SERVICE = 100%

** First Level is lowest and third level is highest level.

Source: Civil Service Commission

Table 9

**Percent Female Among Currently Employed
Newly Hired and Separated Workers
in Private Establishments in Metro Manila
(1st and 2nd Quarters, 1981)**

	<i>Currently Employed</i>		<i>Newly Hired</i>		<i>Separated</i>	
	<i>Q1</i>	<i>Q2</i>	<i>Q1</i>	<i>Q2</i>	<i>Q1</i>	<i>Q2</i>
1. Agriculture, Forestry & Fishery	6.44	6.60	9.3	6.96	2.63	5.0
2. Mining & Quarrying	20.03	18.01	10.15	14.63	9.56	11.11
3. Manufacturing	40.86	40.89	43.25	40.68	37.26	37.62
4. Construction	14.22	5.68	4.27	7.33	1.41	2.54
5. Wholesale & Retail	33.56	34.00	32.13	53.34	33.92	30.09
6. Transportation, Storage & Communication	22.38	20.47	25.77	12.85	19.36	10.22
7. Financing, Insurance Real Estate, and Business Services	44.08	34.94	57.72	50.35	48.86	43.81
8. Community, Social and Personal Services	36.39	33.66	26.93	29.22	28.07	25.29
All Sectors	36.06	34.99	33.74	37.50	29.23	30.55

Source: Public Employment Office, Ministry of Labor and Employment.

Table 10
TOTAL AFFECTED PERSONNEL BY CIVIL STATUS AND REASONS FOR ACTION

REASONS FOR ACTION	MALE			FEMALE			GRAND TOTAL	PERCENT FEMALE
	S *	EM *	NS *	S *	EM *	NS *		
1. Resignation	411	418	599	335	89	270	2,122	32.7
2. Abandonment of Work/ Gross Negligence	24	37	97	158	9	30	206	23.30
3. Violation of co. rules and regulations	116	140	203	459	50	52	580	20.86
4. Transfer	7	6	6	19	2	—	23	17.39
5. Unsatisfactory performance	22	23	17	67	6	23	110	39.09
6. Severe economic losses financial difficulties	—	—	405	405	89	47	1,230	67.07
7. Retrenchment	3	12	3	18	1	34	53	66.04
8. Partial Shutdown	49	41	260	330	3	446	781	57.75
9. Retirement	4	26	12	42	1	2	45	6.67
10. Disciplinary action	18	23	10	51	—	2	54	5.56
11. Absenteeism & Tardiness	82	123	175	290	39	28	370	27.30
12. End of contract	68	47	175	290	15	24	331	12.39

* S = Single; EM = Ever-married; NS = Not Stated

Source: National Capital Regional Office
Ministry of Labor and Employment

Table 11

WAGE AND SALARY WORKERS BY MAJOR OCCUPATION
GROUPS, SEX, URBAN AND RURAL, 4TH QUARTER 1978
(IN THOUSANDS)

MAJOR OCCUPATION GROUP	PHILIPPINES				URBAN				RURAL			
	Total	Male	Female	% Female	Total	Male	Female	% Female	Total	Male	Female	% Female
PHILIPPINES	6,817	4,363	2,454	36.0	3,458	2,131	1,327	38.4	3,359	2,232	1,127	33.6
Professional, Technical and related workers	894	341	553	61.9	552	226	326	59.1	342	115	227	66.4
Administrative, Executive and Managerial Workers	108	92	16	14.8	90	76	14	15.6	18	16	2	11.1
Clerical Workers	655	380	275	42.0	482	273	209	43.4	173	100	66	38.2
Sales Workers	326	160	166	51.0	213	116	97	45.5	113	44	69	61.1
Agricultural, Animal Hus- bandry and Forestry Workers, Fisherman and hunters	1,402	1,003	369	26.3	137	108	29	21.2	1,265	925	340	26.9
Service Workers	1,090	463	627	57.5	733	308	425	58.0	357	155	202	56.6
Production and related workers, Transport Equip- ment Operators & Laborers	2,316	1,873	443	19.1	1,233	1,010	223	18.1	1,081	863	220	20.3
Occupation not Adequately Defined	26	21	5	19.2	18	14	4	22.2	8	7	1	12.5

Source: National Census and Statistics Office